PLACEMENT AND COUNSELING IN A CHANGING LABOR MARKET: PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES AND SCHOOLS

REPORT OF THE SAN FRANCISCO BAY AREA
PLACEMENT AND COUNSELING SURVEY

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(assisted by Gordon Cavana

and John Dana)

IIR INSTITUTE OF INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The present study is part of a broad labor market research program inaugurated several years ago. This program, using the Bay Area as its "laboratory," was designed to explore many aspects of the functioning of a major metropolitan labor market and to be based on data gathered from a wide variety of sources.

In its first year, 1966, the Institute's research was supported in part by a grant from the Office of Education under the provisions of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, and by the Department of Labor, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research. Because of sharp reductions in the budget for research on vocational education, the Office of Education of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare was unable to continue its support of the Institute's research program beyond July 1, 1967.

Beginning July 1, 1967, the Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation, and Research assumed funding of the Employer Policy Survey, the findings of which were published by the Institute in July 1969. This survey, essentially the study of a broad range of changing employer policies as viewed by the employers themselves, yielded information that provided both a major impetus for conducting the present survey of employment agencies and school counseling, and background data for their further investigation.

Accordingly, the Department of Labor granted the Institute a small sum to plan a study in fiscal year 1967-68 that would develop data on various types of employment agencies in the Bay Area, on

relationships between personnel in these agencies and the schools, and on the production and communication of labor market information needed in vocational planning and education. Subsequently, the Department of Labor's Manpower Administration provided funds for the survey that had been designed under this planning grant, under a contract extending from July 1, 1968 to December 31, 1969.

Among the many individuals assisting the Institute in the present survey, particular mention is due representatives of government agencies and private organizations who agreed to our requests to work with their organizations and facilitated our contacts with the employment agency executives and school counselors whom we interviewed. In some instances these individuals, as well, helped us in our sample selection and in the design of the two interview schedules that were used.

We benefitted particularly in these respects from help given us in the initial states of the survey by:

The late Mr. Peter Weinberger, then Director of the California Department of Employment; and Mr. Herbert W. Wilson, then Deputy Director; Mr. Donald F. Page, Chief of the Employment Service Section; and Mr. Marc W. Johnson and Mr. Dudley Cameron, then Coastal Area Manpower Administrator and Deputy Administrator, respectively, of that agency.

Mr. Sigurd I. Hansen, then Chief of the Bureau of Employment Agencies of the California Department of Professional and Vocational Standards, which exercises certain regulatory and other functions respecting the State's private employment agencies.

Mr. C. F. Charles, then Executive Secretary of the California Employment Agencies Association.

Mr. H. A. Prophet, then Chairman of the California State Advisory Board to the Bureau of Employment Agencies.

Dr. William H. McCreary, Chief of Pupil Personnel Services of the California Department of Education.

Sister Paula Butier, Secondary School Coordinator, Department of Education, Archdiocese of San Francisco and Mrs. Margaret Mutti, Director of Pupil Personnel Services, Department of Education, Diocese of Oakland.

Also, most helpful to us were those many individuals who supplied us with technical assistance during the course of the survey or who generously contributed their own time or that of their staffs in order to give us needed data. Among these were:

Mrs. Elta Cain, then Administrative Assistant for the Coastal Area Office of the California Department of Employment.

Mr. Richard C. DeWalt, Assistant Chief of the Bureau of Employment Agencies.

Mrs. Barbara Kirk, Director of the Counseling Center, University of California at Berkeley.

Mrs. Ruth Marks, Librarian, California Department of Industrial Relations.

Mr. James Neto, Coastal Area Manpower Economist of the California Department of Employment.

Mr. Walter Postle, Regional Economist of the San Francisco Office of the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor.

Dr. George S. Roche, Chief of Research and Statistics, California Department of Employment.

Mr. Charles Roumasset, Regional Director of the San Francisco Office of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

Mr. Wesley P. Smith, Director of Vocational Education of the California Department of Education.

All of the interviews for this survey were conducted by three staff members of the Institute of Industrial Relations, Gordon Cavana, John Dana, and Margaret Thal-Larsen. In addition to their work as interviewers, Mr. Cavana and Mr. Dana assisted throughout major periods of the survey with processing the collected data. Mr. Cavana interviewed

most of the school counselors and contacted various other school personnel concerning information and materials used in connection with our field data. Mr. Dana interviewed most of the private employment agency managers and was very helpful in assembling for the writing process the information gained from these respondents. Both Mr. Cavana and Mr. Dana participated in arriving at many of the interpretations given the data which they collected.

Linda Brownstein, as Statistical Clerk, helped with coding and tabulating the data. Caryl Schrock typed successive versions of the draft and assisted in many ways as the report was in preparation. Jeanette Podvin typed many of the tables. Responsible for the final typing of the text were: Ethel Davis, Linda Dayton, Judith Loney, Barbara Palmer, and Jeanette Podvin.

A most special debt of appreciation is owed to Margaret S. Gordon, Associate Director of the Institute of Industrial Relations. As Co-Investigator for the Bay Area Labor Market Project, she was involved from its inception in the overall study of which the present report is one part. Also, she read the manuscript of this report and supplied many valuable critical comments. The author, however, is solely responsible for the interpretation of the data and for the conclusions and recommendations that have been drawn from this interpretation.

We are, of course, particularly grateful to our respondents - managers of both public and private employment agencies and school counselors and school placement agency personnel - who participated in the often lengthy interviews that were necessary for this survey.

We hope that they will find the results of this study interesting and useful. It is also our hope that they will approve our frequent use of this report as a vehicle for their comments and suggestions. To the extent that such use brings wider recognition than now exists of the many factors limiting the effectiveness of Bay Area placement and counseling services, our respondents will receive some recompense for the time and effort required for their participation.

MAJOR FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Any recommendations that are made concerning Bay Area[1] employment service or occupational guidance must take into account one consideration that overrides all others. Neither the public employment service nor the schools of this area possess the resources required for an effective performance of the duties assigned to them over the past decade.

This shortage of needed resources -- not alone of funds, of staff, of information but often of expertise, sound administrative practices, and community consensus as to their activities -- is no new discovery. Hence it cannot be claimed as a major finding of this survey. But the present study's concentration on a narrow geographic area together with its in-depth interviewing of various categories of employment service and school personnel, documents and quantifies various aspects of recent manpower developments.

The impact of recent manpower legislation has been to turn the public employment service towards providing greatly expanded services to the disadvantaged. The public schools have been given increased responsibilities for occupational guidance and the vocational preparation of their students.

Our survey data for the Bay Area show that these assigned missions were not accompanied with the resources required to accomplish them. Despite major changes of organization, staffing,

and program, and despite many hard-won achievements, it cannot be said that disadvantaged workers are as effectively served in Bay Area local offices as they should be. Further, such improved service as has been given various special groups has been paid for with a diminution of services to others that promises to be self-defeating for the public service as a placement agency. The increasing prominence of private employment agencies since 1960 as a hiring channel for the area's better-qualified workers is but a single example of the price of withdrawing expected services from substantial sectors of the labor force and from employers.

Bay Area schools, especially the public high schools, have made little progress since 1960 in better preparing their students for the realities of the labor market. In the main, their total counseling programs are so impaired by shortages of resources -- again using that term in its broadest sense -- that the provision of adequate occupational guidance receives little better than secondary consideration. And the impact of youth, ill-prepared for the world of work, is experienced ultimately by employment agencies, both public and private, by the area's employers, and by the community at large.

Many basic policy decisions including those respecting resource allocations must be arrived at before Bay Area manpower agencies and schools can contribute effectively to a solution of the area's manpower problems. Certain policy alternatives are described below. In addition a number of

recommendations follow that require neither large increases in present levels of expenditure nor significant changes in community attitudes for their implementation.

The most important finding of this survey is quite probably the extent to which managers of public and private employment agencies and counselors from public and Catholic high schools and from junior colleges maintain that adequate labor market information is an essential resource for the satisfactory performance of their duties. As these duties are job placement, employment counseling, and occupational guidance, the importance to the Bay Area community of a "system" designed to prepare and deliver the needed information cannot be overestimated.

Accordingly, our recommendation on this matter, detailed in Section X of the present report, is an attempt to indicate various relationships that might be established between the providers and users of labor market information; the potential support that might be enlisted; the technology that might be utilized; and the innovation that might be considered in the staffing of school counseling departments to create such a "system" in the Bay Area.

Survey Objectives and Findings

Our research objectives in conducting the present study's investigations of placement and counseling in Bay Area public and private employment agencies and schools were:

> "To determine the impact of manpower legislation, policies, and practices on the relative roles and effectiveness of public and private employment agencies, and on the conduct of school occupational guidance activities in the period 1960-1968, and
>
> "To determine the relationships that exist between employment agencies and educational institutions as to their goals and their operations, with particular emphasis on the significance to their activities of the development, communication, and use of labor market information."

Admittedly the geographic scope of our research has been narrow. Placement and counseling are conducted nationwide and beyond. It is pertinent, therefore, to question if our findings and our recommendations can possess more than local validity.

Neither Bay Area employment service nor school counseling mirrors these services exactly, as they are conducted throughout the nation. They do not, for that matter, precisely resemble them as practiced the length of California. Yet, certain problems are commonly encountered wherever placement and counseling are offered. There exists, thus, the strong probability that suggested remedies, also, can be broadly applicable. Further, a point that is developed at length in this study, the Bay Area exhibits an astounding diversity in almost all respects. It provides a setting where counterparts are to be found for most of the social challenges and reactions existing elsewhere. Also, there is the belief, widely held locally, that "what happens, happens first in the Bay Area." If given anv credence, this bit of local mythology suggests that we may gain the benefit of some slight prevision by narrowing our focus to the problems and proposed solutions voiced by

respondents drawn from this particular area.

Because investigations of activities such as Bay Area employment service and occupational guidance inevitably run head-on into major social issues necessitating some value judgments, recommendation-making for a study of this kind is beset with a larger problem than the survey's geographic scope. How these activities are in fact, administered often reflects an ignoring of, or the uneasy resolution of, real conflicts between competing interest groups. Quite simply, the manner of conducting placement and counseling services can shift the receipt of income and other less material forms of compensation from one group to another.

In matters of public policy, one cannot ignore considerations of political feasibility in formulating recommendations. Suggested changes in the conduct of affairs at the desk of an interviewer or a counselor all too often contain implications not alone for administrative procedures but also for the comparative advantages that competing groups may enjoy now and in the future.

In this respect it has been our intent to concentrate both our investigations and our recommendations on those operations within employment service and counseling whose effective functioning can be expected to benefit, neutrally, the interests that are common to all groups. Precisely because of the competing goals and the conflicting value systems that so often characterize the conduct of these two services, there must be rigorous

examination, by a broader public than is now involved, of the basic issues affecting their day-to-day practices. There are various means of stimulating closer examination of the relationships that exist between alternative administrative decisions and the social policies these may advance or restrain.

There are several routes to awakening a greater appreciation of the limitations imposed on policy decisions when the resources devoted to a broad variety of services, all of which are needed, are, overall, critically inadequate. One of these avenues is continued study and research at the local level where the actual operations of services such as placement and counseling may be observed. The present study has taken this approach. And our major findings, namely, answers to the questions posed by our research objectives emerge loud and clear from our investigations:

> "The impact of manpower legislation, policies, and practices on Bay Area employment service since 1960 has been to push the public agencies into abandoning a neutral position respecting the match between worker qualifications and job-order specifications, in favor of giving compensatory advantages to specified categories of workers. This latter course does not always serve the economic interests of employers nor does it prevent workers whose qualifications are competitive from utilizing other means of job seeking. Therefore, private agencies appear, increasingly, to be assuming the role of furnishing an employment exchange for qualified workers and for employers who can offer the more attractive job opportunities.
>
> "Recent legislation affecting the schools has brought increased support for vocational education. Nonetheless, the impact of mounting enrollments and expanding counselor loads has been such that,

at their present levels, neither vocational course offerings, particularly in the high schools, nor occupational counseling ensure that the area's youth have received even minimal guidance as to labor market realities before going on to college or seeking work.

"Relationships between the schools and the public employment agencies vary by district but in the main have deteriorated since 1960 because of the work pressures affecting each and because of a general lack of communication between the two. Although the public agencies have stepped up their activities for disadvantaged youth, such of their services to 'mainstream' students as placement, testing, and occupational guidance have been curtailed.

"Both public and private employment agency respondents maintain they cannot do an adequate job of placement or counseling without current, local, and accurate information about the labor market. School counselors place such data as well as longer-term information about occupational trends high among their needs that must be filled if their occupational guidance is to be satisfactory."

The Matter of Resources

One matter underlay the responses of the public agency managers and the counselors from both public and Catholic schools, and it surfaced whenever the tenor of our questioning permitted -- the shortage of resources to support their activities. A shortage of money, of staff, of time was everywhere evident. For some of these respondents, such shortages were compounded by inadequacies related to staff training, available expertise, program coordination, organization and structure of occupational guidance, space, and community involvement.

A lack of consensus on the part of the public and among their

own ranks as to the course that should be followed characterized the public employment agency managers in particular. These managers depending on the clienteles they served either deplored the paucity of resources available to bring the disadvantaged to the stage of job-readiness or they condemned the scarcity of funds that committed them to a self-defeating course of action. Most could see that an organization failing to meet the needs of employers in a competitive economy would ultimately be unable to offer employment services to even the disadvantaged and some feared the growing disenchantment with their policies that they could detect in applicants who were not eligible for special treatment -- a feeling they suspected would grow to open resentment in the event of an economic downturn.

School counselors also complained that they, too, were adrift from their communities although the devisiveness over policy issues that typified the situation of the local office managers lacked its counterpart in their activities. Nonetheless, the pressures of excessive counseling loads and particularly of their lack of contact with the world of work limited the amount of occupational guidance given and often impaired its quality. Lack of time, as well, limited their opportunities to contact parents and employers in connection with their counselees.

Evidences of frustration were apparent in many quarters that may auger increasing criticism in the future for already beleaguered school personnel. Counselors by no means advise

within the security of a broad consensus as to the purposes of education or the proper orientation of counseling. At one pole is the view that education should be devoted to the self-actualization of the individual. At the other extreme is the belief that the schools' chief purpose is to produce a labor force precisely trained to fit the needs of a modern technological economy.

There is also the position which sees all efforts at occupational guidance as suspect because "jobs are changing so fast these days" that any such advice will rapidly become outdated. The belief exists in some quarters, as well, that technological change is so radically diminishing available job opportunities that sooner or later "no one will need to work." Therefore, occupational guidance beyond advice to expect continuing change is unnecessary.

Yet other problems afflict the harried counselors besides these and the mere effort of keeping their students in school. Parents are not lacking, nor counselors, who regard any goal except a college education, whether pursued with occupational direction or not, as somehow degrading. On the evidence of an earlier survey conducted by the Institute, employers maintain, meanwhile, that the schools are unresponsive to their suggestions respecting curricula that would prepare students for the jobs they offer. School personnel, in turn, contend that the message of employers is vague and unspecific -- "the 3 R's and proper

attitudes." Counselors insist that they are not told what is needed by way of educational qualifications for specific jobs, nor are they advised as to that minimum floor of general education required for successful performance throughout a work career.

Concurrently, those who must serve as "brokers" between employers and the product of the schools, the managers of public and private employment agencies resent the job that has not been done by parents and schools as they try to solve the problem of out-of-school, out-of-work youth. They suggest that the schools besides providing at least that sound basic education and those attitudes needed to compete in our economy and live in our society, might well be expected to bridge across part of the gap that lies between the classroom and an entry-level job. And this, they imply, might well be expected because in a job-oriented economy it is essential to admit some foreknowledge of the world of work and its demands as forming an essential ingredient of any preparation leading to that self-actualization which is the goal of a liberal education. Further, they believe that students should receive some information concerning -- or better yet, participation in -- the world of work before seeking career-type jobs. Obtaining his first job is critical for the youth who must work, quite irrespective of our society's degree of progress towards an ultimately workless economy.

Meeting the challenges posed by findings such as these would require recommendations of a weight and wisdom lying quite

outside the scope of the present study. No survey, limited as to geographic coverage and concerned with matters where political feasibility is at issue, can be expected to provide universal panaceas for deep-rooted social ills or resolve long-standing controversies. There are two paths open to us, however, and we shall follow both.

First, on broad policy matters we shall attempt to present the issues and the dangers as we see them, that are inherent in the courses of action followed by some Bay Area organizations. On occasion we will attempt to set forth alternative policies that could be followed under the circumstances. And second, we will frame more-or-less limited recommendations -- at least as to their policy and budgetary implications -- that are based upon our survey data respecting individual subject areas and practices covered by our inquiries of Bay Area agency and school personnel.

First, as to broader matters:

Policy Issues: Employment Agencies

One overriding consideration that dwarfs all others emerges from any investigation of the performance of Bay Area public Employment agencies and the counseling departments of Bay Area public schools. These organizations are being asked to do the impossible! Any criticisms leveled at the former for failing to do an adequate job for the disadvantaged, or for failing to

provide service to all workers must, in all justice, recognize that they lack the resources -- using that term in the broad sense -- to accomplish either mission satisfactorily. Criticisms of school counseling that it fails to provide students with adequate occupational guidance for their entry into the labor market must also take into account the scarcity of resources -- and again we refer to more than money -- which limits the adequacy of all counseling.

The policy of giving priority to disadvantaged applicants has been chosen as the way out of a dilemna for the public employment agencies. It was, indeed, a tempting if not an inevitable choice to make. There can be no question that our capabilities for dealing with the unemployment problems of the nation's disadvantaged should have been increased by many orders of magnitude in the past decade. Such increases in these capabilities as did occur more often than not have been too little and too late in a period marked by racial tension, the influx to the labor market of an out-sized generation of youth, and rapid technological and social change.

However, even the many shifts, documented by our findings, that have been made in the staffing, organization, and practices associated with placement and counseling in these offices to tip the balance of services in favor of the disadvantaged have not been sufficient to serve their needs adequately. This fact alone suggests a continuing shortage of resources for the purpose of adequately serving those who are not competitive in the Bay Area labor market

despite the organizational and program changes that have been undertaken. More important, it suggests that resources have not been sufficient to cope with this problem along lines that lie outside the sphere of employment service as we know it -- the provision of more paid opportunities to obtain remedial basic education and job training, more social services, more generous inducements to employers to hire workers who are not competitive, and quite likely, the provision of jobs outside the private sector for such workers.

Meanwhile, the costs of turning away from the concept that a public service should serve all who seek to use, or who need to use, that service have been high and they have continued to rise since completion of our survey. Service to all in an employment service context, so long as that service is provided in a competitive economy, means that radical and consistent departures from the neutral task of realistically appraising worker qualifications against reasonably-presented job specifications will be self-defeating. Whatever the social value of these departures, the interests of others will be injured by this lack of neutrality, and they will choose other hiring channels which they regard as more impartial and more likely to serve their economic interests.

It is small defense of abandoning a neutral policy of placement -- or a neutral position as to the provision of employment counseling for that matter -- to argue that those deprived of even-handed service are those best able to take care

of themselves. The withdrawal of better qualified workers from the local offices and the concurrent loss of employer orders for the more attractive jobs will simply mean that as the process continues, the disadvantaged themselves, will increasingly receive inferior service or no service in these offices. Surely, the lessons gained from the experience of segregated schools and of medical and other social service facilities which are provided on a need basis indicate that, in time, an employment service which has in fact become "segregated" will not only be of inferior quality but its use will be regarded as demeaning by its remaining clientele.

There is the further problem of defining the "disadvantaged" in employment terms, as shown by our findings concerning the marginal worker. The compensatory advantage given the worker at the very bottom of the scale is most likely gained at the cost of a worker having but little more skill and whose own exertions and upward mobility have carried him but a small step beyond the point where he, too, would have been eligible for the special service he is now denied. Such a contention is not easy to document. But our findings that it is the least-skilled workers who must pay the fees in private employment agencies while employers stand the costs of recruiting more highly-skilled workers brings the equity of a public policy which departs from neutrality into some question.

In need of answer, therefore, is the question -- is an

effective public employment service required by that part of the labor force unable to meet the definition of any special worker group? Further, is an effective public employment service required by a substantial part of the employing community?

It is our view, based upon the present study's findings, that the answer to these questions should be an affirmative. Further, our interpretation of this survey's findings leads us to believe that neither applicants who are ineligible for "special services" nor employers, are now receiving effective employment service from Bay area local offices.

As the remedies for this situation lie very largely in the sphere of overall public policy and national budgeting, we shall merely present certain broad alternatives that would appear better designed to achieve effective employment service for all than present policies:

The first, and we believe the best alternative is to pump sufficient resources into the present institutional framework so that it can simultaneously provide both high-calibre placement service to "qualified" or "job-ready" workers and to employers who need such workers, and act as a social agency to enhance the employability of workers who are not job-ready.

A second alternative is to disengage the placement portion of the public employment service entirely from the task of serving those applicants who, for whatever reason, cannot meet the hiring standards observed at a given time and place. If their failure

to meet "standards" reflects discrimination because of race, religion, age or sex it would appear there are better means of enforcing fair employment practices than by confusing the mission of a service that should not be an enforcement agency. If the failure of certain groups of workers to meet standards reflects the inability of employers to operate profitably with the workers in question, either the inducements to employers to hire these workers must be increased or the public sector must act as an employer of last resort until they can be viewed as job-ready in a competitive market. And if the failure to meet standards reflects "undereducation," lack of specific skills, emotional problems, physical handicaps, mental retardation, lack of motivation, or any other worker characteristic that may be remediable or can be compensated for through special efforts, bringing the affected workers to a point of job readiness where they would be eligible to use conventional-type placement facilities on a competitive basis would be the mission of an entirely separate agency or group of agencies. An agency or group of agencies specifically assigned the task of remedying the deficiencies of such workers should be able to furnish more expert and professional-type services than the personnel of an employment service temperamentally oriented and largely trained to cope with the needs of the "average worker."

Based on the interviews conducted for this survey, we would be the first to argue that its findings provide no

justification whatever for a third alternative that can be put forward. One action that has been adopted by a number of western European countries has been to prohibit by law the operation of private employment agencies. However, we found that under present circumstances it is the private agencies which are providing an essential and highly-regarded service for qualified workers who are not eligible for such help as that given by unions, professional societies, and school and college placement agencies -- and also for employers who lack the facilities for large-scale gate hiring or for recruitment extended over large areas. The prohibition of private employment services could be argued for on the basis that all or most job orders would then have to be given to the public service and all or most work applicants would then be forced to seek employment through public offices. This development presumably, would so expose defects in the present operations of the public agencies to the general view, that popular and well-supported pressure would be applied to improve the quality of services offered to all. Such pressure would almost certainly arise, as a modern technological economy can, decreasingly, be staffed by reliance alone on informal hiring channels. Also, it could be argued that the centralization of all or most placement service in a public agency would offer the potential of consolidating all data resources and of upgrading the public service generally to an extent that is not now possible, with the more attractive sectors of the market controlled by private enterprise.

A fourth alternative can be premised upon a view which, as mentioned above, we do not hold, namely, that an effective public service is not required by the competitive sector of the labor force. This alternative would entail abandoning the field of conventional placement activities to the private agencies. However, it is difficult, indeed, to deny that the fee system of the private agencies would prove a special hardship for unemployed workers, the bulk of whom would not be so sought-after as to be hired under circumstances where the employer paid the fee. Further, abandonment by public employment agencies of service for persons who are not disadvantaged would leave a serious gap in the job-finding assistance provided to those who can be classified neither as disadvantaged nor as highly skilled or recommended in their particular specialities. The latter group, as shown by the data in our study would suffer little hardship if this alternative were adopted because of the understandable tendency of private agencies to concentrate their attentions on the more desirable workers, and the increasing practice of employers paying the fee to attract such workers.

If it is assumed, however, that there should be official as well as unofficial recognition of the fact that the public employment service cannot serve as both a recruitment channel for those who are job-ready and a social agency for those who are not, withdrawing publicly supported placement service to the job-ready is one form that such recognition could assume.

If such were done, various safeguards would be required in the public interest no less than in other categories of economic activity vested with a public interest through performance of an essential service. Air transportation is a case in point. There, the public interest is safeguarded through fare regulation and various service and safety standards. It would appear as appropriate, if private employment agencies are to assume an increasingly important role in the hiring process, that there should be greater emphasis on fee regulation. Also, the process of professionalizing private agency counselors should be greatly accelerated despite the serious impediment to such professionalization presented by the fact that these counselors are most commonly paid on a commission basis. And, even at the present level of private agency penetration in the job market, the information generated by their operations should be processed and published in such manner that these data could serve community needs. Collected and recorded, these data represent part of the body of labor market information needed by other manpower agencies and by the schools to shed light both on the status of current labor demand and on prospective occupational and industrial developments.

One other suggestion based on the findings of this survey can well be made in connection with the larger issue of resource allocations by program within the public service. A principal finding respecting the needs of local office managers was that they were operating without the security of any general consensus

in their communities as to the thrust of their efforts. To be sure, their operations are ultimately based upon legislative mandate. However, there exists an intermediate level at which the legislative mandate, whether national or state, may be argued out, construed, and often tempered so that it is more palatable in specific local situations. If nothing else, public policies, if appropriate sounding boards are provided, can be aired and brought clearly to the attention of the groups they affect.

It is therefore our suggestion that committees representing labor, management, and the public, appointed by the Governor, should function both statewide and at the metropolitan area level. These committees should be charged with acting in an advisory capacity as to the policies and practices of all phases of the California Department of Human Resources Development. They should not, as have previous committees set up under the provisions of the Wagner-Peyser Act, regard their functions as primarily concerned with the administration of the Unemployment Insurance Act. Neither should they, as have subsequent committees acting in the employment security area, be solely or primarily charged with surveillance over training and retraining. Rather, they should be charged with seeing both Department operations and labor market developments whole.

If more specialized committees were required, either for unemployment insurance or training programs, these committees

should be set up at the state level as subcommittees of the overall statewide body charged with advising on the operations of the Department as a whole. Even if this system of committees failed to win general consensus for the policies of the public service, at least the costs of such actions as withdrawing or greatly curtailing services to certain applicant and employer groups (and of effectively consigning them, the one or the other, to fee-paid placement service) would receive open and searching scrutiny by representatives of the affected groups. Also, various affected groups would be provided some formal channel for expressing their needs to instrumentalities specifically charged with providing such a forum. With those decisions respecting the allocations of resources which affect the adequacy of service given large groups of workers and employers subjected at least to review by all parties at interest, it could be hoped that local office managers might be able to administer these policies with a larger measure of that "public understanding" they greatly need, than they receive at the present time.

Policy Issues: Schools

It is implied throughout the following study, even when the thought is not explicitly stated, that the kind and quality of education and occupational guidance provided by the schools is a primary factor in determining the kind and quality of services that public and private employment agencies can or

must later supply their applicants. Hence, it follows that public employment agencies and training agencies will be endlessly burdened with providing "special services" to those who are not job-ready when they seek placement unless or until the schools bring their students to a higher level of job-readiness before they leave these institutions than is now achieved.

It is quite probably idle to suggest that when our manpower problems and policies are viewed from this perspective, it appears even more urgent to enlarge the resources allocated to the schools than to increase those given to either the public employment service or the many other agencies that by means of various remedial programs are now engaged in bringing disadvantaged adults to a state of job-readiness. The Bay Area is an area of heavy inmigration and the sins of omission that occur elsewhere are paid for locally. Further, the defeat of school bond issues has become a commonplace in the communities of this as well as other areas.

Hence, it can only be stated that really significant improvements in the performance of the public schools must probably wait upon the release of far greater resources to states and to school districts from the federal level than have thus far been granted. Based upon our observations in connection with this survey, it would not appear inappropriate to suggest that, in the meantime, school systems should precede their budget presentations and their allocations of granted funds with thorough field studies

at the actual working level. These investigations should search out and document the unfilled needs reflected by various indicators of inadequate or ill-distributed resources that, in particular, hamper the schools in carrying out the mandates imposed by recent manpower legislation. Such indicators would include student-counselor ratios; the rapidity with which sound, up-to-date vocational programs are being developed; the progress being made in expanding work-experience programs; the proportion of all counseling time which can be devoted to occupational guidance; the adequacy of school placement services as maintained by the school; and the relationships of the latter to other community agencies, in particular the public employment service. Conceivably a constant review and publication of the needs of local school systems in these areas would at length lead to greater public acceptance of the urgency of increasing resources for activities related to occupational preparation and guidance. Possibly, too, continuing review of current practices would lead to the several improvements that could be made without vast increases in current funding.

Recommendations:

We will turn now to a series of recommendations based on findings of the present study that do not depend for their acceptance on increases of several orders of magnitude in the resources allocated to schools or to public employment agencies or upon basic policy

decisions that drastically affect the competitive positions of different groups in our society.

Public Employment Agencies

1. On the evidence of many interviews in the Bay Area local offices we can only join the growing chorus of those who plead for a greater degree of coordination in our federally supported manpower programs or, even better, for one single, well-integrated program. It is quite possible that the creation of California's Department of Human Resources will bring some order into the local chaos created by differing standards of eligibility for various programs, including the particularly troublesome criterion of residence in a defined poverty area. However, there are limits to the extent that a merging of resources within a single State agency can overcome the unnecessary and expensive specialization of services that follows upon an arbitrary division of clientele into defined classes. This is especially so when such differentiation arises from the varying eligibility criteria and the dissimilar benefits associated with a number of federal programs whose requirements are not subject to modification by lesser jurisdictions.

It would cost no more and it well might cost less to end the absurd degree to which applicants were "sorted out" for special treatment under one or another special program at the time of our interviews. We were then observing a degree of

specialization by program beyond that existing the previous July and, therefore, subject to description in this report. Applicants who were scarcely distinguishable as to the degree of their need for employment and other services were directed to different offices and were entitled to varying amounts of assistance on the basis of their eligibility for specific programs such as WIN or CEP.

2. We were much exposed in the course of our interviews to the argument, expressed by even the staunchest supporters of increasing local office services to the disadvantaged, that the endless proliferation of special programs was not to the best interests of any of the offices' applicants including those most in need of "special services." The cost of special programs according to many of our respondents was a rigid structuring of all-too-scarce personnel that frequently left valued placement interviewers stranded in unproductive activities. The prime casualty of these special programs, because of the staffing rigidities they introduced, was placement -- often placement of the very applicants these special services were designed to help. Many respondents argued that high-volume placement activity benefits equally all but the most marginal of applicants. But the waste associated with compartmentalizing personnel used up the resources needed for the active employer-visiting program and speedy referral operation required for an optimal placement performance. There was expressed, of course,

the opposing position that local office operations should be centered on breaking out of the mainstream various groups of applicants (whether veterans, members of racial minorities, graduates of government-supported training or whatever) and providing them with special assistance to facilitate their placement.

We appreciate the fiscal problems and technical and other difficulties of designing a controlled experiment to shed light on the respective costs and benefits of "special handling for special groups" or of concentrating on an optimum placement performance in and of itself. But much effort to increase our knowledge concerning this question would appear justified in view of its importance and the obvious feeling in many of the local offices that program specialization has long since passed a point where it can be regarded as beneficial.

Possibly a "reverse-type" of experimental and demonstration project could be undertaken to shed some light on the respective merits of these two opposing points-of-view. We would suggest that a local office of the conventional type be selected in some "average" community and instructed to concentrate its entire resources over a reasonable time period on placement as such. All "special programs for special groups" except those imposed by statute should be abandoned for this period. Concurrently, resources should be greatly increased for the support of measures which encourage employers, voluntarily,

to hire the disadvantaged, as well as for a generous provision of government-supported training. It should then be justifiable to insist that applicants who are plainly not job-ready can be referred only to training openings or to employers volunteering to accept such workers. At the end of the trial period, placement results for representative periods should be carefully analyzed to determine if this concentration on procedures conducive to high-volume placement had, in fact, increased the chances of applicants' being referred and placed on jobs, including the chances of applicants who would normally have received special services.

3. Our findings documented the fact that serious inadequacies exist in the clearance procedures allowing local offices to act cooperatively within a geographic range appropriate to an economically integrated metropolitan area, or beyond area boundaries.

We would recommend a long, hard look at the entire subject of extended recruitment procedures. A lack of fresh approaches seems more the problem in this matter than a need for more generous financing. As the employer's former intimate relationship with his order-holding office is now largely ignored in the case of order-sharing with the AOC's and YOC's, it would appear equally possible to tamper with traditional order-holding and applicant-holding concepts in other connections. We would recommend some bold experiments in an attempt to devise more flexible extended recruitment procedures. For example, employers

might be permitted, as is feasible in their dealings with private agencies, to file their job orders directly in as many local offices in the area, and possibly beyond it, as they believed would offer them a probably labor supply or a placement service that is above-average in expertness.

Applicants, presumably, would gravitate to those offices offering the largest numbers of job opportunities in their occupations. Or there could be central order-taking for the area as a whole or for larger sectors of it than are included within present local office boundaries. Personnel assigned to this unit would be held accountable for judging from the specifications of the order and from prevailing labor demand-supply relationships whether it should be handled solely by the nearest local office or immediately extended to a larger area. In the latter event, the central unit might maintain control over the number of referrals to be sent and, possibly, verify the placement. Further, and again borrowing a page from the private agencies, the need that exists for regional or national centers to handle interarea and interstate recruitment should be heeded by the public service. Possibly, the employer should be permitted direct access to these centers in placing job orders requiring extended recruitment as well as direct access to likely applicant-holding offices for his local recruitment. Some steps to improve interarea recruitment have been taken at the national level, but their effect appears

not to have been felt in the Bay Area.

4. With the abandonment of the LINCS experiment, insofar as its purpose was to employ modern electronics equipment in extended recruitment, the Bay Area public agencies must operate at a woeful disadvantage as compared to the private agencies with their recent strides in the use of this equipment to locate jobs and personnel in other areas.

Money and technical skill can as well supply the public employment service with the tools this age of technological advance has made available as these same resources can place electronics equipment at the disposal of chains of private agencies. Our recommendation is to speed the day that the use of such equipment becomes common for the public service. However, it should be borne in mind that hardware alone will not solve problems that lie beyond the capabilities of speedier data processing or a more rapid communication of information. Thus our recommendation to push forward with automatic data-processing and telecommunications systems in the public service is hedged with qualifications. If such systems are to be used to expedite the local and interarea placement of professional, technical, and other higher-level personnel, this use must be preceded by policy decisions concerning the degree of service these occupational groups are to receive. Using this equipment will not reduce the unit cost of such placements to the level of those for unskilled workers. If anything, the information on job orders and applications

must be recorded and interpreted with more care than ever when data pertaining to high-level occupations are committed to mechanical agents for matching purposes. If, on the other hand, automatic equipment is to be used to expedite a general order-sharing of lesser-skilled job opportunities throughout the Bay Area, all of the substantive issues mentioned by our respondents inhibit the acceptance of this procedure in "unmechanized" form promise to continue to demand resolution despite the use of data banks or other technological innovations.

5. Order sharing, as frequently mentioned by our respondents is a procedure that must often bear the onus of bringing other than neutral factors into the referral decision. Therefore, its use is closely related to those policy issues that we have already placed out of bounds as subjects for our recommendations. With this self-limitation, about all that we can recommend despite our voluminous findings as to the unpopularity of the practice, is that attention should be focused not on order-sharing but on the conditions that make its use imperative if greater difficulties are to be avoided.

6. Our inquiries concerning the personnel policies and practices of public and private employment agencies and the schools tempt one to recommend that, possibly, the qualifications required of placement officers in the public service should be reexamined.

It would appear worth the effort to determine if the

personality traits so uniformly stressed by private agencies in recruiting employment counselors are, in fact, as closely related to top performance in the occupation as they are believed to be. If so, a way should be sought to qualify public agency employees in the placement officer classification that would assign the greatest weight to possession of those traits as is compatible with sound testing practices and civil service procedures.

More productive, however, would appear a thorough-going reappraisal by the public employment agencies and by the schools of the definition and content of employment or occupational counseling within the various contexts where such guidance is needed and dispensed. Review of the kinds of information needed by various types of counselees, whether to resolve problems connected with their employability in the short run or with their longer-term occupational decision-making and planning, could indicate that a considerable division of labor is practicable or might even be preferable in the multi-faceted process of employment counseling. If such a premise were substantiated, some of the pressure could be removed from the demonstrably short supply of "professional" counselors by recruiting workers in other classifications whose qualifications might well be better fitted for the task assigned them than those customarily possessed by the former.

After such a review, it might appear appropriate to

supplement professional counseling staffs in both schools and public employment service with persons drawn either from within or outside these organizations. This would serve to introduce into counseling departments members with skills and knowledges not commonly possessed by "credentialed" school counselors or by "fully qualified" employment service counselors. An examination of the needs of groups of counselees in particular settings should seek answers to many questions having relevance to the capabilities needed by the counselor to satisfy these needs. For example, does the counseling ordinarily given in a particular setting rest primarily on possessing "practical" information about the immediate job market, detailed knowledge concerning the availability of various supportive services in the community, an empathy for persons of particular races and cultures produced by identification with these groups, a thorough training in test interpretation or in clinical psychology, an exhaustive knowledge of college entrance requirements, or on one or several other specific bodies of information or personal traits?

True, the matter of appropriate qualifications for counselors has long been pondered in the public service. The Bay Area local offices, as those in many other areas, now stand at the end of a long evolutionary process which has netted them a hard-pressed staff of "professional" counselors. However, this victory, accompanied by efforts to wipe out the classification of counselor trainees, has coincided with a severe shortage of fully-trained

counselors and with the increasing use of subprofessional workers. These perform what many of the managers term the most effective counseling given, particularly in the specialized offices, yet it is not counted as counseling nor are the efforts of these workers adequately recognized, according to several of our respondents.

7. We would recommend that along with continuing, thorough study as to the appropriate qualifications for counselors in the public employment service under the circumstances of its contemporary work load, attention should also be devoted to the appropriateness of dispensing in a local office setting with the staff and facilities at its command, some of the kinds of counseling which are given.

Again we find the public employment agencies pursuing ill-assorted roles. There must be some question that these offices can be equally well-equipped to play them all. Employment counseling for the "employable" applicant is one task. If the private agency managers are to be believed, presumably mere propinquity to the placement function, some knowledge of people and testing, and a fund of detailed information concerning the labor market suffice to do a creditable job of it. Counseling those in need of an enormous amount of "employability development" before they are referable is quite another matter. This latter type of counseling appears to require the participation of many types of workers, from the relatively untutored community aides

who can relate to the disadvantaged applicant, to the specialized professional worker -- psychiatrist, lawyer, physician, parole officer, remedial-reading teacher, and others as well. Thus it does not appear out of keeping to suggest that much of the counseling now conducted in employment offices might better be done by an agency whose responsibility is not finding jobs for the unemployed or giving vocational guidance.

Such a transfer of functions should produce two beneficial results. First, it should ensure that those needing highly expert services would stand a better chance of receiving those services from experts. Second, such a transfer might free sufficient time in an agency which originally designed and staffed to be an employment service, to permit its counselors to provide vocational counseling to job entrants and to applicants who are at least minimally prepared to seek employment.

Private Employment Agencies

8. Earlier in this section and in another context we suggested that accelerating the professionalization of private agency employment counselors and also covering the operations of these agencies in a regular reporting system would be appropriate under certain circumstances.

The desirability of licensing private agency counselors might be argued on the basis of certain of this survey's findings. We found an impressive amount of staff training in progress in

these agencies that is directed to the professional development of their personnel. Further, there were many indications that the agency managers wish greater recognition of the fact that their operations are conducted in an "ethical" and professional manner.

If the disposition to bring about an increased professionalization of the occupation of employment counselor is as common throughout the industry as it appeared to be among our respondents, and if the sentiment to "improve the image" of private agencies is as general, licensing individual practitioners as well as agencies might be the most effective way to achieve these goals. Since 1969, employment counselors have been required to register through their employers, once they meet certain specified requirements with the Bureau of Employment Agencies which would appear to be a step in this direction. We would recommend a continuing review by industry leaders, and by others, of the pros and cons of licensing private agency employment counselors in the interests of the public welfare, as well as for the welfare of the industry itself. This action would appear particularly appropriate if the private agencies are destined to become steadily more important in the area's recruitment patterns.

9. As noted frequently in the present study, our efforts to arrive at precise and accurate figures regarding the number of Bay Area private employment agencies, together with a modicum

of information concerning their type and their numbers of employees, were consistently hampered by the lack of current, published (or even unpublished) material on these subjects. We will consider later, in connection with the production and dissemination of labor market information, the much more serious implications of the total absence at this time of any data concerning the volume and type of placement activity in these agencies.

Not as strong a case can be made for ensuring that the number of agencies, type of agency, and numbers of employees of California's private employment agencies become a matter of public record, as that the operations of these agencies be reported in published form. We will later urge that information concerning their placement activities should be prepared and released, a position shared by several in the industry.[2] At this point, however, we will anticipate ourselves to the extent of recommending that the Bureau of Employment Agencies of the California Department of Professional and Vocational Standards be given the necessary resources to reinstitute the report concerning private employment agencies previously issued by the California Department of Industrial Relations. Further, there should be certain modifications of this report to make it more useful to those within and outside the industry than was the former document. As was previously the case, data on number and types of agencies should be reported annually. In addition, the amount of geographic detail formerly given should be expanded to include county as well as metropolitan-

area data where this is feasible without violating provisions of confidentiality. It would also be helpful to include at least some data on size class of establishment by type of agency, as could readily be derived from the information submitted by the agencies and as is now reported by the Census of Business at five-year intervals.

Presumably, the revived report would be the vehicle, as before, for placement and fee payment data on a state-wide and metropolitan-area basis. For maximum usefulness, were this the case, the occupational distribution of placements should be brought into line with prevailing classification systems. The major occupational groups used by the Bureau of the Census would not, in any case, prove a burdensome reporting requirement. And the agency managers, themselves, might find the report more useful if certain specific occupations where placement volume is heavy were broken out from the major groups.

The Schools

10. During our survey of school counseling departments, we were sometimes almost as struck by what seemed a less-than-optimal utilization of the resources available to these units as we were aware of the general shortage of support they received for their work. Much in evidence were various administrative defects that could be remedied with little if any increase of current funding.

We suggest that it would be profitable to undertake an administrative study of the organization and procedures of public

high school, and possibly junior college counseling departments on a statewide basis. The aim of this study should be to establish the relative efficiency and the influence upon performance, under different conditions, of the various types of organization and procedures that are found in a representative group of counseling departments. In particular, some attention should be given to the matter of counselor specialization. Our information shows that more than two-thirds of the schools, in essence, require their counselors to know and to keep abreast of the entire subject matter of general counseling with minimal official school direction and inadequate supporting services. We are not suggesting that counselors should specialize to the extent that they lose all competence in those areas in which they are not specialists. But we do believe that one counselor might be assigned a greater measure of responsibility than any other on his department's staff to become especially knowledgeable about and to deal with counselees presenting problems of more-than-average difficulty -- in such fields, for example, as tests and measurements, college entrance, the availability of social services, and occupational guidance.

11. Many of the defects observable in the occupational guidance programs and practices of high schools and junior colleges clearly arise out of those shortages of staff time which in turn, reflect the under-financing of such programs that we have already mentioned. To the extent that such support is deficient the only

appropriate recommendation is that it be increased. However, certain changes in the conduct of school guidance programs appear feasible without increases of resources in an amount that is clearly out of reach.

The student should receive vocational direction early in his high school career, and it should be required that he be given it. The student going to work directly after high school would then have been provided more "lead time" to develop his employment potential and to prepare for a job in which he was interested and for which he was trained. Possibly then the complaints of employers that high school graduates lack the necessary training for industry, and of employment agency personnel that they possess no saleable skills, would lessen. The student planning on college, too, would have enjoyed more time to consider the career implications of the major he was contemplating and to fulfill the requirements necessary for undertaking a specific course of study. There should be at least one required career-planning course at all high schools and all junior colleges. These courses should be coordinated so that the instruction and guidance given in high school was not duplicated in the junior college. Both courses should aim at increasing the student's knowledge of the world of work and of the prospects and requirements of various occupations, as well as the life styles that customarily follow from choosing them. These courses, however, should be given in the depth and with the sophistication appropriate to the different stages of the student's

development. Also, instruction at both school-levels should be given by personnel familiar with the labor market and able to interpret occupational and academic tests to the maximum benefit of the student.

12. Our findings indicate that students may follow many diverse directions after enrolling in college including dropping out before completing the 2-year or 4-year course they originally contemplated. Meanwhile, the high schools are providing their students, particularly those enrolled in the "general course," with little occupational information and certainly with little job-readiness if their original expectations of continued education and training do not materialize. This situation, we believe, should be more widely recognized than it is for its implications regarding both the content of occupational guidance and the design of school curricula.

We would suggest that the counseling and the educational preparation given high school students be geared to a greater number of contingencies than currently are allowed for. To be sure, the high school student wishing to continue on to college should receive the education that will permit him to meet its entrance requirements. But it must be emphasized that "going on" can take many forms. The high school graduate planning to enter a four-year college directly may arrive there and he may graduate or he may not. The student attending junior college may initially plan on the transfer course, yet graduate in a

technical curriculum and seek employment. The high school student going to work directly after graduation may resume his studies at a junior college years later.

In all of these instances, the student must be allowed to hold his options open for as long as possible, and there should be provision that discontinuities could occur in his educational progression with minimum penalties to him. In sum, greater efforts must be made by high schools and junior colleges to dovetail their curricula so that high school courses, both in vocational and academic education, provide either a stepping-stone to junior college technical offerings or serve as a basis for entry-level jobs with a potential for later advancement -- particularly if additional training at the junior college level is obtained. This recommendation is in line with Assembly Concurrent Resolution, Number 128, which was passed at the 1969 session of the California Legislature and which asked for a "statewide, 'career ladder,' transferable curriculum."

13. The information obtained from counseling departments showed that the functions and accomplishments of continuation schools are viewed in various lights by school counselors. Also, we found but few formal dropout-prevention programs in the public high schools and where they did exist the counselors had little contact with them.

We would recommend that school counselors in the public high schools be given adequate time allowances to develop close ties with those students involved in various dropout-prevention

programs and particularly with those assigned to continuation schools. Through continuing communication with continuation-school students, chances would increase that the "home school" counselor could bring about the necessary changes in both the student's attitudes and his school environment that would permit the latter's return to the regular school system.

14. We found that in no instance where a formalized service available to all students was lacking, did counselors regard the placement services afforded the student bodies of their schools, overall, as adequate.

Data-gathering for the present study could not be expanded to an extent that would permit us to make specific suggestions concerning the organization and orientation of school placement centers, although we would strongly recommend that this subject be given far greater attention than it has received to date.

The data that we did accumulate will support little more than the proposal that every public high school include among its personnel one employee at least who is assigned the specific responsibility of furnishing such placement service for both career-type and temporary jobs as he can to all members of his school's student body who are not the specific responsibility, in this respect, of some other officer of the school. Depending upon the need for his services in a particular school, the employee assigned defined responsibility

for placement might serve in this capacity either part-time or full-time. The experience of some of the sample schools suggests that placement duties can profitably be combined with those of a counselor specializing in occupational guidance, in schools whose student bodies require but little by way of placement service.

Relationships between Public Employment Agencies and the Schools

15. On the basis of comments received from both school personnel and local office managers that marked changes have frequently occurred in recent years in the relationships between schools and local offices, we would recommend a general stock-taking of the current status of these relationships in the Bay Area. Conferences should be called, county-by-county or if need be, school district-by-school district. Responsible officials of both the local schools and the local public employment service should be present to hear each other out as to the problems, the needs, and the resources of each. The strongest-possible effort should be made to obtain maximum utilization of the resources available to each through sensible divisions of labor in such matters as gathering and providing labor market information, testing, and placement service. If it appears that such maximum utilization is impeded by any lack of familiarity on the part of one organization with the other's capabilities or lack of capabilities these conferences should be followed by continuing liaison between

the concerned officials. If jointly-conducted program planning or activity appear indicated in order best to serve the community's youth, there should be administrative action directed to achieving the needed degree of cooperation.

16. We were much impressed by the enthusiasm with which the introduction of trained public employment service personnel into school placement operations was viewed by respondents at three of the sample junior colleges. We were equally impressed by the reports of both school and public agency respondents concerning the benefits that were gained by their respective organizations through the summertime employment of school counselors in the local offices. These testimonials would seem to indicate that considerable attention might well be given to formalizing frequent exchanges of school and employment personnel in appropriate situations. Where we found arrangements that had permitted employees of the one type of organization to work in the other, they had come about under either unusual or informal circumstances. Therefore, in those instances where their stationing would be welcomed, we would recommend the exploration of such possibilities as may exist to formalize the introduction of employment service personnel into school placement centers. Their detailing to these centers for periods of time, and under conditions mutually agreeable to both organizations, would in all likelihood raise problems of funding, personnel rights, and the like. Nonetheless, the contributions such employees could make to the on-going operation of school placement centers and to counseling staff

while outstationed, and the new knowledges and insights they could later utilize in their own agencies would seem to warrant some attention, at least, to the potential represented in cooperative personnel arrangements.

In all probability, the summertime employment of school counselors in local offices, particularly the YOC's, could be readily managed. Little more should be required than the existence of job vacancies at these centers, encouragement to school counselors to apply, and some ready means of appointing these highly-qualified individuals on a temporary basis.

Labor Market Information

It would not be difficult to prepare a lengthly list of individual recommendations, each related to a specific need or deficiency represented in our voluminous findings on the subject of labor market information. As examples, it could be stated that if adequate resources were supplied, the Bay Area public employment service could greatly increase its almost non-existent employer visiting program and, in the process, acquire more data about current job opportunities. Area offices could prepare more job guides and community surveys of various sorts and thus supply more information concerning longer-term trends to those needing it. Local offices could be assisted in maintaining their informational materials in convenient libraries; counselor training could be improved; the introduction of ESARS speeded,

and more services provided by the public employment service to the schools.

Larger resources could help in the resumption of placement reporting by the private employment agencies. Also, in an atmosphere of less stringent financing all around, it could be recommended that better means than now exist be established to promote the amount of information-sharing which occurs among these agencies, the public service, and the schools.[3]

With the possibility of devoting additional support to the labor market information program, more vigorous experimentation could be undertaken in such areas of particular need as that of obtaining more data on current job opportunities. The extent to which this need was emphasized in our survey suggests that a high priority should be assigned the development of a satisfactory method of reporting total job vacancies on a continuing basis.[4]

It would have to be borne in mind as well that it is not only those "in the field" who require more generous financing if we are to have a strong informational program but highly specialized units in such agencies as the Bureau of the Census, the Bureau of Labor Statistics and, frequently, the state headquarters offices of employment security agencies.[5] It is essential to support the amassing of compendious data concerning social, economic, and other matters which must go on at national and state levels in order to construct the larger framework of population, labor force, employment, and production trends within

which any area projections must appear logical and consistent.

More generous funding, bringing in its wake more time, more staff, more training for counselors in labor market matters, and better mechanics for handling and disseminating guidance information could serve to bring more knowledge of the "world of work" into the world of school counseling. These favorable developments might, in turn, bring about closer relationships between school and community, especially if accompanied by an expansion of vocational guidance units in the curriculum and of work-experience programs.

Individual recommendations could be made as well that also are related to specific needs and deficiencies disclosed in our findings but which are not dependent on the adequacy of financing various of our public services. Rather, they are related to such matters as community attitudes respecting the dignity of all work[6] or to the lack of consensus among educators and between educators and the various sectors of society regarding what the goals of a general education should be. But injunctions to change community attitudes and to define the purposes of education are scarcely appropriate to the present study.

In framing our recommendations, the most useful course to follow would seem to lie in pointing out that the field work for the present study and the one preceding it has provided an unusual opportunity. These investigations have accumulated data enabling us to view the needs for labor market information and the resources

for providing it in a broader context than that of any single organization's needs or resources. Because the scope of this study was limited to a relatively compact geographic area, organizational lines could be crossed and interrelationships examined in a way that is usually not feasible when such studies are pursued at national or state levels. Thus, we will assume that the most useful exercise by way of recommendation-making that we could attempt is an effort to examine, with the purpose of establishing the relationships between them, various of the components observable in this study's complex of findings. Perhaps, then, the outlines of a "system" could be perceived.

Creation of a labor market information system, although its establishment and operation would require more resources than are now expended upon gathering and delivering this information, is not entirely a matter of funding. To a considerable extent, the lack of rationale that now exists in the incomplete and chaotic activities characterizing this field result, as well, from failures to survey in any orderly or comprehensive manner, needs for this information, its sources, the informational gaps resulting from present practices, and the costs of allowing these gaps to continue. Also lacking, has been concerted effort to coordinate those elements that now exist, or that could be created with moderate expenditures of funds and of effort into a system.

Section X, the last in this report, reflects our attempt to sketch out possible procedures for establishing a labor

market information system for the Bay Area. This section should be considered as forming part of the recommendations emanating from the present survey.

Footnotes to Major Findings and Recommendations

1. The term "Bay Area" as used throughout this Survey includes two standard metropolitan statistical areas, San Francisco-Oakland and San Jose. These areas are comprised of six counties: Alameda, Contra Costa, Marin, San Francisco, San Mateo, and Santa Clara. The San Jose Metropolitan Area (Santa Clara County) was added to that of San Francisco-Oakland because of its exceedingly rapid growth in recent years; the merging of industrial, commercial, and residential development in the southern portions of Alameda and San Mateo counties with that of Northern Santa Clara County; and the concentration of technologically advanced industries in Santa Clara County. Given the characteristics of this county, it appeared particularly unrealistic to exclude it from a study exploring the practices of public and private employment agencies and the schools in the closely related counties surrounding San Francisco Bay and viewing these practices as they exist under a wide variety of labor market situations.

2. The Chief of the Bureau of Employment Agencies in his Information Bulletin No. 2 issued March 11 to all California Employment Agencies, advised that the statistical report previously required by the Labor Commissioner would be discontinued, but that if the value and usefulness of such information could be shown, some form of statistical reporting may be developed.

3. The special 15-member Task Force appointed in October 1965 to review the operations of the Federal-State Employment Service under the chairmanship of Dr. George Shultz, recommended at least some liaison between public and private employment agencies. Their recommendation, as published in the February 1966 issue of the Employment Service Review, Vol. 3, No. 2, U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, p. 14, reads as follows:

> "4. Relationships with private groups - We urge the Employment Service to explore all possible ways to develop a more effective two-way flow of information and contacts with those private employment agencies which offer valuable services to workers and employers in particular labor markets and which adhere to professional standards in their own placement activities."

4. There appears good reason to believe that the problems associated with reporting job vacancies have not been sufficiently resolved that local communities could greatly profit from the output of the more recent "experiments" unless they are substantially worked over before their introduction. The early attempts (in California in 1964 and 1965) did indicate that it was feasible, despite many doubts to the contrary, to surmount definitional and other problems and collect and publish job vacancy figures.

The policy, later introduced, of using establishment responses as job development tools for the employment service, appears to have awakened some criticism in the employer community

and also made the program more time-consuming for the Department without the procedure's proving profitable in terms of placement. Subsequent difficulties in the machine processing of the data, at least for California, resulted in the receipt of very limited information which could not be used in the field. Hence, it has remained in the dead file with no analyses and no dissemination of the information at the local level.

Nor will the JOLTS program of BLS fill the need for information on current job opportunities unless there is some requirement, at quarterly or even longer intervals, for listing job vacancies by their occupational titles.

5. The activity of the Research and Statistics Division at the headquarters level of the public employment service in constructing longer-term occupational projections for the state as a whole should be commended not only for its usefulness to state manpower planners and educators but also for providing the needed intermediate step between national magnitudes and assumptions and those arrived at the areas if these latter are to relate in logical and consistent fashion to overall developments. See California Manpower Needs to 1975, Second Edition, published by the Department of Human Resources Development, Sacramento, October 1969.

6. See the First Annual Report of the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, a group of 21 persons appointed by the President and charged by law to make various reports

including an annual report to the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare for transmittal to Congress. In its first report to the Secretary, dated July 15, 1969, p. 1, this committee stated, respecting Attitude,

> "At the very heart of our problem is a national attitude that says vocational education is designed for somebody else's children. This attitude is shared by businessmen, labor leaders, administrators, teachers, parents, students. We are all guilty. We have promoted the idea that the only good education is an education capped by four years in college. This idea, transmitted by our silent support, is snobbish, undemocratic, and a revelation of why schools fail so many students."

I. INTRODUCTION

Background of Study

From the outset, the Institute's long-range labor market research program included plans to explore the respective roles of employment agency personnel and school counselors as well as to investigate employer and union policies, labor mobility and the impact of automation on skill requirements. Despite this early acknowledgement of the importance of placement and counseling services in the functioning of a large metropolitan labor market, the present study represents, in many respects, a follow-up of the Institute's previous survey of Bay Area employer policies.[1]

Responses of the 309 Bay Area employers participating in this initial survey of the Institute's labor market project yielded information on many matters of significance to the effectiveness of placement and counseling services. To mention only a few, these included:

> "The imbalances that can emerge between labor supply and demand because of the spatial complexity of large metropolitan labor markets."
>
> "The differing geographic recuritment patterns, depending largely on occupation, that must be accommodated by placement agencies if the latter's services are to be utilized by employers and applicants."
>
> "The difficulties inherent in reconciling employers' often immediate requirements for 'qualified' workers--demands that must often be supplied promptly if their enterprises are to remain competitive--with the compelling social need of speedily absorbing the 'unqualified' unemployed into gainful employment."

> "The opinion of many employers that current high school graduates and also a good proportion of those graduating from two- and four-year colleges lack the motivation, vocational direction, and basic skills needed to make them employable, qualifications for work that employers do not believe it their responsibility to inculcate."
>
> "The belief of many employers that it is a function of the schools to provide this bridge between school and the world of work while employers gear their training efforts to imparting the specific skills required in their own establishments."
>
> "The ever-present awareness that changes in technology and social patterns are affecting labor needs but that appropriate mechanisms are lacking for conveying such information as we do possess to the schools where it can be utilized for curriculum planning and counseling."

Principal Research Objectives

The Institute's overall labor market project was originally oriented more towards basic problems of labor market analysis than to mere description of conditions prevailing in the Bay Area. The first major objective of this project, as initially proposed, was to study the process of adjusting labor demand and labor supply in this area and to determine what changes, if any, in labor market and educational practices or institutions might yield a more effective adjustment. The second major objective was to explore changes in present and future labor demand and supply with a view to determining their impact on educational requirements and employment opportunities and on the relative efficiency of alternative channels for disseminating information about labor market developments.

The present study's objectives are not out-of-place within the framework of the larger project. They are, admittedly, less diffuse because of the tendency of exploratory research to evolve increasingly specific objectives as more knowledge and also greater curiosity is generated concerning the matters under investigation. Nonetheless, the present study does provide yet another view of the functioning of the labor market--glimpsed in this instance from the perspective of personnel in employment agencies and schools. There are insights that such personnel are peculiarly qualified to give, even as there are others that can be gained only from questioning employers, union officials, or the workers themselves. Employment agency managers and school counselors occupy particular vantage points from which they can discuss, as examples, the difficulties involved in working with the emerging crop of youthful job seekers. They are assuredly fitted to evaluate the impact of certain of our changing manpower policies on the services that are offered to job seekers and to students and to suggest, in many cases, what is needed to make these services more effective.

Hence, it is from the perspective of employment agency managers and school counselors that we have pursued the research objectives of the present study. Our principal objectives in this second survey can be stated as follows:

> "To determine the impact of manpower legislation, policies, and practices on the relative roles and effectiveness of public and private employment agencies, and on the conduct of school occupational guidance activities in the period 1960-1968."

> "To determine the relationships that exist between employment agencies and educational institutions as to their goals and their operations, with particular emphasis on the significance to their activities of the development, communication, and use of labor market information."

Again, these objectives are consonant with those of the larger project. And, again, the six-county Bay Area provides the setting for this research--although we believe our findings have widen application.

Focus of Research

The process of collecting and analyzing information for the Institute's Employer Policy Survey alerted us more than once to the hazards implicit in its approach. By definition and design our focus on all subject matter areas was the employer's-eye view of the labor market, for that was the view we were seeking to obtain. There are limitations, however, to such singleness of perspective. As only one example, it was necessary to grasp and to remember the fact that responses concerning the "most important hiring channel used," as recorded in an employer survey, will reflect only the employer's knowledge of an often complex series of events that the worker, with equal honesty, might interpret differently.

The present study will occasionally suffer from the same type of limitation. Labor market publications listed as those "students consult most frequently" will be the documents the counselor believes the students find of greatest interest, an opinion the latter might not share. And the "type of service the

applicant most likely received" as stated by the manager of a public or private employment agency will be the service the manager believes the applicant received. The latter, with a different assessment of the outcome of that service, might claim he had received another type of service or no service at all.

Another hazard implicit in the design of our employer policy survey lay in the fact that it was establishment-based. The reader could not automatically assume, therefore, that because a given proportion of all employers subscribed to a particular policy, a similar proportion of workers in the total work force was affected by the ensuing practice. Similarly, answers given to questions by employment agency managers or school counselors regarding the special needs of persons of low socioeconomic status or of minority races will carry equal weight in terms of the number replying whether given by a respondent representing a Youth Opportunity Center or a ghetto school or by a respondent from an employment agency catering to upper-level professional applicants or a school in a prosperous suburb.

