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Youth Unemployment and High School Dropouts in Providence: An Analysis of the Dropout-Unemployment Problem and the Job Training Programs Available for Dropouts

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YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUTS IN PROVIDENCE: AN ANALYSIS OF THE DROPOUT-UNEMPLOYMENT PROBLEM AND THE JOB TRAINING PROGRAMS AVAILABLE FOR DROPOUTS

BY

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ABSTRACT

In this thesis project, the problem of youth unemployment, particularly among high school dropouts, is first examined from a national view, reviewing national trends and characteristics of the youth unemployment-high school dropout problem. A cursory review of the literature on the particular problem of youth unemployment and high school dropouts is conducted in order to focus on the youth unemployment-high school dropout sitation in Providence with a conceptual understanding of the problem.

Various methodologies are used in the analysis of the problem in Providence combined with the collection and analysis of limited data sources that are available. A general conclusion of this analysis is that the youth unemployment problem is likely to worsen over the next few years, especially among high school dropouts and minorities. The major factors attributed to this projected increase in youth unemployment are: (1) the continuing trend in the local labor market of unfavorable job opportunities for youth, and (2) the projected increase in the minority youth population. The analysis reveals that high school dropouts in the Rhode Island labor market enter the lowest paying jobs and are at a considerable competitive disadvantage even though the predominance of manufacturing jobs in the state have minimal or no educational or skills requirements.

Job training programs for youth high school dropouts are examined. It is concluded that these programs are reasonably

successful in terms of increasing the employability of youth dropouts, although there are differences in the placement rates and entry wage levels of the various programs. Statistical analysis of the participant characteristics and their termination status reveals that the most significant participant related factor affecting positive termination is the length of unemployment experienced by participants prior to their entering the job training program. Participants who were unemployed for the longest periods of time prior to their enrollment in the program were the most likely to have a negative termination status. It is concluded that the long-term impact of the programs in terms of increasing the employability of youth dropouts is questionable. Little or no follow-up evaluations are routinely conducted by Providence C.E.T.A. Prime Sponsor. As part of this study, a six-month follow-up survey of Y.E.T.P. participants in 1978 was conducted through Providence C.E.T.A. Although the number of survey responses were insufficient for making definitive conclusions, these were two indications that appear to be significant: (1) that a substantial number of Y.E.T.P. participants of 1978 are now unemployed and looking for work, and (2) that a relatively small proportion of the participants have received their high school equivalences as an outcome of the program.

Finally, recommendations are made in terms of the following strategy areas: (1) reduce youth unemployment through an intensified economic development effort in Providence, (2) improve C.E.T.A. youth programs in terms of routine follow-up evaluations, a re-emphasis of the remedial education aspects of the programs, and the development of stronger, formal linkages with private sector employees; (3)

improve information systems on high school dropouts to include their labor force status after dropping out--through the use of surveys and studies, and (4) conduct further studies of the Providence School System in terms of the availability and effectiveness of dropout prevention programs, work-education programs, and efforts directed toward easing the school-to-work transition of youths, particularly economically disadvantaged youths.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER I

YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

Throughout recent history, unemployment rates have been higher for youths entering the labor market than any other subgroups of the population. There are many and varied reasons and theories attempting to explain why this is so. Within the youth population the unemployment situation of those lacking a high school education is the most severe. In addition to the many factors that relate to the youth unemployment problem, high school dropouts have an additional barrier to employment, the lack of a high school diploma. In order that the high school dropout unemployment problem be fully understood, the unemployment situation of youths in general must first be examined.

This chapter examines the youth unemployment in the United States by first identifying the characteristics of the problem, secondly, discussing causes and factors relating to the problem, and thirdly, reviewing the federal programs aimed at the reduction of youth unemployment. The employment situation of high school dropouts is discussed in the context of the general problem of youth unemployment in the United States. Within the context of this national view, the employment situation of high school dropouts in Providence can be better understood.

A. Characteristics of Youth Unemployment in the United States

Trends in Youth Unemployment

In 1978, the youth unemployment rate was nearly four times that of the adult population. Among Black youths, the unemployment

rate was roughly seven times that of adults. In general, unemployment rates for women are higher than rates for men with Black men and women having the highest unemployment rates of all. Table 1 below illustrates the vast differences in the unemployment rates of various age, sex, and racial subgroups of the population in 1978.

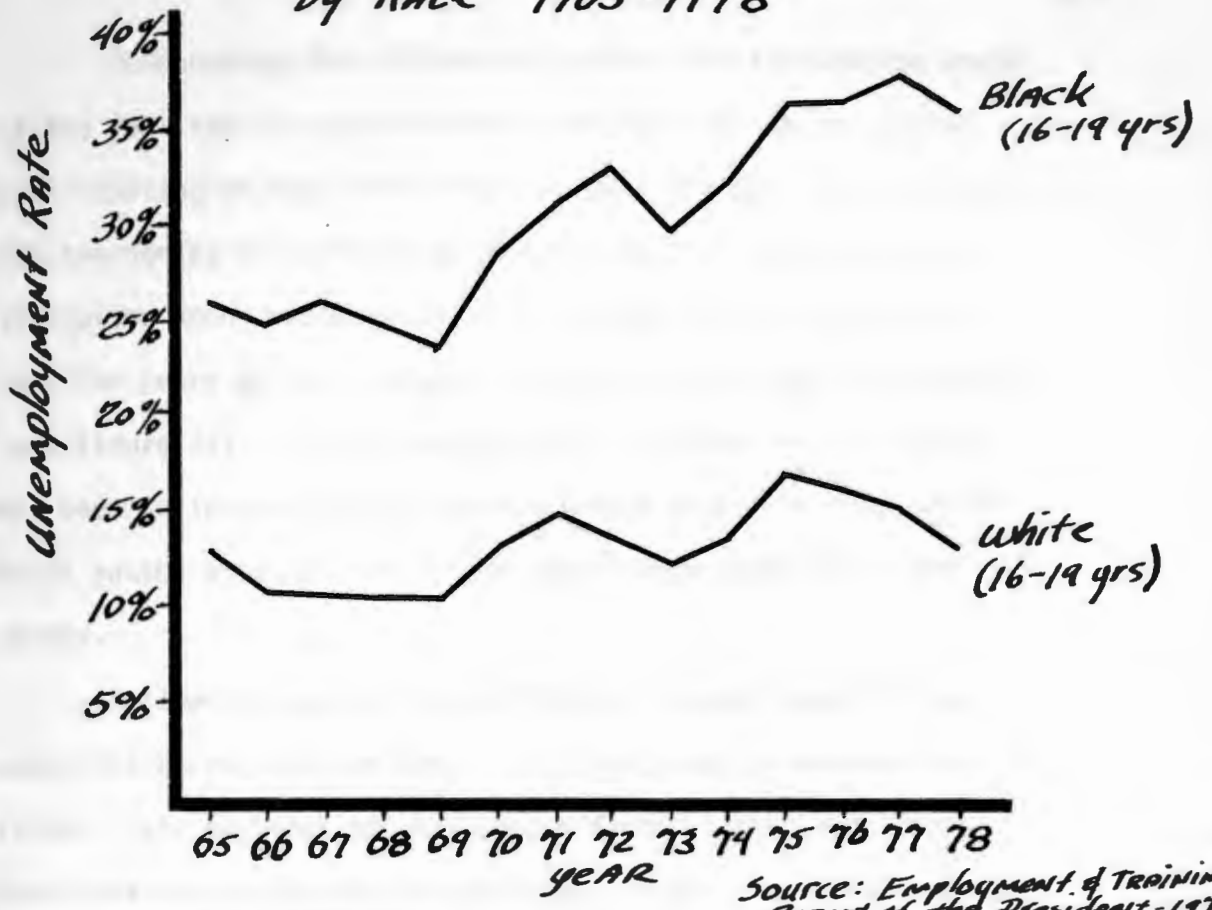
Table 1.--Unemployment Rates of the Civilian Population by Sex, Race, and Age, 1978 Annual Averages

Age Group	White		Black	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
16 yrs. and over	4.5	6.2	10.9	13.1
16-19 yrs.	13.5	14.4	34.4	38.4
16-17 yrs.	16.9	17.1	40.0	41.7
18-19 yrs.	10.8	12.4	30.8	36.5
20-64 yrs.	3.7	5.3	8.7	10.8

Source: Employment and Earnings, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Jan., 1979, Vol. 26, No. 1

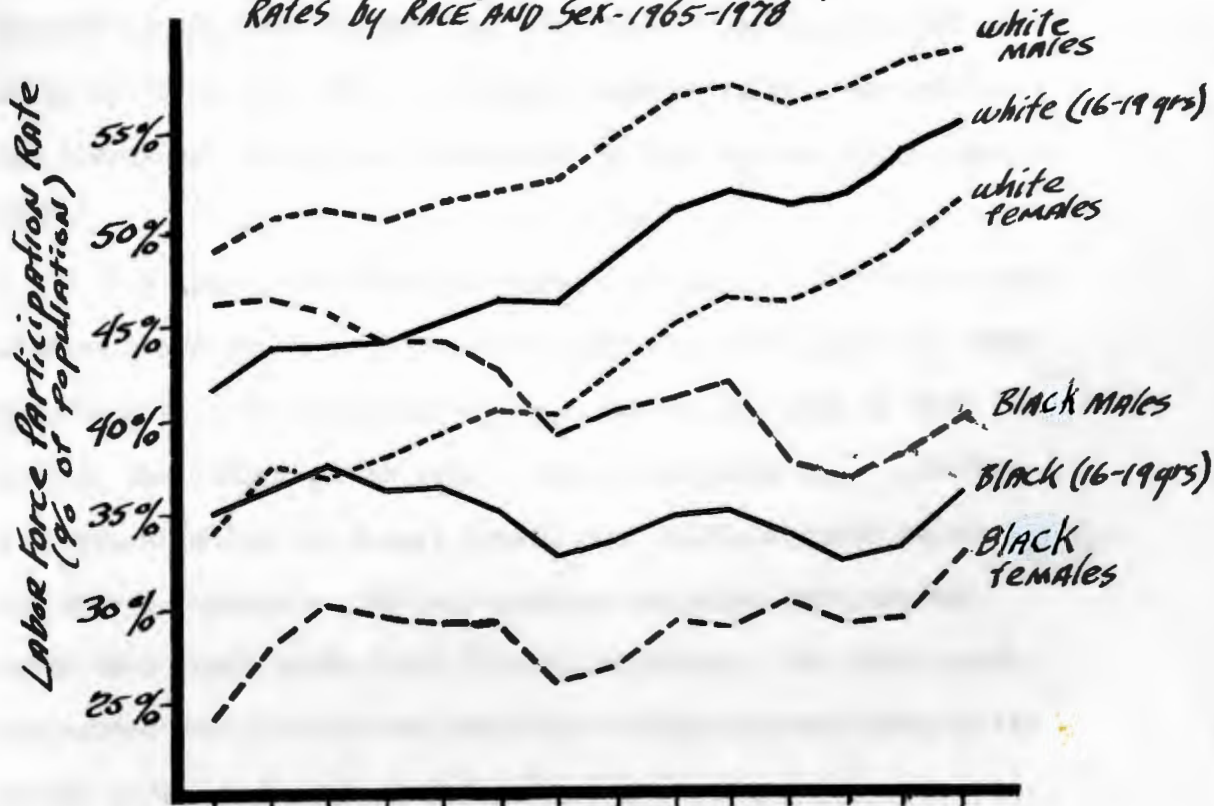
The unemployment rates of 1978 are generally lower than those of 1977, however, the trend for the past fifteen years has shown an increase in both White and Black youth unemployment. Black youth unemployment has out-paced that of White youths (see Figure I). During the 1965 to 1978 period, the Black youth unemployment rate had an average annual increase of 1.1 percent; the White youth unemployment rate had an average annual increase of 0.4 percent.

Figure I- U.S. Youth Unemployment Rates by Race 1965-1978



Source: Employment & Training Report of the President - 1978

Figure II- U.S. Youth Labor Force Participation Rates by Race and Sex - 1965-1978



Source: Employment & Training Report of the President - 1978

Compounding this difference between Black and White youth is the fact that the percentage of the Black youth population participating in the labor force has declined over the years on the average by 0.2 percentage points annually. Labor force participation among White youths, on the other hand, has increased over the years on the average by 1.05 percentage points annually (see Figure II). An implication of these trends is that there has been an increasingly disproportionate number of discouraged Black youths dropping out of the labor force compared to White youths.

Another measure of the difference in employment status among Black and White youths is the employment to population ratio. This measures the combined effects of the labor force participation rate and the unemployment rate. The trend over the past ten years shows that the percentage of the Black teenage population employed has declined from over 31 percent in 1967 to below 24 percent in 1977. For White teenagers, this percentage has increased from around 41 percent in 1967 to over 49 percent in 1977.[1]

Employment for Black youths has not kept up with their population growth whereas population growth for White youth has been matched with White youth employment. During the 1956 to 1974 period, the annual growth rate in the Black youth population was 4.5 percent while the annual growth rate in Black youth employment was only 2.2 percent. White youths, on the other hand, matched employment growth with their population growth. The White youth population grew 3.5 percent annually while employment among White youths grew 3.9 percent annually.[2]

To summarize the labor force trends over the past ten years, the labor market situation of Black teenagers has eroded dramatically while that of White teenagers has improved in some respects. By any commonly used measure (unemployment rates, labor force participation rates, or employment/population ratios), the gap between the labor market experiences of Black and White teenagers has widened during the recent past.[3]

Geographical Variations and Trends in Youth Unemployment

The employment situation of White and Black youths also differs by geographical location. In the second quarter of 1977, more than 31 percent (543,000) of all unemployed teenagers resided in central cities. About one-quarter of these youths lived in central city poverty areas (see Appendix A, Table A-1). The unemployment among central city youths was the highest of all areas with a combined rate of 24.0 percent. When this percentage is divided into racial categories the unemployment rate for White teenagers is 17.1 percent and for Black teenagers, 47.7 percent. The Black teenage unemployment rate in central city areas was 2.7 times that of Whites. The Black/White unemployment ratio is even higher in suburban poverty areas, however, suburban poverty areas constituted only 2.7 percent of all unemployed youths in 1977.

In all areas, Black teenage unemployment was around two to three times that of White youths. Black teenagers are similarly disadvantaged with respect to employment whether they live in cities, suburbs, or nonmetropolitan areas, even after controlling for poverty and nonpoverty areas.[4] In terms of generally high

rates of youth unemployment, the economic decline of central cities losing opportunities for youth during recent years relates strongly to the problem. Since more than 54 percent of the Black youth population resides in central city areas compared to 22.2 percent of the White teenage population, economic decline has affected Blacks disproportionately greater than Whites. Economic decline, however, offers little explanation of the causes of the widening gap between Blacks and Whites residing in the same areas. Factors such as racial discrimination and inequality of educational opportunity are significant elements of the problem.

The rate of growth in unemployment rates among Black and White teenagers in various geographical areas during the 1974 to 1978 period has been highest for Black teenagers residing in nonmetropolitan nonpoverty areas. During this period the Black teenage unemployment rate increased by 8.7 percentage points from 23.9 percent in 1974 to 36.2 percent in 1978 in nonmetropolitan nonpoverty areas. In metropolitan poverty areas the Black teenage unemployment rate grew by 4.1 percentage points from 38.8 percent in 1974 to 42.9 percent in 1978 (see Appendix A, Table A-2). Rapid growth in unemployment of Black youths in nonmetropolitan areas is primarily due to the increasing mechanization of farming.[5] The fastest growth in White teenage unemployment rates was among those residing in metropolitan poverty areas. This data further supports the conclusion that geographical location offers little explanation of the Black/White teenage unemployment differential.

Employment Status of Teenagers In and Out of School, Graduates and Dropouts

The employment status of teenagers varies as to whether they are enrolled in school, have graduated from high school, or have dropped out of school. In October of 1977, 54.2 percent of all teenagers in the 16 to 19 age group that were in the labor force were enrolled in school. Of this group 753,000 were unemployed having an unemployment rate of 15.7 percent. Unemployed students constituted 51.5 percent of all unemployed 16 to 19 year olds in 1977 (see Appendix A, Table A-3). High school graduates in this age group made up 31.1 percent of the total youth labor force and high school dropouts 14.7 percent of the labor force. The unemployment rates for high school graduates not enrolled in school was 13.1 percent and for high school dropouts the unemployment rate was 24.9 percent (1.6 times the rate for enrolled youth and over 1.8 times the rate for high school graduates).[6] High school graduates have a considerable advantage in the labor market over dropouts.

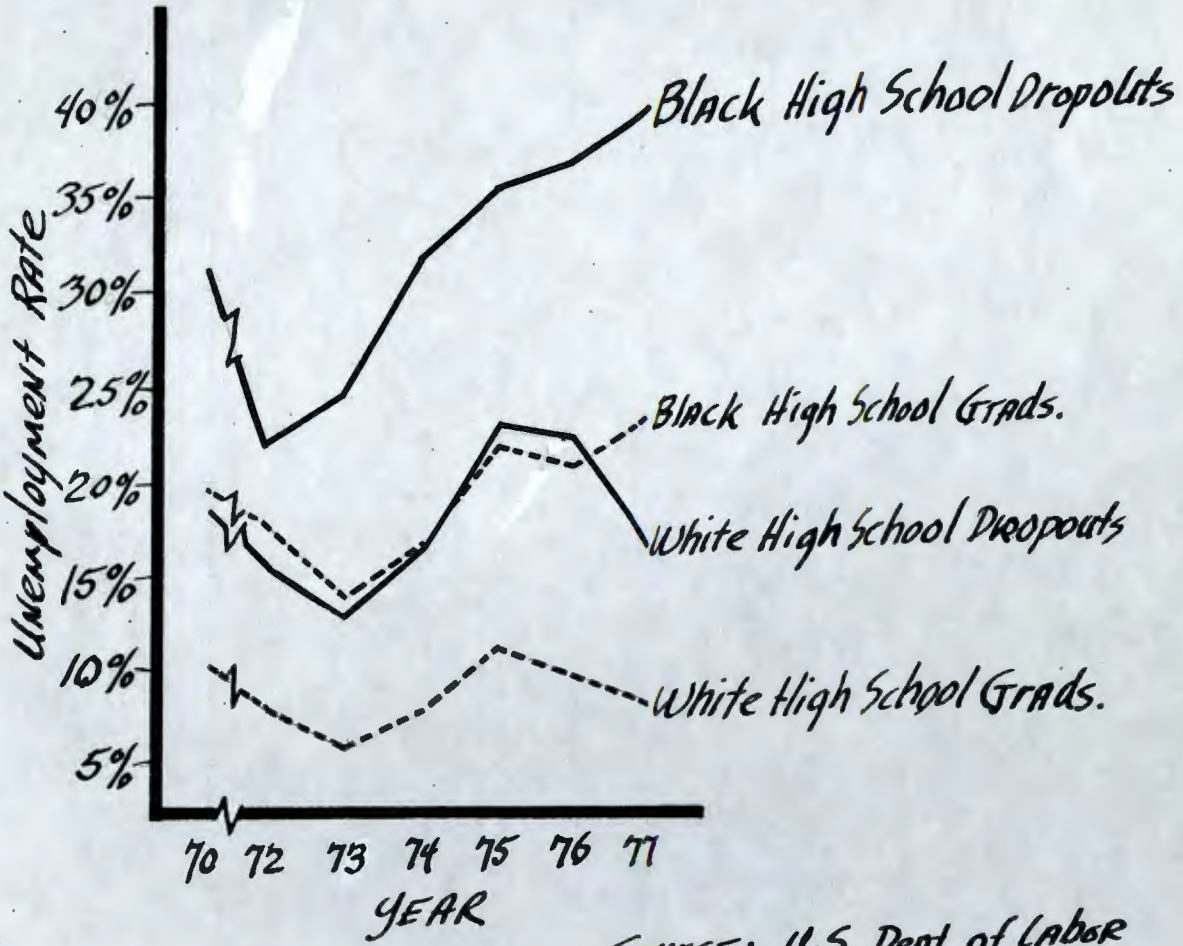
The labor force participation rates among the three groups also differ considerably. In-school teenagers in the 16 to 19 age group had a participation rate of 43.7 percent reflecting their major activity of school. Out of school teenagers had a participation rate of 77.4 percent--almost twice that of enrolled youth. Participation rates varied widely between high school graduates and dropouts with graduates having a rate of 86.9 percent while the rate for dropouts was 63.9 percent. Lower participation rates reflect low job prospects as reflected in the unemployment rates.

Labor force participation rates are generally lower and unemployment rates higher for Black teenagers than for Whites who are either enrolled in school, graduated, or dropped out (see Appendix A, Table A-3). Among high school graduates not enrolled in college the unemployment rate for White youths in the 16 to 24 age group was 8.2 percent with a labor force participation rate of 85.7 percent. For Black youths in this group the unemployment rate was 23.5 percent with a labor force participation rate of 80.9 percent. Among high school dropouts, the unemployment rate for White youths was 16.8 percent with a labor force participation rate of 68.4 percent. Black high school dropouts had an unemployment rate of 39.2 percent 2.3 times that of White high school dropouts. The most disadvantaged of all youth subgroups are Black women high school dropouts with an unemployment rate of 49.3 percent in 1977. While there is a large difference in the employment status between dropouts and high school graduates for both White and Black youths, the Black high school graduate unemployment rate remains to be nearly three times that of White youths--a larger gap than that which exists between Black and White dropouts.

A further dimension of the problem is the duration of unemployment experienced by White and Black graduates and dropouts. Although the length of unemployment was slightly longer for graduates than for dropouts, Black youth unemployment was longer in duration in both categories than Whites (see Appendix A, Table A-4). Among high school dropouts for example, 47.9 percent of White youths were unemployed longer than four weeks while 52.2 percent of Black youths were unemployed longer than four weeks.

As in general Black and White youth unemployment trends, the trends of Black graduate and dropout unemployment are increasing disproportionately compared to Whites. Among dropouts, the Black/White unemployment ratio increased from 1.4 in 1972 to 2.3 in 1977, widening the gap between White and Black unemployment rates was even wider during the 1972 to 1977 period with a ratio of 2.2 in 1972 to a Black/White ratio of 2.9 in 1977 (see Figure III).

Figure III - U.S. Youth Unemployment Rates of High School Graduates and Dropouts by Race - 1970-77



Source: U.S. Dept. of Labor
BLS - Special Labor Force Reports
Students, Graduates, & Dropouts
in the Labor Market - 1970-77

B. Factors Related to Youth Unemployment in Central City Areas

Economic Conditions and the Urban Youth Labor Market

The economic conditions of central city areas, especially in Northeastern cities in the country, have shown a general decline in recent years. Fewer jobs are available for an increasing minority population in central city areas. Suburbanization of retail trade jobs has had a dramatic effect on the employment opportunities for urban youth since a large proportion of youth are employed in the retail trade sector of the economy. In 1977 wholesale and retail trade accounted for 45 percent of all jobs held by teenagers in metropolitan areas.[7]

Teenage jobs in central city areas reflect a concentration of employment in occupational categories experiencing the highest unemployment rates, such as sales, clerical, operatives, non-farm laborers, and service workers. During the 1970 to 1974 period, employment of salespersons and operatives decreased, clerical employment increased marginally, and non-farm laborers and service occupations experienced some growth. For larger central cities, only the category of service workers experienced growth in openings. Expansion in the demand for workers in the central cities was characterized by continual low and often negative growth rates into the 1970's.[8]

The industrial mix of jobs in central cities also has an impact on the availability of jobs for youth. In his examination of factors contributing to high unemployment rates of youth in urban ghetto areas, Friedlander (1972) found that higher rates of

youth unemployment occurred in areas which were dominated by construction and manufacturing as opposed to areas with a large retail sector.[9] Friedlander also related the demand for educated workers in a local labor market with the youth unemployment rate. He found that higher demands for educated workers lowered the unemployment rate for teenagers in ghetto areas by reducing teenage labor force participation in the labor market. Friedlander explains this phenomenon in that local labor markets where the job requirements are high are characteristic of a more segregated and formalized adult-youth labor market dichotomy. The prevalence of jobs with high educational requirements, however, reduces the number of job opportunities available to teenagers, and as such, teenagers drop out of the labor force. In labor markets where wages and educational requirements are low, there is more competition with more teenagers entering the labor force, raising the unemployment rates of teenagers in depressed areas.[10]

In either of the two labor market conditions, analyzed by Friedlander, youth are either unemployed and in the labor force or discouraged and idle and have dropped out of the labor force. Friedlander's analysis implies that youth enter the labor market when job opportunities are perceived to be available even though adult-youth competition for the same jobs makes the jobs unavailable for youths.

Friedlander's typology of local labor markets is useful in the application of policy alternatives to reduce unemployment in central city areas. For example, if an analysis of a local labor market typifies it as one where there is a strong adult-youth

dichotomy or one that is characteristic of jobs with higher skills and educational requirements, then a logical policy approach would be to first identify the educational and skills level of the adult population in relation to the jobs available, and secondly, design skills training programs for adults in that they may be able to effectively compete for these jobs. Adults leaving low skill, low educational requirement jobs would then make room for youths in entry level, low skill jobs.

On the other hand, if the local labor market is characterized by a predominance of low skill, low educational requirement jobs with adults and youth competing for the same jobs, then a policy approach of economic development introducing higher skilled industry jobs into the local labor market should be emphasized. Upon the introduction of higher skilled jobs with higher educational requirements, the skills and educational levels of adults or youths can then be upgraded through job training programs, thus reducing the competition for unskilled low requirement jobs. A practical application of these two policy approaches would probably involve a mix of the two approaches. However, the emphasis on either of the two approaches should be exercised based on the analysis of the conditions of the local labor market.

As concluded by Friedlander, the degree to which youths have to compete with adults for low skills, low educational requirement, and usually low wage jobs in the local labor market has a direct effect on the numbers of youth that enter the labor force. High competition for unrewarding, and unchallenging jobs provides less of an incentive for youths to enter the labor force.

When jobs are relatively unavailable for youths there is a greater incentive for youths to enter the "irregular" economy characteristic of quasi-legal and illegal ways to earn income. Youths in the irregular economy are officially not in the labor force but may have lucrative means of earning income. The degree to which a local labor market is characteristic of low-wage and unrewarding jobs probably is directly related to the degree that "irregular" economic activities such as gambling, hustling, stealing, etc. are turned to as alternative ways of making money by youths. Ferman (1978) has identified the growth in teenagers taking advantage of prolific and lucrative "irregular" economic activities including hustling and dependence on welfare offerings due to the unavailability of jobs in the urban labor markets.[11]

Competition for limited job prospects between adults and youths in addition to the industrial mix of jobs in the local labor market have significant impacts on the level of youth unemployment and the level irregular economic activities. In any case, there simply has not been enough jobs available for an increasing urban youth population.

Legal and Institutional Barriers to Youth Employment

A number of legal and institutional factors restrict the size of the youth labor force and youth labor force participation rates. Friedlander (1972) has summarized several factors which primarily affect teenagers and not adults:

-school attendance laws requiring youths to attend school a certain number of days per year and a certain number of hours per day until they reach a certain age

-state and federal legislation regarding health and safety conditions, hours of work, overtime, child labor, and so forth.