We do not believe, however, that this feature of the "establishment-based" survey affects the validity of the present study's findings, given its focus. We are, in fact, attempting to picture certain institutions and practices in the Bay Area labor market using the views of our respondents as a lens. With this orientation, it is critically important that we capture their views fully and accurately. It is less crucial that the spokesman for any given

constituency or point of view be statistically representative of the number of persons comprising that constituency or affected by that point of view.

In this connection, we would submit that employment service managers tend to identify with the clientele of their agencies, whether jobless and alienated youth, aerospace employers requiring "qualified" workers, or middle-class parents seeking summertime employment programs for their children. The reader, thus, is assured that the claims of all such "constituencies" for an equitable share of the resources available for all services will be eloquently represented by appropriate spokesmen. He can be less confident that the relative number of spokesman reflecting these claims is equivalent to the proportionate weight, numerical, economic, political or otherwise, of the groups in whose interests they are speaking.

Research Methods: Sample Selection and Characteristics

The foregoing cautions regarding the limitations of a survey for which the unit of analysis is the establishment do not imply that the samples of employment agencies and school counselors used in this study were drawn without regard to the characteristics of the applicant and student populations they serve. In addition to the usual limitations imposed by time and budget constraints, there were considerations peculiar to sample selection for each type of agency and school. These considerations did affect the structure

of the samples and are described (see Appendix A and Appendix Tables A-1 through A-9). Also, in instances where the structure of the sample might affect analysis of the data in this study, the reader will be forewarned.

Our sample of Bay Area public employment agencies includes 16, or 55 per cent of the 29 California Department of Employment offices located in the six counties of the Bay Area in July 1968. The coverage of Department of Employment personnel and work load afforded by this sample is considerably greater, however, than the percentage of all offices included in the sample would indicate. In terms of either personnel figures[2] or such work load items as new applications and placements, the sample organizations accounted for 80 per cent or more of the comparable six-county totals in July 1968. For purposes of the present study, in fact, the characteristics of this "sample" are such that it virtually constitutes the universe of all such offices that could appropriately have been included in our survey.

No data related to the universe of private employment agencies in the Bay Area have been published for the years subsequent to 1966. Formerly, licensing, placement, and fee payment information for these agencies was gathered and released annually.[3] Publication of this information was discontinued in 1968 with the issuance of statistics covering 1966 activities. Inevitably, census information[4] concerning private employment agencies in the rapidly growing Bay Area has grown more dubious for current use with each

prosperous year that has passed since 1963, the latest date for which Census of Business information is available to us at this writing. Comparisons of published figures from the two sources for 1963 show that census data based on enumeration, and information derived from licensing are not easy to reconcile in any case. Nor, because of definitional and other problems, does resort to data shown for reporting units under the Unemployment Insurance Act provide a way out in attempting to ascertain the size of the universe of private employment agencies.

Thus the number of private agencies in the Bay Area that we have assumed for 1968 must rest on an estimate which we prepared despite the existence of many data gaps and the necessity for much hand-counting of original documents. According to the information available to us, it is our best judgment that in July 1968, there were approximately 250 Bay Area private agencies in operation which were of sufficient substance and duration of activity to be appropriately considered members of the universe of private, general employment agencies. We aimed originally for a 10 per cent sample of an expected universe of 300 agencies. Our sample size of 30 reflects a 12 per cent coverage of the smaller number of agencies that subsequent study indicated comprised this universe.

As to the characteristics of our sample, we cannot measure with any real accuracy the extent to which it is precisely representative of the occupational specialization or lack of specialization that characterizes the total of private agencies in a city

or county. However, the assistance we received in the selection of the sample agencies from persons having intimate knowledge of the industry and from our own perusal of license documents, the classified sections of local phone books, and the membership list of the National Employment Association[5] should ensure a high measure of representativeness as to this sample characteristic for the area as a whole. Also the heavy concentration of private agency activity on the white-collar occupations indicated by our sample is not out of line with either the findings of our previous survey or the previously-published California placement statistics for private agencies.[6] Our sample, too, appears to be reasonably representative as to county of location of these agencies. However, one factor definitely biased our sample selection so that, on the average, the sample agencies can be expected to be larger and to place more workers and collect more fees than the average private agency. As we were equally interested in learning how the private and public agencies have changed in recent years, the older private agencies were quite intentionally selected whenever such other characteristics as location and occupational orientation were equal. For this reason we would estimate that the members of our 12 per cent sample, together, account for more than a like percentage of all the personnel employed and for very much more than a comparable percentage of all the placements made by the Bay Area private agencies.[7]

In the early stages of this study, it was our intention to survey school and college placement services on the same basis as

public and private employment agencies. This plan was quickly abondoned as to the high schools when it became evident that such services are not sufficiently consolidated or formalized to warrant their investigation in that manner. Consequently, we added a brief section to the school counselor interview schedule in order to record at least a general description of placement activities in each of the sampled schools.

Pilot interviews, using our employment agency interview schedule, however, were conducted at one community college and one university noted for the excellence of their placement services. Data gathered from these interviews have added substantially to our knowledge of the nature of school placement activity in the Bay Area and will be utilized in our analysis. But the information gained has not been included in any of the study's statistical tabulations.

As we proceeded, an investigation of placement services in junior colleges and other post-secondary schools, of a scope comparable to our survey of private and public employment agencies, appeared increasingly inappropriate to this study because of the different emphases of these services. Their comprehensive study would likely be more fruitful were it oriented more specifically to problems peculiar to such organizations than was pertient to this study. We refer particularly to such school placement service characteristics as the importance to their operations of placing the student population in part-time jobs, their heavy involvement in

the direct recruitment efforts of employers, the relationships to faculty members and school administrators with whom they often share the placement function, and the influence that they may or may not exert on vocational guidance and the school curriculum through the transference of information gained by direct contact with the job market.

Our sample of public high schools contains 19 or 14 per cent of all such schools in the Bay Area. Together, these schools account for 15 per cent of total public secondary school enrollment. The relationship, by county, of sample to universe as to the number of schools and amount of enrollment is reasonably proportional except for San Francisco. There we could not escape over-representation, as we believed it necessary to include more than one high school because of San Francisco's school specialization.

Certain considerations affected our sampling of schools with the result that the sample selections are not perfectly representative, in a purely statistical sense, of the sample universe. One of our concerns in drawing a sample of public high schools was to detect those changes which might have occurred in their staffing and programs since 1960 in response to recent changes in both public policy and the labor market. In consequence, our selection was biased towards schools that were in existence in 1960. This emphasis on older schools, in turn, meant that we observed schools that were likely to have more than one kind of counseling direction. Instead of being devoted primarily to sending middle-

class children to college, as in the suburban schools, the older schools, even when they were in suburban areas, generally served students from families at all socioeconomic levels. While there was the advantage of observing how counselors met the varying needs of their particular schools, there was the disadvantage, which we believe to be slight, of including a greater proportion of students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds in our sample than is found in the high school population as a whole. Despite the above cautions, however, the voice of middle-class suburbia is amply represented among the sampled schools. And while our essentially judgmental sample may not reflect every point of view as to the tenets of occupational guidance in the same proportion as it is held by all counselors, we believe that the sampled schools do contain spokesmen for the various opinions that are held by large groups of counseling personnel.

We believe our study would be more representative of school counseling if private secondary schools were included, especially as a sizable percentage of all high school students attend private high schools. Preliminary discussions with representatives from non-Catholic private high schools, however, indicated that these schools account for only a very small proportion of the Bay Area's total high school enrollment. Further, these schools differ substantially among themselves and most cannot be considered representative of a larger population than their own student bodies. To the extent that they possess a common characteristic, it is that

they are largely devoted to offering college preparatory subjects and counseling designed to gain access for their students to the top colleges and universities. Therefore, none of the Bay Area's non-Catholic private high schools were included among the schools sampled for this study.

Catholic high schools, though, presented a different situation with respect to the comprehensiveness of our study. Figures supplied by the two Catholic departments of education responsible for the six counties showed that Catholic schools accounted for nine per cent of the combined public and Catholic secondary school enrollment in the Bay Area, with a range from 4 per cent in Contra Costa County to 25 per cent in San Francisco.

Because of their significant enrollment, particularly in certain sections of the Bay Area, we included these schools in the present study in order to give a more comprehensive picture of counseling practices as these affect the student population. Our sample of four Catholic high schools accounts for 18 per cent of the total Bay Area enrollment in these schools.

Because of the importance of junior colleges in the preparation of students for job entry, we believe that our sample of these institutions should be a generous one, including all of the Bay Area counties and the large majority of its junior college districts. Our sample of eight junior colleges, therefore, includes at least one for each county (providing 100 per cent coverage in those counties with but one junior college) and

one from each of eight out of the 11 junior college districts in the Bay Area. This sample selection resulted in a group of eight schools, representing somewhat more than half of the area's 14 junior colleges and enrolling 67 per cent of all day-time junior college students.

Research Methods: Schedule and Interview

Two quite separate schedules were used in the present study, one for public and private employment service executives and another for school counselors (see Appendix J).

Although the two schedules understandably different in form and content, both were similar in their areas of major emphasis. Reflecting our research objectives, a large proportion of questions were of the "before and after" variety. To the extent possible, 1968 programs, activities, staff and work load were measured against a 1960 base. Information concerning changes in personnel and organization permitting us to make 1960-1968 comparisons was frequently difficult to obtain. However, central administrative offices and other sources gave us the assistance necessary to reconstruct staffing and work load figures where such help was needed for public employment offices and schools. Written records were often missing for private employment agencies and frequently, as indicated above, these agencies were not in existence in 1960. Accordingly, historical comparisons will not always be fully documented, or even possible, for these organizations.

Our interviewing, too, was complicated by the fact that the same term could have diverse meanings for different types of respondents. "Counseling," for example, has entirely different connotations for the manager of a public or a private employment agency or for a school counselor. In such instances, though, we believe that our technique of asking the respondents to detail the actual content of such terms in their operations will provide ample knowledge concerning the depth of these differences and an appreciation of their significance.

Because of our research objectives, our preoccupation with the development, communication, and use of labor market information was reflected in a series of questions in both schedules that examined this subject at greater length than any other we explored. Labor market information, therefore, will be covered in greater detail than many other subjects, several of which would merit greater attention in a differently-oriented or more comprehensive survey.

In designing the schedules, we gave the respondents opportunity to reply on several subjects in free-answer form. Our experience with the Employer Policy Survey influenced us to adopt this approach. This survey would often have yielded richer data, we now believe, had the interview schedule provided more opportunity for reflective response on the establishment's experience with a particular policy or practice.

All of the initial interviews for this study were completed in the first six months of 1969 and none were conducted after July (see Appendix Table A-10). A single interview generally sufficed, and the total time needed for 90 per cent of all interviews ranged from two to four hours. At 10 of the 77 sampled agencies and schools, a second or subsequent interview was required.

The initial request to conduct interviews in the public agencies was made to the Director of the then California Department of Employment, now the Department of Human Resources Development. He acceded to this request and his permission was transmitted through channels to the local office managers who were our interviewees. Requests to interview in the schools were made to school superintendents or other principal executives. All of these requests were granted and the interviews were conducted with the designated chief counseling officers at the schools. Private employment agency managers were contacted individually. Of the 30 such agnecies initially approached, an interview was refused at only one, giving us a response rate of 97 per cent for these organizations. A substitute of approximately the same characteristics was found for this lone refusal, whose reasons for not participating in the survey appeared entirely justified.

Footnotes to Section I

1. Margaret S. Gordon and Margaret Thal-Larsen, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market, Report of the San Francisco Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, Berkeley, July 1969.

2. According to unpublished personnel statistics released by the Coastal Area Office of the California Department of Employment, the 16 field offices included in our sample accounted, in July 1968, for 673 or 80 per cent of the 845 employees stationed in the 29 field offices of the six counties who were engaged in nonagricultural employment service activities.

3. Placement and Fees of Private Employment Agencies in California, Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Labor Law Endorcement, Labor Commissioner, San Francisco, California (issued for private agency operations through 1966).

4. U. S. Bureau of the Census, Census of Business, 1963, Vol. 7, Selected Services - Area Statistics (California), U. S. Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1966. (The 1967 Census of Business has now become available.)

5. Private Employment Agencies, 1969-1970, Directory, National Employment Association, Washington, D. C., 1968.

6. See Gordon and Thal-Larsen, op. cit., Chap. VI "Recruitment," particularly Table 6-1, p. 197, and Placement and Fees of Private Employment Agencies, op. cit., 1966 (Table III) for information on placements by "field of employment."

7. As to the size of staff in the sample private agencies, information obtained on the interview schedules showed them to average 7.2 workers (paid employees plus active proprietors) per unit while the comparable 1963 Census of Business average for all Bay Area private agencies was 5.3.

Estimates of the 1968 volume of placements made by all private employment agencies in the six counties (or in all California, for that matter) are not easy to construct with the discontinuance of collecting and publishing these data. However, a firm base figure for 1966 placements can be estimated for the area. Then, even if we entertain a variety of assumptions regarding 1966-1968 trends in placements made by all private agencies, we find that the placement figures shown on our schedules for the sample agencies (as adjusted to annual totals) will fall in a range of from 36 to 47 per cent of the area's placement total. When we employ those assumptions regarding the 1966-1968 trend of placements in all private agencies and regarding the adjustment of the sample agency July figures to annual totals most often expressed by our respondents, an estimate of 45 per cent would appear nearest the true figure.

8. Our sources of Catholic high school enrollment and other figures cited in this report were the Education Departments of the Archdiocese of San Francisco, which has jurisdiction over Catholic schools in Marin, San Francisco, San Mateo, and Santa Clara Counties, and of the Diocese of Oakland which is responsible for schools in Alameda and Contra Costa Counties.

II. THE BAY AREA SETTING

Characteristics of the Bay Area

The salient elements determining the internal structure of a city or region have been summarized as the obvious and fundamental influence of topography, the economic structure, the infrastructure consisting of the transportation, communication, utilities and government decision-making apparatus, and the people--their aggregate quantity, socioeconomic structure and racial composition.[1]

Like California itself, the physical structure of the Bay Area is varied and complex (see Appendix J for map). The counties to the west--Marin, San Francisco, and San Mateo—are divided from the eastern counties--Contra Costa and Alameda, by that spectacular topographical barrier, the 435 square-mile San Francisco Bay.

Marked contrasts of terrain typify the entire area. From the southern end of the Bay, between the Santa Cruz Mountains and the Diablo Range, stretch the alluvial lowlands of Santa Clara County. Alameda County extends eastward 35 miles from tidal flatlands to the east side of the Coast Range mountains that separate the coastal area from the State's great central valley. Contra Costa County has 70 miles of waterfront along San Francisco, San Pablo, and Suisun Bays. Nonetheless, this county boasts extensive farm lands and rugged hill country. Marin County is a hilly

peninsula extending north from the Golden Gate into the northern, deeply-cut and densely-wooded Coast Ranges, while San Mateo County occupies the almost equally hilly peninsula south of the Golden Gate. At the northern tip of this peninsula are the 45 square miles of the City and County of San Francisco with the highest population density in the State--16,491 persons per square mile.

It is unnecessary to point out that with the 2,779 square miles of land area comprised by these counties,[2] an area larger than the State of Delaware, and with their 1968 estimated population of 4,142,400,[3] about equal to that of the State of Missouri, this region supports a highly diverse economy. As a result, no monolithic view of area-wide labor needs will be adequate to the school counselor in communities such as Contra Costa County's Pittsburg, which many of its new entrants to the labor force will never leave to look for work elsewhere. Nor will only a knowledge of the immediate community's job opportunities suffice the employment service placement officer in a county such as Marin, where a largely population-serving industrial structure affords jobs to only a fraction of the resident labor force.

If examined one-by-one, immediately apparent is the diversity of industrial structure in the six Bay Area counties--a diversity resulting from factors related to history, topography, land use, transportation barriers, and government as well as to the "people factor" (see Appendix B and Appendix Table B-1).

And industrial structure in the Bay Area as elsewhere, is reflected in the occupations of its people?

Santa Clara County, with its heavy manufacturing employment, is not usually included among the Bay Area counties when this area is compared with other localities. But even if it is included, the Bay Area's occupational structure[4] differs materially from that of most areas and from the nation as a whole. Finance, trade, transportation-utilities, and government are all activities having a predominately white-collar work force. As a center of these activities, the Bay Area engages a considerably larger proportion of its labor force in professional, technical, managerial, clerical, and sales occupations than does either California in its entirety or the United States. To summarize, the occupations most prominent in the Bay Area require comparatively high levels of education, training, skill and experience.

At the same time, the area employs a smaller proportion of its work force in the blue-collar occupations than does the nation as a whole, with this difference reflecting the lesser percentages working in semiskilled and unskilled jobs. While the Bay Area proportion of workers in the skilled trades is equivalent to that of the nation, their employment, locally, is relatively heavy in construction, repair services, and job shops. Proportionately more workers in service occupations find employment in the Bay Area than in the country as a whole, but these are a particularly heterogeneous group as to job duties and job

specification. Education and other requirements for some service occupations are, in fact, as stringent as those found in various administrative and technical fields.

It should not be surprising to find that many of the local educators' problems are rooted in the relatively sophisticated pattern of the area's occupational characteristics. They must supply their students with a comparable level of vocational direction and preparation if the latter are to be assisted in obtaining appropriate entry-level jobs. Nor should it be unexpected to find the problem of job-matching a particularly troublesome one in both public and private employment offices. Further, certain trends over recent years have intensified these problems.

Recent Trends in the Bay Area: Population and Employment

Rapid growth and, therefore, rapid change has characterized the Bay Area in the years since 1960. Between the decennial census date and July 1968, the area's population advanced by an estimated 26 per cent while total employment rose by almost one-third. By no means, however, has the amount or impact of change been similar for all groups or in all parts of this six-county area. As an example, unemployment rates for the area as a whole, which in 1968 were lower than in 1960,[5] were little if at all improved from that year for certain specific types of work applicants, such as the disadvantaged ghetto resident or the youthful job entrant of minority race.

San Francisco, in the years 1960-1968, managed to retain its place as the area's county of largest employment even though its share of the total declined (see Appendix Table B-2). Its 10 per cent employment growth in this period, however, occurred against the backdrop of a population that increased by only 1 per cent in size. In view of this county's virtually stationary population, it can be inferred that the additional jobs created in San Francisco in recent years have been staffed in large part by commuters. Such a contention is well buttressed by the complaints of employment agency managers that this city does not generate the types of jobs for which many of its residents can readily become qualified. As examples, manufacturing and wholesale trade actually diminished in work force from 1960 to 1968 while one-quarter of San Francisco's employment increase in these years was in the finance industry along.

From 1960 to 1968, Alameda County, the area's largest county in population and its second-largest in employment, expanded next most slowly after San Francisco in both. Again, like the latter, this county reflects the effects of industrial decentralization, and the problem of core cities with their virtually stable population and employment figures. Unlike San Francisco, however, open land in the southern section of this county has attracted large-scale suburban growth in recent years. And along with this population growth has occurred a sizable expansion of both durable goods manufacturing and the employment

increases in trade, service, and government needed for the new population centers.

Next largest after Alameda County in both population and employment is Santa Clara County. This county has witnessed phenomenal growth and change for more than twenty years, and the years since 1960 were no exception. From 1960 to 1968, Santa Clara County's population increased by more than one-half and its employment by almost two-thirds. The earlier pattern of steadily diminishing agricultural and related activities continued while employment in durable goods manufacturing doubled, with much of this latter of a highly sophisticated variety. And again, while the county's long-time mainstay among manufacturing industires, fruit and vegetable canning, little more than held its own, employment mushroomed in such activities as trade, services, and government. To staff its burgeoning economy that is heavily committed to the aerospace industries and to serving the needs of a suburban population, Santa Clara County has encouraged the immigration of thousands of workers with higher-level skills. At the same time, it numbers among its residents large numbers of Mexican-American and other ethnic-minority families who were originally attracted to this county in its "pre-industrial era."

San Mateo County, Santa Clara's neighbor to the north, is fourth among the six counties in both population and employment. This county's nearly 50 per cent employment growth from 1960 to 1968 (while its population grew by only one-fourth) has seemingly

removed, once and for all, its former characteristic of being, primarily, a "bedroom" area for San Francisco. The county's employment growth has come from many sources including expansions at the San Francisco Airport, increases in the manufacture of electronics items, and the rise in trade and service activities which contributed the largest employment gain for the period.

Almost equal to San Mateo County in population, though significantly below it in employment, is Contra Costa County. This county, also, appears to have changed direction in the years subsequent to 1960. Its population increase of one-third subsequent to that year has reflected the growth of extensive suburban centers east of the Berkeley and Oakland Hills rather than any significant enlargement of its core cities. Further, its 40 per cent work force expansion in the same period represents as much the growth of white-collar employment in this same newer section as it does worker increases in the older industrial localities with their heavy concentrations of work force in petro-chemicals and primary and fabricated metals.

Marin County, smallest of the six in point of population and employment, increased at the second most rapid rate of all from its small 1960 base in the years to 1968. All of the county's major industry divisions except agriculture, mining, and construction showed growth in these years. Nonetheless, in 1968 as in 1960, Marin County's industrial structure remained comprised primarily of population-serving activities. And a very large

proportion of its wage earners commuted then, as earlier, to jobs in San Francisco County. As mentioned above, an area's industrial structure is a determinant of its occupational pattern, and the occupational distribution of Bay Area employment has long differed appreciably from that of the nation. Little that has occurred in Bay Area employment trends in recent years has served to narrow the difference between this area and the nation--either as to industrial structure or, so far as can be inferred, as to occupational patterns.

When the 1960, Bay Area force of nonagricultural wage and salary workers is set against comparable employment figures for the United States, the former's heavier proportion of workers in the transportation-utilities group of industries, in trade, the finance complex, in service, and in government is apparent (see Appendix Table B-3). At the same time, this greater weight given to predominantly white-collar activities is compensated for by the lesser proportionate share of Bay Area employment engaged in manufacturing, particularly that of durable goods.

Subsequent to 1960, as might be inferred from the foregoing summary of employment developments in the six counties, the major thrust of employment expansion has continued to be in those activities making heavy demands on the white-collar and the skilled work force (see Appendix Table B-4). The area's wage and salary employment expanded by about one-third in those years and durable goods manufacturing, it is true, increased by 41 per cent. But,

as pointed out earlier, the most significant expansion in this employment category has been that of the aerospace group of industries which is notable both for its low production-worker ratios and for its proportionately heavy employment of scientific, engineering, technical, and highly-skilled workers. Further, the virtual lack of any net expansion in Bay Area nondurable manufacturing over these years has meant that total manufacturing employment increased at less than the average growth rate between 1960 and 1968. Also increasing by less than a third in these years were such other "heavy activities" as construction, wholesale trade, and transportation. Meanwhile, the most rapid growth rates were recorded by such inveterate employers of white-collar workers as certain of the service industries and by government. And near-average increases in retail trade and finance employment have maintained the previous relative importance of these industries in the area's employment picture.

In 1960, as mentioned before, contrasts of industrial structure between Bay Area and nation were reflected in marked differences of occupational pattern (see Appendix Table B-5). In particular, proportionately more Bay Area workers were employed in professional and technical, managerial, clerical, and sales occupations than in the nation as a whole. The employment of service workers in other than domestic occupations was slightly higher than in the nation, and the employment of skilled craftsmen was relatively the same. Proportionately, however, Bay Area semi-

skilled and unskilled workers and domestics had fewer work opportunities than in the nation as a whole.

Because of the nature of Bay Area industrial expansion subsequent to 1960 it can be inferred that these differences of occupational structure between the area and the nation has been maintained if not widened in the years to 1968. For lack of data concerning employment changes by occupation in the states and the various metropolitan areas, however, we can only surmise that the occupational trends which can be documented for the United States have occurred in the Bay Area to an equal and quite probably greater extent.

In any event, resort to the Monthly Labor Force Survey for the country as a whole shows relative gains since 1960 in the employment of professional and technical, clerical, skilled, semiskilled workers, and in the number of service workers except those employed in private households (see Appendix Table B-6). In the same period, the relative position of managerial and sales workers has remained about the same while the proportionate employment of laborers has fallen off substantially. It is more than likely that the same changes have typified the Bay Area's occupational structure with two possible exceptions. There may have been some slight rise in the relative position of managerial workers in this area despite the progress of mergers and data processing. Also, the increase in the proportion of semiskilled workers or "operatives" employed nationwide in 1968 as compared

to 1960 may not have occurred locally because of the comparative lack of mass-production industries in the Bay Area.

Apart from estimates of population changes in the Bay Area and its component counties from 1960 to 1968, there are few sources to indicate the changes that may have occurred in the area's socioeconomic characteristics in this intercensal period.

For the most part it appears safe to assume that those characteristics which distinguished the Bay Area, as they did the entire western region, in 1960 have continued to differentiate the six counties from the nation as a whole.[6] Included among these characteristics in the decennial-census year, were the diversity of the area's ethnic-minority groups, its higher-than-average proportion of foreign-born, slightly younger-than-average age distribution of the population, and its higher-than-average educational attainment. Although it is not a perennial characteristic of the area, unemployment continued to exceed the national rate. This persistence of higher unemployment occurred, possibly, because of the importance of immigration as a component of Bay Area population growth, and the area's similarity to the nation in that unemployment rates for racial minorities and for youth are substantially higher than the overall rate.[7] Also continuing has been the area's relative prosperity in that wage rates and average weekly earnings in the San Francisco-Oakland and San Jose areas have continued to be among the highest of the nation's metropolitan areas. It should also be noted, however, that living costs in the San Francisco-Oakland area

in 1967 were the fifth-highest among the 39 metropolitan areas for which these data were collected.

As implied above, hard data describing changes in the population characteristics of areas or counties since 1960 are notably absent. In 1960 (see Appendix Table B-7) the six counties' population of 3,291,077 was comprised of 89 per cent white residents while 11 per cent were nonwhite. The latter percentage ranged from 3 per cent in Santa Clara County to 18 per cent in San Francisco. But even these percentages served to mask the ethnic and racial diversity of the Bay Area. In Santa Clara County with its relatively small nonwhite population, the largest number of which were Japanese, 12 per cent of the total population and the highest proportion of any county in the area were white persons of Spanish surname. And in San Francisco with its heaviest proportion of nonwhite, almost half of the latter were of other than the Negro race, with the Chinese most numerous.

Documenting the changes which may have occurred in 1960 ethnic and racial patterns county-by-county cannot be done. A 1965 study of Alameda County by the California Department of Public Health, however, illustrates the type of changes that have occurred in at least one county of the six.[8]

According to this study, Alameda County's growth between 1960 and 1965 was characterized by a decline in the relative size of its central cities while the southern part of the county experienced tremendous population gains. There were, in addition,

substitutions in these populations. In these five years, the proportion of Negroes in Oakland's almost static population rose from 22 per cent to 30 per cent of the total, while the expanding southern part of the county remained almost entirely white.

This study also showed that Alameda County's population continued its shift, in the 1960-1965 period, towards a stronger representation of the young. As the percentage of persons 65 of age and over has been generally constant, the proportion of persons in their most productive years of from 20 to 64 continued along the earlier trend and became progressively smaller after 1960. Further, this study pointed out that Alameda County's Negroes tend to be younger than its whites, with 47 per cent of all Negroes under 20 years of age, as compared with 36 per cent of all whites. In 1965 this disparity was reflected in the fact that while Negroes comprised 30 per cent of Oakland's total population, they accounted for almost one-half of that city's primary-school population.

Similar data are not available for the other five Bay Area counties. The California State Department of Finance has prepared estimates as to changes that occurred in the population's racial and ethnic composition, statewide, from 1960 to 1966 and 1967.[9] Such estimates, however, are based primarily on the racial and ethnic data contained in school enrollment statistics as adjusted and carried back to reflect the general population figure. As such, these estimates are subject to many possible errors

arising from data gaps and mistaken assumptions. And these errors can only compound as the geographic area for which the estimate is prepared diminishes in size.

If such warnings are disregarded to the extent of using these methods to estimate changes in the racial characteristics of six counties in the post-censal years the resulting figures should not, in good conscience, be published. However, it does appear warranted to state that such an exercise produces estimates indicating that the changes which have occurred in the racial composition of the six counties are as varied among the different counties as they were among the different sections of Alameda County. As would be expected from other evidences, Bay Area population growth subsequent to 1960 has continued its earlier trend of occurring at a more rapid rate for all nonwhites and for Negroes than for whites. And among whites, the Mexican-American minority has expanded more rapidly in number than have other whites.

Recent Trends in the Bay Area: School Enrollment

While the Bay Area's total population increased by about one-fourth from 1960 to 1968, its school population increased immensely more. Total public school enrollment in these years advanced by more than two-thirds; public high schools, by three-quarters, and the junior colleges, by two and a quarter times the 1960 figure (See Appendix Table B-8, B-9, and B-10). Even the gain in Catholic high schools during this period approached one-third,

despite their problems of funding and space (see Appendix Table B-11).

Because birthrates have declined since the 1950's, increases in high school enrollment from 1960 to 1968 generally exceeded those recorded for total public school enrollment. As noted, Bay Area public high school enrollment increased by three-quarters in these years, as compared with a two-thirds increase of students in public schools at the elementary and secondary levels combined. It is at the junior college level, however, that changing trends in school attendance are most dramatically reflected. This enrollment increased by 224 per cent in the Bay Area between 1960 and 1968. Counties with relatively stable central cities clearly evidenced the increasing tendency of all socioeconomic groups to enroll their children in post-secondary schools. Even San Francisco, with its 20 per cent advance in total public school enrollment, recorded an 89 per cent rise in the number of students at its single community college. Junior college enrollment in Alameda County, reflecting both developments in its central cities and in an expanding suburbia, almost quintupled between 1960 and 1968.

Statistical information is lacking that would permit a comparison of the socioeconomic and racial-ethnic characteristics of the Bay Area's enrolled school population as of 1960 and 1968. However, such data are available for racial-ethnic characteristics in 1968. These show that 26 per cent of the Bay Area's public school

enrollment was comprised of Negro, Oriental, American Indian or Spanish-surname minorities (see Appendix Table B-12). Marin County has the smallest percentage of minority-group students while San Francisco's was the largest. But, in point of actual numbers, the heaviest representation of minority groups was in Alameda County, as was also true of the general population at the 1960 census date. Negroes and persons of Spanish surname predominated among Alameda County's minority-group students while San Francisco's were principally Negro and Oriental, and Santa Clara County's were primarily of Spanish surname.

Socioeconomic data concerning public school students are very meager. Also, the numerous problems of identifying socioeconomic status can be readily appreciated. For, example, families may have low income but be of middle social status, as in many families where the mother is head of the household. And there are problems as to the amount of income that appropriately marks the low-income or poverty level. One indicator of socioeconomic level that can be used consistently to denote differences between school districts or counties is the number of children in the schools whose families are receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). In general, this figure will include children from families (predominantly those headed by the mother) which earned $4,000 per year or less before receiving aid. There are, however, many families in this income group which do not apply or which are not eligible for such assistance.

With these many qualifications, it should be noted that 10 per cent of the children enrolled in Bay Area public schools in the spring of 1969 were from families receiving AFDC (see Appendix Table B-13). Marin and San Mateo Counties were at the bottom with three and four per cent respectively and San Francisco, at the top with 28 per cent. San Francisco, in fact, had the largest percentage of children from families receiving this assistance of any district in the Bay Area, including such districts as Oakland and East Palo Alto. This high AFDC ratio in San Francisco provides added evidence of the previously-mentioned mismatch between large sectors of San Francisco's resident population and the types of jobs generally available in that headquarters city. A heavy school population from welfare families is not easily prepared for white-collar employment without special and intensive efforts to provide the necessary basic education and training.

Significant Legislation (1960-1968) and its Impact: Public Employment Agencies

The years from 1960 to 1968 produced a spate of manpower legislation. According to the point of view, these laws started the nation on the long road toward development of a comprehensive manpower system or burdened it with many overlapping, uncoordinated programs characterized by conflicting goals and ineffective implementation.

Whatever the proper assessment may be, significant changes in the nation's employment security system have resulted from this

legislation and the Congressional appropriations that followed. For one, these laws signified a major commitment to manpower programs by the federal government. In 1962, the first year of the Manpower Development and Training Act, total funds appropriated by the Congress for various manpower programs including grants to the states for the employment security system, equalled approximately $300 million. By 1969, this sum had increased to $2 billion, and in the next fiscal year it will reach approximately $2.4 billion.[10]

Because most of the programs generated by manpower legislation or executive orders devolve on the employment security system's local employment offices, at least in part, for their administration, a new clientele has been encompassed within the sphere of these offices, including those in the Bay Area. Previously the federal-state employment security system was concerned largely with job seekers possessing an identifiable skill and a history of sustained job attachment. Or it dealt with the more or less work-ready entrant to the labor force. Currently, the public service is strongly oriented to serving the disadvantaged--those marked by deficiencies in education, training or attitude, or hampered by discriminatory standards based on racial or ethnic characteristics.

The breadth of needs of the population newly served by the employment security system, in turn, has greatly expanded the services offered in public employment offices beyond the original

emphasis on matching workers with jobs and paying claims for unemployment insurance. In accordance with the specific program involved, the state employment security agencies have either themselves provided expanded services or, with greater or lesser responsibility for control and direction, participated with other agencies and groups in supplying far more comprehensive service than placement along. A very partial description of the impact that recent manpower legislation and various manpower programs have exerted on the activities of the public employment service, including that of the Bay Area, is described below.

The Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 (Public Law 87-27) constituted a major legislative step toward a more comprehensive manpower policy than that envisaged under the Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 creating the present federal-state system of public employment offices. This bill attacked joblessness in areas of high unemployment primarily by attempting to increase the level of economic demand through loans and technical assistance. More important to the manpower field, however, the act introduced the concept of federal retraining for unemployed workers by providing for brief periods of training together with the payment of subsistence allowances. Because its provisions were applicable mainly to rural counties, this law had little affect on Bay Area public employment staffs other than to involve a few district and research personnel in appraising training needs. However, under the later Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965 (Public

Law 89-136), the concept of eligible communities was extended to include labor areas and larger cities characterized by high unemployment or low family income. And with this extension of eligibility, public employment-service staffs in metropolitan areas became more deeply involved in the concepts of economic planning and community development for such cities as Alameda County's Oakland.

For the public service, a longer step away from functioning merely as an employment exchange came with the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (Public Law 87-415). One of the hypotheses underlying this law was that technological change was eliminating jobs for the unskilled and creating higher-level jobs for which appropriately-qualified applicants were lacking. The original emphasis under this law was to select applicants who could acquire vocational skills that would fit them to fill jobs for which, prior investigation had established, additional workers were needed. These primarily "institutional" MDTA training courses could be initiated only as local employment service offices identified unemployed workers who could be trained, and located potential employment opportunities. The expectation was that these workers could "match" the projected employment opportunities, following their training in programs which were feasible in view of allocated resources. After these necessary determinations were made, local educators designed the courses and, together, the two groups of officials sought federal funding for

training costs, equipment, and the allowances paid to trainees.

Early in the experience gained under this act, it became evident that training was not being extended to those groups most in need of such assistance. Consequently, a series of amendments beginning in 1963 served to make basic education available to trainees in addition to supplying them with occupational skills. The act was liberalized so that a higher proportion of older workers could profit by its provisions and also youths, often through the Youth Opportunity Centers. It was in these centers, in fact, that the "outreach" concept originated whereby community workers actively recruit applicants to receive a wide variety of needed services other than conventional job placement. Further, the emphasis was expanded on experimental and demonstration projects which generally aimed at finding new techniques for serving the disadvantaged. Increasingly stressed was on-the-job rather than institutional training because of the higher placement rates experienced under the former type of instruction. In 1966, the MDTA program was redirected nationally so that 65 per cent of the training effort was to be oriented towards the "hard-core" unemployed, while the remaining resources were focused on the need for trained personnel in skill shortage categories. In California as a matter of State policy, however, the proportion of training effort that has been "person-oriented" rather than "job-oriented" has been higher.

It is estimated that since the beginning of MDTA activities

to July 1968, about 21,500 "training slots," primarily of the institutional type, were authorized in the six-county Bay Area.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (Public Law 88-452), as amended, has also had its impact on the operation of local employment service offices including those in the Bay Area. As one example, most of these offices have been charged with the recruitment, screening, and referral of disadvantaged youth from age 16 through 21 years for the Job Corps Centers. These Centers were desinged to equip youth from impoverished homes with the skills and attitudes needed to find and hold suitable employment by providing them with needed basic education and pre-vocational and vocational training. As another example, the local offices have participated, through their referral activities, in the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) program to assist poverty-stricken youth to remain in school, return to school, gain work experience, and receive special training and other services. Also, the local offices have been involved in the New Careers Program, authorized under the Economic Opportunity Act Amendments of 1967. This program seeks to establish new and necessary community service jobs on a permanent basis, usually at the sub-professional level. As training plans and "career ladders" have been worked out, "new careerists" have entered the public employment service to work as Community Service Trainees and than as Employment Community Workers and professional-level Employment Security Officers.

Provisions of the Manpower Development and Training Act and of the Economic Opportunity Act as amended have resulted in the Concentrated Employment Program. CEP, as it is know, was designed to bring together all government manpower and related supportive services in order to provide concentrated assistance to those job seekers having the greatest need. Since late summer in 1967, certain of the Bay Area local offices have served persons under this program who lived in designated target areas and who met defined poverty criteria. Outreach methods have often been used to bring such applicants to the offices. There, counselors work with them and prepare them for referral either to jobs, training programs, or to the school system. In addition the applicants receive whatever other services may be required to make them employable including where necessary, medical and dental care, legal aid, and various social services. At the same time, special efforts are made to obtain job opportunities from employers that may have previously been closed to the hard-core unemployed.

Persons receiving assistance under the CEP program must be residents of designated poverty areas as well as eligible for such help because of their own employment and income status. A somewhat similar program is the Work Incentive Program authorized under Title IV of the 1967 Amendments to the Social Security Act. Eligibility for the so-called WIN program, however, depends upon the applicant's being a recipient of public assistance rather than a resident of any specific area. WIN was designed to increase the

employability of those on welfare by referring them to public employment service offices. There, they are given professional guidance in establishing their job goals and in determining a course of action that may include employment counseling, job orientation, remedial education, vocational training, and referral to employment. This program was in its early stages in the Bay Area offices at the time of our interviews, so that one of its features was not yet in evidence, namely, that it provides for a follow-up help such as counseling and needed supportive services throughout the training stage and the period of job seeking and initial employment.

An obstinate problem to resolve in connection with the various employability programs developed thus far has been finding the job opportunities needed to absorb the "graduates" of such programs. The efforts of local office personnel to find such jobs have been supplemented since early in 1968 with a program known as JOBS--Job Opportunities in the Business Sector. This program called on the newly-formed NAB-National Alliance of Businessmen--an independent, nonprofit corporation, to secure commitments from private employers to hire the hard-core unemployed. A great deal of the work under this program has been contributed by staffs in the metropolitan offices of the public employment service. These officials work with persons representing the Alliance who have been borrowed from extended periods of time from their employers to continue to pay their salaries. The program

is aimed at inducing employers to pledge jobs to the program, pledges that may be filled by the employer's hiring persons fitting the program's eligibility criteria. This the employer may do by entering into a contract and receiving compensation for training and other extra costs from the government, or there may be no such contract arrangements. To date, numerous such contracts have been awarded in the Bay Area.

The legislation and programs described above have been essentially remedial. Some programs were directed to repairing the damage that has ensued to individuals because of the depressed nature of the communities in which they resided. Other programs were designed to help those who sought entrance to the labor market, or reemployment after layoff from employment, or after long absence from the labor force without possessing a sound basic education or needed vocational skills. In the period since 1960 there has also been legislation attacking this problem more directly through attempting to ensure more adequate and more relevant education in the first instance.

Significant Legislation (1960-1968) and its Impact: The Schools

The most significant federal legislation affecting public schools and junior colleges in the last decade has been the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (Public Law 88-210). A 1966 California State Department of Education report described this legislation as follows:

> "In 1964-65, mainly because of the impetus of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the program of vocational education in California advanced into a new era of development. Previously unserved occupations were assisted. The downward trend of vocational offerings at the high school level was reversed. Traditional programs of training were transformed. Interdisciplinary approaches to curriculum development were restored. Experimentation became acceptable."[11]

In the year the act was passed, expenditures on vocational education in California amounted to $18.5 million, up from $12.8 million in 1960. However, it was estimated that expenditures in the school year 1969-70 would reach $79.2 million. The federal contribution would be $18.7 million, equivalent to the total vocational expenditures of 1960-61.[12]

For the first time, states were asked to "review vocational education programs in the light of current and projected manpower needs and job opportunities and to emphasize the need for cooperation between State vocational agencies and public employment offices."[13] As general benefits, the act enabled school districts to imporve their student work-experience programs, their equipment, and their teaching and administration of vocational education. Also, the act allowed the states to bring the George-Barden and Smith-Hughes Acts into the twentieth century by allowing "farm practice" and "homemaking" curricula to include subjects such as horticulture, floristry, food technology, and cafeteria management. And, the act allocated money to improve administration and teaching of the vocational program.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 was amended in 1968 to increase the direction of such education into technical areas. It was believed by both Congress and vocational educators that while the 1963 act enabled the building of a strong foundation for vocational education, there was now a need for much more innovation to adapt to continuing technological change. High schools and junior colleges in the Bay Area, as elsewhere, are presently preparing plans and proposals to undertake such innovations.

Two other major acts were passed before 1968 that supplied help and direction to state educational systems in the matter of vocational direction and labor market guidance, although they were not as far-reaching as VEA. These were the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (Public Law 85-864) and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (Public Law 89-10). NDEA, passed two years before the period with which they study is concerned, was a post-Sputnik reaction designed to imporve this nation's position in the race with Russia to produce scientific and technical manpower. Nonetheless, it allowed for acquisition of equipment, materials, and consultive services to schools in order to strengthen instruction in all areas of education including industrial arts, and it provided money to improve guidance services in the schools. ESEA provided funds for strengthening educational programs for children from low-income families. It also added monies for "supplementary educational centers and services" that

including vocational guidance and counseling. While the intent of the instructional and counseling aspects of these two acts was to improve these services in general, they did provide an incremental base that allowed schools to expand their efforts into labor market information and vocational guidance.

Footnotes to Section II

1. William Goldner, Projective Land Use Model, Bay Area Transportation Study Commission, Berkeley, Calif., September 1968.

2. Summed from figures given in California Statistical Abstract, 1968, State of California, Documents Section, Sacramento, Calif. 1968, Table A-2, p. 1.

3. Summed from California Department of Finance estimates for counties as published in Economic Report of the Governor, 1969, transmitted to the California Legislature, March 1, 1969, Sacramento, Calif., Table A3, page 56.

4. See particularly, Manpower Resources San Francisco-Oakland, Bay Area 1960-1970, California Department of Employment, Coastal Area Research and Statistics Section, San Francisco, California, May 1963 for an "occupational profile" of the five counties and for a prognosis as to future labor market developments in view of the trends apparent at the time of this report's preparation.

5. See Area Manpower Review, San Francisco-Oakland, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, Winter 1968-1969, Annual Review and Outlook, California Department of Employment, Coastal Area Research and Statistics, San Francisco, California, January 1969 and comparable publication for San Jose area for discussion of unemployment trends. The average for the year 1968 in both areas (San Francisco-Oakland at 4.0 and San Jose at 4.2) was above

the national rate of 3.6 but below the 1968 California rate of 4.5 per cent. According to published series of the Department, the San Francisco-Oakland average for 1960 was 5.1 and the comparable San Jose rate, 5.9.

6. See Pacific Profile: The Economy of the Eight Westernmost States, Regional Report No. 13, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Pacific Regional Office, San Francisco, March 1969. Various of the series presented in this report are derived from data collected during the intercensal period and therefore 1960-1967 changes can be indicated. Data in some are given by standard metropolitan statistical area so that figures for the San Francisco-Oakland and San Jose areas may be compared with those for other major metropolitan areas.

7. For example, the 1967 annual average unemployment rate for the San Francisco-Oakland Area's white workers according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics was 4.7 (Ibid., p. 27). In contrast, the rate for nonwhite workers was 9.6 and that for youth, 19.6. For more detailed discussions of this matter, although covering the 1966 situation, cf. Sub-employment in the Slums of San Francisco, U. S. Department of Labor (Washington, D. C. 1967) and Sub-employment in the Slums of Oakland, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. 1967.

8. Alameda County Population 1965 (Series A, No. 7), Human Population Laboratory, Bureau of Chronic Diseases, State of California Department of Public Health, Berkeley, April 1966.

9. Provisional Estimates of the Racial and Ethnic Composition of California, July 1, 1966 and July 1, 1967, Financial and Population Research Section, California State Department of Finance, Sacramento, August 1968.

10. Arnold R. Weber, "The Manpower Administration," International Association of Personnel in Employment Security Journal--Proceedings, 56th Annual Convention, Columbus, Ohio, June 23-27, 1969, p. 26.

11. Vocational Education in California 1964-65, Annual Descriptive Report for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1965 (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1966), p. 10.

12. "Resumé of Information of Statewide Program of Vocational Education" (presented by Wesley P. Smith, Director of Vocational Education, to the California Advisory Council on Vocational Education, August 28, 1969), State of California, Department of Education.

13. "Vocational Education Act of 1963, Summary of Public Law 88-210" in Selected Education Acts of 1963, prepared for the Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, United States Senate, 88th Congress, 1st Session, p. 86.

III. BAY AREA EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES: ORGANIZATION, PERSONNEL, SERVICES, AND PROGRAM EMPHASIS

Organization: Public Employment Agencies

At the time of our interviews with local office managers of the public employment service, the California Department of Employment was organized in a pattern that has remained relatively unchanged for more than a decade. We found these officials managing "full-functioning" offices that offered both employment and unemployment insurance services, offices that supplied only employment service as was true of a few large metropolitan offices, and specialized "antipoverty" offices such as the Youth and Adult Opportunity Centers. But in any event, the managers were responsible through their District Supervisors to the Area Manpower Administrator. He, in turn, had line responsibility to an Assistant Director of the Department who headed the Division of Public Employment Offices and Benefit Payments. California was divided into four administrative areas with the San Francisco-Oakland and San Jose Metropolitan Areas included within the Coastal Area which, in turn, extended along the western tier of counties from the Oregon boundary to the southern limit of Monterey County.

This organization is now in process of change following passage of California's Human Resources Development Act of 1968 (Stats. 1968, c. 1460) which abolished the Department of Employment and established a Department of Human Resources Development

within the California Health and Welfare Agency. It is not now possible to determine the ultimate impact of this legislation on the organization and functions of the local offices. Major purposes of the law were to consolidate and coordinate the various job training and placement services funded by the federal and state governments and to establish explicit priorities for the allocation of these funds so that they will be used first to assist those in greatest need of training and placement services.

As of October, 1969 the Department of Human Resources Development moved into an interim organizational phase that is to last for approximately nine months, during which new programs and procedures can be evaluated and the necessary adjustments made for the more permanent structure ultimately decided upon. At this writing, the major changes from past practices affecting local offices are as follows. Where employment and unemployment insurance services in those offices were administered under single management at the time of our interviews, they are to be conducted in organizationally separate offices. The activities of the former Department of Employment and the Service Center Program will be knitted together with a new emphasis on serving the disadvantaged. The Job Training, Development and Placement Division that is to manage human resources development centers, service centers and employment service local offices will be divided into northern and southern California regions, erasing the former four-area division of California for purposes of

departmental administration.

These changes, however, will diminish neither the timeliness nor the significance of the responses we obtained from our interviewees regarding their problems, their procedures, and their accomplishments. Despite the departmental reorganization now under way, the problems they described as besetting their communities will demand solution for some time to come. And the procedural defects that troubled them will often be the very ones the new department finds most difficult to overcome in its efforts to achieve a viable structure and an effective performance.

As to the major organizational features characterizing the local offices at the time of our interviews, the public agencies are, first, a branch operation while most private employment agencies are single-unit, individual entities. The former, as a network type of organization, should enjoy certain advantages and suffer some disadvantages. Such an organization permits division of labor among its members and coordianted efforts involving all or several of them beyond the reach of an equal number of independent entities. A headquarters unit can furnish information and various staff services surpassing those that can be provided through voluntary associations of independent members or through such arrangements as franchising. On the minus side, single direction and central control can compel a uniformity of policies and procedures that prevents those accommodations to local circumstances that are often appropriate in activities

whose effectiveness is conditional upon community acceptance.

Specialization of Public Employment Agencies

A measure of specialization does exist among Bay Area public employment offices but it is based more often upon the age or socioeconomic characteristics of applicants served than on the occupational or industrial designation of job openings listed. In general, employment service offices located in communities having Youth Opportunity Centers will not serve applicants under 22 years of age. But with this exception, nine offices or more than half of the 16 sampled served any and all persons applying for jobs at their premises irrespective of occupation, industrial attachment or socioeconomic status. Five, or about one-third were specialized in terms of the age or other characteristics of the applicant. Of these, three were Youth Opportunity Centers or YOC's that assist the young job seeker from 16 through 21 years of age. The other two were multi-office complexes Adult Opportunity Centers. These so-called AOC's serve adults who live within the "poverty areas" where the centers are located and are, therefore, essentially neighborhood employment offices. Only two, or one-eight of the sampled public offices were specialized, as offices, along occupational lines with their respective clienteles divided roughly between white- and blue-collar workers (Table 3-1).

There have been but few attempts to specialize Bay Area

Table 3 - 1

Specialization of Public and Private Employment Agencies by Occupation, Industry, or Worker Characteristic

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Specialization	Public agencies	Private agencies
All agencies		
Number	16	30
Per cent	100.0	100.0
No specialization	56.3	26.7
Specialized	43.7	73.3
By occupation	12.5	73.3
White-collar, all or most occupations	6.3	50.0
White-collar, primarily professional, technical, and managerial	-	6.7
White-collar, primarily clerical	-	3.3
Blue-collar, all or most occupations	6.2	3.3
Domestics	-	3.3
Other occupations	-	6.7
By industry	-	-[a]
By worker characteristic	31.2	-
Age - 16 to 22	18.7	-
Resident of poverty area	12.5	-

[a]In addition to their primary specialization by occupation, 3 private agency offices were also specialized by industry in that they served the selected occupations only within designated industries, namely health services, construction, and aerospace.

public employment offices by occupation or industry, and there is less of this type of differentiation at present than in the past. Today, such offices exist only in San Francisco where population and employment are more concentrated than in any other part of the six-county area. Unlike the private agencies, local offices offer a public service available to all. Accordingly, the "regular" or conventional type of employment offices blanket the state with the boundary of one office coterminous with that of its adjacent offices. The degree of specialization required to develop the necessary expertise in dealing with particular occupations or industries, or to maintain some continuity of employer accounts, is gained through specialization of placement officers within the local office. This internal specialization, and it will be described later, is more necessary and more feasible, of course, for the larger staffs of public employment offices than for the generally much smaller private agencies.

Applicants are served, too, in any local office of the conventional type, irrespective of their place of residence. The territorial boundaries of these offices constrain, rather, the employers who can be directly served. Thus, when traditionally applicant-holding offices such as Berkeley or San Rafael wish to refer their job seekers to job openings in another local office area it is necessary to use "clearance" procedures in order to work on the job orders of employers located in that area. These procedures generally involve checking with the order-holding office prior to referral. Later, it is usually the order-holding

office that contacts the employer and advises the applicant-holding office as to the outcome of the referral. Completely lacking is the independence of the private agency which, as one example, can develop a thriving business of directly referring the white-collar workers resident in the essentially "bedroom" community where it is located to employers in a neighboring industrial town that does not attract professional and technical workers as residents.

Geographic Scope of Operations and Inter-office Relationships: Public Employment Agencies

One indication of this lesser flexibility of the public agencies was afforded when we asked the managers if most of the places of business of employers served by their offices were located in the same city as the local office. Nine of the 16 public office managers, or 56 per cent, answered that the majority of the employers served were local firms as compared with the 43 per cent of the private agencies where the answer was also affirmative. It should be particularly noted, however, that a reply to the effect that the bulk of the establishments served were outside the office's city of location did not mean that a public office was serving firms beyond the local office territory. In fact, every manager who so reported headed an office within whose territory there was more than one city. In no single instance, including even those offices located in "bedroom" areas, was there sufficient clearance activity to ensure

that the predominant number of employers served was in a neighboring labor-demand area which lay beyond their office boundaries.

We pursued our line of inquiry regarding the amount of service the offices were giving to more distant employers by reducing the number of employers in question from "most" to a "significant number" (construed to be ten per cent or more). Even at this modest level, however, there was only minimal indication of breaking across office boundary lines and of cooperating with other offices in order to serve employers in other Bay Area cities (Table 3-2). Although six, or 37 per cent, of the offices reported that a "significant number" of the employers they served were located in other cities of their counties, in not one instance did this statement mean they were serving employers in other local office territories to a significant extent. Of the three local office managers reporting significant activity across county lines, the replies of only two were indicative of such inter-office cooperation because one was actually referring to employers located in a small section of an adjacent county included within his own office's jurisdiction.

When parallel questions were asked concerning the residence of work applicants, managers of 56 per cent of the public offices as compared with 43 per cent of the private agencies replied that "most" of their applicants lived in the city where the office was located. But again, the fact that an office territory might include more than one city was the only factor involved in the

Table 3 - 2

Location of Significant Numbers of the Establishments Served by Public Employment Agencies

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Location	
All agencies	
Number	16
Per cent	100.0
Significant numbers of establishments are:	
Not located in cities other than that of agency's location	43.7
Located in other cities in county	37.5
Located in other cities in Bay Area or in other cities in county and in Bay Area, combined	18.8

answers of those who replied that most of their applicants were from other cities in the county. In no case was a public agency drawing a preponderance of its applicants from beyond its own boundaries. When we asked the managers if a "significant number" of their applicants were residents of other cities, only four of the 11 who stated that significant numbers of their applciants came from other cities in the county or the Bay Area were, in actual fact, attracting job seekers from other local office jurisdictions (Table 3-3). Of these, two offices were in central cities where the sheer weight of labor demand reflected in their local offices could be expected to attract potential in-commuters. Another office was frequented by white-collar workers from a neighboring suburban area that was served by an office catering primarily to industrial workers. A fourth was a Youth Opportunity Center whose manager commented, "Youth is so mobile these days that a significant number of our applicants come from all over the Bay Area." And no managers of the public employment offices with regard to either the employers or the applicants they served believed that the volume of their contacts beyond the confines of the Bay Area was substantial enough to be termed "significant."

We followed our questions to the managers concerning the location of the employers they served and the residence of applicants seeking jobs in their offices with queries designed to explore the extent to which they cooperated with other offices in

Table 3 - 3

Residence of Significant Numbers of Applicants Served by Public Employment Agencies

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Residence of applicants	
All agencies	
Number	16
Per cent	100.0
Significant numbers of applicants are:	
Not residents of cities other than that of agency's location	31.3
Residents of other cities in county	43.7
Residents of other cities in Bay Area or of other cities in county and of Bay Area, combined	25.0

the referral process. The managers' appraisals of the extent to which their offices served employers in other office territories or applicants from across their boundary lines had seemed very modest. In a metropolitan area, where a majority of the larger employers, according to the Institute's Employer Policy Survey, recruited beyond the city where their establishment was located, such parochialism appeared to indicate only minimal inter-office cooperation within the network established by the public service (see Appendix Table C-1).

We sought to determine, therefore, what percentage of all referrals in each of the sample offices involved utilizing the services of other branches of the organization within its own city, within the Bay Area, or outside the Bay Area in order to locate job opportunities for which the office had applicants (Table 3-4).

In interpreting the answers given to this more direct line of questioning, it must be noted that, local office managers took into account two quite different forms of inter-office cooperation. First was the routine type of clearance procedure. In the case of this question about job opportunities, utilizing the services of another office through clearnace meant that an office with an unreferable applicant, presumably in a demand occupation, would scan the lists of unfilled job openings placed in clearance by other offices having unfilled job openings. This inspection would show whether or not job

Table 3 - 4

Per Cent of July 1968 Public Employment Agency Referrals for which Services of Another Office Were Utilized in Locating Job Opportunities for which Applicants Were Available, by Type of Office

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Per cent of referrals for which services of another office utilized	Type of office			
	All agencies	Full-functioning offices	Metropolitan employment service offices	Specialized offices - AOC's and YOC's
July 1968 referrals:				
Number	25,309	9,297	10,455	5,557
Services of no other offices utilized	75.6	90.8	94.7	14.4
Services of offices in same city utilized	18.7	0.0	0.0	85.1
Services of other Bay Area offices utilized	5.7	9.2	5.3	0.6
Services of offices beyond Bay Area utilized	1.1	0.8	1.9	0.0

Note: Per cents will not add to 100.0 as items may be duplicated. Offices may utilize the services of other offices in the same city, in the metropolitan area, and beyond on the same referral.

opportunities were available elsewhere for workers with their applicant's skills. If such were true, cooperative action by the "applicant-holding" and the "order-holding" offices could effect a referral and possibly a placement.

The second type of inter-office cooperation included in the scope of our questioning was that existing between full-functioning offices or metropolitan employment service offices and the Adult or Youth Opportunity Centers located in their cities. Only a few of the full-functioning offices (offices that furnished at the time of our interviews both employment and unemployment insurance services and that usually serve all or a substantial portion of a county) had YOC's within their territories. All of the metropolitan employment service offices (large urban offices that offer only employment service and that may or may not be occupationally or industrially specialized) shared their office territories with YOC's and all but one, with AOC's. In those local office territories where both the conventional type of public employment service office and one or more "antipoverty" offices coexisted, a substantial portion of the orders received by the former type of office was "shared" with the Adult and Youth Opportunity Centers. The proportion of orders shared was dependent at the time of our interviews on the judgment of the managers of the order-receiving offices and their supervisors as to the likelihood that they could be filled by applicants at the AOC's and YOC's. In terms of our questioning,

it was the managers of these Adult and Youth Opportunity Centers who would have reported utilizing the services of the conventional-type offices in order to acquire job openings "to work on," as relatively few job openings are given to them directly by employers.

We found that the large majority, or 76 per cent of the referrals made by all the sample offices in July 1968 involved no cooperation whatever with other offices in order to obtain job opportunities that might be matched against job seekers registered in the applicant-holding office. This percentage, denoting little if any such inter-office action to effect referrals, was particularly high in both the full-functioning and metropolitan offices at 91 and 95 per cent respectively. It was high for both of these types of offices because if there were another office in their respective cities, it was an AOC or YOC that had few if any job opportunities of its own to spare. And this percentage was also high because of their minimal use of clearance procedures in order to locate job opportunities for which these offices' applicants might be qualified. In all, only 6 per cent of all referrals made involve such a breaking through the local-office boundaries to utilize the services of other Bay Area offices. And only one per cent reflected utilizing the services of office outside the Bay Area in order to supplement the applicant-holding office's store of job openings.

We also asked a parallel question as to utilization of the services of other offices for the purpose of locating applicants

who might be qualified for job openings filed in the order-holding office (Table 3-5). The answers given to this question indicated somewhat more joint action by the local offices to obtain applicants than was evidenced in the search for job opportunities. Area-wide, the number of referrals made without benefit of utilizing the services of any other office in the referral action was still in the majority at 63 per cent. As such, this percentage amounted to a smaller proportion of the total than was reported when our question was related to inter-office cooperation to obtain job opportunities. However, this greater degree of joint action was attributable solely to the fact that the order-holding offices were "locating" in the Adult and Youth Opportunity Centers the applicants sent out on a substantial proportion of the job openings they received. The record on utilizing the services of other offices in the Bay Area or outside the Area through clearnace activity in order to find applicants for unfilled job openings was, in fact, slightly lower than it had been to locate job opportunities.

Order-sharing: Public Employment Agencies

It appeared appropriate to explore whether or not there might be problems in the procedures designed to effect inter-office cooperation in the matter of locating job opportunities and applicants for referral purposes. The problems brought forward by our respondents as to order-sharing were legion. No difficulties whatever were mentioned as connected with clearnace procedures at

Table 3 - 5

Per Cent of July 1968 Public Employment Agency Referrals for which Services of Another Office Were Utilized in Locating Applicants for whom Job Opportunities were Open, by Type of Office

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Per cent of referrals for which services of another office utilized	Type of office			
	All agencies	Full-functioning offices	Metropolitan employment service offices	Specialized offices - AOC's and YOC's
July 1968 referrals:				
Number	25,309	9,297	10,455	5,557
Services of no other offices utilized	63.4	67.3	40.4	100.0
Services of offices in same city utilized	34.2	32.1	55.3	0.0
Services of other Bay Area offices utilized	5.0	8.4	4.5	0.0
Services of offices beyond Bay Area utilized	1.3	1.0	2.1	0.0

Note: Per cents will not add to 100.0 as items may be duplicated. Offices may utilize the services of other offices in the same city, in the metropolitan area, and beyond on the same referral.

this point in our questioning. Other sections of our interview schedule, however, had evoked some comments that searching for jobs on the clearance lists or filling out the forms needed to report referrals and advise of placement verification were too time-consuming to encourage much resort to clearance activity except under the most unusual circumstances.

Problems mentioned concerning shared orders between the conventional-type office that had originally received the order from an employer and an Adult or Youth Opportunity Center took several forms. Most of these problems could be subsumed under the comment of the local office manager who said,

> "Order-sharing suffers particularly from all the problems associated with convincing people they should follow established procedures."

Some of the problems described by our respondents went beyond procedural difficulties into aspects of the labor market situation or the nature of economic enterprise that make implementing the policy of order-sharing particularly difficult. But, we will consider first the remarks regarding administrative difficulties which accounted for the bulk of all comments made about order-sharing.

There were variations among the offices in the manner and extent of order-sharing. Not all offices involved in this practice appeared to be sharing their orders to the same extent. As a general rule, however, orders for whatever occupation for which a "young worker" was requested or was acceptable were automatically

transmitted to the Youth Opportunity Center. This generally led to the YOC's receiving all orders except those for professional workers and for journeymen. All orders received were shared with the Adult Opportunity Centers, it appeared, except those for professional workers and for domestics. The latter were regarded as of too low a status to be consonant with the image these centers were attempting to build in their poverty neighborhoods, namely that they offered only "good jobs." Farm labor jobs, for the same reason, were barred also from transmittal to these offices.

Among the procedural problems mentioned as plaguing order-sharing is the difficulty of deciding who is a "young worker." As the manager of one conventional-type employment office asked,

> "Who is a young man or a young woman when you know the employer won't have one? Our order-taker automatically thinks it is anyone under 25. People at the YOC think it's only someone under 18. Our District Supervisor won't let us go in for any supplementary questioning of the employer as to his wishes because this awakens his prejudices against the YOC. So the employer is often sent a younger worker than he will take."

This order-holding office manager's difficulty in correctly guessing the employers' age specifications when they cannot be probed for were echoed, though from a different quarter, by a YOC manager who said,

> "We don't raise the issue of age specifications. But if we send a couple of referrals that the employer turns down and we phone, we usually learn the employer wants someone older and most of the time it's legit. Since it really is, I

> recently throttled an interviewer who would phone and say, 'What's the matter; don't you like kids?'"

Another problem lies in the mechanics of conveying job or orders to the YOC's and the AOC's. The methods used can vary from instantaneous transmittal by teletype of these orders from a large metropolitan office to the daily physical delivery of a typed list. In the latter connection, one manager stated,

> "Our only problem (in connection with order-sharing) is related to the lack of any modern way to handle the transmission of orders. These must all be typed before transmittal so the operation requires a large expenditure of clerical time that could be better used elsewhere."

Speed of transmittal, it was emphasized, was the very essence of profiting from order-sharing so far as the AOC's or YOC's were concerned. An AOC manager remarked,

> "We always suspect that (the order-holding office) don't send us all their orders. But when we check we learn they have. The trouble is that when we refer we find the order is closed. This probably isn't their fault. The problem is that there is just too terribly much pressure on all jobs requiring no skill."

The unseemly haste of referral in order to "get under the wire" before such job openings are closed, in turn, causes some problems with the employer community as well as among the offices. A series of comments will illustrate this problem.

From a YOC manager:

> "In the manpower jungle of _____ with its several offices, there is always a mad scramble to fill every job. We are all too likely to bug our

> employers. Actually there are fewer complaints from employers than squabbles between the offices and it all just can't be helped."

From a metropolitan employment service office:

> "This procedure is a rat's nest that works only in theory. The outreach offices all send referrals at once and tell you afterwards. As a result the employers are flooded with applicants. Sometimes when giving an order he will say, 'don't share it.' When we tell him we must cancel the order. We have lost several good accounts this way."

One official of the Department conceded:

> "It has been impossible to follow the procedures we've set up. Hence, in this town we are going to central order-taking for all the offices. It will have its disadvantages. But it will have its advantages. Employers will need to call only one number. It should stop the over-flooding of employers with applicants because we can have more order-takers and more phones at this central point. Placement officers will be able to get through to this central control before referring (to learn the status of the order). And as orders will go out simultaneously, this should remove once and for all the suspicions against order-holding offices about holding back on orders and premature order-closing."

Some managers indicated there may be economic and social problems impeding the ready acceptance of a policy designed to afford compensatory advantages to those who would otherwise be distinctly disadvantaged. Further, they believed these problems to lie beyond even the powers of central order-taking or, for that matter, computerized data banks to resolve. One of these problems that is more substantive than administrative is the understandable resistance of the employer, particularly the small one, to actions that can injure his competitive position. As

one manager of a metropolitan employment office expressed the thought,

> "We are having real trouble with the smaller employers, particularly the restaurants where so many are on the edge of going under these days. Small employers say they cannot remain solvent using employees who are not job-ready. They say they would rather use private employment agencies or do their own hiring than be sent only under-qualified applicants. Many say if they aren't sent at least some qualified applicants it will be cheaper for them to stop all hiring, get by with what they have, and pay overtime."

Another metropolitan employment service office manager pointed out that when there are more than job openings at a certain skill level those in the lower-middle skill range become, in fact, the disadvantaged workers if the least skilled automatically receive preference. According to this manager, an employment service resorting to "reverse discrimination" must bear considerable blame for departing from the practice of impartially sending the best-qualified worker to fill a job, especially if so few resources are available that all training must be directed to giving "no more than basic education and bottom-level skills."

According to this manager,

> "The end result of various manpower policies as they are now administered is to create a tremendous congestion of job applicants, all at the lowest skill level. There should be far, far more training courses to upgrade the present marginal workers into workers with some special skills. Order-sharing might work if lower-level job vacancies could be created through training

designed to upgrade the labor force at all levels and as a whole."

Mechanized Referral Aids: Public Employment Agencies

A final question asked in our interviews that had implications as to the capabilities of employment agencies to cooperate in their referral activities involved the use of modern equipment. We sought to determine to what extent local office referral procedures were facilitated by such mechanized referral aids as computerized data search and retrieval or a telecommunications network.

At the time of our interviews only one public employment service office in the Bay Area had such equipment available for its use and this use was no longer for the purpose of stimulating and expenditing interarea and interstate clearance among a group of professional and commercial offices as it once had been. Rather, the system as then operating created a "sort of data bank for all professional applicants and job-orders"--estimated to comprise 20 per cent of the office's total referral activity. Under this system, the characteristics of all applicants for professional job openings and the specifications on all such job orders were relayed to central headquarters daily. There, these data were converted to "print-outs" which were returned to the office the following day. This operation not only assisted the placement officers through giving them a computerized matching of the contents of their files but it

also made possible a new type of service to employers.

In those occupations where the use of such a system is feasible and the employers wish the service, the print-outs received by the office are converted, as rapidly as possible, to "mail-outs" that are sent to employers with job orders in the local office. The employer may then make his choice from these lists based on the descriptions they contain of the applicant's characteristics. Because this procedure entails a considerable extra expenditure of time by the placement officer to obtain extremely detailed descriptions both of applicant characteristics and of job order specifications, there must be some "trade-off" with the employer in view of the offices' limited resources. Accordingly, this trade-off means that in those occupations for which the mail-out is used, the office performs no further service for the employer, such as screening applicants against job orders. The manager describing this procedure stated that despite its shortcomings it appeared to be gaining the acceptance of employers and, in any event, order cancellation rates were dropping in those occupations where it was used.

Organization: Private Employment Agencies

Private employment agencies lie outside the public sector, providing employment service to job applicants and to employers on a fee or contract basis. Characteristically they are small, individually-owned enterprises or partnerships and they carry on

their activities as individual entities. However, they may also have branches or operate with or without franchise as members of a larger organization.

In California, the regulation of private agencies, except for nurses' registries (which are under the Division of Labor Law Enforcement, Department of Industrial Relations), is the responsibility of the Bureau of Employment Agencies of the Department of Professional and Vocational Standards. This Bureau administers the Employment Agency Act (Chapter 21, Division 3 of the Business and Professions Code). In carrying out this responsibility, it enforces the act's provisions and the Bureau's regulations relating to the industry concerning such matters as licensing, bonding, fee payments, contracts, and various of the private agencies' procedures. There is in this Bureau the California Advisory Board to the Bureau of Employment Agencies, a seven-member group representing the industry and the public and appointed by the Governor. Among the duties of this Board is the making of policy recommendations important to the public welfare and to the welfare and progress of the industry. Also, the Board advises the Bureau's director concerning the rules and regulations governing the industry.

In addition, the private agencies practice a considerable degree of self-policing through the National Employment Association, of which all of those belonging to the California Employment Association are automatically members. The national association

has adopted a code of ethics (see Appendix C-2) to which all members must subscribe. When violations occur, the Ethics Committee of the Association may discipline the offending member or bring him before the Bureau of Employment Agencies for a review of the charges with the possibility of revocation of license. It should be noted, however, that the majority of all employment agencies are not members of the Associaton. Also, it is difficult to judge the effectiveness of self-policing to the extent that it is practiced.

In this State the educational arm of the Association is the California Institute of Employment Counseling. This group publishes numerous descriptive materials concerning the industry and training manuals for its employees. Examinations are given twice annually that can be taken by the employees of member agencies, and evidences of professional advancement are given those who pass. These are documents attesting the fact that the employee has advanced to the status of Registered Employment Counselor or to the higher grade of Certified Employment Consultant.

The Association includes 300 member agencies in California of which about 125 are in northern California, with most of these concentrated in the Bay Area. A majority of the private agencies sampled in the present study were assoication members. It was evident from our interviews that those members who were not formally affiliated with other agencies sometimes compensated for their lack of such affiliation by basing a considerable degree of cooperation on their membership in the association. Fellow

members might, for example, work together informally to obtain from each other qualified applicants or unfilled job orders as needed.

As indicated previously, private employment agencies may operate as independent entities or they may be affiliated with larger organizations. Our sample of 30 Bay Area private agencies included a more generous proportion of older and larger firms than is characteristic of the industry when all licenses are included. For that reason, our sample is quite probably characterized by a higher proportion of affiliated agencies than would be found among all agencies, with 13 of the 30, or 43 per cent, members of organized groups of agencies. Even among the 17 nonaffiliated agencies or "independent," three frequently operated under informal cooperative arrangements with other agencies, and most of the others appeared to do so as needed.

Of the 13 affiliated agencies in our sample, all but two were franchise-holders in systems that were nationwide in scope and that provided service for an exchange of job orders and applicants. The two affiliated agencies that were not franchise-holders were branch members of larger organizations.

Specialization of Private Employment Agencies

In our earlier mention of the specialization of public employment agencies, it was pointed out that these offices are

seldom specialized, as offices, by the occupations or industries of the applicants they serve. However, they are frequently specialized in order to serve, exclusively, a clientele having defined characteristics such as age or residence in a poverty neighborhood. The reverse is true of the private employment agencies (refer back to Table 3-1).

We found that about three-fourths of the 30 private agencies sampled were specialized and all of these were differentiated by occupation. In contrast, only two of the 16 public agencies divided, between them, service to white-collar or to blue-collar workers, roughly the division of service in effect between these offices. The occupational specialization of the private agencies was such as to favor the white-collar worker very strongly. It is true that one-quarter of these agencies were not specialized and served both office and industrial occupations. But the types of "industrial" jobs they filled were often, in actual fact, "heavy clerical jobs" such as stock clerks and duplicating machine operators. Or the agency, serving a large number of electronics industry employers, supplied electronics technicians and assemblers as well as professional, technical, and clerical personnel to its clients.

The far larger proportion of private than public agencies, specialized by occupation, was almost exclusively devoted to working with white-collar applicants. Fifty per cent of the agencies in our sample served all or most of the white-collar occupations

(professional, generally excluding teachers and nurses, technical, and clerical.) An additional two agencies served professional and technical workers almost exclusively while one was primarily engaged in the referral of clerical applicants. Even the two agencies we have designated as specialized in "other occupations" were primarily engaged in placing professional workers, although they dealt also with workers in other major occupational groups industrially related to the professional workers served. The responses of the private agencies, in fact, amounted to a mirror image of the information supplied by employers for the Institute's earlier Employer Policy Survey. When a sample of large Bay Area employers was questioned as to their most important recruitment channels for workers in various major occupational groups, 40 per cent named private agencies as their most important source of clerical workers; 21 per cent recruited professional and technical workers primarily from them, but only 2 per cent considered private agencies their chief means of obtaining unskilled workers (see Appendix Tables C-3 and C-4).

The private agencies were in total contrast to the public agencies on another count as well. One-third of the latter were specialized in accordance with the age or socioeconomic status of the applicant. None of the private agencies were specialized on the basis of any applicant characteristic other than occupation or industry. Some, however, did report considerable effort, within the total of their operations, to attract and give special service to the entrant worker.

Geographic Scope of Operations and Interoffice Relationships: Private Employment Agencies

The answers to our questions regarding the location of employers and applicants served by the private agencies indicated that the geographic scope of their operations was greater than that of the public agencies. As mentioned, 56 per cent of the public agencies reported that most of the employers and most of the applicants they served were located in the same city as their offices. But even when intercity activity appeared to predominate, it rarely meant breaking through local office boundaries. Less than half, or 43 per cent of the private agencies replied that most of their applicants were located in the same cities as their offices.

A sharper contrast between the pattern of operations of the two types of agencies emerged, however, when we asked about the geographic location or origins of significant numbers of the employers and applicants served by the private agencies. Forty-four per cent of the public agencies had replied that they did not serve significant numbers of establishments outside of the cities where their offices were located. In contrast, only 13 per cent of the private agencies reported this narrow a scope of activities (Table 3-6). The percentage of private agencies reporting that they did not serve significant numbers of employers beyond the confines of their counties was also small at 7 per cent. The great bulk of the private agencies, or 70 per cent, claimed

Table 3 - 6

Location of Significant Numbers of the Establishments Served by Private Employment Agencies

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Location	
All agencies	
Number	16
Per cent	100.0
Significant numbers of establishments are:	
Not located in cities other than that of agency's location	13.3
Located in other cities in county	6.7
Located in other cities in Bay Area or in other cities in county and in Bay Area, combined	70.0
Located in other cities in Bay Area and other cities beyond Bay Area, combined	10.0

that they served significant numbers of establishments beyond county lines (often throughout the Bay Area). And ten per cent said that significant numbers of the employers they served were in other parts of California and out-of-state.

Like the public agencies, the private agencies believed that they drew applicants from a somewhat broader territory than the one whose employers they served. Such a claim would appear likely in an area of heavy inmigration and of much cross-commuting. However, only ten per cent of the private agencies in comparison with 31 per cent of the public offices believed they failed to draw significant numbers of applicants from cities other than that of their own office's location (Table 3-7). Further, only 17 per cent, rather than 44 per cent as in the case of the public agencies, placed their widest area of attraction for a significant number of applicants at the county line. More than half claimed to attract applicants Bay Area-wide, while 20 per cent mentioned areas of origin beyond the six counties for significant numbers of applicants.

We asked the private agencies the same questions about interoffice cooperation that we had asked for the public agencies. Again, we attempted to learn to what extent the private agency utilized the services of other branches of its organization within its own city, within the Bay Area, or outside the Bay Area in locating job opportunities for which the agency had applicants available (Table 3-8).

Table 3 - 7

Location of Significant Numbers of Applicants Served by Private Employment Agencies

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Residence of applicants	
All agencies	
Number	16
Per cent	100.0
Significant number of applicants are:	
Not residents of cities other than that of agency's location	10.0
Residents of other cities in county	16.7
Residents of other cities in Bay Area or of other cities in county and of Bay Area, combined	53.3
Residents of other cities in Bay Area and of other cities beyond Bay Area, combined	20.0

Table 3 - 8

Per Cent of July 1968 Private Employment Agency Referrals for which Services of Another Office Were Utilized in Locating Job Opportunities for which Applicants Were Available, by Type of Office

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Per cent of referrals for which services of another office utilized	Type of office		
	All agencies[a]	Non-affiliated offices	Affiliated offices
July 1968 referrals			
Number	4,983	2,864	2,119
Services of no other offices utilized	86.8	93.4	77.8
Services of offices in same city utilized	0.1	0.0	0.1
Services of other Bay Area offices utilized	11.2	6.6	17.4
Services of offices beyond Bay Area utilized	3.5	0.3	8.2

Note: Per cents will not add to 100.0 as items may be duplicated. Offices may utilize the services of other offices in the same city, in the metropolitan area, and beyond on the same referral.

[a]Includes data for 29 offices as this information was not available for one sampled office (nonaffiliated).

Several of the nonaffiliated agencies mentioned that although there were no "other branches of (their) organizations" they did cooperate with other agencies informally and to varying extents in locating both job opportunities and qualified applicants. It was more within the intent of our question to detect instances of such cooperation than to note the organizational framework within which this joint action occurred. The concept of "branches" therefore was not operative in questioning the private agencies either for this question or for the like inquiry concerning cooperation to find applicants that followed.

At first glance, the amount of cooperative action between private offices to effect referrals appeared even less than had been true of the public service. The large majority of all referrals, 87 per cent, the private agencies responded, had been made without involving the services of any other office. This figure compares with a percentage of 76 per cent described by the public offices. However, these percentages are not, in fact, comparable. Far and away the majority of the referrals that were accomplished by joint action in the public offices, as was mentioned earlier, reflected order-sharing with specialized offices in the same city. Only seven per cent represented clearance activity--a procedure more nearly resembling the operation the private agencies were describing. When this distinction is made, the more valid comparison shows the private agencies obtaining job openings from other private agencies for their unplaced applicants in order to

make 15 per cent of their referrals as compared with seven per cent in the public offices. This percentage rose to 26 per cent in the affiliated agencies and it amounted to a surprising seven per cent for even the "independents"--offices that had neither organizational networks nor formal procedures for effecting such cooperation.

Our parallel question regarding efforts by an "order-holding" private agency to obtain applicants for unfilled job opportunities on hand yielded answers indicative of much the same contrasts (Table 3-9). In this instance, the private agencies failed to turn to any other private agency in a search to find applicants for their unfilled job orders in 94 per cent of all referrals made. However, more than 7 per cent of their referrals did reflect this practice and three per cent of their referrals resulted from a search for applicants in offices beyond the Bay Area. Comparable percentages for the public agencies were six per cent and one per cent respectively. The public agencies' figures concerning joint action of a clearance nature to locate applicants were larger, however, than those recorded for the non-affiliated private agencies. Among these independents, only two per cent of all referrals were attributed to searching for qualified applicants in other private agencies. On the other hand, the affiliated agencies surpassed the record of the public agencies in stating that they did utilize the services of other Bay Area private agencies in order to make seven per cent of their referrals, and that in the case of about another seven per cent they had attempted

Table 3 - 9

Per Cent of July 1968 Private Employment Agency Referrals for which Services of Another Office Were Utilized in Locating Applicants for whom Job Opportunities Were Open, by Type of Office

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Per cent of referrals for which services of another office utilized	Type of office		
	All agencies[a]	Non-affiliated offices	Affiliated offices
July 1968 referrals:			
Number	4,983	2,864	2,119
Services of no other offices utilized	93.8	98.5	87.4
Services of offices in same city utilized	0.1	0.0	0.1
Services of other Bay Area offices utilized	4.0	1.5	7.4
Services of offices beyond Bay Area utilized	3.2	0.3	7.4

Note: Per cents will not add to 100.0 as items may be duplicated. Offices may utilize the services of other offices in the same city, in the metropolitan area, and beyond on the same referral.

[a]Includes data for 29 offices as this information was not available for one sampled office (nonaffiliated).

to obtain qualified applicants in other offices beyond the Bay Area.

Mechanized Referral Aids: Private Employment Agencies

A large proportion of the referrals that involved cooperation among the private employment agencies was facilitated by the use of sophisticated electronics equipment. Even the single public employment office in the Bay Area that had the services of an electronic data-processing unit available to assist in its referral of applicants seldom used this equipment in connection with interarea recruitment. In contrast, 54 per cent of the affiliated private agencies included in our sample made use of such equipment. In one-quarter of these the job-matching process was instantaneous We found local private agencies that through telecommunications network could communicate directly with data banks located in other cities and receive back, instantly, requested information as to the availability of qualified job applicants or of job orders for such applicants. Where a telecommunicator was not in use in the agency office to call the data bank, a local telephone call was made to give job specifications for relay to a data-bank headquarters. The data bank then wired computer print-outs showing locations of those affiliates that had available applicants with the qualifications required to match the order's specifications.

Slower methods that did not make use of computer data banks were also available through the services of some of these nationwide

systems within which job orders and applicants could be exchanged. For example, in some cases resumés were mailed to networks headquarters and matching job orders and their locations in the system were returned by mail or wire. Another procedure involved sending a weekly listing of job orders and applicant specifications to all franchise holders, inviting the agencies to get in touch with each other if there were any indications that placements might be possible.

The two affiliated agencies that were not franchise-holders were branch members of larger organizations. Resumés were regularly mailed to branches, and when it appeared that applicant specifications could be matched to job orders on hand, this matching was attempted.

Personnel, 1960-1968: Public Employment Agencies

It appeared to us that exploring the changes that had occurred in the staffing of public and private employment agencies from 1960 to 1968 might provide information that would constitute an excellent indicator of the impact of new manpower programs and policies on the fortunes and the relative roles of the two types of organizations. We wished, particularly, to determine the amount of staff expansion of each in the Bay Area over these years and how these additional staff members were utilized. In the case of neither type of organization, for various technical reasons, was it a simple matter to collect information that would

permit our drawing rigorously-arrived-at comparisons and conclusions.

As between 1960 and 1968 total employee figures for the 16 local offices included in our sample were reasonably comparable only for the full-functioning offices. These offices offered both employment and unemployment insurance services in July 1960 and were continuing to do so in July 1968. The metropolitan employment service offices, on the other hand, lost their unemployment insurance functions subsequent to 1960 and, in addition, some changed as to their occupational specialization. Also, two of them assumed the employment service functions of small, neighboring offices that no longer existed in 1968 except as claims payment points. The specialized offices such as the Adult and Youth Opportunity Centers, of course, were not in existence in 1960.

With such discontinuities as these in the functions of the local offices when they are viewed individually, changes of staff involving both employment and unemployment insurance personnel cannot be readily described in terms of the sample offices alone.[1] Consequently, the changes that occurred in the total staff resources available to the Bay Area public employment service from July 1960 to July 1968 will be described for the entirety of offices located in this area.

In July 1960, the 17 local offices of the California Department of Employment then located in the six Bay Area counties

employed a total staff of 652 for both employment service and unemployment insurance activities. This staff included a small "squad" of eight seasonal workers attached to the Coastal Area payroll and assigned to various offices as needed. However, the Area staff itself, comprised of administrative, technical, and clerical workers, which totaled 41 at that time, is not included in the above total.

Except for the San Francisco Maritime Claims office, each of this area's local offices was engaged in both employment service and unemployment insurance activities in 1960. And of the Area's local office staff of 652, there were 222 or 34 per cent in nonagricultural employment service activities. The remaining two-thirds were concerned with unemployment insurance operations.

The Department's local office structure was materially changed from its 1960 pattern by July 1968. As of the latter month, there were 36 offices instead of the 17 in operation in 1960. The 1968 total was comprised of only eight full-functioning offices which continued to offer both employment and unemployment insurance services as 16 were doing in 1960. Another four were solely employment service offices in 1968 as was true of none in 1960. In place of the one exclusively claims office of 1960, there were seven in 1968. The trend since 1960 of closing the very small full-functioning offices and of substituting exclusively UI offices in their stead contributed to this growth in number of claims offices. Another contributing factor was a lessening in the

amount of occupational specialization in the metropolitan offices and, at the same time, a consolidation of their unemployment insurance functions in separate UI offices.

Their chief difference from the 1960 organizational pattern by 1968, however, derived from the addition of a group of 17 "offices" that in one way or another were specialized for the war against poverty. These included in July 1968, 12 Youth Opportunity Centers, 2 Adult Opportunity Centers (staffed with employees stationed at some 10 different locations), the Oakland Skill Centers (not in actuality a placement office), and two Service Centers (staffed in part by Department personnel, though not managed by the Department). In all, the six counties' offices in July 1968 employed a total staff of 1,198 as compared with the 652 employees of 1960. This total included employees engaged in both employment service and unemployment insurance activities. And again, this total of 1,198 did not include the employees then on duty at the Coastal Area office which in 1968 numbered 68.

Of the July 1968 six-county local office staff, 845, or 70 per cent, were engaged in employment service activities. Thus, 30 per cent were then in unemployment insurance services in contrast to the two-thirds of the total engaged in that activity eight years earlier. Stated another way, staff for the total area in employment service activities had increased from 222 to 845 or by 356 per cent over these years while the number working in unemployment insurance decreased from 430 to 353 employees.

This very substantial increase in the number of the Department's Bay Area employees in employment service activities, however, should not be construed as representing an equivalent increase in the Department's potential for making placements. "Employment service" in 1968, whether carried on in antipoverty offices or in those of the conventional type had come to include many activities that would not have been regarded as employment service in 1960. In addition, these added services in 1968 were usually extended to a clientele that was not job-ready as were the applicants customarily served in employment service offices in 1960. As one indication, 445 of the 845 Department employees assigned to employment service activities in 1968 were stationed in offices exclusively of the antipoverty variety. And in addition to these, many employees, although working in metropolitan employment service or full-functioning offices, were assigned to what might be called "antipoverty programs" in that they emphasize employability development rather than immediate job placement.

Another indication that the sharp increase in employment service personnel from 1960 to 1968 did not result in an equivalent increase in the agency's potential for placement can be gained by turning to the personnel figures of the 16 offices included in our sample. We have interview data for this group of offices permitting us to estimate rather closely the numbers of employment service personnel in 1960 and in 1968 that were engaged in placement and in counseling activities. The 16 sample offices in 1968 had 673

employees in employment service activities. The comparable figure for 1960 was 217 -- a total accounting for the employment service staff in those of the sample offices that existed in that year, or the staff of offices now closed or recombined of which the sample offices, in new form, are the successors. The gain of 210 per cent in total employment service personnel between 1960 and 1968 for the sample local offices, however, reflects a gain of 270 per cent in the number of counselors (80 in 1968) but of only 85 per cent in placement personnel (275 in 1968). And many among their staffs whom our respondents counted as placement people were, the managers said, in special programs where placements "are few and hard to come by."

As a final question to the managers of the sampled local offices regarding their nonagricultural employment service personnel, we asked how many of these employees were in clerical classifications and how many were in managerial and professional classifications. Clerical workers comprised 14 per cent of the total and the latter, 86 per cent. The percentage of clerical workers in employment service activities was somewhat higher than average for the total of metropolitan employment service offices and lower than average, at 13 per cent, for the total of specialized offices.

Personnel, 1960-1968: Private Employment Agencies

It is not possible to ascertain the amounts by which the number of all Bay Area private employment agencies or the total number of persons at work in these firms has increased in recent years. As

mentioned previously, it is difficult in view of existing data resources and the nature of the industry to construct reasonable estimates as to trends in even the number of Bay Area private agencies, let alone as to the volume of their combined work force.

Based on bits and pieces of information drawn from various sources, however, it seems beyond question that the number of agencies, particularly those with paid employees, was more than half again as large in 1968 as in 1960 (see Appendix Tables C-5 and C-6). This growth in the number of agencies, plus a rise during the same period in the average size of these agencies, appears to have more than doubled the number of employees in a substantial segment of this industry. Developments as to that sector of the industry comprised of very small units are less clear. It does appear probable, however, that their number has not greatly expanded if it has grown at all. And it is certain that the sharp increase both in number of private agencies and agency employees in the Bay Area subsequent to 1960 is largely attributable to a net increase of comparatively large, affiliated agencies.

Employment figures for our sample agencies as of 1960 and 1968 can throw very little light on developments for the entire industry. We do know that 15 of the 30 agencies included in our sample were not in existence in 1960. This doubling would indicate an expansion in the number of units over these years of 100 per cent were it not for the fact that at least some of these business births must have been offset by deaths. We know further, that the 13

of our 15 establishments that were in existence in 1960 and for which we have both 1960 and 1968 personnel figures increased their aggregate employment from 74 to 83 workers, or by only 12 per cent. However, this percentage gain must be rejected as not indicative of the industry as a whole. It does not take into account the employment of the new firms that entered the area subsequent to 1960. Further, the small and medium-sized unaffiliated firms are concentrated in this segment of our sample. According to our sample data and other evidence, it is the larger affiliated agencies which, characteristically, have entered the area since 1960. It is possible to ignore the problem of net versus gross increase of establishments and to aggregate the 1968 employment figures of the 28 sample establishments for which we have employment figures for both 1960 and 1968 (with 15 of them at zero in 1960). If this is done, the total employment figure represented will move from 74 to 199, a percentage rise of 169 per cent. And this gain is far nearer the 214 per cent increase of paid employees that occurred in that portion of the Bay Area private employment agency industry covered by unemployment insurance than the 12 per cent increase experienced by our matched sample of firms. It appears reasonable, therefore, to maintain that the percentage increased of paid workers in Bay Area private agencies which likely approached 200 per cent between 1960 and 1968, was several times over the 31 per cent increase in the total employment of the area during these same years.

Whatever the exact amount of private employment agencies' increase in personnel, we can rest on firmer ground when surveying

their assignment to staff to specific tasks.

As noted in describing 1960-1968 changes in the personnel of public agencies, the 16 sampled local offices increased their employment service staff from 217 to 673 in these years. We have just noted that a comparable figure measuring the amount of increase in the employment of Bay Area private employment agencies cannot be constructed from the data available. To repeat, however, we do know that the 28 of our sampled private agencies whose 1960 employment is known to us (including those whose 1960 employment was zero) represent a volume of employment totaling 74 in 1960 and 199 in 1968.

The fact that the personnel gains experienced by the two types of agencies had a far different effect on the placement potential of each is abundantly evident from the different dispositions that each made of its staff increment. And we can look at the matter only in this way, as it is not possible to construct a base from which the private agencies' percentage gain of placement personnel can be computed.

Of the 456 additional employees gained for employment service work in the 16 sampled public offices over this period, only 126 or 28 per cent were assigned to placement activities--giving those activities the broadest possible definition. Of the 125 employees the 28 sampled private agencies report as having added to the work force of the industry in these years, 109 or 87 per cent were assigned placement duties. And it should be added that those who

were not considered "placement personnel" were almost entirely clerical workers. Often, the private agency managers did not regard these workers as directly enough connected with the mechanics of actual placement to be counted as part of this function, although their activities were essential to its success.

Our question regarding the classification of employment service personnel as in clerical, or in professional and managerial occupations, received nearly the same replies in the private as in the public offices. The public agencies had reported that 14.3 per cent of their employment service staff was comprised of clerical workers, with this percentage at 16.0 in the metropolitan employment service offices.

The private agencies responded that 14.2 per cent of their employees were in clerical occupations. This percentage, however, rose to 16.4 for the affiliated offices. Operations in these offices were generally of considerable volume and complexity, similar to those of the public employment service agencies in the central cities.

Services: Public Employment Agencies

We believed that another indicator of the impact of new manpower programs and policies on employment agency operations might be the services which public and private employment offices provide to applicants and employers at the present time. As both types of agencies place workers and recruit workers for employers, our

questioning involved the services given applicants other than placement and the services provided employers other than recruitment. Were the services afforded by the public employment offices found to differ markedly in character from those provided by the private agencies, we reasoned, this fact should suggest a new direction for the public offices, as both types of agencies concentrated heavily on making placements in 1960. And even if there were defects in our assumptions, an exploration of this type promised, at the least, to shed additional light on the different activities of public and private employment agencies as of the survey date.

Our inquiries of public and private employment agency managers regarding the services they offered job seekers and employers were open-end questions. As an example, we inquired if the agency or service provided other than placement services to job seekers. If the answer was affirmative, we asked for a list of these services.

Structuring our questions in this manner elicited answers that can be misleading in several respects. Confronted with a check list to remind them of all the services a local office must, by law and program directive, be prepared to give its applicants, these managers would undoubtedly have marked off a much larger number of items affirmatively than the number of services they voluntarily named. Thus, the answers given to this question (Table 3-10) cannot be assumed to reflect all of the services provided by either the public or private employment agencies that

Table 3 - 10

Services Other Than Placement Mentioned as Provided to Job Seekers by Public and Private Employment Agency Respondents

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Mentioned services	Per cent mentioning service	
	Public agencies	Private agencies
All agencies		
Number	16	30
Counseling	75.0	90.0
Testing	62.5	63.3
Labor market information	31.3	-
"Employability development"	31.3	-
"Outreach"	31.3	-
Work Incentive Program	25.0	-
Referral to health or psychiatric services	25.0	-
Petty cash, clothes	18.8	-
Referral to training	12.5	-
Resume preparation	-	23.3
Provide office equipment for practice	-	13.3
Other services[a]	18.8	-
No service other than placement provided	-	10.0

Note: Will not add to 100 per cent as most respondents gave more than one answer.

[a] Other services include: referral to Travelers' Aid, CEP, or to "all supportive services that can be imagined."

responded. A further problem related to this structuring of the question is that some managers might use a blanket term such as "outreach" or "employability development" which, in their minds, included a number of items that other respondents listed separately.

To compensate for any potential lack of factual and arithmetic precision in the total of responses given, however, the approach used in this question does introduce an element of priority into the responses. Managers tended to name those services given, either to applicants or to employers, that they regarded as most important after placement or recruitment, as the case might be. Also, faced with the possibilities offered by a free answer, a few respondents used the opportunity to air some pique regarding usage of nomenclature that served to explain an omission. For example, the 25 per cent of all respondents from public agencies who failed to list counseling as a service offered applicants by the agency, was not comprised entirely of managers suffering from memory lapse. Their failure to respond affirmatively reflected a basic difference from the official view as to what constitutes "counseling."

Three-quarters of the local office managers mentioned counseling as a service provided applicants, a higher proportion of the managers than mentioned any other service. Even those who did not give this answer supplied a service <u>they</u> believed to be counseling, but it was furnished by persons who were not officially regarded as able to provide it. As one manager said,

> "Employment Community Workers certainly don't counsel in the purist's sense. However, they do the nitty-gritty counseling that really counts, no matter what the manuals say."

Or, in contrast, some respondents who listed counseling said that this service was given by officially authorized persons and counted as such. However, the respondent did not believe it was really counseling. One stated that "white females with master's degrees cannot get through to black school dropouts even though you call it counseling."

Thus, in interpreting the answers given in the matter of services to applicants and employers, the lists supplied must be considered as less than exhaustive for such reasons as terminological controversy in addition to possible oversight, or a low assessment of priority.

The next highest proportion of managers, or two-thirds, mentioned testing as a service provided applicants. Managers not mentioning this service were preponderantly from the anti-poverty offices where there is a conscious effort to avoid anything smacking of the schoolroom. An exception to this rule, however, was the manager of one such office whose offered service, "employability development," he defined as "coaching applicants on how to pass employers' tests" which he regarded as a form of "remedial education."

One-third of the managers mentioned labor market information as a service other than placement given to applicants. The comparatively low priority given this service in view of the stress laid,

officially, on its provision appears accounted for by two reasons. Some managers, no doubt, assumed its inclusion in the counseling they had already mentioned. Others, and these were the managers of the specialized or antipoverty offices, revealed in their answers to subsequent questions that they did not believe the information which most commonly goes by that name had much relevance to the needs of their applicants. These respondents stressed that their applicants were so greatly in need of an entire gamut of supportive services before they could be considered job-ready that any help related to the job search would be premature. Or they stated that the type of job information needed in their offices had to be so immediate and so detailed that it could scarcely be labeled labor market information. But, whatever the reason, not one respondent from a specialized local office mentioned labor market information as a service given to applicants.

These specialized offices were represented more generously, although they were not alone, in the mention of such services as "employability development," "outreach," and the referral to agencies offering various supportive services. One manager defined "outreach" services as

> "not just dragging applicants in off the streets. It generally means a counselor's working with an already-identified applicant--someone who doesn't show up for an interview or for training or a job. Or it is working with someone who needs special help such as bail or a medical appointment."

Rather surprising was the low priority given referral to training as a service to applicants in view of the public service managers' answers to subsequent questions. Unquestionably the infrequent mention of this service arose more from the scarcity of opportunities to make such referrals than for any lack of appreciation by the respondents as to the importance of this service.

We asked our respondents a similar question regarding employers as to services provided and again asked for a list of these services when the answer was affirmative (Table 3-11).

Slightly more than a third of the managers considered labor market information an additional service they provided employers. The respondents quite obviously were referring to information of widely varying content when they named this service. In some instances the information was defined as data of an "industrial-development" or a "community-planning" type. Or the manager supplied needed facts to support an employer's efforts to obtain a defense contract. More often, however, the respondent was alluding to the type of information regarding wages, customary job specifications, or the likely availability of applicants that an employer planning a recruitment campaign or giving a job order would request.

One quarter of the respondents referred to "industrial services." As a rule, they were pointing to the services provided by the Department's Occupational Analysts who advise employers as to job structuring and job classification. A quarter of the respondents, also, mentioned

Table 3 - 11

Services Other Than Recruitment Mentioned as Provided to Employers by Public and Private Employment Agency Respondents

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Mentioned services	Per cent mentioning service	
	Public agencies	Private agencies
All agencies		
Number	16	30
Labor market information	37.5	26.7
Industrial services	25.0	-
Assistance with government-financed training programs	25.0	-
Applicant-testing	12.5	10.0
Provision of temporary staff	-	10.0
Preparation of advertising	-	10.0
Other services[a]	43.7	20.0
No other service than recruitment provided	18.8	53.3

Note: Will not add to 100 per cent as many respondents gave more than one answer.

[a]"Other services" provided by public agencies include assistance on NAB's program; assistance on immigration procedures, giving information on various federal and state laws, providing post-placement counseling to employees.

"Other services" provided by private agencies include: checking references, space for positive recruitment, personnel and management consulting.

helping employers with government-financed training programs--most usually by referring workers to prime contractors or to individual employers with openings for MDT on-the-job training opportunities.

The testing of applicants was considered a service to employers as well as to applicants by one-eighth of the managers. This view was probably supported by the fact that many of the offices were restricting their testing program largely to those instances where only "tested applicants" were accepted as referrals by the employers.

Generally the miscellany of what we have termed "other services", each one named by at most one or two respondents, involved some species of that service provided so often by the local offices, namely, answering questions as to a wide variety of legal and administrative matters affecting employers. One respondent, however, perceived in a service commonly regarded as benefitting the applicant, a real assist to the employer. He commented on the help it is to those employers opening their doors to workers who are actually not job-ready to have the local office counselor continue his contacts with such workers after they are on the job.

Services: Private Employment Agencies

As in the public offices, the private agency managers most frequently mentioned counseling as the service provided applicants in addition to placement (refer back to Table 3-10). In fact, the 10 per cent who failed to mention this service had reason for the omission in the nature of their referral procedures. In two cases

these offices did provide what a public agency would have regarded as a very complete employment interview that included imparting some knowledge of the job market, and involved a detailed appraisal of the applicant's qualifications. But after this initial contact, referrals were made without the applicant's coming to the office. In the third instance the respondent did not believe his type of applicant required any service other than placement--and most referrals, in any event, resulted from a matching of mailed applications with job orders for highly qualified and specialized workers.

In the private as in the public agencies the variations as to what was regarded as counseling were very wide indeed. And in both types of agencies, its content reflected variations in the needs of the individual office's clientele. Some private agency respondents saw employment counseling primarily as a matter of advising their numerous young applicants for clerical jobs about the correct use of cosmetics, the "right" clothes to wear in their job search, and the particular and often peculiar preferences of the employers to whom they were being referred. But as often, this counseling included a great deal of detailed information concerning the local job market and it might rest upon interest, aptitude and performance testing, which was extensively given in these offices. Particularly in the case of entrant and reentrant workers, there was evidence that real assistance was often given in making a vocational choice.

"Giving labor market information" was not mentioned as a

service provided job seekers by a single private agency respondent--not even by those whose description of the information imparted in their "counseling" most clearly rested upon the mass of data concerning local employers contained in their client folders. It was most often the private agency managers who had at their disposal the very kind of detailed information regarding the labor needs of employers, which they did not call labor market information, that public agency managers, terming it labor market information, said they lacked and desperately needed. In part, the failure of the private agencies to lay claim to giving this service appears to be a matter of terminology. In part it may reflect a difference of approach. The public office manager often saw giving labor market information as a substitute for referral. If enough could be supplied, possibly the applicant could find his own job. Some of the private agency managers did follow this course to a limited extent in the interest of "good public relations." Others, understandably, appeared to regard "labor market information" as part of their stock in trade. It was utilized, as in the public offices, for job development purposes. It was used in counseling to assist the job seeker in appraising his own qualifications in view of the requirements of employers. But it was not dispensed in quantity and gratis to assist the job seeker in an independent search for employment.

Not unexpectedly, none of the private agency respondents mentioned providing their applicants with the types of services that

could be categorized under the headings of "employability development" or assistance in obtaining needed "supportive" services. However, when confronted with another section of our interview schedule, these respondents immediately and invariably grasped the concept of employability development. Further, they described a sizable proportion of their employment counseling as an effort to increase their applicants' potential in this respect.

Almost a quarter of the private agency managers reported assistance in preparing resumes as a service offered to applicants. However, at three of the seven agencies where this service was mentioned, a charge was made for such assistance. Also, 13 per cent of the respondents mentioned making various types of office equipment available to their applicants for practice until the latters' skills were up to required standards for referral.

We also questioned the managers of private agencies regarding their services to employers (refer back to Table 3-11). Slightly more than half of them stated they supplied no other service than recruitment. In contrast, only 18 per cent of the Department's managers whom we questioned made this statement. All of these managers represented Adult or Youth Opportunity Centers and inferred their answer arose from the fact they were entirely "applicant-oriented."

In contrast with their replies concerning services to applicants, the private agency managers most frequently mentioned giving labor market information as an additional service supplied employers. There

was some variation as to the content of the information imparted but most described the data furnished as the kind an employer giving a job order would require. These included facts and figures about prevailing wage rates, customary job specifications, and current labor demand-supply relationships for specific occupations. Some of the respondents stated that they "made surveys" periodically to collect and update information of this type. Several had extensive collections of special studies, reports, and current periodical literature on wages.

The private agency managers' appraisal of the types of information most commonly wanted by employers, similarly to that of the local office managers, accorded with data given us previously by the employers themselves. Judging by the Institute's Employer Policy Survey, employers ascribe greatest relative weight to information concerning current wage rates and labor demand-supply developments in specific occupations when planning their recruitment efforts. The smaller employers, who are particularly likely to utilize the private agencies, placed particular emphasis on their need for wage data.[2]

Small numbers of respondents mentioned a variety of other services supplied to employers. Three noted their testing applicants for employers, and all of these charged for the service. Another three respondents provided temporary staff workers on a hourly basis (a quite separate activity from their employment agencies) and, of course, this service was paid for. Three agencies helped in the

design and preparation of advertising copy and two charged for their assistance. Among those providing "other" services were two that furnished personnel and management consulting services on a fee basis while another manager checked applicant references and was paid for this work.

Program Emphasis: Public Employment Agencies

Responses of public and private agency managers to our questions concerning both the disposition of their staff resources and the services given job seekers and employers pointed to the very different program emphasis of these two types of organizations. Their differences in orientation were confirmed and illustrated when we undertook another line of questioning. We asked the managers to indicate by percent as nearly as possible the proportions of total employment service staff time that were devoted of four major program activities in July 1960 and July 1968. These four activities were employability development, employer relations and placement, manpower employment information, and administrative and technical support.[3] We then requested the reasons for change when the proportions they gave differed significantly as between July 1960 and July 1968.

The impact of recent manpower legislation, together with the changes in employment agency policies and procedures that have followed, can nowhere be seen more graphically then in the answers to these questions. The expenditure of total staff time in the two types of

agencies by major program categories was fairly similar in 1960. By 1968, judging by responses obtained from the small sample of private agencies that could supply program information for both years, these agencies were redirecting their programs to only a minor extent, and this largely in the same direction followed by the public agencies. However, the public agencies were so greatly transformed by the later year that it is entirely obvious the two types of services can now be differentiated by far more criteria than fee payment, or that the one is private-and the other, government-run. It can only be concluded that the private agencies have continued to offer the same services they provided in previous years with some modifications arising from differences in the labor market situation, in social pressures, and in the procedures used to facilitate their operations. In contrast, the public agencies have taken on entire new functions and, quite probably, have turned away from some of their former responsibilities.

A comparison for July 1968 of the expenditure of staff time in the 15 out of 16 sampled public offices that had this information available and in the comparable 29 out of 30 private agencies, showed sharp contrasts of program emphasis between the two types of organizations (Table 3-12).

As of that month, the local offices reported that about one-third of their staff effort was assigned to employer relations and placement. This figure appears corroborated by information obtained in answer to earlier questions. Personnel data for the

Table 3 - 12

Expenditure of Total Staff Time by Program Activity in Public and Private Employment Agencies, July, 1968

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Program activities	Public employment agencies[a]	Private employment agencies
All staff:		
Number[b]	611	198
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Employability development	46.2	12.1
Employer relations and placement	32.7	70.4
Manpower and employment information	6.4	2.2
Administrative and technical support	14.7	15.3

[a]Total staff time considered time of all employees engaged in nonagricultural employment service activities.

[b]Represents personnel of all public and private employment agencies contacted that provided information on program activities.

local offices indicated that 41 per cent of the total number of persons in employment service work were in placement activities, although the managers had stated that considerable time of even these employees was not devoted to "pure placement." In contrast, the private agency respondents estimated that 70 per cent of their staff time, or more than double the proportion mentioned by the local offices, was devoted to employer relations and placement.

The obverse of these contrasting dispositions of staff time is, of course, to be found in the amount of effort given to employability development and to informational activities. The local offices reported almost a half of their staff time spent on employability development; the private agencies' comparable fraction was one-eight. Reflecting the differences in their previous replies concerning the services given to applicants and employers, the public agency managers reported spending only a moderate amount of time on manpower and employment information. But this moderate amount was three times the two per cent reported by the private agencies. The estimates made by both types of organizations as to the time spent on administrative and technical support were remarkably similar, considering the many complaints heard from local office managers concerning the vast amount of "paper-shuffling" that accompanies their numerous reporting responsibilities and their special programs. It can only be assumed that the business activities connected with running a private agency and these agencies' smaller size are the reasons for this similarity. In any event, both public

and private agencies reported about 15 per cent of their time expanded for administrative and technical support in 1968.

The "before and after" contrasts provided by comparing the 1960 and 1968 expenditures of staff time in the public agencies is considerably blunted when we turn to the replies of that group of offices able to make such comparisons. Excluding the Adult and Youth Opportunity Centers from the group of offices reporting the disposition of their time yields a picture, of course, descriptive of the changes which have occurred in the activities of only the conventional-type offices rather than in the operation of the public service as a whole (Table 3-13).

But even the changes which had affected this group of offices by mid-1968 were striking. Time spent on employer relations and placement, which at about 70 per cent in 1960 was not too unlike the performance of the private agencies, had fallen to 45 per cent. The amount of time devoted to employability development was up from 13 to 31 per cent. Informational services, heavier in these offices than in the antipoverty group, had risen from a six to an eight per cent charge on employee time. And administrative and technical support had increased sharply, from 11 to 16 per cent, enough to buttress the above-mentioned complaints of these managers that reporting, and also work supporting special programs, was a rapidly mounting impediment to placement and other activity.

Various reasons were given for these changes in staff activities by the managers who, because their full-functioning or metropolitan

Table 3 - 13

Expenditure of Total Staff Time[a] by Program Activity
in Public Employment Agencies
in July 1960 and July 1968

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Program activities	July 1960	July 1968
All staff		
Number[b]	123	263
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Employability development	13.5	30.8
Employer relations and placement	69.1	44.9
Manpower and employment information	6.0	8.0
Administrative and technical support	11.4	16.3

[a]Total staff time considered time of all employees engaged in nonagricultural employment service activities.

[b]Represents personnel of all public employment agencies contacted that provided program activity information for both 1960 and 1968.

employment services offices existed in 1960, were able to answer our question. But only one reason, not surprisingly, was given as responsible for the increased attention now devoted to employability. This reason, given with total unanimity, was the great increase over 1960 of a wide variety of special programs including, but not limited to, Human Resources Development, the Work Incentive Program, Manpower Development Training, and the Concentrated Employment Program.

The shrinkage of time available for employer relations and placement, of course, reflected the fact that the total of employment service staff had not expanded sufficiently to maintain the placement function at its previous relative level. In none of these conventional-type offices was the aggregate gain in placement personnel more than nominal between 1960 and 1968. In all of them the decrease in its relative importance was considerable. There were, in fact, offices where an actual decrease in placement personnel had occurred over these years, although the labor force in the areas served had gained by more than one-half. Most of these managers volunteered the opinion that the potential for placement services had risen sharply with the industrial expansion and rising employment levels of their communities, while their ability to provide these services had greatly diminished. Meanwhile the effectiveness of the placement staff they had retained was diluted by the demands of special programs. Thus in their view, the relative decreases shown by these percentages reflected even larger declines in placement effectiveness.

The major reason the managers gave for the shrinkage of time available for placement activities, therefore, was a repetition of that held responsible for the increased effort on employability development, namely, the expansion of special programs. The managers, however, then went on to illustrate their contention. In some cases they mentioned a loss of placement staff, or their "best staff" to these special programs with a consequent diminution of the office's ability to make placements. In other instances they pointed to the low placement potential of the Human Resources Development and other programs where placement staff are assigned on a mandatory basis. And there were also comments as to the cumulative and depressive effects on placement activities of a long-dormant employer visiting program.

The slight increase in manpower information activities between 1960 and 1968, for the most part, went unexplained. In general, the gain experienced was too small in any individual office to demand explanation under our definition of "significant" change. Where comments were made, these indicated that the rigid budget controls over this activity characteristic of 1960 had been moderately eased in the ensuing years.

Explanations as to increases in the time devoted to administrative and technical support from 1960 and 1968 again laid responsibility for this development at the door of the new manpower programs. It was mentioned that these programs required more supervisors, more technical staff, and more reporting than was true of the programs to which local offices once were limited.

Program Emphasis: Private Employment Agencies

As already discussed, the distribution of time expended by the staffs of private employment agencies does not appear to have changed appreciably between 1960 and 1968 (Table 3-14). Proportions of staff time devoted to the four major programs' activities under consideration were much the same in 1968 as they had been in 1960 for the small number of our sampled private agencies able to give this information for the two years in question. Moreover, the 1968 performance of the 11 agencies that could report their activities for both years reasonably approximated the time distribution described for 1968 by the 29 offices responding only for the most recent year.

According to these 11 private agencies, the time they spent on employability development did rise between 1960 and 1968. But it rose only from 7 to 11 per cent of the total. Employer relations and placement activities, as in the public agencies, accounted for a smaller proportion of staff time in 1968 than eight years before. But this decline, too, was minor, from 76 to 72 per cent of the total. Activity in producing and disseminating manpower and employment information was nominal at around 4 per cent in the later as in the earlier year. And it would be difficult to maintain that any real change had occurred in the amount of time spent on this activity. Time devoted to administrative and technical support, likewise, remained fairly constant throughout this period at around 13 per cent in the matched group of older offices.

Table 3 - 14

Expenditure of Total Staff Time by Program Activity
in Private Employment Agencies
in July 1960 and July 1968

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Program activities	July 1960	July 1968
All staff:		
Number[a]	62	67
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Employability development	6.6	10.9
Employer relations and placement	76.0	72.1
Manpower and employment information	3.5	3.9
Administrative and technical support	13.9	13.1

[a]Represents personnel of all private employment agencies that provided program activity information for both 1960 and 1968.

Changes in the distribution of staff time in the matched samples of agencies were something less than "significant" in most of the instances where changes were reported. At least a modicum of reasons was volunteered, nonetheless, accounting for these developments. Increases in staff time expended on employability development was universally attributed to the "more counseling time" than is now required. This greater need was, in turn, believed to be the result of a changing labor market. Gaps had widened too speedily between the qualifications possessed by available workers and the specifications placed on job orders by employers to permit the ready job matches characteristic of the easier market of 1960. Private agencies, too, claimed to be frequented by a less well-qualified clientele in 1968 than previously, and many were the remarks about the difficulties of working with the emerging crop of youthful job seekers.

Apart from allusions to the fact that a diminution in the amount of time available for placement will inevitably follow from an increase in the proportion of time required for counseling, we received no comments to explain the slight lessening, relatively, of placement time in recent years. As this decline had been significant for no single private agency, no explanations, actually, were required. The same dearth of reasons accompanied such small changes as had occurred in informational activities or in the administration of these agencies. But, again, in no instance had these changes been substantial.

Findings

Our investigations of the organization, staffing, provision of services, and program emphasis of the Bay Area's public and private employment agencies indicate that the local offices have changed substantially with respect to these matters since 1960 while private agencies, for the most part, have not. Many of the changes evident in the local offices have represented some form of response to the impact on their operations of "special programs." And these programs, in turn, have followed in the wake of the manpower legislation of the sixties.

Our look at the organization of Bay Area public employment offices has shown that in comparison with the private agencies, they exhibit a minimum and a declining amount of specialization by occupation. On the other hand, many offices serving workers with certain characteristics such as their youth or their residence in a defined poverty area have come into being since 1960.

Our findings demonstrate rather than suggest that serious inadequacies exist in those procedures allowing local offices to act cooperatively within a geographic range appropriate to an economically integrated metropolitan area, or beyond area boundaries. Private agencies, and not alone those affiliated in national systems, appear better able to surmount their boundary lines than does the public service. Our data suggest that the private agencies' greater success in this respect is due to their more general access to mechanized referral aids than are available to the public employment offices. offices.

The survey findings assuredly show that no thornier subject can be discussed in most of the conventional-type local offices sharing their job orders with Adult and Youth Opportunity Centers than the very matter of this order-sharing. Moreover, the controversy that this subject excites is but one indicator that there are conflicting viewpoints as to what the goals of the public service should be.[4]

Our efforts to trace the staffing of Bay Area public and private employment agencies in the years since 1960 show that the total number working in each type of organization has expanded appreciably in this period. However, the number added in the public agencies for the placement function has kept pace, relatively, with neither the number put on by the private agencies nor with the area's industrial expansion.

Differences between the services offered to applicants and employers by the public and private employment offices are marked. In particular, the public offices expend a far larger proportion of their efforts on developing their applicants' employability than do the private agencies.

These efforts directed to developing employability by the local offices are, in turn, reflected in an appreciably lesser emphasis on placement than characterizes the private agencies. Further, it is in the years since 1960 that the very different program emphasis of the two types of organizations has developed and widened.

In sum it appears that as a result of the increased responsibilities of the public agencies towards the disadvantaged, a sharp

dichotomy is developing between the functions of the public agencies and those of the private agencies. Our data indicate that there is danger of these differences being even further intensified because the more the public agencies gain the reputation of serving only the less-qualified, the less employers will turn to them. Such a development in the end can be self-defeating.[5] It can lead to a service that is at length unable to help the very groups it seek to assist. Further, it can result in a declining measure of support from those applicants and employers who would benefit from a more neutrally-oriented operation and especially from one that is sufficiently well-financed that the provision of adequate assistance to one group does not mean the withdrawal of services from another.

Footnotes to Section III

1. The source for July 1960 and July 1968 figures for total personnel and nonagricultural employment service personnel for all offices and the sample offices was the Report DE4661, made available by the Coastal Area Office of the California Department of Employment. Where there had been sufficient continuity of organizational structure to warrant an attempt at validating these figures at the time of the local office interviews, this was done. July 1960 and July 1968 figures for placement personnel, on the other hand, were initially obtained during our interviews. Where changes in local office structure cast some doubt on the July 1960 placement personnel figures, obtained from the local offices, these were rechecked against area office records. Thus, both a reporting system based on personnel equivalents (DE4661) and actual payroll records formed the source of our personnel data.

2. Margaret S. Gordon and Margaret Thal-Larsen, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market, Report of the San Francisco Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, Berkeley, July 1969. See pp. 252-260 for a discussion of the various types of labor market information valued by employers and the sources named as useful in supplying needed data.

3. Couching our question in terminology familiar to personnel in the public service conferred the added benefit that the four categories used related their content to the "plans of service" and

the time and fiscal reporting of the local offices. This relationship permitted the managers to give answers having greater precision than if other categories had been used. Because a defined body of work load could be ascribed to each class of functions named, we believe the replies of both public and private agency respondents to be comparable. Managers of the latter type of agency, in any case, expressed no difficulty in categorizing their activities under these general headings.

A complete and detailed listing of the functions contained in each category can be obtained from such internal, operating documents of the public service as Division Notice No. 5125 Q, State of California, Department of Employment, Division of Public Employment Offices and Benefit Payments, Sacramento, California, February 15, 1968. According to the attachments to this Division Notice:

Employability development includes all activities related to identifying and reaching out to individuals not readily employable, and providing the assistance necessary for them to become productive members of the work force. Such activities would include reception, interviewing, and application-taking of persons who are not job-ready; "outreach"; counseling, testing, and referral to training.

Employer relations and placement include all activities related to meeting the manpower needs of employers and the employment needs of job-ready individuals. Such activities encompass the reception, in interviewing, application-taking, and testing of the job-ready. Also included are contacts with employers for order-taking and job development,

referral, placement and verification of placements, and all activities connected with providing various types of information and services to employers.

Manpower and employment information activities include those related to the collection, analysis, and dissemination of job-market data to facilitate planning and decision-making. Included is information to assist individuals in making the best use of their skills and abilities; information to assist employers who need data for recruitment, manpower planning, or plant location; and information for community groups or educators for economic development or school planning.

Administrative and technical support activities include management and supervision, staff training, community services, and various technical services relevant only to the public service. Balancing this latter item was the fact that the private agencies allocated their activities with respect to contract arrangements and fee collection to this general category.

4. For a discussion of the many goals that might be assigned a public employment service in defining its "proper scope of operations and conception of mission," see Richard A. Lester, Manpower Planning in a Free Society, Princeton University Press, Princeton, New Jersey 1966, Chapter 3, "A New Concept of the Employment Service."

5. Herbert S. Parnes, "The Employment Service Task Force Report," Proceedings of the Nineteenth Annual Winter Meeting, Industrial Relations

Research Association, San Francisco, December 28-29, 1966, Madison, Wisconsin 1967, pp. 45-46. The author writes:

> "Equally important is the fact that when the Employment Service attempts conventional placement for individuals on the margin of employability, it jeopardizes its ability to function as a 'mainstream' manpower agency. The 'image' problem of the Employment Service is not exclusively a product of its designation as the 'unemployment office.'"

IV. BAY AREA SCHOOLS: ENROLLMENT, CURRICULUM, COUNSELING, AND PLACEMENT SERVICES

We have attempted in the previous sections to place the schools and also the employment agencies within their Bay Area setting. Inevitably, both have been affected by the social and economic changes that have transformed this area in recent years and by various laws enacted in response to the changing times.

Thus far, we have concentrated on the reactions of public and private employment agencies to these changes in terms of alterations in their staffing, certain of their procedures, the services they offer, and the major emphases of their programs. We will turn in this chapter to the schools discussing, where pertinent to our later concentration on the matter of labor market information, the changes that have recently occurred in the services they offer and in their means of providing them.

In our discussions of employment service, we have not regarded it as within the scope of this survey to elect and defend one or another competing position respecting the broad social goals to be attained through the orientation and implementation of placement and counseling services. Our effort will be equal to skirt certain analogous controversies alive in the field of education and, hence, with repercussions on school counseling. To illustrate, it is not our purpose to cast adrift in arguments as to whether education should serve individual or social ends.[1] Rather, it is our intent to determine what new or expanded demands have been laid

in recent years on those who provide such services as occupational guidance or the design of vocational programs. Also, we hope to learn whether or not such additional pressures, when they have been applied, were accompanied by the resources required to meet them.

These necessary resources are not money and staff time alone. They can also include informational resources, expertise, an appropriate organizational structure, and public understanding and appreciation of the problems faced by employment service and school personnel. Thus, rather than attempting to search out evidence as to the respective merits of public and private employment agencies, the present study is directed, as one example, to determining if program has followed program without provision for the necessary underpinning of an adequate information system basic to making these programs effective. Or as related to the schools, this study will be oriented to determining if the pressures imposed on school counselors by excessive student-counselor ratios have been such that all school counseling suffers, to say nothing of occupational guidance.

With this reiteration of the scope of the present study as it affects our presentation of information on the schools and on school counseling, we will proceed to the latter. Our information about the schools will sometimes, like that concerning employment service, appear peripheral to the major emphasis of this study. Nonetheless, such background material is designed to shed light on the need for, and the production, communication, and use of labor

market information. The systems and subsystems that exist, or that are lacking, to provide for these needs are to be examined across a broader area than at the interface between schools and placement services. We, therefore, have consistently broadened the territory covered in this study beyond that which might be considered immediately relevant to the provision and dissemination of information about the labor market.