-trade unions restrictions stipulating the age of admission into a union or into an apprenticeship program

-certification, licensing, and formal educational requirements in many occupations and industries

-location of jobs out of the transportation means of many urban youths limiting their base for potential job prospects

-competition with a subset of the female labor force who are also looking for part-time work, flexible hours, and extra secondary income

-employers' use of formal educational criteria as a way of screening out young employee creating a barrier for those lacking higher levels of education

-minimum wage laws[12]

While some of these factors are for the supposed benefit of individuals, others present unnecessary but effective barriers for the gainful employment of teenagers. For example, studies conducted in recent years show that two-thirds to four-fifths of employers are reluctant to hire youth under the age of 21 years for regular, full-time jobs.[13] The implications of these studies are that often times educational and skills requirements of jobs are used as a mechanism for restricting youth from the opportunity to be employed by discriminating employers.

The impact of minimum wages on the employment of teenagers in low skilled jobs has been debated by economists without any definite conclusions. In Williams (1977) review of the studies done on the relationship of statutory minimum wages to the youth unemployment rate he concludes:

> . . . although the debate on the effects and extent of those effects of minimum wages continues without consensus, one implicit consensus of all minimum wage studies is that increases in the statutory minimums do not increase job opportunities for the marginal or disadvantaged segments of the labor force.[14]

At least two segments of the labor force can be considered marginal workers. One segment consists of youths who are generally low-skilled because of their age, immaturity, and lack of work experience. Another segment contains members of minority groups who as a result of racial discrimination and a number of other socio-economic factors are disproportionately found among marginal workers. Women, the uneducated, and the physically handicapped are also disproportionally found among marginal workers.[15]

Friedlander (1972) tested the impact of minimum wages in urban labor markets on youth unemployment in slum areas by comparing the average wage levels in the local markets. Although his findings did not support the hypothesis that minimum wages would have the greatest effect in labor markets characteristic of low wages, he did find that for all subsets of the youth group aged fourteen to twenty-four, the wage level was positively related to the unemployment rate to a degree of statistical significance. In urban labor markets characterized by high wages, it is more difficult for young workers to find employment while competing for adult jobs. Greater employment opportunities are found in low wage labor markets where competition and substitution between youth and adults occur more frequently. High wage labor markets indicate the extent of job segregation between adults and youths and reduce the degree of substitution, raising youth unemployment.[16]

The minimum wage requirements, however, can be viewed as one of several factors, such as payroll taxes, fringe benefits, and insurance costs, which have tended to raise the cost of employing youths who have fewer skills and higher turnover propensity.[17]

Certification and licensing laws and regulations of certain jobs and occupations is a further restriction of the opportunities available for youth. Licensure law limits entry into a particular occupation in order to assure higher incomes (in addition to some social merits) for those in the occupation. Often times members of licensing boards are practitioners themselves. Entry fees are used to restrict entry into a licensed occupation, having no social merit or justification. Various low-skilled occupations are out of the reach of economically disadvantaged and minority youths because of licensing monopolies created to protect practitioners' interests.[18]

Unions similarly restrict entry of youths and in particular Black youths into skilled trades and occupations. Unions restrict entry into apprenticeship programs by limiting the number of workers admitted to the union. The union's attempt to restrict the supply of labor is successful if strong agreements with employers are maintained insuring union hiring only. Areas of greater union control also place greater restrictions on entry into specific trades. Other techniques used by unions to limit entry are: age and citizenship requirements; lengthy apprenticeship programs; use of probationary union membership status; nepotic rule whereby preference is given to relatives of union members; worker competency requirements; and racial discrimination.[19]

C. Socio-cultural Barriers to Youth Employment

Mangum and Walsh (1978) discuss a socio-psychological aspect of the unemployment problem of teenagers in ghetto areas. They describe a process of career development in individuals beginning in early childhood, formulated and shaped by the child's family environment, parental influence, and neighborhood environment, among other contributing factors such as the quality of the school attended, ability of the child to learn, etc. The ghetto child's experience is much less beneficial for developing individual careers and work orientation than that of middle-class child's experience because of many economic, social, cultural, and familial problems encountered throughout childhood.[20] Rainwater (1971) emphasizes the aspect of a lack of self-support systems in the slum and concludes that:

> growing up in a slum culture involves an ever increasing appreciation of one's shortcomings and of the impossibility of finding a self-sufficient and gratifying way of living.[21]

C. Federal Youth Job Training Programs for High School Dropouts

Mangun and Walsh (1978) in their recent monograph on employment and training programs for youth, conducted a comprehensive overview and analysis of past and present youth programs and have identified key elements in the design of successful youth employment programs.[22] No attempt is made in this study to regenerate their findings. However, some of their particular conclusions relating to programs for high school dropouts will be discussed.

Employment and training programs for youth have come under two general categories: subsidized employment and classroom or institutional training. Subsidized employment programs include work experience, public service employment, the Youth Conservation Corps, Programs of Progress, and the Vocational Exploration in the Private Sector (V.E.P.S.) program. Mangum and Walsh have summarized the past experiences with these programs and have generated some lessons to be learned and kept in mind in designing new employment and training programs for youth. The authors have organized their recommendations addressing several component areas of youth programs.

In terms of program enrollment it was found that programs were more successful if they didn't concentrate solely on the least employable youth. A balance in enrollment with respect to age, sex, race, and socio-economic status is beneficial to the success of the program. If programs are designed for specific severely disadvantaged target groups, it is essential that high standards are maintained and that those who deliberately and wilfully fail to meet those standards can be either terminated or suspended from programs.

The quality of jobs that program enrollees are placed in is also an important consideration. Attempts to place enrollees into real jobs or jobs which exist but cannot be filled because of budget limitations, have been the most successful in terms of providing beneficial work experiences for youths. Supervision at work experience placement sites as well as supervision within the program is also of critical importance. Staff working in the program should have a good rapport with the youth without being overly strict and yet will demand that good work habits be observed on the job.

It is important that youth training programs also develop the coping skills of the participants. These skills include: developing and executing plans, working with others, controlling impulses, processing and interpreting information, communicating, problem solving, and working within an authority structure.

Supportive services is another essential ingredient of youth job training programs. These services should provide for the varied needs of the participants including comprehensive counseling and job development and placement services. Augmenting all these program attributes should be an overall atmosphere of success created by helping enrollees establish reputations as good workers, placing completers in non-subsidized jobs and maintaining high standards during the course of the program.

An essential component of employment programs for high school dropouts is the provision of remedial education. Lack of a high school diploma is probably the major barrier to employment (affecting attitudinal and motivational barriers of youths) of most high school dropouts. Both remedial education and work experience are the most

beneficial if they are coordinated. Work experience without remedial education (and vice versa) for high school dropouts has had minimal effects in increasing employability.

Mangum and Walsh summarize the strategies which are most successful for high school dropouts as varying by age. Work experience and on-the-job training have been more effective than skills training for youths in the 16-17 year old age group. Programs involving complete remediation such as Job Corps (where youths are placed and live in a completely different away from home environment) has also been effective for some 16-17 year old youth. For older youths in the 18 to 25 years age group, skills training has been more effective for this age group. Public service employment in jobs which are well integrated into host agency personnel structures are valuable for the development of a legitimate employment record.

Mangum and Walsh also emphasize the importance of providing skills training to youths after they have been enrolled in a pre-vocational training program or other non-skills training such as remedial education and career exploration. Pre-vocational training by itself does not provide adquate preparation for employment. Pre-vocational training serves primarily as an assessment tool and facilitates a self-discovery process for youths in their attempts to formulate career goals. Skills training should follow for the realization of career goals that have been formulated during pre-vocational training.[23]

Summary

Youth unemployment in the U.S. is most severe among minorities living in central city areas. The relative disadvantage of minority

youths in relation to non-minority youths has increased over the past ten years. The percentage of minority youths participating in the labor force continues to decline while the participation rate of White youths has been increasing.

Much of the youth unemployment can be attributed to the nature of youth making the transition from school to work. This transitional period is characteristic of much testing out of different jobs, searching for careers and occupations. In a sense, this period of unemployment is useful in that youths begin to obtain knowledge of the world of work through job experimenting. Given that much of the youth unemployment is attributable to this natural process, there still remains the fact that several factors have been exacerbating the youth unemployment problem beyond that of its "natural" level.

Factors which compound the unemployment problem ofyouths in central cities include: a declining central city economy and a decrease in youth labor market job availability; legal and institutional constraints which limit the opportunities of youth because of their age and/or educational/skills level in addition to discriminatory practices of labor unions and due individual employer preferences; and socio-cultural barriers which include a complex set of personal skills and development inadequacies and limitations related to the culture of poverty within central city ghettos.

The design of effective youth employment and training programs demands a rigorous undertaking of comprehensive services, all of which have a crucial impact on improving the employability

of youths. Programs must deal with the full extent of the employability problem of youths in order to have reasonable success. It is also necessary to design programs specifically geared to the various segments of the youth population (in-school youth, out-of-school youth, 16-17 year olds, and 18-21 year olds), realizing that each group has a unique, but similar, set of employability barriers. Mangum and Walsh (1978) provide a thorough and complete analysis of the various youth programs.

Ultimately, employment and training programs must deal with the economic problem of job availability. While training youths for employment increases their ability to compete with others for jobs, competitiveness will yield no results unless there are jobs available. In this respect, it is crucial that job training programs be geared to the types of jobs available in the local labor market in addition to the increased emphasis on economic development and revitalization of the depressed urban economy.

CHAPTER II

TRENDS AND FACTORS RELATING TO DROPPING OUT OF HIGH SCHOOL IN THE UNITED STATES

In this chapter trends in the high school dropout phenomenon in the United States will be examined. Racial and geographical differences in the dropout rate will also be discussed. Secondly, factors relating to the dropout problem will be examined in terms of reasons given by dropouts for leaving school and the empirical research conducted on the socio-economic and situational factors contributing to the dropout problem. In the context of current knowledge of the dropout problem, the dropout situation in Providence can be better analyzed and understood.

A. Dropout Trends and Racial and Geographic Distribution of Dropouts[24]

Over the past twenty years there has been a decrease in the relative number of dropouts within the population. Despite this decrease changes in the demands of the labor market for high educational and skills attainment have resulted in fewer employment possibilities for dropouts and decreased the likelihood that dropouts can find work.[25]

While there has been a relative decrease in dropouts over the past twenty years, in the past nine years there has been an absolute increase of about 42.6 thousand dropouts annually.[26] During the 1969 to 1977 period, the percentage of Black teenagers, ages 18 and 19 not enrolled in school and not high school graduates has declined from 27.1 percent in 1969 to 21.9 percent in 1977. White youths in this age

group and educational status increased slightly from 13.4 percent in 1969 to 15.9 percent in 1977 (see Appendix B, Table B-1). These converging trends have resulted in a lessening of the gap between the Black and White dropout rate among youths in the 18 to 19 years age group. In 1969, the Black/White dropout rate ratio was 2.0, narrowing to 1.4 in 1977. In absolute terms, the number of White youths in the 18 to 19 years age group not enrolled in school and not high school graduates was 4.7 times that of Black youths in the same group in 1977.

The percentages of dropouts among youths also varies geographically. In 1977, there were higher percentages of dropouts in the 16 to 19 age group of both White and Black youths in nonmetropolitan areas than in central cities or suburbs (see Appendix B, Table B-2). In absolute numbers nonmetropolitan areas also have the greatest number of dropouts in the 16 to 19 age group, totaling 798,000 in 1977. In suburban areas there were 632,000 dropouts, and in central cities 618,000 dropouts in the 16 to 19 years age group. Central cities, however, had higher percentages of dropouts than suburban areas. The gap between the percentages of Black and White dropouts was also greater in nonmetropolitan areas than in central cities in 1977.

While greater numbers of White youth live in nonmetropolitan areas and suburban areas, Blacks are more concentrated in central cities. Of Black dropouts in the 16 to 19 age group, 180,000 or 55.7 percent resided in central cities, 14.6 percent in suburban areas, and 29.7 percent in nonmetropolitan areas in 1977. White dropouts numbered 438,000 or 25.4 percent in central cities, 33.9 percent in suburban areas, and 40.7 percent in nonmetropolitan areas.

Women dropouts in the 16 to 19 years age group in 1977 were fewer in number and percent than men dropouts among Whites. There were more women dropouts among Blacks than men but the percent of Black women that were dropouts was lower than that of Black men (see Appendix B, Table B-3). There was also a wide gap in the percentages of dropouts between those in the 16 to 17 age group and those in the 18 to 19 age group. This gap in percentages is wider among men and particularly Black men than another subgroup. While only 6.9 percent of Black men ages 16 and 17 were dropouts, the percentage climbs to 23.8 percent among Black men ages 18 and 19.

B. Reasons for Teenagers Dropping Out of School and Related Factors

Information on the reasons that students give for dropping out of school has generally been obtained through mailed questionnaires or school personnel designation. A number of reasons are usually provided and the respondent chooses the most appropriate. Such responses by dropouts in questionnaires are at best superficial and offer little guidance for the formulation of policies for reducing the dropout problem. It is difficult to analyze responses of dropout questionnaires since it cannot be determined whether the problem is one of the individual or the institution or some combination of both. Questionnaires do, however, give indications of problems confronted by dropouts in the structure of the educational institutions.

One such survey of dropouts in Philadelphia indicated the major reasons why students left school before graduating.[27] The total respondents to the questionnaire numbered 1005, 630 of whom were Black, 330 White, 513 male, and 492 female. The responses are summarized in Table 2, indicating only the major reasons given by the respondents. Dislike of school was the major reason given (20.8 percent of all respondents). A larger proportion of White dropouts than Black dropouts (35.2 percent compared to 12.9 percent) indicated that they dropped out because they disliked school. The need to work (14.3 percent), pregnancy and the need for child care (12.2 percent), and personal reasons (11.6 percent) were the other major reasons mentioned. Being retained in grade accounted for 10.6 percent of the reasons, Blacks responding slightly more than Whites for this reason. Many more Blacks than Whites felt that they had been dropped or "got put out" than did Whites (5.4 percent compared to 0.9 percent) and more Blacks left because of "gangs" (5.1 percent compared to 0.3 percent).

Table 2.--Reasons Given for Leaving School by Race and Sex--High School Dropouts in Philadelphia 1974-75 (percent distribution)

Reason	Total Respondents		Black		White		Male		Female	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
Total	1005	100.0	630	100	330	100	513	100	492	100
-Retained in grade	107	10.6	70	11.1	34	10.3	55	10.7	52	10.6
-Didn't like school	209	20.8	81	12.9	116	35.2	119	23.2	90	10.3
-Pregnancy no baby sitter	123	12.2	105	16.7	14	4.2	0	0.0	123	25.0
-Needed to work	144	14.3	89	14.1	52	15.8	104	20.3	40	8.1
-Personal (unspecified	120	11.9	81	12.9	33	10.0	66	12.9	54	11.0
-Gangs	33	3.3	32	5.1	1	0.3	31	6.0	2	0.4
-Got married	40	4.0	12	1.9	19	5.8	2	0.4	38	7.7
-Got put out I was dropped	38	3.9	34	5.4	3	0.9	21	4.1	17	3.5

Source: Survey of Philadelphia High School Dropouts 1974-75, Office of Research and Evaluation, School District of Philadelphia, 1975.

About one-quarter of all women left school because of pregnancy. It is interesting to note that while pregnancy accounted for 12.2 percent of all reasons mentioned in the questionnaire, less than 1.0 percent of the respondents had pregnancy coded by school personnel as a reason for leaving school. The value of the mailed questionnaire is

that it allowed school designations of dropouts' reasons for leaving to be checked and corrected. In a longitudinal survey of women who dropped out of high school analyzed by Mott and Shaw (1978) it was found that 55 percent of the White dropouts and 62 percent of the Blacks gave marriage or pregnancy as the reason for dropping out. However, the vast majority of the White women dropped out because they married whereas about 45 percent of the Black women dropped out because of pregnancy or childbirth.[28] The Philadelphia survey revealed that of the 123 female respondents who gave pregnancy as their reason for leaving, 105 or 85.0 percent were Black. However, it is not known what percentage of Black women gave this as their reason. These studies indicate that vast differences in the reasons for dropping out can be perceived depending on how the information on dropouts is gathered. Designations of reasons by school personnel seem to be the most inaccurate while mailed questionnaires improve accuracy somewhat. However, personal interviews in national longitudinal surveys are probably the only valid way of assessing with some reliability very personal reasons for dropping out of school (reasons such as pregnancy).

Other studies attempting to identify factors which relate to dropping out have concentrated on examining the personal and socio-economic backgrounds of the dropouts themselves in order to identify correlations of many contributing variables. One such study by Hill (1975) was based on data obtained from the National Longitudinal Survey of Young Men.

Hill developed a model which describes the probability that an individual will leave high school before graduating as being contingent upon several factors grouped as follows: (1) the student's

they have for their children and this expectation is positively associated with increased parental time devoted to the children's physical care in the preschool years. This devotion to physical care of the child is in turn associated with the development of cognitive and affective abilities.[31] These findings indicate the independent importance of the mother's socio-economic characteristics on her children's educational attainment.

Hill's analysis also showed that among Whites, family income of the student was directly related to reducing the probability of dropping out. Among non-whites, however, the effect of family income on the probability of dropping out is entirely an indirect one.[32] Census data also demonstrates the relationship between the economic status of families and the probability of a student of such a family dropping out. Table 3 illustrates this relationship between income and dropouts.

Data in Table 3 illustrates a striking relationship between family income and dropouts for Black families. While 65 percent of Black dropouts come from the very poorest of families, among Whites, only 20 percent of the White male dropouts and 31 percent of the White female dropouts come from the poorest families. These data indicate that while Black dropouts come from poor families predominantly, dropouts among White youths occur in middle and upper income families as well.

Table 3.--Annual Family Income of School Dropouts 14 to 17 years Old by Race and Sex October, 1975 (percent distribution)

Dropouts by Race & Sex	Under $5000	$5000 to $9999	$10,000 to $14,999	$15,000 and over	Not Reported
White*					
Male	20.3	27.8	20.6	19.8	11.5
Female	31.1	32.1	15.9	9.0	11.6
Black					
Male	65.2	24.6	4.4	1.4	4.4
Female	64.9	18.9	8.1	2.7	5.4
All Families in the U.S.**					
White	10.2	20.5	22.7	46.6	
Black & Other	26.3	27.2	20.2	36.3	

*Source: U.S. Bureau of Census Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 303 "Student Enrollment--Social and Economic Characteristics of Students" Oct. 1975.

**Source: U.S. Bureau of Census Statistical Abstract of the U.S.:1976, 97th Edition.

Hill's particular analysis of school quality as measured by per pupil availability of library facilities, pupils per full-time teachers, full-time equivalent counselors per 100 students and annual salary of a beginning teacher with a bachelor's degree and no experience (geographically adjusted) concluded that these factors had no significant effect on the probability of dropping out. The evidence implies that a community's investment in the physical facilities of its school has little or no effect on the probability of dropping out once family background and ability are controlled for.[33]

In a study of the effects of busing and school desegregation on student dropout rates, Felice and Richardson (1976) conclude that positive effects in the reduction of dropout rates of minority youths was contingent upon the socio-economic climate as well as teachers' expectations of students in the schools. Schools where teachers' expectations of students were high and the socio-economic status of students was also high had the greatest effect in reducing the dropout rate of bused minority students. The research of Coleman (1966) and St. John (1975) also indicate that a high socio-economic climate and favorable expectations of behavior of teachers is a fundamental determinant of successful monority student educational experience.[34]

Another study by Berlowitz and Durand (1976) raises the possibility of institutional pushing-out of students rather than their leaving of their own volition.[35] Their findings supported the conclusion that high school dropout rates were associated with high rates of absenteeism, high rates of mobility, low average self concept scores, low rates of achievement in reading and math, high suspension rates, and lengthy durations of suspensions in all schools regardless of social composition. Evidence is substantiated that suspension was used as a means for "pushing-out" Black students in response to court ordered desegregation.

These studies seem to indicate that teachers' attitudes and expectations, the social climate, and the racial mix and degree of racial acceptance have more to do with factors relating to dropping out of school than the actual 'quality of facilities' measured in Hill's analysis. A broader definition of quality of school to include the socio-economic climate and teacher's attitudes and expectations would probably consolidate the results of several studies.

Knowledge of the labor market was found by Hill to have the largest effect in reducing the probability of dropping out for non-whites. That is, those Black youths who had a good knowledge of the world of work were least likely to drop out.[36] This finding is complemented by the fact that dropouts had usually experienced less part-time work experience while they were in school than graduates. U.S. Department of Labor statistics indicate that while 70 percent of all high school graduates reported having work experiences during their school years, only 39 percent of all dropouts had similar work experiences. This evidence suggest that there is incomplete social integration of adolescent dropouts into both school and the employment contexts even before their age peers who will not become dropouts have completed high school.[37]

Knowledge of the world of work and career development was also found to be lacking in high school dropouts in a study conducted by the National Assessment of Educational Progress. An assessment of career and occupational development was made of in-school and out-of-school 17 year olds measuring performance in the following major areas: knowledge and attitudes related to career planning, knowledge about jobs, and generally useful skills for obtaining employment. The results of tests administered to these students and dropouts indicated that out-of-school 17 year olds consistently performed less well than the in-school youths. The differences in performance were greatest in the area of general knowledge about jobs and in three of the generally useful skills--written communication, computation, and measurement and graphic and reference materials skills.[38]

Having dropped out of school does not mean that attempts to improve one's educational status have been abandoned. Mott and Shaw's (1978) analysis of female high school dropouts indicated that two out of three Blacks and one out of three Whites indicated that they planned to return to school. Although the motivation for returning to school is there, the vast majority of these youth do not return to school. The combination of family responsibilities of these young women dropouts, limited funds, and institutional rigidities in the educational system undoubtedly prevent all but the most highly motivated from returning to school.[39] The Philadelphia survey of high school dropouts indicated that 20 percent of the dropouts had returned to school. Of those that returned, 28 percent were attending evening high school, 23 percent attending private high schools, and 9 percent were in technical or trade schools. More Blacks (21.2 percent) than Whites (16.4 percent) were attending school.[40] These findings are consistent with Mott and Shaw's findings that more Blacks than Whites intended to return to school.

Upon dropping out of school, youths soon find themselves either unemployed or in the lowest paid unskilled jobs. Knowledge of "the world of work" is quickly obtained in that young dropouts find that they do not possess any of the educational criteria or skills required to satisfy the demands of most employers. Although they may be capable of being trained for a job, employers frequently do not take the chance with a high school dropout who is considered a risk.

The alternative to returning to school, for many dropouts, has been to enter a job training program in an attempt to develop marketable skills. Mott and Shaw (1978) found that 13 percent of the White

dropouts and 19 percent of the Black dropouts had been enrolled in training programs the year after dropping out. Motivations for training were different for White and Black dropouts, however. For example, over half of the White dropouts' primary reason for taking training was for continued education whereas almost two-thirds of the Black dropouts gave work or job related reasons for the training. Economic need is therefore a greater training motivator for Black than White youth.[41] This conclusion is compatible with Hill's (1975) analysis and with data illustrated in Table 3. Mott and Shaw's analysis also indicates that Black dropouts are seemingly more likely than their White counterparts to stick with the training program. Forty (40) percent of White dropouts completed their training whereas 44 percent of Black dropouts had completed training in 1973. A higher percentage of Black dropouts were still enrolled in 1973 than Whites (40 percent compared to 10 percent) and more Whites than Blacks dropped out of the training program (44 percent compared to 10 percent).[42]

Summary

Although the proportion of youths in the U.S. that are high school dropouts has declined over the past ten years, the absolute number of high school dropouts has increased. This is primarily due to a growth in the teenage population in the country over the past twenty years. High school dropout rates are generally higher for minority youths than for White youths. However, the trend over the past ten years has shown a significant decrease in the minority youth dropout rate while the White youth dropout rate has increased slightly.

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Summary

Although the proportion of youths in the U.S. that are high school dropouts has declined over the past ten years, the absolute number of high school dropouts has increased. This is primarily due to a growth in the teenage population in the country over the past twenty years. High school dropout rates are generally higher for minority youths than for White youths. However, the trend over the past ten years has shown a significant decrease in the minority youth dropout rate while the White youth dropout rate has increased slightly.

The highest rates of youth dropping out of high school occur in nonmetropolitan areas although the absolute number of minority youth dropouts is greatest in central city areas. There is also a significant difference in the dropout rate between central city areas and suburban areas with higher rates of dropouts in the central cities.

The use of mailed survey questionnaires for identifying the reasons why dropouts left school are an improvement over the school personnel designation system, but is nevertheless limited in that it does not uncover the dynamics of the dropout problem. The best method for identifying the dynamics of individuals' dropout decisions is to conduct personal interviews as was done in the National Longitudinal Surveys. This method is, however, time consuming and expensive. A large variation of results is found between the three methods in accounting for reasons why students leave school before graduating. Most often, the real reasons for dropping out are seldom identified with sufficient accuracy for the development of comprehensive policy alternatives for mitigating the dropout problem.

Empirical studies of the high school dropout phenomenon reveal several key factors related to the likelihood that an individual will drop out. These are: the socio-economic background of the individual, including family income and educational attainment of parents; the intellectual capabilities of the individuals in terms of their ability to succeed academically; the quality of the school attended, quality measured in terms of the socio-economic climate and teachers' expectations of students; and

the individual's knowledge of the "world of work" and the local labor market conditions in terms of jobs available and the educational and skill requirements of those jobs. Individuals from a low socio-economic background status having parents whose level of educational attainment is low; having little knowledge of the "world of work"; in schools where there are large proportions of students from low-income families and where the expectations that teachers have of their students is geared low; and whose academic achievements are marginal; are most likely to drop out of school before graduating.

Finally, there is evidence that once having dropped out of school, many youths seek educational remediation and skills training. A small proportion of these youths, however, are successful in obtaining the remedial education or skills training that they desire.

CHAPTER III

YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUTS IN PROVIDENCE

Statistics available through the Rhode Island Department of Employment Security or any other state agency, public or private, do not yield very much information on the current employment situation of youth. There are no on-going surveys of the state population that are detailed enough to reveal the relative employment situation of various population subgroups (with the exception of national annual surveys which are not detailed enough to describe conditions on individual state levels).

On the other hand, information on high school dropouts in Rhode Island is readily available and in full detail for each city or town in the state through the implementation of the Student Flow Survey. This survey keeps an on-going record of all student transactions, reasons for dropping out, and socio-demographic characteristics of students making these transactions. Although this survey indicates numbers of dropouts who left school to seek employment, information is not available as to whether employment is secured by these dropouts.

Information on the youth population in Rhode Island in terms of employment, and in particular, the employment situation of high school dropouts, is not comprehensive and can only be obtained by combining the limited sources of information available with some methodologies

used for estimating the relative situation of youth in the labor market. The purpose of this section of the report is to examine available indicators of the youth employment and school dropout problem and apply some methodologies for estimating the relative position of youth in the labor market, specifically, within the Providence local labor market.

A. Youth Unemployed in Providence

Providence Youth Unemployment Rates

The State Department of Employment Security has an annual contract with a company which produces somewhat detailed employment information on the population of Providence and the remainder of the state for the purposes of the C.E.T.A. prime sponsors' programming. This information is referred to as the Lawrence Berkely Tabulations and is derived from an econometric model of the state which is adjusted annually. Many C.E.T.A. program planners and users of the data have expressed their concern over the inaccuracies and discrepancies in the data but admit that it is the only and therefore best available information on the employment situation of various population subgroups.[43]

Table 4 presents the Berkely data projected for FY '79 in Providence. Although the Providence C.E.T.A. administrators admit that the validity of some of the data is questionable, the numbers indicate that non-white males in the 16-19 year age group are experiencing the highest unemployment rate of any subgroup of the Providence youth population. This relationship is consistent with national unemployment rates of Black male youths.

Shifts in the Youth Labor Market in Providence

One way of examining the relative employment situation of youths in a local labor market is to examine the industrial structure in terms of teenage intensive industries in order to determine the relative availability of youth jobs. In an attempt to identify the availability of youth jobs in Providence, a simple ratio technique was applied to the total employment by major two-digit SIC industry categories. This technique involved the application of 1970 census proportions of the number of youth (age 16-19 years) employed in each of the twenty-eight (28) selected two-digit SIC industries to the total number employed in each of these industries for the years 1969-1977 in order to get a total of "available youth jobs" in the labor market for each year. This technique of applying census ratios of youth in individual industries attempts to identify the relative availability of youth jobs in the labor market due to the changes in the industrial structure alone. For example, the changes in employment in youth intensive industries would be assumed to have a significant impact on youth employment.

Table 5 lists the industry categories examined for Providence and gives the percentages of youth in each industry. The total number of youth employed in each industry is both a function of the percentage youth and the total employment in that industry. Two-digit industries having the largest proportions of youths employed were food stores and eating and drinking places. However, the greatest number of youth jobs were in the jewelry and

Table 5.--Youth Jobs Available in Providence 1969 and 1977

Industry	1970 State Avg. % of Industry employed by youth	% of Jobs Held by Women	Estimated Youth Jobs in Providence		% of All Youth Jobs in Providence		Net Change 1969-77			1977 Wage Index
			1969	1977	1969	1977	#	% of Total Loss	% of Total Gain	
Wholesale & Retail Trade	15.00	-	2989	2459	30.8	26.6	-530			
Wholesale Trade	4.81	23.7	374	338	3.9	3.6	- 36	2.5	-	1.37
Gen. Merchandise St.	16.84	66.8	844	293	8.7	3.2	-551	38.5	-	0.66
Food Stores	24.43	32.9	400	373	4.1	4.0	- 27	1.9	-	0.75
Eating & Drinking Plcs.	25.23	49.4	611	778	6.3	8.4	+167	-	16.2	0.38
Motor Vehicle & Access & Gasoline Serv. Sta.	13.12	9.9	173	160	1.8	1.7	- 13	0.9	-	0.96
Apparel & Accessories	13.56	67.7	190	140	2.0	1.5	- 50	3.5	-	0.65
All Other Retail	13.40	43.5	396	376	4.1	4.1	- 20	1.4	-	0.66
Manufacturing	6.10	-	3121	3120	32.2	33.8	- 1			
Primary & Fabricated Metals	4.17	26.0	299	205	3.1	2.2	- 94	6.6	-	1.19
Jewelry & Silverware	8.76	55.2	1624	2009	16.8	21.7	+385	-	37.3	0.91
Rubber & Misc. Plastic Products	8.78	49.7	231	152	2.4	1.6	- 79	5.5	-	1.02
Printing & Publishing	9.49	27.5	258	277	2.7	3.0	+ 19	-	1.8	1.43
Textile Products	5.82	51.6	49	74	0.5	0.8	+ 25	-	2.4	0.98
Machinery, Electrical & Non-electrical	3.64	28.8	133	138	1.4	1.5	+ 5	-	0.5	1.26
All Other Manufacturing	5.47	39.8	527	265	5.4	2.9	-262	18.3	-	1.10

Table 5--Continued

Industry	1970 State Avg. % of Industry employed by youth	% of Jobs Held by Women	Estimated Youth Jobs in Providence		% of All Youth Jobs in Providence		Net Change 1969-77			1977 Wage Index
			1969	1977	1969	1977	#	% of Total Loss	% of Total Gain	
Services	7.41	-	2163	2394	22.3	25.9	+231			
Medical & Health	8.97	73.3	1001	1047	10.3	11.3	+ 46	-	4.5	0.95
Educational Services	9.01	63.2	404	496	4.2	5.4	+ 92	-	8.9	0.95
Welfare & Non-Profit Organ.	7.19	52.5	167	223	1.7	2.4	+ 56	-	5.4	0.59
Hotels & Other Lodging	11.39	56.5	62	63	0.6	0.7	-	-	-	0.45
Personal Services	7.42	63.6	116	72	1.2	0.8	- 44	3.1	-	0.63
Bus. & Repair Serv.	8.51	28.2	327	418	3.3	4.5	+ 91	-	8.8	0.79
Recreational Services	15.48	26.6	88	74	0.9	0.8	- 14	0.9	-	0.63
Miscellaneous Services	7.00	50.3	138	196	1.4	2.1	+ 58	-	5.6	1.39
All Other Industries	-	-	1416	1262	14.6	13.7	-154			
Banking & Credit Agencies	8.83	61.7	459	546	4.7	5.9	+ 87	-	8.4	1.05
Insurance	6.70	50.9	359	353	3.7	3.8	- 6	0.4	-	1.19
Other Fin. & Real Estate	4.94	37.0	74	59	0.8	0.6	- 15	1.0	-	1.14
Trucking & Warehousing	3.89	9.6	62	26	0.6	0.3	- 36	2.5	-	1.47
Communications	7.67	46.7	306	157	3.8	1.7	-149	10.4	-	1.73
Other Trans. Com. Util.	2.49	21.5	80	67	0.8	0.7	- 13	0.9	-	1.43
Construction	2.92	5.5	76	53	0.8	0.6	- 23	1.6	-	1.29
All Industries			9689	9235	100.0	100.0	-454			$9,939

Source: Analysis of data collected from ES 202 Reports--R.I. Department of Employment Security.

silverware industry which has a much smaller proportion of youths to adults employed. The jewelry industry is the largest employing industry in Providence and the state.

Given the assumption that percentages of each industry employed by youth remained constant over the 1969-1977 period, losses and gains of youth employment in each industry and in the total Providence labor market were calculated. In terms of total youth jobs available there was a net decrease of 454 jobs, declining from 9,689 in 1969 to 9,235 in 1977. Individual losses of youth jobs were greatest in general merchandise stores (-551), communications (-149), primary and fabricated metal products (-94), and rubber and miscellaneous plastic products (-79). The largest gains in youth employment in individual industries were in jewelry and silverware (+385), eating and drinking places (+167), educational services (+92), banking and credit agencies (+87), and business and repair services (+91).

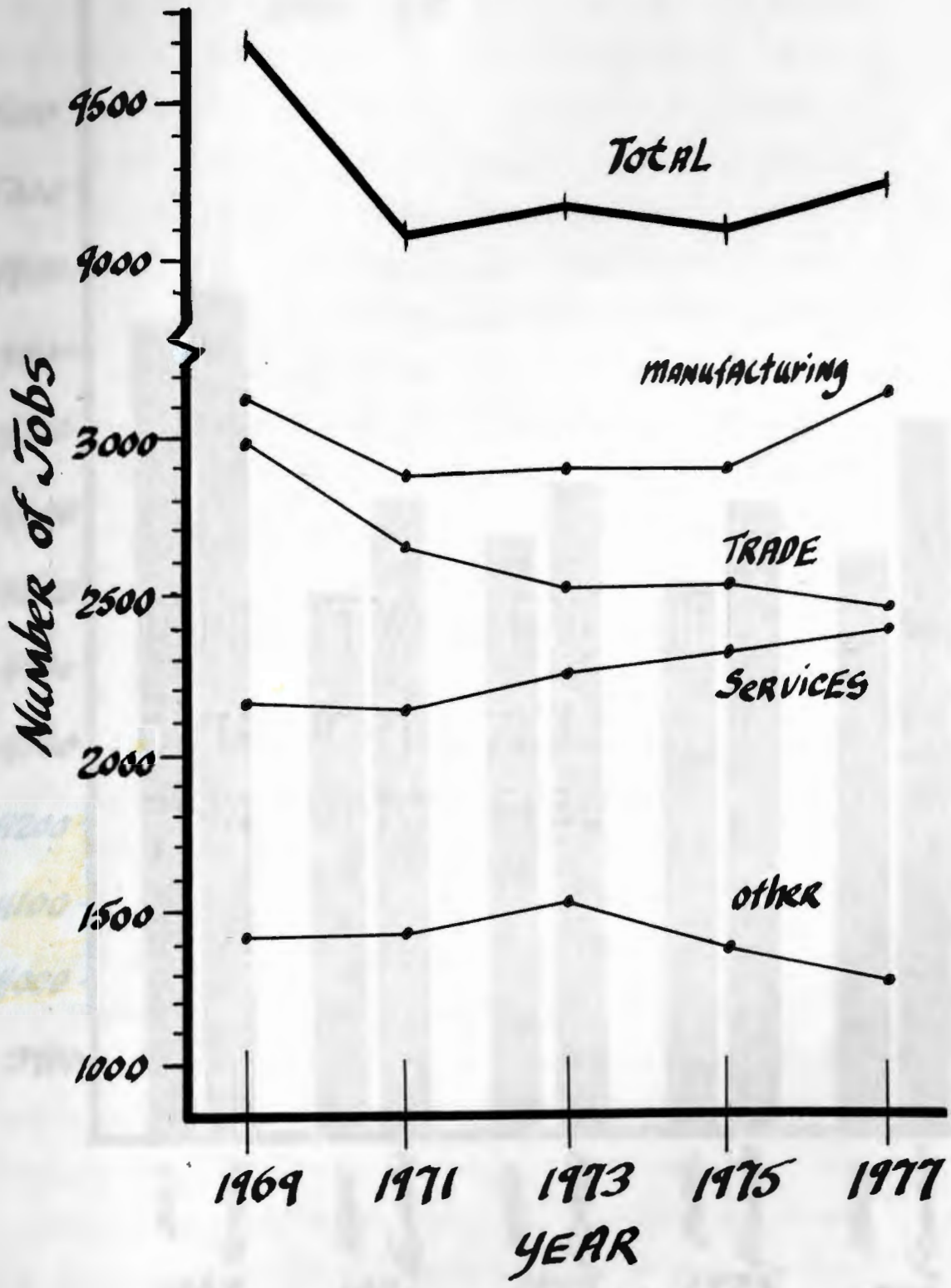
Shifts in available youth jobs were calculated in terms of the change in the average wage of youths in the Providence labor market over the 1969-77 period. Each of the industry categories were given a 1977 wage index which represents the proportion of the state average wage in that industry to the overall average wage in the state for all industries. The average wage of youth in all industries due to industrial shifts of employment decreased slightly from a wage of 95.7 percent that of the total population average wage to a wage of 94.6 percent. In terms of 1977 dollars, the average wage of available youth jobs decreased from $9,512 in 1969 to $9,402 in 1977.

Figure IV illustrates the trend in available youth jobs by the general industry categories of manufacturing, trade, services, and all other over the 1969-1977 period. As can be seen by the graph, manufacturing employment declined during the mid 1970's and returned to the 1969 level by 1977. Jobs in trade declined steadily while service industry jobs steadily increased.

The analysis of available jobs in Providence for youth was carried further and estimated in terms of jobs for men and women in the 16-19 age group. This procedure involved taking the estimated youth jobs for each industry and dividing them into jobs held by men and women based on the ratios of women to men in each industry in 1970. This method does not take into account the changes in female labor participation and integration of women into traditionally male jobs since 1970. However, with the traditional male and female job segregation assumed to continue, the technique gives a measure of the number of jobs available for men and women even if it understates the actual availability. Figure V. illustrates jobs available for male and female youth in the 16-19 age group over the 1969-1977 period. In terms of 1970 female to male ratios, the industrial mix in 1977 was such that substantially more jobs were available for teenage women than men, moreso than in previous years.

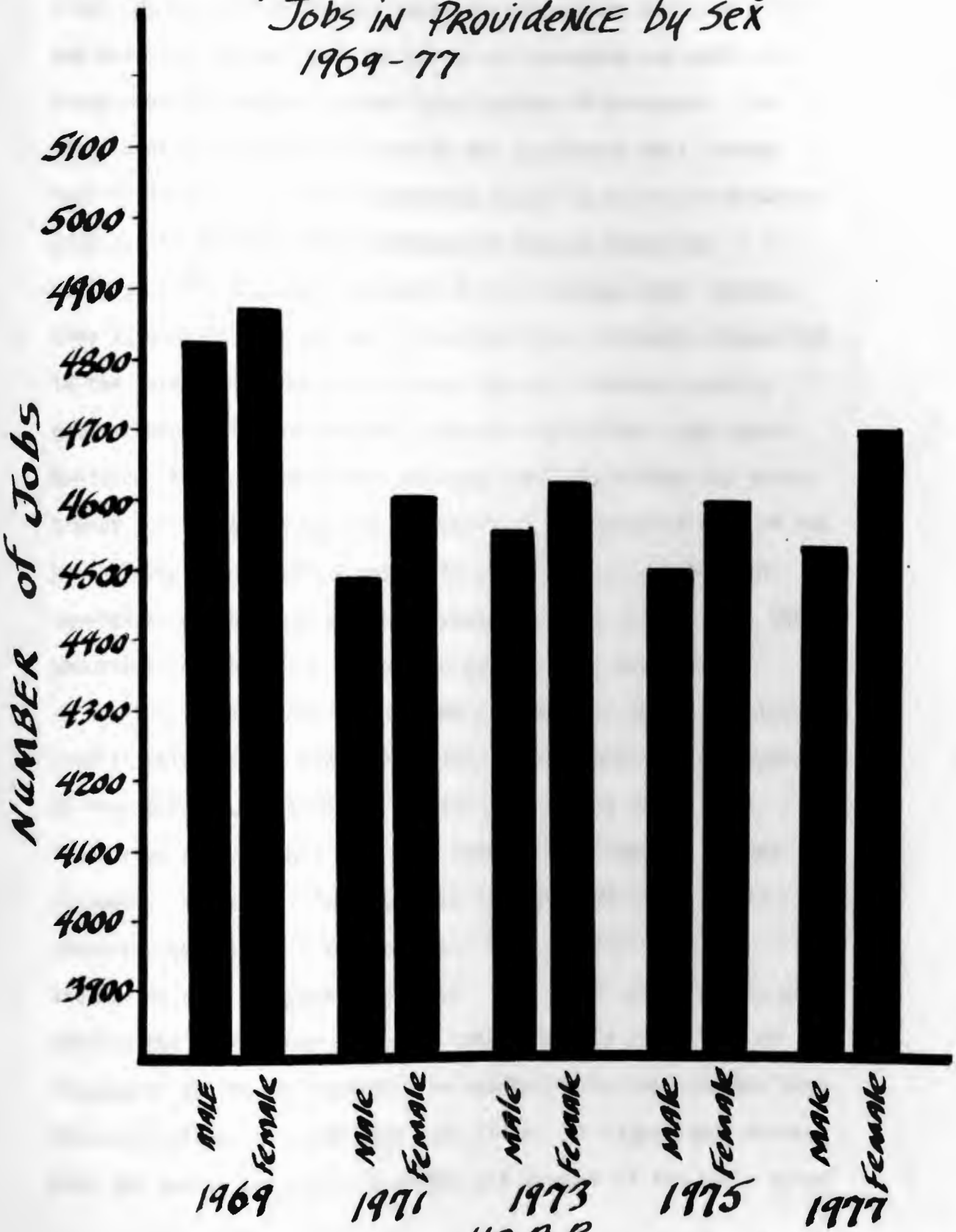
Although this technique for developing an index of the availability of youth jobs is conceptually useful, it has been critiqued by Edward Kalachek in his study of youth labor markets. Kalachek conducted a youth labor market study using cross-sectional data from 75 major SMSA's in 1969 on the effects of the industrial

Figure IV - Estimated Available Youth Jobs in Providence by Industry - 1969-77



Source: Data obtained from R.I. D.E.S. ES-202 Reports and then applied to an estimating Methodology

Figure V - Estimated Available Youth Jobs in Providence by Sex 1969-77



Source: Data obtained from R.I. D.E.S. ES-202 Reports and then applied to an estimating methodology

structure of a local labor market on the availability of youth jobs. He identified teenage intensive industries as those which employed the largest relative number of teenagers and were also large enough to employ a significant number of teenagers. The results of his analysis led him to the conclusion that teenage opportunities in any given community appear to be only moderately affected by the relative importance of teenage intensive activities.[44] Although teenagers do not increase their penetration into adult-type job activities when their relative proportion in the total labor force increases, they do, however occupy a greater proportion of teenage intensive industries. Job opportunities, Kalachek concludes, are not crucially limited by growth trends for teenage intensive industries. The relative size of the youth labor force and the extent to which adults compete with teenagers for the same jobs are crucial factors which affect the industrial distribution of and job availability for youth.[45]

The implications of Kalachek's finding on the methodology used in this section for determining job availability for youths in Providence suggest that proportions of youths in various industries are variable over time rather than constant (as was assumed). Kalachek's findings also suggest that increases in youth employment are likely to occur most readily in those industries that are youth intensive. The actual availability of jobs in the local labor market is therefore more a function of teenagers' ability to compete with adults in the labor market than the availability of youth type jobs alone. In tight labor markets when the demand for labor is strong all sectors of the labor force

are most likely to find employment opportunities. However when the supply of unskilled labor exceeds the demand, then competition for limited opportunities increases between youths and adults, with adults usually most successful in securing jobs.

Shifts in the Providence Youth Population

The two major factors affecting size and severity of the youth unemployment problem in a local economy are the relative proportion of youths to adults in the labor market and the economic conditions, or the aggregate demand for labor. Severe unemployment among youths occurs when there is a relatively large number of youths in the labor market and the general unemployment rate is high (or demand for labor is low).

In order to gain an understanding of the size and growth of the youth population, the entire population of Providence was projected from 1970 to 1980 by five year age groups. (The methodology used in this projection is described in Appendix P.) Table 6 summarizes the youth population compared to the total 15-64 years old age group. The projected youth population shows a decrease in their proportion to the adult population. This implies that there will be fewer youth in the labor force competing with adult secondary or part-time workers for jobs. Although this reduction in the youth labor force may or may not have an impact on the youth unemployment rate, there will be fewer youths unemployed. This reduction in youths would also allow more adult secondary workers to secure part-time jobs.

Table 6.--Providence Population Ages 15-64 for 1970, 1975, and 1980

Age Group	1970 (Actual)		1975 (Estimated)(1)		1980 (Projected)(2)	
	#	% of total	#	% of total	#	% of total
15-24 yrs.	34444	30.6	31407	29.2	25645	23.6
15-19 "	16546	14.7	13947	13.0	11754	10.8
20-24 "	17898	15.9	17460	16.2	13891	12.8
25-64 "	78118	69.4	76151	70.8	83020	76.4
Total	112562	100.0	107558	100.0	108665	100.0

(1)See Appendix P for a description of the methodology used for estimating and projecting population.

Table 7.--Providence Non-White Population Ages 15-64 for 1970, 1975, and 1980

Age Group	1970 (Actual)			1975 (Estimated)(1)			1980 (Projected)		
	#	% of Total Non-White	% of Total Pop.	#	% of Total Non-White	% of Total Pop.	#	% of Total Non-White	% of Total Pop.
15-24 yrs.	3511	33.6	10.2	4167	33.4	13.3	4473	32.0	17.4
15-19 "	1861	17.8	11.2	2231	17.9	16.0	2249	16.1	19.1
20-24 "	1650	15.8	9.2	1936	15.5	11.1	2224	15.9	16.0
25-64 "	6945	66.4	8.9	8312	66.6	10.9	9519	68.0	11.5
Total	10456	100.0	9.3	12479	100.0	11.6	13992	100.0	12.9

(1)See Appendix P for description of methodology.

Population by age group was also projected for the non-white population to 1980 in order to gain an understanding of the relative size of the non-white youth population as a part of the total youth population. Table 7 summarizes the non-white 15-64 years old projections. The non-white population is similar to the total population in the sense that the relative size of the youth age group is declining and projected to decline to 1980. However, this relative decline is not as large as that of the total youth population.

Non-white youths and the non-white population in general is projected to be a greater proportion of the total population by 1980. Non-white youths (15-24 years) are projected to increase in their percent of the total youth population by 7.2 percentage points. The total non-white population is projected to increase by 3.6 percentage points. This increase in non-white youth population means that there will be greater numbers of non-white youths in the labor force facing employment barriers that are generally greater for non-whites and therefore creating a worsened unemployment problem for minority youths.

Other Youth Unemployment Indicators

The R.I. Department of Employment Security does not collect data on unemployed youths in local communities or on the statewide level. It does, however, have data on the characteristics of the insured unemployed by age and sex categories for the state as a whole. General conditions in the state are assumed to have an effect on Providence. (In terms of the total unemployment rates of

Providence area labor force and the state as a whole, there is a close relationship (see Figure VII).

Table summarizes the difference between age and sex distribution of the insured unemployed in 1970 and 1977 based on annual averages.

Table 8.--Characteristics of the Insured Unemployed Annual Averages 1970 and 1977 by Age and Sex--Rhode Island

	1970		1977	
	#	%	#	%
Both Sexes				
Total	13569	100.0	19616	100.0
< 25 yrs.	1829	13.4	3903	19.9
Men				
Total	7471	100.0	11465	100.0
< 25 yrs.	1134	15.2	2359	20.1
Women				
Total	6098	100.0	8151	100.0
< 25 yrs.	694	11.4	1544	18.9

Source: R.I. Department of Employment Security.

In 1977, a greater proportion of the insured unemployed were under 25 years old. The proportion of unemployed young women to older women has increased more than the proportion of young men to older men among the insured unemployed. These changes in the youths' percentage of the insured unemployed reflect both their increase in numbers in the labor force and also the increased

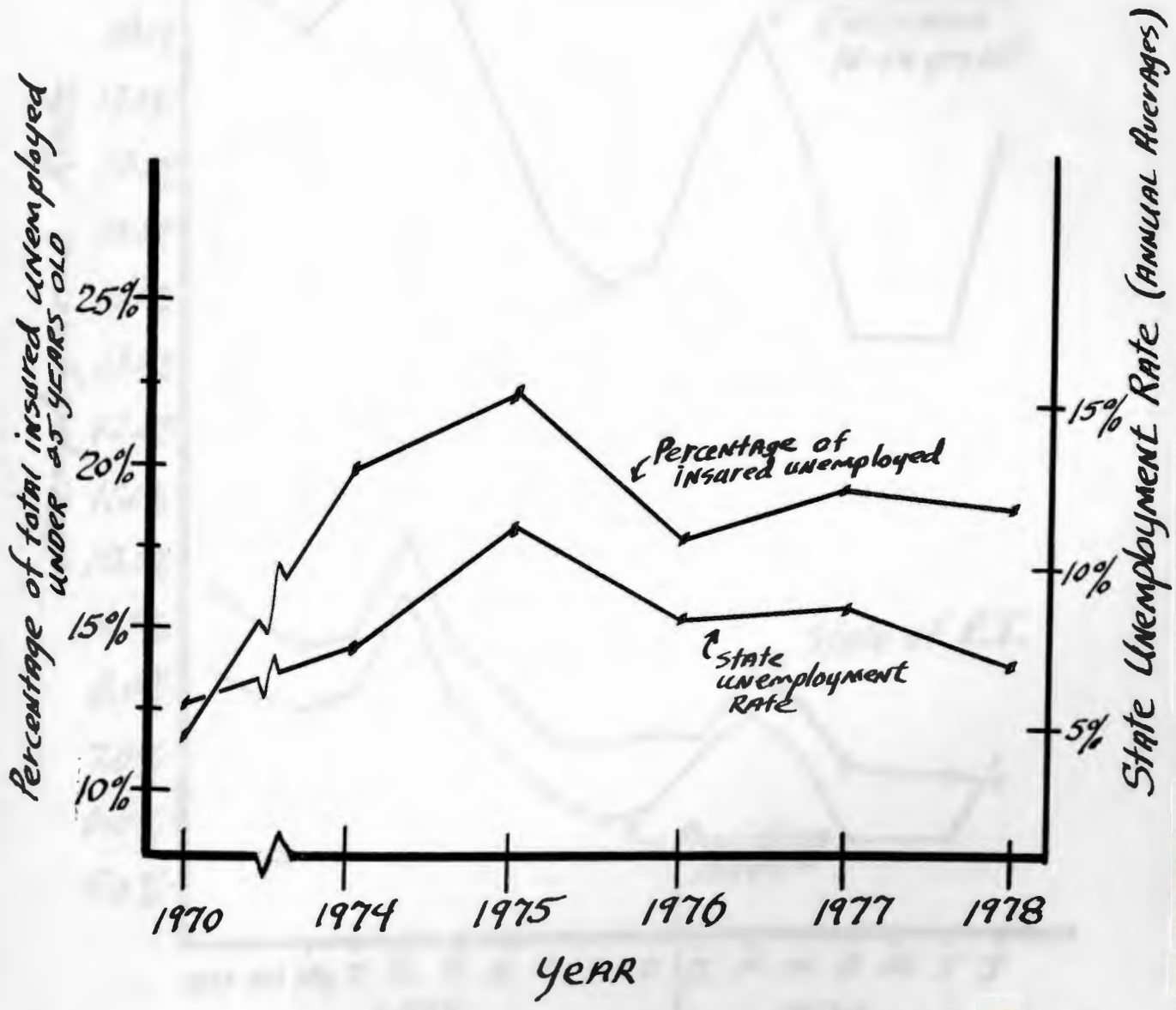
difficulty of finding employment for youths. Youths were not competing as well with adults for jobs in 1977 as they were in 1970.

The general state of the economy in Rhode Island has a direct effect on youth unemployment in that increases in total unemployment has the most direct effect on youth. When unemployment rates are generally high as they were in 1975, the proportion of youths that make up the insured unemployed also increases. This is supported by the fact that youths are generally the last to be hired and first to be laid off in times of economic growth and decline. Figure VI illustrates the relationship between the general unemployment rate for the state and the percentage of the insured unemployed that are youths.