Public High Schools: Enrollment

As we have already pointed out, enrollment in Bay Area public high schools increased by 75 per cent from 1960 to 1968 (see Appendix Table B-9). We cannot, of course, look to our 19 sample schools to reflect the magnitude of this increase. School enrollment in an entire area can increase greatly, while that of an individual school expands only moderately. Burgeoning school populations are accommodated by building new facilities, particularly in newly-settled areas, rather than through permitting the unrestricted expansion of older plant. It must be borne in mind, however, that Bay Area school administrators and other school personnel, overall, have been confronted with the problems of rapid change and large-scale growth even though the full impact of this change is not indicated in the attendance figures of individual schools to an anywhere near comparable extent.

Socioeconomic Characteristics of Public High School Enrollment

Nor can we look to our sample of public schools to provide insight into changes in the socioeconomic level of their student bodies from 1960 to 1968. Information as to such status is affected in varying degree by errors of estimate and problems of definition that are compounded by comparisons over time. Our respondents, however, were able with respect to present student bodies, to answer such broad inquiries as, are students drawn primarily (or preponderantly, meaning 90 per cent or more) from one or another of a defined socioeconomic level? As a result we will use with considerable confidence, in cross-classifying our data, such expressions regarding the sample school populations as "preponderantly upper and middle," "primarily upper and middle," and "primarily lower socioeconomic level." And we will use the term, "all socioeconomic levels" when representatives of no socioeconomic level are in the majority (Table 4-1).

The above questioning, when directed to the public high school counseling departments, elicited responses that categorized about one-third of the sampled schools as comprised of students, at least 90 per cent of whom came from middle- and upper-income families. More than half of these student bodies were made up of students, at least 51 per cent of whom came from such families. Slightly more than one-quarter of the schools were characterized as drawing at least a simple majority from families at the lower socioeconomic level. And 15 per cent of the sampled high schools

Table 4 - 1

Estimated Socioeconomic Level of Student Body, by Type of School

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Socioeconomic level[a]	All schools	Type of school: Public high schools	Catholic high schools	Junior colleges
All schools				
Number	31	19	4	8
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
90 per cent or more from middle or upper socioeconomic levels	32.3	31.6	75.0	12.5
51-89 per cent from middle or upper socioeconomic levels	38.6	26.3	25.0	75.0
Not a majority from any single level	9.7	15.8	-	-
51 per cent or more from lower socio-economic level	19.4	26.3	-	12.5

[a]Estimates as to distribution of student bodies by socioeconomic status reflect the counselor's interpretation of school records at his disposal. Size intervals are wide to account for individual variations in the definition of such status. In terms of family income, $4,000 per annum was, in general, the dividing line for lower economic status.

were considered to have student bodies representing a mix of students of all socioeconomic levels with no one level predominating.

A previous caution regarding the representativeness of the sample of schools should be recalled in instances where data are considered in relation to these categories. AFDC data and other evidence indicates that the sample does contain a larger proportion of schools in which children from lower-income families predominate than is representative of the Bay Area as a whole. Also, schools in the newer suburban areas are somewhat under-represented. Although these biases do detract from the overall representativeness of the sample, they will also emphasize the needs and difficulties of Bay Area schools in certain problem areas that are central to this study (see Appendix D-1).

Counseling departments appeared able to reply within acceptable limits of accuracy, as to 1960 as well as 1968, concerning another of our questions related to the composition of their student bodies. We asked, for both years, about the approximate racial composition of the student body.

Racial and Ethnic Characteristics of Public High School Enrollment

Racial and ethnic data supplied for the public high schools in response to this inquiry show both an aggregate and a relative decrease since 1960 in the number of students from what might be termed the "nonminority group" enrolled in the sample schools (Table 4-2). A relative decrease could have been expected because

Table 4 - 2

Estimated Racial and Ethnic Distribution of Students in Public and Catholic High Schools and Per cent Change, 1960/61 and 1968/69

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Racial and ethnic composition	Public high schools			Catholic high schools		
	1960/61	1968/69	Per cent change	1960/61	1968/69	Per cent change
All students[a]						
Number	28,829	30,697		2,656	2,963	
Per cent	100.0	100.0	6.5	100.0	100.0	11.6
Nonminority group	75.0	61.9	-12.0	92.1	83.2	0.8
Minority group	25.0	38.1	61.5	7.9	16.8	135.4
Negro	11.9	21.7	94.0	1.0	3.9	329.6
Spanish-surname	7.0	9.0	36.4	5.9	9.3	74.1
Oriental	5.9	7.0	25.3	0.7	1.7	163.2
Other minority group	0.2	0.4	69.7	0.3	1.9	625.0

[a]Totals include enrollment of only those schools in existence in 1960 and, therefore, able to supply data for both that year and for 1968.

of the percentage increase in the general population of minority groups and their propensity to have larger families. However, this aggregate decrease or substitution of populations in the sample is a reflection of the limitation placed, by space and other constraints, on the growth of the individual sample schools. These, in total, expanded by only 7 per cent, not a generous enough overall rise to permit as sharp an increase as occurred in minority-group students without some shrinkage in the aggregate number of nonminority students. In contrast, the matched sample of Catholic high schools, which increased their total enrollment by 12 per cent from 1960 to 1968, maintained about a constant number of nonminority students over this period, although their position relative to the total declined. Nonetheless, the expansion in the enrollment of minority-group students in the Catholic schools was more than twice as great, relatively, from its small 1960 base, as that which occurred in the sample of public secondary schools. Overall, the sample public high schools showed an increase of more than one-half in the enrollment of minority-group students for the years 1960 to 1968. Negro students led in proportionate increase with a gain of 94 per cent, and they comprised about 22 per cent of the sampled student bodies in 1968. Students with Spanish surnames increased their relative weight in these schools by more than one-third, and in 1968 they approached 10 per cent of the total. Students of Oriental parentage increased in relative number by one quarter, and in 1968 they accounted for 7 per cent of the combined sample enrollment.

As mentioned above, our sample did contain a greater proportion of schools with student bodies drawn primarily from lower socioeconomic levels than is characteristic of all public secondary schools in the area. Nonetheless, it should be noted that schools with student bodies drawn primarily from upper and middle socioeconomic levels accounted for 28 per cent of the increase in minority-group enrollment that occurred in the sample schools from 1960 to 1968. To the extent that this development is typical of schools throughout the area, the matter of occupational guidance for minority-group students will have increasing relevance for all schools as we move into the 1970's.

Public High Schools: Curriculum

Regarding yet another aspect of the composition of high school student bodies, and this only with respect to 1968, we asked concerning the per cent of students that were in academic, vocational, or general programs.

One of the answers given to this inquiry was not surprising in view of the increasing emphasis placed by our society on college attendance (Table 4-3). Almost 60 per cent of all students in the sample public high schools were enrolled in an academic curriculum. It was less to be expected that, despite the increased support given vocational education, 26 per cent were in the "general" curriculum. This program can, perhaps, best be described as one that will permit graduation from high school. However, these graduates

will not be able to meet the entrance requirements usually demanded by a four-year college, nor will they likely have acquired much by way of vocational skills. The remaining 15 per cent of these student bodies were enrolled in a vocational curriculum.

We asked about the nature of current vocational programs and whether or not these were receiving more emphasis than in 1960. The counselors' replies reflected the quadrupling of expenditures for vocational education which has occurred in California since that year -- from $18,586,000 to $79,206,000.[2] Major increases in vocational programs were reported for 28 per cent of the public high schools; moderate increases for another 28 per cent, and minor increases for 22 per cent. Almost all of the 17 per cent where no change in emphasis was indicated, or the 5 per cent with a small decrease in vocational programs were schools with heavy academic enrollment.

Vocational Programs in Public High Schools

Responses describing the nature of current vocational curricula showed that every high school offered courses in at least one occupational area, and in the small number of schools offering courses in but one, that one was in business occupations (Table 4-4). Courses in auto repair, carpentry, metals, and mechanical drawing of various degrees of sophistication were offered by four-fifths or more of the schools. In many cases, carpentry courses actually offered training in wood technology, and metals shops gave

Table 4 - 3

Students in Academic, Vocational, and General Programs, by Type of School

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Program	Type of school		
	Public high schools	Catholic high schools	Junior colleges
All students			
Number	33,252	3,748	52,869
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Academic program	58.7	83.9	63.7
Vocational program	15.0	3.6	36.3
General program	26.3	12.5	-

Table 4 - 4

Public High Schools Offering Vocational Programs, by Type of Program

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of program	Per cent of schools offering programs
All schools: Number	19
Business occupations	100.0
Auto repair and related	89.5
Carpentry and related	89.5
Metals, machine and related	84.2
Mechanical drawing	78.9
Electronics	57.9
Graphic arts	31.6
Health occupations	15.8
Agriculture or horticulture	15.8
Innovative vocational courses	52.6
Other	21.1
No program offered	00.0

machinist training. Mechanical-drawing courses could mean instruction in several specialized drafting fields. More than half the sample high schools reported an electronics program and not one school described it under the older term "electricity," implying electrician training rather than electronics repair. About a third of the schools offered a graphic arts program which in some cases represented training in printing technology.

The frequent upgrading of older-type vocational programs was accompanied, in about half of the schools, by what might be termed "innovative vocational courses." These included such offerings as food technology (FEAST), plastics, aeronautics, computer programming, and the operation and repair of computer-related equipment.

We found almost half of the schools using facilities beyond their own campuses in order to increase their vocational offerings. Two schools, for example, giving the conventional courses on their own campuses, were able to offer an additional wide range of courses including many in the building trades through use of a vocational skill center serving several school districts in the county. Some districts divided courses among the schools, others set up a district vocational school for full- or part-time use by the schools of that district, while others arranged for the cooperative use of facilities in another district.

Work-experience Education in Public High Schools

In contrast to the widespread incidence in Bay Area public high schools of vocational programs that are purely instructional is the comparatively poor showing of vocational work-experience education (Table 4-5). Although such programs have increased in number locally since 1960, there is good reason to believe that the volume of this type of education matches neither the need for it in this area nor the amount available in certain other sections of the country. It should be noted that "vocational work experience" in the public high schools denotes that type of program which combines part-time work performed during the school day and work-related courses. An example is the student working part-time in a service station while enrolled in a course in service-station sales. "General work experience," on the other hand, refers to the student who is working part-time during the school day but whose courses are not work-related. All of the sampled public high schools had general work-experience programs, but less than half offered the combination of work experience and work-related instruction that, according to many of our respondents, provides the most effective means of inducing continued high school attendance. In this connection it appears particularly unfortunate that only one-half of the schools drawing their students primarily from families at the lower socioeconomic level offered work-experience programs.

As mentioned, less than one-half of the sampled schools offered this type of education. The most popular work-experience

Table 4 - 5

Public High Schools Offering Vocational Work-Experience Programs, by Type of Program

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of program	Per cent of schools offering programs
All schools: Number	19
Food preparation and service	26.3
Retail sales	21.1
Agriculture	10.5
Service-station attendant	10.5
Health occupations	5.3
No work-experience education offered	52.6

program was in food preparation and service, with slightly more than one-fourth of the schools involved. Programs in this field were closely followed by those in retail trade and, at some distance, by relatively minor offerings in agriculture, service-station work, and health occupations. No programs in industrial skills were mentioned by our respondents.

These data as to the provision of work-experience programs in the sampled Bay Area high schools would appear to indicate that many of the usual problems inhibiting their expansion are present in this area. The fact that no work-experience education is offered in industrial skills may well reflect the frequent reluctance of employers, as expressed in the Institute's Employer Policy Survey, to hire workers for certain industrial jobs who are under 18 years of age, in view of existing legislation concerning hazardous occupations. The sentiments expressed by several employers in the same survey respecting payment of the minimum wage for work performed by minors may also be a factor as judged by the far-from-general provision of programs in retail sales and food preparation and service. And, besides the problem of a general shortage of jobs that are open to youth, there is the more specific shortage of jobs that can be filled by youth and that also have educational value, the administrative difficulties faced by schools in setting up such programs, and the high degree of cooperation between employers and schools that must exist before such programs can be established. It is, however, possible that passage of the Vocational Education

Amendments of 1968 (Public Law 90-576), with their provision of substantial grants to states wishing to institute or to expand work-education programs, will be of assistance to Bay Area schools, as well as others, in resolving at least some of these problems.

Prospects of Public High School Graduates

In order to place our review of the curricula offered by Bay Area schools into the perspective of their appropriateness when viewed against the prospects of the graduates of these schools, we asked the counseling departments in the sample public high schools approximately what percentage of their graduates could be expected to enter a four-year college, a two-year college, a trade school, the military, or marry and leave the labor market.

Counseling departments, working from school records and in some instances from follow-up studies, estimated the post-graduation prospects of their enrolled seniors for the school year 1968/69 in percentage terms. These percentages were later applied to the number of students who actually graduated. The resulting figures fell well within the range of those developed in the usual study of graduate prospects or expectations (Table 4-6).

For the combined sample schools, 70 per cent of the students were expected to go on to college, 28 per cent of the total to a 4-year college, and 42 per cent to junior college. Anticipations were that an additional 4 per cent would continue their education at a trade school. Only 17 per cent of the total number of graduates

was expected to enter the civilian labor force directly after graduation. The remainder of those not continuing in school would, in the opinion of the counselors enter the military, marry and leave the labor force, or travel for an extended period.

With very few exceptions, the differences that emerge in the post-graduation prospects of these students, when viewed against the student populations of the schools they attended, are those that would be expected. Relatively, more than half again as many graduates from schools attended preponderantly by students from upper- and middle-class families will go on to a 4-year college as will those from schools where the students are primarily from lower socioeconomic-level families. In both types of schools, more students will enter a 2-year than a 4-year college. Relatively twice as many students from schools comprised primarily of students from the lower socioeconomic level will continue their education in trade schools as will students from those schools whose enrollment is characterized preponderantly by students at the upper and middle levels. At the latter schools, 15 per cent can be expected to seek full-time employment directly after graduation, as compared with 27 per cent from schools drawing their student bodies primarily from the lower socioeconomic levels. Of note is the fact our data indicate that, in schools whose students are primarily from the poorest families, the proportion of girls who can be expected to marry and leave the labor force at graduation is three times as great as the comparable proportion of graduates from the most prosperous student

Table 4 - 6

Post-graduation Prospects of Graduates from Public High Schools,
by Socioeconomic Level of Student Body, June 1969

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Post-graduation prospects	All schools	Socioeconomic level of student body			
		Preponderantly upper/middle level	Primarily upper/middle level	All levels	Primarily lower level
All graduates					
Number	8,310	2,504	2,818	1,727	1,261
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Enter a 4-year college	27.8	32.7	26.7	27.6	20.4
Enter a 2-year college	42.0	42.5	49.9	33.1	35.4
Enter a trade school	3.6	2.9	3.8	2.9	5.8
Seek full-time employment	17.5	14.9	10.5	25.9	26.8
Enter the military	3.9	3.6	4.2	3.6	4.2
Marry and withdraw from labor force	4.3	2.2	3.3	6.9	7.4
Other	0.9	1.2	1.6	-	-

Note: Preponderantly upper/middle level = student body comprised of 90 per cent or more students from middle or upper socioeconomic levels. Primarily upper/middle level = 51-89 per cent students from middle or upper socioeconomic levels. All levels = not a majority of students from any single level. Primarily lower level = 51 per cent or more from lower socioeconomic level.

Source: Counselor estimates based on school records or follow-up studies. Percentages given were later applied, by school, to the number of students graduating in mid-1969.

bodies. But most noteworthy, is the indication that 56 per cent of the students graduating from those public high schools whose students are primarily at the lower socioeconomic level are expected to go on to college, whether 4-year or 2-year.

The implications of these data, however, particularly as they relate to the need for occupational counseling in the high schools, should be qualified on at least two counts. First, is the winnowing-out of students before they reach the twelfth grade. One district vocational coordinator stated that the number of students in his district dropping out of school before graduation is equal to the number going on to college. This coordinator's district is admittedly atypical in its above-average concentration of disadvantaged students. Nonetheless, his statement is a reminder that many students who are given no occupational guidance in high school may never receive it.

Another hazard of assuming that the large proportion of college-bound students can justify the frequent postponement of job guidance at the high school level because they are "going to college anyway," is that many who enter college fail to complete their studies. According to a follow-up study of the 1965 graduates in the district containing one of our sample schools, 38 per cent of the students entering a 4-year college and 49 per cent of those going on to junior college did not complete their studies in these schools. Besides, it is leaning on a slender reed to assume that junior-college counselors, often under equally heavy pressures, can give

sufficient occupational planning to compensate for its lack in high school. And these cautions do not include the observation that some assistance in planning general directions for the high school student can assist him in fulfilling while at the secondary level the basic requirements for the program he may wish to undertake in college.

Catholic High Schools: Enrollment

As mentioned earlier, non-Catholic private high schools account for a very small proportion of Bay Area secondary-school enrollment. The Catholic schools, however, have on their rolls 9 per cent of the area's high school students, or a proportion that varies from 4 to 25 per cent of combined total enrollment depending on the county (see Appendix Table A-7). The increase of about 40 per cent from 1960 to 1968 in total Catholic secondary enrollment failed to match the 75 per cent student gain that occurred in the public schools (see Appendix Tables B-11 and B-9). However, in two Bay Area counties, Contra Costa and Santa Clara, the Catholic high schools expanded relatively more than the public schools in this period. For these and other reasons it appeared warranted to include these schools, though not the secular private schools, in our study of vocational preparation and direction in the Bay Area.

Socioeconomic Characteristics of Catholic High School Enrollment

In the main, Catholic high schools are academically-oriented.

Because our study is focussed on the vocational, we attempted not to include in our sample those Catholic schools reputed to be attended only by the most academically able. Notwithstanding this bias towards schools likely to provide at least some vocational direction, three of the four schools in our sample were characterized by student bodies drawn 90 per cent or more from families of middle and upper socioeconomic status. More than half, though less than 90 per cent of the students attending the remaining school, were drawn from such families (refer back to Table 4-1). This fact is, of course, not surprising, for tuition fees are difficult enough even for financially-secure families. However, a system of scholarships has enabled students from low-income families to attend Catholic secondary schools. Depending on the school, these scholarship students account for from 5 to 29 per cent of the enrollment.

Racial and Ethnic Characteristics of Catholic High School Enrollment

As in public high schools, the enrollment of students at Catholic schools from minority-group families increased relatively more from 1960 to 1968 than did the enrollment of all students. Data for those of our sample schools, both public and Catholic, which were in existence in 1960 as well as 1968 indicate some differences as well as similarities in the changes that have occurred as to racial and ethnic composition in the two types of schools (refer back to Table 4-2). In 1960 students from minority-group families accounted for 8 per cent of all enrollment in the sample

Catholic schools, and the large majority of these, at 6 per cent of total enrollment, were students with Spanish surnames. Because comparatively few such students were enrolled in the Catholic high schools in 1960, the relative increase to 1968 of minority-group students in these student bodies has been very much larger in these years than for the public schools. This enrollment, in fact, more than doubled and in 1968 constituted 17 per cent of total enrollment. Spanish-surname students, however, still constitute the largest minority group representing 9 per cent of all students, as compared with equivalent proportions of 4 per cent and 2 per cent for Negro and Oriental students, respectively.

Catholic High Schools: Curriculum

The nature of the programs in which Catholic school students were primarily enrolled substantiated the strong academic bent generally attributed to these schools (refer back to Table 4-3). In contrast to the slightly less than 60 per cent in the academic program that we had found in the public high schools, 84 per cent of the students at the Catholic high schools were in this program. Of the remaining Catholic school students, only 4 per cent were in the vocational program and 12 per cent were in the general program.

In contrast to the public high schools, we found that the Catholic schools were offering fewer vocational courses in 1968 than were open in 1960. But in most of the schools this recent decrease was from "little to almost none." Generally, the decline reflected

dropping shop programs at those schools where they were formerly offered. Such courses as typing, shorthand, bookkeeping, business law, and business math, however, were retained in all the schools including those with all-male enrollment. Mechanical drawing and a course in computer programming were the remaining vocational education offerings.

In discussing the small weight given the vocational program, the respondents emphasized the little interest shown by either students or their parents in other than academic courses. The vocational courses that remained, however, could be justified as valuable for both academic and vocational preparation.

None of the sample Catholic high schools offered a vocational work-experience program or a general work-experience program. Nor was there any feeling that either was needed. Students who wanted part-time work were employed after school hours, and they often found their jobs with the school's help.

Prospects of Catholic High School Graduates

As was also true in the public schools, counseling departments in the Catholic high schools believed themselves able to estimate the post-graduation prospects of their students from data acquired from school records and follow-up studies. Answers to our inquiry concerning these prospects reflect the greater emphasis placed on the academic program by the Catholic schools (Table 4-7). An even higher proportion of Catholic graduates amounting to 88 per cent of

Table 4 - 7

Post-graduation Prospects of Graduates from Catholic High Schools, June 1969

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

All graduates	
Number	799
Per cent	100.0
Enter a 4-year college	43.2
Enter a 2-year college	44.6
Enter a trade school	1.1
Seek full-time employment	7.5
Enter the military	2.2
Marry and withdraw from labor force	0.4
Other	1.0

Source: Counselor estimates based on school records or follow-up studies. Percentages given were later applied, by school, to the number of students graduating in mid-1969.

all these students, as compared with 70 per cent of the public school graduates, was expected to go on to college. Also, members of the college-bound group from the Catholic schools were relatively more likely to enter a 4-year college instead of a junior college than were the public school graduates. The Catholic school counselors estimated that relatively fewer of their graduates than those of the public schools would enter trade schools or the military. And they anticipated that practically none of the girls would marry and leave the labor force directly after graduation.

Junior Colleges: Enrollment

The "junior college explosion" might best describe the type and measure of growth that occurred in these schools from 1960 to 1968. The immensity and rapidity of their enrollment expansion is a fact that is reflected in every facet of their operations. In 1968, there were 14 Bay Area junior colleges as compared with nine in 1960. Enrollment in these schools more than tripled between these years, as compared with an increase of one-fourth in the general population and a gain of three-fourths in the number of its public high school students (see Appendix Table B-10).

Variations in the growth rates of junior college enrollment and of the general population by county indicate that many factors are involved in this expansion including the constraints imposed by the timing of additional facilities' becoming available. The mere fact of rapid growth in the general population, even if of the

suburban variety, was reflected in the growth of junior college enrollment. The two counties with the largest relative increases in population from 1960 to 1968, Santa Clara and Marin, were also the two with the second- and third-greatest relative gains in junior college enrollment (see Appendix Table B-2). However, Alameda County with a relatively slow rate of population growth for the county as a whole, but with both a drift of population to newly-settled suburbs and an upwardly mobile population in its core cities, experienced the most rapid relative growth of junior college enrollment of any county among the six. And San Francisco County most dramatically of all counties reflected the trend towards increasing educational attainment, with its gain of almost 90 per cent in enrollment despite a nearly stationary population from 1960 to 1968. It would appear, therefore, that proportionately more students are attending college than ever before, and whether these students are from suburban or ghetto families, it is the junior colleges which are experiencing the most immediate and heaviest impact of this thrust of the college-bound.

Racial and Ethnic Characteristics of Junior College Enrollment

As in the case of both public and Catholic high school enrollment, there was a much more rapid growth, relatively, of students from minority-group families than of all students in the sample junior colleges from 1960 to 1968 (Table 4-8). Consequently, the proportion of minority-group students in the student bodies of these

Table 4 - 8

Estimated Racial and Ethnic Distribution of Students in Junior Colleges and Per cent Change, 1960/61 and 1968/69

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Racial and ethnic composition	1960/61	1968/69	Per cent change
All students			
Number	23,263	52,869	
Per cent	100.0	100.0	127.3
Nonminority group	82.2	67.7	87.4
Minority group	17.8	32.3	311.0
Negro	8.4	14.7	298.1
Spanish-surname	2.0	5.8	554.5
Oriental	5.9	10.7	313.1
Other minority group	1.5	1.0	49.0

schools rose from 18 per cent to nearly one-third during this period. At the same time the proportion of nonminority-group students to the total fell from 82 to 68 per cent. The relative gains of Spanish-surname and Oriental students in the total enrollment exceeded those of Negro students -- and the latter gained by 298 per cent from 1960 to 1968. While the enrollment of Negro students was rather evenly distributed among six of the eight sample junior colleges in 1968, two of these accounted for 99 per cent of all the Oriental students in the sample schools and two, for 63 per cent of all the Spanish-surname students.

Junior Colleges: Curriculum

The development of the California junior college has been cited more than once as affording an unparalleled opportunity to provide vocational education at a higher level than such instruction could ever attain when offered in the high schools. To others, these colleges have appeared to offer, primarily, an opportunity for additional education in academic subjects to the high school graduate who is 4-year college-bound. Also, the junior college has offered a "second chance" to the college aspirant with a poor high school record.

Vocational Programs in Junior Colleges

Data from this survey could be construed as evidence that the junior colleges are progressing in each of two directions at once.

Overall, there has been an increase from 1960 to 1968 in the number of vocational programs offered and in their enrollment. But 25 per cent of the sample schools offered fewer vocational programs in 1968 than in 1960. The respondents stated that enrollment in vocational programs was declining to the point that some of them were in danger of disappearing. What seems the most likely development in progress, as judged from the detail in our data, is that a "leveling-off" is occurring. The old trade-technical schools are dropping some of their traditional courses. Meanwhile, colleges that were previously academically-oriented in the main show in increasing enrollment in vocational programs.

There are various indications that such a development is in progress. Two recent studies of vocational education in Alameda and Contra Costa Counties showed that 26 per cent of the junior college students in the fall of 1966, were enrolled in vocational-technical majors, but that vocational courses accounted for 34 per cent of all weekly student hours.[3] However, our sample schools showed the more recent enrollment figure of 35 per cent of their students in vocational-technical majors, with an indication that weekly student hours have increased proportionately. One respondent said that there is an increasing tendency for students enrolled in 4-year transfer programs to take sufficient vocational or technical training to obtain a job if they do not continue in school. Another indication of this trend is the small but growing number of programs that offer technical majors which can lead

either to jobs upon their completion, or to admission to 4-year colleges.

In any event, it is obvious from our data that not only is there a sizeable number of vocational offerings in Bay Area junior colleges, especially as compared with the secondary schools (refer back to Table 4-3), but also these programs are no longer in the old "industrial arts" mold (Table 4-9). All of the sample schools offer programs in the major vocational areas. In addition, all of these schools offer a miscellany of "other courses" ranging from the "a" of air-conditioning and aeronautics to the "x-y-z" of x-ray technology as applied in both medical and nonmedical fields. Three-quarters of the schools, also, offer courses that can be described as "innovative." These offerings are in such fields as automatic data processing, telecommunications, and airplane-pilot training. They include training for such occupations as teacher aide, policeman, and fireman and, at two schools, training in the fields of cyto-technology and electro-photo-optics.

Work-Experience Education in Junior Colleges

The junior colleges also exhibit a strong commitment to vocational work experience, that is, to programs that combine part-time jobs in fields in which the student is taking course work with study in those fields. These colleges offer many more such programs than do the high schools, but school officials recognize that in terms of their potential, far more work-experience programs should

Table 4 - 9

Junior Colleges Offering Vocational Programs, by Type of Program

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of program	Per cent of schools offering programs
Business occupations	100.0
Auto repair and related	100.0
Metals, machine technology and related	100.0
Mechanical drawing and drafting	100.0
Electronics	100.0
Health occupations	100.0
Graphic arts	50.0
Carpentry, wood technology and related	37.5
Agriculture or horticulture	25.0
Innovative vocational courses	75.0
Other	100.0
No program offered	00.0

be available. Some of the problems of expanding work-experience programs have already been discussed. Despite difficulties, however, every junior college in our sample offered at least two such programs in mid-1968, and two of the schools had as many as 5 programs each (Table 4-10).

As to work-experience programs, the gap between junior colleges and high schools is not alone in the number of programs offered. Most of the high schools offer vocational training -- often in the same types of courses that typified the old industrial arts programs. The junior colleges offer technical training -- specialized training to prepare the student for work in job clusters rather than for bottom-level jobs in limited occupational areas. Work-experience education in the telecommunications area is an example of the orientation of junior college programs. While the field itself is a specialty, this training may be applied to jobs in communication, instrumentation, control, electronics, or computer technology.

One of the most advanced work-experience programs in the country in the manner employed to combine study and work experience, is to be found at a junior college included in our sample. This cooperative education program is one of two similar programs in California and one of very few in the United States. Under this program, the student matches each half-year of study with a comparable period of work with a selected employer and in a course-related occupation.

Prospects of Junior College "Graduates"

It can scarcely be said that junior colleges have a "grad-

Table 4 - 10

Junior Colleges Offering Vocational Work-Experience Programs, by Type of Program

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of program	Per cent of schools offering programs
Health occupations	100.0
Business occupations	62.5
Retail sales	50.0
Food preparation and service	37.5
Horticulture	25.0
Industrial skills	12.5
Other	37.5
No work experience program offered	00.0

uating class" in the sense that a group of students enters, studies for two years and leaves. Also, it is difficult to speak of drop-outs, for students drop out and then drop back as they attempt to fulfill a variety of educational needs, not necessarily at a single college. Thus, information as to what happens to junior college graduates is scarce and hard to come by.

Counseling departments, however, did know how many of their students entered a 4-year college, but these 34 per cent of their students were not necessarily "graduates." The difficulties of record-keeping for so mobile a population as these young adults made it quite probable that estimates as to any other of their "prospects" would be shaky, indeed.

Public High Schools: Organization and Staffing of Counseling Unit

The various questions we asked, none of them in depth, about the organization and staffing of counseling units in the public high schools were directed towards obtaining some knowledge of the work environment in which they function. Their work load, the way counseling departments are organized, the assistance available to counselors in performing their duties, were all matters we believed might affect their ability to provide occupational guidance among the other numerous tasks assigned them.

We found that in our matched sample of public high schools which were in existence in both 1960 and 1968, enrollment increased by 6.5 per cent over these years. In these same schools, the number

of full-time counselors gained by 143 per cent in this period, while the number of part-time counselors dropped by 58 per cent. Of course, the burden of counseling required because of the radical change in the composition and attitudes of many of the sample student bodies rose substantially in these years, although there is no means to measure this type of change. And personnel figures of this kind are not necessarily indicative of the number of counseling hours actually expended in one year or another. We do know, however, that the average 1968 student-counselor ratio of nearly 350 to one in our sample schools is appreciably above accepted standards.

All of the counselors in the sample schools were credentialed and either counseling full-time with a Pupil Personnel Credential, or part-time with this or with some other standard State credential. A large proportion of the 134 counselors in the sample schools were, as former teachers, counseling on a "postponement of requirements" basis until they could complete all requirements for full certification as counselors.

Two-thirds of the counselors in the sample schools counseled full-time and one-third, part-time. All of the part-time counselors were full-time school employees who included either teaching or administration as their other duty. School specialists such as psychometrists are not included as counselors in our count.

We found that a beginning had been made in using noncredentialed community aides or outside consultants to assist in counseling students from minority groups. One of the sample schools used consul-

tants and another, aides, to help bridge the gap between school and the minority-group student and his community.

School counselors, we learned, are not always directly responsible to a counselor-administrator who can furnish day-to-day professional supervision, help, and direction. In one-fourth of the sample schools the counselors were responsible either directly to the school principal or to one administrator (or to more than one administrator in combination) other than a head counselor.

And the head counselors, or vice-principals in charge of guidance, themselves were often responsible to more than one supervisor. At 28 per cent of the sample schools, the head counselor reported not alone to the principal but additionally to one or more central office administrators, and quite frequently it was two or more. In fact, at one of the sample schools, and it was coeducational as are all public high schools in California, both the counselors and the head counselor were responsible to the Dean of Girls.

Assignment of Students to Public High School Counselors

A variety of techniques are used to assign students to their counselors, and these techniques are said to depend on the needs of the schools. However, one counselor described this process by saying,

> "The only need usually considered is which way will best divide the bodies evenly."

In any event, 68 per cent of our respondents described a system assigning all or part of an entering class to a counselor who counseled that class throughout its high school career. This system was some-

what modified in 21 per cent of the schools, and these had heavy college prep programs, by assigning each counselor a part of each entering class so that he carried, continuously, a group of students from different grade levels. This procedure avoided the extra-heavy burden that would have fallen on one counselor every four years when his entire class needed letters of recommendation and the like. The remaining 11 per cent of the schools consistently assigned each counselor to a specific class so that he characteristically served, for example, as freshman counselor or senior counselor.

Two-thirds of the schools provided for no assigned division of labor among the counseling staff. Judging by their organization of tasks, there appears to be little unanimity among school counseling departments as to the benefits that might accrue by way of acquired expertise, were there more specialization of assignments. Although formal assignments are in terms of general counseling functions in a majority of instances, it is very common for the counselors to assume certain tasks on an informal basis. Such specialization occurs most frequently as to testing, college placement, and occupational guidance. The remaining one-third of the schools assigned both general and specialized functions to each counselor. In half of this third, functions that were relevant to a particular grade level were assigned to the appropriate counselors, such as tests and measurements to the sophomore counselors. The other half of the schools giving specialized assignments simply gave a parti-

cular task, such as college placement or occupational guidance, to a specific counselor who was expected to keep abreast of this function as part of his job as well as his primary duty of general counseling.

Relationships of Public High School Counselors -- Within and Outside the School

In general, it was the belief of the counseling departments we questioned that their relationships with other school personnel were close. Four-fifths of our respondents stated that the counselors worked closely with the teachers, administrators, and other professional staff members of their own schools. A half mentioned that they received much assistance from central office personnel, particularly the district psychologist and the work-experience coordinator. But the degree of their involvement with individuals, groups, or agencies outside the schools was generally volunteered to be very slight.

In answer to our direct question concerning the assistance received by counselors from the public employment service, we received answers indicating a very real diminution of such assistance in recent years. In fact 60 per cent of our respondents quite independently chose to draw comparisons between "before" and "now," pointing to such reductions in service as the fact that GATB's were no longer routinely given the students who needed them, or that interviewers no longer visited the school to talk to seniors about

labor market information or to register them for work. Some counselors said that only those school personnel who knew specifically about the services offered by the agency phoned for help. The newer counselors did not, as these services were no longer publicized. Others explained the situation as based on "State cutbacks," or "cutbacks of DE services."

Almost a third of the public high school counselors replied that they received "no service" from their local office or none except for "sending the kids to the YOC." About 40 per cent of the counselors, however, did mention receiving labor market information from the Department. This information was almost always in the form of published materials, although one instance was reported of a local office representative who came to the school to "talk about jobs." One-fifth of the respondents noted that the Department continued to give the GATB to "students who wanted it" or when the counselor phoned to request that the test be given. A fourth of the counselors mentioned that they sent students in need of jobs to the YOC, but the value placed on the assistance given was slight. In one case, the fact that school counselors had worked at the local YOC during the summer was lauded as having been of the greatest assistance to the entire counseling department for the training opportunity this brief tour of duty had provided. Other services mentioned as given by the Department which assisted the counselors in their activities were the provision of speakers at counselors' meetings and giving proficiency tests to the students in business courses.

As mentioned above, the counselors quite generally maintained that their relationships with outside agencies and groups were slight. They recognized this lack and often held their scarce resources of time and energy responsible for the dearth of contacts they could make and maintain. Such assistance as the counseling staffs received from community groups and from agencies other than the public employment service in connection with their counseling activities came mainly, they reported, from the public service agencies likely to be involved with students outside the school and from private service groups (Table 4-11). The public agencies most frequently mentioned as helpful were local or State mental health agencies, probation, and police departments. Counselors in more than half of the schools volunteered that they had been helped by service clubs such as Rotary, but such help is usually limited to that furnished on specific projects. Most respondents mentioned having been assisted by only one type of organization, but as some mentioned as many as six or seven, the average for the sample was three. We believe a certain degree of priority as to the usefulness of the mentioned sources of assistance to counseling can be derived from the relative frequency of the responses. Our question was open-ended and the replies were, therefore, volunteered.

Provision of Time for Research and of Clerical and Other Help to Public High School Counselors

When we asked what proportion of a counselor's time is

Table 4 - 11

Outside Agencies and Groups Assisting Public High Schools in their Counseling, by the Agencies and Groups Mentioned by Counselors

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Mentioned agency or group	Per cent of schools receiving assistance
Agencies of local or State government (noneducational)[a]	63.2
Local service clubs and groups	52.6
Local colleges or universities	36.8
Federal antipoverty programs	36.8
Local community-action groups	31.6
Individual private employers	15.8
Agencies of local or State government (educational)	15.8
Local business organizations	10.5
Local professional organizations	10.5
Individual members of professions	10.5
Other agencies and groups[b]	36.8
No agency or group mentioned	00.0

[a]Excludes public employment service as this agency was covered by a direct rather than open-ended question.

[b]Other includes Citizens Advisory Committee, GAP (Girls and Parents), Citizens Volunteer Bureau, labor unions, and Boy Scouts.

available to him for research, job surveys, or student follow-up studies as apart from the duties that involve his "seeing" students, teachers, and parents, only 21 per cent of our respondents replied that they were given <u>any</u> time for such activities. Of those schools that did allot the counselor some time for such tasks, none allowed him more than 5 per cent of his working hours. In some instances, central offices did conduct follow-up studies, and counselors occasionally supplied the data for these, but other research in connection with counseling did not appear to be pursued. In some instances, counselors were burdened with various types of data-gathering, but they reported no specific allocation of time or resources was given them for these duties. In consequence, whatever work was done to explore new counseling theories, to conduct experiments that might improve counseling, or to gather data about students or graduates almost invariably resulted in time spent beyond the school day.

School counseling departments quite generally regarded the amount of clerical help furnished them as inadquate. In fact, no clerical help was available to the counselors in 16 per cent of the schools. In another 63 per cent, such assistance was supplied, but the amount was believed insufficient to relieve the counselors of all clerical chores that might more economically have been performed by others. In only 21 per cent of the sample schools did the counselors consider the clerical help they received as sufficient for their needs.

We had a particular interest in ascertaining from whom the

counselors received assistance in collecting and maintaining current information and published materials on changing labor needs and job opportunities, and if they regarded the assistance provided as adequate in amount. According to one-third of the respondents, no such assistance was provided them from within their own schools or by their school districts or the county boards of education. Slightly more than one-half of the counselors mentioned receiving help in the collection and maintenance of occupational labor market information that aided them in their counseling. They cited a variety of sources as giving them this help. Included among these were other counselors, the librarian, and a variety of other departments in their schools. They specified, however, that the amount of assistance received was inadequate. In only 16 per cent of the sample schools did the counselors judge the amount of help they received in this connection to be adequate. Departments making this judgment sometimes received their assistance from the school librarian or a placement officer at their school. However, mentioned as particularly effective in this regard were the work coordinator at the central office and one county board of education which has developed a unique program in the field of labor market information.

Public High Schools: Amount and Nature of Counseling Services

The counseling services a school can offer are primarily affected by the student-counselor ratio. There are other factors,

however, that influence this ratio and, thus affect in turn the quantity or quality of the services that are given. Those schools which must assign an unreasonably large number of students to each counselor cannot offer a variety of counseling services. Little, if any more than the minimum general counseling needed can be given by counselors who are unable to surmount the press of students. But even if the student-counselor ratio is comparatively low, a highly problem-prone student body will necessitate much counseling time per individual student. Again, the number and variety of counseling services offered and possibly the quality of counseling will be low, for the press of student problems will be proportionately heavy.

A publication of the American Personnel and Guidance Association has proposed a standard, with qualifications, of 300 students per counselor.[4] Public high schools in our sample averaged 344 students per counselor, with a range of from 200 to 500 (Table 4-12). If this standard is literally interpreted, only the 21 per cent of our sample schools with student-counselor ratios of from 200 to 300 had a reasonable level of students per counselor, and we must assume that counselors in all the remaining schools were overworked by reason of the sheer volume of students requiring their services.

It is more realistic to state, on the basis of other evidence gained from our interviewing, that some of the counselors included in the 21 per cent of the sample who ostensibly had reasonable work loads actually enjoyed a student-counseling ratio that

Table 4 - 12

Average Number of Students per Full-time Counselor
in Public High Schools,
by Socioeconomic Level of Student Body

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Socioeconomic level	Number of schools	Average number of students per counselor	Range of average
All student bodies	19	344	200-500
90 per cent or more from middle or upper socioeconomic levels	6	374	240-450
51-89 per cent from middle or upper socioeconomic levels	5	390	300-500
Not a majority from any single level	3	273	200-370
51 per cent or more from lower socio-economic level	5	295	280-347

would have been acceptable only in a suburban area with largely college-oriented students. Their counseling, in fact, lacked effectiveness because of the amount of time they had to spend with social workers, parole officers, public health officials, and parents -- plus that spent with students -- merely to hold the latter in school. And where fewer of such problems were present, as in the suburban schools, it was not uncommon to find ratios as high as 450 and 500 students per counselor. Thus, again, the capability to provide effective counseling was impaired. The nature and amount of counseling services offered in the public high schools must, therefore, be viewed more often than not against a background of excessive counseling loads and the organizational limitations we have already described.[5]

We found that the sample counseling departments saw their students, as an overall average, 4.6 times per year. This average ranged from 2 to 12 times per year depending on the school. However, only in 6 per cent of the schools did students see their counselors six or more times. Two visits per year were much more common, and this was the incidence of counseling in one-quarter of the schools. Roughly one-half of all student contacts were required, while the other half occurred at the option of the student. However, as most counselors mentioned a comparatively small number of students account for many of the optional contacts; a considerable number of students see their counselors only when required to do so.

Allocation of Counseling Time in Public High Schools

We asked the counseling departments to estimate the proportions of total staff time in their units spent on various activities. These estimates were, in turn, applied in terms of full-time personnel equivalents to the number of counseling staff members recorded for each school's unit. The general average of these estimates indicates that the largest proportion of counseling time in the public high schools, or 46 per cent, is spent in giving students assistance in purely educational matters (Table 4-13). Help with students' social and personal difficulties ranked next in importance at 19 per cent of total counseling time. "Assisting in planning job futures," or occupational guidance was in third place, while the performance of various administrative duties accounted for the remainder.

It should be pointed out that there were certain inconsistencies in the way that our respondents allotted time between these various categories. The range of counseling theories extant supplies at least some substantiation for each of the opinions expressed, so that we considered these interpretations a matter of the counselors' professional judgment and recorded their estimates as given. As examples, some counselors insisted that helping in "planning job futures" is a matter of getting the student to an appropriate college so he can succeed in future jobs. Thus, the proportion given for this category may be inflated with time more properly recorded under assistance in "purely educational problems."

Table 4 - 13

Estimated Allocation of Public High School Counselors' Time, by Type of Activity and by Socioeconomic Level of Student Body

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Types of activity	All schools	Socioeconomic level of student body: Preponderantly upper/middle level	Primarily upper/middle level	All levels	Primarily lower level
All counselors					
Number[a]	92	28.6	17.3[b]	25.0	21.1
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Assistance in purely educational problems	46.2	51.4	43.7	45.6	42.2
Assistance with social and personal difficulties	18.7	18.6	12.9	20.0	22.0
Assistance in planning job futures	18.0	20.9	9.8	21.3	17.1
Performing administrative duties	16.1	7.9	31.2	12.8	18.7
Other duties	1.0	1.2	2.4	0.3	-

[a]Represents total full-time personnel equivalents.

[b]Data were not supplied for one sample school.

Note: Preponderantly upper/middle level = student body comprised of 90 per cent or more students from middle or upper socioeconomic levels. Primarily upper/middle level = 51-89 per cent students from middle or upper socioeconomic levels. All levels = not a majority of students from any single level. Primarily lower level = 51 per cent or more from lower socioeconomic level.

Several of the counselors believed that "social and personal difficulties" could ill be separated from "purely educational problems," as class scheduling must be done within the framework of what the teachers and students can handle. In these instances, the time spent on "social and personal difficulties" may be underreported. A few counselors believed that such apparent administrative duties as filing grades and maintaining the students' confidential files should be distributed between "purely educational problems" and "social and personal difficulties." We can only hope that inconsistencies, like errors, are off-setting. And they appear to be sufficiently so in this instance that these estimates may be regarded as a rough representation of the distribution of counseling time in the sample schools.

When this estimated time distribution is examined with reference to the socioeconomic levels of the sample schools, a fair degree of uniformity is evident in the distribution of counseling time in schools of all types. One of the sharper differences that appears in these allotments of counseling time, however, is the relatively small proportion of time spent on administrative chores by counselors in schools attended preponderantly by upper- and middle-class students. The administrative time spent by counselors in these schools is in sharp contrast to the far-above-average amount of time spent in schools whose students are drawn primarily, although not preponderantly, from families at upper and middle socioeconomic levels. Comparing these latter schools

with the remainder of the sample gives few clues to explain their wide departure from the average. There appears to be no relationship between the large amount of administrative time spent by these counselors and other variables such as the student-counselor ratio, age of the school district, or college orientation of the school. The one set of variables that presents a possible explanation for the low per cent of time expended on these chores in schools attended preponderantly by students of upper and middle socioeconomic level is that a combination of suburban area and college orientation tend to drive down the time allocated to administrative duties. Simply put, it can be surmised that the taxpayers in suburban, college-oriented school districts are willing to see money spent for the administrative support of their high school counselors.

In any event, it is quite apparent that counseling departments typified by far-above-average time expenditures on the performance of administrative duties will inevitably have less time, relatively, to assist students either in planning their job futures or, for that matter, in helping them with their social and personal difficulties.

Another unaccounted-for matter in these percentage distributions is the small variation that exists between the relative amounts of time spent by counselors on "social and personal difficulties" in the schools drawing their students primarily from the lower socioeconomic levels and that spent in other types of schools. It could be argued that counselors in schools at the

lower socioeconomic level tend to under-report this activity because they regard "just keeping the student in school" as a "purely educational" problem. And, further, as it is often beyond the school's capacity to resolve these problems, many will be given over to outside agencies for their resolution. Or it may be that students from middle and upper socioeconomic backgrounds are as plagued by social and personal difficulties as are students from less prosperous families.

Public High Schools: Nature and Adequacy of School Placement Services

Before reviewing our survey data concerning the presence or absence of high school placement services, it might serve to place this information in truer perspective if it were recalled that, on the average, only 17 per cent of the graduates were expected by their counselors to seek full-time employment upon graduation. However, this proportion did rise to 27 per cent in schools whose students came primarily from families at lower socioeconomic levels. We collected no data as to the number of students seeking temporary jobs, but we do know that this figure runs into the tens of thousands during the summer months in the Bay Area, as in other major metropolitan areas.

We found that what might be called a "placement service" in any of the sample high schools where such could be said to exist was a small, fragmented, and usually tenuous operation.

Only two of the sample high schools had a designated placement officer. His services were regarded as at least minimally adequate by the counselors at both schools so far as temporary jobs were concerned. However, his help was regarded as adequate to student needs for permanent jobs at only one of these schools. Again, the school counselor or the dean assisted in finding temporary jobs at two schools, but in neither instance were their efforts considered as meeting the need for this service.

The work-experience coordinator extended his services to the general student body in about half of the sample schools with respect to temporary job-finding, and to all students in two-thirds of the schools when permanent jobs were sought. Neither for temporary nor for permanent jobs were his efforts believed adequate to meet the needs of the general student body in more than 10 per cent of the sample schools. When only his placement work in connection with work-experience students was under consideration, about half the counselors regarded it as adequate to meet these particular students' needs for temporary jobs during the school day. And in about one-third of these cases it was believed he could perform adequate service in finding work-experience students career-type jobs. Vocational education teachers, too, helped in placing limited groups of students. In none of the three schools where they performed this function with respect to temporary work were these teachers thought by the counselors to be meeting the job needs of even their own students. In the one sample school

where a vocational teacher was reported as finding permanent jobs for his students, his efforts were considered at least minimally adequate.

It should be noted immediately that the litany of adverse comments made concerning the adequacy of the placement services furnished in the sample high schools was in no case intended as any reflection on the efforts made by these various school employees. In some cases there was a belief that with more generous resources for placement service a more adequate job could be done. But, far more often voiced was the opinion that the real problem in filling the placement needs of high school students and graduates was the lack of job openings for them or, at least, of opportunities which the schools could locate.

Some counselors took into account this same factor, the shortage of jobs for high school youth, when they commented on the availability of placement services outside the schools for their students. A few who characterized as inadequate the services of the public employment agencies referred to the general shortage of jobs for youth as a reason for this inadequacy.

Relationship with Public Employment Service of Public High School Placement Services

Half of the respondents claimed that the services of the public agencies were not even available to their student bodies in any real sense. Most often they claimed that such service was

"not offered" their students because of the distance of the nearest local office from their school. Another factor involved in these references to the nonavailability of services for high school students in the local offices is best indicated by the comment of one counselor,

> "A few years ago we had an excellent relationship with the Department but now it is a waste of time to send the kids to the office. They don't have many jobs, and they don't help if you aren't poor."

This comment can be paired with a remark of the manager of the public employment agency that serves the area in which the above school is located. The manager volunteered,

> "High school students can come to this office but not much will be done for them unless they are minority-group students or potential dropouts. There is just not enough time to go around."

Another local office manager expressed something of the same thought in connection with his review of the sharp cutbacks he had been forced to make in the services he had previously offered in finding temporary jobs, mainly of the service variety, for the youth of his suburban area. He said in this regard,

> "We used to send our people out to the school once a week. Now that we can't come they are hiring more help such as work coordinators. This system is probably more expensive and I doubt if the students are getting as good service. In some of these schools all they do is post the jobs, as they come in, on their bulletin boards. All of this happens because offices like ours just don't get any budget help these days for the problems of <u>our</u> kind of areas."

In yet another local-office area where there was not only the problem

occasioned by a lack of resources to deal with the job needs of middle-class suburban youth but also the problem of distance between the local office and certain school districts, parental worry over youthful delinquency had brought about a specially-funded project in which the local office was participating. The manager said of this project,

> "Even in a home area like _____, we have been able to find temporary jobs for those kids when we are given enough funds to try."

As mentioned, the matter of distance to the nearest local office was the most frequently-made comment by the counselors when they sought to explain the "nonavailability" of placement help from the public service or its inadequacy. The manager of one Youth Opportunity Center was particularly concerned about his inability to serve disadvantaged youth in certain sections of his office territory. He commented,

> "The poor transportation to _____means that a whole district is cut off from us and particularly its pockets of poverty. Recently we have been able to arrange itinerant service at the claims office there. Many of the kids are now coming to us. The principal wants us to come to the school there, but we think we need the amount of self-screening we get by having the youngsters come to the office."

Discussions of another matter than the shortage of jobs for youth, the distance between some local offices and some schools, and the present orientation of the services offered by the local offices appears in point in any description of the relationships existing between the schools and the public employment service. Namely,

it would appear to the most casual observer that in some localities increased communication between schools and public agencies might well be to the benefit of the youth both are commissioned to serve.

Counselor comments such as the following were made during out interviews --

> "We don't use the DE, but it is probably because we have not asked for it,"
>
> or
>
> "We used to have a great relationship with the ES when they came out to the school, but when their funds were cut and they couldn't come, the kids didn't get served any more."

And, at the same time we heard from local office managers such comments as,

> "We could help a lot more students than we are getting,"
>
> or
>
> "Those school people are all new. Because they are new they don't relate to DE. They would never think to refer a kid in -- in any case, we don't have them coming in."

At this point we should no doubt emphasize that the present study was not specifically designed to explore the degree of rapport that exists between schools and public employment service offices. Consequently, we are dealing solely with volunteered comments in this matter and lack the data to evaluate any of these opinions. Nonetheless, both the frequency and the warmth with which certain comments were expressed would indicate that a certain lack of communication between some schools and some local offices is a factor worth noting when considering the community's capabilities

for offering placement service to its youth.

A final source of jobs that can be helpful for students needing temporary work was mentioned by school counselors. Some mentioned the Neighborhood Youth Corps. One-quarter of the counselors noted it as providing such a service. But at only one school was this program judged adequate to the need existing for such help.

Catholic High Schools: Organization and Staffing of Counseling Unit

Three major differences relating to the conduct of their counseling activities distinguish the public and Catholic high schools in our sample. Most significant is the difference that the large majority of Catholic school counselors are members of religious orders. As informal or formal sacramental representatives of the Church, therefore, they can be expected to have a different type of relationship to their counselees than would characterize a secular organization lacking the school-church structure. Second, all of the sample Catholic-school counselors counseled part-time while most in the public schools counseled full-time. Other duties of the former were teaching and administration. A third major difference was that 66 per cent of the Catholic high school counselors were not credentialed as contrasted with the public schools, where all counselors were certificated. The Catholic school counselors, however, receive training in problems of human relations as part of their religious instruction.

From 1960 to 1968, the number of counselors increased, in the three schools in our sample that existed in the earlier year, from 4 full-time and 4 part-time counselors to 22, all of whom counseled part-time. During this same period, enrollment in these three schools gained by 12 per cent.

As to the organization of the Catholic counseling departments, all counselors were directly responsible to an immediate line supervisor, either the head counselor or the vice-principal of guidance. All of these supervisors, in turn, were responsible to the school principal or vice-principal.

The usual method in the sample high schools was to assign the counselors to one grade level on a permanent basis so that there was a freshman counselor or a sophomore counselor as the case might be. In one school that proved the exception, counselors were assigned to an entering class and counseled that class throughout its career. None of the Catholic schools assigned special functions to their counselors except as these functions attached to a particular grade level. The senior-class counselor, for example, was given the special task of college relations. But, like their counterparts in the public schools, these counselors assumed various specialized duties by reason of their interests and expertise. It appeared in some cases that expertise in such areas as vocational counseling and psychological testing has been acquired by virtue of spending immense amounts of after-hours time on these subjects. This corrective for overly-slender resources, it appears, can be

more readily undertaken by the members of religious orders than by counselors with the usual responsibilities associated with participation in a lay society. In any case, an informal rather than directed division of labor as to certain counseling specialties did permit the Catholic school counselors to maximize the experience and special knowledge of certain individuals, however gained, to the benefit of the collective performance of their departments.

Relationships of Catholic High School Counselors -- Within and Outside the School

Counselors in the Catholic high schools reported that they maintained close working relationships with other personnel in their own schools. Relationships, however, appeared to be less close with the central office staff of their diocese or archdiocese. Rather, in all school matters except certain of those relating to business and property, they turned to higher levels in their own religious orders. Like many of their counterparts in the public high schools, they responded that their contacts with the general community outside the school were slight.

All of the Catholic high school counselors mentioned receiving labor market information from the public employment service and all of them regarded the publications they were sent as helpful in their counseling. They made the point, however, that this information represented the only help they were given. The placement service of the agency was seldom used and when it was, the assistance given

the students was regarded as small.

When we asked about the help received by the Catholic high school counselors from sources other than the public employment service, we found that two factors were present to mitigate their isolation from the community -- typical of counselors in both these and the public schools. They did maintain extensive contacts with persons in business, labor, and government who were graduates of their own schools; with Catholic service organizations; and with the Catholic members of business organizations, service groups, private companies, and professional organizations. Further, the Catholic high schools had available to them the resources of all of the colleges and the noneducational agencies under the control of the archbishop of their areas. Thus, they had a special claim upon the various supportive services that could be furnished by such organizations as Catholic hospitals and mental clinics, and Catholic colleges and universities. In addition, the Catholic schools, as the public, utilized the support of juvenile hall, public health, the police department, and public colleges and universities. Further, the counselors mentioned such sources of assistance in their counseling activities as the military, unions, and the school PTA.

The list of resources available to counselors in the Catholic schools is impressive. Their ability to utilize resources having the informal character typical of many of them, however, places much emphasis on individual contacts. And it takes time to discover such resources and to develop individual contacts. Thus we

found that the counselor mentioning the fewest outside organizations as supplying assistance to his counseling department represented a relatively new school. The department mentioning the largest number had on its staff a counselor who had built up his contacts for 30 years.

Provision of Time for Research and of Clerical and Other Help to Catholic School Counselors

We found that none of the counselors in the sample Catholic schools were allotted working time for research or to conduct follow-up studies. In these schools as in the great majority of the public schools, when such work was performed it was accomplished in addition to a full measure of regular duties. Also, as we found in the public high schools, counselor evaluations of the amount of clerical help supplied to them covered the range of "adequate," "not adequate," and "none." A larger percentage of Catholic than of public high school counseling departments, however, did report that the help they received was adequate.

Counselors in three-fourths of the Catholic schools stated that they received adequate help in collecting and maintaining information on changing occupational needs, as compared with about half of the public school counselors. Mentioned as supplying this help were other counselors, the school librarian, and the central administrative office.

Catholic High Schools: Amount and Nature of Counseling Services

In contrast to those of the public schools, the student-counselor ratios reported for the Catholic schools, on the average, were below the previously-mentioned standard of 300 to one. The sample Catholic high schools averaged 249 students per counselor. All but one were under 300, and there were plans to reduce the 380-to-one ratio of this single school to a more acceptable level. When one of the respondents was queried additionally concerning his school's student-counselor ratio of 115 to one, he replied,

> "Our order has had 400 years of experience at correcting our mistakes, and this ratio is one of those corrections."

The sample Catholic-school counselors averaged four student contacts per year, slightly fewer than the 4.6 average of the public schools. The range of averages reported for the individual Catholic schools at from 3 to 5 student visits per year, however, was far more narrow than the 2 to 12 contacts per year reported for the public schools. Two-thirds of all student-counseling interviews in the Catholic schools were required rather than optional, as compared with 43 per cent in the public schools. As a few students can account for a large proportion of all optional contacts, it could be inferred from the low student-counselor ratio and comparatively high proportion of required contacts, that more students are receiving more counseling in the Catholic than in the public high schools, despite the somewhat lower average of student contacts of the former.

Allocation of Counseling Time in Catholic High Schools

The average allocation of counseling time by major activity in the Catholic schools was markedly different from that of the public schools (Table 4-14). Relatively more time, at 29 per cent, was expended on assistance with social and personal difficulties by the Catholic school counselors than in the public schools, including even those of the latter whose students were drawn primarily from lower socioeconomic levels. Also, relatively more time was devoted by the Catholic school counselor to assisting their students in planning their job futures than was reported for the public schools, despite the greater likelihood the Catholic school students would go on to college. The obverse of the considerably greater proportions of time spent on these two activities was, of course, a shrinkage of the amount of time remaining for other counseling tasks. Thus, less than a third of the Catholic counselor's time was allocated, as an average for the sample schools, to assisting students with their purely educational problems such as class scheduling and planning for college entrance, as compared with the 46 per cent average for the public schools. And the time given by the Catholic-school counselors to performing administrative tasks connected with counseling was somewhat less than in the public schools.

Catholic High Schools: Nature and Adequacy of School Placement Service

As mentioned above, an even smaller proportion of graduates

Table 4 - 14

Estimated Allocation of Catholic High School Counselors' Time, by Type of Activity

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Types of activity	Per cent of counseling time
All counselors	
Number[a]	18
Per cent	100.0
Assistance in purely educational problems	31.3
Assistance with social and personal difficulties	29.5
Assistance in planning job futures	24.0
Performing administrative duties	15.2

[a]Represents full-time personnel equivalents.

from the Catholic high schools than the public schools seek work directly after graduation. But those who do wish work during school or after graduation are likely to find a job through the placement service of their schools.

Personnel in all of the sample schools had been assigned to act as part-time placement officers. These officers, however, relied very largely on their own personal contacts both in private industry and the civil service to find part-time or permanent jobs, as needed, for their students. Whatever the methods of job development employed, though, they were sufficiently successful that the counselors regarded the placement services given by their schools as adequate to the students' needs for placement.

The Catholic high school counselors, like the public, reported minimal use of outside agencies to assist them in placing their students on jobs. The single school that did use the public service to any extent was the one previously mentioned which, because of its newness, lacked the wealth of individual community contacts possessed by the older institutions. And the counselor at this school believed its students were largely ignored because "they are not really poor."

Junior Colleges: Organization and Staffing of the Counseling Unit

In the junior colleges as in the public high schools, all counselors must be credentialed -- and with the Pupil Personnel Credential -- if they are to counsel full-time. We found the degree

to which counselors are credentialed and the nature of their assignments similar to the situation in the public high schools. Averaging responses from seven of the eight sample colleges indicates that counselors having the Pupil Personnel Credential accounted for three-fourths of all counselors. And two-thirds of these staffs counseled full-time. The remaining college had taken quite a different approach in the organization of the counseling function. In this school each of its 50 departments had chosen a special counselor who primarily taught but also counseled part-time in his own department.

Three-quarters of the counseling departments reported that the counselor was directly responsible to the chairman of that department or to an assistant or associate dean. In all cases, the counseling supervisor was responsible to an immediate line supervisor who was usually the dean of students, thus avoiding the multiplicity of lines of authority which we found characterized so many of the public high schools.

Assignment of Students to Junior College Counselors

Counselors are not assigned a specific class for the duration, as in many high schools, because of the mobility of the junior-college student. In all of these schools, the counselor did take on a portion of an in-coming class. However, that counselor might or might not retain a specific student for the latter's entire two years, or resume as his counselor after the student's

return from an extended absence. But whether the student chose his counselor or was assigned one, he could change counselors when he wished. In a fourth of the schools, the students were permitted to draw up their own programs after the first semester. Seeing a counselor was optional although the department chairman's approval of the student's program was required.