Recent Trends in Unemployment in Providence

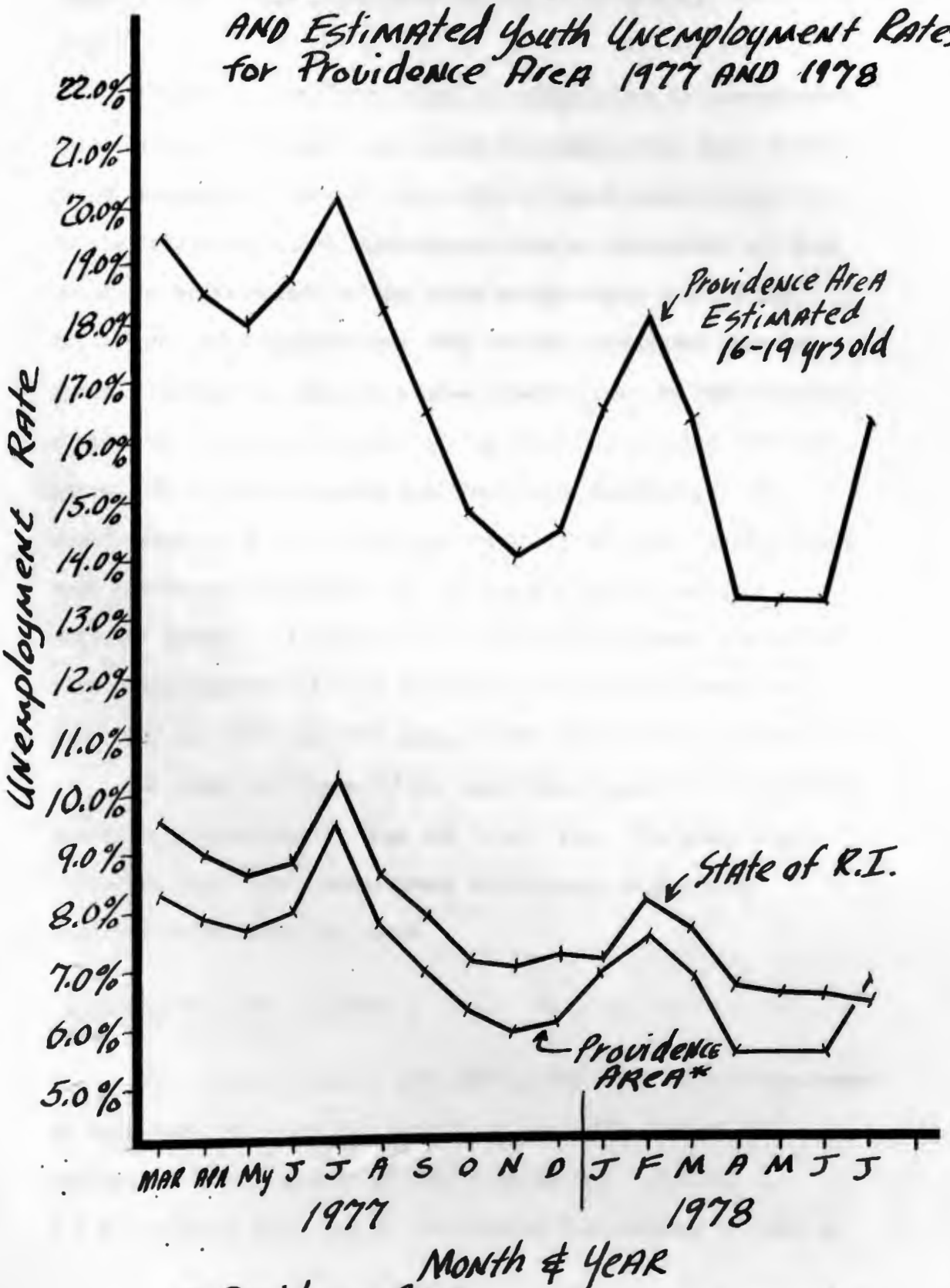
Monthly data available from the Department of Employment Security on local area unemployment rates was assembled for the Providence area labor force in order to gain a clearer picture of the economic environment in which youths seek employment. Figure VII illustrates the unemployment rate during a seventeen month period in 1977 and 1978 for the Providence Area Labor Force (which includes Providence, Johnston, and Cranston) and the State of Rhode Island. As can be seen by the graph, Providence unemployment rates have been below that of the state as a whole. Much of this difference is primarily due to the continued growth of the jewelry industry which supplied 20 percent of all jobs and 54 percent of all manufacturing jobs

Figure VI - State Unemployment Rate and Insured Unemployed Youths in Rhode Island - 1970-78



Source: R.I. Dept. of Employment Security - Research & Statistics

Figure VII - Unemployment Rates for Providence Area Labor Force and the State and Estimated Youth Unemployment Rates for Providence Area 1977 and 1978



* Providence Area includes Providence, Johnston, & Cranston

Source: R.I. Dept. of Employment Security

in Providence in 1977. (Nearly 60 percent of all jewelry industry jobs in the state were located in Providence in 1977.)

Figure VII also illustrates an estimated youth unemployment rate for the 16-19 age group in the Providence area labor force. Based on national trends in the ratio of youth unemployment rate to the total population unemployment rate an assumption was made about the relationship of the youth unemployment rate to the total population unemployment rate for the Providence Area Labor Force. Nationally, the youth unemployment rate has remained in a range of 2 - 2.5 times that of the total rate in the past ten years. It was then assumed that the youth unemployment rate would remain at a fairly constant ratio of the total unemployment rate (although it probably has increased slightly based on national trends). A ratio of the youth unemployment rate to the total unemployment rate was obtained from the 1970 Census and projected for 1977 and 1978 unemployment rate shown in Figure VII

As shown in Figure VII the youth unemployment rate typically shifts more dramatically than the total rate. The graph also indicates that local unemployment rates among youths have declined in the past two years.

Unemployed Providence Youth
Using R.I. Job Service

Data on the services provided by the Rhode Island Department of Employment Security Job Service is available through the Employment Service Automated Reporting System (E.S.A.R.S.). E.S.A.R.S. data collected for the period from October 1, 1978 to

December 31, 1978 for the two local Providence Job Service Offices indicates that there are 960 youths (under 22 years of age) that are active file applicants. These applicants have been classified into occupational categories based on their most recent job and not necessarily on their preferences and/or skills training in a particular occupation (see Table 9). The occupational groupings of these unemployed youth therefore reflect the relative size of the local youth labor force and their occupational concentrations rather than provide an indication of the scarcity of jobs for youth in various occupations. Many youth have left jobs in these various occupations because of their low wages and limited prospects and are using the Job Service to find better jobs.

The number of adult and youth active file applicants in the Providence local offices by their occupation is shown in Table . The number of job openings received by occupation and the number of these jobs that were filled and unfilled after 30 days during the October 1 to December 31, 1978 period is also given as an indication of the demand for labor by the various occupational groups. The percentage of jobs received that were not filled after 30 days combined with the percentage that were filled provides an indication of two possibilities: either that the jobs offered are low paying, high turnover and undesirable, or that the jobs offered require highly skilled individuals that are relatively scarce in the local labor market. For example, machine trades require highly skilled and semi skilled individuals that have been scarce in the local labor market as reflected by a low rate

Table 9.--Providence Local Job Service Offices--Applicants and Nonagricultural Job Openings--October 1, 1978 to December 31, 1978

Occupation	Openings Received	Openings Filled		Unfilled Openings 30 days or more		Active File of Applicants		
						Total	Adults	Youth (less than 22 yrs.)
	#	#	%	#	%	#	#	#
Professional, Technical and Managers	293	191	65.1	158	54.0	1195	1165	30
Clerical & Sales	1026	641	62.4	267	26.0	1018	874	144
Service	1524	1183	77.6	293	19.0	743	563	180
Processing	116	57	49.0	24	21.0	233	183	50
Machine Trades	219	97	44.3	186	85.0	445	358	87
Bench work	351	224	63.8	220	62.6	572	466	106
Structural	198	129	65.1	54	27.3	421	345	76
Miscellaneous	1119	1048	93.6	48	4.3	730	533	197
Total	4863	3595	100.0	1287	26.5	5911	4951	960

Source: E.S.A.R.S. Data, December, 1978, R.I. Department of Employment Security.

of openings filled and a high percentage unfilled after 30 days. On the other hand, benchwork occupations have had a high rate of openings filled as well as a high rate of openings unfilled after 30 days, reflecting the low skill requirements, high turnover, and low wage characteristics of these jobs. Generally high rates of unfilled openings reflects the undesirability of these jobs as well as general availability except in those occupations that require highly skilled individuals such as professionals and machine trades.

Youth applicants in the Job Service active file are concentrated in clerical and sales and service occupations which have relatively high placement rates. Eleven percent (11%) of the youth applicants are in the benchwork occupations which are among the most undesirable jobs.

In FY 1978 the R.I. Job Service local office had a cumulative total of 8,069 job applicants which 22 years of age, 4,465 (55.3 percent) of whom were placed into jobs. This placement rate is much higher than that for adults. During the same period 19,439 adults (22 years and older) were available applicants of which only 3,771 (19.4 percent) were placed. However, youths were placed in the lowest paying jobs on the average with the average placement hourly wage for youths (less than 20 years old) at $2.87 compared to the overal average hourly wage of $3.12. Minority youths had the lowest average placement hourly wage at $2.74 (see Table 10). Non-minority youths averaged a hourly placement wage of $2.90. Part of this difference may be attributable to the location of most minorities in the low wage labor

Table 10.--Rhode Island Job Service Available Applicants and Job Placement FY 1978

		All Individuals				Minority				Non-Minority			
		Applicants Available	Applicants Placed		Avg. Wage	Applicants Available	Applicants Placed		Avg. Wage	Applicants Available	Applicants Placed		Avg. Wage
		#	#	%	$	#	#	%	$	#	#	%	$
	Total	77076	17396	22.6	3.12	8562	2822	32.9	2.94	68514	14574	21.3	3.15
Age	Less than 20 yrs. old	11544	5537	47.9	2.87	1716	1149	66.9	2.74	9828	4388	44.6	2.90
	20-21 yrs.	7850	2317	29.5	3.15	839	293	34.9	2.92	7011	2024	28.9	3.18
Sex	Male	41338	10870	26.3	3.19	4742	1807	38.1	2.98	36596	9063	24.8	3.23
	Female	35730	6526	18.3	2.98	3820	1015	26.6	2.88	31910	5511	17.3	3.00
Highest Grade	0-7	3396	552	16.2	2.88	688	127	18.4	2.72	2708	425	15.7	2.93
	8-11	25517	7285	28.5	2.91	3915	1611	41.1	2.85	21602	5674	26.3	2.93
	12	29379	6348	21.7	3.28	2610	757	29.0	3.08	26769	5591	20.9	3.31
	12 & over	18784	3211	17.1	3.42	1349	327	24.2	3.21	17435	2884	16.5	3.44
Race	White	70011	15004	21.4	3.16	1524	439	28.8	3.01	68487	14565	21.3	3.16
	Black	6287	2216	35.2	2.93	6287	2216	35.2	2.93	0	0	0	0
	Other	778	176	22.6	3.01	751	167	22.2	3.01	27	9	33.3	3.01
Spanish American		2030	581	28.6	3.01	2030	581	28.6	3.01	0	0	0	0

Source: E.S.A.R. Data, 1978.

market of Providence, however, it is most likely caused by discrimination in the job market, leaving the lowest paying jobs for minority youths.

B. High-School Dropouts in Providence

Information on the high school dropout problem in Providence has been made available through the Providence School Department Research and Evaluation Office and the State Department of Education's Student Flow Survey reporting system. These sources have available much information on the age, grade, sex, race, reasons of dropouts and also the school from which they left. The information gathered on each dropout is done through a system of school officials reporting on each dropout rather than the dropout completing a questionnaire. As previously mentioned in Chapter II of this study such reporting systems similarly used in Philadelphia showed a high degree of inaccuracy in the accounting of reasons for dropping out. The perceived reason was usually different than the actual reason, especially for very personal reasons or combinations of reasons difficult to explain by a school official or the dropouts themselves. Since there are no systematic follow-up surveys of high school dropouts in Providence or the state, little is known as to what happens to the dropout after leaving school--whether they are employed or seeking employment, whether they have returned to school, entered job training programs, etc.

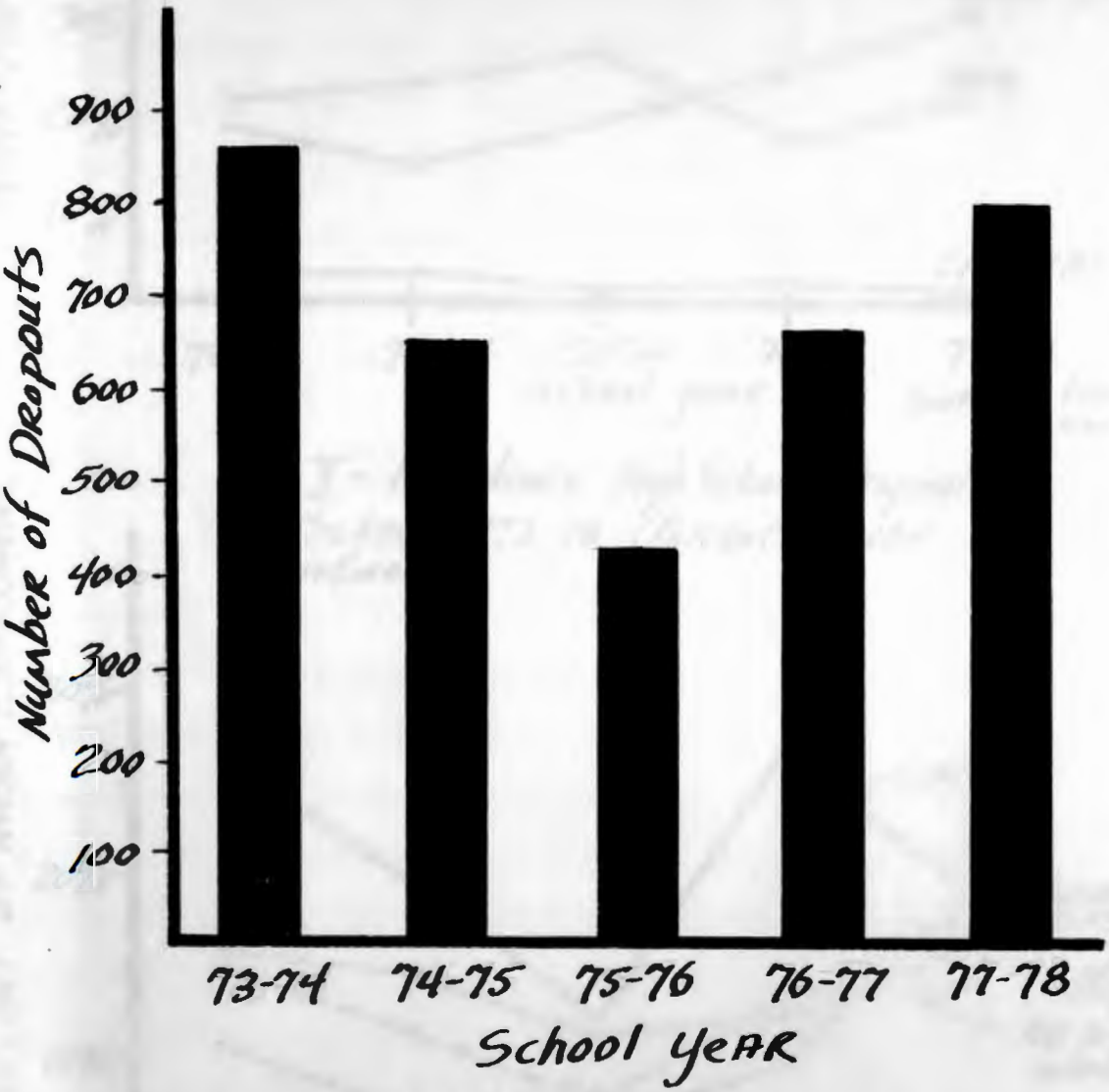
Information available on high school dropouts does provide demographic information useful for identifying the number and characteristics of dropouts and the schools from which they leave. Estimates of dropout youths in the local labor market can then be used for the development of job training programs assisting these youths.

Recent Trends in Dropouts in Providence

Over the past five school calendar years, the number of early school leavers, (referred to as dropouts in this study), has ranged widely from over 850 to less than 430 individuals during the various years. The lowest number of dropouts occurred during the 1975-76 school year having declined from over 850 during the 1973-74 school year. Since the 1975-76 school year the number of dropouts have increased to over 770 during the 1977-78 school year. (see Figure VIII) It is interesting to note that there were greater numbers of dropouts during years when the local unemployment rate was low and fewer dropouts during the 1975 recession. The decision to dropout is frequently hinged upon the individuals' desire to find a job and their perception of job possibilities in the labor market.

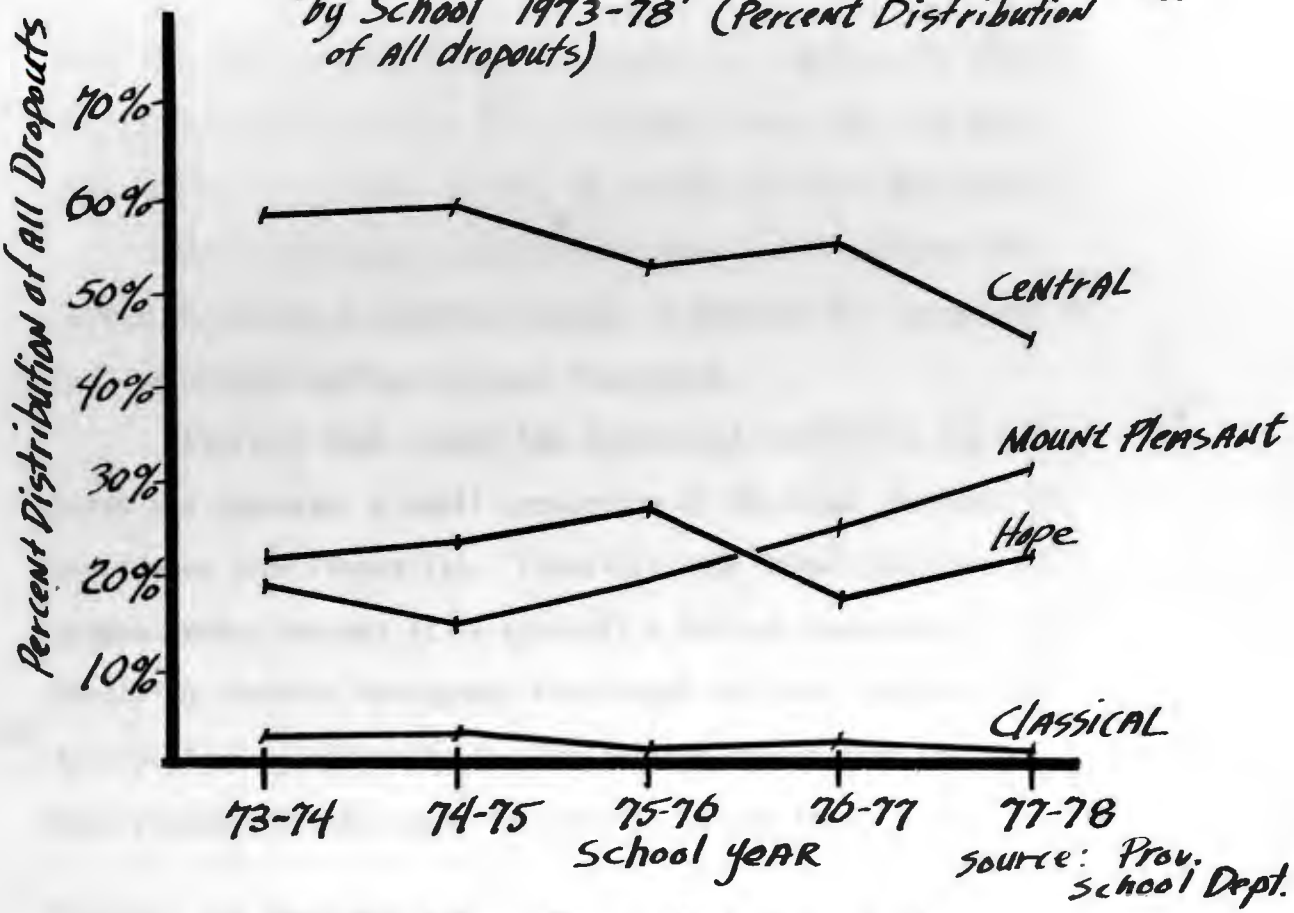
The majority of dropouts in Providence has been from the three comprehensive high schools--Mount Pleasant, Central, and Hope High Schools. Figure IX and Figure X illustrate the trends over the past five school years of dropouts within each of these high schools. Central High School has shown a declining percentage of all dropouts in Providence while Mount Pleasant High School's proportionate share of dropouts has steadily increased since school year 1974-75 (see Figure IX). In terms of percent of mean enrollment in each of these schools, Mount Pleasant has steadily increased in their dropout rate since the 1974-75 school year going from 7 percent of mean enrollment in 1974-75 to over 19 percent in 1977-78 (see Figure X). Central High School dropouts

Figure VIII - Providence High School Dropouts 1973-78



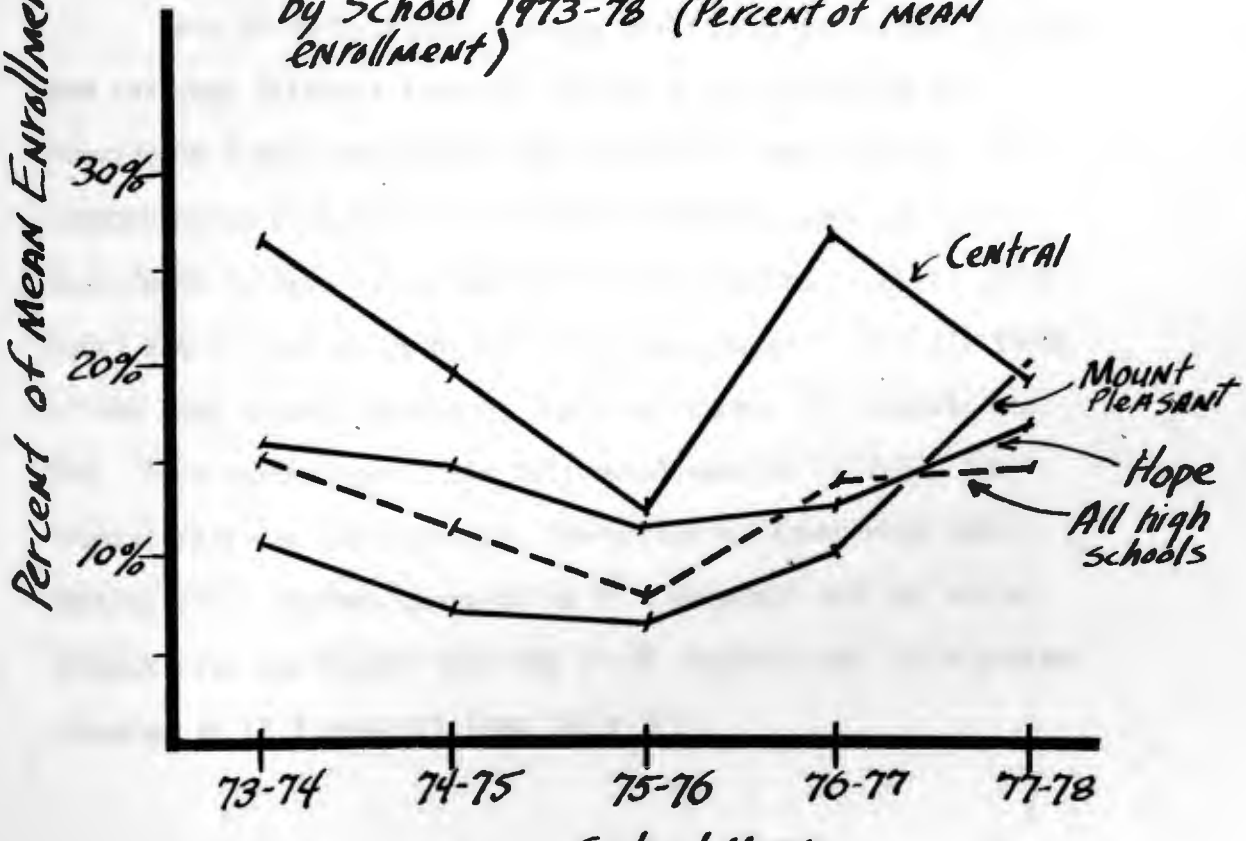
Source: Providence School Department - Research & Evaluation

Fig. IX - Providence High School Dropouts by School 1973-78 (Percent Distribution of all dropouts)



source: Prov. School Dept.

Fig. X - Providence High School Dropouts by School 1973-78 (Percent of mean enrollment)



Source: Providence School Dept.

have fluctuated widely reaching a low of 12.5 percent in 1975-76 to a high of 27 percent in the following school year and then back down to 18 percent in 1977-78 (percent of mean enrollment).

Hope High School dropout rates have not fluctuated significantly and have remained between 11 percent and 17 percent of mean enrollment during the past five years.

Classical High School has maintained relatively low dropout rates and represent a small proportion of the total dropouts in Providence (see Figure IX). Classical High School has such low dropout rates because it is strictly a college preparatory school enrolling students throughout Providence who have chosen to go to Classical specifically for its college orientation and who have passed entrance exams in order to be admitted.

Dropouts and Dropout Rates in Providence High Schools

Data on early school leavers and school enrollment by race and sex were obtained from the Student Flow Survey and the Providence School Department for the school year 1977-78. The comprehensive high schools, Central, Mount Pleasant, and Hope, were found to have varied numbers of early school leavers (dropouts) and dropout rates by race and sex category. For all three of the high schools combined, the total number of dropouts was 780. As a percentage of the fall enrollment of 1977-78, the dropout rate was 19.1 percent. Males had a higher rate than females (20.5 percent compared to 17.5 percent) and the white dropout rate was higher than the Black dropout rate (20.4 percent compared to 17.3 percent) (see Table 11).

Table 11.--Early School Leavers and Leaver Rates 1977-78 in Providence High Schools

	Central		High School Mt.Pleasant		Hope		Total	
	#	Rate[1]	#	Rate	#	Rate	#	Rate
Total	357	19.8	250	21.5	173	15.4	780	19.1
Male	191	19.7	144	25.5	98	17.0	433	20.5
Female	166	19.9	106	17.7	75	13.7	347	17.5
White	230	23.2	160	20.1	86	15.9	476	20.4
Male	118	22.0	95	25.0	47	17.7	260	22.0
Female	112	24.6	65	15.6	39	14.2	216	18.8
Black & Other	127	15.7	90	24.6	87	14.9	304	17.3
Male	73	16.9	49	26.6	51	16.4	173	18.7
Female	54	14.3	41	22.5	36	13.1	131	15.7
Percent Black & Other Enrolled	44.9%		31.5%		52.0%		43.0%	

[1]Percent of Fall Enrollment 1977-78.

Source: Student Flow Survey of Providence 1977-78 and Providence School Department. Research and Evaluation Office.

Significant differences in male and female dropout rates occurred in Mount Pleasant High School with the rate for males at 25.5 percent and for females, 17.7 percent. These sex differences were most pronounced among White youths. Although the overall dropout rate for Blacks is less than Whites in Providence, Mount Pleasant has a higher rate for Blacks than for Whites (24.6 percent compared to 20.1 percent). Mount Pleasant also has the

highest overall dropout rate, although more of the total number of dropouts in Providence dropped out of Central High School.

It is interesting to note that the percent of Black and other students in Mount Pleasant High is lowest of the three high schools and yet Black dropout rates in Mount Pleasant are the highest of the three schools. Conversations with fifteen high school dropouts, some of whom left Mount Pleasant and are Black indicated that racial conflicts are key factors contributing to a student's decision to leave. Although the indication has not been documented, there remains such a possibility since Blacks and other minorities are "outnumbered" two to one in Mount Pleasant.

Reasons for Dropping Out

As previously mentioned, the reasons given for dropping are designated by school officials who choose the single most appropriate or the major reason that they perceive (either through their observations or conversations with the dropouts) to be the reason for a student dropping out. There are many designations of "reason unknown" which offers little information as to the problems confronted by dropouts when they decide to leave school.

Table 12 lists the major reasons designated by school officials why students dropped out from high schools during the 1977-78 school year, comparing Providence with the rest of the state. Nearly 40 percent of all dropouts (341 dropouts) were designated as "unknown reason" for dropping out. This category representing the majority of all dropouts could reflect the

Table 12.--Major Reasons for Leaving School
Early School Leavers by Race and Sex for
Providence and State of R.I. for
School Year 1977-78

Race, Sex, Location	Designated Reasons for Leaving School										Total
	Went to Work		Discouraged About Acad. Ach.		Lack of Interest		Other Reasons		Unknown Reason		
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#
Providence											
Both Sexes	161	18.7	107	12.5	84	9.8	81	9.4	341	39.7	859
Black & Other	60	18.3	42	12.8	42	12.8	29	9.9	119	36.4	327
White	101	19.1	65	12.3	41	7.8	52	9.8	219	41.4	528
Females	72	10.6	35	8.8	40	10.1	35	8.8	169	42.6	397
Black & Other	26	17.9	17	11.7	19	13.1	11	7.6	53	36.5	145
White	46	18.5	18	7.2	21	8.4	24	9.6	113	45.4	249
Males	89	19.3	72	15.6	44	9.5	46	10.0	172	37.2	462
Black & Other	34	18.8	25	13.8	23	12.7	18	10.0	66	36.5	181
White	55	19.7	47	16.8	20	7.2	28	10.0	106	38.0	279
State of R.I.											
Both Sexes	1326	33.4	257	6.5	934	23.5	309	7.8	936	23.5	3975
Black & Other	182	28.0	55	8.5	150	23.1	51	7.8	182	28.0	650
White	1144	34.4	202	6.1	784	23.6	257	7.7	750	22.6	3325
Female	528	31.2	96	5.7	368	21.7	172	10.2	455	28.9	1694
Male	798	35.0	161	7.1	566	24.8	137	6.0	481	21.1	2280

Source: Student Flow Survey--Special Request Data.

possibilities that school officials simply could not find the dropouts in order to designate their reason for dropping out or that there was no apparent reason (or multiple reasons) for the student dropping out. It is probable that most dropouts leave school for many combinations of reasons which cannot be categorized.

Of the reasons known for students dropping out, 161 (18.7 percent) left to go to work (whether or not they actually obtained a job is not known, however); 107 (12.5 percent) were discouraged about their academic achievement; 84 (9.8 percent) left because of a lack of interest in school; and 81 (9.4 percent) had "other reasons" for dropping out which varied from undesignated personal reasons to racial conflicts, pregnancy, and disciplinary reasons.

In Providence, there was a sizable difference between the reasons for males and females dropping out--more so than in the state as a whole. A greater percentage of males left school to go to work than females (19.3 percent compared to 10.6 percent) and more males were discouraged about their academic achievement than females (15.6 percent compared to 8.8 percent). Racial differences in reasons for dropping out among Providence dropouts however, were not as great, with the exception that 12.8 percent of Black dropouts compared to 7.8 percent of white dropouts left school because of "lack of interest".

Differences between Providence and the state as a whole in terms of reasons for dropping out are sizable. While 33.4 percent of all dropouts in the state left school to go to work, only 18.7 percent of all Providence dropouts left school for that

reason. This difference may be an indication of the differences in job opportunities available for suburban youth compared to the opportunities available in Providence; opportunities being greater in the suburban areas of the state thus providing a work alternative to school. A much greater proportion of students in the state as a whole left school because of "lack of interest" than did dropouts in Providence (23.5 percent compared to 9.8 percent). On the other hand, 12.5 percent of Providence dropouts left school because they were "discouraged about their academic achievement" compared to only 6.5 percent of the dropouts in the state as a whole.

While some of the differences between various subgroups of dropouts in Providence and the state as a whole appear large, there is a high probability that there was error in the way reasons for dropping out were accounted for among different school jurisdictions. An indication that school systems outside of Providence may be more thorough in tracking down the reasons for students dropping out is the fact that less than one-quarter of all dropouts in the state were designated as dropping out for "unknown reasons" compared to nearly half of all dropouts in Providence being so designated. The available data on reasons for dropping out of high school is at best a rough indicator of dropout problems and offers little in the way of formulating strategies for improving the dropout problem.

During the course of this study, fifteen high school dropouts were interviewed and asked why they had left school before graduating. Although the sample of dropouts was taken

from a youth job training program (and therefore not randomly selected), the general impression received indicated that reasons for dropping out centered more on problems with fighting in school, lack of interest (school was boring), and poor grades. The different kinds of problems that dropouts face in school and their reasons for leaving seemed to be a combination of factors and circumstances which do not get reflected in the Student Flow Survey reasons for dropping out. There is, in addition, the possibility that dropouts prefer to give reasons that appear more acceptable (like leaving school to get a job) than reasons that reflect personal problems or faults such as delinquency, pregnancy, or academic failure.

C. Employment Situation of Dropouts

An estimate of the number of youth dropouts in Providence has been provided by the Providence C.E.T.A. prime sponsor including youth that dropped out of school in the 1973-74 school year to the 1976-77 school year. To this number has been added the dropouts during the 1977-78 school year. Estimating the percentage of those dropouts that are now in the 14-21 years age group, there are presently about 2,800 dropouts in the 14-21 years age group in Providence. The estimated number of these dropouts that are participating in the labor forces, whether employed or unemployed, is not known. However, this number is substantial in terms of the potential numbers of dropouts that may be unemployed and looking for work.

High School Dropouts in the Labor Market

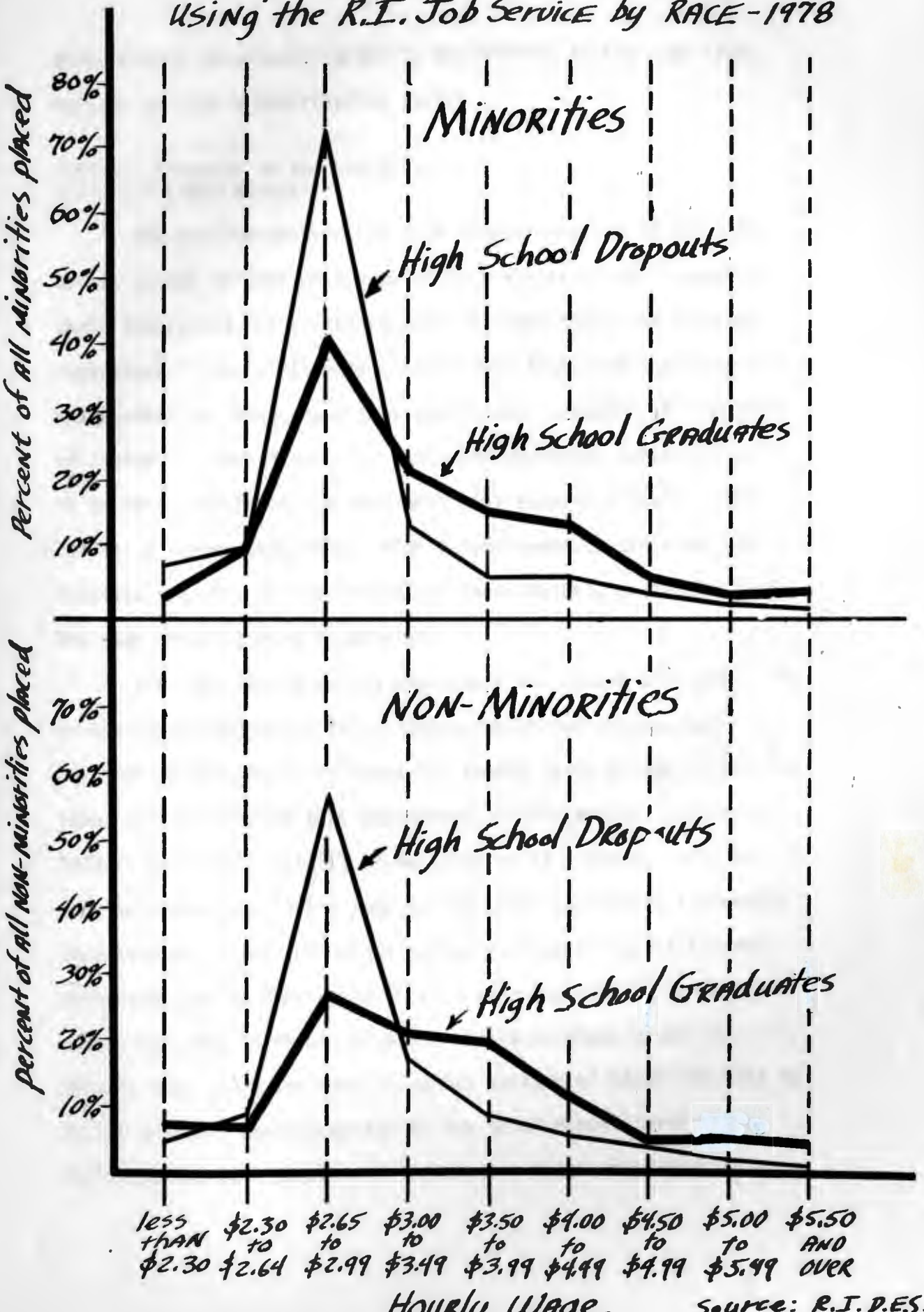
Although the Providence local labor market has an over-abundance of low skill, low paying jobs which tend to force most youth and secondary adult workers into low paying jobs (Rhode Island is ranked 48th of the 50 states in its weekly manufacturing wages,[46] there are still wide differences between wages that individuals who lack a high school diploma and individuals having a high school diploma receive. E.S.A.R.S. data on Rhode Island Job Service placements is the only current data reflecting wages of the two groups of individuals in the state. During FY 1978, 7,285 individuals having an education level of eighth to eleventh grade were placed into jobs having an overall average hourly wage of $2.91. Of those with a twelfth grade education that

applied for jobs through the Job Service, 6,348 were placed into jobs with an overall average hourly wage of $3.42. Although placement rates were higher for those lacking a high school diploma than those with a high school diploma (28.5 percent compared to 21.7 percent), wage rates were lower for the former group (see Table 10 on page 61).

Figure XI illustrates the placement wage distribution for high school graduates and non-graduates for both minority and non-minority groups in the state that used the Rhode Island Job Service. Higher proportions of graduates than non-graduates were placed in higher wage categories in general with wages generally higher for non-minorities than minorities. Minorities lacking a high school diploma had an average hourly wage of $2.85 compared to non-minorities of the same educational level having an average hourly wage of $2.93.

The relative advantage of minorities having twelfth grade education over those minorities with less education is also less than that of the relative advantage than non-minorities have. The average wage of minority graduates was only $.23 higher than minority non-graduates whereas non-minority graduates had an average wage that was $.38 higher than non-minority non-graduates (see Table 10 on page 61). The relative rewards of higher education in terms of wage levels in jobs obtained is therefore less for minorities than non-minorities in the state. As previously mentioned, racial discrimination in the labor market is probably the key factor determining racial wage inequalities while

Figure XI - Placement Wage Distribution for High School Graduates and Dropouts Using the R.I. Job Service by Race - 1978



Source: R.I.D.E.S. - E.S.A.R.S. 1978

geographical location of minority populations in low wage labor markets is also a contributing factor.

Jobs for Dropouts in the Low-Wage, Low-Skill Labor Markets

The problem confronting high school dropouts in the labor market is not so much of a problem of scarcity of jobs demanding their labor, but rather the relative disadvantage that dropouts experience in their attempts to find jobs that have some room for advancement and have wages that can sustain a reasonable standard of living. Low-wage jobs for youth are generally tolerated until it is necessary to earn a wage that will support a family and/or fulfill a career objective. High school dropouts can find jobs relatively easily in the Providence labor market, particularly in low wage manufacturing industries.

Low wage manufacturing employment has become a larger share of the total employment in Providence while the average wage has declines in the past five years. A recent study of the Providence labor market revealed that employment in the jewelry industry in 1973 in Providence totaled 18,616 jobs or 44.7 percent of all manufacturing jobs in Providence. By 1977, employment in jewelry increased to 22,587 jobs constituting 53.0 percent of all manufacturing jobs in Providence.[47] With this increase in employment came a decrease in relative wages. While absolute wages in jewelry jobs increased from an annual average of $6,575 in 1973 to $8,391 in 1977, the percentage of the total manufacturing wage declined from 82.4 percent of the state average manufacturing wage

in 1973 to 81.4 percent in 1977 (see Table 13). In terms of income producing abilities, those employed in low-wage manufacturing have become relatively more disadvantaged than the rest of the working population.

Table 13 identifies employment by major industry groups for Providence in 1977 and changes over the 1973-77 period. While there has been a decrease in jobs in wholesale and retail trade, jobs in jewelry manufacturing and services industries have increased. The total decrease in jobs in Providence over the 1973-74 period was a loss of 6,459 jobs, most of which were jobs in higher paying industries (with the exception of trade). The net effect of these industrial shifts are that more individuals in the local labor market are losing higher paying jobs and forced to secure lower paying manufacturing, trade and service jobs. The extent to which this phenomenon is taking place depends on the mobility of those losing their jobs and the relocation of jobs that have left Providence. While Providence lost substantial numbers of high wage jobs, the metropolitan core area (including Providence, North Providence, Central Falls, Cranston, Johnston, and East Providence) also lost jobs in these industries, with the exception of Finance, Insurance and Real Estate which declined in Providence by 789 jobs but increased in the metropolitan core area by 514 jobs.[48] In terms of local labor market competition for jobs, it seems that competition has probably increased since many who have lost higher wage jobs but maintained their Providence residence are forced to compete for jobs in lower paying industries.

Table 13.--Average Annual Employment and Wages by Major Industry Group in Providence 1977 and Changes Over the 1973-77 Period

Industry	1977				1973-77 Change	
	Avg. Emp.	% of State	Average Annual Wage	% Wage Index(1)	Avg. Emp.	Wage Index
Construction	1763	13.8	$13,080	108.2	- 621	- 9.1
Manufacturing	40654	31.2	9,682	94.6	- 878	- 3.1
Jewelry	22587	58.4	8,391	81.4(2)	+3971	- 1.0
Transportation, Communications, & Public Utilities	5449	42.7	14,455	108.6	-3150	+ 5.2
Wholesale & Retail Trade	17707	22.5	9,422	123.4	-1905	+ 6.2
Finance, Insurance & Real Estate	12615	65.8	10,785	101.8	- 789	- 0.3
Services	29365	42.5	9,444	116.1	+ 886	+ 3.0
Total	107626	33.1	10,000	106.8	-6459	+ 0.6

(1)Wage Index = Average wage in an industry group for a particular geographical area, divided by the average wage in that industry group for the whole state.

(2)Jewelry Wage Index = Average wage in the jewelry industry divided by the average wage of all manufacturing industries.

Source: South Providence Revisited--Study and Recommendations, O.I.C. of Rhode Island Inc., Dept. of Planning and Economic Development, August, 1978, Tables 4, 5, 6 and 7.

Such an increase in competition puts those with the lowest skills, lowest education, and those that are newest in the labor force at the greatest disadvantages.

Most of the available job openings in the state require no minimum level of education. A recent employer survey conducted by the Rhode Island Department of Job Development and Training found that of the current demand for labor in the state, 77.3 percent of the jobs available required no minimum educational level and 41.5 percent required no related experience. Most of these jobs were characteristically low skill/high turnover in nature, nearly two-thirds of which had starting rates of less than $3.00/hr.[49]

It would seem, then, that jobs for youth dropouts in the state are available since there are large numbers of low skill, low requirement jobs. In Providence, particularly, there is the highest concentration of low skill jobs having high turnover rates. Much of the difficulty in many dropout youths' attempts to find a job arises from the increasing competition for these low skill, low paying jobs by primary and secondary adult workers in the local labor market who have lost higher paying manufacturing and other industry jobs. The current skill and educational levels of adults in the local labor market aren't sufficiently high enough for them to command higher wages and skilled jobs and as such a large segment of the local adult population is in direct competition with inexperienced and undereducated youths.

Summary

Available youth jobs in Providence have shown a shift from retail trade to manufacturing and service industries during the 1969-77 period. The relative position of youth in the local labor market has therefore become worse over the years in so far as their ability to compete for full time manufacturing employment within labor market conditions where more adults are competing with youth for the same jobs. There is the possibility that youth have occupied a greater percentage of the retail employment as competition for full time service and manufacturing jobs has increased. This, however, would mean that the relative wages and earnings of youth have decreased over the years. The extent to which competition between youths and adults has further limited the job opportunities for youth is not known and can only be implied by the overall unemployment rate, industrial shifts of the total labor force in Providence, and the relative numbers of youth compared to adults that are in the labor force.

An increase in low wage jobs in the Providence local labor market has been the trend over the past ten years. This trend has the effect of reducing the gainful job prospects for all segments of the labor force. Based on national relationships of youth to adults in the labor market, it can be concluded that this reduction of job prospects has the greatest negative impact on youths with minorities and high school dropouts being the most disadvantaged.

Although the absolute numbers of youth in the Providence labor force may be decreasing, their relative position in the

local labor market has also decreased. For those youth in the labor force, gainful job prospects have declined over recent years. An increasing trend of minority youth population in Providence means that their rates of unemployment will probably increase as well as their employment in low wage industries. For high school dropouts, their job prospects are not only limited by their lack of credentials but also by their low relative position in the hiring line in a local labor market that has become increasing competitive for jobs that are ordinarily reserved for those with the least skills and education. In other words, the increasing trend of low wage, unskilled industry in Providence has forced those with higher skills and educational credentials to accept low wage unskilled jobs, thus making dropouts more disadvantaged in their competition for these jobs.

CHAPTER IV

JOB TRAINING PROGRAMS IN PROVIDENCE FOR YOUTH HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUTS

The major source of funding for youth employment programs in Providence is C.E.T.A. C.E.T.A. monies are funneled through the Providence C.E.T.A. prime sponsor which services the unemployed residents of Providence. C.E.T.A. monies are divided into several program categories: classroom/skills training, public service employment, and youth employment training programs. The major program category which deals with youth exclusively is the Youth Employment Training Program (Y.E.T.P.) which is divided into two categorical programs--in-school and out-of-school training.

The in-school Y.E.T.P. program services disadvantaged youths that are enrolled in high school, many of whom are potential dropouts. In program year 1978, 448 youths were enrolled in the in-school Y.E.T.P. program. The importance of having a stipended job training program such as Y.E.T.P. available to students enrolled in school is substantiated by the fact that traditional in-school vocational and skills training programs have had a tendency to screen out potential high school dropouts because of their poor academic achievement in the lower grades. This fact has been documented by a recent study conducted by the Rhode Island Department of Education on vocational education and high school dropouts. Among other findings, the study found that dropout-prone students do not have access to vocational education

because they leave school before they are eligible and because they are screened out of programs due to poor grades. Significant differences between early school leavers and vocational students in IQ scores and standardized test scores presented evidence of differences between the two groups and lends support to increasing the availability of non-academic programs for potential early school leavers.[50]

The out-of-school Y.E.T.P. program is directed exclusively toward disadvantaged youths who have dropped out of school. Program monies under this branch of the Y.E.T.P. program are distributed out to three community-based job training programs (vendors of local C.E.T.A. monies). These three vendors are Opportunities Industrialization Center (O.I.C.), Joslin Community Center, and Project Persona (which is directed toward assisting Spanish-speaking youths in Providence). During the 1978 program year, ninety-four Y.E.T.P. program participants were terminated (some positive, some non-positive terminations) from the three programs. Sixty-five (65) participants had been enrolled at O.I.C., seventeen (17) enrolled at Joslin, and twelve (12) enrolled at Project Persona.

Programs other than Y.E.T.P., fully or partially funded through Providence C.E.T.A., which service youth dropouts in Providence are the classroom/skills training program (Title I) and the "70,001" program. Classroom training is fully funded through C.E.T.A. while "70,001" receives funding from several sources--C.E.T.A., the state department of education, private businesses, and the national 70,001 sponsoring agency. The 70,001 program is a national program separate from C.E.T.A. which is different from C.E.T.A. in that enrollees of the program do not receive a stipend (as they do in Y.E.T.P.). It is different in other respects which will be discussed further on in this chapter.

The remainder of this chapter will first discuss the three different types of job training programs which service unemployed youth dropouts in Providence. Secondly, a closer look at the Y.E.T.P. program operated by O.I.C. will be examined. Finally, the program outcomes (in terms of termination status, before and after wages, duration of enrollment, types of jobs youth enter after the program, educational remediation outcomes, and the status of Y.E.T.P. participants six months after their enrollment in the program) of the out-of-school Y.E.T.P. program as a whole will be analyzed.

C.E.T.A. funds are also used to provide a significant number of summer youth jobs and public service employment for high school dropouts throughout the year. Although these programs ease the unemployment situation of youth dropouts temporarily, they are not job training programs and as such are not addressed in this study.

A. A Comparison of Three Job Training Programs Servicing Youth Dropouts in Providence

As previously mentioned, the Y.E.T.P. and "70,001" programs serve youths exclusively. The classroom training program, on the other hand, primarily trains adults in skilled trades and careers for placement into jobs and is the largest program (with the exception of public service employment) of Providence C.E.T.A. Persons seeking classroom training must be eighteen years of age or older in order to be admitted into the program. Although this program is primarily geared toward adults, there were more youth high school dropouts enrolled in 1978 in this program than in the out-of-school Y.E.T.P. program. In 1978, one hundred and four (104) youth high school dropouts were terminated from the classroom training program.

The wages of participants upon entering employment were higher for those that were enrolled in classroom training than for Y.E.T.P. enrollees. The average wage of classroom training participants upon entering employment was $2.91 per hour compared to that of Y.E.T.P. participants making an average of $2.88 per hour. This difference in average wage between the participants of the two programs was found to be significant at the 1.0 percent level of error through an analysis of the variance in wages of the two groups. Table 15 shows that the wages for classroom training participants entering jobs was higher for all categories of participants than the corresponding Y.E.T.P. participants wages.

Table 15.--Average Wages of Jobs That Y.E.T.P. and Classroom Training Participants Entered Upon Termination from Program in 1978

	Y.E.T.P.		Classroom Training	
	Average Wage	Number of Persons	Average Wage	Number of Persons
Total	$2.88	46	$2.91	48
Male	$3.03	18	$3.16	35
Female	$2.79	28	$2.87	21
White	$2.86	25	$3.08	26
Black	$2.90	21	$3.03	27
White				
Male	$3.14	7	$3.25	15
Female	$2.76	18	$2.84	11
Black				
Male	$2.91	21	$3.10	18
Female	$2.84	10	$2.88	9

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

Y.E.T.P. and Classroom Training Termination Status and Wages of Youth Dropouts - 1978

The termination status and wages of youth dropouts participating in the Y.E.T.P. program and classroom training program in 1978 were compared.[51] Table 14 illustrates the positive and non-positive terminations by race, sex and age for the two programs. In all categories, the positive termination percentage was higher among Y.E.T.P. participants. The overall positive termination rate for Y.E.T.P. enrollees was 72.3 percent compared to 54.8 percent among classroom training enrollees. In absolute numbers, Y.E.T.P. also had more positive terminations than classroom training. (For the breakdown of outcomes that constitute positive and non-positive terminations, see Table 18 on page 111).

Table 14.--Termination Status of Youth Dropouts Upon Leaving Y.E.T.P. and Classroom Training in 1978

Program and Characteristics of Participants	Positive Terminations Number	Negative Terminations Number	Positive Terminations Percent
Y.E.T.P. (Total)	68	26	72.3
Male	32	13	65.3
Female	36	13	73.5
18 years or less	53	21	71.6
19-21 years	15	5	75.0
White	35	14	71.4
Black	33	12	73.3
Classroom training (Total)	57	47	54.8
Male	36	27	57.1
Female	21	20	51.2
18 years or less	21	14	60.0
19-21 years	36	33	52.1
White	27	20	57.4
Black	27	27	50.0

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

The wages of participants upon entering employment were higher for those that were enrolled in classroom training than for Y.E.T.P. enrollees. The average wage of classroom training participants upon entering employment was $2.91 per hour compared to that of Y.E.T.P. participants making an average of $2.88 per hour. This difference in average wage between the participants of the two programs was found to be significant at the 1.0 percent level of error through an analysis of the variance in wages of the two groups. Table 15 shows that the wages for classroom training participants entering jobs was higher for all categories of participants than the corresponding Y.E.T.P. participants wages.

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Black	$2.90	21	$3.03	27
White				
Male	$3.14	7	$3.25	15
Female	$2.76	18	$2.84	11
Black				
Male	$2.91	21	$3.10	18
Female	$2.84	10	$2.88	9

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

It would appear, then, that youth dropouts who enter the Y.E.T.P. program have a greater chance of entering employment at the end of the program than those who enter classroom training for a particular skill. On the other hand, those that do enter jobs after completing classroom training are more likely to have higher wages than those who enter jobs after being enrolled in Y.E.T.P. Some of the difference in outcomes between these two programs can be attributed to the content of the training programs while some of the difference is attributable to the differences in the abilities of the participants of the two programs.

The major difference in content between the two programs is that classroom training has an emphasis on training an individual for a particular skill in order to increase their employability. Educational remediation, counseling, and other supportive services are peripheral to the basic goal of skills training. The Y.E.T.P. program, on the other hand, focuses on preparing youth for employment through a placed work experience, intensive counseling, and educational remediation, emphasizing the motivational and attitudinal aspects of increasing the individual's employability. Participants of Y.E.T.P. are shown how to look for jobs, trained in interviewing for jobs, and counseled for personal problems and the development of positive work attitudes. Career exploration is also a significant aspect of the Y.E.T.P. program. While Y.E.T.P. enrollees are not trained in a particular skill they learn the skills of finding and holding down a job. Much emphasis is also placed on educational remediation for the attainment of a high school equivalency.

In general, the level of ability and skill of participants entering the classroom training program is higher than that of participants entering Y.E.T.P. All participants of classroom training have to take the G.A.T.B. test prior to their acceptance into the program (General Achievement Test Battery). This is a standardized test which measures the math and English skills level of an individual in terms of a grade level. Some of the classroom training modules have high school diplomas or equivalency pre-requisites (such as drafting) since these particular occupations require a high school education in order to be placed into a job. For most of the training modules in the classroom training program, a G.A.T.B. score of 10th grade or higher is usually the acceptable standard. However, occasionally individuals that score lower on the test are accepted into the program based on their expressed interest and/or perceived ability to complete the program. This decision is usually made by intake counselors in consultation with the applicants. The G.A.T.B. test results are only used as a judgemental tool and is not a fixed determinant of acceptance or rejection of an applicant. Individuals perceived to be lacking the basic skills level needed for the classroom training are usually referred to the Y.E.T.P. program, which devotes more time to educational remediation, or the Urban Educational Center, which is primarily an educational remediation program.[52]

Another significant difference between the participants of the two programs is that the youth dropouts are generally older in the classroom training program than in Y.E.T.P. As can be seen

in Table 14, 79 percent of the enrollees in the Y.E.T.P. program are 18 years old or less. Of the classroom training enrollees, 34 percent were 18 years or less. Since age is a key factor in determining the kinds of jobs that an individual is likely to obtain, this age difference could be a significant determinant of the difference in outcomes of the two programs, especially in terms of wage levels.

Classroom training has been generally more successful in training and placing youths who have a high school diploma or equivalency than youths who are high school dropouts. Table 16 illustrates the differences in termination status and wages of jobs obtained after termination for high school graduates (or equivalents) and high school dropouts that were enrolled in classroom training in 1978. For all categories, enrollees that were high school graduates (or equivalents) had higher positive placement rates and wages than enrollees who had dropped out of high school. Differences in the wages that dropouts and graduates receive after terminating the program are substantial. The average wage of high school dropouts was $.29 lower than that of high school graduates who entered employment.