Specialization of counseling functions was widely practiced in the junior colleges. In all but one, counselors were assigned specific functions in addition to their general counseling duties. In the one exception, some counselors exercising particular counseling functions did no general counseling, while some of the general counselors voluntarily assumed particular specialties. The more common special assignments included: foreign-student advisor, subject-area advisor, financial aid counselor, career planning counselor, minority-group student counselor, counselor for women, mobile counselor in the community, and such others as psychologist and psychometrist.

Relationships of Junior College Counselors -- Within and Outside the Schools

Most of the counseling departments reported close relationships with other departments in the college. This satisfactory state of affairs appeared to stem from the existence of officially-designated liaison relationships between the counselors and the subject-area departments. The fourth of our respondents describing their

interdepartmental relationships as less satisfactory lacked formal channels of communication between teaching and counseling departments and relied on informal contacts with teachers and administrators. Relationships with the central offices of junior college districts were not reported as particularly close because of the large degree of autonomy enjoyed by the sample colleges.

All of the junior college counseling departments reported that they looked "outside" to the public employment service for some assistance in their counseling activities. And all of the respondents mentioned their receiving labor market information as the assistance which was given them. In most cases they were alluding to such published materials as the Occupational Guides. However, they also referred most favorably to personal contacts with Department people which had taken such forms as an outstationed interviewer in the school counseling department or a new employee who had been hired from the Department's staff. The help of the local office in student placement was also mentioned. This assistance, however, was specified as given to the school's placement office rather than to the counseling department.

Some of the junior college counselors volunteered the opinion that a close relationship between a college and its community is indispensable not only to the adequacy of its counseling but also to the functioning of the school. In answer to our specific question concerning which agencies and groups in the community other than the public employment service were of assistance at least in connection

with the counselor's activities, numerous sources of help were specified (Table 4-15). As our question was open-ended, the replies included only those agencies and groups the counselors believed sufficiently helpful to be worth mentioning.

As was also true of the high school counselors, first among those mentioned were various agencies of State and local government such as the welfare agencies, public health, and the local police departments. The assistance of one or more organizations in this category was mentioned by almost 90 per cent of the counselors as helpful in their work. Local professional organizations, as might be expected for college-level counseling, played a much greater role as a source of help relatively, than had been ascribed to them by high school counselors. The place of local service clubs and groups, however, was high on the lists of both types of counselors. Curiously, while a third of the high school counselors had mentioned receiving help from four-year colleges and universities in the area, not one junior college counseling department named these institutions as being of assistance. Also at this point, none of the counselors mentioned the benefits to their counseling conferred by the vocational advisory committees attached to each vocational program. In another context, however, we did learn that the feedback from industry to vocational departments provided by these committees is helpful in the job guidance aspects of counseling.

Table 4 - 15

Outside Agencies and Groups Assisting Junior Colleges in Their Counseling, by the Agencies and Groups Mentioned by Counselors

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Mentioned agency or group	Per cent of colleges receiving assistance
Agencies of local or State government (noneducational)[a]	87.5
Local professional organizations	62.5
Local service clubs and groups	50.0
Federal anti-poverty programs	37.5
Local community-action groups	37.5
Agencies of local or State government (educational)	25.0
Local business organizations	12.5
Individual private employers	12.5
Other agencies and groups[b]	12.5
No agency or group mentioned	00.0

[a]Excludes public employment service as this agency was covered by a direct rather than open-ended question.

[b]Other includes a private group assisting foreign students on campus.

Provision of Time for Research and of Clerical and Other Help to Junior College Counselors

The junior colleges were but little more generous than the high schools in allotting time to carry on research and supplementary tasks directly related to counseling. One college with a comparatively low student-counselor ratio allowed its counselors from four to 19 per cent of their time for such work including student follow-ups. But the provision of clerical help to junior college counselors did appear more liberal than that recorded for high school counseling personnel. Six out of eight junior college respondents evaluated the help received as adequate. Their comments, though, were quite the reverse as to the assistance they received in collecting and maintaining current information and published materials on changing occupational requirements. Two-thirds of the respondents stated that the amount of assistance they received in this connection was inadequate or none at all. One of the few counseling departments that was reported as adequately assisted in this regard received help from the school library where an elaborate occupational section had been developed, the vocational departments of the college, and from a representative of the California Department of Employment stationed on campus.

Junior Colleges: Amount and Nature of Counseling Services

The story of student-counselor ratios in the junior colleges bears all too strong a resemblance to that of thepublic high schools.

According to informal recommendations of the California State Department of Education, this ratio should stand at 300 students per junior college counselor, the same standard proposed for the high schools. The colleges fall even further from this yardstick than do the secondary schools. Ratios averaged 455 to one for the sample colleges. Although one school met the standard mentioned above and another was reasonably near it, the remainder were above the recommended number of students, ranging to as high as 636 to one. Our sample schools, however, averaged a lower ratio than that recorded in a California School Counselor Association survey[6] which showed an average of 522 to one for junior colleges throughout the State. It should be noted that those two schools whose counselors reported receiving the assistance they needed to operate effectively were also the schools with the lowest student-counselor ratios.

Data from the respondents who believed themselves able to estimate the annual number of student-counselor contacts averaged out to 4.2 per year, a figure approximating that for the public high schools. The proportion of all contacts in junior colleges that is optional, however, is higher (67 per cent) than is the comparable proportion for the high schools. In one of the sample colleges, in fact, no contacts whatever were required.

Allocation of Counseling Time in Junior Colleges

Our data would support the view that junior college counseling differs considerably in its emphasis from that given to high school

students. The sample counseling departments, in total, reported the largest proportion of their time as devoted to occupational guidance (Table 4-16). This allocation of time contrasted sharply with that of high school counseling departments which placed this activity third, after assisting the students with their purely educational problems as well as their social and personal difficulties. But, although the average of the sample schools reflected a third of all counseling time spent on job guidance, the range for the individual schools extended from 10 to 55 per cent of total time.

This fact throws considerable doubt on the wisdom of a common view, namely that help in planning the student's job future may be safely slighted in the secondary schools. It appears a common assumption that the student sent on to college without occupational direction will be provided with help in his occupational planning when he arrives at that destination. If the junior college counselors, as well, are too overburdened to provide the comprehensive job guidance it was assumed the student would receive, this deferment at the secondary level can only spell the almost total deprivation of such assistance to the student prior to his entry upon the job market.

Junior Colleges: Nature and Adequacy of School Placement Services

In contrast to the high schools, both public and Catholic, the junior colleges do offer their students a formalized, structural type of employment service. Each of the sample schools provided

Table 4 - 16

Estimated Allocation of Junior College Counselors' Time, by Type of Activity

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Types of activity	Per cent of counseling time
All counselors	
Number[a]	89
Per cent	100.0
Assistance in planning job futures	35.7
Assistance in purely educational problems	32.1
Assistance with social and personal difficulties	19.3
Performing administrative duties	12.2
Other	0.7

[a]Represents total full-time personnel equivalents.

a designated placement officer whose services were available to the general student body for both career-type jobs and temporary work. In addition, certain other school officials, such as the Financial Aids Officer, sometimes participated in the job-finding function for those students requiring help in their job search.

The efforts of the placement officer were supplemented, too, in all of the junior colleges with help from the vocational-technical teachers. These latter, however, assisted only their own students in finding work. Their relationship with the placement officer varied from school to school, depending on the degree of decentralization existing in the organization of the placement function.

Counselors in all of the sample colleges, again in sharp contrast to those in the public high schools, evaluated the placement services afforded their students as adequate. This judgment, however, carried an important qualification. The adequacy of the help afforded students in their search for work was not meant as implying that the number of jobs available for junior college students and graduates was sufficient in amount to absorb all, whatever their qualifications, who sought jobs.

It was volunteered in several instances that finding work, whether temporary or career-type, was considerably easier for those students who were enrolled in or who had completed a vocational program than for the "general education student." One junior college placement officer, in fact, reported that his community's employers

could absorb far more graduates from certain of the school's technical programs than became available at the close of each school year. Many of the employers who visited the campus annually to interview such students directly went away "empty-handed." At the same time, those students who had acquired no vocational skills along with a more general "academic transfer-program education," were becoming increasingly difficult to place.

Relationship with Public Employment Service of Junior College Placement Services

We found that the placement officer at one of the sample junior colleges was an out-stationed employee of the California Department of Employment whose services had been acquired by special arrangement. The services of this officer were described in enthusiastic terms, not only for the quality of the placement job which had resulted, but also because a ready source of labor market information and of in-service training for the counseling staff on this subject was also provided. We found, as well, that the placement officer in another sample college had been hired from the Department of Employment when the latter was no longer able to continue out-stationed services at that school. Also, another junior college was in the process of recruiting a placement officer from the public employment service. Administrative personnel at both of these schools volunteered that the background and training of Department personnel ideally fitted them to work in junior colleges as placement officers.

The junior college respondents, however, were not enthusiastic concerning the services their students received at the offices of the public employment service when seeking either temporary or permanent jobs. None of the college counselors considered the services given by the local offices as adquate to the needs of their students.

Findings

Our survey data document in considerable detail the growth that is occurring county-by-county in the general population and in different types of school enrollments in one large metropolitan labor market area. The action and interaction of various trends is apparent. Some of the contrasts that can be observed between the growth rates of one or another sector of this panorama relate to such factors as changes through time in the age composition of the general population, or differentials in the rapidity of population increase in the various sub-areas of the Bay Area. Others relate to changes in the types of education offered and sought. However, the most arresting and also ubiquitous aspects in the overall picture of growth and change to emerge are these: the increasing importance of racial minorities not only in the general population but in the enrollment of all types of schools, and the thrust towards a higher level of educational attainment by students from all racial groups and all socioeconomic levels. Our data furnish little evidence that the institutions charged with preparing an emerging labor force to

meet the needs of the economy, or of facilitating its entrance to the labor market, have been given the resources they require for these tasks. Further, shortages of funds, of personnel, of information, and of overall competence in the execution of these responsibilities -- lodged in both schools and employment service -- are most damaging when such shortages limit the potential for upward mobility represented by the increasing participation in higher education of groups formerly without this opportunity. This does not imply, however, that the needs of other than disadvantaged youth can be slighted without detriment to them and to the best interests of society.

Our findings supply ample evidence to support the general view that the large bulk of students in secondary schools can be expected to continue their education at 2-year and 4-year colleges. But our data also indicate that students follow diverse directions and they may change their goals after they enroll in college. Once there, they may not pursue their studies continuously and without change of their original objectives. Junior college patterns of enrollment and curriculum suggest an increasing flexibility at that level which can add to the student's choice among alternatives. Even though most junior college students are enrolled in four-year transfer programs, students are increasingly taking sufficient technical courses that, concurrently, they are making themselves job-ready. The high schools are providing their students, particularly those enrolled in the "general course," with fewer options (and certainly with but little job-readiness) if their original expectations of continued training and education do not materialize.

The comments of our respondents in both the public and the Catholic high schools, as well as in the junior colleges, indicated a general lack of knowledge as to how to locate and how to obtain a greater involvement of community groups, professional groups, business groups, and unions in the counseling process as resources of needed information. Further, the comments of respondents from both schools and public employment service offices indicated that marked changes have occurred in recent years in the relationships between some schools and some local offices. Generally speaking, these comments indicated a lesser capacity of the local offices in mid-1968 to provide the schools with general aptitude-test battery services, labor market information, and placement than was the case earlier in the decade. In some cases, too, it appeared that relationships that had once been close between certain schools and certain local offices and which were loosened with the disappearance of formal cooperative arrangements between them had further weakened over time as new personnel were introduced into both the schools and the local offices.

Our questioning of counseling departments concerning the adequacy of school placement services showed the closest-possible correlation between the judgment that such services were adequate and the designation of a school placement officer or office to serve the general student body in finding both temporary and part-time work. The assistance of work-experience coordinators, vocational and technical-program teachers, financial-aid officers, and

other school personnel was occasionally quite effective in providing placement service for limited groups of students. Nonetheless, the placement service the school afforded its students, overall, was in no case judged adequate where a formalized service available to all students was lacking.

Throughout our questioning in connection with this section of the present report, the responses indicated not only a general shortage of resources available to school counseling departments but also, in several respects, what appeared to be a less-than-optimal utilization of the resources that were available. Such administrative defects were all too frequently reported as dual responsibility, confused line and staff relationships, a lack of formal liaison between counseling and teaching departments, a penny-wise but pound-foolish economizing on clerical and other help that, if provided, could increase the effectiveness of counseling staff, and little or no attention to the possibility that benefits might accrue from a greater specialization of counseling staff.

Footnotes to Section IV

1. Herbert S. Parnes, Forecasting Educational Needs for Economic and Social Development, Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, The Mediterranean Regional Project, Paris, October 1962. Chapter I contains an excellent discussion of various views as to the role of education. Some extracts follow, taken from pp. 14-15.

> "22. While it is undeniably true that education serves both individual and social ends, it is not at all certain that the most fruitful way of distinguishing these ends is by differentiating the goal of developing the individual from that of meeting the economic needs of society. Such a definition of objectives obscures their relationships.
>
> "23. When one speaks of the role of education in contributing to the development or self-fulfillment of the individual, what precisely is meant? Presumably one wishes to afford to each individual the opportunity to develop as fully as possible his potentialities for living a satisfying and productive life. This does not exclude vocational considerations, but at the same time is not limited to them....
>
> "24. Just as education has both vocational and cultural significance to the individual, so it serves both economic and non-economic ends so far as society is concerned. The role of education in moulding the human resources of an economy to fit the requirements of its productive arrangements is quite obvious. But no less important is the contribution that education makes to providing the citizenry with an understanding of the technological, economic, and social forces that affect them. Such understanding is a necessary (although admittedly not a sufficient) condition for wise policy decisions in a democracy....
>
> "27. This suggests a two-fold approach to the problem of assessing educational requirements. The simpler of the two to describe is what might be called the 'manpower-

> requirements approach,'....The other approach, while more difficult to name and to describe...may be referred to as the 'cultural approach.'"

2. "Resumé of Information of Statewide Program of Vocational Education," California State Department of Education, presented by Wesley P. Smith, Director of Vocational Education, to the California Advisory Council on Vocational Education, August 28, 1969 (unpublished mimeographed pamphlet).

3. J. Chester Swanson, Vocational-Technical Education in Contra Costa County, page 45, and Vocational-Technical Education in Alameda County, page 47, (Berkeley, Calif.: University of California, School of Education, 1969).

4. Gilbert Wrenn, The Counselor in a Changing World (Washington, D.C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1962), page 137. It should be noted that Wrenn qualifies this student-counselor ratio by suggesting that counselors drop many activities that they currently perform, such as "psychological measurement, orientation, personal records, educational and occupational information...." (page 140).

5. However the average of 344 students per counselor in the high schools might be viewed as to its adequacy in light of the qualifications we have mentioned, Bay Area schools may be fairly fortunate if our sample is representative in this matter. A recent survey by the California School Counselor Association showed a mean pupil-counselor ratio for the State of 468 for secondary-school counselors ("California School Counselor Association Counselor

Questionnaire -- Results," Fullerton, California: unpublished mimeograph, May, 1969), page 4.

6. Ibid.

V. PERSONNEL PRACTICES - BAY AREA EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES AND SCHOOLS

In subsequent sections of this report, we will explore in detail the activities of placement personnel in both public and private employment agencies. We will also be concerned with the work of counselors in employment agencies and in the schools. However, the performance of these various categories of individuals will be viewed in terms of the tasks assigned to them by their employers, the clienteles they serve, and the problems they encounter in dealing with their applicants or counselors.

Except where it is directly pertinent to the subject under consideration, we will not link a personnel practice, for example, the training given to school counselors in occupational guidance, with a broader issue such as the effectiveness of their counseling. Many matters deserving some attention will therefore go unnoted. For one, it can scarcely be denied that certain differences in the performance of placement personnel in public and private employment agencies are rooted in the personnel practices surrounding their selection and compensation as well as in the different orientation of their work assignments.

Thus, we have brought together in a single section our interview data concerning the personnel practices that can be expected to influence the work performance of employment agency and school personnel, and some comparative information as to their job tenure.

Public Employment Agencies: (The Employment Security Officer and the Counselor) Hiring Specifications

In sharp contrast to the private employment agencies, placement officers and counselors are two separate and distinct jobs in the public service. Placement officers may receive job orders from employers, screen the qualifications of applicants against the specifications of job orders, refer applicants to employers and, later, verify the referral results. Counselors, as needed, identify the vocational problems of applicants for employment or training, assist them in determining their assets and aptitudes for various types of work and provide them labor market information. But, in the formal sense, counselors are not concerned with the placement process nor do placement officers counsel.

As is characteristic throughout State service, the selection of placement officers and counselors is based on their relative ranking on lists of eligibles established by competitive written and oral examinations that are supplied to the appointing authorities. The qualifications required for admission to their respective examinations, therefore, constitute the major hiring specifications for placement officers and counselors.

Formerly, it was possible for counselors to enter the Department as Employment Counselor Trainees and, after a period including both additional training and work experience, to become fully qualified counselors. One indication of the increasing professionalization of counselors in the Department has been the almost complete discarding

of this entry route into the occupation. A very few of these trainees were still in that status in the local offices at the time of our interviews. But by July 1968, the counselor was rarely hired at other than the fully-qualified level. Hence, the educational requirement for admission to the examination for Employment Counselor is relatively high and now requires graduation from a recognized college within the past five years with a master's degree in the behavioral sciences. Preferred is a degree in counseling or vocational guidance with at least 15 college semester units in guidance principles and techniques, personality development, and tests and measurements; or 30 graduate semester units in guidance principles and techniques, personality development, tests and measurements, or other courses related to counselor preparation.

On the other hand, two routes of entry remain open for the placement officer so that a considerable range of educational attainment can be qualifying. Similarly to the counselor the placement officer can enter the classification as fully qualified by way of an examination having relatively strict educational requirements for admission (but only about one per cent enter in this manner). In order to be admitted to the test for Employment Security Officer, Grade I, the "journeyman" level for placement personnel, the candidate must meet the master's degree requirement. But also qualifying is service of one year in the Department as an Employment Security Trainee.

Several combinations of educational attainment and work

experience permit entrance to the competitive examination for Employment Security Trainee. He may be a graduate from college within the last five years with any major, but preferably with specialization in various of the social sciences. Or the educational requirement may be reduced to two years of college provided that the candidate has had two years of work experience within the past five, performing administrative or technical work in such fields as personnel management, vocational counseling, or employment interviewing. The educational requirement can be further reduced to completion of the twelfth grade if the candidate for examination has worked for two years within the past five in employment service-related work in another state employment security agency or the federal government. A twelfth-grade education will also suffice if the candidate has had 3,840 hours of work experience in the last five years in such Department classifications as Employment and Claims Assistant, Farm Labor Assistant, or Community Employment Worker.

Public Employment Agencies: General Job Duties

We found placement officers at the Grade I, or journeyman, level performing a wide variety of duties in the 16 offices included in our sample. These duties, of course, differed with the size, type, and consequent degree of internal specialization characteristic of the local office. The placement officer, for example, might be responsible for all phases of the placement process beginning with order-taking and ending with confirming that his referrals had resulted in

placements. Or he might be assigned to one phase of this process such as developing job orders.

As a rule, some specialization existed, with separate placement officers assigned to work with white-collar or blue-collar workers in particular occupations. In all of the offices, definite placement responsibilities were given to some of these interviewers for workers with special characteristics such as veterans, minority-group, handicapped, or older workers. In all of the offices, also, the placement officers were expected to share the labor market information gained in their activities with fellow employees and, through channels, with other levels of the organization. Often, they had fairly heavy commitments to participate in school and community activities where they made this information available to a wider public.

When the counselor's work load was specialized it was not differentiated in terms of advising applicants in given occupations or industries but, rather, of counseling applicants with particular characteristics. Worker groups such as relief clients, minority workers, older workers, and veterans were generally assigned to specific counselors.

The substance of the usual counseling interview, as reported to us, was guidance in making a vocational choice and assistance in resolving individual problems which stood in the way of the applicant's employability, or his readiness to enroll in training. Depending on the characteristics of the counselor's customary clientele, imparting labor market information was more or less important relative

to giving the applicant needed information as to the availability of various social and other services. Counselors too, imparted such information gained from their activities as would be appropriate and helpful to their fellow employees and other levels of the organization. We found several who spoke frequently at schools, training centers, and at the meetings of various community groups.

Public Employment Agencies: Training

In the course of our interviews we found a high incidence of training of placement personnel in the local offices sampled. In some cases, Employment Security Officers, Grade I, were represented who, during the twelve months prior to our interview, had received the training given the Employment Security Trainee which is given periodically throughout the probationary period of one year. Most of the local offices reported that members of their staffs had received in the year preceding July 1968 supplementary or refresher training in various placement techniques, particularly in connection with special worker programs. These training sessions could be given either in the local office or at area headquarters and they lasted for varying periods.

As to counselor training, a few Employment Counselor Trainees were still receiving their full one year of training at the time of our interviews. More significant, however, was the large amount of supplementary training being received by the fully qualified counselors. Some of this training, usually of one or two weeks' duration,

was conducted at area headquarters on such subjects as specialized counseling techniques, frequently for special worker groups. A large part of the reported training, however, reflected the counselors' enrollment in a neighboring college or university. It should be noted that state employees may be reimbursed in part or in full for the actual cost of courses that have been approved by department heads and included in the agency's specialized training program.

Public Employment Agencies: Earnings and Benefits

As is generally true of civil service jobs, earnings of placement officers are dependent on the salary step attained by the employee which, in turn, reflects his number of years in the position. In July 1968, the annual salary of an Employment Security Officer, Grade I during his first year of occupying that classification was $7,370. The highest annual salary he could earn was $8,950 after 4 years of service. There were placement personnel at the highest step in all of the offices where we conducted interviews except for one.

Salaries paid to counselors are somewhat higher than those of placement officers. As of July 1968, the Employment Counselor received an annual salary of $8,520 at the first salary step. The highest annual rate paid was $10,400. There were one or more counselors paid at the top level in all except four of the offices we visited.

In addition to their salaries, California's merit-system employees receive benefits estimated to have a cash value of 26 per cent

of their salaries (see Appendix D-1). These benefits include eleven paid holidays annually and liberal provisions for vacation, sick leave and other forms of leave. Vacation-with-pay credits begin at 10 working days per year for the employee with up to three years of service, to 20 days per year after 24 years of service. Sick leave is accumulated at the rate of one day per month, and the State contributed $6.00 per month in 1968 toward the premium of a basic hospital and medical insurance plan selected by the employee. In addition to these types of leave, paid leave is granted for jury and witness duty and leaves of absence, for tours of duty in the armed forces, training, maternity, education, and jobs in other agencies.

State employees are eligible to retire and receive a monthly annuity when they reach age 55. The normal retirement age is 60; the compulsory age, 70 (see Appendix D-2). In addition to retirement pensions, there is also a disability retirement annuity which is based on salary and years of service.

Public Employment Agencies: Tenure

More than half or 56 per cent of the staff of fully qualified placement officers in the 16 offices sampled had five or more years' service in the spring of 1969. Only slightly more than 10 per cent had less than one year's service, while almost 20 per cent had served in the classification of Employment Security Officer, Grade I for from one to three years.

In sharp contrast to the tenure of placement personnel, more

than half, or 58 per cent of the staff of fully qualified counselors in the 16 offices had less than three years of service in the Employment Counselor classification in the spring of 1969. Fully 25 per cent of the counseling staff had service of three to five years, and only a little more than 17 per cent had service of five or more years. These tenure figures, of course, are indicative both of the recent professionalization of the counselor classification and of its rapid expansion in the years just past.

Private Employment Agencies: (The Employment Counselor) Hiring Specifications

As is not true of the public employment agencies, both placement and counseling functions are combined in one job in the private agencies. Thus a single worker, called the Employment Counselor, evaluates job applicants' aptitudes, provides vocational guidance, and screens and selects applicants for referral. Also, he may take job openings from employers as well as solicit orders from the latter. Because the two types of duties are combined, the term, "fully-qualified employment counselor" for purposes of the information we gathered on hiring specifications, earnings, and other personnel matters was limited to those employees regarded as fully qualified to perform both placement and counseling duties. Not included were trainees considered as not yet at the journeyman level, employment counselors who also had administrative responsibilities, or employees assigned only a partial role in placement alone, such as reception or job solicitation.

The large majority of the 30 respondents included in our sample stated that their agencies imposed no requirements as to previous work experience when hiring employment counselors, nor were even preferences as to previous experience in a given occupation or industry involved in their hiring decisions. Those managers who did express preferences, and the very few who imposed requirements, most commonly rated experience in some type of sales work as the work background required or preferred. Sales was followed by previous experience in personnel, public relations, or administration. If previous work experience was specified or desired, two years was generally considered acceptable, although a small number of agencies preferred a five-year stint of prior employment.

A strongly-stated work requirement of a negative kind was mentioned at a small number of establishments. Their managers insisted that under no circumstances would they accept as an employment counselor an applicant who had previously worked in another employment agency. To some degree, at least, this policy, like some anti-pirating agreements, appeared to stem from a reluctance to encourage the movement about in the industry of workers with personal followings. For the most part, however, this policy was related to an often-stated preference of the agencies. The large majority, or 80 per cent of the private-agency respondents, stated that in hiring employment counselors they placed their primary emphasis on these applicants' having a "suitable personality." And in addition to the desired type of personality, the managers preferred them to have no

established work habits respecting employment service so that they could be trained in the particular agency's version of the placement process and the counseling function.

Almost invariably volunteered was a definition of the type of personality deemed most "suitable" for employment counselors. It was one strongly characterized by the trait commonly described as an "ability to get along with people." Respondents mentioned such attributes as being extremely articulate, possessing an ability both to "draw out" the applicant and to win the confidence of employers, being perceptive concerning the abilities and needs of a wide variety of individuals, and being "professional" in attitude and generally agreeable.

So great a stress was placed on personality traits by the private agencies that stated requirements as to educational attainment were rare, although 70 per cent did mention preferences. These preferences were more or less elastic, again reflecting the emphasis on the personality factor, as well as the type of jobs the counselor would be working with and, presumably, the supply of likely candidates for these counselor posts who were available at the time. Thus, these preferences, when stated, ranged all the way from high school graduation to a college degree in some particular major -- generally in a technical or scientific field. In only 10 per cent of the agencies did there exist a stated requirement for a college degree, and this requirement generally arose from the sophistication of the jobs handled at the "professional desk."

Private Employment Agencies: General Job Duties

As mentioned above, the employment counselor's duties combine both those that would be assigned the placement officer in a public employment agency and those activities considered "counseling" in the private agency where he is employed. We found that their duties varied considerably from office to office and within their respective offices, as is no less true of the public agencies despite the latter's comparatively more rigid system of personnel classifications and job duties statements.

The differing duties of employment counselors stemmed from a variety of factors. The type of office and the manner of its operations were basic, involving both the specialization of the office itself and of the "desks" within that office. The agency's orientation, in turn, determined the clientele it served, further affecting the functions of the employment counselor. And certain of the differences observable between the private agencies appeared to be as much rooted in the personalities of the owners or managers as in any other factor -- giving these agencies a potential for variety beyond that possessed by the public agencies. Thus, the major thrust of a private agency could be the placement process, with job development and job solicitation the overwhelmingly major duty of the employment counselor. Or a modicum of counseling in terms of "how to approach the employer" could accompany job referral. Or there could be significant use of counseling in the area of employability development, with heavy emphasis on tests and test interpretation to explore

the aptitudes and achievement of the job seeker.

In general, specialization of the placement function by occupation within the private agencies followed about the same pattern as in the public offices of the conventional type. The employment counselors were usually specialized by white- or blue-collar jobs, and the degree of further specialization by specific occupations within these categories depended on the size of the placement staff. As in the public agencies, we found few instances of assigning placement personnel to industries rather than occupations, or to specific employer accounts. Unlike the situation in the public agencies, there was no specialization of job duties in the private agencies by "special worker groups," unless we include the very few instances where separate "desks" for men and women continued to exist.

In the private no less than the public agencies, the employment counselors were expected to share the labor market information they acquired in the course of their placement and counseling activities with others in their offices. The formal reporting mechanisms characteristic of the public service did not exist in the private agencies whereby the information gained could rise through defined channels to levels where it could be assimilated and processed for a variety of uses. However, in the chains, information was passed along to other branches of the organization, or to affiliates if the agency were a franchise-holder. Also, at the level of information contained on individual job orders or work applications, the private agencies were involved in a form of information exchange unknown

except in one instance in the Bay Area public service. In better than half of the affiliated private agencies, such information was being processed for use by computerized data banks and communications systems for purposes of job matching.

In general, the employment counselors, although they did handle requests for labor market information from employers, had neither contacts nor duties that involved them in conveying information concerning their activities to a wider public. A few managers of private agencies, however, did maintain informal contacts with schools on an infrequent basis. A few, also, were members of formally-constituted community bodies or of service clubs through whose intermediacy information they possessed became available to civil rights and other organizations concerned with special worker groups.

The employment counselor's "counseling" duties were very largely determined by the placement specialty he was assigned. His counseling, hence, contained job information that would appropriately be given applicants seeking work in professional or administrative jobs, or in clerical or industrial jobs as the case might be. It was not, for example, counseling specifically designed as such for the high school dropout or the member of a racial minority. However, the type and level of occupation in which the employment counselor specialized could involve him in a significant amount of counseling of the employability development sort. Examples are the employment counselors specializing in entrant-level clerical jobs or

those supplying workers to government contractors searching specifically for employees who are members of minority groups.

Private Employment Agencies: Training

The 30 agencies included in our sample reported a total of 177 persons in placement activities as of July 1968. Of these, 156 were fully-qualified employment counselors. The remaining 21 were regarded as trainees and as at various stages in their progress towards becoming fully qualified in their work.

The amount of training and work experience expected of the employment counselor before he is considered fully qualified by his agency appears to differ widely. On-the-job training may be given the principal emphasis together with self-study, coaching, or regularly scheduled seminars on the premises or elsewhere. These same instructional approaches are employed for the continuing study demanded by most agencies over and above that required of the worker in trainee status. At the other extreme are the agencies which prefer or may require certification of their workers by the California Institute for Employment Counseling before the employee is regarded a fully-qualified employment counselor. Passing the examination for this certification means intensive study of the counselor's manual. This latter contains material on such matters as State and federal regulations covering employment agency activities, order-taking, application-taking, counseling techniques, and the use of labor market information.

In the year prior to July 1968, almost 85 per cent of the 177 employment counselors at work in the sampled establishments were reported to have received some formal training in one or more of the above subjects. However, in no instance did our respondents mention out-service training of their staff in neighboring colleges or universities. Such continuing education was a most important aspect in the training effort of public service counselors, though it was not mentioned in connection with the placement personnel of the local offices.

Private Employment Agencies: Earnings and Benefits

First-year earnings of fully qualified employment counselors in the private agencies averaged $7,356 in 1968. This sum compares almost exactly with first-year earnings of fully qualified public agency placement officers at $7,376. But the earnings of employment counselors, like those of the public agency placement officers, are initially under the first-year earnings of public agency counseling staff at $8,520, by more than $1,000.

While salary grades are identical for like classifications in the public service, averages for first-year earnings, as also for highest earnings, differed considerably among the private agencies on the basis of the latter's location and other characteristics. In San Francisco-Marin County agencies, first-year employees averaged highest with $8,250; Contra Costa firms were lowest with $5,500. Agencies with affiliates, either branches or other members of a

franchised organization, or agencies with fees largely paid by employers reported first-year earnings substantially greater than independent establishments or agencies with largely applicant-paid fees. Average first-year earnings for affiliated agencies were $8,108; for non-affiliated, $6,536. In establishments where fees were 90 per cent or more paid by employers, average first-year earnings were $8,887. When fees were 75 per cent or more paid by applicants, $5,842. There was little difference in average first-year earnings by size of firm.

The average of highest annual earnings of qualified employment counselors in 1968 was $11,250, considerably more than the highest annual salary obtainable by public agency placement personnel in July 1968, which was $8,950. The average highest earnings for the employment counselor, also, was almost $1,000 over the highest level obtainable by the counseling staff in the public offices. As in the case of first-year earnings, highest earnings average at the largest sum in San Francisco-Marin County firms, affiliated agencies, and in establishments with fees largely paid by employers -- $13,710, $13,330, and $14,744 respectively. Differences in the averages of highest earnings were extremely wide. Differences amounted to $5,310 between Contra Costa County and San Francisco-Marin County firms; $3,021 between independent agencies and affiliated agencies; and $5,101 between establishments where fees were 75 per cent or more paid by applicants and those where 90 per cent or more were paid by employers. Little difference in highest average annual

earnings existed between establishments having a large or a small number of employees. In more than four-fifths of the private agencies, the method of payment for employment counselors was by commission. The individual was paid on the basis of the number of placements made and the amount of the fees paid, which latter were a function of the salary levels of the applicants who were placed. For the remainder, the method of payment was by time expended; in most cases, monthly salaries.

Thirty per cent of the private employment agencies sampled reported that they provided no benefits in addition to salaries. Among the benefits which were provided by the remaining 70 per cent in our sample, paid vacation was most often reported, with almost half the firms allowing employees time off with pay. Sickness and accident insurance for employees at employers' expense existed in 40 per cent of the sampled firms, and paid sick leave for employees and paid holidays were reported by 30 per cent of the agencies. Life insurance policies were purchased by employers in a third of the agencies. Few agencies reported such other benefits as retirement programs, hospital and medical insurance, profit-sharing, and year-end bonuses. We found no evidence of provisions for jury and witness-duty leave, military leave, or paid rest periods in any of the agencies. The usual benefit program of the private agencies contrasts sharply with that of the public agencies, and this contrast should be taken into account in comparing their respective salary structures. As mentioned earlier, the benefits package of State employees

in California has been evaluated at 26 per cent of the salaries paid. And public employees receive all of the benefits mentioned above except profit-sharing and year-end bonuses.

The larger establishments reported benefits more frequently than the smaller firms. In agencies with 9 or more employees 60 per cent allowed employees paid vacations and purchased sickness and accident insurance for employees. In this group also, 30 per cent provided a hospital and medical program for employees. Also, affiliated agencies or agencies with fees paid largely by employers tended to be more liberal in the benefits they offered than independent establishments or agencies with fees paid largely by applicants.

Private Employment Agencies: Tenure

Slightly more than half of the staff of fully-qualified employment counselors in the sampled private agencies had been in their jobs for less than five years in the spring of 1969. This proportion is not too far from the 44 per cent of public agency placement personnel with the same length of service. Almost 20 per cent had service of less than one year, while only 10 per cent in the local offices were in this category. A little more than 20 per cent of the employment counselors had been employed with their agencies for five or more years, while more than 30 per cent was the comparable figure for the public agencies.

The shorter tenure figure for counseling staff in the local

offices more closely resembled those that were characteristic of the employment counselors and probably, in part at least, for a reason common to both -- the recent sharp expansion of the numbers working in these classifications. As noted above, while the placement staffs in the public offices have expanded appreciably over 1960 levels, this expansion has been greatly exceeded by the relative increase of both public agency counseling personnel and that of employment counselors in the private agencies.

Schools: (The School Counselor) Hiring Specifications

The selection of counselors in Bay Area schools and colleges is based on their completion or partial completion of studies leading to the Standard Designated Services Credential - Pupil Personnel. Such studies require completion of 72 units of work in upper division and graduate courses in the area of pupil personnel services, including the requirements for the master's degree in counseling. Of the required total of 72 units, from 30 to 33 units must ordinarily be completed in the following areas: pupil personnel services, concepts, and procedures; dynamics of individual behavior; counseling theory and procedures; measurement theory and procedures; group process theory; educational and career planning; research methodology; remedial and special education; laws relating to children; and organization of pupil personnel services.

Most of the counselors in Bay Area schools and colleges are former teachers who were selected to become counselors on a "postponement of requirements" basis. They are appointed counselors on

a part-time basis so that they can complete their studies, also on a part-time basis, which will lead to the Standard Designated Services Credential-Pupil personnel. Until the Credential is achieved they are in a Partial Fulfillment Pupil Personnel Credential status.

Another means of recruitment for counselors is through the Pupil Personnel Services Internship Programs offered by local colleges and universities. In such programs, the appointee, not a regular member of the teaching staff of the school, combines counseling under close supervision at the school and appropriate course work at the college or university.

Schools: General Job Duties

Whereas employment agency counselors are primarily occupation-oriented, school counselors are very much individual-oriented. How each counselor counsels each individual varies a great deal not only among school districts, but also among individual schools and individual counselors. Generally speaking, the school counselor tries to counsel the student to adapt to his school environment, with particular emphasis on his educational requirements and goals.

The counselor's duties include administering or interpreting tests, primarily tests demonstrating academic skills such as reading and mathematics; helping the student overcome his personal or social problems; helping him to discover his occupational direction; acting as a source person for various programs and agencies that can help the student; and carrying out various administrative duties. Depending

on the school, especially in the junior colleges, the counselor may teach courses on the world of work. He may also assist teachers and administrators in efforts to prevent student dropouts.

Counselors may specialize in various counseling activities, either on their own or by school assignment. Specialization is more likely, however, in junior colleges than at the secondary level. But at each type of school, counselors attempt to provide occupational counseling, both for students going on to college and for those who will be employed directly after graduation. The counselors utilize labor market information and tests to assist them in their occupational counseling. Junior college counselors generally spend more time in career guidance than do the secondary school counselors, because counselees of the former have a more immediate interest in their occupational futures.

Schools: Training

Formal training programs in the usual sense are not commonly provided for counseling departments. Summer-school attendance, however, is common. In the public secondary schools and the junior colleges, sabbatical leaves may be granted counselors for further education or for travel after seven years of service. In most cases, sabbatical-leave pay is one-half or two-thirds regular pay. In addition, many counselors attend conferences and meetings in connection with their work from time to time during the school year.

The Catholic secondary schools in our sample encouraged

counselors, who were almost always members of religious orders, to attend retreats during the school year and to take courses of study related to their work in nearby colleges or universities.

Schools: Earnings and Benefits

In 1968-69, fully-qualified counselors in the sample public secondary schools in the Bay Area averaged $9,017 annually for their first year in the position. These earnings were more than $1,500 over starting levels for placement officers and employment counselors in public and private employment agencies. However, they were only about $500 more than entrance salaries for employment counselors in public employment agencies, whose educational requirements exceed those of public agency placement officers and private agency employment counselors. Highest average first-year earnings were recorded in Contra Costa County Schools at $11,167; the lowest average first-year earnings were in Alameda County and in San Francisco-Marin County schools at $7,825 and $7,833 respectively.

In Bay Area junior colleges, counselors averaged $11,265 in their first year. The range of first-year earnings among the 8 junior colleges studied was from $10,000 to $12,000.

The average of highest annual earnings for counselors in public secondary schools in the Bay Area was $13,668 in 1968-69. This compares with an average of highest annual salary of $8,950 for placement officers in public employment agencies; and with

$10,400 for counselors in the public service and $11,250 for employment counselors in private agencies. Highest annual earnings were in schools of San Mateo and Santa Clara Counties; lowest were in Alameda County.

In 1968-69, topmost annual earnings in the 8 junior colleges ranged from $13,500 to $17,600, a spread of $4,100, while the overall average was $15,288. Part of the reason, at least, for the wide range of earnings in the junior colleges is differentials in the number of months worked during the school year. In two colleges, annual pay was for a 9-month work period; in two others, for a 9½-month period; and the remaining four, for a 10-month period. In all the sample secondary schools, on the other hand, annual pay is for a 10-month work period.

We found counselors in all of the sampled public secondary schools and junior colleges provided with many benefits in addition to their annual salaries. Summer vacations of two to three months were available to all, as well as two weeks during the Christmas season and one week at Easter. Retirement programs were in force for counselors in all of these schools, as was also sick leave accumulated at the rate of 10 or more days a year and paid holidays. In some few schools and colleges, hospitalization and medical care insurance was established, along with insurance for dental care.

Information on earnings and benefits of counselors in Catholic secondary schools has not been included in the above section, for most of the counselors in our sample were members of religious

orders. As members, they are not remunerated for the performance of this work; it is considered a part of their obligations.

Schools: Tenure

At 53 per cent, more than half of the counselors in the public schools sampled had service records of five years or more, comparing closely with the tenure of placement officers in public employment agencies. This amount of service was reported in both the public secondary schools and the junior colleges, but not in the Catholic secondary schools. In the latter, counselors with five or more years of service accounted for only 18.5 per cent of the total. The bulk of the counselors in these schools, or almost 75 per cent, had from one to four years of service.

Findings

The comparative data that we obtained about the personnel of employment agencies and schools documented a commonly observed situation. Different selection criteria will be emphasized, even for jobs that are roughly comparable, when these jobs are to be found in organizations governed by civil service laws and regulations, in privately-owned establishments, and in the schools. Merit systems tend to stress aptitudes and qualifications that can be evaluated by way of written or oral examinations and by educational records and work histories. Private employers are free within certain limits to set their own standards and to exercise

individual preferences. Requirements relating to educational attainment are likely to be the dominant requisites in selecting school personnel. Our findings concerning the jobs covered in this section conform to these generalities.

Data gathered in connection with the general job duties of these positions and for other sections of this survey, however, show that these jobs lack comparability in many important respects which are not related to the public or private nature of the employment. Further, the very nature of the duties assigned these jobs, and hence, the qualifications most appropriately specified for the incumbents, are subject to much doubt. Opinion in the public agencies differs, for example, as to whether or not the most effective "counseling" of the disadvantaged applicant is provided by the "professionally qualified" counselor or by the Employment Community Worker assigned to "outreach" activities. There is considerable sentiment that the mainstream applicant will receive his most valuable "counseling" from a knowledgeable placement officer, although the latter's advice, by definition, cannot be considered counseling.

The private agencies do consider imparting the type of information referred to in this instance as <u>employment</u> counseling. Further, we found that the employment counselor who conveys this information was selected, with virtual unanimity by all of the private agency respondents, primarily for his personality traits.

At the other end of the spectrum, we found that the school

counselor was expected to provide his counselees with "occupational counseling," in addition to his many duties connected with the student's educational preparation and his adaptation to the school environment. And this he was expected to do despite the fact that his own credentialing might rest upon a minimum of instruction concerning the world of work, and that he might be afforded but a minimum of opportunities to gain such knowledge once on the job.

We found in surveying the job duties of private agency employment counselors that few, if any, channels existed for conveying the impressive amount of labor market information they possess to a wider public than the applicants and employers they serve. Private agency personnel have amassed much data in their operations concerning the volume of labor demand existing in occupations for which the public service is not an important recruitment channel. Also, all of these agencies possess valuable information as to customary employer specifications in the occupations that form an important component of their work load.

We found various indications that the private agencies appreciated the importance to the community of the services they provided and that they wished greater recognition of the fact that their operations were conducted in an "ethical" and professional manner. It would appear that the larger, well-established agencies could make a significant contribution to any community-wide labor market information "system" and that such a contribution would be willingly made for the improvement conferred on the industry's image through such cooperation.

Our findings concerning earnings levels for the occupations covered in this chapter fit neatly into certain common generalizations. As is often true, starting rates for an occupation found in both private industry and in government are higher for entrants in public employment than for beginners in private establishments. However, a potential for higher earnings, ultimately, is likely to exist in private industry as compared with government. The earnings data obtained for placement personnel in public and private agencies bear out this contention if earnings alone are considered. But if the value of the fringe benefits received by public employees is included in the computation of the highest earnings obtainable, the advantage of the private agency employee is greatly narrowed. In fact, this advantage may quite disappear for the employment counselor whose performance is not above average. Also, our wage data for placement personnel in public agencies and for counselors in these agencies and in the schools, would indicate that the wages paid to workers in these classifications are related to the educational attainment required in order to qualify for them.

VI. NATURE AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF PLACEMENT OPERATIONS IN BAY AREA PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

In drawing a distinction between various types of program evaluations, a recent study of Bay Area public employment service operations[1] defined "effectiveness evaluation" in terms that impelled our rejection of the word, "effectiveness" in this chapter's title. It was abandoned in favor of the more ambiguous word, "accomplishments," even though matters pertaining to "effectiveness" as well as "efficiency" are pertinent to the present chapter.

The authors point out that efficiency evaluations are primarily concerned with the quality of operations resulting in the delivery of services to a target population. Operations, meanwhile, rest on certain assumptions that have been expressed as guidelines. They write,

> "For example, it is stated that a job applicant without work experience or clear vocational goals is in need of counseling. This directive is based on the assumption that the counseling provided will improve the individual's employability. Efficiency evaluations...accept this assumption as valid. Effectiveness evaluation tests the validity of these assumptions by comparing services offered with outcomes of these services, in comparison with program objectives. To do this requires a careful analysis of the objectives of the program and the identification of appropriate measures of success of the program in reaching these objectives."[2]

At the outset of the present chapter, it must be clearly stated that judging "effectiveness" of either the public or the private employment services in these terms is not possible. Less-than-perfect unanimity exists both inside and outside the public agencies, as mentioned in the previous chapters, concerning what the service's objectives are or ought to be.[3] It is difficult to evaluate in any realistic sense even the "accomplishments" of the public employment service or of most private agencies, for we have little more to indicate their accomplishments than gross counts of placement and other workload statistics. Their reporting systems have yielded, up to now, only counts of "transactions." We can learn how many transactions occurred in an agency--not what services were rendered a given applicant over a period of time. But most important if we attempt to judge effectiveness, we lack in the public service, except in connection with a few training programs, the capability of comparing the "services offered with outcomes of these services, in comparison with program objectives." Provisions for follow-up on the success of these transactions do not exist, with the possible exception of checking the duration up to three months of private agency placements.

The present chapter, therefore, will range across the broad field of public and private employment agency placement activity in the Bay Area. "Accomplishments" will be presented in terms of transactional work-load statistics except in those

cases where respondents provided informed estimates. Some illumination as to "effectiveness" may be provided by the opinions and comments of our respondents. But any final judgments as to the effectiveness of services must rest on prior assumptions as to what the respective roles of public and private agencies should be. These judgments, too, must be based on conceptions as to what standards of performance may fairly be expected of the public service, given its present resources and the mission it has been assigned to accomplish.

Specialization and Job Duties of Placement Personnel: Public Employment Agencies

As we mentioned previously, the specialization of public employment service offices, as offices, by the occupation or industry of the applicants served has become a rarity. Except in one Bay Area city where white-collar workers are served at one office and blue-collar workers, at another, any restrictions as to the clientele using a particular office are based on age or socioeconomic characteristics. Within the local office, however, at least a portion of the placement staff is assigned to work with applicants in specifically designated groups of occupations. We found exceptions to this rule only in the Adult Opportunity Centers. There, the lack of specific skills possessed by most applicants and the nature of the job orders generally worked on made such specialization pointless. But

even in the Youth Opportunity Centers some specialization by occupation existed among placement personnel. Generally, though, this division meant only that some placement officers worked with applicants who were referable to office jobs while other officers were concerned with industrial-type jobs.

Public Employment Agencies: Specialization by Occupation

The degree of occupational specialization represented in the work loads of interviewers in the full-functioning and metropolitan employment-service offices was very largely related to office size. For example, the small office--or one with but few placement interviewers to distribute on an occupational basis--might consolidate services for professional, technical, clerical, and sales workers at one placement desk. The service given at another desk might be limited to industrial-type jobs and at yet another, to domestic and other service jobs. The larger office would probably have one member of the placement staff working with professional and technical workers, another serving clerical and sales workers, and others serving industrial workers or service workers. Only in the largest offices was there specialization to the degree of working with clusters of specific jobs. And seldom did the amount of specialization practiced permit the concentration, at particular desks, of placement for specific professional and technical occupations or of blue-collar workers on an industry basis.

How meaningful this occupational specialization was in terms of the expertise it could foster and utilize appeared to differ appreciably from office to office. Continuity was definitely a factor. Staff turnover, the "loss of seasoned interviewers to special programs," and the policy of rotation in some offices operated against continuity of staff at specific placement desks. In other offices the professional or clerical interviewers, as examples, had served at the same posts long enough to become known as real "authorities" in these job fields, not only in their own local offices but throughout the Bay Area public employment service and in the outside community as well.

The scope of the placement officer's duties was one factor affecting the potential for utilization of such expertise as he could acquire through the continuity of his service on a single assignment. Although placement officers were specialized by occupation in about 90 percent of all local offices, only in about half of these did they, themselves, take employer job orders for workers in these same occupations. And an even smaller proportion visited employers in connection with their placement work. Several managers mentioned the lack of staff that could be assigned to do a conventional placement job as affecting the scope of activities permitted the occupationally-specialized placement interviewers. We found offices where the number of such interviewers had been halved and the occupational fields now served at individual desks greatly consolidated, in

order to produce staff for placement programs directed to applicants with particular socioeconomic characteristics. Also in the full-functioning local offices, it was typical to find many of the occupationally-specialized interviewers doubling as placement officers for "special programs," which limited the time they could devote to doing a comprehensive placement job in the fields of their occupational specialty.

All of the occupationally-specialized placement officers were reported as supplying others with labor market information gained in their work. All were described as keeping their fellow workers abreast of occupational labor market developments, either informally or at staff meetings. This information, also, "went up through the line" by way of the chain of supervisors. Also, it was sometimes conveyed to the area office direct by the placement officers, and given to labor market analysts or to occupational analysts for further processing. In more than half of the offices where placement officers were occupationally specialized, they were described as conveying information to the local schools concerning their fields of specialization. In some cases such contacts consisted only of supplying information, when asked, as to employment prospects or customary employer specifications in these occupations. In other instances, these interviewers frequently spoke at the schools or to youth groups or were members of advisory committees to the schools. As one manager stated in connection with his placement interviewers

(and himself),

> "Everyone in this office is now giving speeches and they give them until they run out their ears--particularly at the schools."

Another manager mentioned the large amount of "unfunded work" done by the placement interviewers, and often on their own time, to help with career-days symposia, seminars, and the like at the local schools.

Additionally, more than half of the managers stated that these placement people conveyed manpower information to a wide range of community groups including community action and other antipoverty groups, both governmental and private. In only one instance was one of these interviewers described as supplying salary information to employers more or less regularly. It should be noted, however, that this service is frequently performed by the local office manager or the office supervisors, and that these Department employees also take on a large share of school and other community contacts.

Public Employment Agencies: Specialization by Industry

Far less frequently practiced in the local public offices than their specialization by occupation, is some specialization of placement personnel by industry. A lesser degree of this type of differentiation was to be expected, as there are comparatively few situations in which its use is appropriate except in very large operations. Thus, we found only three local offices

with any industrial specialization of interviewers, and this in connection with four industries.

In one instance, such specialization existed with respect to the electronics industry. The volume of these job orders was high, and the particular employment patterns and job specifications that had to be taken into consideration were as often a function of the industry itself as of the occupation stated on the job order. Other areas of specialization by industry were apparel; hotels and restaurants; and medical services. In each of these fields, considerations related to the applicant's industry of attachment are as important as is his occupation--or occupations.

In the small number of cases that we could observe, the placement interviewers' job duties, when industrial specialization was involved, were more likely to include their taking employers job orders and visiting employers than when their specialization was based on occupations. Their participation appeared to be about equal to that of the occupationally-specialized placement people in the flow of labor market information within and outside the local office, including the schools.

Public Employment Agencies: Specialization by Employer Account

We found only one local office where any specialization of placement staff by individual employer account existed to an an appreciable extent. In this office certain designated employer

accounts, no matter what the occupations called for, were always handled by the same interviewers. These latter took the orders, made the employer visits if time permitted that any visits could be made, and referred those workers sent to the employers. In all instances these were large employers and with some, the occupations most often sought were peculiar to the employer's industry. The manager, in describing these assignments, said that "this system works very well and I wish we could have more of it."

Public Employment Agencies: Specialization by Program

In all of the local offices, at least some of the placement interviewers have been assigned to "special programs," either full-time or part-time. The larger the office and the heavier its traffic, the more likely will these assignments be full-time. Placement sections in the Adult and Youth Opportunity Centers can actually be regarded as specialized in toto, for in the former only adults with certain socioeconomic characteristics can be served and in the latter, only youth. However, even in these offices there are assignments to "special programs" over and above the primary specialization. Examples are the Veterans Representative in the AOC and the interviewer who may be assigned to "Job Corps graduates" in a YOC.

According to our data, the most commonly-represented special programs to which designated placement officers have been

assigned are, in descending order: veterans' placement, placement of minority-group workers, handicapped workers, older workers, various combinations of the Human Resources Development, Concentrated Employment, and Job Corps programs, parolee placement, and youth placement. We have not included in this ranking the staffs of the AOC's as specialized in the Human Resources Development program, or the placement personnel of the YOC's as specialized for youth. Such inclusion would, of course, alter our ranking. Also, we have not included this primary specialization of the AOC's and YOC's in a count given us by our respondents. This count shows that 20 percent of the placement staff of the sample Bay Area public employment offices (in terms of personnel equivalents) has been designated to serve full-time or part-time in these and other special programs.

With so large a proportion of the placement officers assigned to special programs, it is of interest to note the nature of their duties. A smaller potential for the referral and placement of workers covered by some of these programs exists than in the mainstream placement operation. Hence, the specialized placement officer is likely to spend a considerably heavier proportion of his time in job development, and in public contacts of various sorts in order to "sell" his applicants. Also, he will generally be far more concerned with referral-to-training opportunities, and he will need a better knowledge of the existence of various supportive services than will the placement

officer who generally deals with more truly job-ready applicants. However, these placement people perform no "counseling" in the official sense.

We found, in about two-thirds of the local offices, that these specialized interviewers took employer job orders in connection withtheir programs and in about half, that they visited employers, indicating a somewhat greater activity in these respects than characterized the occupationally-specialized placement people. Whether or not they took job orders directly, they had available to them when they had referable applicants any orders that had been taken by the occupationally-specialized interviewers or by others in the local office.

The informational activities of placement interviewers working on special programs resembled those of the officers who were occupationally specialized. Again, they shared the knowledge gained from their operations with others in the local office and elsewhere in the service. Again, better than half of the managers reported them as giving labor market information to the schools. However, these interviewers were more likely to deal with adult education schools and with training agencies than were their occupationally-specialized colleagues who dealt largely with the high schools. Also, as would be expected, a larger number of managers, or three-quarters of these respondents, stated that interviewers on special programs maintained close ties with various community and service groups than was the case

with the occupationally-specialized placement officers.

Specialization and Job Duties of Placement Personnel: Private Employment Agencies

In about 90 percent of the public employment offices, at least some placement interviewers worked only with jobs in a defined occupational area. We found this type of specialization in practice at two-thirds of the private agencies. Despite this lesser proportion, the actual degree of occupational specialization of placement personnel was considerably greater in the private than in the public agencies.

The specialization by job field found in the local offices often represented little more than a division of assignments between blue-collar and white-collar jobs with, perhaps, professional and technical placements or domestic placements handled at other desks. This degree of specialization in most private agencies is achieved by the nature of the office itself. Its services as a whole are likely to be limited to white-collar workers, or possibly to professional and technical workers only, or to clerical workers only. Or it may serve only industrial-type workers or only domestics. If it is a small office, additional specialization may not be needed. If it is large, the further differentiation gained through employee assignments is likely to represent, actually, a secondary specialization. This, in turn, could be sufficiently fine to amount to a concentration

of effort on jobs in specific occupations. As many or more placement people in a private agency may be working on assigned occupational areas as in a much larger local office, because the former has no corps of interviewers assigned to workers with particular characteristics other than their occupation.

Private Employment Agencies: Specialization by Occupation

Two-thirds of the private agencies practiced some specialization of placement staff because the office's initial limitation as to the clientele it served was not regarded as already sufficiently limiting. In these offices, 41 percent of the specialized assignments combined major occupational fields. The combination of professional and clerical jobs, for example, was a common assignment as it is in the local offices. However, 37 percent of the assignments described to us were to single major occupational groups such as managerial or clerical. And 22 percent represented assignments to specific clusters of jobs such as data-processing occupations.

Private agency placement interviewers working in designated occupational fields, like those with other specialties, appeared to have somewhat greater opportunity than their counterparts in the public offices for exercising their particular expertise. All respondents reported that these interviewers took orders for workers in their occupational fields. All respondents stated that they visited employers in connection with their activities

and that they shared the information gained through their work with others.

The subsequent flow of this information, however, was quite different from the pattern in the local offices. It will be recalled that the interviewer in the private agencies gives the employment counseling conducted there, as well as serving as the placement officer. Hence, the applicant in a "counseling situation" is regarded as a chief recipient of the information gained by the private agency interviewer in his placement work. Of course, in all of the public as well as all of the private agencies, the labor market information acquired by placement personnel was reported as conveyed to fellow workers and to the manager. But even so, information about the current market may have been somewhat more available to private agency applicants than to those in public offices. Despite normal inter-office communication as to labor market conditions, it was not always clear that counselors in the public offices were completely apprised of day-to-day developments at the placement desks. However, as the employment counseling given in the private agencies was dispensed by the placement interviewers, getting this information through to the applicant did not depend on first transmitting it to the counselor so that he, in turn, could impart it to his counselees.

In the private agencies that were members of larger organizations, labor market information was conveyed to other

members of the chain of offices. But our respondents frequently meant, in describing this flow of information, that the facts derived from job orders and workers' applications were transmitted to central data banks. There, with the procedures followed dependent on the organization involved, this information was used to effect job matches.

Communication lines beyond the confines of the individual private agency itself or its organization, appeared limited as compared with those established by the public offices. Only a fifth of the private agencies, in contrast to more than half of the local offices, maintained any contacts with the schools and these appeared, more often than not, to be infrequent and lacking in depth. Contacts with other individuals and groups outside the office were also less often reported for the private than for the public agencies. And when such contacts did occur, they most often involved giving data about wage levels or customary job specifications to individual employers, rather than conveying more general information to community groups.

Private Employment Agencies: Specialization by Industry

The specialization of private agency personnel in placement work for a given industry was, as in the public agencies, far less frequently practiced than occupational specialization. We found this practice in 20 percent of the sample private agencies, and five industries were involved. Two were the same

industries that had been broken out for specialized service by the local offices--electronics and medical services. However, where apparel, and hotels and restaurants were the remaining industries given specialized placement service by the public offices, the additional industries to which private agency personnel had been specifically assigned were aerospace, including electronics; chemicals; and construction. The job tasks of the industrially-specialized private agency interviewers and their place in the flow of information were identical to those characteristic of interviewers assigned to specific occupations or designated occupational areas.

Private Employment Agencies: Other Types of Specialization

Again, as in the public agencies, the assignment of designated placement people to specific employer accounts was rare in private agencies. Only two of the latter-type offices followed this practice, the same proportion as in the local offices. Where we did encounter this type of service, the employers were large; the technology was sophisticated; and the jobs, highly technical.

We have mentioned in various contexts above that a minimum degree of specialization exists in the private agencies so far as any applicant characteristics other than their occupation or industrial attachment are concerned. One exception is the sex of the applicant. As the agencies appear to be in a state of

transition on this score, the evidences of specialization of placement personnel by sex that we found are difficult to evaluate.

Although one or two of the sample agencies had served men or women exclusively prior to passage of the Civil Rights Act, none of the sample agencies, as offices, were specialized in this manner at the time of our interviews. However, we did find rather frequent allusions to "Male Desks" or "Female Desks" when we questioned the respondents concerning the specialization of placement personnel. As this type of "specialization" most frequently described the separation existing between professional and clerical workers in a white-collar agency, we extended our questioning in an effort to determine to what extent such specialization amounted to a de facto segregation of the sexes or was one that would be enforced no matter what the circumstances. We would ask, for example, "How would you handle the situation were a lady engineer or a male stenographer to walk in the door?"

In those cases where the answer given indicated that the applicant would be sent to the desk specializing in the applicant's occupational field (and this was often true despite the prevailing office terminology) that office was not recorded as having placement personnel specialized on the basis of the applicant's sex. However, in the fifth of all instances where a "Female Desk" or a "Male Desk" appeared to persist in fact as well as theory, this type of specialization was regarded as in force. In some cases, our hypothetical inquiry was regarded as

describing a most unlikely eventuality and we are not entirely certain that the situation would actually be worked out as the manager surmised, were it to occur. In other instances, the situation had occurred and the separation, nonetheless, had been maintained. If a "lady engineer" or "lady chemist" did apply, her referral was handled at the women's desk. The interviewer in charge of that desk obtained the needed information for the transaction from the men's desk which, for the most part, served only applicants in professional and technical occupations. Again, private agency interviewers whose placement activity was specialized in this manner had the same job tasks and the same place in the flow of labor information as their colleagues whose operations were specialized upon some other basis or not at all.

Nature of Placement Operations - File Search, Applicant Screening, and Testing: Public Employment Agencies

Detecting the essential differences between public and private employment agencies requires some exploration of the techniques used in the placement process as well as the organization of placement units. One such exploration yielded results that were not entirely expected.

The words, "file search" describe the procedure of resorting to the application files to find the best-qualified applicant when an employer job order is received. This procedure is in contrast to making a "spot referral". In the latter

instance, the applicant is referred out on a job order at the close of his interview with the placement officer--an order that was already on file in the office or that was developed during his visit. As a rule, the proportion of spot referrals to all referrals will be high for lesser-skilled and casual labor jobs and low when more exacting specifications are present on the employer's job order. The amount of file search, too, might be expected to fall off in a labor market characterized by shortages of applicants with needed skills, or under office situations where traffic is too heavy to permit its use.

To some, the amount of file search practiced is an indicator of the quality of the placement operation, inasmuch as this practice indicates a careful effort to match that applicant most nearly meeting them with the specifications stated on the job order. To others, the overuse of file search needlessly delays the referral of an applicant who is then at the placement interviewer's desk. It may result, further, not only in the loss of a referable applicant who then seeks placement service elsewhere, but also in the cancellation of the employer job order because of the slow service provided.

Obviously, many factors are involved in judging the extent to which file search should or must be used--the occupations involved, the state of the current market in terms of the labor demand-supply relationships existing in given occupations, the amount of time available for use of this procedure, and the

existence of guidelines that one or another group of applicants is to receive preference in referral. Our data are not sufficiently detailed, for the most part, to permit much explanation as to why a given employment agency practiced much or little file search or whether or not the amount done was the desirable amount under existing circumstances. We can, however, supply the responses given us on this matter together with such comments as were volunteered.

Public Employment Agencies: File Search

We found that more than half of the July 1968 referrals made by the public agencies were stated to have occurred after file search (Table 6-1). This proportion was heaviest at 61 percent in the full-functioning offices and lowest at 40 percent in the AOC's and YOC's. In between, with 54 percent of their referrals resulting after file search, were the metropolitan employment service offices--offices making significant numbers of both clerical and casual labor-type referrals.

As mentioned above, we are in no position to evaluate these figures as reflecting either a good or a bad operation. We can state however, that the amount of file search reported as occurring in the public agencies at 54 percent of all referrals for the sample offices, was a significantly larger proportion than the comparable 37 percent claimed for the private agencies. We do have a few clues as to why this difference may

Table 6 - 1

July 1968 Referrals Made With and Without File Search by Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

July 1968 referrals	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
Total referrals				
Number	25,309	9,297	10,455	5,557
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
With file search	53.7	61.1	54.4	40.3
Without file search	46.3	38.9	45.6	59.7

exist. One is that these figures may reflect both the public agencies' complaint that they are bogged down with unreferable applicants and the private agencies' lament that they are short qualified applicants. In any event, the sample public agencies placed on permanent jobs, in July 1968, a number of applicants equal to 30 percent of the new applications taken that month. The comparable proportion for the 18 sample private agencies for which this information is available was 83 percent. Even allowing for what may be shortcomings in the comparability or accuracy of these statistics, there were obviously great pressures in the private agencies to refer out, while they were in these offices, all referable applicants who appeared on the scene.[4]

Differences in the volume of job orders to work on must also have been a factor. The number of new applications taken by the public employment agencies in July 1968 amounted to 162 percent of the new orders received that month. In the same 18 private agencies, new applications represented only 72 percent of the job orders received that July. Thus, applicant traffic fell considerably short of the potential demand for referrals.[5]

Public Employment Agencies: Applicant Screening

A factor that might have served to increase the amount of file search in the local offices, particularly that reported as conducted in the AOC's and YOC's, emerged when we asked about the proportion of job openings received that required "close and

detailed screening of applicant qualifications against job specifications in order to effect a placement." Contrary to what might have been expected, the highest proportion, or 63 percent, was given by the AOC's and YOC's; the considerably lower percent of 51, by the full-functioning offices (Table 6-2).

In all probability, a conventional type of placement operation constituted the largest proportion of all July 1968 placement activity in the full-functioning offices. Yet they tended, despite the fact their file-search percentages were relatively high as compared with those of the private agencies, to state that they no longer had the time needed to do a careful placement job. They had been uniformly apologetic about the amount of file search carried on in their offices, and they were equally so in commenting on the amount of screening that could be done in order to match employer job specifications against applicant qualifications.

The specialized local offices, like the private agencies, gave relatively low file-search percentages, possibly because of the speed with which they reported referring on their shared orders. But also like the private agencies, the AOC's and YOC's reported a comparatively large amount of careful screening. Thus, we have the apparent anomaly that the specialized offices with the lowest proportion of referrals made as a result file search and the highest proportion of job openings requiring "close and detailed screening of applicant qualifications

Table 6 - 2

July 1968 Job Openings Received by Public Employment Agencies that Required or Did Not Require Screening, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Job openings received in July 1968	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
Job openings received				
Number	14,336	6,161	5,055	3,120
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Required screening	53.0	51.4	49.1	62.6
Did not require screening	47.0	48.6	50.9	37.4

Note: The question as asked of our respondents was worded as follows: "What percentage of the job openings you receive would you estimate require close and detailed screening of applicant qualifications in order to effect a placement?" The percentages given were then applied against the number of job openings reported as received in July 1968.

against job order specifications" most nearly in their answers resemble the responses given by the private agencies.

The solution to this puzzle appears to lie in the totally different procedures the managers of the public and private agencies had in mind when they replied to our question. One respondent from a YOC office, when answering that 100 percent of all orders required careful scrutiny, defined careful screening as follows:

> "It means persuading employers to reduce any specifications that would prevent our referring the most likely prospect we have."

Another YOC manager defined careful screening as:

> "This means phoning on practically all orders where there are specifications, to ask the employer to reduce them."

The same manager who had reported that only 50 percent of the orders received in the office needed this type of screening, explained further that job openings given the YOC direct did not require it because:

> "The employer knows what kind of office we have and gives us his order to absorb the disadvantaged... Generally, he hands out two kinds of orders--one for the hard core with practically no specs and the other for 'average workers' where specs are as high as ever. The latter are more likely to be given to (the regular office) and on these we must be more careful. These are the orders we screen."

And the manager of one AOC defined careful screening as:

> "We look closely at each order and attempt to determine how one of our applicants could become acceptable <u>without</u> meeting the specifications."

Meanwhile, the manager of one metropolitan employment service

office where time was said to permit very little careful screening, and who reported that only 20 percent of all job openings were carefully screened, defined this procedure in more conventional terms as:

> "A careful comparison of applicant qualifications against the specifications on the order."

And the manager of a full-functioning office, who regretfully stated that only 25 percent of all job orders were now screened, repeated this definition in practically the same words,

> "It is matching applicant characteristics with the job order."

Public Employment Agencies: Use of Tests in Placement

A part of applicant screening can be testing the applicants for employment--either to determine if they have the necessary proficiency to perform on a job in accordance with the standards specified by the employer, or to ascertain their aptitudes for a given type of employment or a general job field.

In only one of the sample public employment offices was it stated flatly that tests were not given in connection with placement, and this was a specialized office (Table 6-3). We gathered, however, that testing in connection with placement (and often for counseling as well) is done rather sparingly in the AOC's and YOC's because of its association, in the applicant's mind, with the schoolroom. Tests, as one manager remarked, are "something uptight." And another manager of a specialized

Table 6 - 3

Use of Testing in Connection With Placement
by Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Use of testing	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
All agencies				
Number	16	7	4	5
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No tests given	6.3	--	--	20.0
Tests given only if requested by employers	50.0	42.8	75.0	40.0
Tests given only if requested by applicants	6.3	--	--	20.0
Tests given only if believed they would be helpful in placement	6.2	--	--	20.0
Tests given if requested by employers, or if requested by applicants, or if believed they would be helpful in placement	31.2	57.2	25.0	--

office said about tests,

> "We try to discourage employers from asking for them...and we give them only if required by the employer, as tests tend to screen out the disadvantaged."

In fact, one-half of the public agencies gave tests only when they were required to do so by the employer. One specialized office tested only when requested to do so by the applicant and another, when the placement officer believed it would help him in selecting the applicant if the latter were tested. Respondents in a third of the public offices maintained the flexible policy of testing applicants at the request of the employer, the applicant, or the placement officer.

In contrast to the private agencies, the public offices most frequently give aptitude tests in connection with placement (Table 6-4), whereas the private agencies are relatively more likely to test for proficiency. This fact would seem another indicator that the public agencies have proportionately more applicants lacking specific skills than do the private agencies and also, probably a higher proportion of entrant youth in their total traffic.

Nature of Placement Operations - File Search, Applicant Screening, and Testing: Private Employment Agencies - File Search

As mentioned above, respondents in the sample private agencies reported relatively less file search than did the public

Table 6 - 4

Tests Given in Connection with Placement
by Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Tests given	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
No tests given	6.3	--	--	20.0
Specific Aptitude Test Battery	87.5	100.0	100.0	60.0
Proficiency tests -- typing, shorthand, spelling, etc.	68.7	85.7	75.0	60.0
California Aptitude Test	43.8	28.6	50.0	40.0

offices (Table 6-5). The 37 percent of all referrals resulting from file search, according to these respondents, represented a much lower proportion than in the public agencies.

The latter, even the AOC's and YOC's where file search was least frequent, together averaged 40 percent of all referrals accomplished in this manner. We found that spot referral was definitely the order of the day in the private agencies, and this was even more true of the affiliated than the non-affiliated agencies. In fact every effort was made, except with "high-priced jobs," to refer the applicant on his initial visit to the office. And where file search was used by the chain agencies, it frequently meant resort to computer job matches.

We found spot referral carried to such lengths in one private agency that the employment counselors were instructed to bring any applicant to the manager's desk who could not be referred out on his initial visit. The manager then decided whether to direct the applicant to another counselor or to take on the referral task himself.

Several managers commented on this matter of spot referral and it was closely linked to job development in their minds. One respondent from a long-established but very small and unaffiliated private agency maintained that spot placements could be expected to run higher in the older than the "younger agencies." This view rested on the manager's own experience--that with a host of employer contacts and a severe shortage of qualified applicants,

Table 6 - 5

July 1969 Referrals Made With and Without File Search by Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

July 1968 referrals	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
Total referrals[a]			
Number	4,379	2,848	1,531
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
With file search	37.2	41.7	28.7
Without file search	62.8	58.3	71.3

[a]Information not available for five agencies.

one needed to make very few phone calls before placing any qualified applicant who might enter the office.

The typical situation described by most of the private agencies was one in which there appeared to be a comparatively small backlog of either unplaced applicants or unfilled job orders. Thus, if a qualified applicant appeared, his presence in the office triggered an immediate resort to the telephone for "job development." When unfilled job openings mounted, the response was advertising for applicants. In either event, the outcome was more likely a spot referral than one resulting from file search.

Private Employment Agencies: Applicant Screening

Respondents from the private agencies obviously did not believe that making spot referrals in any way precluded a close and detailed screening of applicant qualifications against job order specifications. According to the managers of the 18 sample agencies for which we had July 1968 job-openings figures available, 92 percent of these openings required detailed screening (Table 6-6). The great majority of the private agency managers stated that "all job orders" require careful screening. But a few of the large agency managers where referral volume was heavy did reduce this proportion from the customary response of 100 percent to a smaller figure based on the presence of lesser-skilled job opportunities in their order files. Thus,

Table 6 - 6

July 1968 Job Openings Received by Private Employment Agencies that Required or Did Not Require Screening,[a] by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Job openings received in July 1968	All agencies	Type of agency				
		Affiliation		Per cent fee paid by employer		
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated	90-100	30-89	0-29
Job openings received[b]						
Number	4,903	2,327	2,576	757	2,435	1,711
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Required screening	91.8	93.6	90.3	96.0	95.1	85.4
Did not require screening	8.2	6.4	9.7	4.0	4.9	14.6

[a]The question as asked of our respondents was worded as follows: "What percentage of the job openings you receive would you estimate require close and detailed screening of applicant qualifications in order to effect a placement?" The percentages given were then applied against the number of job openings reported as received in July, 1968.

[b]Information not available for 12 agencies.

our findings show a lesser percentage of job orders requiring careful checking reported for the affiliated agencies than for the independents. However, the higher the proportion of fees paid by the employer in a given agency, the greater was the importance given to the detailed screening of applicant characteristics against job order specifications, as might have been expected.

All of the private agency respondents defined careful screening as an effort actually to match applicant qualifications against the employer's job order. The manager of one agency handling only jobs for certain selected professions did speak in terms reminiscent of the responses of the AOC's and YOC's, however. He mentioned "altering parameters" in the job match--in other words, persuading the employer to reduce his specifications sufficiently to accord with a realistic appraisal of the applicant's qualifications. But by and large, these managers defined screening in such terms as,

> "It means real close checking--if we couldn't do a really fine job, we couldn't compete with the large agencies" or (from a large agency manager), "Every job takes careful screening. We give the work history close examination and review test results."

Work Histories and References

One of the stronger contrasts between operations in the public and private agencies, in fact, emerged in the matter of

validating work histories and checking references--which could be regarded as part of the screening process. Respondents in all except three of the 16 sample public offices said that they required detailed work histories from all or most of their applicants, no doubt referring to the standard application-for-work form used in the local offices. Yet, not one local office manager answered affirmatively when asked if these work histories were ever validated. Also, in only three of the local offices were references reported as ever checked. In one of these instances, the manager of a YOC stated that work-record references were checked to determine if any of the experience reported might indicate that some skill had been exercised or acquired on a previous job. If so, that employer was phoned in order to determine if a greater degree of skill could be attributed to the applicant than the latter laid claim to when completing the application form. In one of the other local offices where references were sometimes checked, this was done in the case of domestics and guards. The remaining office checked references on domestics when the care of children was involved, and also the references of nurse aides and hospital orderlies.

The very different responses we obtained from managers in the sample private agencies concerning their practices with respect to work histories and references would seem to explain certain employer reactions documented in the Institute's earlier employer policy survey (see Appendix F-I). When asked their

reasons for frequent use of the private agencies in a free-answer question, 21 percent of the responses mentioned good screening and 5 percent, that the agency knew the needs of the establishment. In responses explaining the frequent use of public agencies, none referred to good screening and only one percent mentioned that the local office knew the establishment's labor needs. When employers were asked why private agencies were used infrequently or not at all, 2 percent of the responses indicated poor screening. The same question respecting the public agencies elicited a 13 percent response from the employers questioned that screening was poor.

Of the 30 sample private agencies only two did not require detailed work histories of their applicants. And respondents in only two of the 28 agencies where such information was required reported that it was not validated. The remaining managers described validation procedures that varied both in the extent to which they were used and their thoroughness. Most managers said work histories were always checked if there were any doubt in the employment counselor's mind as to their validity. Others called the most recent employer routinely, with one respondent stating that he tried to bypass the personnel department and reach the applicant's former immediate supervisor. Another said that he checked the most recent employer and then moved backward if that response were negative. Other private agency managers said that really exhaustive validations

of work histories were conducted only when the prospective employer's name could be used, as that procedure resulted in more candid reports. And in yet other instances, both the validation of work histories and checking of references were done at the employer's expense.

All but one of the private agency respondents stated that applicant references were checked, though again, both the extent and the thoroughness of this checking varied with the circumstances. These investigations were likely to be automatic if the employment counselor had any doubts whatever concerning the applicant. Some agencies checked personal references for all applicants; others, only for certain occupations such as professional and technical jobs. Procedures were particularly rigid for domestics where long-distance phoning and correspondence were used if necessary. Other agencies checked references on less-skilled jobs only if this could be accomplished with local phone calls. But in any case, checking references, both personal and in connection with the applicant's previous work history, was the rule and not the exception in the sample private agencies.

Private Employment Agencies: Use of Tests in Placement

The proportion of private agencies where no tests were given in connection with placement was small, although it was somewhat larger than in the public agencies, 10 percent as compared with 6 percent (Table 6-7). However, the private agencies

Table 6 - 7

Use of Testing in Connection With Placement
by Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Use of testing	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
All agencies			
Number	30	17	13
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
No tests given	10.0	11.8	7.7
Tests given to all or most clerical applicants	36.6	29.4	46.1
Tests given to all or most applicants	30.0	35.2	23.1
Tests given only if requested by employers	16.7	11.8	23.1
Tests given only if believed they would be helpful in placement	6.7	11.8	--

do appear to test their applicants rather more at the discretion of the agency and more often, routinely, than do the public agencies. We found that in 50 percent of the latter, applicants were tested only when the employer required this service, but only 17 percent of the private agencies restricted their testing to this extent. Two-thirds of the agencies, it was reported, tested all or most of their applicants or, at least, all or most of their clerical applicants. It appears that the relatively high proportion of private agency work load accounted for by professional, technical, and clerical workers is responsible, in the main, for a greater use of tests in these than in the public offices.

The fact that 70 percent of the sample private agencies reported giving such proficiency tests as typing, shorthand, spelling, filing, and mathematics supports this view (Table 6-8). We also found a half of the private agencies administering the Wonderlic test which our interviews in connection with the Institute's Employer Policy Survey had indicated was a perennial favorite with employers and much used by their own personnel departments. Aptitude testing, however, was performed in only 30 percent of the private agencies, as compared with its much more general use in the public agencies. Its significantly lesser use by the private agencies appeared to indicate both a smaller relative emphasis on blue-collar placement and a smaller proportion of entrant-worker placement.

Table 6 - 8

Tests Given in Connection With Placement
by Private Employment Agencies,
by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Tests given	Per cent of agencies		
	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
No tests given	10.0	11.8	7.7
Proficiency tests -- typing, shorthand, spelling, etc.	70.0	76.5	61.5
Wonderlic	50.0	58.8	38.5
Aptitude tests[a]	30.0	17.6	46.2

[a]Mechanical aptitudes tests were specifically mentioned and also the Science Research Associates tests.

Page 329 omitted.

In general, the picture that we gained of testing in the private agencies reflected the employer preferences and practices expressed in the Institute's earlier survey. We found then, in questioning a representative sample of Bay Area employers, that in 59 percent of the sample establishments, tests were given in connection with clerical hires and in 32 percent for professional and technical workers. Also, tests were given in nearly a third of all establishments to workers in blue-collar occupations (see Appendix F-2). Further, many of the employers who did not, themselves, test applicants for work stated that they did not do so because their testing was done for them by the employment agencies with which they dealt.

Nature of Placement Operations: Job Development and Enlargement of Applicant Supply: Public Employment Agencies

Such are the complexities of the job market that, nearly always, it is unrealistic to expect at one point in time even an approximate match between the job orders being received and the applicants registering at a single employment exchange. Any survey of unfilled job openings and unplaced applicants in an employment office will show that mismatches between job-order specifications and worker qualifications are everywhere in evidence. The metallurgist will not fill the fry-cook job vacancy or the other way around. Yet the failure to find applicants and job orders in these occupations simultaneously

available at a given employment office does not mean that the applicant need necessarily go unplaced or the order unfilled. A chief function of the employment exchange is to lessen the wasted productivity reflected in both the unemployed applicant and the unfilled job. Often, this goal can be accomplished only by enlarging the area of search beyond those applicants and job vacancies whose immediate availability is recorded in the office files and records. Actions can be initiated to develop job openings for available workers or to supplement the supply of applicants when unfilled job openings are mounting in number.

Public Employment Agencies: Job Development

Job development is the corrective for the former type of imbalance, and the circumstances affecting its use are many. Included are the state of the economy, the market for a particular occupation, the time available to office staff for this activity, the extent and depth of contacts between employers and office staff and, most particularly, the latter's extensive and detailed knowledge concerning "who hires whom."

Our free-answer question concerning the circumstances under which job development is used did not elicit from any of the public employment offices the fact that it is not used (Table 6-9). This answer was given, in contrast, by a few of the private agencies where the flow of employer orders was particularly heavy.

Table 6 - 9

Circumstances Under Which Public Employment Agencies Customarily Engage in Job Development, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Circumstances	Per cent of agencies			
	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
Do not engage in job development	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
When job-ready disadvantaged are available, but no job orders	50.0	42.7	75.0	40.0
When graduates of MDT, CEP, Job Corps programs are available, but no job orders	37.5	28.6	25.0	60.0
When veterans are available, but no job orders	31.3	71.4	--	--
When exceptionally well-qualified applicants are available, but no job orders	25.0	28.6	50.0	--
When qualified applicants are available, but no job orders	12.5	28.6	--	--
When qualified minority-group applicants are available, but no job orders	6.2	14.3	--	--
Other	12.5	14.3	--	--

The relatively most frequent circumstance under which job development would be initiated, and it was mentioned by half of the public office respondents, was the availability of a job-ready, disadvantaged worker for whom no appropriate job vacancy was on file. This circumstance was relatively more prominent in the operations of the large mentropolitan employment service offices than in those of even the specialized offices, for the latter circumscribed to a greater extent the situations in which they would initiate job development. The majority of the specialized offices envisaged job development only for "graduates" of such programs as Manpower Development and Training, the Concentrated Employment Program, and Job Corps. The availability of such graduates was, in fact, the second most important reason for initiating job development for the offices as a whole. And judged by the relative frequency of responses, developing jobs for these graduates was followed by efforts in behalf of veterans, and for the exceptionally well-qualified applicant, the qualified applicant, and the qualified minority-group applicant.

Also, judged by the frequency of responses, the full-functioning local offices were more likely to engage in job development under a wider variety of circumstances than were either the metropolitan employment service offices or the AOC's and YOC's. Veterans were particularly likely to receive preference in job-development activities in the full-functioning offices. The metropolitan offices, with their large numbers of placement

interviewers on specialized programs, devoted much of the time available for job development to disadvantaged workers. However, half of the responses from these offices indicated some activity at least in developing jobs for exceptionally well-qualified applicants.

Our question (also of the free-answer variety) about the extent of the office's efforts at job development netted us a series of answers including the element of means as well as of extent. This mixture was present in the answers we received from both the public and the private agencies. It should be noted, however, that the qualification as to "extent" (and it was "if time permits") was appended to the single means of job development mentioned, with one exception, by the public employment service offices (Table 6-10). This means of job development was telephone solicitation. The exception was the specialized office where the method of job development used when time permitted was described by the manager as the "tea-and-cookies approach." This method in his words meant,

> "approaching major employers, inviting them to our office, explaining our work so they will reserve their appropriate orders and give them to us direct, understanding the problems involved."

This respondent said, further, in discussing the "problems involved,"

> "In fact, the Department seems to have become such a problem-related activity rather than job-related activity that it is hard even to think in terms of just plain job development."

Table 6 - 10

Extent of Job Development Efforts of Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Extent of efforts	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
All agencies				
Number	16	7	4	5
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Do not engage in job development	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Telephone solicitation of employers	56.3	71.4	50.0	40.0
Telephone solicitation of employers if time permits	37.5	28.6	50.0	40.0
Other	6.2	--	--	20.0

Public Employment Agencies: Enlargement of Applicant Supply

In every instance and in contrast to the private agencies, respondents from the public agencies stated that their offices made at least some efforts at job development. Almost a third of the public agencies, however, made no attempts to enlarge their supply of applicants (Table 6-11). And these responses, again, furnished a contrast to operations in the private agencies, all of which made such attempts. The specialized offices, already overburdened with problem applicants, laid least claim to trying to enlarge the supply already available. One such office reported "only occasionally; normally we don't." Another limited its appeals for the registration of applicants to the summer-job campaigns for disadvantaged youth.

Half of the metropolitan offices and somewhat better than half of the full-functioning offices solicited for applicants on a routine basis, but a fair proportion of both types did so only occasionally. One office defined "occasionally" as only when new firms entered the area and the office received some of the initial staffing orders. Another respondent qualified "occasionally" as meaning,

> "usually we have a surplus, but sometimes there are orders where we could use more workers. Then, we go about attracting them in a gingerly sort of way."

Most attempts to attract more applicants to register in the public offices took the form of newspaper advertising (Table 6-12). However, the frequency with which this medium was reported as

Table 6 - 11

Circumstances Under Which Public Employment Agencies Customarily Attempt to Enlarge Their Supply of Applicants, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Circumstances	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
All agencies				
Number	16	7	4	5
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Do not attempt to enlarge supply of applicants	31.3	28.6	--	60.0
When job openings are unfilled	37.5	57.1	50.0	--
Occasionally when job openings are unfilled	25.0	14.3	50.0	20.0
Other	6.2	--	--	20.0

Table 6 - 12

Means Used by Public Employment Agencies to Enlarge the Supply of Available Applicants, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Means used	Per cent of agencies			
	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
Do not attempt to enlarge supply of applicants	31.3	28.6	--	60.0
Newspaper advertising	43.8	57.1	75.0	--
Contacts with community organizations	18.8	14.3	25.0	20.0
Radio advertising	12.5	14.3	--	20.0
Combination of media	12.5	14.3	--	20.0
"Word of mouth"	12.5	--	25.0	20.0

used should not be taken as indicating any large-scale publicity campaign. As the manager of one fairly large office remarked,

> "We can't really do very much (advertising). We spent only $51.18 all last quarter."

Contacts with community organizations of the type representing disadvantaged workers was the next most widely-used form of publicity, followed by radio and a general combination of media. "Word of mouth" was also reported by two offices. This method reflected the "gingerly" approach and was used to avoid over-flooding the offices with applicants.

Nature of Placement Operations: Job Development and Enlargement of Applicant Supply: Private Employment Agencies

As mentioned previously, a few of the sample private agencies did not find it necessary to engage in job development efforts (Table 6-13). Three-quarters of these respondents stated, however, that they did so when qualified applicants came to the office and job opportunities were not on hand for workers with their skills. It should be noted that respondents from the private agencies did not limit their answers with the proviso that applicants had to be "exceptionally well qualified" before job development was undertaken. It should be noted, also, that a distinction was observed in our questioning as between job development for specific applicants and a general solicitation of employers for job openings irrespective of the immediate

Table 6 - 13

Circumstances Under Which Private Employment Agencies Customarily Engage in Job Development, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Circumstances	Per cent of agencies		
	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
Do not engage in job development	10.0	5.9	15.4
When qualified applicants are available but no job orders	76.7	82.4	69.2
When veterans are available but no job orders	3.3	-	7.7
When job-ready disadvantaged are available, but no job orders	3.3	5.9	-

availability of applicants for the job orders sought. Such solicitation was carried on as a matter of course by some of the private agencies, usually not by the placement staff, and is not included in the responses to our questions on job development.

Private Employment Agencies: Job Development

Two of the private agencies responded to our questions about job development in a manner reminiscent of the public agencies, namely that veterans and the "disadvantaged" would be assisted by job development. There were, however, important qualifications. Veterans having "EDP skills" were vigorously assisted. Also, "disadvantaged" applicants for domestic jobs were placed at lower-than-average wage rates in homes where they could receive "on-the-job training."

Again, with the private agencies, the means of engaging in job development and the extent to which it was conducted became somewhat mixed in the answer to our question regarding "extent". However, 20 percent of the private agencies reported consistently heavy efforts at job development, with this response approaching one-third in the affiliated offices (Table 6-14). Telephone solicitation was used by about half and was the most common method reported, although 13 percent issued bulletins to their clientele of employers, describing available applicants. Others requested that orders be placed with the agencies by advertising in neighborhood media, church bulletins, and the like.

Table 6 - 14

Extent of Job Development Efforts of Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Extent of efforts	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
All agencies			
Number	30	17	13
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Do not engage in job development	10.0	5.9	15.4
Telephone solicitation of employers	47.7	58.8	30.8
Consistently heavy efforts at job development	20.0	11.8	30.8
Bulletins describing available applicants sent to employers	13.3	17.6	7.6
Other	10.0	5.9	15.4

Private Employment Agencies: Enlargement of Applicant Supply

We found that enlarging the applicant supply was a matter of constant concern to the private agencies in contrast to the public offices. None of the former failed to take at least some measures to increase the number of applicants coming to them (Table 6-15). In some agencies, the fact that traffic had fallen below a certain level automatically triggered resort to advertising in order to increase its volume.

More than four-fifths of the agencies reported their attempts to enlarge applicant supply as continuous. Only 14 percent of the respondents replied that such efforts were limited to those times when too many unfilled job openings were on hand. One agency left the signalling for his appeals' attracting more applicants to his employers. When the latter wished additional referrals, he advertised.

Newspaper advertising was far and away the most generally used means of attracting additional applicants to the private agencies, as it was also in the public offices (Table 6-16). However, 90 percent of the private agency managers reported the use of this medium while less than half of their counterparts in the local offices used the press. The private agencies utilized various other forms of advertising and contacts as well. At the time of our interview, one manager had recently completed a survey of applicants to learn why they came to this particular agency. The results "surprised" our respondent in

Table 6 - 15

Circumstances Under Which Private Employment Agencies Customarily Attempt to Enlarge Their Supply of Applicants, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Circumstances	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
All agencies			
Number	29[a]	17	12
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Do not attempt to enlarge supply of applicants	0.0	0.0	0.0
Constantly attempt to enlarge supply of applicants	82.8	81.3	84.6
When job openings are unfilled	13.8	18.7	7.7
Other	3.4	--	7.7

[a]Information not available for one affiliated agency.

Table 6 - 16

Means Used by Private Employment Agencies to Enlarge the Supply of Available Applicants, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Means used	Per cent of agencies		
	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
Do not attempt to enlarge supply of applicants	0.0	0.0	0.0
Newspaper advertising	90.0	88.2	92.3
Yellow pages	33.3	41.2	23.1
Trade journals	16.7	--	38.5
Radio	6.7	5.9	7.7
Television	3.3	--	7.7
Other	13.3	--	7.7

that 50 percent of all recent applicants selected the agency because of ads in the yellow pages, as compared with only 20 percent as a result of newspaper advertising. The remaining 30 percent had come upon the recommendations of friends, their previous employer, or an employer from whom they had solicited a job but who did not then have a job vacancy.

Thus, it is to be expected that the phone book's yellow pages was second in popularity with the private agencies as a means of attracting applicants, and that several managers mentioned writing applicants they had previously placed or employers with whom they dealt to request that they mention the agency to friends, relatives, and whomever might be qualified. Other respondents referred to trade journals, radio and television. And one said he gave talks at schools with a heavy enrollment of minority-group students in order to discuss the community's job opportunities that were open to those obtaining sufficient education to qualify for them.

Nature of Placement Operations: The "Hard-to-Place Worker - Job Development and Employability Development for This Worker: Public Employment Agencies

Our exploration of such "normal" placement operations as job development and enlarging the applicant supply indicated that the traffic in public and private employment offices differed materially as to the characteristics of the job hunters. Dif-

ferences from the private agencies tended to be most marked, of course, in the AOC's and YOC's. They were least, as a rule, in the full-functioning offices which were generally, although not always, in suburban areas.

The contrasts between the public and private agencies became even more marked as we left what might be called "normal" or "mainstream" placement operations to explore practices related to the "hard-to-place" or marginal applicant for work.

Various considerations enter into interpreting the data we gathered on this subject and these should be borne in mind. For one, our questions related to the marginal or hard-to-place worker in terms of the job openings received in a given local office. Thus, even within the group of all local offices, or as among all the private agencies, there were wide differences concerning the characteristics of the most marginal worker. To the manager of an Adult Opportunity Center, this individual was the one possessing more than his share of the many disabilities these applicants may suffer. The manager of a more favored office, either public or private, might see the "woman liberal arts graduate who can't type and has no credentials or certificates or anything" as his most marginal worker and have office records to prove it.

Nor can one rely too greatly on the customary stereotypes of employment offices in interpreting the responses we received, for the comments of the agency managers contained several surprises.

One private agency manager, after stating that women liberal arts graduates were his most marginal workers in terms of the orders he received, was questioned further about "disadvantaged workers." He maintained that Negroes with police records were assuredly not difficult to place in his particular situation. He had documents to show which indicated much long-distance communication and many reference checks respecting such workers. They could be placed by his office, he maintained, and the employers were paying the fees. It happened that such hires were regarded as prima facie evidence for the defense contractors involved that they were, indeed, supporting the national manpower programs.

Were the interviewer not sufficiently alert, the very term "disadvantaged worker" could lead to difficulties. In a public office, the worker eligible for the programs carrying the largest potential for assistance was probably one who in addition to having certain socioeconomic characteristics, lived in a defined poverty neighborhood or was a welfare recipient. Thus, the degree of disadvantagement or marginality took on certain administrative overtones in these offices. But, being "disadvantaged" in the private agency, and therefore in need of and eligible for "special efforts," was likely to be equated by some managers with being "desperately in need of work." This condition, in turn, could describe the well-qualified worker, suddenly displaced by a merger, who had heavy family responsibilities and a large load of debt.

And it is, of course, obvious that certain replies, couched in the same words by the different managers, could mean quite different things when related to their particular job-order files. "Lack of education" in a YOC could mean completion of no more than the fifth grade, but in a private agency in the electronics belt it might mean the lack of an M.S. or Ph.D. degree. And while "lack of skill" in an AOC could signify no degree of job readiness whatever, it might well mean no more than the failure to pass a typing test at an acceptable level in the commercial section of another public agency.

Public Employment Agencies: The "Hard-to-Place" Worker

With these limitations and qualifications specified, we can state that the public agency respondents, like their counterparts in the private agencies, believed "lack of skills" to be, most often, the trait or deficiency characterizing the hard-to-place worker (Table 6-17). This response was given in one-half of all the replies to our free-answer question on the matter. As a worker deficiency, this lack was viewed most seriously by the metropolitan offices which, when compared with the specialized offices, do receive an appreciable proportion of orders requiring the possession of well-defined skills. The manager of one such office perceived the relativity embraced in the dictum of "lack of skills" by saying,

> "It means being at the low end of the skill spectrum in relation to the job you seek--it could be the

Table 6 - 17

Traits or Deficiencies Characterizing the "Hard-to-Place" Worker in Terms of Job Openings Received -- Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Traits or deficiencies	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
Lack of skills	50.0	14.3	100.0	60.0
Lack of education	31.3	28.6	--	60.0
Lack of motivation	18.8	--	--	60.0
Poor appearance	18.8	14.3	--	40.0
Lack of work experience	12.5	--	25.0	20.0
Job-hopping	12.5	--	50.0	--
Liberal arts education	12.5	14.3	25.0	--
Police record	12.5	14.3	25.0	--
Mental or emotional problems	12.5	--	25.0	20.0
Lack of knowledge of modern technology (professional workers)	6.2	--	25.0	--
Language and communication difficulties	6.2	--	25.0	--
Other	43.8	--	100.0	--

> skill-rusty older worker, the young liberal arts graduate, boy or girl, with no saleable skills at all."

But the manager of one specialized office took this matter of "Lack of skill" very literally, indeed, He had first listed the deficiencies which characterize the hard-to-place worker by replying,

> "All of our workers are hard to place. I suppose the hardest to place would be the applicant with all the deficiencies--lack of education, lack of skill, poor attitudes, no motivation, and a long prison record."

When this manager was asked, however, which of the deficiencies he had listed would constitute the greatest block to the applicant's placement, he replied,

> "The lack of any skill. If he could do anything, there would be employers who could overlook the lack of education, who wouldn't care about race, and not even about a not-too-bad prison record."

Managers in the full-functioning offices were more likely to accentuate "lack of education"[6] than lack of skill in their replies. One of these managers in an area where the newer types of industrial production are prominent said,

> "The worker with minimum or no education. Color doesn't bother us; it can even help. But we fall over the 'must have high school' requirement of employers which they won't and probably shouldn't relax."

Several of the managers mentioned "lack of motivation," irrespective of the race or socioeconomic status of the applicant, as a particularly difficult problem to surmount, especially among young workers. "Poor appearance" was also mentioned.

Sometimes this deficiency meant no more than the failure of the clerical applicant to be suitably groomed. It could be a more serious matter, however. One manager, in describing his "most marginal applicants," replied,

> "It's the hippies who make the placement officers cringe when they come in with their long hair, beads and bare feet...they are so automatically and uniformly rejected by all_____employers, I think they are kidding when they say they want to work. I can send a minority parolee to any number of our large employers, including_____, and, if we recommend him, he will get their attention and maybe a job. But if I sent a hippy, we would be through. Some of them come from good families around here, but they also blow in from other parts of the Bay Area and elsewhere."

Among other traits mentioned was "lack of work experience," though this often-commented-upon bar to the hiring of new entrants was not given the prominence that might have been expected. And when it was mentioned, the point of the remark gave considerable support to those educators who would push for more vocational and general work-experience programs. One suburban office manager commented,

> "It's the entrant kids without skills or work experience who are on the market for the first time. There is just no mass hiring of unskilled here where they could get a first work experience no matter how unrelated it was to their later career-type employment...even a cannery or two would help. It's this lack that makes summer employment so important, even if it's no more than yard work. And work-study programs are extremely important."

"Job hopping," which according to our respondents in the Institute's employer policy survey was the worker trait most to be

avoided in hiring employees, also came in for some mention, as did police records and mental or emotional problems.

Of note was the fact that the liberal arts degree received equal weight with such deficiences as police records and mental problems as a deterrent to placement. One manager said, in speaking of job entrants thus equipped,

> "Liberal arts grads with no saleable skills just don't realize a job isn't waiting for them...sometimes a little training will get them a job in an office or lab. We sometimes recommend they go back to school if they can afford it and get something saleable. Just one quarter in Bus. Ad. can be enough to gloss over a history major in an employer's eyes so then the kid can get in a management program in some small company. And sometimes civil service is the answer." (See Appendix F-3)

Offices with a fair number of jobs from employers in the newer-type industries were likely to comment on the skill-rustiness of professional workers who had been too long employed, possibly, in one narrow or out-dated specialty. Such situations were referred to as a "lack of knowledge of modern technology" or in similar phrases. "Language and communication difficulties" also presented problems. At one level these were associated with a lack of education; at another, with highly trained immigrants who could not be placed in jobs commensurate with their education and skills because of the recency of their arrival in this country.

Public Employment Agencies: Job Development

Our respondents then described, in reply to our free-

answer question, those groups of marginally placeable workers for whom they made special efforts to obtain job openings from employers (Table 6-18). None of the public agencies failed to name at least one special worker group for which such efforts were made and, of course, some overlap did exist. For example, the undereducated applicant was often one and the same with the applicant whose skills were limited or who was a member of a racial minority.

More respondents mentioned trying to help the undereducated job-seeker than any other group because the school dropout poses so severe a problem to all of the offices, not alone to the YOC's. However, the matter of "undereducation" is not associated alone with lack of formal education. One manager defined this deficiency as,

> "a lack of ability to read, write and comprehend which is not necessarily related to the possession of a high school diploma. In general, our employers are not too insistent on high school graduation but they do insist on literacy and the ability to understand and follow simple instructions. Many high school graduates can't."

Nonetheless, this manager stated his office worked long and hard to find job opportunities for these workers, though he preferred to find training opportunities, when available in such cases. His reaction, however, to workers who in addition to being undereducated also lacked motivation to work (and these the office did not help with especial efforts) probably explains why members of this group were not mentioned as the recipients of intensive

Table 6 - 18

Marginally Placeable Workers for Whom Public Employment Agencies Make Special Efforts to Develop Job Openings, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of worker	Per cent of agencies			
	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
No special efforts made	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Undereducated applicants	62.5	71.4	50.0	60.0
Applicants with limited skills	56.2	57.1	75.0	40.0
Minority-group applicants	56.2	42.7	100.0	40.0
Older workers	6.2	--	25.0	--
Handicapped workers	6.2	--	25.0	--
Applicants with language problems	6.2	14.3	--	--
Applicants with liberal arts education	6.2	14.3	--	--
Other	37.5	42.7	25.0	40.0

job-finding efforts. All too often, when referred, they failed to report to the employer.

In addition to making special efforts for the generally disadvantaged worker, most respondents mentioned one or two other types of workers for whom particular assistance would be forthcoming, ranging from older workers or handicapped workers to veterans, the Hong Kong Chinese, parolees, and the mentally retarded. Often the particular group for whom some mention was volunteered appeared related to the activities, in that office, of an especially hard-working or gifted specialist on that "special program."

Public Employment Agencies: Employability Development

When the public agency managers were asked concerning the kinds of efforts they made to develop the employability of their marginally placeable applicants their answers were more related to the intensity of their attempts than to the precise approaches used. A common answer was some phrasing of the thought, "Every kind of effort that is feasible or appropriate" (Table 6-19). One manager of a Youth Opportunity Center spelled out the extent of such efforts as:

> "We have group talks, show them movies, discuss grooming, get them free haircuts, hairdos, clothes. We coach them on filling out applications, how to conduct themselves in employer interviews, how to take tests..."

One-quarter of the respondents mentioned giving the applicants

Table 6 - 19

Kinds of Special Efforts Made by Public Employment Agencies to Develop Employability of Marginally Placeable Workers, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Special efforts	All agencies	Type of agency		
		Full functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
All agencies				
Number	16	7	4	5
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Makes no special efforts	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Makes every kind of effort that is feasible or appropriate	56.3	14.3	75.0	100.0
Counsels and/or gives labor market information	25.0	42.8	25.0	--
Tries to find training opportunities	18.7	42.9	--	--

counseling and labor market information, as another way in which employability could be increased. Such "counseling," however, was sometimes a very different matter from that alluded to by the private agencies in replying on this same matter of increasing employability through counseling.

One manager described such counseling as,

> "giving them labor market information on job requirements--where to look for a job, how to get welfare or legal assistance;...all the things that must be done before they are job-ready."

By and large, the local office respondents were not too pessimistic concerning the success of their efforts at obtaining job openings for the marginally placeable worker groups they had described, and at developing their employability sufficiently that these workers could be referred out and placed. Half of the respondents characterized their efforts in this respect as moderately successful in working with applicants whose skills were limited (Table 6-20). Somewhat fewer characterized the degree of their success in these terms when the workers were undereducated or members of minority groups. A few offices described their efforts in working with these generally disadvantaged workers as not successful--and both full-functioning and specialized offices made such reports. The two managers who did report a high degree of success in working with applicants whose skills or education were limited represented full-functioning offices. There, the deficiences alluded to

Table 6-20

Degree of Success of Special Efforts at Job Development and Employability Development Made by Public Employment Agencies for Marginally Placeable Workers, by Type of Worker

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Degree of success	Per cent of agencies reporting						
	Older	Handicapped	Minority group	Limited skills	Under-educated	Language difficulties	Liberal arts education
Highly successful	-	-	-	6.2	6.2	-	-
Limited or moderately successful	6.2	12.5	37.5	50.0	43.8	12.5	6.2
Not successful	-	-	12.5	12.5	12.5	-	-

were not likely to be as severe as those often found in the AOC's and YOC's or in the metropolitan employment service offices.

When we had earlier asked the managers concerning such efforts as they might make to increase the supply of applicants available for referral, about one-third responded that they did not attempt to enlarge this supply. When we asked a variation of this question, "Does your office maintain contact with local community, business, or minority-group organizations in order to expand the number of minority-group applicants you have available for referral?", again, about one-third of the offices replied in the negative. However, this answer in a majority of instances did not mean that no contacts were made, but that they were not made for the specific purpose of finding potential referrals. Contacts were primarily for the purpose of giving information concerning the current job market or of advising about training opportunities. But two-thirds of the local offices either maintained contact with local antipoverty groups and minority-group organizations or regularly publicized that their services were available to members of minority groups.

A third of the offices reported that their contacts with these organizations were successful in bringing applicants to the offices; the remainder described their efforts as only moderately successful or as failures. The latter reports generally reflected situations where the offices had been informed that

large numbers of referable minority-group applicants were available for job or training opportunities. Then, when an opportunity was presented, the promised traffic failed to materialize.

Private Employment Agencies: The "Hard-to-Place" Worker and Employability Development

One of the private agency managers, after giving the matter some thought, defined the "hard-to-place" worker as being "the man in line who has no takers." In further discussion he gave almost total weight to "the nature of job openings and of the market at the moment" as determining who is marginal. Thus, he concluded that because his agency dealt almost entirely with workers in scarce occupations, his experiences could provide, for the moment of our interview, the most authoritative definition possible of "who is really marginal." His answer was the hard-rock mining engineer, for he had received no orders in this occupation in years. In his discussion of hard-to-place workers in light of his order file, this manager said,

> "Color and sex aren't involved--I would give my eyeteeth for ten black electronics engineers, or green, for that matter...There is no discrimination as to the honest-to-God critically needed job, for at that point discrimination costs money. Discrimination because of age for some workers is based on skill rustiness, lack of creativity, lack of energy, but if a fellow can prove he is still in the running, chronological age is disregarded."

However, most of the private agency managers gave considerably greater weight to the characteristics of individual workers in

deciding which were marginal. Whatever the occupation, scientists or domestics, almost half of the private agency respondents thought a lack of skills as related to the job openings in their files the most important ingredient of being hard to place (Table 6-21). Next in line as a deterrent to placement was a work history indicating a propensity to job-hop. Lack of education, communication difficulties, and a poor appearance followed--all deficiencies upon which the managers of public agencies had commented. "Unrealistic salary demands" was, however, mentioned by the private agency managers but not the local office managers as a factor sometimes hampering ready placement. Their response to this situation appeared to reflect their estimate of the applicant's abilities. If the applicant was one of "those with excellent qualifications who want too high a salary for the market," the employment counselor phoned the employer and tried to strike a bargain between employer job offer and applicant demand. If the applicant's qualifications were less than clearly excellent, no referral was attempted unless his salary expectations could be reduced by "counseling," which amounted largely to a discussion of prevailing wage patterns for job openings in the occupation under discussion.

Other types of marginal applicants receiving one-time mention besides those with police records were alcoholics, older women with rusty skills, overqualified Ph.D.'s, and engineers out of school for more than ten years.

Table 6 - 21

Traits or Deficiencies Characterizing the "Hard-to-Place" Worker in Terms of Job Openings Received -- Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Traits or deficiencies	Per cent of agencies		
	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
Lack of skills	43.3	41.2	46.2
Job-hopping	23.3	17.6	30.8
Lack of education	20.0	23.5	15.4
Language and communication difficulties	16.7	16.7	15.4
Poor appearance	16.7	23.5	7.7
Unrealistic salary demands	13.3	17.6	7.7
Lack of motivation	10.0	--	23.1
Lack of knowledge of modern technology (professional workers)	10.0	--	23.1
Mental or emotional problems	6.7	11.8	--
Liberal arts education	6.7	11.8	--
Police record	3.3	5.9	--
Other	16.7	--	38.5

Private Employment Agencies: Job Development

In complete contrast to the local office managers, a quarter of all private agency respondents and a third from the chain agencies said that they made no special efforts to develop jobs for marginally placeable workers (Table 6-22). As one manager said,

> "I make no efforts...(I) work only with the most saleable applicants as (I) work on a business basis."

However, a third of the agencies reported making special efforts to develop job openings for applicants with limited skills, as might well have been expected in a market which many of them described as an "applicant's market"--at least in the occupations with which these agencies were dealing. Another type of worker to whom the private agencies extended special help was the one with language difficulties--usually a recently-arrived immigrant with excellent work experience and educational background. And mentioned with less frequency were other groups also considered by the public offices for special job-development efforts such as older workers, handicapped workers, and those of minority races.

The proportion of private agencies making no special efforts to develop the employability--or saleability--of marginal workers was appreciably greater than the proportion which was not willing to engage in special job-development efforts. This fact is not surprising considering that job development was generally conducted for those applicants who had more than a

Table 6 - 22

Marginally Placeable Workers for Whom Private Employment Agencies Make Special Efforts to Develop Job Openings, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of workers	Per cent of agencies		
	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
No special efforts made	26.7	23.5	30.8
Applicants with limited skills	30.0	23.5	38.5
Applicants with language problems	13.3	11.8	15.4
Older workers	10.0	11.8	7.7
Handicapped workers	10.0	11.8	7.7
Minority-group workers	6.7	5.9	7.7
Undereducated applicants	3.3	5.9	--
Applicants with liberal arts education	3.3	5.9	--
Other	16.7	17.6	15.4

little in their favor if employers--again in an applicant market--could be persuaded to overlook the gap between the specifications on their job orders as initially given and such qualifications as these workers undeniably possessed.

Private Employment Agencies: Employability Development

Slightly more than one-half of the private agency respondents stated no particular efforts were made to increase the employability of only marginally placeable applicants (Table 6-23). This proportion was somewhat larger in the nonaffiliated than the affiliated agencies, often because of the very real pressures on the former to increase the profitability of a small enterprise.

Even in those agencies where special efforts were reported as made, their nature was demonstrably different from the previously described all-out campaigns of the public offices, particularly those which utilized every method that was "feasible or appropriate." The kind of effort most frequently mentioned was providing the applicant with a typewriter for practice use. Where so tangible a measure of help was not forthcoming, the applicants were advised to improve their clerical skills. Or if these applicants were in other occupational groups, the advice might be to obtain additional training. And, as in the public offices, counseling and labor market information were mentioned as ways to increase the applicant's employability.

Understandably, the private agencies reported a higher

Table 6 - 23

Kinds of Special Efforts Made by Private Employment Agencies to Develop Employability of Marginally Placeable Workers, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Special efforts	All agencies	Type of agency	
		Non-affiliated	Affiliated
All agencies			
Number	30	17	13
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Makes no special efforts	53.3	58.7	46.1
Provides typewriters for practice use	16.7	11.8	23.1
Advises to improve clerical skills	10.0	11.8	7.7
Counsels and/or gives labor market information	10.0	5.9	15.4
Advises to obtain additional training	6.7	5.9	7.7
Other	3.3	5.9	--

measure of success as resulting from their combined efforts at job development and employability development than did the public agencies. For the most part, the problems they attempted to resolve were not as serious.

At least one private agency respondent claimed a high degree of success in working with each type of applicant that had previously been defined as marginally placeable except those with language or communications problems, or with a liberal arts education and no specific skills (Table 6-24). And even a moderate degree of success was claimed by some respondents for these applicants. The only reports of failure were given respecting older workers, those with limited skills, and those with language difficulties. And with these same groups of workers other private agency managers claimed either a high degree of success or moderately successful results, or both.

None of the private agency managers had earlier disclaimed attempts to enlarge their supply of applicants. In fact, some agencies advertised for additional applicants continuously. When, however, we asked these respondents if they worked with local community, business, or minority-group organizations to expand the number of minority-group applicants available for referral, about three-quarters replied that they did not do so. The quarter of the private agency respondents who did mention such contacts were most likely to work with minority-group organizations, while the public offices' contacts were more

Table 6-24

Degree of Success of Special Efforts at Job Development and Employability Development Made by Private Employment Agencies for Marginally Placeable Workers, by Type of Worker

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Degree of success	Per cent of agencies reporting						
	Older	Handicapped	Minority group	Limited skills	Under-educated	Language difficulties	Liberal arts education
Highly successful	6.7	3.3	3.3	6.7	3.3	-	-
Limited or moderately successful	3.3	6.7	3.3	13.3	-	10.0	3.3
Not successful	3.3	-	-	10.0	-	3.3	-

generally with government agencies of the antipoverty variety. Also, more of the affiliated than the non-affiliated agencies reported making such contacts.

Again, as with the public agencies, estimates as to the success encountered in obtaining potential referrals through these contacts covered the full range from very successful to outright failure. A high degree of success was relatively less often claimed by the private than the public agencies, however. Both those respondents who said their efforts were only moderately successful and those who reported them as failures, based their evaluations on the same experience. Previous information as to the number of applicants who would seek work if notification of job openings were given, was in excess of the number of applicants who actually appeared later at the office.

Nature of Placement Operations - Positive Recruitment: Public and Private Employment Agencies

Employment offices, both public and private, may open their facilities to employers, permitting the latter to recruit on the office premises. This practice is called "positive recruitment" in the public agencies; it is also known as "direct recruitment".

Various advantages accrue to the employer under this arrangement. Previous to his visit, the agency will likely have screened its files and made appointments for the appropriate

applicants to contact the employer's representative. Advertising may be used in connection with the visit of the representative, attracting a larger group of applicants than could be expected to appear at his own facilities. The convenience of the arrangement is obvious where out-of-town recruitment is involved.

Employment agencies profit as well from positive recruitment. The number of job openings they have to offer is increased. Applicants attracted by reason of a particular employer's recruitment, if not hired by him, may be available for referral to other job openings. A lower-than-usual referral-placement ratio is probable, as the recruiter often has authority to hire on the spot.

We believed that some discussion of positive recruitment, as it is conducted in the public and private agencies, might contribute additional insight as to how the two types of organizations differ in their operations. The sharpest difference immediately apparent is the fact that a comparatively small number of employers recruit appreciable numbers of workers in the local offices. On the other hand, many different employers recruit small numbers of workers in the private agencies (Table 6-25).

Each of the 16 sample public agencies where positive recruitment was conducted gave the number of different employers using its office facilities in the six months from January through June, 1968. The total of 95 employers reported is by

Table 6-25

Direct Recruitment in Period, January-June 1968, in Public and Private Employment Agencies and Resulting Referrals and Placements, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of agency	Direct recruitment		
	Employers' recruiters using office for direct recruitment	Referrals resulting from direct employer recruitment	Placements resulting from direct employer recruitment
Public employment agencies			
Number	95	1,440	1,030
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Full-functioning	37.9	35.8	25.2
Metropolitan employment service	46.3	19.1	25.2
Specialized	15.8	45.1	49.6
Private employment agencies			
Number	551	1,627	812
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Non-affiliated	51.7	39.8	32.1
Affiliated	48.3	60.2	67.9

no means an unduplicated count, as some establishments were mentioned by several of the offices as recruiting regularly on their premises. It was, in fact, the regularity with which certain employers recruited in various of the local offices that yielded as high a figure as 1,030 placements for positive recruitment efforts in this period. It is also quite likely that to the extent the referral figures reported to us were accurate, the regularity of this recruitment contributed to the very low ratio of referrals to placements. The largest number of employers used the metropolitan employment service offices, and some of those who did were recruiting for out-of-area jobs. The smallest number used the facilities of the specialized offices, in this case only the YOC's.

More than five times as many employers recruited directly in the private agencies, in the same period, as in the local offices. As there were very few evidences that the same employers were using different private agencies, the reported total of 551 employers is largely an unduplicated count. However, these 551 employers accounted for only 812 placements, indicating that on the average, the recruiter was using office facilities to fill orders for only one or two workers. Also, the private agencies generally had to refer two applicants to the employer in order to make one placement. Actually, the number of workers recruited by individual employers was somewhat larger, when affiliated private agencies were used, than when direct recruitment

occurred in the generally smaller independent agencies. Also, fewer referrals per placement were needed for these larger job orders.

Public Employment Agencies: Changes Since 1960

A majority of the few public employment service managers able to report changes in the amount of direct recruitment carried on in their offices from 1960 to 1968, believed that use of this arrangement had decreased in recent years. On the other hand, a majority of the private agency respondents able to supply information on direct recruitment for the years 1960-1968 said their offices had experienced little or no change in the amount conducted. And the nearly equal number of respondents who did report such change since 1960 stated that the amount of direct recruitment carried on in their offices had increased along with the general growth of their business.

Almost half of the public agencies, in describing the employers who recruited in their offices in 1968, mentioned that one or more of them was an employer from retail trade, generally a food store. Next most frequently mentioned were employers from manufacturing, the aerospace and electronics employers exclusively, followed by employers in services.

Thus, it is not surprising that the occupations most commonly mentioned as sought by the recruiters were grocery checkers, sales clerks, service-station attendants, "trainees,"

and waitresses--in this order. Half of the managers who believed themselves able to report on the matter believed that the recruiters used their facilities for higher-level jobs in 1960 than in 1968. As to the personal characteristics of the workers sought, half of those responding stated that the recruiters were looking for members of racial minorities in their offices. One manager phrased it as employers "seeking to fulfill their hard-core commitments." Also, most of the managers able to give information on the matter said that the major change in type of worker recruited in 1968, as compared with 1960, was that employers were now "looking for disadvantaged workers."

Private Employment Agencies: Changes Since 1960

Private agency respondents, in contrast, most frequently mentioned manufacturing as the industry of employers recruiting in their offices, but not for production workers. Although many named aerospace and electronics employers, other manufacturing industries were noted and construction also. The number of private agency managers mentioning manufacturing employers was closely followed by the number stating that employers representing finance and insurance had recruited in their offices. Reports concerning employers from trade and service followed at a considerable distance. It could be expected, therefore, that in listing the occupations sought by the recruiters, most private

agency respondents mentioned professional and technical occupations, followed closely by clerical occupations. Sales workers were next most frequently reported, followed by workers in managerial occupations and candidates for management-trainee posts. A very few respondents mentioned blue-collar or service occupations.

Most of the private agency managers able to give information for both 1960 and 1968 believed there had been no change in the occupations sought over this period. Those who did report some change mentioned a greater demand in the later than in the earlier year for workers in high-level management jobs and in data processing occupations. As to the personal characteristics of the workers sought by recruiters, 24 or the overwhelming majority of the agency managers said no particular type of worker was sought, or they mentioned "qualified workers." However, three managers did state that employers were specifically searching for minority employees, and it can be inferred from the industries involved that these were NAB employers. It followed, therefore, that the large majority of the managers able to discuss both 1960 and 1968 said that no change had occurred in the types of workers sought by direct recruitment over this period. However, one respondent did mention that employers were not looking for minority-group workers in 1960.

The Placement Record: Follow-ups on Placement Duration - Public and Private Employment Agencies

Neither the public nor the private employment agencies can supply much information concerning the duration on the job of their applicants subsequent to placement. Such data are collected in connection with certain programs in the public service, but if these have been processed in a form to make them valuable to the conduct of local office operations, there is no awareness of that fact at the local level. The private agencies do have the data resources to determine the exact number of their applicants for permanent work who remain on the jobs in which they were placed for three months. At least some of these managers appear to associate in a highly informal way certain worker characteristics and that potential for remaining on the job which yields a transaction satisfactory to applicant, employer, and agency alike.

Public Employment Agencies

Our questions as to procedures or sources of information enabling agency managers to estimate how long all or some of the applicants they place remain at work, elicited a variety of comments in the public offices. Generally, the answer was negative. Some, however, gave variants of the answer of the manager who stated,

> "There must be some information scattered about that would show this. There is some follow-up

> on CEP and MDTA. Also, a few individual counselors do check on their cases."

One manager referred to a study conducted in Oakland that included duration-on-the-job information.[7] He believed this report to be of value because it showed that if disadvantaged applicants could weather the first month of their employment, they tended to remain for acceptable periods. He, therefore, believed data about the duration of their applicants' employment to be important information. It enabled placement people to forearm the employer concerning the importance of helping the new hire to adjust to his unfamiliar surroundings.

Other managers, however, saw more immediate benefits to their own operations, were such data available. They thought it of value not only for special worker groups but also, on a sample basis, for all types of workers. One manager said,

> "There should be much more follow-up, particularly in terms of what makes for a successful placement. We have no idea at present why some placements work out and some don't. However, there is no time for such studies."

One YOC manager, however, had a specific reason for believing that follow-up data were particularly needed by employees in the specialized offices:

> "Pressures of time and people mean the YOC's themselves can't do this (collect follow-up data). This lack is very serious. We never know why some placements work out well and others do not. Also, I believe the lack of follow-up adds to frustration for our employees. They do hear of some few of their successes. But if they knew to what extent their overall effort was paying off, they probably could escape the feeling so many have that they aren't getting anywhere."

Private Employment Agencies

When we asked the private agency managers about their ability to estimate the durability of their placements on permanent jobs, almost all of them referred to their reimbursement procedures. Placements are regarded as temporary in the private agencies unless the worker remains on the job for three months or more. Hence, fees must be adjusted or returned if the worker does not remain employed for this length of time after placement on a permanent job.

In 25 of the private agencies our respondents replied that they could give us the percent of their placements where the worker they referred had remained on the job for three months and in consequence, the full fee was collected from the applicant or the employer. This percentage for the 25 agencies, combined, was 88.6. Somewhat fewer respondents were willing to hazard an estimate as to the percent of their clients who were employed on the jobs in which they had been placed after one month. Combined for the reporting agencies, this figure was 92 percent. Only 14 of the private agency respondents believed themselves able to estimate the comparable figure for six months. Taken together, this group estimated that 82 percent of their former applicants remained on the job for at least six months.

Half of our private agency respondents did not believe that the percentages they had given us differed materially among the occupations served by their offices. This response, however,

appears to have been significantly affected by the fact that many of these agencies dealt with an applicant group that was fairly homogeneous occupationally. Where it was possible to break out certain occupational groups from others, shortest duration on the job was claimed for women clerical workers and for clients referred to the lower-paying occupations. These comments accord completely with the reports of our respondents in the Institute's previous employer policy survey as to the more turnover-prone groups of workers.

None of the private agency respondents replied that they had found any significant differences as to the propensity of given groups to remain on the job that could be linked to the industry of the employer, or to the workers' characteristics other than those which have been mentioned.

The Placement Record: Referral as a Service to Applicants - Public and Private Employment Agencies

One test of the effectiveness of an employment agency is undeniably the proportion of those among its applicants for work who are placed in employment. This proportion, however, can be difficult to determine. The public employment-service reporting system yields, as yet, only counts of work-load transactions. Occasional investigators, by instituting *ad hoc* reporting procedures, have managed to derive some information concerning the services the applicants at a given office or group of offices

have received over a limited period of time. It is only when such studies are conducted that it would be possible to determine, for example, the proportion of all applicants contacting a public office that are referred to jobs.[8] Normally, we would know only the number of referrals made, and a very small proportion of all applicants might account for more than half of the referral total.