Y.E.T.P. and 70,001--Two Programs
for Unemployed High School Dropouts

Y.E.T.P. and 70,001 are the only job training and placement programs in Providence which deal exclusively with high school dropouts. Although these two programs have many similarities they are also very different in their approach to placing dropouts into unsubsidized employment.

Table 16.--Termination Status and Wages of Youth High School Dropouts and Graduates Terminated from Classroom Training (CETA Title I) in 1978

	Termination Status			Wage of Job After Termination	
	Positive (Number)	Non-Positive (Number)	Percent Positive	$	Number
Youth High School Graduates					
Total	113	62	64.6	3.20	102
White	77	26	74.7	3.22	68
Black	42	21	66.6	3.11	30
Male	47	20	70.1	3.32	38
Female	77	30	72.0	3.12	64
Youth High School Dropouts					
Total	57	47	54.8	2.91	48
White	27	20	57.4	3.08	26
Black	27	27	50.0	3.03	27
Male	36	27	57.1	3.16	25
Female	21	20	51.2	2.87	21

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

As previously mentioned, the 70,001 program in Providence is sponsored by the national non-profit 70,001 organization which has been promoting the organization and development of local 70,001 chapters in various communities throughout the country. The local chapter of 70,001 is housed by O.I.C. of Rhode Island and is in its second program year of operation.

The functional purpose of 70,001 is to provide minimal pre-employment training for high school dropouts and then place them

into unsubsidized employment. Placements into jobs are primarily focused on retail trade occupations--sales clerk, sales person, inventory clerk, etc. A second functional goal of 70,001 is to provide remedial education for the attainment of the high school equivalency. In these two respects, the 70,001 and Y.E.T.P. program are very similar.

However, the approaches that the two programs take to provide unsubsidized job placement differ in that 70,001 has within its organizational structure an advisory board consisting of people from business and industry who give input into the training and placement of the participants. Y.E.T.P. (although job developers keep in close contact with potential employers) does not have a business and industry advisory board. The 70,001 program has in the past year of operation placed many of their participants into the businesses represented by the advisory board members. This close linkage with private industry has been an essential key to the success of the 70,001 program.[53]

The approach of Y.E.T.P. has been to link participants with work experience positions, mostly in non-profit community based agencies and programs, and then attempt to have these agencies hire the participants at the end of the program. This approach has not been very successful during the 1978 program year since many of the non-profit and public agencies were not expanding these staffs.[54] Y.E.T.P. participants usually were placed into jobs in the private sector, most of which were unrelated to the work experiences they received during their participation in the program.

During their 1978 program year of operation, 70,001 placed 62 out of 93 enrollees into unsubsidized, private employment. This placement rate of 66.7 percent was higher than that of the Y.E.T.P. program, which had a placement rate of 48.9 percent.

A major difference between the two programs is that 70,001 participants do not receive a stipend while they are enrolled in the program, whereas Y.E.T.P. participants do. The lack of a stipend in the 70,001 program may have a significant effect on the client group that can participate in the program. Although the program is focused on serving economically disadvantaged high school dropouts, those that are most economically disadvantaged (or those that have family responsibilities) may not be able to afford to participate in the program. The incentive to enroll in Y.E.T.P. is strengthened by the stipend that is attached to participating.

The absence of a stipend in 70,001 may also have a screening effect in so far as the participants' motivations for enrolling in the program. Without the money incentive, it is thought that only those that sincerely want to improve their employment situation will enroll. Enrolling those who are strongly motivated toward self improvement also has a positive effect on the job placement rates of the program. The degree to which the 70,001 program enrolls individuals who are more highly motivated than enrollees of the Y.E.T.P. program is, however, not known. It is possible that such an unstipended program has this advantage while at the same time carries the disadvantage of barring those who are the most economically disadvantaged. As a result of the differences in participation between 70,001 and Y.E.T.P. due to the stipend incentive, 70,001

has to compensate for the lack of the stipend incentive through a continuous advertising campaign. In this respect, the presence of a stipend for participating has a significant effect on the numbers of youth that apply for the program.

Another difference between 70,001 and Y.E.T.P. is that 70,001 is funded through several sources while Y.E.T.P. is funded entirely through C.E.T.A. As previously mentioned, 70,001 receives most of its funds through two sources--Providence C.E.T.A. and the Rhode Island Department of Education. As a consequence, the 70,001 program is accountable to two contractual agreements. The agreement with Providence C.E.T.A. requires that the program provide a certain number of unsubsidized placements at the end of the program. The contract with the state department of education requires that 70,001 assist a certain number of enrollees in the attainment of their high school equivalencies. The 70,001 program is therefore obligated to carry out successfully two functional goals--the placement of youths in jobs and educational remediation which will result in attainment of high school equivalencies. In this respect, the 70,001 program is more bound to the goal of educational remediation than is the Y.E.T.P. program. The Y.E.T.P. program does not include in its contract with C.E.T.A. a goal for individuals receiving their high school equivalencies but rather specifies that educational remediation will be provided a certain number of hours per day for each enrollee.[55]

An opportunity exists within the O.I.C. youth programs--70,001 and Y.E.T.P.--to combine educational remediation resources to result in more effective remediation for both programs. At

present, the Y.E.T.P. staff have more resources for remediation than does the 70,001 program. The 70,001 program, however, is obligated to fulfilling a contract with the department of education. The director of the 70,001 program is beginning to negotiate a coordinated system between the two programs so that educational remediation can be made more effective for both groups of participants.[56]

B. O.I.C. of Rhode Island's Y.E.T.P. Program

In order to get a closer look at the day to day operations of the Y.E.T.P. program, O.I.C.'s program was examined in closer detail. Staff persons and enrollees were interviewed in addition to examining their self evaluation of their 1978 progam year.

Y.E.T.P. Staff and Program Activities

The O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. staff presently consists of a director, a secretary, a pre-employment specialist, a high school education remediation teacher, a counselor, and a job developer. While each of the staff have specific functions there is also a sharing of some functions, i.e, counseling. Each enrollee in the program is expected to meet with the counselor at least once a week, however, counseling takes place on various levels throughout the program. For example, the job developer provides work-related and career-oriented counseling while the remediation specialist provides educational counseling. The full time counselor meets with the entire class of enrollees every day for one hour to work on individual's attitudes and how they help or hinder in obtaining goals. During this time the staff also express their feelings to the enrollees on how the class is progressing.[57]

During the first program year, the O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. staff realized that many enrollees needed counseling and related social services to a greater extent than was anticipated. Students often experienced a multitude of personal problems related to themselves and their families. Some of the problems encountered included alcohol and drug abuse, unwanted pregnancies, and family conflicts.

Crisis counseling was often needed. A comprehensive counseling program was developed in response to this increased need to include: orientation interview, which helps each enrollee to determine their personal needs, strengths and weaknesses, and to set goals; weekly counseling sessions for monitoring each enrollee's progress, attendance, and personal development; crisis counseling as needed; and predetermination and follow-up interviews.[58]

The daily program activities consist of four basic elements: jobology; career exploration, personal development, and remediation. Jobology is a term that describes the dynamics of applying for, obtaining, and keeping a job. The major emphasis of this aspect of training is on interviewing for jobs. The career exploration element includes class trips to various firms, guest speakers, slides and films, and the provision of occupation information sources. The personal development aspect of the training works on improving the speech, dress, manners, and any other personal attributes which affect the decisions that employers make when they are hiring for a job.

Remediation is a major function of the O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. program. Classes are offered for two hours daily in math, reading, and language arts which all enrollees are required to attend. To the extent possible, the instructor gears the lessons according to each individual's level of ability. The goal of remediation is to enable the enrollees to successfully pass the five tests required of the high school equivalency. However, the formal contract agreement that O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. has with Providence C.E.T.A. is to provide two hours of remediation daily for each

enrollee without the requirement of successfully completing the high school equivalency exams.[59] This arrangement has been made because of the institutional regulations governing the awarding of high school equivalency diplomas. Enrollees who successfully complete their high school equivalency tests cannot receive their diplomas until six months after their equivalent high school class has graduated.[60]

After several weeks (usually six weeks) of pre-employment training, enrollees are placed into a subsidized work experience in an occupational area of interest to enrollee. Usually work experience placements which relate to the enrollee's occupational interests can be found. Close supervision in the work experience placement is the essential element in providing an experience beneficial to the enrollee. After several weeks, enrollees are then either placed into unsubsidized employment with the employer who provided the work experience or placed into any job that can be found by the job developer.

Interviews With Ten Enrollees of the O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. Program

As part of the study, ten enrollees of the Y.E.T.P. program were interviewed. The interviews were arranged in a manner that provided job interviewing practice for the enrollees as well as provide research information for this study. Since part of the Y.E.T.P. program includes mock job interview sessions, it seemed most appropriate to gain information from these enrollees through mock job interviews. In preparing for these interviews each enrollee was given a set of instructions to read before being interviewed. The interviewees were to choose a job that they wanted to apply for and then prepare themselves for the interviewing session (see Appendix C). The sessions attempted to assimilate a real life situation including various scrutinizing questions that employers typically ask high school dropouts (i.e., If you can't make it through school, then how do you think you are going to be able to hold down a job?) The first half of the interviewing session was the mock job interview, followed by a few minutes of general questioning about the program and comments on how well they handled themselves in the interview.

The interviews were useful in gaining information as to why students drop out and the labor market experiences of drop outs after leaving school. The predicaments of drop out in the labor market were better understood after conversations with these ten enrollees. Impressions gained from talking to these enrollees solidified the reality of their predicament in the context of this research.

The uniqueness of each individual's situation as well as the commonalities of their predicaments can be observed from the following cases: [61]

Don, 18 years old, had a C-average in high school and wasn't interested in what they were teaching him in the classroom. After dropping out, he worked full time in a toy factory making $2.90 an hour. Having been laid off in November after a month of working, he looked for a job but was unsuccessful in finding one. Other jobs that he had in the past were house painting, and summer recreation helper. His short term goal is to learn business skills. His major interest, however, lies in acting and wishes to be a professional actor someday. Don felt that the program was helping him and was much better than high school.

Upon entering the twelfth grade, Debbie, age 18, found that she lacked three credits needed to graduate by the end of the year and decided to drop out and work for her high school equivalency instead. She plans to receive her equivalency in two months. Debbie felt that he had a marketable skill in her typing abilities but wouldn't go very far without her diploma. Her goal is to be a secretary and she feels that the program is helping her in reaching that goal. Debbie has no work experience.

Sarah, age 19, was suspended from school in the tenth grade because she had been part of a group that was heavily involved in fighting. She has a baby that her mother takes care of while she attends the program. Sarah would like to find a secretarial job but feels that she needs her high school equivalency first. Her job experiences include working part-time in a community day care

as a secretary while she was in school; a year of full-time work in a large discount store making $2.35 per hour; and factory work piecing jewelry together, a job that she despised.

Jose, age 17, dropped out of school in the tenth grade because of racial fighting. He told the story of how Black students would call him "Spik" and start trouble. Jose's work experience includes temporary part-time jobs as a partner and construction laborer making $2.65 to $3.00 per hour. During the summer he worked in a C.E.T.A. program working with children in a recreation program. He also had been a part-time janitor for a while. Jose's ultimate goal is to join the Air Force and be trained in computer science.

Bob, age 17, was suspended from school in the eleventh grade for starting fights. Although his father is a toolmaker and is willing to teach him the trade, Bob is more interested in joining the Army for the time being, after which he wants to go to school to become a disc jockey. Bob's work experience had been in factories--boxing, unracking and maintenance--jobs which he liked because they were "easy". However, these jobs didn't pay enough for him to be satisfied with them for very long. Different from most of the others interviewed, Bob treated the mock job interview with a very lax and careless attitude.

Willie, a depressed 17 year old, related the story of how certain teachers in the school wanted him out. When he entered the eleventh grade, he was informed that he was not registered and had to leave. He felt that he wasn't learning anything in school anyway. Willie's only experience had been part-time summer work as an electrician's helper. His goal is to be an electrician since

he likes the work and enjoys working with his hands. Prior to entering the program he had applied for ten jobs without success. Willie felt that he really needed his high school equivalency in order to get a job, especially as an electrician and was working hard toward obtaining it.

Claiming that she had been a fashion model in Pennsylvania for over a year, Sue, age 19 years, really wants to be a social worker. In reaching this goal, Sue plans to go to college and major in sociology after she receives her high school equivalency. Her future in modeling did not appear to be too bright since jobs were scarce and she was too short for most fashion modeling. Sue's expressed determination to go to college was convincing enough to believe that she really will go.

Mary, age 18, isn't sure about what she wants to do. However, she mentioned that she likes working with children and wants to help people. Her most enjoyable work experience was volunteering at a hospital working with newborn babies and their mothers. Mary has also worked as a dietary aide in a health center for a summer and also as an apoxy painter in jewelry making $2.85 per hour. She mentioned that she did not like the jewelry job because of the demands of the supervisors and the generally unwelcoming atmosphere. "Nobody knows who you are or even care . . . People move in and out of these jobs every other day."

Carlos, 18 years old, moved to Providence five years ago from New York City. When he entered high school he found himself bored by the classes. He wanted to get into the vocational school to learn auto mechanics and body work, but was not successful. "I

tried every year for four years to get into vo-tech. People kept telling me it was too crowded and to try again next year . . . things would have been a lot different now if I could have gotten in." Carlos's interest is and always has been automechanics and autobody work. Like many of the others, his work experience has been in jewelry, polishing and assembly--part-time work when he was still in school. After dropping out because of his boredom which resulted in failing grades he drove a forklift for a toy company for five months. Carlos plans to finish his high school equivalency and then get into O.I.C.'s CETA I autobody training. He doesn't feel like a failure and appears to be actively pursuing his occupational goals.

Karen, 17 years old, has a strong interest in the health fields, although she is not sure exactly what she wants to do. She left school because of her pregnancy and now has a little boy whom her mother takes care of while she's in the program. She has a variety of work experiences including work in a hospital as a nurse's aide; filing and typing for a social service agency; and office work for a ethnic heritage society. Karen didn't want to pursue the nurse's aide training program because she didn't really like her experience as one in the hospital. She had been let go because of personal conflicts with other workers. Her main goal for the time being is to finish her high school equivalency so that she can try other jobs in the health field.

Some general observations can be made from the interviews with these ten Y.E.T.P. enrollees. The most striking observation is that each individual has an entirely unique set of circumstances

which contribute to their dropping out of school and subsequent employment experiences. While some seemed to have left school because of their own misconduct or self-induced hardship, others seemed to have been discarded and let down by the educational system. Slow learners or disinterested students felt that they had no alternatives available. The combination of personal inabilities and failings and the school systems' inadequacies and failings seemed to be working in each individual's causal path to dropping out. While most of the enrollees felt that dropping out was the right decision, they also realized their relative disadvantage in the job market for having done so. Obtaining a high school equivalency was a priority (more so than getting a job) for most of the enrollees.

Most of the enrollees also had some work experience although most of their experiences were temporary and did not demonstrate their ability to "hold down a job". There seemed to be two general reasons for this: either the job was a 'dead-end' job and held no hope of improvement for the young worker, thus causing them to quit after a period of time, or, the job was only temporary in nature and they were laid off when business slowed up. One enrollee had worked in retail for over a year without any change in wage or position and left the job in search of better employment.

For the most part, the enrollees appeared to be enthusiastic about the program. With the exception of a few of the enrollees, they had formulated at least short-term achievement goals and had an idea of the steps they would have to take in order to achieve their goals.

Self-Evaluation of O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P.
1978 Program Year

Upon completion of O.I.C.'s first year of experience with the Y.E.T.P. program an evaluative report was produced by O.I.C.'s planning staff. In terms of achieving the stated goals and objectives of the Y.E.T.P. program, the report concludes that the first year of O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. was "reasonably successful."[62] The enrollment goals, training goals, work experience goals, and remedial education goals were met with varying degrees of success.

One specific objective of the program "to develop knowledge in the application of new youth programs" resulted in the identification of problems with the current models of youth job training programs. The original O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. concept sought to develop a 3-tiered program according to enrollee's skill level and motivation: high skills/motivation; medium skills/motivation; and low skills/motivation. The high skills/motivation enrollees would be directed toward a combination of specific skills training and on-the-job training. Medium skills/motivation enrollees would receive a work experience on-the-job training combination; and low skills/motivation enrollees would be directed toward work experience modes of training.

Attempts to implement this 3-tiered system resulted in the emergence of several obstacles. One obstacle was that it was not possible to identify an appropriate skills area for about one-quarter of the enrollees in the program. There was also a problem with using the on-the-job training (O.J.T.) contracts with employers. O.J.T. placements were difficult to obtain partly

because employers feared an excessive amount of paperwork. In some cases, employers preferred to hire the Y.E.T.P. enrollees directly without an O.J.T. contract.[63]

The O.I.C. report made several conclusions based on their first year's experience. One such conclusion was that the work experience model of training is preferable for high school drop out youths since many of these youths were not prepared for the demands of a 40-hour per week job. Under the work experience model, the enrollees work on twenty-five (25) hours per week so as to allow ten hours of counseling and educational remediation.

The report also concluded that comprehensive and thorough counseling services are essential for the enrollees of the program. It was found that many of the youth's obstacles to learning (and employment) were related to personal and family problems rather than intellectual shortcomings.[64] Experiences with the first year of Y.E.T.P. revealed the need for a longer period of time to be devoted to pre-employment and motivational skills training (six weeks instead of four). It was also found that there was a need for enrollees to receive some initial physical screening, in terms of vision and hearing tests, and be tested for learning disabilities prior to their entrance into the program. Much time had been wasted in the program for certain individuals whose physical or learning disability problems were not easily identifiable.

It was also reported that the quality and content of work experience of the enrollees while they were in the program was enhanced due to a tailoring of placements to the expressed needs

and interests of the enrollees and by placing only one or two enrollees at a given worksite so that adequate supervision could be provided. Not all enrollees, however, were able to be placed in a worksite that was in their main occupational interest. Adequate supervision at the worksite, rather than the particular type of job, was usually the key factor in making the work experience for the enrollees beneficial.[65]

The O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. first year report also concluded that a "significant number" of high school dropout youths were able to attain their high school equivalencies and benefit from the remedial education provided in the program. The results achieved from remedial education activities were substantiated by the fact that eight (8) enrollees received their high school equivalency diplomas, four (4) enrollees returning to school, and twelve (12) additional enrollees were projected to complete their high school equivalency before October 30, 1978.[66] However, an examination of the O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. high school remediation progress chart in February of 1979 revealed that none of the twelve enrollees that were expected to complete their diplomas by the end of October had done so. Table 17 summarizes the high school remediation progress of O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. enrollees. Over one-third of the enrollees had not completed any of the required five tests. Several others had made considerable progress toward their equivalency.

Table 17.--High School Remediation Progress of Enrollees in O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P., 1978 Program - Feb. 1979

Successful Test Completions	Number of Y.E.T.P. Participants
No test completed	23
One test	8
Two tests	4
Three tests	6
Four tests	3
High School Equivalency Completion	8
Others	
Returned to School	4
Left the State	4
Total	60

Source: O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. program files, Feb. 1979.

In conversations with O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. staff some of the problems in getting the Y.E.T.P. participants to complete their high school equivalencies after they leave the program were expressed. The major difficulty has been maintaining contact and communication with youths who leave the program. Many of the youths don't have telephones or have changed addresses. Some of the addresses that O.I.C. staff have of the participants are those of the youth's relatives or friends who frequently do not know the whereabouts of the youths.[67]

Another problem associated with youths not finishing their high school equivalencies after they leave the program is that many of the youths, once they've left the program, lose their motivation toward this goal. The motivation and incentive that is developed during the course of the program is lost because of the lacking of supportive environment once they leave the program. Many of the youths return to home responsibilities or a depressed situation and cannot find the time or the enthusiasm to finish working on their equivalencies.

C. Analysis of Y.E.T.P. Program Outcomes of 1978 Program Year

In this section, the outcomes of the Y.E.T.P. program will be analyzed in terms of the status of youths that were terminated (both positive and negative) from the program during the 1978 program year. Wages earned by enrollees before and after their participation in the program will also be examined to determine the relative changes in wages for the various race, sex, and age subgroups of the Y.E.T.P. enrollees. An analysis is conducted to identify characteristic variables of enrollees which are related to their termination and wage status at the end of their involvement in the program.

The category of positive termination includes: placement into a job; self placement; returning to school; entering the military service; being transferred to another C.E.T.A. program; or other positive outcomes. Negative terminations of enrollees include: health problems; family care responsibilities; moving; quitting; being expelled; and inability of the individual to find employment or be placed by the sponsoring agency into employment.

Termination Status of 1978
Y.E.T.P. Enrollees

During the period between January 1, 1978 and September 30, 1978 ninety-four (94) youths had been terminated from the out-of-school Y.E.T.P. program in Providence. Of these ninety-four participants, sixty-eight (68) or 72.3 percent were positively terminated while twenty-six (26) were negatively terminated. The breakdown of these positive and negative terminations is shown in Table 18. The majority of the positive terminations were youths entering employment, almost half of which were obtained on their

own. The most frequent negative termination was youths being expelled from the program due to misconduct, poor attendance, or a criminal offense.

Table 18.--Terminations of Y.E.T.P. Enrollees in Providence--1978

Category	Number of Enrollees	Percent of Total Enrollees
Positive Terminations	68	72.3
Indirect Placement	27	28.7
Self Placement	23	24.5
Returned to School	7	7.4
Intertitle (CETA) Transfer	3	3.2
Entered Military	3	3.2
Other Positive Terms	5	5.3
Non-Positive Terminations	26	27.7
Health Problems	4	4.3
Family Care Responsibilities	1	1.1
Moved	4	4.3
Quit Program	5	5.3
Expelled	10	10.6
Enrollee Can't be Found	1	1.1
Completed Training--Can't Place	1	1.1

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

Positive and negative terminations are broken down by race, age, and sex categories in Tables 19a and 19b. It can be noted that Blacks had a slightly higher positive termination rate than whites (73.3 percent compared to 71.4 percent) as did women compared to men (73.5 percent and 71.1 percent respectively). White males had a substantially lower positive termination rate than Black males

Table 19a.--Characteristics of Terminated Enrollees of Y.E.T.P. (1978) by Race, by Sex, by Age

	Positive Terminations	Negative Terminations	Total	Positive Terminations Rate
White	35	14	49	71.4
Males	13	7	20	65.0
16-18 yrs.	10	5	15	-
19-21 yrs.	3	2	5	-
Females	22	7	29	75.9
16-18 yrs.	18	7	25	-
19-21 yrs.	4	0	4	-
Black	33	12	45	73.3
Males	19	6	25	76.0
16-18 yrs.	13	5	18	-
19-21 yrs.	6	1	7	-
Females	14	6	20	70.0
16-18 yrs.	12	4	16	-
19-21 yrs.	2	2	4	-
Total	68	26	94	72.3

Table 19b.--Characteristics of Terminated Enrollees of Y.E.T.P. (1978) by Race, by Sex, by Age

	Positive Terminations	Negative Terminations	Total	Positive Terminations Rate
Race				
White	35	14	49	71.4
Black	33	12	45	73.3
Sex				
Men	32	13	45	71.1
Women	36	13	49	73.5
Age				
16-18 yrs.	53	21	74	71.6
19-21 yrs.	15	5	20	75.0

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

(65.0 percent compared to 76.0 percent). However, White females had a higher positive termination rate than Black females (75.9 percent compared to 70.0 percent).

Analysis of Participant Characteristic Variables Relating to Termination Status

Chi-square analysis was used to identify relationships between age, sex, race, family income, highest grade attained, previous employment record, and number of weeks in the program with positive and non-positive termination status.

The results of this analysis revealed that although the termination status differs by age, sex, race, family income, and highest grade attained, it is not dependently related to these variables. Termination status was, however, dependently related to the length of unemployment of participants prior to their enrolling in the program and the length of time enrolled in the program.

Table 20 illustrates the chi-square analysis of the length of unemployment with positive and non-positive termination. Although the relationship is significant at the two percent level of error, the strength of the relationship, measured by the contingency coefficient, is not great (0.356 on a scale of 0 to 1.0, 1.0 being a perfectly strong relationship). This finding supports the general conclusion that the longer the term of unemployment experienced by youth in the labor force, the more difficult it will be to successfully prepare them for employment.

Table 20.--Chi-Square Analysis of Length of Unemployment and Termination Code of Y.E.T.P. Participants

Length of Unemployment Prior to Enrollment	Positive Termination	Non-Positive Termination	Row Total
Less than 5 weeks	45	13	58
5 to 9 weeks	7	1	8
10 to 14 weeks	3	1	4
15 to 19 weeks	1	0	1
20 to 29 weeks	8	2	10
Over 30 weeks	4	9	13
Column Total	68	26	94

Chi-square = 13.63 with 5 degrees of freedom, significance = 0.018; contingency coefficient = 0.356

A second Chi-square analysis shows a dependent relationship between termination status and length of time enrolled in the program. Although it would seem obvious that those who quit the program usually do so within the first few weeks, it is also true that those who complete the program had more positive placements than those who left the program prematurely. Table 21 illustrates the Chi-square analysis for length of enrollment in the program and termination status. With the level of error below 1.0 percent and a contingency coefficient of 0.40, the relationship between these two variables (length of enrollment and termination status) is more definite and slightly stronger than the relationship between weeks unemployed and termination status.

Table 21.--Chi-Square Analysis of Length of Enrollment in Program and Termination Status of Y.E.T.P. Participants

Length of Enrollment in Program	Positive Termination	Non-Positive Termination	Row Total
Less than 4 weeks	6	12	18
5 to 9 weeks	15	3	18
10 to 14 weeks	23	5	28
15 to 19 weeks	16	3	19
20 to 24 weeks	6	3	9
25 to 29 weeks	2	0	2
Column Total	68	26	94

Chi-square = 18.36 with 5 degrees of freedom, significance = 0.0025; contingency coefficient = 0.40

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

Duration of Enrollment in Y.E.T.P.

The average duration of enrollment in the Y.E.T.P. program for all individuals was eleven and a half (11.6) weeks. This varied depending on the characteristics of the enrollees. Males, for example, averaged only 9.9 weeks enrollment while females averaged 13.6 weeks. Analysis of the variance between these two groups concludes that the difference is significant at the 5 percent level of error. The difference between male and female duration of enrollment was greatest among white youths. Black male and female youths differed by 1.6 weeks compared to a 5.2 weeks difference among white male and female enrollees (see Table 22).

An analysis of other characteristic variables of enrollees revealed that highest grade level attained and family income did

not have a significant effect on the duration of enrollment. Whether or not an individual was previously employed was found to be significantly related to the duration of enrollment in the program. This difference between those previously employed before entering the program and those not previously employed in so far as their duration in the program was significant at the 5 percent level of error. The average duration of enrollment for individuals who had been previously employed was 14.1 weeks compared to 9.9 weeks for those not having any work experience.