Public Employment Agencies

We found that some local office managers had made informal checks to learn what services their applicants receive. Others were able to interpret and adjust their work-load statistics to yield approximate information in these terms. We found, further, that most of the private agency managers believed themselves capable of making fairly close estimates as to the proportions of their applicants that received one or another service. Such was the amount of reference to files and work-load statistics by our respondents from both the public and the private agencies, that we believe a fair degree of confidence may be placed in the estimates provided us. Further, our confidence is bolstered considerably by the fact that the estimates for the public agencies combined, are compatible with the findings of a carefully-designed study of services to applicants made by the Stanford Research Institute at one Bay Area local office.[9]

Our question concerning the proportions of all applicants receiving certain specified types of service, or no service, was designed to reflect what was done for the applicant on his initial contact with the office or at most, after his first visit during which he could have been expected to receive a service. Hence, we asked about the proportion of applicants referred rather than placed. Also, each category of service had priority over the successive category, to give us an unduplicated count. If a referred applicant, for example, was not hired but was subsequently referred to training or counseled, these latter services were not counted.

The public agency managers, together, estimated that 30 percent of their applicants were referred to jobs, permanent or temporary (Table 6-26). They believed an additional five percent were referred to training, including opportunities under all programs, and that seven percent were directed to other agencies. These latter were almost exclusively of the helping variety such as welfare, public health, mental health, the Social Security Administration, and the Veterans' Administration.

More than half of the applicants for employment at the public agencies were estimated to have received some service other than referral, and this service was most frequently specified as having been counseling or the provision of labor market information. And as was pointed out on several occasions, providing labor market information of a sufficiently detailed and

Table 6-26

Type of Service Applicants Received
in Public and Private Employment Agencies, July 1968

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of service received	Public employment agencies	Private employment agencies
All applicants		
Number[a]	15,052	4,944
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Referred to employer for job	29.7	75.6
Referred to training[b]	4.9	1.4
Referred to another agency for service other than training[c]	6.8	4.7
Given service other than job referral (including counseling)	53.6	13.0
No service given	5.0	5.3

[a]Represents total applicants contacting all sample public and private employment agencies in July 1968 except those that did not provide information on number of applicants or on type of service received.

[b]As a response from the private agencies, this item generally meant that the applicant was advised to take training, and particular schools or courses of instruction were recommended.

[c]"Another agency" most commonly referred to another private agency when this entry was completed by a private employment agency.

practical variety could as truly lead to an applicant's employment as a referral. But without that referral, no placement could be counted for the local office. Finally, the local office managers, on the average, estimated that 5 percent of their applicants received no service.

Private Employment Agencies

The managers of the private employment agencies claimed, in effect, that an applicant at their offices had two and one-half times the chance of being referred on a job as at the public offices. In other words, they estimated that 76 percent of their applicants were referred to employers. They recommended training to about one percent of their applicants, and made specific suggestions as to how and where such training might be obtained.

Probably because the private agencies tend to be relatively specialized, particularly with regard to the occupations they handle, there appeared to be a fair amount of "sorting out" of applicants among them. Job seekers who were judged likely more placeable by some other private agency because of the nature of its employer clientele or because of the applicant's occupation or work history, were "referred to another agency." Some private agency respondents did mention various supportive services under this category. But, most commonly, referrals to another agency meant directing an unreferred applicant to some other private agency. A far smaller proportion of the private

agencies' applicants, or 13 percent, received such services as counseling and the provision of labor market information than did the public agencies' applicants. This could be expected, as there is small reason for the private agencies to furnish either unless they lead to placement. And, finally, the private agencies reported giving "no service" to 5 percent of their applicants, the same percentage reported by the public agencies.

Selected Work-load Statistics: Public and Private Employment Agencies

A more conventional way of viewing work load in both public and private employment agencies than attempting to measure their services to applicants is to count the various transactions that occur in these offices over a period of time.

Our own efforts to present meaningful comparisons of the activities of Bay Area public and private employment agencies from the perspective of their work-load figures have been limited by a number of considerations. Most serious is the fact that published placement data subsequent to 1966 are not available for the area's private agencies. And there is every reason to believe that the most interesting part of our story would lie in the contrasts that could be drawn between the placement performance of public and private agencies in the years from 1966 to 1968. The ease with which certain comparisons can be made over the period from 1960 to 1966 and 1968 has been greatly

diminished, also, by changes in the definition of the Bay Area and changes in the occupational coding used by the public agencies, to say nothing of the limited occupational distributions given by the private agencies for such of their data as have been published.

Where we have attempted to show contrasts between the public and private agencies for any items other than the volume of placements, our sole source of data for the private agencies has been the responses of those in our sample for the single month of July, 1968, and in a very few instances, for July, 1960. Frequently, the number of agencies able to respond was small. Nonetheless, we will note the information that was given to us. For the most part, the figures supplied by the private agencies were based on records. And, where we have been able to relate the responses of the combined private agencies to published data, as in the case of placements, the data given us appear to be reasonable.

Placement figures for all of the public employment agencies in the five-county San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area showed a sizeable increase between calendar years 1960 and 1966 (Table 6-27). To some extent, at least, this increase must be attributed to the marked improvement that occurred in economic conditions over this period. Much of this gain in placement activities reflects the rise in temporary placements, which climbed by three-quarters. But permanent placements, meaning those on jobs lasting three days

Table 6 - 27

Total Placements of Public and Private Employment Agencies in the San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area for Calendar Years 1960 and 1966 and for Public Employment Agencies for Calendar Year 1968

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

	Placements		
	Total	Permanent[a]	Temporary
Public employment agencies			
1960	69,897	49,764	20,133
1966	98,470	62,957	35,513
Percent change, 1960-1966	40.9	26.5	76.4
1968	82,855	56,037	26,818
Percent change, 1966-1968	-15.9	-11.0	-24.5
Percent change, 1960-1968	18.5	12.6	33.2
Private employment agencies			
1960	135,959	35,685	100,274
1966	154,187	39,224	114,963
Percent change, 1960-1966	13.4[b]	9.9[b]	14.6[b]
1968	INA	INA	INA

[a]Permanent placements in the public agencies are any placements lasting 3 days or more. In the private agencies, permanent placements are those lasting 90 days or more.

[b]The series for placements made by general agencies for this period lacks comparability because of the inclusion of Nurses' Registries in 1960 and not in 1966.

Note: Placement figures are given only for the five-county San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area, as these data are not available for the private agencies for the San Jose Metropolitan Area. The addition of San Jose placements would raise total placements for the public agencies by 25,670 in 1960; 32,667 in 1966, and by 28,247 in 1968.

Sources: Public employment agencies - Report ES 212 as cumulated by Coastal Area Research and Statistics for 1966 and 1968 and by Central Office Research and Statistics, California Department of Employment for 1960.

Private employment agencies - Placements and Fees of Private Employment Agencies in California for 1966 and 1960, California Department of Industrial Relations, San Francisco.

or longer, did rise by one-quarter.

In the same period, the number of workers placed by all of the private agencies may have increased by a lesser proportion. Published figures show that permanent placements, those on jobs lasting 90 days or longer, gained by only 10 percent and temporary placements, by only 15 percent. But changes in the definition of general employment agencies after 1960 have had the effect of substantially reducing the number of placements that would be counted as made by them in 1966 as compared with 1960.

Despite the strong showing of earlier years, the placement performance of the public agencies fell off from 1966 to 1968. Permanent placements in 1968 were down from those of 1966 by 11 percent and temporary placements by one-fourth. Thus, by 1968, the rise from 1960 in permanent placements made by the public agencies amounted to only 13 percent. In these same years, it should be noted, total employment in the Bay Area expanded by 30.8 percent and the labor force by 29.5 percent. What the 1966-to-1968 trend in placements for all private agencies may have been there is no way of knowing, although comments volunteered by the sample agencies would indicate that their volume has continued up.

Placements - Occupational Distribution

It is not possible to compare, even on a limited basis,

changes in the occupational composition of the placements made by the Bay Area private agencies between 1960 and 1968. Between 1960 and 1966, according to the previously-mentioned reports published by the California Department of Industrial Relations, "white-collar" placements in permanent jobs by these agencies rose steadily as a proportion of total. In contrast, placements of professional, clerical, and sales personnel which accounted for 36 percent of all placements made by the Bay Area local offices in 1960, had dropped to 26 percent of the total by 1968. Placements in industrial-type jobs by the public agencies remained constant at 27 percent of the total in both years, while jobs in service occupations rose from 37 to 47 percent of all placements.[10]

Placement data for the sample public and private agencies for the single month of July, 1968, appear in line with those available for all agencies for a calendar year. Thus, they may be trusted to give us information of value in comparing placement activity for the two types of agencies. The contrast in the occupational distribution of placements for these agencies is startling (Table 6-28). It should be noted, however, that the placement figures shown for the public agencies include those of the less-than-three-days variety, while if any placements on jobs of less than three months' duration are included in the private agency figures, their number is negligible.

Only two percent of total placements by the sample public

Table 6-28

Placements of Public and Private Employment Agencies
by Major Occupational Group, July 1968

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Occupational group	Public employment agencies	Private employment agencies
All placements		
Number	9,922	1,499
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, and managerial	2.4	20.5
Clerical	21.3	51.3
Sales	3.8	5.3
Domestic	24.3	4.6
Service except domestic	23.5	11.6
Skilled	2.7	1.5
Semiskilled	2.1	0.3
Unskilled	17.6	4.9
Farming	2.3	0.0

Note: The above percentages for the sample agencies for one month are corroborated by figures for all Bay Area agencies for calendar year 1968 in those occupational areas where comparisons are possible. As examples, professional, technical, and managerial placements for all public agencies in 1968 were 3.0 per cent of the total; clerical and sales, 23.6 as compared with the above 25.1; all service, 46.7 as compared with the above 47.8; and all industrial-type placements, 26.7 as compared with the above 24.7.

Comparing the above sample private agencies with 1966 data for all private agencies in the 5-county Bay Area shows that 78.3 per cent of all placements were of the white-collar type compared with the above 77.1. Domestic placements in 1966 for all agencies amounted to 6.9 per cent of the total as compared with the above 4.6.

Placement data, showing this occupational distribution of their permanent placements, were reported by 28 of the sample private agencies.

agencies in July, 1968, were in jobs in professional, technical, and managerial categories. In sharp contrast, these occupational groups accounted for 20 percent of all permanent placements in the private agencies. A fifth of the public agency placements were of clerical workers while the comparable proportion for the private agencies was one-half. Placements of sales workers were somewhat higher, relatively, for the private than the public agencies, but placements of all types of service workers were proportionately much lower for the former. Also, the much smaller proportion of unskilled workers placed by the private agencies reflects the fact that a relatively small proportion of their overall placement effort was in industrial-type jobs in mid-1968.

Placements - Industrial Distribution

A distribution of placements by industry for the two types of agencies throws some light on the occupational pattern of their placements (Table 6-29). The sharpest contrast lies in the fact that, while 3 percent of the public agencies' placements in July, 1968, were to establishments in the finance and insurance complex of industries, the comparable proportion for the private agencies was 23 percent. This large proportion reflects the unanimity with which employers in that group of industries reported using private agencies in the Institute's earlier survey of employer policies. Also reflected is the fact,

Table 6-29

Placements of Public and Private Employment Agencies, by Major Industry Group, July 1968

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Industry group	Public employment agencies	Private employment agencies
All placements		
Number	9,922	1,499
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries	0.1	0.0
Construction	2.5	3.0
Manufacturing	14.0	29.1
Transportation and utilities	5.0	4.1
Trade	16.0	15.9
Finance, insurance, and real estate	2.7	22.9
Service, except private household	16.8	14.8
Private household	30.2	6.5
Government	12.5	3.3
Not reported	0.2	0.4

Note: Placement data showing this industrial distribution of their permanent placements were reported by 28 of the sample private agencies.

established in the earilier survey, that the smaller employers tend to use the private agencies for their white-collar employees. The much heavier proportion of total placements to manufacturing employers made by the private agencies, reflects their sending white-collar workers to a relatively large number of small and medium-sized Bay Area manufacturers.

On the other hand, July, 1968 placements of the public agencies were significantly more important than those of the private agencies in private households and in government. The former comparison, of course, is not entirely fair as many of the 2,924 short-term placements included in the 9,922 total placements of the public agencies must have been placements of domestics. The latter comparison is inevitable, for most government establishments are prohibited by law or by regulation from giving their job orders to private agencies. However, there are school districts and special districts which do deal with the private agencies and these are included in the 3 percent of all private agency placements that were made to government.

Placements - Other Characteristics of Workers Placed

Although most of our private agency respondents believed themselves able to give us information concerning the occupational and industrial composition of their placements, fewer of them could supply data concerning the characteristics of the workers they placed. And none of them had records showing the

characteristics of their applicants. Consequently, we are not able to discuss the volume and the types of job seekers using the two kinds of offices, other than as these are reflected in the characteristics of the workers who are placed.

Of the 9,922 workers finding jobs through the sample public agencies in July, 1968, 57 percent were men and 43 percent were women. The 28 sample private agencies supplying this information concerning 1,663 placements reported only 31 percent of their placements to have been men, while 69 percent were women. These percentages are not surprising, however, when it is recalled that one-half of the private agencies' placements in that month were of clerical workers.

The age distribution of workers placed by the public agencies in July, 1968 may not be entirely representative of the pattern for the year as a whole. Youth placements are more than ordinarily numerous in the summer months. It is our understanding, however, that the really heavy period of youth placement had already passed in the YOC's by July. Also, the close correspondence between the occupational distribution of the July, 1968 figures for the sample offices and the calendar 1968 figures for all Bay Area public agencies would indicate that our one month's figures cannot be too greatly out of line with the customary situation in the public offices. In any event, 47 percent of the local offices' placements for July, 1968 were of youth under 22. In the same month, 37 percent of the workers

were in the age group, 22 through 44 years, and 16 percent were 45 years of age and older.

In contrast, the private agencies appear to have been dealing with a distinctly older age group. Eighteen of the sample private agency respondents reported that of their total of 825 placements, only 14 percent were of workers under 22 years of age. More than half, or 57 percent, were from 22 to 44 years of age. And 29 percent were 45 years of age or older.

Of the workers placed by the sample public agencies in July, 1968, 30 percent were Negroes and 10 percent, Mexican-Americans. The remaining 60 percent were white and Oriental workers.[11]

Only 15 respondents, whose private agencies accounted for 602 placements in July, 1968, believed themselves able to furnish a racial distribution of the workers placed that month. These managers estimated that 14 percent of their placements were of Negro workers, 6 percent of Mexican-Americans, and 80 percent of white and Oriental workers.

Trends in Fee Payment - Private Agencies

A final note concerning private agency placements, namely, trends in fee payment, is related both to the improvement in economic conditions from 1960 to 1966 and 1968 and to the favorable reactions of employers to the services these agencies provide. Reports on fee payments issued by the California Department

of Industrial Relations show that in 1960 employers paid the fees for 26 percent of all permanent placements made by the private agencies. By 1966, the proportion had risen to 41 percent. At the time of our interviews, we were informed that this trend was continuing and that the rise then being experienced was sharply up.

In 37 percent of the sample private agencies, it was reported that employers were paying the fees for 90 percent or more of all the placements they made (Table 6-30). An additional 37 percent of these agencies stated that in from 30 to 89 percent of their placements the fee was paid by the employer. Only in 27 percent of the private agencies were employer fee-paid placements said to account for less than 30 percent of all placements made.

The practice of employer fee payment was far and away most general in San Francisco and in the affiliated agencies. Several comments indicated, however, that the most rapid rise in the volume of employer-paid fees was occurring in Alameda County at the time of our interviews.

As might be expected, the private agency respondents said that employers were most likely to pay the fees for placement of professional, technical, and administrative workers. Lesser, but almost equal proportions of the agencies reported employers next most likely to absorb the charge for the placement of sales and clerical workers. Conversely, the occupations of applicants

Table 6-30

Private Employment Agency Placement Fees that are Paid by Employers
by Location and by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Percentage placement fees paid by employers	Location					Type of agency	
		County					
	All agencies	Alameda	Contra Costa	Marin and San Francisco	San Mateo and Santa Clara	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
All agencies							
Number	30	6	2	12	10	17	13
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than 30 per cent	26.6	50.0	100.0	8.3	20.0	29.4	23.1
30 to 89 per cent	36.7	33.3	-	25.0	60.0	47.1	23.1
90 per cent or more	36.7	16.7	-	66.7	20.0	23.5	53.8

most likely to pay for their own placements were workers in the lower-level clerical occupations and blue-collar workers.

Other Work-load Items

Information for very few other items of work load were available from the private agencies upon which comparisons with activities in the public agencies can be based. Data for unfilled job openings were not often forthcoming from these agencies, and not at all on an historical basis. Nor can we supply a "before-and-after" picture of employer visits.

Respondents from 27 private agencies, however, did report making 1,207 visits to employers in July, 1968. Unquestionably, many of these visits were of a fairly sketchy type and probably amounted to little more than a sales representative's leaving his card with the employer. But in contrast, the 16 public agency respondents made only 203 employer visits in the same month, and 137 of these were made by one local office and 52, by another. In contrast, the sample public agencies had made 2,025 employer visits in July, 1960. And one of the lacks very frequently mentioned by the local office managers in connection with their ability to make "good placements" or "more placements" was the dearth of employer contacts that could be squeezed out of their overbusy schedules.

Findings

In Section III we noted that in the absence of sufficient resources to perform two quite disparate tasks simultaneously, the public service was turning away from offering employment services of the conventional type and concentrating increasingly on the problems of the disadvantaged. We questioned if this policy decision would not in the long run destroy the effectiveness of the public service, even for those workers it sought most to benefit.

A more detailed consideration in this chapter of the placement operation in the public agencies indicates that this service, although offered without cost, cannot compete throughout large sectors of the economy with placement services for which a fee is charged. We found many situations that appeared to be destroying the ability of the public agencies to act as employment exchanges in the usual sense of the term. The major problem areas, as they appeared to us were the following:

Various programs for worker groups with particular characteristics absorbed the attention of at least 20 percent of the placement staff in the regular employment service offices, to say nothing of the several specialized offices oriented exclusively to serving the disadvantaged.

Heavy concentration on special types of applicants left the regular placement interviewers too hard-pressed for time to offer acceptable placement service to the average employer or

the mainstream applicant. Referral procedures were slow; conventional-type screening and checking, inadequate; and employer visiting, almost nonexistent.

"Screening" of applicants against job openings was regarded more as a device to persuade employers to accept the less qualified, than to ensure the referral of workers most likely to fit job requirements.

Efforts at developing job openings for available workers were so narrowly restricted to the disadvantaged, and attempts to increase the supply of referable applicants were so seldom feasible that the public service seemed in serious danger of downgrading itself to serving only marginal workers and handling only the less attractive jobs.

At the same time, the definitions given by placement people of the "marginal worker" were so closely related to the nature of the labor demand involved that it appeared there must be workers throughout the whole body of the labor force as much in need of "special" (meaning adequate and sometimes expert) services as those meeting the definition of various antipoverty programs. Among these, surely, were youth, older workers, and those with rusty skills, whether otherwise members of the "hard-core unemployed" or not.

Developments over recent years as to positive recruitment provide one more illustration, though not a major one, of the "vicious circle" or whatever else we may call the chain of

unfortunate circumstances that is deteriorating the position of the public employment service. Concentration on the needs of marginal applicants and deficient services to employers appear to have removed a significant volume of the "better" job opportunities from the files of the public service that might be offered its applicants--including that group among the disadvantaged who can fit into the characteristically white-collar job structure of the Bay Area.

To some extent, at least, the much smaller chance of the applicant in a local office to be referred out on a job than is presented to the job seeker in a private agency must reflect an absence of job opportunities on file in these offices as well as the presence of a comparatively large group of unreferable applicants. The constant efforts of the private agencies to enlarge their applicant supply would appear to bear out this contention. Another indication that heavy labor demand in the community is not reflected in the order files of the local offices is the decline that occurred in their placements from 1966 to 1968--years of an "applicant market" for qualified workers.

Despite what might appear to be a far-from-effective placement job by the public service, however, the necessary tools to judge its effectiveness are lacking. Program objectives against which their performance can be measured are unclear. Should the public service, for example, be engaged in the comparatively expensive operation of placing qualified workers in white-collar

jobs when its resources are limited? Should it be concerned about its placement performance in any case--when the matter of employability development has assumed such urgency? Nor do the tools to measure the respective performances of public and private agencies even exist. With its reporting system resting on counts of transactions, it is difficult for the local offices to know to what extent its applicants actually were served. With little follow-through information, the "durability" of some of the services rendered must remain unknown. And with no published data, whatever, as to the volume and type of their placement activity, not only the effectiveness of private agency operations, but the operations as well, must remain unknown for comparative purposes or for any other uses these data would serve.

Footnotes - Section VI

1. Donald G. Woodworth et al, Final Report, Pilot Study of Services to Applicants: Phase II, Stanford Research Institute, SRI Project 6187, Menlo Park, California, June 1969. See particularly, Chapter VI, "Reporting and Evaluation of Employment Service Programs."

2. Ibid., p. 66.

3. This lack of unanimity is referred to in Garth L. Mangum, "Evaluating Federal Manpower Programs," Proceedings of the Twentieth Annual Winter Meeting, The Development and Use of Manpower, Industrial Relations Research Association, Washington, D.C., Dec. 28-29, 1967, p. 169. "The Employment Service is very much in transition. By and large, its involvement with the disadvantaged has been under pressure from the national office and in response to competition from community action agencies. Its role and objectives are in a state of confusion. The Department of Labor has become a more aggressive partner in the federal-state system. It has continually added new programs and responsibilities to the Employment Service without commensurate increase in staff and budgets. It has then failed to set priorities among the assignments, all of which cannot be fulfilled adequately and equally with available resources. There is also evidence of failure to seek and achieve consensus before major policy changes. As a result, state and local officials do not

share the degree of commitment to many responsibilities exhibited by those in Washington."

4. There are, we realize, defects in the work-load statistics chosen for these comparisons. It is not entirely fair to liquidate the new-applications figure of the sample local offices (23,242) with the permanent-placement total (6,998) when a substantial number of the applications may have been for temporary work. However, even when the entire placement total (9,922) is used, the proportion that placements are of new applications rises only to 43 percent, still substantially less than the 83 percent of the private agencies. In any event, using "permanent" placements for the public agencies appears a sounder comparison, as permanent-placement figures for the private agencies include only those lasting 90 days or longer. Using figures for a single month can be misleading, particularly if the factor of delayed verifications accentuates sharp changes in work load. However, we have the sample private agency work-load figures available for only July, 1968.

5. Our discussion of job openings received would have been improved could we have used the concept of "openings worked on". However, job openings remaining unfilled at the end of the month is not a commonly-retained figure in the private agencies. Another problem in our comparison is that we are in no position to evaluate to what extent the new-applications total of the private agencies may have been depressed by the failure

to take applications from persons not regarded as referable. A number of agencies, however, mentioned that for reasons of public relations they did not refuse to take applications under these circumstances. It should be noted that removing the workload statistics of the YOC's from our computations, on the ground that these offices were abnormally active in July, did not affect any of the comparisons given in the text. Thus, these offices have been included in our figures.

6. The matters of education, motivation, and appearance of work applicants are covered in a report resulting from a recent employer survey, 1969 Survey of Business and Industry in San Francisco, California, completed September, 1969, for the Concentrated Employment Program of the Economic Opportunity Council of San Francisco and the Greater San Francisco Chamber of Commerce, San Francisco, Sept. 1969. According to this survey (pp. 12-13),

> "Of the 508 respondents to the survey, 432 or 85% participated in this portion of the survey (inadequacies in education and training of entrance level job applicants). These employers made more than 1,800 expressions indicating existing inadequacies in education and training of entrance level job applicants. The high school graduate was the object of 30% of the statements of inadequacy with deficiencies listed in the order of writing ability, motivation, mathematical skills, speaking ability and appearance, in that order. High school, grammar school and lower levels of education received 66 2/3% of the statements of inadequacy. Vocational school graduates were not heavily scored but they likewise received statements of inadequacy in writing ability, motivation and understanding. The principal complaints against college graduates and

higher were found to be in writing ability and motivation. Of the more than 1,800 statements of inadequacy in education of entrance level job applicants, without regard to level of education, writing ability received 16%, motivation or personal responsibility received 14% and mathematical skills received 12% of the complaints. Inadequacies followed in the order: Appearance, understanding, trade skills or professional knowledge, reading ability, speaking ability and teamwork. Trade skills or professional knowledge were scored as inadequate by 11% of the firms...

"The above suggests that minority employment programs need concentrate on writing ability, mathematical skills and speaking ability; and on personal responsibility (motivation), appearance and teamwork (participation). It goes without saying that reading ability is a basic requirement for the above. These inadequacies, it would appear, need remedial treatment in any minority skill training program...

"The positive and negative elements in the appearance of job applicants are sufficiently well known and were not explored in depth in the survey. However, the above statistics confirm the obvious: Most job opportunities in San Francisco require a conventional, business-like appearance. Financial, service and tourist industries are sensitive about the attitudes of their potential clientele toward the appearance of their employees.

"The frequently reported and serious deficiencies in education and vocational training of entrance level job applicants pose serious and urgent questions beyond the scope of this report."

7. The report referred to was the Final Report of the Oakland Adult Project Follow-up Study, prepared by William B. Woodson, Ph.D., Study Director, Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, Berkeley, for the Department of Human Resources, Oakland, California, Sept. 1967.

This study did carry the important qualification that "disappointingly low response rates" limited the interpretations

possible from the data. However, it also showed (p. 6-32) that "only 43 percent of those placed on permanent (three-day-or-more) jobs from January, 1966 through April, 1967 were working on that job 30 days after placement."

8. See particularly Donald G. Woodworth et al, Final Report, Pilot Study of Services to Applicants, Stanford Research Institute, SRI Project 6187, Menlo Park, California, November, 1967.

9. Ibid., Table 2, p. 18.

10. These percentages reflect the consolidation of an occupational distribution that may be derived from ES 212 data for 1960 and 1968. Occupational categories have been combined as shown because of changes in the code structure subsequent to 1960, and also to facilitate comparisons with private agency data where possible.

11. Racial data cited concerning the worker characteristics of those placed by the sample public offices in July, 1968 are taken from Report 513D, #261, Employment Service Activities by Local Office Within Type, Research and Statistics, Sacramento, September 16, 1968. Information as to the sex and the age groups of the workers placed was derived from the Reports ES 212 (Rev. 4), Nonagricultural Placements for July, 1968 that are completed for each of the local offices.

VII. NATURE AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF COUNSELING UNITS IN BAY AREA PUBLIC AND PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES AND SCHOOLS

We have mentioned various aspects of counseling in previous chapters. The structure of school counseling units and the nature of school counseling services as a whole have been covered. The general job duties of counselors in both employment agencies and schools and the personnel practices affecting them were also discussed. In this chapter, insofar as it is possible to do so, we will bring together those elements in the counseling performance of each category of counselor which are at least roughly comparable, the types of counselees with whom they work, and the content of their counseling.

"Counseling" in the public agencies as in the schools covers a broad area. As we have already pointed out, school counselors up to the college level spend the bulk of their time assisting students with their purely educational programs. The next heaviest expenditure of counselor time is devoted to helping with personal and social difficulties, followed by guidance in career planning. From all indications gained in our interviewing, counseling in the public employment service resembles that given by the secondary schools in the importance which must be accorded the resolution of various personal and social difficulties. Counseling directly related to problems of vocational choice and the job search must often be preceded by long effort to assist the applicant with other and more pressing difficulties than his vocational problems.

On the other hand, the counseling offered in the private agencies,

because it is given primarily to job-ready applicants for work is generally oriented to imparting that information which will expedite the counselee's job search.

Public Employment Agencies - Types of Applicants Counseled

Only a small portion of the local office managers failed to state that the "problem applicant" accounted for the lion's share of all counseling interviews (Table 7-1). Managers of three offices, two of them full-functioning and one a metropolitan office, did not see appreciable differences in the amount of time required to counsel different types of applicants. But the remainder gave a variety of responses as to the types of workers absorbing most of the time available for counseling. The largest proportion of responses fell under the blanket term, the "disadvantaged." Others were more specific, as minority-group workers especially youth or high school dropouts, handicapped workers, older workers. And these are the applicant groups of which one manager said,

> "You must take on any and all problems that must be resolved before you can even think about jobs."

Local office respondents indicated that not only did problem applicants account for most of their counseling interviews but also, as might be expected, these counselees required the most time-consuming interviews. The managers who specified that some groups of applicants required longer interviews than others again pointed up the "disadvantaged" as presenting a particular problem (Table 7-2). Others gave responses that were more precise in delineating the disadvantaged. Some referred to relief clients or the emotionally disturbed. Others found that youths

Table 7 - 1

Type of Applicant Accounting for a Predominant Portion of Counseling Interviews in Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of applicant	All agencies	Type of agency: Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
All responses				
Number	20	8	5	7
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Given type of applicant does not account for a predominant portion of counseling interviews	15.0	25.0	20.0	-
The disadvantaged	30.0	-	20.0	28.6
Minority; minority youth	15.0	-	40.0	42.8
High school dropout	10.0	37.5	-	28.6
Underqualified	5.0	-	20.0	-
Other	25.0	37.5	-	-

Table 7 - 2

Types of Applicants at Public Employment Agencies that Require Significantly Long Counseling Interviews, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of applicant	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies[a]	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Special-ized
Does not differ significantly	25.0	14.3	25.0	40.0
Longest interviews required for disadvantaged groups	18.8	14.3	25.0	20.0
Longest interviews required for relief clients	18.8	42.7	-	-
Longest interviews required for the emotionally disturbed	18.8	28.6	-	20.0
Longest interviews required for youths with no skills	12.5	14.3	-	20.0
Longest interviews required for those with severe vocational problems, e.g., liberal arts graduates, returnees to labor market	6.2	14.3	-	-
Other	12.5	14.3	25.0	-

[a]Information was not available for two agencies.

with no skills presented particularly time-consuming problems. Actually, the smallest proportion of all responses was related to the above-average expenditure of counseling time required for the resolution of applicant difficulties arising out of distinctly vocational problems. These problems, it developed, were of the especially thorny type--once more, those presented by the liberal arts graduate without specific skills, and the skill-rusty worker returning to the labor market.

Public Employment Agencies - Specialization of Counselors

More than half of the local offices, according to our interview data, had not assigned special groups of applicants to specific counselors. "We take them as they come" was a frequent answer to our question concerning the specialization of counseling staff. This lack of specialization appeared to relate in part to the fact that in both the specialized local offices and in some of the conventional-type offices--the latter because of priorities introduced in response to pressures of work load--the counselees constituted a fairly homogeneous group, namely, the "disadvantaged." Thus, no real reason existed for further specialization in the absence of particular programs accompanied by their own complement of counselors. Two such programs were WIN or the Work Incentive Program for relief clients, and the Concentrated Employment Program for applicants from defined poverty areas meeting certain specific standards denoting a need for assistance (Table 7-3).

Other managers referred to their "HRD Units," sections of the offices specialized in serving disadvantaged applicants under the Human Resources Development program. These managers might indicate that certain

Table 7 - 3

Applicant Groups to which Counselors of Public Employment Agencies Have Been Specifically Assigned, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Applicant group	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Special-ized
No specific assignment	56.2	57.1	50.0	60.0
Relief clients	37.5	42.7	25.0	40.0
Concentrated Employment Program	6.2	14.3	-	-
Veterans	6.2	14.3	-	-
Minority-group applicants	6.2	14.3	-	-
Youth	6.2	14.3	-	-
Older workers	6.2	-	25.0	-

counselors stationed in such units counseled only workers from racial minorities. Also, a special counselor might be assigned to the Youth Section of a local office or to the veterans' program. In the latter, the need for increased activity was mounting at the time of our interviews, as Vietnam veterans were advised of the services available to them at the public offices upon their discharge.

More than half of the local offices reported that they were using what might be termed "Counselor Aides" to supply "part of their counseling process," or as "supportive to counseling." These employees were generally Employment Community Workers who were drawn largely from the poverty areas whose residents their offices served. Requirements for hire in this classification were relatively flexible and the duties of these employees varied greatly from office to office. In some instances they "did the leg-work for outreach," which meant that they might be called upon to do anything for a counselee from arranging for him to get needed medical services to supplying him with clothes. In other cases, these aides worked within the local offices interviewing applicants, coaching them in taking employer tests, or furnishing group counseling (or at least moral support) to classes of women taking Manpower Development Training.

The Employment Community Workers have not been included in the responses related to the specialization of counseling staff inasmuch as they are not recognized as counselors, nor is the information and help they give considered to be counseling.

Several managers, however, paid high tribute to their work "... and as a part of counseling." One manager insisted,

> "All (of them) are certainly supportive to counseling. They can do anything under the sun."

Another stated,

> "They bring in the kids who need service. They take them to work when they lack transportation or motivation, get them out of jail, pay their fines, work 24 hours a day, and we can't even pay them overtime."

Thus, it would appear that definitions to the contrary, the efforts of these various aides, who are specialized in terms of the applicants they serve, should be borne in mind in any consideration of the overall counseling effort of the local offices.

Public Employment Agencies - The Counseling Interview and Use of Tests

A rough measure of the efficacy of counseling programs in the local offices has long been the ratio of all counseling interviews to initial interviews. Were this ratio to stand at one to one, it would indicate that applicants identified as requiring counseling had, in fact, needed little more than the cursory advice which could be given in the course of one face-to-face interview. More importantly, there would be no indication of follow-through.

In the public service, only applicants needing assistance in solving such weighty problems as making initial vocational choices, changing their vocations, or adjusting to their current job situations are eligible for counseling. The interview itself, which must be conducted by a designated counselor if it is to be considered counseling, is designed to produce a clear definition of the applicant's problems and a plan that can be followed to bring about their solution. Further, and in most cases, only additional interviewing can establish that

progress is being made towards such a solution, and that the counseling was effective as judged by the results achieved by and for the applicant.

In those cases where the applicant's problems are primarily related to matters of vocational choice and of job seeking, the content of the information given him would relate in part to the labor market--from the long-term prospects of certain career fields to detailed information concerning how to hunt and where to hunt for specific types of jobs in a given community. In part, too, the information given would be descriptive of the applicant's characteristics. These data would rest on his aptitudes, skills, and interests, and particularly, if he were an entrant worker, might need to be ascertained through testing.

The information content of most counseling interviews, however, would be considerably different when a substantial proportion of all counselees had not yet reached the point of job-readiness. If the applicant's problem of "adjustment" were one of acquiring sufficient motivation that he wished to work at all, giving labor market information would, indeed, be premature. And the applicant greatly in need of medical or legal help would be ill-served if given only lists of employers where he could seek work, or information as to how he might secure training. Consequently, the content of information given counselees and the assistance they receive must in many instances, go far beyond data relating to the world of work, or help in placement. It can be appreciated, therefore, that the counseling process for some applicants will inevitably be a lengthy one.

Reflections of the fact that the counseling process is becoming more lengthy in the sample public offices, are present in their work-load

figures. The 1960 ratio of almost two counseling interviews for each initial contact had risen to about three to one by mid-1968, at which time this ratio stood at four to one in the specialized offices. We obtained no data on changes during recent years in the amount of time expended on these interviews. The sample offices reported for 1968, however, that initial interviews, on the average, required 53 minutes to complete, with this average rising to 64 minutes in the AOC's and YOC's. Further, each subsequent interview, of which there were many more than formerly, was likely to account for an additional 43 minutes of counselor time, an average that amounted to 53 minutes in the specialized local offices.

Testing, as we have mentioned, is used in the counseling process when information concerning the aptitudes or interests of the applicant would be helpful to the counseling process. The majority of the local offices, we found, gave tests in connection with their counseling when the counselors believed it would be helpful to them to have test results available (Table 7-4). The specialized offices, however, used tests more sparingly. One office gave none, and two administered them but seldom. Counselor decisions that tests would be helpful were not frequent, it can be assumed, in the two specialized offices which reported that giving tests rested on such affirmative decisions. As mentioned earlier, testing procedures are all too likely to be viewed by the applicants at AOC's and YOC's as an extension of the schoolroom.

The concern of the public service with the vocational problems of youth and with those of other applicants for whom the measurement of aptitude and interest rather than of proficiencies is important, is

Table 7 - 4

Use of Testing in Connection with Counseling
by Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Use of testing	All agencies	Type of agency: Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
All agencies				
Number	16	7	4	5
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No tests given	6.3	-	-	20.0
Few tests given	18.7	14.3	-	40.0
Tests given when believed helpful in counseling process	75.0	85.7	100.0	40.0

shown in the ubiquitous use of the General Aptitude Test Battery or GATB, as it is known (Table 7-5). All local offices, except the single specialized office giving no tests whatever, used this test as one of its tools in the counseling process. The Kuder Test was the next most generally given, followed by the California Aptitude Test. Also mentioned were such other helps to counseling as interest check-lists and nonverbal tests that are often useful in working with counselees from deprived cultural backgrounds.

Public Employment Agencies - Problems for which Counseling is Given and the Information that is Imparted

Descriptions given by the local office managers as to the nature of counseling in their offices leave little room for surprise that supplying this assistance is frequently a long and arduous proces.

When these respondents were asked to name the types of problems for which their applicants were usually counseled, they volunteered a broad variety of difficulties. Managers from three-quarters of the offices centered their replies on the need to resolve individual, social, emotional, and psychiatric problems that limited the applicant's employability (Table 7-6). And the volume of these responses could be expanded by the addition of such similar counseling problems as the need to develop the applicant's motivation for seeking employment and to impart proper attitudes in relation to work. Other responses, however, bore more of a relationship to vocational counseling as such. Managers of almost 70 per cent of the offices, although no more than 20 per cent of the specialized offices, did mention the applicant's

Table 7 - 5

Tests Given in Connection with Counseling by Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Tests given	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Special-ized
No tests given	6.3	-	-	20.0
General Aptitude Test Battery	93.7	100.0	100.0	80.0
Kuder	68.8	71.4	100.0	40.0
California Aptitude Test	31.3	42.7	-	40.0
Interest check list	25.0	14.3	50.0	20.0
Nonverbal test	12.5	-	50.0	-

Table 7 - 6

Range of Problems for Which Applicants are Usually Counseled in Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Range of problems	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Special-ized
Need to resolve individual, social, emotional, and psychiatric problems that must be resolved if applicant is to be employable	75.0	71.4	75.0	80.0
Need for guidance in making a vocational choice	68.8	100.0	75.0	20.0
Lack of education, skills, experience and/or training	31.3	14.3	25.0	60.0
Need to develop motivation to seek employment	25.0	14.3	-	60.0
Need to convey the realities of the local labor market as related to qualifications and skills possessed	25.0	14.3	50.0	20.0
Need for proper attitudes in relation to employment	6.2	-	25.0	-
Need to explore applicant's interests and skills for guidance in referrals	6.2	-	25.0	-

need for guidance in making a vocational choice as a usual problem faced by their counseling units. Such other typical problems of vocational guidance were mentioned as the needs of applicants lacking education and skills, or of counselees having little understanding of the realities of the labor market or of their own interests and skills.

Possibly a better way to express the wide range of problems brought to the public agency counselors than attempts at cataloguing these difficulties, is to allow the managers to describe their range. One respondent stated,

> "(These problems) can be anything--how to read a map, catch a bus. We might have to give the counselee an alarm clock. We must combat the complete lack of education, motivation, and social skills that characterize most of (our) applicants."

Another respondent said much the same thing when describing the range of counselees' problems,

> "Everything and then some! Our applicants have personal, social, medical, legal, education, mental health, and vocational problems--and more."

Or there was the manager of a YOC who said,

> "Every problem of this era--it's here in this office in its most extreme form--lack of education, particularly of the 3-R's variety; drug abuse; the need to change attitudes, create motivation, deal with every social problem under the sun--in short to change the mental condition of our youth."

It was, in fact, what some of these managers saw as a need to "change the mental condition of our youth" that was producing noticeably anti-intellectual or at least "anti-expert" reactions among them. They saw themselves as standing at the port of last call, and as much in need of expert professional assistance as of larger staff resources. Yet,

it was mentioned that when psychiatrists were called in, these practitioners showed themselves capable of dealing only with "middle-class problems." And when remedial-reading teachers were asked to help, the managers stated they were not as successful as were the office's own Employment Community Workers. These latter somehow managed to inculcate some ability to read, together with their coaching on how to fill out forms or pass an employer's hiring test.

Our data concerning the content of information imparted to applicants after their needs have been defined reflect the types of problems described above. Respondents from four-fifths of the offices mentioned the guidance given counselees in obtaining the services they required, including training, in order to become employable (Table 7-7). One manager called this type of help, "showing them how to go back and start in all over again" --and very frequently, he thought, a "sound, basic education" was what was needed most.

After the applicant's most pressing problems were resolved, his next need was for occupational counseling. This need might be for "vocational guidance," mentioned by managers from more than half of the local offices. This type of guidance meant giving information related to longer-term job prospects in certain occupational fields to assist the counselee in making a vocational choice. However, an equal number of responses were to the effect that the occupational counseling needed was detailed information as to the specific job openings available to workers at the applicant's particular skill level. And sometimes this information was detailed to the point of naming the establishments from which the applicant was advised to seek a job. As one

Table 7 - 7

Information Given Applicants During Counseling Interviews in Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Information given applicants	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Special-ized
Information as to where applicant, if not job-ready, can obtain needed services including training	81.3	85.7	50.0	100.0
Vocational guidance information	56.2	57.1	75.0	40.0
Information on local labor market with reference to job openings related to applicant's skills	56.2	57.1	75.0	40.0
Information on specific employers to whom applicant is referred - industrial classification, location of plant, etc.	12.5	14.3	-	20.0
Other	12.5	-	50.0	-

manager said,

> "We try to get the applicant to view his problems as realistically as possible without discouraging him. We give him a great deal of information about jobs he wouldn't have thought of--of occupations he is unfamiliar with--of specific places to look for jobs."

The need for highly specific labor market information was by no means confined to problem applicants. One manager, in speaking of primarily mainstream applicants with vocational problems stated concerning the content of counseling information,

> "Occupational information, primarily, is needed--information that is updated and localized to this market and as detailed as is possible."

Public Employment Agencies - Counseling Work Load and Work-load Trends

The sample public employment service offices actually gave more initial counseling interviews in July 1960, and with a smaller staff of counselors, than were conducted in July 1968. The earlier July total of 1,525 had dropped to 1,206 by the same month of 1968. Counseling interviews in the prior year, however, were as different from those of the 1968 variety as were the applicants who needed them. A sizeable proportion of former counseling, for that matter, was of a quite nominal sort, and grew out of the cooperative arrangements then existing between high schools and local offices for the testing of large numbers of terminal students.

But the trend in total counseling interviews has been very different. These numbered 2,990 for the sample offices in July 1960, and they had reached 3,411 in July 1968. This 14 per cent increase in total interviews, together with the declining load of initial

counseling contacts, measures the change that has taken place in the type of counseling that must be given under the impact of various manpower programs.

Comparable figures for all the Bay Area offices shown an even greater change between the two years, for the full number of offices includes a skill center, two service centers, and those Youth Opportunity Centers absent from our sample. Total counseling interviews for the complete roster of Bay Area offices gained from 2,997 in July 1960 to 4,652 in 1968. As the number of initial counseling contacts for all offices decreased from 1,531 to 1,461 in the same period, the ratio of total counseling interviews to initials moved from 2.0-to-one to 3.2-to-one over these years.[1]

Private Employment Agencies - Types of Applicants Counseled

About twice the proportion of private agency respondents as of local office managers denied that any particular type of applicant accounted for a predominant portion of the counseling interviews given by them (Table 7-8). Slightly over one-third of these respondents could see no specific type of applicant who by reason of his characteristics consistently required "counseling" while other types did not.

It well may be that the replies of a substantial proportion of another one-third of the private agency managers should be construed as meaning much the same. These respondents tended to reply in terms of occupational groups, mentioning professional or clerical workers, for example, as those most likely to require counseling. In instances where workers in these groups accounted for the largest share of

Table 7 - 8

Type of Applicant Accounting for a Predominant Portion of Counseling Interviews in Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of applicant	All agencies	Type of agency: Non-affiliated	Type of agency: Affiliated
All responses			
Number	34	20	14
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Given type of applicant does not account for a predominant portion of counseling interviews	35.3	40.0	28.8
Professional	11.8	10.0	14.2
Clerical	11.8	5.0	21.5
Technical	5.9	5.0	7.1
Managerial	2.9	-	7.1
Underqualified	11.8	10.0	14.2
The disadvantaged	2.9	5.0	-
High school dropout	2.9	5.0	-
Other	14.7	20.0	7.1

applicants seeking work at the agency, the weight of their numbers alone could have influenced the answers given. But frequently the respondents qualified their replies to show that within the meaning they gave to counseling, one or another occupational group did, indeed, account for more than its proportionate share of all the counseling given.

One agency manager who, perhaps, drew too thin a line between counseling and the placement process, maintained that professional workers, particularly those who were in-migrants to the area, required a disproportionate share of counseling. Their requirement in this respect stemmed from the difficulty of evaluating, in terms of the local job market, the frequently esoteric skills and knowledges gained in their previous out-of-area employment. Thus, he had set up an informal panel of satisfied clients, both employers and applicants, who could help him to evaluate the credentials of, for example, some holder of a Ph.D. in optics so that the latter could recognize his true potential in terms of what local electronics firms had to offer. This time-consuming process the manager considered a part of counseling. Meanwhile, other private agency managers unhesitatingly replied that "clerical workers" predominated in the counseling work load no matter what their proportion of all applicant traffic. These were the workers most likely to require advice as to proper grooming and their conduct during an employment interview. And, according to some respondents, imparting advice in matters of this sort <u>was</u> employment counseling.

A radically smaller proportion of responses from the private agency managers than from those of the public offices singled out

disadvantaged workers as the recipients of a predominant proportion of the counseling given by them. They tended, however, to stress more than did the local offices the counseling required by "underqualified" workers, a characteristic by no means restricted to those who are disadvantaged but related, rather, to the nature of the job openings being worked on.

A somewhat larger proportion of the private agency managers' responses than of those from the local office managers indicated that there were no types of applicants coming to them who required significantly longer counseling interviews than did others (Table 7-9). The public agency managers, it will be recalled, singled out a variety of problem-type applicants who required above-average-length interviews. Respondents from the private agencies, on the other hand, related the time consumed by the counseling interview to the education and background of the applicant. The inference, of course, was that the more the applicant's qualifications fell short of prevailing job specifications, the greater was his need for a more realistic view of the labor market or for additional training to upgrade his qualifications. And both types of persuasion were time-consuming, particularly when younger workers with no skills were involved, one problem group that was singled out for mention.

Private Employment Agencies - Specialization of Counselors

As we have frequently noted, counseling as given in the private agencies is performed by placement interviewers. This function, therefore, can be distinguished from the referral and placement process only

Table 7 - 9

Types of Applicants at Private Employment Agencies
that Require Significantly Long Counseling Interviews,
by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Type of applicant	Per cent of agencies		
		Type of agency	
	All agencies	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
No counseling given	3.3	5.9	30.8
Does not differ significantly	40.0	47.1	30.8
Differs according to education and background of applicant	46.7	41.2	53.8
Differs according to job classification	10.0	5.9	15.4
Longest interviews required for youths with no skills	6.7	5.9	7.7
Other	3.3	-	7.7

in terms of its content, and not because it is conducted by a staff whose training and job duties are centered on bringing the applicant to a level where he is employable, rather than of referring a job-ready worker. If the applicant at a private agency is not ready for immediate referral to a job, it is the task of the placement interviewer to bring him to such degree of job readiness as is appropriate in view of the job openings that are on hand or can be obtained, and is practicable within the confines of a profit-and-loss operation.

With one minor exception, we found no private agency that had introduced any specialization into its staffing structure that would separate the task of increasing the applicant's employability from that of referring him, once he appeared to be placeable. Thus, the only specialization that existed among those who counseled was that already imposed on the placement staff. This specialization was most likely, when it was present, to relate to the occupations handled by a particular office or interviewer. The sole instance of a counseling specialization that we did find reflected the assignment of all physically-handicapped applicants to one part-time placement interviewer who had developed particular skills in counseling and placing such workers.

Private Employment Agencies - The Counseling Interview and Use of Tests

What is known as a "counseling interview" in a private agency is by no means likely to be a one-time happening. In our discussions as to the number of such interviews given to each applicant, it developed that the average ratio of total to initial counseling interviews

for the private agencies was considerably closer to that of the public agencies than might have been expected. We believe, however, that the occasion for much of this subsequent counseling was the additional interview or interviews given those applicants whose referral to a series of jobs was required before they were placed.[2]

In any event these counseling interviews, both initial and subsequent, were much briefer than those given in the public offices. According to our respondents, initial counseling interviews averaged 29 minutes each, while subsequent contacts averaged 17 minutes. Both initial and subsequent interviews were considerably lengthier in the affiliated than in the nonaffiliated agencies, but neither the occupational specialization of the agency nor the degree to which fees were paid by the employer appeared to affect their duration significantly. Inasmuch as the problems needing to be resolved by or for private agency counselees were generally of a different order of magnitude than those typically presented to the local office counselors, it is little wonder that the formers' difficulties were less time-consuming of office-staff time.

Private agency respondents as well as those from public agencies reported giving tests in connection with their counseling. However, where private agencies were more likely than public offices to test for proficiencies in connection with their placement activity, they were much less prone to test for interest and aptitude in connection with their counseling. More than one-quarter of the private agencies, in fact, administered no such tests as part of their counseling (Table 7-10).

Table 7 - 10

Use of Testing in Connection with Counseling
by Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Use of testing	All agencies	Type of agency: Non-affiliated	Type of agency: Affiliated
All agencies:			
Number	30	17	13
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
No tests given	26.7	23.5	30.8
Tests given when believed helpful in counseling process	73.3	76.5	69.2

Private employment agencies, unlike either the public agencies or the schools which may administer this test on a contract basis, do not number the General Aptitude Test Battery among their arsenal of predictive tools. Thus the absence of the GATB and the presence of the Wonderlic Test marks the most visible difference between the counseling-related testing programs of the two types of offices (Table 7-11). The private agencies did, however, mention a variety of commercial aptitude tests that they used as well as the Kuder, nonverbal tests, and an interest check list.

Private Employment Agencies - Problems for which Counseling is Given and the Information that is Imparted

Descriptions of the applicant problems around which their respective counseling programs center were so differently painted by the public and private agency managers that the sharp contrasts distinguishing counseling in the two types of agencies emerged immediately.

Three-quarters of the local office managers listed as a prime aim of their counseling the resolution of the applicant's individual social, emotional, and psychiatric problems before he could even be considered employable. These were the difficulties which were most pressing, and only after some headway against them had been made, did the counselees' receiving vocational guidance even matter. When that stage was reached, if we are to judge by the relative frequency of their replies, chances are that the applicant needed training rather than a job, that he lacked the motivation to seek employment, and that he had little knowledge of the realities of the labor market in terms

Table 7 - 11

Tests Given in Connection with Counseling
by Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Tests given	Per cent of agencies		
		Type of agency	
	All agencies	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
No tests given	26.7	23.5	30.8
Wonderlic	53.3	70.6	30.8
Aptitude tests	26.7	17.6	38.5
Kuder	6.7	11.8	-
Nonverbal test	6.7	-	15.4
Interest check list	3.3	5.9	-

of his own interests and skills.

More than half of the private agency managers mentioned as the problem for which their applicants were usually counseled the latter's need for information concerning proper appearance and dress and how to conduct themselves in an employment interview (Table 7-12). The inference drawn from this contrast in the bulk of the two types of agencies' counseling can only be that most private agency applicants are job-ready by public agency standards when they arrive on the scene.

A third of the private agency managers, like a fourth of their counterparts in the public offices, mentioned the problem of conveying the "realities of the labor market" to their counselees in terms of what these latter had to offer by way of qualifications for employment. And managers from both types of offices stated that could be a particularly difficult matter to put across to youth, so inadequately are many of them prepared to enter the world of work. It would seem that there is a considerable necessity for much of this "adjusting to reality," and yet much ill feeling and confusion surrounds the process. One private agency manager said,

> "There is an endless stream of bright-eyed youngsters who want to work with people, who want to work with something artistic, who want to do editorial writing. There is the ever-present need to give information about salaries, about job requirements.... Most (of our) problems arise from the fact that young workers come on the labor market without any facts about anything. They have no idea of what is available in the labor market, what is feasible--and the problem is particularly acute amongst the hundreds of kids who hit _____ each year with college degrees and no idea of what is here."

Telling them "what is here" is an often unpalatable job for both agency managers and the job seekers who must now hear a story that has

Table 7 - 12

Range of Problems for Which Applicants are Usually Counseled in Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Range of problems	Per cent of agencies		
		Type of agency	
	All agencies	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
No counseling given	3.3	5.9	-
Need for proper appearance, dress, conduct in job search	53.3	58.8	46.2
Need to convey the realities of the local labor market as related to qualifications and skills possessed	36.7	29.4	46.2
Need for proper attitudes in relation to employment	30.0	35.3	23.1
Need to explore applicant's interests and skills for guidance in referrals	23.3	23.5	23.1
Need for advice as to presentation of qualifications and skills when interviewed	23.3	23.5	23.1
Lack of education, skills, experience and/or training	13.3	11.8	15.4
Need to resolve individual social, emotional, and psychiatric problems that must be resolved if applicant is to be employable	6.7	11.8	-
Need for guidance in making a vocational choice	3.3	5.9	-

been too long delayed in reaching them. The manager of one college placement agency mentioned the surprise that many students from that school expressed upon their return from some private employment agency where they had been informed that their degrees did not fit them for any job opportunity listed with the agency. Further, they often spoke of having been treated with "rudeness."

These accounts can be matched with comments of the private agency managers expressing extreme frustration that they are elected the ones who "finally must tell the kids the world isn't waiting for them." These managers, in their turn, spoke of the "arrogance of the recent graduate." Possibly, both manager and job entrant were merely in shock from the absurdities and the often needless waste characterizing this situation.

Adjusting the applicant to reality is not always a matter of bringing about some down-grading of this aspirations. One private agency manager used, as an example of presenting this "reality," the problem of the returning veteran. This manager remarked,

> "Frequently, there are veterans, just released from service and with a wife and child, who put their minimum-acceptance salary so outrageously low that it is necessary to sit down with them and work out an entire family budget before you can send them out."

Private agencies have more often been criticized, however, for their efforts to bring down the applicant's expectations in the course of their "counseling" than commended for their persuasions in the other direction.

Writing of agencies in a large midwestern city, one writer has expressed his criticism of this type of counseling as follows,

> "As they see it (private employment agency counselors), proper conditioning of the applicant is the specific means to achieve more and quicker placements.
>
> "To perform this conditioning, the counselors themselves are specially selected and conditioned. Hard-driving manipulative counselors create compliant applicants with altered self-images. And this is the commodity they send to market."[3]

How the private agencies meet other of the problems they encounter in their counseling activities is less subject to controversy. Resembling the local office managers, the private agency respondents also spoke of their problems of instilling proper attitudes in relation to employment and the need to explore the applicant's interests and skills in order to refer him properly. They, too, commented on the blockage to referral that lacks of education and skill constitute, and of their efforts to persuade the underqualified to undertake additional training. However, the comparative infrequency with which they mentioned their attempts to assist in resolving those pressing problems that prevent referral, and the fact that they completely failed to mention "lack of motivation" would indicate that the necessities of conducting a profitable enterprise preclude giving service to a sector of the labor force most certainly in need of assistance.

The types of applicant problems most frequently forming the content of counseling as surely shaped the content of the information transmitted by the private as by the public agencies. Because the latter were so greatly concerned with those problems impeding the applicant's employability, the local office managers gave overwhelming weight to providing him with information about where he could obtain needed services. Because the private agencies were dealing with

job-ready applicants and the first concern of these managers was placement, their greatest interest lay in the successful outcome of the employment interview. Thus, more than half of these respondents mentioned as the information imparted during counseling, how the applicant might best present his case in an interview with the employer (Table 7-13). A third of the private agency managers believed that giving the applicant information concerning the employer he was about to visit would be of considerable value in presenting that case. In fact, one manager remarked that he often sent job applicants off to the library to learn all they could about the history and activities of the establishments to which they were referred, because possession of such information could be the deciding factor in the employer's estimate of the job hunter's presentation.

Considerable proportions of the private agency managers stated that their employment counselors gave information to the applicants which served to relate their qualifications to the job openings on hand, or which specified the duties of the jobs to which they were referred. Both types of information, it was stated, helped to acquaint the applicant with reality. And both, it should be noted, required that the counselor possess a reliable, current, and above all highly-detailed knowledge of the local labor market.

The private agency managers, at this point, again stressed their concern that "their applicants" should appear properly dressed and able to conduct themselves properly when sent to "their employers." More than one-quarter of these respondents mentioned the coaching that was required in order to achieve this result as a major part of their

Table 7 - 13

Information Given Applicants During Counseling Interviews in Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Information given applicants	Per cent of agencies		
		Type of agency	
	All agencies	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
No counseling given	3.3	5.9	-
Detailed information on how the applicant can best present his case in an interview with employer	56.7	41.2	76.9
Information on specific employers to whom applicant is referred--industrial classification, location of plant, etc.	33.3	35.3	30.8
Information on local labor market with reference to job openings related to applicant's skills	26.7	29.4	23.1
Information on job duties of occupation to which referred	26.7	35.3	15.4
Information as to improvement in appearance, dress, conduct	26.7	29.4	23.1
Information as to where applicant, if not job-ready, can obtain needed services including training	6.7	11.8	-
Vocational guidance information	3.3	5.9	-

counseling effort.

Very far down on the list of types of information given to counselees at the private agencies, as compared with the responses of the local office managers, were two that the latter had greatly stressed. Few private agency respondents mentioned that their counseling included either information about where applicants who were not job-ready could obtain needed services, or vocational guidance information. These two types of information, it will be recalled, accounted for a predominant proportion of the local office managers' replies. However, a higher proportion of the private agencies were represented by replies that they gave very specific information about local employers to their applicants. And this was the type of information that appeared to be the most assiduously collected and carefully compiled of any that was available in the private agencies.

Private Employment Agencies - Counseling Work Load and Work-load Trends

We have no data from the sample private employment agencies that would permit us to compare trends in their counseling work load from 1960 to 1968. On two counts, however, it can be assumed that more counseling was being done by these agencies in mid-1968 than in the earlier year. Counseling is closely integrated with the placement process in these agencies. Therefore, the rise in their placements from 1960 would be accompanied, inevitably, by more counseling. Many private agency managers, too, commented on the fact that "today's applicants" are not as well qualified as were those of former times. This, too, might be regarded as inevitable in that 1968, as compared with 1960,

presented an applicant's market in the occupations with which these agencies were primarily concerned. The combination of a market where applicants could bid to upgrade themselves and the agencies' efforts to "preserve their reputations" with client employers would, indeed, have necessitated more counseling in their terms even if their placement activities had not expanded.

In any event, 24 of the sample private agencies reported having given 4,204 counseling interviews in July 1968. And the ratio of total to initial counseling interviews in these offices, 2.4 to one, was not far off from the 2.8 to one of the sample public offices.

Public High Schools - Nature of Counseling Given

Counselors in the public high schools spend their energies very largely on students' educational problems--what classes to take to graduate from high school, what classes to take to qualify for college, how study programs may be changed. Even when their counseling concerns college, it will likely be in terms of how the student can enter, not what his major should be once he is there.

The half or so of the counselor's time remaining after these educational matters are disposed of must be split several ways. Assisting the student to resolve his social and personal difficulties will consume the next largest share of counseling effort. On the average, only 18 per cent of all counseling time in the sample public high schools was expended on "planning job futures," and an almost equal proportion went to administrative duties.

Counselors generally have received but little specific training

in occupational counseling. The university or college where they completed the education leading to their certification may have offered one course in "career planning." Or it may have provided as many as three. But these courses are often taught by instructors who know little about the "world of work" or of the labor market information which describes it.[4] Nevertheless, counselors discover that occupational counseling is necessary when they begin their counseling careers, and they do what they can with such training as they have been given and the materials they receive. Counseling departments, in fact, do more than could be expected of them, considering the handicaps under which they labor. We have already mentioned the high student-counselor ratios that cut into the amount of time available for counseling as such, let alone for occupational guidance. Parallel to the public employment agencies with their problem of developing employability before vocational counseling "even matters," is the school counselors' heavy concern with students' social and individual problems before even educational programming matters, to say nothing of occupational guidance. There is also the heavy burden of administrative chores and the drawbacks imposed by inadequate assistance in obtaining and maintaining the materials needed to give the occupational guidance for which often the counselor has not been trained. But whatever the defects in bringing knowledge and contacts with the world of work into the setting of school counseling, more is done on another front--that of exploring the students' aptitudes and interests.

Almost half of the sample public high schools gave occupational aptitude or interest tests to all of their students. In all, 73 per

cent of the student population of these schools was tested. Schools in which the students were preponderantly from upper and middle socioeconomic-level families gave tests to somewhat less than half of their students. Schools with student bodies drawn primarily from the lower socioeconomic levels tested more than 80 per cent of their students, on the average. This average, although much higher than that of the schools with predominantly upper- and middle-class students, was brought down by the inclusion of two schools whose students were drawn almost entirely from very low socioeconomic groups. Other types of student problems were so pressing for solution in these schools that vocational testing was far down in the order of importance.