Table 22.--Average Length of Time Enrolled in Y.E.T.P. by Race and Sex - 1978

	Average Number of Weeks Enrolled	Number of Enrollees
Total	11.6	94
Male	9.9	45
Female	13.6	49
White	11.8	49
Male	8.7	20
Female	13.9	29
Black	11.5	45
Male	10.8	25
Female	12.4	20

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

Pre and Post Program Wages of Y.E.T.P. Enrollees

Of the total enrollees that were terminated thirty-eight (38) or 40.4 percent reported that they had worked prior to entering the program. The average hourly wage of these youths was

$2.65. Of those enrollees that were terminated, fourty-six (46) or 48.9 percent were either placed into jobs or found employment themselves. The average hourly wage of those participants in jobs after leaving the program was $2.88. Although there is a real difference between the pre and post program wages this difference is generalized as significant at the 5 percent level of error through an analysis of the variance of pre and post program wages. It can be concluded that the Y.E.T.P. program had a small but significant positive impact on the wage level of youths completing the program, assuming that changes in wages can be attributed to the program.

There were significant differences in average wages between men and women before and after the program (see Table 23). Although men had higher wages before and after the program, the gap between the men's and women's average wages was reduced from a $.40 difference before the program to a $.24 difference after the program. The relative increase in wages was also greater for women than men. In addition, more women were employed after the program than before (28 after, 18 before). Employment among the men decreased by two.

The relative gain of Blacks was slightly greater than that of Whites, in terms of the number employed and wages. Blacks had higher wages than Whites before and after the program in general. However, Black females had higher wages than White females and White males had higher wages than Black males before and after the program.

Table 23.--Average Wages and Employed Youth Before and After Entering Y.E.T.P.--1978 by Race and Sex

	Before Program		After Program		Change	
	Average Wage	Number Employed	Average Wage	Number Employed	Average Wage	Number Employed
Total	2.65	38	2.88	46	+$.23	+ 8
Male	2.84	20	3.03	18	+$.19	- 2
Female	2.44	18	2.79	28	+$.35	+10
White	2.64	23	2.86	25	+$.22	+ 2
Male	3.02	10	3.14	7	+$.12	- 3
Female	2.36	13	2.76	18	+$.40	+ 5
Black	2.66	15	2.91	21	+$.25	+ 6
Male	2.67	10	2.96	11	+$.29	+ 1
Female	2.64	5	2.84	10	+$.20	+ 5

Source: Data from CETA Participant files.

It cannot be assumed from Table 23 that the individuals that were counted as employed before the program are reflected in the count of those employed after the program. In fact, only twenty (20) individuals of the forty-six (46) that entered employment after the program were also employed at some time prior to entering the program. Wage levels for these twenty individuals were generally higher after the program than before. A Chi-square analysis was conducted on the before and after wages of these twenty individuals in order to assess the degree to which the wages after the program were related to wages before. The results showed a fairly strong relationship between the wage level before with the wage level after (significant at 2.0% level and contingency coefficient of 0.78). This means that the program didn't alter the wage distribution significantly, but rather,

added an increment to the wage that individuals were making before they entered the program.

The average wage of participants of Y.E.T.P. upon completing the program and entering employment was comparable to the average wage of youths (under 20 years old) that were placed in jobs by the Rhode Island Job Service (see Table 10, page 61). The average placement wage for youths in the Job Service was $2.87 compared to $2.88 among Y.E.T.P. completers. A larger difference is observed for the placement wages of Blacks in both programs. The average placement wage of Black youths using the Job Service was $2.74 compared to $2.91 for those leaving Y.E.T.P.

Types of Jobs Entered Into by
Y.E.T.P. Program Completers

Most of the jobs that participants of the Y.E.T.P. program entered upon their termination were full-time with an average hourly wage less than $3.00. Six youths entered jobs that paid $3.00 or more per hour. Although the wage level of the jobs that youths were placed in is an important indicator of the degree to which the employment situation has been improved by the program, it is a limited indicator because it relates nothing about the kind of job that the individual is employed in. Placement into jobs that have a potential for advancement (or career-track type jobs) are the most desirable for improving the long-term employment situations of youths.

Table 24 lists the types of jobs that youths entered into upon their termination from the Y.E.T.P. program. Those categories that are asterisked are jobs that are presumed to have potential for advancement as an occupation that will eventually yield a wage

suitable for a decent standard of living and/or provide career advancement. Of the forty-six jobs about half of them are presumed to be career-potential jobs. The others are typically "dead end" or have limited advancement potential in the Rhode Island local economy and/or within the internal labor markets of firms in which they are situated. (The internal labor markets of firms having the presumed career-potential jobs may also restrict advancement, but the conditions of the local labor market generally allows advancement in these jobs.)

The greatest concentration of career-potential jobs was in the nursing occupations, which were generally filled by women rather than men. Career-potential jobs in the clerical/sales category were also largely filled by young women.

A tentative conclusion may be that the Y.E.T.P. program has been most successful in placing women into career-potential jobs. Young men leaving the program have typically obtained the jobs having little advancement potential.

Follow-up Survey of Y.E.T.P. Participants Entering Employment After Termination

An attempt was made to survey Y.E.T.P. participants who entered employment upon their termination from the program in 1978. This survey was conducted during March and April of 1979, six months to a year after Y.E.T.P. participants were terminated from the program. The purpose of the survey was to find out what the Y.E.T.P. participants were now doing in so far as their employment and/or educational endeavors, whether or not they were still employed in the jobs they were originally placed, and if not, what kind of work they are now doing.

Table 24.--Jobs and Wages of Y.E.T.P. Enrollees Upon Completion of Program in 1978 (1-1-78 through 9-30-78)

Number of Enrollees in Jobs	Type of Job	Industry Type	Average Starting Wage
8	Jewelry Assembly, Benchwork	Jewelry Mfg.	$2.65
7*	Nurse's Aide, Assist.	Nursing Homes, Health Centers	$2.82
4*	Telephone Solicitor, Receptionist	Appliance Repair	$2.95
4	Footpress Operator	Manufacturing	$2.84
4*	Clerical + Sales Workers	Miscellaneous	$2.88
3	Catcher	Candy Manufacturing	$2.85
1*	Mechanic	Bowling Lanes	$3.00
1*	Construction Laborer	Construction	$2.65
1	Laborer	Hardware Manufacturing	$2.75
1*	Plater Apprentice	Plating Manufacturing	$3.00
1*	Meatcutter	Food Store	$3.45
1*	Machinist	Manufacturing	$3.00
1*	Layout Programmer	Manufacturing	$2.90
1	Machine Operator	Manufacturing	$3.25
1	Kitchen Helper	Nursing Home	$2.65
1*	Homemaker Aide	Homemaker Service	$2.65
1*	Landscaper	Landscaping	$5.00
1	Waitress	Restaurant	$2.00
46	Total		

*Jobs presumed to have advancement or career-potential.

Source: Data from CETA participant files.

The survey technique included a mailed questionnaire that was sent with return-stamped envelopes enclosed to the last known address of the participants. This survey was sent to the forty-six (46) Y.E.T.P. participants who had completed the program and entered employment in 1978. In addition to the mailed questionnaire, individuals who had telephone numbers listed in their files were called and surveyed over the telephone. Of the forty-six, only twenty-four individuals responded to the survey. The mailed questionnaire resulted in only ten returns. Of these ten returns, six (6) were non-responses due to a change in address and four (4) were valid responses. The telephone contacts resulted in twenty (20) additional responses. An example of the mailed questionnaire is shown in Appendix D.

Although the number of responses to the survey represents over half of the total participants who entered employment in 1978, a sufficiently large enough number of responses was not obtained to yield statistically valid results.

Some useful inferences can be made, however, of the results of the survey. The results of the twenty-four (24) responses is shown in Table 25. One obvious conclusion is that not all of the participants were able to retain employment. There was also a tendency for participants to change from the original job that they were placed in. Conversations with those who are currently employed indicated that some are satisfied with their jobs, at least for the time being. Others are seeking better jobs and are hoping to improve their employability through night school, C.E.T.A. classroom training or attainment of a high school

equivalency and some have felt that they haven't had the time or opportunity to work on obtaining it.

Table 25.--Survey Responses from 24 Youths That Entered Employment After Completing Y.E.T.P. in 1978--(surveyed six months after Their Termination

Response	Number
1. Currently Employed	15
a. same job as was placed in from Y.E.T.P.	7
b. different job from original placement	8
2. Currently Unemployed	6
a. looking for work	4
b. not looking for work	2
c. unable to work	2
3. Obtained High School Equivalency	6
4. Did Not Obtain High School Equivalency	15
a. still working on high school equivalency	8
b. not working on high school equivalency	7

Total Responses = 24 out of 46 participants entering employment after program.

Data: Source from CETA participant files.

The low success rate of Y.E.T.P. participants receiving their high school equivalency after they leave the program has some implications for the design of the current Y.E.T.P. program modules (which last from ten to fifteen weeks presently). One of the goals of Y.E.T.P. is to assist individuals in attaining their high school equivalency. If they cannot complete the required five tests of the equivalency while they are enrolled in the program, they are encouraged to return to the program without formal enrollment for remediation classes and counseling. Although the service is

available, few Y.E.T.P. participants who have finished the program actually return for remediation classes. At the same time, few participants complete their equivalency while they are enrolled in the program. It is probably that the length of Y.E.T.P. modules, in terms of time, is insufficient for most enrollees to complete their high school equivalencies.

Since the attainment of a high school equivalency has a significant impact on the employability of an individual, a restructuring of the educational remediation aspect of Y.E.T.P. programs is in order. A combined strategy of increasing the opportunity of individuals (while they are enrolled as well as after they have been terminated) for receiving their high school equivalency needs to be explored.

Summary

In Providence, there are three job training programs which serve high school dropouts; the Y.E.T.P. program, the 70,001 are exclusively geared to servicing high school dropouts, emphasizing attitudinal, motivational, and preemployment training aspects of increasing individuals' employability. Classroom training is primarily geared toward adults and emphasizes specific skills training.

High school dropouts who enroll in Y.E.T.P. and 70,001 have higher placement rates than dropouts who enrolled in classroom training. On the other hand, those dropouts who are placed into jobs, who were enrolled in classroom training had higher starting wages than those being placed out of Y.E.T.P. and 70,001. Classroom training is also much more successful for youths having their high school diplomas than for those who dropped out of school.

The Y.E.T.P. and 70,001 programs, although they both serve high school dropouts exclusively, are different in the following respects: Y.E.T.P. enrollees receive a stipend while 70,001 enrollees do not; 70,001 has a business and industry advisory board making a formal linkage between the program and the private sector while Y.E.T.P. does not have such a board and maintains informal contacts; 70,001 has to advertise its program since the stipend incentive to enroll is missing; and 70,001 is contractually obligated to the successful completion of a certain number of enrollees receiving their high school equivalencies while Y.E.T.P. is contractually obligated to only the daily provision of remedial education. It is probable that the lack of stipends for 70,001 enrollees attracts a different client group than the Y.E.T.P. program. Enrollees in the 70,001 program are likely to be more highly motivated and/or not as economically disadvantaged as Y.E.T.P. enrollees.

The O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. first year's self-evaluation reports reasonable success and identified the following suggestions for program modification: preemployment training needs to be expanded in duration; work-experience was more successful than on-the-job training for enrollees since many were not ready for a 40-hour work week and employer cooperation was lacking; comprehensive counseling needs to be expanded in emphasis; work experience placements are most successful and beneficial to enrollees if not more than two enrollees are placed at the same job site and if adequate supervision is provided.

Interviews with current enrollees of the O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. program reveal that reasons for dropping out of school are usually

compounded by several personal and institutional factors. Enrollees did seem to have some work experience, most of which they found unsatisfying. For the most part, enrollees seemed to have formulated short-term realistic achievement goals and have some sense of where they are going and what they have to do in order to reach their goals.

An analysis of program outcomes of the Y.E.T.P. program revealed that certain factors were significantly related to the placement status and starting wage level of the participants. The duration was significantly related to termination status. Those who were unemployed for the longest period of time were more likely to have negative terminations than those who had been unemployed for shorter periods of time prior to entering Y.E.T.P. In terms of wages of participants placed into jobs, the Y.E.T.P. program generally increased the wages of twenty (20) youths who were employed prior to entering the program. However, the distribution of wage levels among those employed before and after the program was not significantly altered. A comparison of entry wage levels of Y.E.T.P. participants and high school dropouts finding jobs through the Rhode Island Job Service showed that there was generally no significant difference in entry wage levels. The Black participants of Y.E.T.P., however, had entry wages significantly higher than Black dropouts finding jobs through the Job Service.

An examination of the types of jobs that Y.E.T.P. participants entered after the program showed that about half of the jobs entered were perceived to have advancement/career potential jobs than males. All of the jobs entered were at or slightly above the minimum wage level of 1978.

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A six month follow-up survey of Y.E.T.P. participants who reportedly entered employment after finishing the Y.E.T.P. program revealed that a significant proportion of the participants were currently unemployed and looking for work. There was also an indication that the majority of the participants had not yet obtained their high school equivalencies, although several were still working on them. Definitive conclusions of the survey responses could not be made since only 24 out of the total 46 participants responded, leaving possibilities of error in making inferences too large to be useful.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The youth unemployment problem in Providence is likely to worsen, especially among minorities and high school dropouts, during the next few years. Youth unemployment is likely to increase due to trends in the local labor market conditions and projections and projected increases in the minority youth population. During the past ten years, the industrial mix of jobs in the local labor market has become increasingly characteristic oflow wages and low skills. At the same time, a widening dichotomy in the labor market has developed between jobs that have little or no educational or skills requirements and jobs that require high educational attainment (higher than a high school diploma) and require higher skills. Moreover, traditionally youth dominated jobs in the retail trade industry have decreased in number due to the suburbanization of retail businesses. The labor market implications of these industrial shifts are that the competition between youths and adults for low-wage factory jobs has increased and, as a result, of this increased competition, greater numbers of youth are unemployed.

Although there is a predominance of low-skilled/low educational requiring jobs in the Providence local labor market area, high school dropouts enter lowest paying jobs and are relatively more disadvantaged than youths who have their high school diplomas. Whatever the merits of obtaining the high school diploma are, it is clear that without the diploma, youths are less able to compete effectively for jobs. The

evidence that high school dropouts enter the lowest paying jobs combined with the fact that the predominance of jobs in the local labor market have no or minimal educational requirements, indicates that those without diplomas are arbitrarily screened out of job opportunities that in actuality do not require a high school education. This practice of arbitrary screening is sustained by the high competition among youths and adults with educational credentials seeking limited employment opportunities in the local labor market. If higher skilled jobs were available to those youths and adults possessing the education and skills required, then more opportunities in unskilled, low requirement jobs would be left open to high school dropouts. Presently, the mixed supply of workers is matched, for the most part, by a strong demand in low-wage, low-skilled jobs. Those workers having the educational and skills requirements for better jobs have little choice but to accept these low-status positions.

In terms of the employment and training programs available to youths in Providence, there is a reasonably balanced mix of programs which service the various segments of the youth high school dropout population. However, it is probable that these programs service only a small portion of the total youths in need of job training. Unfortunately, there is little or no information available on youths once they have dropped out of school. This lack of information on high school dropouts makes it difficult, if not impossible, to assess the number of dropout youths in need of job training. Many dropouts may have found employment, entered alternative schools, or are unemployable. Many others may have given up the search for jobs and are among the idle youth population.

In some respects, the Y.E.T.P. program for high school dropouts is reasonably successful. Most of the enrollees who were terminated from the program in 1978 had positive outcomes - either they entered employment,

returned to school, entered skills training, or entered the armed forces. In terms of remedial education resulting in the attainment of a high school equivalency, the success rate was much lower, at least as observed in the O.I.C. - Y.E.T.P. program. The problem with low success rates in the remedial education aspects of the program is not perceived as one of a lack of quality or availability of remedial education instructors, but rather, attributable to the lack of time allocated in the program design for remedial education and other motivational and ability factors of the participants. More time is needed in guiding participants through the required five tests of the equivalency than is allowed in the design of the Y.E.T.P. training modules. Since the lack of a high school diploma presents a major barrier for youths in the job market, the attainment of the high school equivalency should be an essential component of the measure of increased employability resulting from Y.E.T.P. training.

There is some question as to the long term impact of the Y.E.T.P. program on the employment situation of participating youths. The six-month follow-up survey of 1978 Y.E.T.P. participants did not yield enough responses for making definitive conclusions. However, there is an indication that a significant proportion of the youths that reportedly entered employment upon their termination from the program are now unemployed and looking for work.

The administration of the Y.E.T.P. program lacks a routine, systematic follow-up procedure for all individuals who leave the Y.E.T.P. program. This study attempted to survey only those Y.E.T.P. participants who had entered employment upon their termination. The survey outcome indicated that there are many difficulties associated with follow-up participant surveying. The combination of mailed questionaires and telephone

calling was limited in the numbers of respondents that could be generated. If time allowed, a door to door completion of the survey would have provided sufficient responses for a valid survey. However, the exercise of conducting follow-up surveys has merit even if a full sample of program participants can not be contacted. The fact that a representative of Providence C.E.T.A. contacted and conversed with some of the youths gave several of them a sense that someone cares about what they are doing now that they are no longer participating in the program. The impact of this "caring" exercise can never be overestimated. In addition, information gained from these youths improves the reality-based understanding of youth unemployment problems that many administrators, who are removed from the day to day dealings with these youths, may have a tendency to lose. Routine follow-up surveying is an essential evaluative technique that should be an emphasized component of any job training program.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the previous analysis and conclusions of the high school dropout unemployment problem and job training programs for dropouts in Providence. Recommendations have been divided into four general categories: recommendations for the reduction of youth unemployment in general; recommendations for the improvement of youth job-training programs for high school dropouts; recommendations for the improvement of informational systems on high school dropouts; and recommendations for further study.

1. Reduction of Youth Unemployment

a.) The State of Rhode Island Department of Economic Development in conjunction with Providence economic development authorities should undertake an intensive effort to attract industries into the

Providence local labor market that will provide higher skilled and higher paying jobs for local residents. An effort should also be made to stabilize and expand the retail trade sector of the Providence economy to provide expanded job opportunities for youth. Introducing higher skilled jobs into the local labor market will reduce the competition between adults and youths for jobs and thus leave more low-skilled and low educational requiring jobs available for youths and in particular, youth high school dropouts.

b.) Skills training should be matched with this economic development effort providing and incentive for higher skilled industry to move into Providence as well as insuring that Providence residents will be able to compete for the jobs.

c.) Job training programs for youths, especially high school dropouts, should be increased, expanding remedial education, job placement and referral, and job information components of training programs.

2. Improvement of Youth Job Training Programs for Dropouts

a.) The remedial education component of the Y.E.T.P. out-of-school program for high school dropouts should be increased in emphasis and expanded in duration so as to enable more enrolles to complete their high school equivalencies while they are still enrolled in the program. There are several possible variations in the design of program modules that would allow more time for remedial education instruction.

b.) Individual Y.E.T.P. vendor programs (O.I.C., Joslin, and Persona) should place a stronger emphasis on maintaining open communication lines with enrollees that leave the program. Periodic follow-up

contacts would provide useful evaluative information for the servicing agencies and provide incentive and encouragement for participants to finish their high school equivalencies and/or assist them in finding employment or obtaining skills training in a particular occupation.

c.) Providence C.E.T.A. Prime Sponsor should conduct routine, systematic follow-up surveys of participants who have terminated from the Y.E.T.P. program, (both positive and negative terminations), for program evaluation, problem identification, and participant encouragement.

d.) Individual job training service agencies should attempt to combine resources among various youth programs so that an improved service can be provided. For example, O.I.C.'s Y.E.T.P. and 70,001 programs would improve their service to enrollees if the remedial education resources were combined and conducted jointly.

e.) The individual Y.E.T.P. vendor programs (O.I.C., Joslin, and Persona) should establish a formal connection with private industry through the formation of business and industry advisory boards similar to the O.I.C. - 70,001 advisory board. This close connection with private businesses and industry would inprove work experience and O.J.T. (on-the-job training) placements and would guide training in terms of providing those skills that are looked for by potential employers. This closer linkage with the private sector would also increase the confidence of employers in the Y.E.T.P. program and its function as a legitimate job training program.

f.) A more comprehensive approach to the training of high school dropouts should be established emphasizing the continuance of skills

training for Y.E.T.P. participants after they obtain their high school equivalencies and/or have gained some work experience and have formulated an occupational goal. After a period of pre-employment training, work experience, and remedial education, many youths are ready for specific skills training. Substantial numbers of youths in the Y.E.T.P. program participate because they want to find a better job than the one(s) they had experience prior to enrolling. While there has been some Y.E.T.P. enrollees transfered to skills training (classroom training), there are probably many more who could benefit from skills training after a period of work experience.

3. Improving Information on High School Dropouts

Although the Student Flow Survey coordinated by the State Department of Education provides information, for each school district, as to the race, sex, age, grade, school, and reasons for dropping out for each student who drops out of school before graduating, this information is of limited use for planning job training programs for high school dropouts since total numbers of youth dropouts in need of job training services are difficult to determine from the available information. Since information on high school dropouts is more in the ambit of the Providence School Department than Providence C.E.T.A., the following recommendations are made:

a.) The Providence School Department should conduct annual surveys of youths who dropped out during the previous school year. The surveys should seek to identify the labor force status of dropouts,(whether they are employed, unemployed, discouraged, or unemployable) and at the same time provide job training and remedial

education information to the dropouts so that they can be encouraged to participate in programs. Other information relating to reasons for dropping out of school and particular problems of dropouts should also be obtained from the survey. (The school department of Philadelphia has demonstrated effective results in their annual mailed questionaire and could be used as a model for Providence).

b.) The Providence School Department should conduct periodic studies which attempt to identify the dynamics of the dropout problem so that preventitive programs and supportive services to potential dropouts can be appropriately planned and implemented.

4. Recommendations for Further Study

Within the scope of this study, only those programs which deal with dropouts once they have left school were examined. As previously mentioned, the Y.E.T.P. in-school program services many more youths than the out-of-school Y.E.T.P. program. Other programs exist within the Providence school system which may provide alternatives for the potential high school dropouts. The following recommendations identify specific areas of study which are needed for completing the analysis of youth employment training programs in Providence.

a.) The in-school Y.E.T.P. program should be analyzed in terms of the characteristics of enrollees and program outcomes, specifically, the performance of the program in terms of increasing the employability of youths.

b.) Other programs in the schools, (ie. the Work Cooperative Program) should be similarly analyzed in terms of their impact on

potential high school dropouts.

c.) An analysis of job informantion, referral, and placement services, career education, and career counseling services should be conducted in terms of their effectiveness in easing the school to work transitional problems of youths.

d.) An assessment and analysis of dropout prevention programs in the Providence school system should be conducted. Since many dropouts do not realize their relative labor market disadvantage until several months after dropping out of school and then attempt to obtain their high school equivalencies, it is important that greater emphasis be placed on dropout prevention with the evolution of alternative work-education learning curriculums.

It is hoped that these recommendations, when implemented, will reduce the unemployment situation of Providence youth, improve the employability of those who have suffered in the labor market because of their dropping out of school, and most importantly, curb the wasting of what has been referred to as our "boundless resource".

APPENDIX A

MISCELLANEOUS EMPLOYMENT DATA IN THE UNITED STATES

Table A-1.--Population and Employment Status of Teenagers, by Race and Location, Second Quarter 1977

Location	Population		Labor Force Participation Rates		Unemployed		Unemployment Rates		Black/White Ratio
	White	Black	White	Black	White	Black	White	Black	
Central City:									
poverty	346	657	45.4	31.1	34	101	21.7	49.6	2.3
non-poverty	2756	693	59.1	39.2	282	126	17.3	46.4	2.7
Suburbs:									
poverty	230	126	53.0	38.9	22	25	18.0	51.0	2.8
non-poverty	5842	394	62.9	39.6	551	51	15.0	32.7	2.2
Non-Metro.:									
poverty	1422	426	55.1	35.4	132	42	16.6	27.9	1.7
non-poverty	3367	197	61.8	44.7	339	27	16.3	30.7	1.9
Total	13983	2493	60.5	36.9	1360	372	16.1	40.5	2.5

Source: U.S. Dept. of Labor--Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table A-2.--Unemployment Rates of Black and White Teenagers (16-19 years old) in poverty and non-poverty areas--1974 to 1978

Race & Year	Metropolitan Areas		Non-Metropolitan Areas	
	Poverty Areas	Non-Poverty Areas	Poverty Areas	Non-Poverty Areas
1974				
Black	38.8	30.7	31.8	23.9
White	18.1	14.4	12.5	12.7
Black/White Ratio	2.1	2.1	2.5	1.9
1976				
Black	43.3	35.2	33.8	30.8
White	22.9	17.3	15.7	15.3
Black/White Ratio	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.0
1978				
Black	42.9	34.1	33.4	32.6
White	21.4	14.0	12.3	13.2
Black/White Ratio	2.0	2.4	2.7	2.5
1974-78 Change				
Black	+ 4.1	+ 3.4	+ 1.6	+ 8.7
White	+ 3.3	- 0.4	- 0.2	+ 0.5

Source: Employment and Earnings, Annual Averages U.S. Dept. of Labor 1974, 76 & 78.

Table A-3.--Employment Status of High School Students, Graduates Not Enrolled in School and Dropouts by Race, Sex, and Age 1977

Enrolled in School	White Youths in Labor Force				Black Youths in Labor Force			
	total	% of pop.	unemployed number	%	total	% of pop.	unemployed number	%
Enrolled in School								
16 to 19 yrs.	4435	47.3	608	13.7	371	23.6	145	39.1
16-17 yrs.	2908	46.7	426	14.6	197	18.7	84	42.6
18-19 yrs.	1527	48.3	182	11.9	174	33.7	61	35.1
16 to 24 yrs.	6576	50.1	744	11.3	567	27.4	187	33.0
Not Enrolled in School								
16 to 19 yrs.	3639	79.2	525	14.4	437	66.1	184	42.1
16-17 yrs.	545	67.3	131	24.0	48	44.9	21	*
18-19 yrs.	3094	81.7	394	12.7	389	70.2	163	41.9
16 to 24 yrs.	14154	81.6	1396	9.9	1804	72.7	506	28.0
High School Graduates								
(16 to 24 yrs.)								
both sexes	11372	85.7	929	8.2	1281	80.9	301	23.5
men	5791	95.8	410	7.1	610	91.9	132	21.6
women	5581	77.2	519	9.3	671	72.9	169	25.2

Table A-3--Continued

Enrolled in School	White Youths in Labor Force				Black Youths in Labor Force			
	total	% of pop.	unemployed number	%	total	% of pop.	unemployed number	%
High School Dropouts (16 to 24 yrs.)								
both sexes	2781	68.4	466	16.8	523	58.2	205	39.2
men	1879	90.1	267	14.2	312	76.5	101	32.4
women	902	45.6	199	22.1	211	43.1	104	49.3

*Data not shown where base is less than 75,000.

Source: Students, Graduates and Dropouts in the Labor Market, October, 1977, U.S. Dept. of Labor Special Labor Force Reports.

Table A-4.--Duration of Unemployment of Graduates and Dropouts 16 to 24 Years Old, by Race 1977

	Duration of Unemployment			
	1 to 4 weeks	5 to 14 weeks	15 to 26 weeks	27 weeks or more
Graduates (not in college)				
Total	45.6	31.7	11.7	11.0
White	47.1	31.6	11.1	10.2
Black	38.2	31.2	15.6	14.6
Dropouts				
Total	49.5	31.9	9.4	9.3
White	52.1	30.6	9.3	7.8
Black	47.8	31.2	15.6	14.6

Source: Students, Graduates and Dropouts in the Labor Market, October 1977. U.S. Dept. of Labor--Special Labor Force Reports.

APPENDIX B

MISCELLANEOUS DATA ON HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AND DROPOUTS IN THE UNITED STATES

Table B-1.--Teenagers in the 18 to 19 Years Age Group Not Enrolled In School--High School Graduates and Non-Graduates--1969 to 1977 by Race

Year and Race	High School Graduates			Not High School Graduates		
	Number	% of Population	B/W Ratio	Number	% of Population	B/W Ratio
1969						
White	2056	35.7	0.8	772	13.4	2.0
Black	238	28.4		227	27.1	
1971						
White	2287	36.6	0.8	875	14.0	1.7
Black	266	29.3		219	24.1	
1973						
White	2748	41.9	0.9	962	14.7	1.7
Black	369	37.0		252	25.2	
1975						
White	2665	38.9	0.7	1005	14.7	1.7
Black	283	27.5		262	25.4	
1977						
White	2681	38.6	0.8	1103	15.9	1.4
Black	319	29.8		235	21.9	

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census Current Population Reports "School Enrollment--Social and Economic Characteristics of Students," Ocotber 1969-77, Series P-20.

Table B-2.--Enrollment Status of Teenagers 16 to 19 Years Old by Area of Residence and Race, October, 1977

Location of Teenagers	Enrolled in School		Not Enrolled in School			
			High School Graduate		Not a High School Graduate	
	number	% of population	number	% of population	number	% of population
Central Cities						
White	2033	66.3	596	19.4	438	14.3
Black	872	70.1	191	15.4	180	14.5
Metropolitan Area Outside Central Cities						
White	4305	70.0	1261	20.5	585	9.5
Black	304	72.9	66	15.8	47	11.3
Nonmetropolitan Areas						
White	3043	63.9	1013	21.3	702	14.7
Black	398	69.2	81	14.0	96	16.7

Source: U.S. Bureau of Census Current Population Reports, "School Enrollment--Social and Economic Characteristics of Students," October 1977, Series P-20, No. 333.

Table B-3.--Enrollment Status of Teenagers 16 to 19 Years Old by Sex and Race, October, 1977

Race and Sex of Teenagers	Enrolled in School		Not Enrolled in School			
			High School Graduate		Not a High School Graduate	
	number	% of population	number	% of population	number	% of population
White						
Men						
16 to 19	4814	69.1	1267	18.2	884	12.7
16-17 yrs.	3194	89.5	68	1.9	307	8.6
18-19 yrs.	1620	47.7	1199	35.3	577	17.0
Women						
16 to 19	4568	65.1	1603	22.9	841	12.0
16-17 yrs.	3028	87.4	120	3.5	315	9.1
18-19 yrs.	1540	43.4	1483	41.8	526	14.8
Black						
Men						
16 to 19	783	73.1	130	12.1	158	14.7
16-17 yrs.	532	92.5	3	0.6	40	6.9
18-19 yrs.	251	50.5	127	25.6	118	23.8
Women						
16 to 19	790	67.9	207	17.8	166	14.3
16-17 yrs.	523	89.1	15	2.5	49	8.4
18-19 yrs.	267	46.3	192	33.4	117	20.3

Source: U.S. Bureau of Census Current Population Reports, "School Enrollment--Social and Economic Characteristics of Students," October, 1977, Series P-20, No. 333.

APPENDIX C

Y.E.T.P. MOCK INTERVIEW

Y.E.T.P. MOCK INTERVIEW

The purpose of this mock job interview is to give you practice in interviewing for a job. Applying for and interviewing for jobs is usually time consuming, tiring, and frightening experience. However, being ready for the interview will make the process much less tiring and scarry and more successful in landing a job.

Instructions:

1. Choose one of the following occupations below and pretend that you are applying for a job opening in that occupation. In preparation for your interview you are going to try to match your experiences, skills, abilities, and career goals with the requirements of the job. You want to be able to convince the employer that you are the best one for the job.

2. During the interview you will be asked the following kinds of questions:

   a. What kinds of work experiences and/or hobbies do you have (part-time, full-time, paid, or volunteer)?

   b. What kinds of non-job experiences and/or hobbies do you have that relate to the skills requirements of the job that you are applying for?

   c. What is your educational background? Do you have a high school diploma? If not, then why didn't you finish? When do you expect to obtain your high school equivalency if at all?

   d. Explain how you think you are qualified for this job.

   e. What are your long-range career goals? Does this job that you are applying for relate to your long-range career goal? If yes, then in what way does it related? If no, then why are you applying for this job?

   f. What are you currently doing? (Describe Y.E.T.P. and your work experience part of the program.)

3. At the end of the interview the interviewer will respond either favorably or unfavorably, but will give no definite answer until the next day.

4. After the interview, you will be asked about your experiences in trying to find a job in the past.

5. The interviewer will summarize the good and bad points of your interview and decide whether you got the job or not.

OCCUPATIONS TO CHOOSE FROM:

Occupation	Qualifications and Training
Retail Trade Salesworker	High school courses in retail selling helpful but not necessary. Good salesmanship qualities.
Auto Parts Counterworkers	Most learn skills on the job. High school mechanics courses helpful.
(construction trades)	
Roofer	Applicant must be at least age 18. Many learn informally on the job, but 3-year apprenticeship recommended.
Construction laborer	On-the-job training or formal training programs, lasting 4 to 8 weeks. Usually must be 18 years of age and in good physical condition.
Painter	Usually applicant must be at leas 16 years old. Many acquire skills informally on the job, but 3-year apprenticeship recommended.
(service occupations)	
Cook	Skills usually learned on the job; courses in cooking schools an advantage for work in large hotels and restaurants.
Waiter/Waitress	Many employers prefer those with two or three years of high school. On-the-job training is common. Arithmetic skills needed.
(office occupations)	
Cashier	Applicant who has taken vocational education or business subjects preferred. Most training on the job.
Stock Clerk	Applicant who is good at reading, writing, arithmetic, typing, and filing is preferred.

APPENDIX D

Y.E.T.P. SIX-MONTH FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONNAIRE

Y.E.T.P. SIX-MONTH FOLLOW UP QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Are you still working at the job that you were placed in or found on your own when you left the program? Yes_____ No_____

2. If the answer to Question #1 is Yes, what is your job title, hours per week, and hourly wage?

   Job Title_____ Hrs./Wk._____ Hrly. Wage_____

   Are you satisfied with this job?_____

3. If the answer to Question #1 is No, why are you not working there anymore?_____

   What kinds of work have you done since that job?

Type of Job	Hrs./Wk	$/Hour

   Are you employed now? Yes_____ No_____
   If No, how long have you been without a job?_____
   If No, are you looking for work now? Yes_____ No_____

4. What kind of work do you eventually want to do?_____

   _____

5. Have you obtained your high school equivalency? Yes_____ No_____

6. Are you seeking any other job training or education?_____

   _____

7. Why did you originally leave school? (main reason)_____

   _____

8. Do you feel that the C.E.T.A. Program experience has helped you?
   If Yes, how?_____
   If No, why not?_____

Please enclose this questionnaire in the envelope provided and mail.
Thank you.

APPENDIX P

PROVIDENCE POPULATION ESTIMATES AND PROJECTIONS

U.S. Bureau of Census estimates of the population of Providence are only available for 1975 and 1976 and are not broken down by age groups. Census population estimates by five year age groups are available for the years 1970, 1965, and 1960. In order to disaggregate the 1975 Census estimate of the Providence population into five year age groups, a cohort survival migration ratio methodology was used.

Using the cohort survival method, each agre group was projected from 1970 to 1975 assuming no migration.[1] This change in population reflected assumed births and deaths (or natural change) based on 1970 life tables of survival rates of each five year age group and fertility rates of each five year female age group of child-bearing age. This projected 1975 population due to natural change was then subtracted from the U.S. Census estimate of the total population in 1975 in order to calculate total migration. By dividing the total migration during the 1970-75 period by the total projected 1975 population due to natural change, a migration factor was calculated for the whole population. This migration factor was then applied to each of the five-year age groups as one estimate of their share of the total migration. This migration estimate for each age group was then added to the projected population due to natural changes to arrive at a population estimate by age groups. These calculations are presented in Table P-2. The method used to estimate migration is referred to as the constant migration factor method since a constant factor is applied uniformly to each age group.

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[1]See Donald A. Krueckeberg and Arthur L. Silvers, Urban Planning Analysis: Methods and Models, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1974), pp. 275-278.

Table P-1.--Population of Providence 1960-65 and 1965-70 by Natural Change and Migration for Each Group

Age Group	1965 Projected[1] (Natural Change)	1965 Actual[2]	1960-65 Migration	1970 Projected (Natural Change)	1970 Actual	1965-70 Migration
0-4	23304	16005	- 7299	17425	13493	- 3932
5-9	18491	15674	- 2817	15124	13268	- 1856
10-14	16147	14540	- 1607	15361	13862	- 1499
15-19	15449	14281	- 1168	14249	16546	+ 2297
20-24	15237	10676	- 4451	13853	17898	+ 4045
25-29	14091	8664	- 5427	10356	11179	+ 823
30-34	11427	8982	- 2445	8404	7856	- 548
35-39	12159	9872	- 2287	8532	7656	- 875
40-44	12732	11817	- 915	9280	9310	+ 30
45-49	11998	11195	- 803	10871	10273	- 598
50-54	12069	11655	- 414	10187	10697	+ 510
55-59	11407	10731	- 676	10489	10773	+ 284
60-64	9909	9742	- 167	9122	10102	+ 980
65-69	8673	8865	+ 192	7793	8510	717
70-99	15055	16604	+ 1549	13789	17790	4001
Total	208147	179303	-28844	174835	179213	+ 4378

[1]1965 and 1970 populations were projected using the Cohort Survival Method assuming no migration.

[2]Actual population estimates provided by U.S. Bureau of Census.

Applying the total population migration factor to each age group, however, assumes that each age group has relatively similar migration patterns. This is known not to be the case for age groups in Providence. An examination of the migration patterns of each age group during the 1960-65 and 1965-70 period for Providence reveals that the different age groups varied widely in terms of in and out migration. Table P-1 illustrates that, for example, nearly one-third of the 20-24 year old age group moved out of Providence during the 1960-65 period and returned during the 1965-70 period. (Much of this shift may be due to enlistment and draft into the military during the Vietnam War.)

A second method for estimating migration for each age group was applied assuming that the relative migration patterns of the individual age groups would remain the same as they were during the 1965-70 period. These migration factors of individual age groups were adjusted downward by a factor which reflected the actual total migration during the 1970-75 period in order to obtain modified migration factors for individual age groups that would total the actual observed migration during the 1970-75 period. The calculations of this modified migration factor method are illustrated in Table P-3. It is probably unrealistic to assume that age group migration would continue at the same rates during the 1970-75 period as were observed during the 1965-70 period, especially since migration of several groups had reversed in the 1965-70 period from the 1960-65 period.

A final estimate of the population was then derived by compromising between these two extreme assumptions that (1) migration during the 1970-75 period is evenly distributed among the various

Table P-2.--Providence Population Estimate for 1975 by Age Groups Using Constant Migration Factor

Age Group	Projected 1975 Population (Natural Change)	1970-75 Constant Migration Factor	Estimated 1975 Population(I)
0-4	16097	-0.031	15592
5-9	12750	-0.031	12350
10-14	13002	-0.031	12594
15-19	13584	-0.031	13158
20-24	16050	-0.031	15547
25-29	17361	-0.031	16817
30-34	10844	-0.031	10504
35-39	7463	-0.031	7229
40-44	7191	-0.031	6965
45-49	8566	-0.031	8297
50-54	9348	-0.031	9055
55-59	9627	-0.031	9325
60-64	9157	-0.031	8870
65-69	8081	-0.031	7828
70-99	14032	-0.031	13593
Total	173153	-0.031	167724

Table P-3.--Providence Population Estimate for 1975 by Age Groups Using Modified Migration Factor

Age Group	Projected 1975 Population (Natural Change)	1965-70 Migration Factor	1970-75 Modified Migration Factor	Estimated 1975 Population (II)
0-4	16097	-0.226	-0.277	11643
5-9	12750	-0.123	-0.180	10449
10-14	13002	-0.098	-0.157	10961
15-19	13584	+0.161	+0.085	14735
20-24	16050	+0.292	+0.207	19371
25-29	17361	+0.079	+0.008	17506
30-34	10844	-0.065	-0.127	9469
35-39	7463	-0.102	-0.162	6257
40-44	7191	+0.003	-0.063	6739
45-49	8566	-0.055	-0.117	7561
50-54	9348	+0.050	-0.019	9170
55-59	9627	+0.027	-0.040	9237
60-64	9157	+0.107	+0.034	9473
65-69	8081	+0.092	+0.022	8244
70-99	14032	+0.290	+0.205	16911
Total	173153			167724

age groups or (2) migration is distributed in the same proportions for each age group observed during the 1965-70 period. The compromised estimate was derived by taking the average of the two estimates for each age group and designated as Estimated 1975 Population (III) in Table P-5.

Population estimate (III) presents a reasonable estimate between the two extreme estimates and is used to project the teenage population to 1980. For purposes of estimating the number of youths in the population of Providence for 1980, the Cohort Survival Method was applied to the 1975 estimates by five-year age groups.

In projecting to 1980, an assumption was made that there would be no net gain or loss due to migration. This assumption is based on total population projections of Providence made by the Rhode Island State Wide Planning Department. Their projections indicate that Providenc-'s population will reach its lowest during the 1975-80 period and begin to increase throughout the rest of the century (see Figure P-I). Changes in the projected population for the 1975-80 period, therefore, only reflects births and deaths in the population of 1975 over the projected five year period.

Projection of Non-white Population

The population of non-whites in Providence was observed for the 1960 to 1970 period and seemed to have migratory trends independent and perhaps opposite that of the whole population in general. Table P-4 summarizes the migration patterns by age group for the non-white population in Providence. In general, migration of non-whites into Providence was greater in 1960-65 period than in the 1965-70 period,

Table P-4.--Non-White Population by 5-Year Age Groups
1965 and 1970 with Migration

Age Group	P_{60} Actual 1960	P^*_{65} Projected 1965	P_{65} Actual 1965	Migration 1960-65	M Factor $\frac{M_{60-65}}{P^*_{65}}$	P^*_{70}	P_{70}	Migration 1965-70	M Factor $\frac{M_{65-70}}{P^*_{70}}$
0-4	2047	1543	2264	+ 721	+0.467	1787	2109	+ 322	+0.180
5-9	1562	1934	2254	+ 320	+0.165	2140	2126	+ 14	+0.006
10-14	1160	1530	1800	+ 270	+0.176	2209	2104	- 105	-0.047
15-19	869	1137	1315	+ 178	+0.156	1763	1861	+ 98	+0.055
20-24	909	843	1103	+ 260	+0.308	1276	1650	+ 374	+0.293
25-29	854	882	985	+ 103	+0.117	1070	1292	+ 222	+0.207
30-34	920	829	946	+ 117	+0.141	956	1113	+ 157	+0.164
35-39	831	926	844	- 82	-0.088	898	1009	+ 111	+0.124
40-44	634	781	882	+ 101	+0.129	788	1022	+ 234	+0.297
45-49	498	537	580	+ 43	+0.080	744	851	+ 107	+0.144
50-54	384	453	476	+ 23	+0.051	527	651	+ 124	+0.235
55-59	371	347	348	+ 1	+0.003	428	576	+ 148	+0.346
60-64	327	316	331	+ 15	+0.047	296	431	+ 135	+0.456
65-69	265	262	308	+ 46	+0.176	264	394	+ 130	+0.330
70-99	434	385	462	+ 77	+0.20	429	686	+ 257	+0.375
Total	12065	12703	14898	+2195	+0.073	15590	17875	+2285	+0.128

*Projected migration 1970-75 = a factor of 0.083.

but positive in both. The migration factor for the 1970-75 period was estimated by assuming that in-migration would slow down during this period by the same rate that it slowed down during the 1965-70 period. A factor of +0.083 was used to estimate the migration of each age group during the 1970-75 period. This projection is presented in Table P-5.

The non-white population of 1980 was projected using the cohort survival technique, assuming no migration. These projections of the non-white population in Providence were done independently of the total population rather than using a ratio of the total technique.

Table P-5.--Estimated 1975 Population of Providence by Age Groups Projected to 1980--Assuming No Migration 1975-80

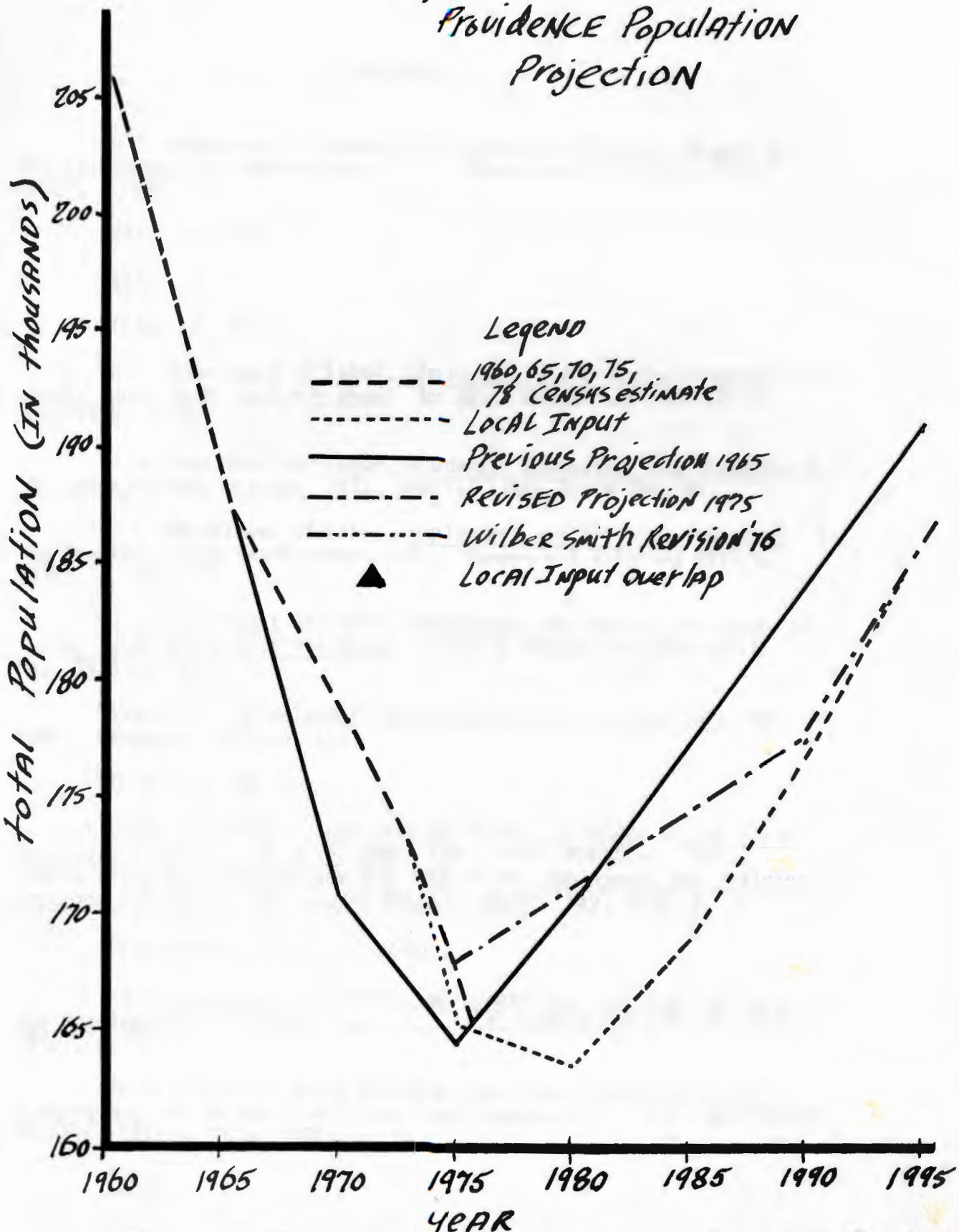
Age Group	(Total) Estimated 1975 Population[III]	(Total) Projected 1980 Population	(Non-White) Estimated 1975 Population[3]	(Non-White) Projected 1980 Population
0-4	13617	-[2]	1877	-[2]
5-9	11399	13304	2158	1839
10-14	11778	11376	2252	2136
15-19	13947	11754	2231	2249
20-24	17460	13891	1936	2224
25-29	17160	17390	1734	1928
30-34	9986	17067	1358	1723
35-39	6743	9931	1145	1351
40-44	6852	6669	1047	1133
45-49	7929	6708	1019	1026
50-54	9112	7754	838	993
55-59	9281	8747	635	800
60-64	9171	8631	536	565
65-69	8036	-	372	309
70-79	15252	-	638	293
Total	167724[1]	-	18279	

[1] 1975 U.S. Census estimate for total population of Providence.

[2] Not-projected.

[3] Projected using a constant migration factor of + 0.083 for all age groups.

Figure P-I
Providence Population Projection



Source: Office of Statewide Planning, Rhode Island Socio-Economic Projections, the State, Cities, & Towns and Analysis Zones 1980 and 2000, July 1978

FOOTNOTES

[1]U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President 1978 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office 1978), p. 69.

[2]Ibid., p. 187.

[3]Ibid., p. 72.

[4]Ibid., p. 73.

[5]U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? by Garth Mangum and John Walsh, May, 1978, p. 28.

[6]U.S. Department of Labor, Students, Graduates, and Dropouts in the Labor Market, October, 1977, Special Labor Force Reports.

[7]U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President 1978 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1978), p. 74.

[8]U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? by Garth Mangum and John Walsh, May, 1978, p. 29.

[9]Stanley L. Friedlander, Unemployment in the Urban Core (New York: Praeger, 1972), p. 150.

[10]Ibid., p. 126.

[11]Louis A. Ferman, Disadvantaged Youth: Problems of Job Placement, Job Creation, Job Development (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Dec., 1967), cited by Garth Mangum and John Walsh, Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? May, 1978, p. 29.

[12]Friedlander, pp. 125 and 126.

[13]U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Report of the President 1978 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1978), p. 75.

[14]U.S. Congress, Joint Economic Committee, Youth and Minority Unemployment by Walter E. Williams (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, July, 1977), p. 6.

[15]Ibid.

[16]Friedlander, p. 137.

[17]Ibid.

[18]U.S. Congress, Joint Economic Committee, Youth and Minority Unemployment by Walter E. Williams, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, July, 1977), p. 16.

[19]Ibid.

[20]U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? by Garth Mangum and John Walsh, May, 1978, p. 32.

[21]Lee Rainwater, "Identify Processes in the Family" in Robert Staples, ed., The Black Family (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1971), as quoted in Garth Mangum and John Walsh, Ibid., p. 32.

[22]U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Programs for Youth: What Works Best for Whom? by Garth Mangum and John Walsh, May, 1978, pp. 57-60; 72-75; 108-109.

[23]Ibid.

[24]"Dropouts" in this section of Chapter II is defined as individuals in the 16 to 19 age group who are not enrolled in school and have not received their high school diploma.

[25]Laure M. Sharpe and Ann Richardson, Establishing a Continuous Training/Employment Referral and Support System for Dropouts: Report on a Planning Effort (ERIC Documents ED 154 321) Dec., 1977.

[26]Ibid.

[27]Philadelphia School Districts, Office of Research and Evaluation, Survey of Philadelphia High School Dropouts 1974-75 (ERIC Documents ED 132 695), 1975.

[28]Frank L. Mott and Lois B. Shaw, Work and Family in the School Leaving Years: A Comparison of Female High School Graduates and Dropouts, Ohio State University (ERIC Documents ED 155 489) May, 1978, p. 4.

[29]Russell C. Hill, Dropping Out of School: The Effects of Family, Ability, School Quality and Local Employment Conditions (ERIC Documents ED 116 102), 1975, p. 9.

[30]Sharpe and Richardson, p. 8.

[31]Hill, p. 9.

[32]Ibid., p. 33.

[33]Ibid., p. 23.

[34]Lawrence G. Felice and Ronald L. Richardson, The Effects of Busing and School Desegregation on Majority and Minority Student Dropout Rates: An Evaluation of School Socio-Economic Composition and Teachers Expectations (ERIC Documents ED 138 669), Dec., 1976, p. 12.

[35]Marvin J. Berlowitz and Henry Durand, School Dropouts or Pushouts? A Case Study of the Possible Violation of Property Rights and Liberties by the de Facto Exclusion of Students from the Public Schools (ERIC Documents ED 143 898), 1976.

[36]Hill, p. 33

[37]Sharpe and Richardson, p. 10.

[38]School and the 17-Year Old: A Comparison of Career Development Skills of 17-Year Olds Attending School and Those Not Attending, National Center for Education Statistics, Education Commission of the States, Denver, Colorado (ERIC Documents ED 155 328), March, 1978, p. 2.

[39]Mott and Shaw, p. 4.

[40]Philadelphia School District, Office of Research and Evaluation, p. 6.

[41]Mott and Shaw, p. 11.

[42]Ibid.

[43]Y.E.D.P.A. Prime Sponsor Agreement Supplement, Providence CETA Administration, August, 1978.

[44]Edward Kalachek, The Youth Labor Market (Washington, D.C.: Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations and National Manpower Policy Task Force, January, 1969).

[45]Ibid.

[46]Y.E.D.P.A. Prime Sponsor Agreement Supplement, Providence CETA Administration, August, 1978.

[47]Opportunities Industrialization Center of Rhode Island, "South Providence Revisited Study and Recommendation," Department of Planning and Economic Development, September, 1978.

[48]Ibid.

[49].State of Rhode Island, Balance of State CETA Prime Sponsor, Manpower Demand Survey, Job Development and Training, Department of Economic Development, December, 1978.

[50]State of Rhode Island, Department of Education, Vocational Education Early School Leaver Study, Final Report, October, 1978.

[51]Data used for analysis in the remainder of Chapter IV was obtained from the individual files of each participant in the programs, coded, and computer processed using the S.P.S.S. program (Statistical Package for Social Sciences).

[52]Interviews with O.I.C.'s Planning Staff and O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. staff, April, 1979.

[53]Interview with Lorine Bibbs, Director of O.I.C., 70,001 Program, April 7, 1978.

[54]Opportunities Industrialization Center of Rhode Island, Inc., "First Year's Report--O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. Program," by William Flynn and Dennis Martin, October 12, 1978.

[55]Ibid.

[56]Interview with Lorine Bibbs, Director of O.I.C., 70,001 Program, April 7, 1978.

[57]Interviews with O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. Staff, February, 1979.

[58]Opportunities Industrialization Center of Rhode Island, Inc., "First Year's Report," October 12, 1978.

[59]Ibid.

[60]Interview with O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. Job Developer, Ray Wilson, February, 1979.

[61]The names of each case are ficticious.

[62]Opportunities Industrialization Center of Rhode Island, Inc., "First Year's Report," October 12, 1978.

[63]Ibid.

[64]Ibid.

[65]Interview with O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P. Job Developer, Ray Wilson, February, 1979.

[66]Opportunities Industrialization Center of Rhode Island, Inc., "First Year's Report," October 12, 1978.

[67]Interview with O.I.C.-Y.E.T.P.'s Counselor, Paula Lopes, February, 1979.

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