Actually, testing reached its highest incidence in those schools that were heavily college-oriented but that also had sizeable groups of students enrolled from families at the lower socioeconomic level. These schools were likely to give all or most of their students occupational and interest tests. It may be that counselors who were exposed to giving tests to large groups of students either recognized the benefits of tests for all, or found it as easy to test all students as only one group.

The public high schools in our sample tested their students under a variety of circumstances (Table 7-14). More than four-fifths tested students at their request and almost three-quarters at the request of the counselor. But less than half of the schools had a general testing program in connection with which all or most students were tested. Practically no schools offered a specific guidance course along with which students were tested. One of the two such

Table 7 - 14

Circumstances under which Students are Tested to Determine Their Occupational Aptitudes and Interests, by Type of School

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Circumstances	Per cent of schools		
	Type of school		
	Public high schools	Catholic high schools	Junior colleges
At request of student	84.2	100.0	100.0
At request of counselor	73.7	100.0	100.0
In connection with general testing program	47.4	100.0	37.5
In connection with specific guidance course	10.2	-	87.5

courses that we did find was, in fact, a senior elective.

Almost four-fifths of the schools gave their occupational interest tests on the premises, although less than half of all of them gave these tests as part of a general testing program. Some of the schools gave occupational interest tests, but others administered an "academic" test such as the Differential Aptitude Test (DAT) or the School and College Aptitude Test (SCAT), and interpreted it for occupational directions. Yet others sent their students to the Department of Employment for the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB). And in one case among our sample schools, the students went to the district work-experience coordinator for the GATB.

When we asked the public school counseling departments to describe the changes that may have occurred in the proportion of students given occupational tests since 1960, the answers were mixed. The near half of our respondents who said that their occupational testing had remained constant represented schools which gave all students tests, both then and now. It was reported that in 28 per cent of the schools occupational testing had increased in amount since 1960, but in 17 per cent, testing had decreased.

Another 11 per cent of the school counselors said that all students were and are tested, but that the proportion of students receiving the GATB had fallen off. These schools gave the DAT to all students and interpreted it both academically and occupationally. They relied on the Department of Employment to give the GATB to those students needing an occupational test. An estimated 30 per cent of the students in these schools received the GATB in 1960, but less than

one per cent were given the GATB in the 1968-69 school year, primarily because the tests are now given in the local employment office and but few students actually go there on their own. The remaining counselors said that testing had remained about unchanged as to level from 1960 to 1968.

Along with the mixed picture presented by testing in the public high schools was the range of answers we received as to how many of the students received counseling in occupational planning. We found that 75 per cent of the total of students in the sample schools received such assistance. One-third of the schools helped from 10 to 50 per cent of their students in this manner. Two-thirds assisted all of their students. It was the schools with student bodies primarily drawn from families at the lower socioeconomic levels and with student-counselor ratios over 300 that tended to give the fewest students help in their occupational planning.

Public High Schools - Dropout-Prevention Programs and "World of Work" Courses

The prevention of school dropouts has become a cardinal tenet of education. Yet, when we asked the public high school counselors if their schools had programs aimed specifically at the prevention of school dropouts, only one-half answered affirmatively.

State law requires every public school district to maintain a continuation school for potential dropouts. One-fourth of the counselors volunteered that their district continuation school constituted a definite program to prevent school-leaving. Another 10 per cent

characterized this school as a holding center for those students who presented a discipline and attendance problem for their teachers. The existence of these schools was not mentioned one way or another by the remaining counselors, so it can hardly be assumed that they regarded it as part of a specific program to prevent school dropouts, despite the legal mandate. In any event, counselors' reactions to these schools varied widely as is shown in the following comments.

> "The continuation school is just a 'corral-type' situation where we send the hard cases."
>
> "The school does not have a dropout program except as counselors work with individual students. But this answer is not really fair to the system as a whole, because a potential dropout would probably be shifted to the continuation school where there is much more flexibility, more freedom, and a tutorial system--all devices that tend to prevent dropouts."
>
> "A district committee reviews each school recommendation for continuation school on a very selective basis. After the student goes there he is constantly reviewed to be returned to his home high school as soon as he is able."

Despite the last quotation, a constant review of the fortunes of those students sent to continuation school is not the common practice. It may be that this very lack of counselor involvement with continuation schools and their former counselees enrolled there explains in part, the counselors' usually omitting the role that these institutions may play in dropout prevention. About 90 per cent of the counselors were involved with these schools only to the extent of transmitting the student's record to the dean or principal or recommending that the student be sent there. The remaining 10 per cent not only recommended the students to be sent but also maintained a constant relationship with them while they were there. The students, therefore, retained a bond

with their previous school and in addition, received counseling at continuation school. It is more likely that a period of time spent in this situation would lead to the student's return to his home school than merely increase his feelings of rejection.

Some of the counselors who listed no specific program to prevent school dropouts nonetheless pointed to the fact that much of what the schools do is aimed at holding the student there. As one counselor said,

> "We have no specific program, but the work-experience program, changes in the curriculum, vocational-education expansions all help prevent dropouts, but it is all indirectly."

One-quarter of the schools, however, did have specific dropout-prevention programs besides the continuation school that was available to them in the district. And all of these revolved around specialized help to the individual student. One school provided a language-assistance program for Mexican-Americans; another had a special federal program providing in-depth counseling to students identified as potential dropouts. Three suburban schools offered imaginative approaches. One established a school review board composed of teachers, counselors, the district psychologist, and parents. This board met every week to pinpoint potential problem students and to offer them specialized programming, therapy, or other appropriate aids. Another school offered individualized course programming to the point that a student could take five hours of auto shop if that would hold him in school. The school counseling administrator said, "Sooner or later these kids build themselves back into a regular program when they see what they need."

A third school instituted a "tuned out" program--a special program for those who had talent, but who came to school and "went through the motions" without becoming involved in school. This school engaged a special teacher who could teach any of the basic required subjects that did not require a laboratory or foreign language. He then might combine physical education and botany on a day's hike through the woods, or he might have the class do historical research in the local libraries for a day. The counselors were enthusiastic about this program and wished that funds and the necessary type of teachers were available for its expansion.

We also asked our public high school respondents if courses about the world of work were given in their schools. Only a fifth of the schools were giving such courses. The counselor served as instructor in one-third of these few courses; he was minimally related to the course in another one-third; and, he had no relationship whatever to the course in the remaining one-third. In essence, counselors and students were able to get together in planned, systematic attempts to give students occupational planning in very few of the schools. And in one of these, the counselors said they had to "bootleg" time from portions of other courses.

Catholic Schools - Nature of Counseling Given

It will be recalled that counselors in the sample Catholic high schools spent about a quarter of their time assisting students to plan their job futures, a somewhat larger proportion of all counseling time, on the average, than could be used for this activity in the public high

schools. As in the latter, the Catholic school counselors also spent more time on assisting their students in purely educational matters and with their social and personal difficulties than could be devoted to occupational guidance. But, as the Catholic school counselors could expend a notably smaller proportion of their efforts on educational programming and slightly less on administrative duties, more of their time remained available to help students with their social and personal difficulties and to give them occupational guidance. Also, although 90 per cent of the students in the sample Catholic high schools planned to go on to college, it appeared that the counseling these students received was concerned with their long-range career planning as much or more than with how to gain admission to college.

However, if counselors in the public high schools had but little formal training in occupational planning, it seemed the Catholic school counselors had received even less. Much that these latter had learned about the world of work and about the occupational information which is available had been acquired in the same manner as was customary in the public schools--through the counselors' own individual efforts.

Against a background of schools where the students were predominantly from upper- and middle-class families, of schools that are primarily oriented to preparing their students for college entrance and whose counselors have had comparatively little formal training in occupational guidance, it is surprising to find all Catholic high schools giving all of their students occupational and interest tests in connection with general testing programs (refer back to Table 7-14). Supplementary occupational tests could also be given at the request of

student or counselor. Not only were students given occupational tests in all of the sample Catholic schools, but 75 per cent of these schools also used academic tests such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) for further help in determining the student's career interests. The remaining school sent students to the local office of the Department of Employment to take the GATB when it was appropriate to do so.

All but one of the Catholic schools had administered occupational tests to all of its students since 1960 and that school, which tested 50 per cent of its students in 1960, now tested all of them. Possibly, this earlier start in the widespread use of testing can explain the greater use of occupational testing by the Catholic than the public high schools in 1968. In any event, counselors in all of the Catholic schools, despite the strong academic bent of these institutions, said they gave counseling in occupational planning to all of their students. And most of them remarked that they did not give enough such assistance, even though most of their students would be going on to college.

Catholic High Schools - Dropout-Prevention Programs and "World of Work" Courses

Catholic high schools have no continuation schools, and generally they have no special programs for potential dropouts except insofar as the public schools inherit the dropouts from all types of private schools.

Many factors, of course, serve to limit the problem of dropouts in the Catholic schools. The initial selection procedure tends to weed out those students without some academic promise. Parents are likely to

add their own pressures to the religious pressures the schools can mount to control individual students, because of the heavy financial load these parents carry by way of tuition charges and the like. Further, each student knows that many stand in line to take his place if he does leave school.

One of the schools, however, did go beyond what might be called a "built-in dropout program." This counseling department averred the intention of making it possible for every student to remain in school whatever his problems. If he needed financial help, he could obtain loans or part-time jobs through the school. If he were having problems academically yet had potential, he would be given a required study-hall for an hour after school each day with individualized help from a staff member.

One-half of the sample Catholic schools provided courses on the world of work and counselors were instructors. In one case, while the time for such a course was not scheduled in the regular curriculum, time was found by "stealing" it from religious instruction, just as one of the public high schools "bootlegged" the time for its course from portions of the regular curriculum.

In sum, the Catholic school counselors who usually are not formally trained in occupational counseling and who are not required to give direct occupational planning to any of their students except the very small groups who do not go on to college, appeared to provide more long-term occupational guidance to their students than we found being given in the public high schools.

Junior Colleges - Nature of Counseling Given

We found in the sample schools that, on the average, junior college counselors spent almost 70 per cent of their time assisting students either in planning their "job futures" or in resolving their "purely educational problems." The latter type of counseling was usually an extension of the former, in that much of the instruction given in the junior colleges is designed with the student's occupational future in mind. It was surprising, therefore, to find that only 59 per cent of all students in the sample junior colleges were given occupational or interest tests. It was even more surprising that at the very junior colleges whose students could be surmised most in need of occupational counseling and testing, the smallest percentages were given tests. Three schools that had larger percentages of their students from middle and upper income levels, and that had the most numerous and most sophsticated vocational offerings, were the schools which gave all of their students occupational testing. One suburban school did not give a majority of its students occupational tests, but it was strongly recommended that all students take a specific guidance course on career planning in which it was possible for them to take occupational tests if they wished to do so. But respondents at all of the junior colleges did point out that either the student or the counselor could request a particular test for a particular student.

About a third of the sample junior colleges offered a general occupational testing program (refer back to Table 7-14). All schools but one offered a specific occupational guidance course on career planning. However, these courses were optional except at 38 per cent

of the schools, where the course was required. Thus, students attending at least half of the sample junior colleges received specific occupational career counseling only if they asked to take a career guidance course or asked to take an occupational interest test. In either instance the student had to know that such a possibility was open to him, and this he did not always know. Our respondents frequently volunteered the remark that many of their students were not even aware of various course offerings on campus. In the general pressure of counseling, the student who appears satisfied with his college major and career choice, however short-lived this decision may be, will likely be allowed to go his way without any serious, planned analysis of his career potentials and the alternatives open to him. This type of default, of course, circumvents a problem that was frequently commented upon by the junior college counselors. "When a student can do many different things reasonably well," they asked, "what should be done to help him develop a career where he will do best and be most satisfied?"

With these restrictions on the number of students who receive aptitude and interest tests and occupational counseling, we found that all of the sample junior colleges gave their tests at the school. Three-quarters of the schools also administered academic tests that were interpreted for career direction. In fact, two-thirds of the schools listed an elaborate set of tests that the student might take, and any of them might be used by the counselors at these schools as a means of helping the student toward his career goals (see Appendix Table G-1).

When the junior college counselors were asked about the changes

that might have occurred in the proportion of their students given occupational tests since 1960, half of them said that their testing programs had remained constant for all or almost all of their counselees over these years. One of these counselors did say, however, that his school now offered more in the way of occupational interest tests than it did in 1960. Those respondents who described their test programs as now reaching more students represented schools that administered few or no tests in 1960 and that, by 1968, were giving tests to from 10 to 20 per cent of their student bodies.

Junior Colleges - Dropout-Prevention Programs and "World of Work" Courses

Junior college respondents did not believe that their schools were plagued by a dropout problem in the usual sense. As mentioned earlier, these students are extraordinarily mobile young adults and they do drop out, drop back, and transfer from one college to another. However, there is the problem of enabling some students who wish to remain in school to do so. As one respondent remarked, "We don't have dropouts, but we work like hell to remedy the problem."

Much of this form of "remedying the dropout problem" is necessarily financial assistance. Because a major reason for students leaving junior college is money, these schools use the resource-development talents of a full-time financial aid officer to help in the matter. He is commissioned to find the wherewithal for providing loans and grants to the students, especially grants from the federal government. In addition, the services of the school placement office

are utilized. Sometimes, federally funded work-study programs can be tapped. At other times, part-time and temporary jobs in the community can be found.

In order to assist students in resolving their personal and educational problems, the sample colleges also provided a variety of individualized counseling programs. These included such approaches as an "early-warning system" to alert the counselors to students with poor grades, a group therapy encounter-type situation, and special tutorial programs for students, especially those from minority groups, having difficulties with their studies. The counselor was heavily involved in all of these programs, financial and otherwise, at 75 per cent of the schools, and he acted as the referral source in the remainder.

We found that almost all of the sample junior colleges offered a course in career guidance or development. One school required the course for all entering freshmen and provided a second optional class on career planning for students who wanted to explore the matter in more depth. The remaining schools offered one optional course on career planning. The counselor acted as the instructor in all of these courses, but it was the usual practice to invite guest speakers from the school's vocational departments and the placement office. A variety of occupational tests was given in conjunction with these courses. Also, such classes featured the presentation of a considerable range of information about occupations and the labor market drawn from both government and private sources.

Findings

Our findings as to counseling in the public employment agencies parallel those concerning their placement activities. Counseling like placement is increasingly concentrated on the disadvantaged applicant. This concentration, for the most part has not required specialization within the staff of counselors, for the largest amount of all counseling given is restricted to those most in need of assistance, and these constitute a relatively homogeneous group.

The composition of the counselors' clientele has greatly affected the types of problems posed by the counselees and the information they require. Problems tend to be of a variety that must be resolved before occupational counseling is appropriate. And the information conveyed by the counselor as often concerns individual and social problems as vocational choice and adjustment. Where job information is conveyed, the type needed is often of the precise and detailed sort that would permit the applicant to search for his own job, rather than the kind required for long-range career planning. The latter type of information, however, is also greatly needed, particularly for young workers.

Many ironic notes are struck in the total picture. Young people flood the Youth Opportunity Centers without the ability to read and write, with no knowledge of the world of work and, often with little motivation to work. For them these centers are the "port of last call" and there the rehabilitation job must be done that would not be required had not homes and schools failed. At the same time other young people who are equally unprepared, although as one manager

said, they are "unprepared at a higher level," learn for the first time from public or private employment agencies that their general-type college educations do not automatically gain them entrance to high-paying and congenial jobs. There are the YOC managers who hopefully give over their problem applicants to Employment Community Workers who may or may not be able to "straighten out" these counselees, although according to some reports their efforts are more successful than those of the best "experts" obtainable. And there are those private and public agency managers, who, in total, report with the same frequency that a liberal arts degree constitutes a handicap to ready employment, as they mention that a police record or mental retardation turns off an employer.

Meanwhile, it would seem that in some local office areas, at least, terminal high schools students who could profit from use of the General Aptitude Test Battery are not receiving this service, either because of pressures of time at the local office or because of lack of knowledge of these facilities at the schools. Finally, adult (but not disadvantaged) workers bring up the rear with their low priority for counseling services despite the fact that they may be the type, characterized by private agency managers as those who "desperately need and want to work."

Our findings suggest that opportunities may have been lost both in the high school and in the junior college to give needed knowledge about the world of work and about vocational preparation to those young workers who are now arriving without benefit of such assistance at the public and private employment agencies. Public

high schools drawing their student bodies predominantly from middle- and upper-level socioeconomic groups give less than half of their students aptitude and interest tests. At the other end of the scale, occupational guidance "gets lost" in the welter of individual and social problems presented by the counselees at schools primarily attended by students from poverty backgrounds.

Few high schools have guidance courses and the counselor is involved in even fewer of them. The high schools appear to assume that the student going to work directly needs no more than a vocational aptitude test, if that, to start him on his way, and that the college-bound youth either already has made his career choice or will receive his occupational direction when he arrives there. But much of the job guidance given in junior college is elective. Thus, the student is likely to select his major without understanding its long-range career implications, or to leave college and choose a job that is not appropriate for him.

Finally, it appears that counselors in the public high schools have little contact with continuation schools or with dropout prevention programs. This lack of contact is another step in isolating the potential dropout from regular school programs. Once in continuation school, the student is likely to receive even less of the help that would persuade him to adjust to the regular, more socially normal and accepted type of education than was given him in the situation that produced his decision to drop out.

Footnotes to Section VII

1. Figures for counseling work-load data for July 1960 and July 1968 for the Bay Area local offices are based on the offices' Reports ES209, Report of Local Office Activities.

2. The ratio of total to initial counseling interviews for the sample private agencies was 2.4 to one, as compared with 2.8 to one for the sample public agencies. We believe that this ratio for the private agencies is closely related to their referral-to-placement ratio of three to one for the sample offices. In other words, reported subsequent counseling interviews more likely than not were the subsequent employment interviews that preceded the second and following referrals given to applicants. Of course, these additional interviews could have contained elements of "employability development" as it is construed in the private agencies, as much as did the initial interview. It should be noted that this referral-to-placement ratio of 3.0 to one for the private agencies is higher than the 2.6 reported by the public agencies. However, one-third of the placements in the public agencies upon which this ratio was computed were short-term placements where, more often than not, a single referral effects the placement.

3. Thomas M. Martinez, "Why Employment-Agency Counselors Lower their Clients' Self-Esteem," Trans-action, March 1968, pp. 20-25.

4. See especially the charges against counselors on the subject of occupational counseling in The Bridge Between Man and his Work, Highlights and Recommendations from the General Report of the Advisory Council on Vocational Education, 1968, Publication 1, U.S. Department

of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, p. 56. See also, A Study of Counselor Education in California (Sacramento: State Department of Education, 1967), Report to the Legislature, Recommendation number 5.

VIII. LABOR MARKET INFORMATION - BAY AREA EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES, SCHOOLS, AND EMPLOYING ESTABLISHMENTS

It is not an easy task to circumscribe within clearly defined boundaries that enormous body of facts and figures which may be properly considered information about the job market. The state of the economy, the industrial composition of an area's employment, patterns of unionization, problems of transportation, the impact of the latest technological advance, and the residue of immemorial custom may all along with many other data prove essential components of a single summarization of such information. Labor market information may be designed to record the past, describe the present, or prognosticate the future. So far as geography is concerned, these data may focus upon a neighborhood, a metropolitan area, a state, a region, or a worldwide market. Or they may be oriented to an industry, an occupation, or a class of workers.

The users of information about the labor market are many as are the purposes for which they will use it. Individuals will seek such knowledge for help in conducting an immediate job search or in arriving at and planning for a career choice. Placement officers, employment counselors, and school counselors must have such knowledge to assist their respective clienteles in job search and career preparation. Employers require this information for recruitment and selection of personnel, to design

training programs, negotiate bargaining agreements, and arrive at decisions on contract commitments, production schedules, and plant locations. Agencies of government at all levels and community groups need these data for economic development and manpower planning. And the schools must be aware of developments in the job market if they are to construct their facilities, design their curricula, and prepare their students in accord with the realities of the world of work.

In the main, we used open-ended questions in probing for the information needs of our respondents and in seeking to discover the types of information that would best serve them in their day-to-day activities. Hence, the categories of information selected are of the respondents' choosing and are expressed as nearly as possible in their own words. Because we were questioning employment agency managers and school counselors and not, as examples, employers or school administrators, various kinds of kinds of information that would be regarded as essential in some quarters were given little or no weight by our respondents. And because we were questioning users of labor market data rather than those who prepare it, little or no consideration was given by our respondents to the difficulties that may be inherent in producing at reasonable cost some of the items for which they stated their need. Nor had many of them attempted by means of their own efforts or ingenuity to gather their own data or to flesh out or update or otherwise adapt the general materials

they received to they received to their own specific purposes.

Public Employment Agencies

It was our original intent to ascertain from the managers of both public and private employment agencies the types of labor market information that are needed to "carry on an optimum placement operation" and to "carry on an optimum counseling operation." Their responses (and frequently these managers called in employees who were "on the firing line" to confirm or to expand their answers) leave us little possibility of maintaining a distinction between the information needs of placement and counseling that is meaningful.

Managers of the private agencies were almost unanimous in maintaining that the kinds of information needed for placement and counseling are identical. Surprisingly, managers of the public agencies, as well, could see little difference in these needs. A common reaction was to say "the same" in describing the information needs of counselors after having described those of placement officers. A few managers might add that the counselors needed information about the social services offered in the community, or about training facilities, or about applicants in addition to what the placement officer needed to know. However, the manager was as likely to maintain that both the placement officer and the counselor should know about available social services, training opportunities, and about applicants. Nor was any seemingly logical

distinction observed between placement officers and counselors concerning the immediacy and detail of the information they said was needed. In the same office, it might be the placement officer who maintained he required more and better Occupational Guides to do a good job while it was the counselor who wanted current job vacancy data and specific knowledge as to which employers hired workers in what occupations, and where these employers were located and what their wage rates were. Consequently, we have combined the various types of information reported as needed for placement and counseling in a single series of responses but we have not duplicated these responses when the same answer (for example, "Specific information concerning the labor needs by occupation of local employers") was provided both under placement and counseling.

Two of the local office managers gave us no picture of their information needs on the grounds that other needs were very much more pressing. Their comments are repeated below because these remarks reflected a viewpoint which others who did furnish answers shared, although in lesser degree. Their comments, also, may explain why none of the public agency managers inferred that they, themselves, might have any responsibility for collecting and maintaining the type of highly localized information most of them reported as greatly needed. One manager said,

> "We don't need information; we need time. We are suffering from an artificial applicant shortage... (because) we don't have the time to search for qualified applicants. We can't even keep up with looking for those who are to receive special

> services....We can't encourage employers to use the Department as we can't be sure of having the time to work on their orders. There are employers in the area who don't even know we exist as a placement operation. We can't refer fast enough with our system to hold the order....And we have to put down a dozen more hieroglyphics for reporting each action than we did ten years ago."

Or another manager in much the same vein:

> "It isn't information. We need staff for employer visits. It would help us to get both the top jobs we used to carry and jobs for the disadvantaged. By now we are simply flying by the seat of our pants and living off of our past reputation. And (we need) more time to actually visit other agencies and get more structured information about other programs and also about what employers offer or are doing. The NABS program has been particularly deficient in this respect. With our resources it's hard to make contact or to know what employers expect."

Public Employment Agencies - Labor Market Information Needed for Placement and Counseling

Of those managers who did register their information needs if placement and counseling were to be conducted in optimum fashion, three-quarters opted for specific information concerning the labor needs by occupation of local employers -- what they sometimes called the "who-hires-whom kind of information" (Table 8-1). It should be particularly noted that every one of the specialized offices mentioned the need for this type of information.

Such data were described in different terms by the various managers, but the following remarks are typical and, in the first case below, the comment was meant to apply both to placement

Table 8 - 1

Types of Information Needed by Public Employment Agencies to Carry on an Optimum Placement and/or Counseling Operation, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Types of information needed	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies[a]	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
Specific information concerning the labor needs by occupation of local employers ("who hires whom")	75.0	85.7	25.0	100.0
Information concerning future job prospects in certain industries or occupations, e.g., Occupational Guides	25.0	14.3	-	60.0
Information concerning economic development of community or area; new plants; layoffs	25.0	28.6	25.0	20.0
Information about training facilities and course offerings	18.8	-	50.0	20.0
Information about the social services offered in the community; i.e., directories of such services	18.8	14.3	25.0	20.0
Information about applicants or counselees	18.8	14.3	25.0	20.0
Information about the community and its services in general	12.5	14.3	25.0	-
Information as to how to motivate applicants or counselees; how to cope with emotional disturbances	6.2	-	-	20.0
Other	18.8	14.3	25.0	20.0

[a]Information not available in two agencies.

officers and to counselors.

> "They need extremely specific local labor market information -- the occupational patterns of local employers, that is. If this is available in the local office, the interviewers know which employers to call in order to develop jobs for particular applicants."

Or, from the manager of an Adult Opportunity Center,

> "We need to have highly localized labor market information -- it must be really specific. What is the structure of personnel at local companies? Who is hired at the entry level? What wages are paid for these jobs? Which employers should be called if we have a certain type of applicant? Our only source of information on this is our closed order file and most of these orders were shared so we really don't know these companies....Certainly, trend information about the whole Bay Area isn't enough...."

The emphasis placed by our respondents on short-term job information did not blind them to their need, as well, for materials related to the longer-term prospects of certain occupations, industries, or areas. Their concern with the more immediate type of information, however, was voiced first and with greater unanimity because they believed the deficit of such data to be the greatest lack in their arsenal of needed materials. The managers' remarks concerning their store of more generalized information about occupations took into account the fact that they already possessed considerable material of this nature. Therefore, their desires respecting longer-term and more general informational materials were more often voiced at a later point in our questioning. Their suggestions were then presented in

such terms as that there should be "more of it" rather than as an expression, at the outset, that its almost total lack had produced a crying need for such data, as was the case with immediate and extremely detailed job information.

One-fourth of the local office managers said that information concerning future job prospects in certain industries or occupations was needed by their placement officers or their counselors or by both. Most often, the Department's Occupational Guides were mentioned as illustrative of the type of material they had in mind.[1] However, "comprehensive skill surveys" giving projected occupational developments for an area such as the East Bay were also included. It should be noted that a need for such longer-term and more comprehensive job information as is contained in the Occupational Guides was mentioned by managers of 60 per cent of the specialized local offices. Yet these were the very offices whose respondents, earlier in our questioning, had stated that their applicants presented so many more pressing problems to be resolved than those connected with making a career choice, that occupational guidance played a definitely secondary role in their operations. We can only assume from certain of the comments these managers made that when occupational guidance was indeed involved, the cataloguing of all information relevant to a given occupation in a single pamphlet or brochure was a definite assist. When, in addition, this information reflected local practices, included suggestions as to how to train for the occupation, carried some notion of the

responsibilities going with the job, and pictured the life style a given job entailed, such a document had particular value for those applicants who were motivated and upwardly mobile.

A fourth of the managers mentioned that information concerning economic developments in their communities or in the Bay Area would be helpful in placement operations and in counseling. They noted, particularly, the direct and practical benefits resulting from an early knowledge of new establishments entering the community. Job orders for initial staffing are likely to be large and service given the employer at that time, if satisfactory, will be remembered. A few managers specified that an early warning of layoffs would be helpful to them as well.

The remaining types of information noted as needed by the managers were more directly related to the counseling function than those already described, although in several instances they were put forward in connection with placement. Almost a fifth of our respondents mentioned a need for more and better information about training facilities and course offerings. Respondents' comments indicated that for lack of comprehensive and centrally-prepared information about training opportunities, they were forced to time-consuming and indiscriminate phone-calling in order to develop the total picture of their community's offerings. Further, they felt a need for better means of evaluating the schools and courses in their areas. One manager gave a top priority to this matter when he stated,

> "It would really help the counselors a lot if they could know which schools in the employers' eyes are the really desirable schools. This knowledge would help in making recommendations to our young graduates as to further training. For example, we know that employers regard _____ and _____ as really good schools, but there must be many, many others."

Also mentioned by a sizeable number of managers was their need for better information concerning the source and location of various social services. There were local offices where such information had already been compiled by some other agency or through the industry of its own counselors. In others, this task remained to be done. Some respondents believed that directories of services would be the answer to their need. Others believed that local office staff required a broad knowledge of the programs and practices of the various helping agencies. Thus, increased opportunities for them to visit these agencies would be very helpful.

Various of the managers mentioned that they needed more information than they possessed about their applicants and how to deal with them if an optimal placement and counseling job were to be done. Most of this group of managers were not too specific concerning the type of information that was needed. A few, however, were more precise. These stated that they needed to know how to motivate their applicants, or they needed to know how to cope with emotional disturbances.

When we asked the local office managers if they considered their information resources adequate, their replies were scarcely

surprising in view of their previous comments and criticisms. Of the 14 managers participating in this series of questions, none was willing to concede that the information he received was adequate for both placement and counseling. Of the total, 13 maintained that the information received was inadequate for purposes of placement and 12 found it inadequate to the needs of counseling. For neither placement nor counseling did a single manager deeply involved in programs serving disadvantaged applicants find the information supplied to him anywhere near adequate.

Public Employment Agencies - Suggestions for Improving the Supply of Needed Information

Our respondents advanced a rather wide range of suggestions designed to improve the fund of information available to them for purposes of placement and counseling. In reviewing their suggestions, it is clear that they placed more emphasis on localizing this information than on any other factor. Almost half of them suggested that more information about both immediate and future labor needs be developed and circulated and that this information pertain to local employers (Table 8-2). One-fifth suggested additionally, or instead, that there be more information which is specific and about labor needs in the local market. However, they did not specify the time period it should cover or the means by which it should be conveyed. But, presumably, these respondents were more concerned about the "who-hires-whom" type of information than the kind

Table 8 - 2

Suggestions for Improvement of Information Needed for Placement and Counseling in Public Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Suggestions for improvement	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies[a]	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Special-ized
Available information for placement and counseling is adequate	0.0			
Develop and circulate more information concerning the immediate labor needs and future job opportunities of local employers by bulletins geared to immediate locality; other types of surveys, including Occupational Guides and skill surveys	43.8	42.7	25.0	60.0
More time for employer visiting in order to observe jobs, discuss labor needs, solicit jobs; more time to call employers	37.5	57.1	25.0	20.0
More time for personal visits to social agencies to learn of services offered	25.0	28.6	25.0	20.0
Develop and circulate more specific information concerning the labor needs by occupation of local employers	18.8	-	-	60.0
Better information concerning new establishments entering area	12.5	14.3	25.0	-
Preparation of easy-to-read pamphlets and brochures for applicants to aid them in their job search	12.5	14.3	-	20.0

(Continued)

Table 8 - 2, continued

Types of information needed	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies[a]	Full-functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Special-ized
More comprehensive information as to educational and training facilities and offerings available in the area	12.5	-	25.0	20.0
Better information on out-of-state or out-of-area employers	6.2	-	25.0	-
Better training on use of labor market information for counselors	6.2	14.3	-	-
More mechanized referral aids; a computerized data bank	6.2	-	-	20.0
More expert help in dealing with disturbed applicants	6.2	-	-	20.0

[a]Information not available in two agencies.

generally encased in formal reports or in pamphlets and brochures.

Those managers who did mention the media by means of which information about either immediate developments or longer-term prospects were to be conveyed were thinking of information oriented both to area and occupational subject matter. Some referred to current bulletins that would describe economic developments at the community rather than the Bay Area level. There were also favorable references to the East Bay Manpower Survey and the Occupational Profile of the City of San Francisco as examples of publications that dealt with longer-term employment prospects and that had a geographic scope more suitable to their needs than the entire Bay Area.[2] And as the managers were predominantly interested in materials that described occupations, there were several references to the Occupational Guides as well as to the more recently-developed pamphlets on finding jobs.

A few managers' comments follow concerning the above types of publications:

> "The R and A Section is doing better these days. Their information is pinpointed more to specific industries and is more localized. The East Bay Manpower Survey is a terrific thing for giving us all a perspective. It should be updated periodically."

> "There should be some Area Bulletins or surveys just for the ___ area to help us between the census dates. We can hardly wait for the 1970 census."

> "We need a comprehensive skill survey in ____ County so we will know what kinds of jobs are available. The schools need this particularly so they can plan their vocational education better. Either they should make a skill survey or give us more time for employer visiting. Everything--and it's little enough--is for the whole Bay Area."

> "We need more Guides. These are the best thing we have on jobs in the YOC's."
>
> "There should be more of the type put out by the Area Office called Finding Jobs. These are very enlightening for our staff (YOC) though they are really meant for applicants to help them in their own job-finding efforts."

There were suggestions, however, that did not place exclusive reliance upon the receipt of a larger supply of materials prepared and published by other sections of the Department. Over a third of the respondents suggested that more time be made available for employer visiting so that office staff could observe the actual performance of various jobs, discuss labor needs and occupational developments, and solicit job openings. One-fourth of the managers suggested that with more time there could be personal visits to the various social agencies to observe and to learn of the services they offer their clients. Such knowledge is likely to "stick better," one respondent stated, when activities can be observed rather than described.

The local office managers pointed out in various connections that some types of data can be more expertly or more cheaply prepared centrally than when the task must be performed in the field. It was suggested that headquarters could probably better prepare and disseminate information than the local offices on such matters as new plant locations, the labor needs of out-of-state employers, and inventories of training facilities and training courses.

Other respondents pointed to the economies of time and

effort to be gained if the information now gathered were utilized in a computerized data bank or encapsulated in published handouts for applicants to assist them in their own job-finding efforts.

There was also the thought that better training of counselors might result in a more complete and knowledgeable utilization of already existing data. One manager, in expressing this thought which might well apply to occupational counseling in both schools and employment agencies, said,

> "Counselors need strong and continuing in-service training programs on the labor market. But they are taught everything else and it takes about two years for them to learn that nothing else matters if they don't know about jobs. They need to do more employer visiting too; there should be a program of plant tours for them also."

Another comment made in connection with suggested improvements should be particularly noted. Although it was made in extending a suggestion that the Department should see to it that the local offices are given more and better information than they now receive on dealing with the emotionally disturbed, this remark has broader implications. First, it represents an acknowledgment, made repeatedly in connection with other subjects covered by our interview schedule, that there are areas in contemporary local office operations where greater expertise is required than Department personnel can muster. And second, it implies that even when expert, professional services are marshalled these are often found wanting.

> "There should be much more information available to us on how to deal with people with emotional disturbances. We know so little about it, really,

> that maybe we should pull back to just vocational counseling. We had a lot of discussion about this after one guy tried to shoot a counselor. The MA's who arrive fresh from college don't help; they need about two years even to find out what it's all about, and when we consult with 'real experts' they seem to learn more from us than the reverse. The middle class has accepted help for a long time so psychiatrists know about their problems, but AOC applicants resent 'head shrinking.' Maybe we local office people shouldn't try to do any more than just talk about jobs until the experts know how to help us, and then use real experts."

Public Employment Agencies - The Record-keeping System

The Department's work load or "regular" reporting system yields much of the data basic to any analysis of the current local labor market. Despite this fact, we realized that we were turning somewhat afield from the subject of the uses of labor market information in local office operations when we launched into a series of questions about existing reporting and record-keeping procedures. How far afield we had gone, however, was not evident until the responses to our questions were reviewed.

We had asked the local office managers if there were serious shortcomings in the existing reporting and record-keeping procedures of their organizations in producing information directly useful to them for placement and counseling purposes. We had assumed that this question, asked within the context of our many inquiries regarding labor market information, would be interpreted in terms of the potential of these operating data for illumining the labor market situation in which the local office was currently operating.

Another study of Bay Area Employment Service operations has noted that the present reporting system of the Department is overtaxing the local offices in the collection and preparation of reportable data without producing information that is helpful administratively for evaluating or optimizing agency activities.[3] The reactions of our respondents assuredly corroborated any judgment that local office staffs are overburdened so far as routine reporting is concerned. Further, various responses indicated the near total ignoring by local office placement epople and counselors of the results of their reporting effort for the insights these might provide on the very matters which concern them most -- "who hires whom?," "what is happening with respect to various occupations, industries, or areas?", "what makes for a good placement?", "when was our counseling successful?", "when does training pay off and how?"

As the study referred to above suggests, some questions that concern local office personnel and their supervisors cannot be answered because the present reporting system's input is not designed to produce information relating to the outcome of services. We would say in addition that much of the input is not processed, interpreted, or subsequently released in such form that much light can be derived from these data as to the current labor market situation in any given local office area.

The score on our question as to the existence of shortcomings in the reporting system insofar as it produces information directly

useful to the local office for placement was as follows: the information was not available for 7 out of 16 offices; 4 responses affirmed that there were shortcomings; 5 responses were negative. Returns, when our question was beamed to information directly useful for counseling, were almost identical. It is necessary, however, to examine volunteered comments and the "suggestions for improvement" that we also requested from the managers in order to measure the true significance of their responses, whether these were "Yes," "No," "I don't know," or a pregnant silence.

We assigned to the category "information not available" not only the absence of any response but also those replies indicating that it simply never had occurred to the respondent that data derived from operating statistics might produce information directly useful for placement or counseling. The following comment will illustrate this type of response:

> "I am not used to thinking of reports giving information taken from our internal operating reports as having any value for placement or counseling. I guess it might have some if looked at in that light."

Other managers bowed out from answering either affirmatively or negatively on the grounds that their total lack of time to examine the materials returned to them would make any statements of theirs as to the usefulness of these reports for whatever purpose entirely without significance. One manager who answered in this vein did, however, suggest that it would be some help to

the local offices if the Department set up a library in each office and supplied assistance for cataloguing the operating information received and making it more useable.

The category, "information not available," also includes those instances where our question merely triggered a reaction of extreme resentment at the amount of work load the routine reporting system imposes on the local offices. One manager stated,

> "By actual count there are 97 pieces of paper to fill out, mark, or do something with for one WIN individual. For the simplest type of case hitting a YOC office -- meaning there is no MDT or Job Corps -- we have to complete 14 pieces of paper."

Those managers who did answer affirmatively as to the presence of defects in the Department's reporting system sometimes presented rather mixed and not entirely consistent views. One, for example, criticized the system in terms of its deficiencies as a management tool and then suggested improvements involving the stepped-up production of quite different types of materials and changed procedures respecting the input. This respondent said,

> "The mass of data we now receive does not arrive in the office in a form where it is useful for local office management. The reports are bulky and cumbersome to handle; they have too many discontinuities over time. They are for different types of offices in that different time spans and work load items are used for ES offices and the AOC's and YOC's. Why can't Central Office devise a uniform, simple, attractive way to present work-load accomplishments?"

However, this same manager's suggestion for improving the reporting system to the benefit of placement and counseling was to maintain that there should be more Occupational Guides in general, that there should be more of them devoted to entry-level jobs, that all Guides should be revised more often, and that there should be less hand record keeping for counselors.

The respondents who replied that there were no serious shortcomings in the existing reporting system did not always give this response without qualification. One manager added,

> "It isn't the 'record keeping' that's at fault. We need more labor market information."

Another respondent somewhat vitiated his negative reply by saying immediately,

> "There well may be (deficiencies) but I haven't the time to look at half of what we receive now so I should be the last one with a right to complain."

But there were two managers who appeared well satisfied with present procedures, except that one registered the familiar complaint that the counselors must do too much clerical work. One of the respondents said,

> "I no longer have any complaints. The DE 6050 produces all the information any local office could want in order to analyze its placements."

The other of these respondents stated,

> "The DE 6050 or nonagricultural placement summary is excellent. Before this report, the information we received was in dreadful shape. But they must stay with what we now have -- they are constantly starting something and then dropping it."

It would appear from our assay into the sphere of "operating reports" that at this time at least, their content is not regarded in the local offices as constituting a part of the body of local labor market information available to them.

Private Employment Agencies - Labor Market Information Needed for Placement and Counseling

Managers of private employment agencies stated a need for current, detailed and localized job information for purposes of placement and counseling which equalled, if it did not surpass, that voiced by their counterparts in the public offices. They referred to this type of information, however, under different categories from those used by the local office managers and from a somewhat different perspective. Hence, the degree to which their needs appear to be identical may not be obvious at first glance.

As mentioned previously, three-quarters of the public agency respondents in one phrasing or another had stated that they required specific information concerning the labor needs by occupation of local employers -- what several of them called data of the "who hires whom" variety. They needed this type of information in their placement activities for determining where job development efforts would most likely pay off and, in counseling, for directing the job search of applicants to establishments having the greatest potential for hiring them. Such information,

when it existed in sufficient detail, could also give insights as to job duties and worker specifications that were needed both for screening and counseling. Besides, it might give important indications about the volume of current and future labor demand, by occupation, in the area. Local office managers tended to mention such data only as a general kind or type of information and to infer that it was not available to them or, at least, that it was not available in the amount and format required for optimum placement and counseling operations.

Private agency managers, in stating their need for the same kind of information, generally stressed its usefulness for job development and screening purposes exclusively, and they tended to categorize such data under one of three headings. Ten per cent of these respondents mentioned such information in general terms and in phrases reminiscent of the replies of local office managers (Table 8-3). An additional 53 per cent of the private agency managers mentioned a variety of sources to which they turned constantly in order to obtain such information, including directories put out by commercial sources, associations, and Chambers of Commerce; technical journals, trade publications; annual reports to stockholders; "yellow pages"; business journals and papers; and the like. These respondents made it abundantly clear that their reading of such materials and their recording and filing of items taken from them were directed to accumulating as much information as possible on the type and volume of employer activities. Then this information, in turn, was translated, often

Table 8 - 3

Types of Information Needed by Private Employment Agencies to Carry on an Optimum Placement and/or Counseling Operation, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Types of information needed	Per cent of agencies		
		Type of agency	
	All agencies	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
Directories of employers, technical journals, trade publications, "yellow pages"	53.3	35.3	76.9
Information maintained in own files on the activities and/or labor needs of employers, i.e., "client files"	30.0	17.6	46.2
Personnel manuals, counseling manuals, state and federal labor regulations	23.3	29.4	15.4
General economic information; business trends information	20.0	29.4	7.7
Salary surveys, market research studies	13.3	5.9	23.1
Specific information concerning the labor needs by occupation of local employers ("who hires whom")	10.0	-	23.1
Information about applicants or counselees	10.0	17.6	-
Information concerning economic development of community or area; new plants; layoffs	3.3	5.9	-
Information concerning future job prospects in certain industries or occupations	3.3	5.9	-
Information about the counseling process; interviewing techniques	3.3	5.9	-
Other	20.0	29.4	7.7

by means of telephone inquiries, into immediate or near-future labor demand by occupation.

An additional 30 per cent of the private agency managers stated that the type of information they needed to carry on the best possible placement and counseling job was the kind to be found in their "client files." These files, it appeared, had been stocked by the type of activity just described. In addition, "old job orders" were described as the "best tool of all" for obtaining the kind of information that should go into their client files which were maintained, so far as possible, on a current basis. The content of these files was described as "everything that an employer does"; "all that can be learned about his activities and about recent or impending changes in these activities." Such information would include all that is known about the types of employees he has hired over the years which would shed light on the employer's preferences and the skills his workers require; detailed information as to the equipment and procedures used by the establishment; detailed job descriptions, obtained preferably from operating departments; the firm's plans for expansion or contraction of its production or services; contract and financial data -- in short, any items respecting a given employer that could be gleaned, recorded, and retained from the agency's past dealings with him or from other sources.

The private agency managers were very much less prone to mention a need for information about longer-term job prospects than were the local office managers. A lack of such response could be expected from the different nature of their counseling and their lesser involvement with youth placement. However, at this point in our questioning as well as in other portions of the interviews, some private agency managers did refer to various types of "job guides," and to the publications of commercial producers of guidance materials. But when an interest was shown by the private agency respondents in longer-term matters, their interest was more likely oriented to general business trends or to industrial development than to job prospects by occupation. The private agency managers, too, voiced an interest in the data produced by salary surveys and market research studies that went unnoticed by the local office managers.

Almost 20 per cent of the local office managers had mentioned needing more information about their applicants or counselees, frequently test results, in order to do a good placement or counseling job. Equal proportions of these managers said that they needed more information about the helping services afforded by other agencies in their communities, or that they required more information about the training opportunities available to their applicants. In contrast, only 10 per cent of the private agency respondents specified that they required information about their applicants or counselees. However, they required information

about their applicants or counselees. However, these managers did mention the necessity to their operations of the manuals they used, manuals issued both by their associations and by their franchisors. These usually included information about counseling and interviewing techniques as well as about the laws and regulations governing their activities. Again illustrating the different thrust of counseling in the private agencies as compared with that in the local offices, managers from the former did not refer to a need for information concerning the type and location of either social services or training opportunities available in their communities.

When we asked the private agency managers if they considered their information resources adequate, half of them, in sharp contrast to the local office managers, answered that the information normally in their possession would support both optimum placement and counseling operations. Two-thirds of them, in fact, thought the information they had was adequate for counseling.

Private Employment Agencies - Suggestions for Improving the Supply of Needed Information

In the course of our previous questioning, various criticisms of the data available to the private agency managers were voiced. Several of these managers complained that the employer directories they depended on were not sufficiently current, detailed, or well enough edited, or that the best of them were too expensive. They then blunted these criticisms, however, by saying that very little

could be done to make these publications as current and detailed as they would have to be to meet their requirements, or to produce them at less expense. Other agency respondents saw their chief problem as the failure of company personnel managers to give out their job descriptions in sufficient or accurate enough detail that a really good screening job could be done when an order was received. But again, our private agency respondents conceded that the shortcomings of company personnel managers or the latters' failures to check out their job orders with concerned department heads and foremen were not matters an employment counselor, usually, could resolve. Yet other private agency managers deplored the small amount of employer visiting feasible for their staffs, but found this irremediable also because, as one manager said,

> "We really need more employer visiting to keep our client files in top condition. But when all our people are on a straight commission basis, it's hard to get them to take the necessary time off."

Thus, when we asked the private agency respondents as to their suggestions for improving the information needed for placement and counseling activities, their suggestions were considerably fewer in number than their criticisms had been. The largest proportion of managers averred that a larger fund of specific information concerning the labor needs by occupation of local employers should be developed and circulated than was now available 8-4). There were no suggestions, however, as to how this might be done. Other managers noted that there should

Table 8 - 4

Suggestions for Improvement of Information Needed for Placement and Counseling in Private Employment Agencies, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Suggestions for improvement	Per cent of agencies		
		Type of agency	
	All agencies[a]	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
Available information for placement and counseling is adequate	50.0	58.8	38.4
Develop and circulate more specific information concerning the labor needs by occupation of local employers	13.3	11.8	15.4
More time for employer visiting in order to observe jobs, discuss labor needs, solicit jobs; more time to call employers	3.3	-	7.7
Better information on out-of-state or out-of-area employers	3.3	5.9	-
Improve the directories of employers now available	3.3	5.9	-
Other	26.7	23.5	30.8

be more time for employer visits or better information on the labor needs of employers in other areas, suggestions that were also made by local office managers. And there was mention of the fact that the directories of employers used so widely in the private agencies should be improved.

Private Employment Agencies - The Record-keeping System

We did not ask the managers of private agencies concerning the shortcomings of existing reporting and record-keeping procedures used by their "organizations' in producing information directly useful for placement and counseling, because we believed such questions were not applicable to their operations. A few of these respondents, however, noted this series of questions in our interview schedule and volunteered their comments.

Comments obtained under these circumstances fell into three groups. The largest number were, in fact, plaudits for the administrative reporting systems established by a respective agency's franchisor -- that the system was comprehensive, yielded useful data, and was not too demanding of the reporting agency's time.

One agency manager construed his "organization" to be the Bureau of Employment Agencies of the Department of Professional and Vocational Standards. Although this respondent, like others, applauded the transfer of surveillance over the private agencies to the Bureau, he deplored, as did others, one result of this

action by saying,

> "The present administration is so hell-bent on saving costs that the Sacramento office, with only five people on its staff, no longer collects the information the agencies need."

It should be added that this respondent meant by "information the agencies need," private agency work load series showing, for metropolitan areas, placements and fee payments by occupation. He regarded such information valuable, both as a yardstick of his own operations and as an important indicator of labor market conditions.

And, finally, there was some concern that necessary reporting procedures have not been established to assure the private agencies of information giving them a better picture of an "efficient operation." One respondent suggested that comparative costs for such expenditures as advertising would be particularly valuable. He said that the National Employment Association is now laying plans to assure that members, at least, will shortly receive data of this type.

Public High Schools

Because we were primarily interested in learning what types of information reach school counselors for use in occupational planning and what materials among those received are most useful, our questioning in the schools took a somewhat different form from that directed to employment agency personnel. Rather than asking these counselors open-ended questions about the content of

information needed to do an optimum job of counseling, we asked them to note by type the items of information available to them and to specify their comparative value. Despite this different approach, there emerged as clear a picture of the kinds of information school counselors wish to have as if we had asked them to volunteer their information needs.

We found this picture somewhat surprising, especially in the public high schools. These school counselors appeared to value current, local, and detailed job information of the "who hires whom" and particularly "how many of them" variety as greatly as did their counterparts in the public and private employment agencies. And what they looked for in the longer-range counseling and guidance materials they received was not always what we had expected. Much of the career planning done at the secondary-school level must assume a long interval of training time before the student is job-ready, yet the public high school counselors laid great stress on their need for immediate job information. And when they commented on the virtues of various types of longer-term occupational information they were far less interested in what these had to tell them about the "numbers game" -- projections by occupation as to how many workers would be needed within relatively large geographic areas -- than they were in the detail given about the job duties, worker qualifications, and accompanying life style implicit in a given occupational choice.

Public High Schools - Use of Published Information

We initiated our questioning about the information needs of school counselors by asking which, in order of their value, were considered the three most useful of the published materials they received. The U. S. Department of Labor's Occupational Outlook Handbook[4] was the first choice of almost one-half of the public high school counselors (Table 8-5). When all three of their choices were combined, this publication was mentioned by about three-quarters of the counselors.

Next in popularity for their usefulness were the occupational guidance materials published by such commercial sources as Science Research Associates, Chronicle Guidance Publications, and Doubleday which issues the Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance.[5] Materials from such companies were the first choice of a fifth of the counselors, and somewhat more than a half chose them as among the three most useful publications to which they had access.

Publications of the San Mateo County Department of Education under its Career Information Service[6] came in third as the first choice of the public high school counselors. These materials, in addition to being used by counselors in that county, are regarded so highly that they are also used by schools in two other counties. The California Department of Human Resources Development's Occupational Guides were fourth as a first choice of the public high school counselors, although more than 40 per cent included these documents among their top three selections.

Table 8 - 5

Publications Chosen by Public High School Counselors as Most Useful and as One of Three Most Useful for Vocational Counseling and Guidance

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Publication	Per cent of schools	
	Most useful publication	One of three most useful publications
Occupational Outlook Handbook (U. S. Department of Labor)	47.4	73.7
Occupational guidance publications from commercial sources	21.1	52.6
Career Information Service publications (San Mateo County Board of Education)	10.5	15.8
Occupational Guides (California Department of Human Resources Development	5.3	42.1
Directory of Occupational Centered Curriculums (California Department of Education)	5.3	36.8
Pamphlets from private companies, trade associations, unions	-	10.5
Other	10.5	26.3

The California Department of Education's Directory of Occupational Centered Curriculums[7] also appeared prominently when all choices of the respondents were combined as did pamphlets from private companies, trade associations, and unions. These latter were often assembled in loose-leaf files, and they served to describe the nature of certain jobs, where these opportunities were to be found, and the benefits of entering one or another type of employment. Certain other publications not included in any of the above categories were also mentioned by the counselors. Among these were the pamphlet series describing occupations in great detail that are issued as a public service by two insurance companies. One counselor mentioned using U. S. Civil Service announcements as a source of job descriptions and pay scales. Another selected as first choice the Palo Alto Unified School District's publication, Helping Students Learn Decision-Making: A Parent Handbook.[8] The latter reflects the effort made by one school system to guide parents' aspirations for their children so that students can arrive at rational choices based on their own needs, rather than on the often unrealistic dreams of their parents.

The ideal way to determine which of the published counseling and guidance materials available for the direct use of students were most frequently consulted by them would have been to ask the students themselves. This not being a feasible procedure so far as the present study was concerned, we chose a next-best alternative. We asked the counselors for their judgment in the matter.

The counselors, by and large, ascribed to the students about the same opinions concerning the usefulness of these publications as the counselors themselves had attributed to these documents (Table 8-6). When speaking for their students' frequency of use of these materials, they somewhat diminished the commanding position of the Occupational Outlook Handbook, although it did remain in first place. Also, the relative positions of San Mateo County's Career Information Service publications, the Occupational Guides, and pamphlets from private companies moved up the ladder, while somewhat less popularity, in student eyes, was ascribed to occupational guidance publications from commercial sources than that indicated for them by the counselors.

The public high school counselors returned again, although not in the manner that we would have expected, to a discussion of the above publications when they were asked if they had available to them for their day-to-day vocational counseling and guidance activities, useful information on future job prospects. We also asked them to enlarge on their answers if they were negative.

Public High Schools - Information on Future Job Prospects

To our considerable surprise, counselors from 10 of the 19 sampled public high schools maintained that they received no useful information on future job prospects. Six of the 10 counselors taking this negative position had earlier selected the Occupational Outlook Handbook or the Occupational Guides as among the most useful

Table 8 - 6

Publications Judged by Public High School Counselors as Most Frequently Consulted or as One of Three Most Frequently Consulted by Their Students

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Publication	Per cent of schools	
	Most frequently consulted	One of three most frequently consulted
Occupational Outlook Handbook (U. S. Department of Labor)	33.3	50.0
Career Information Service publications (San Mateo County Board of Education)	16.7	16.7
Occupational Guides (California Department of Human Resources Development)	11.1	44.4
Occupational guidance publications from commercial sources	11.1	44.4
Directory of Occupational Centered Curriculums (California Department of Education)	11.1	11.1
Pamphlets from private companies, trade associations, unions	5.6	33.3
Other	11.1	27.8

materials they received. And these are both publications upon which much money and time are expended in an effort to develop and circulate projections as to future labor demand-supply relationships by occupation. The remaining four of the 10 counselors maintaining they received no useful job prospects information had earlier specified as the most useful publications they received, publications that were, indeed, not especially related to the projection of job opportunities by occupation.

Moreover, of the 9 school counselors who stated that they did have job prospects information available, only six mentioned either the Handbook or the Guides as its source. The other three attributed the availability of such information to the fact that they had combined in various ways information taken from such publications as pamphlets from private commercial organizations, the San Mateo County School Department, surveys of specific areas made by the California Department of Employment, and the Directory of Occupational Centered Curriculums of the California Department of Education. The fact that only six or 32 per cent of our respondents acknowledged receiving useful job prospects information and mentioned the Handbook or the Guides as its source spurred our attempt to determine the reasons for this apparent inconsistency.

The reasons given fell into three categories. First, and most strongly expressed was the criticism that information gleaned from these two sources has not been sufficiently localized

insofar as it concerns the future volume of demand. As one respondent said in speaking of the Handbook,

> "It's too general for our use in determining future jobs. Even though it does list trends, these trends may be in other parts of the country and not especially related to this area."

A second criticism was that these publications were often aimed at occupations that were not significant in the area where the school was located -- for example, occupations associated with oceanography -- or that when the occupation was locally significant the publication's content as to the hiring requirements of employers was not directly applicable to their communities.

A third objection was that the counselors mistrusted the long-range projections these publications contained, particularly as related to their own areas. They were acquainted, sometimes, with the well-publicized failures of certain occupational forecasts to materialize, or they had come to question not only the feasibility but even the advisability of constructing long-range occupational projections. This view rested upon the type of statement often heard -- that change is so rapid these days we cannot even know what jobs will be in existence five years hence.

As an aside, it should be noted that some counselors who were aware of these statements expressed the fear that the impact of such thinking might well be to lessen the counselors' feeling of responsibility for having a knowledge of jobs and of conveying that knowledge. One of them stated that counselors, nonetheless,

> "do have to worry because the job a student gets today will lead into jobs 5 years from now. And if he gets a job now, he will be retrained later -- or he can train himself later -- after he gains his initial skills. The important thing is that he get the initial skills."

This quotation is illustrative of a point of view which may well underlie the importance that so many of the high school counselors attributed to the possession of sound and extensive information about current job opportunities, the very information which facilitates the student's entry on his first job where he can obtain those "initial skills." However, before discussing the subject of current job opportunities information we undertook to learn from the counselors why they did value such publications as the Handbook and the Guides, having discounted the worth of such information as they contained about future job prospects.

We learned that these particular counselors, and probably others of them as well, looked to the Handbook and the Guides as as "a dictionary of jobs and what they are like" or as a "reference manual for the requirements of jobs." As such, these publications could be used to describe a large number of jobs and to detail the requirements necessary for entering them. Their value in this respect was held to be particularly great respecting jobs in the professions.

Other questions were then directed to the counselors about job prospects information in order to learn more concerning their preferences as to its content. We asked how they would rank, in order of their importance in counseling, data reflecting various

subject matter areas. First choice of the largest proportion of counselors was information concerning changes in the aptitudes, education, and training requirements for specific jobs or occupations (Table 8-7). When all three of their preferences were combined, data concerning specific jobs dropped to second place and the most approved type of information was that concerning changes in the knowledges or skills generally required of workers. In fact, counselors from all of the public high schools in our sample except one chose at least one of these two types of information as an area of needed data. The single counselor who failed to do so represented a school so submerged in the problems of the here-and-now that the only need expressed was for compendious information about wage rates by occupation at local establishments.

Although there was not an equal ground-swell of sentiment for information about long-term trends of growth or decline in specific occupations or families of occupations, more than half of the counselors did include such data among their three top preferences.

Few first choices went to information concerning the probably economic growth or decline of specific geographic areas, although such subject matter accounted for more than one-third of all counselor choices when these were combined. And there was little expression of a need for information about long-term trends of growth or decline by specific industries.

It is worth noting that our wording of the subject matter areas pertaining to the "knowledges," "skills," or "aptitudes"

Table 8 - 7

Content of Job Prospects Information
Ranked by Public High School Counselors as Most Important
and as One of Three Most Important to Counseling Activities

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Content of information	Per cent of schools	
	Most important	One of three most important
Information concerning changes in the aptitudes, education, and training requirements for specific jobs	31.6	73.7
Information concerning changes in the knowledges or skills generally required of workers	26.3	78.9
Information concerning long-term trends of growth or decline in specific occupations or families of occupations	26.3	57.9
Information concerning the probable economic growth or decline of specific geographic areas	5.3	36.8
Information concerning the long-term trends of growth or decline in specific industries	-	15.8
Other	10.5	10.5

associated with occupations included no reference to the "life styles" that go along with or are required in their pursuit, but the counselors often voiced a concern that this matter should be stressed. They stated in one way or another that information about jobs should include descriptions of the type of life, personal, social, and economic, associated with an occupation. Such information is needed, they maintained, both by the upwardly-mobile student and by the solidly-entrenched middle-class student in order to obtain some insight into the implications of a particular vocational choice. For example, it could make a real difference to the student of minority race interested in the trades to know his choosing to be an iron worker would probably destine him to living his life in a large city, while if he chose to become an operating engineer his best chances for work would probably result from following the trailer way-of-life in remote places.

The student from the slum with the motivation and ability to justify his aspirations for a professional career but lacking any opportunity to observe the type of life specific professions entail, could also be benefitted by guidance materials including considerably peripheral information about the contrasting life styles of a forester and an industrial chemist, as examples. And the student from a professional background but with little academic bent might make a far happier vocational choice than is often the case, if he knew more about the manner of living that goes along

with following various of the blue-collar and service occupations. Strictly as a matter of preference, to say nothing of the fact that his earnings should be greater, such a student might strive to become a successful machinist or executive chef rather than settle half-heartedly for the life of a programmer or a teacher, if more vivid pictures of all of these and many more occupations could be conveyed to him.

Another matter related to future job prospects information about which we questioned school counselors was the time period these data should cover. The counselors were overwhelmingly in favor of materials pertaining to the period extending from three to five years in the future. They were concerned with the advanced planning needed to program their 9th- and 10th-graders so the latter could qualify for the requirements they would need to meet in order to obtain jobs, or to enter upon advanced training following their graduation three and four years in the future. Counselors expressing a need for guidance materials related to longer time periods were, of course, concerned with the job prospects of students who would go on to two- and four-year colleges and those who might make vocational choices requiring post-college graduation training.

Public High Schools - Information on Current Job Opportunities

No matter what our respondents had to say about the content and uses of comprehensive and long-term guidance publications, they

by no means slighted their expressions of need for information concerning the current job market. Their comments on this matter were sparked by our asking each respondent, "Do you have available for use in your day-to-day vocational counseling and guidance activities, information on current job opportunities?"

One-third of the public high school counselors replied in the negative to this question. The two-thirds that responded affirmatively mentioned six different sources of such information. None used more than three, and most relied on only one source. A third of the counselors stated that they studied civil service announcements to obtain some notion of current labor demand by occupation, the worker qualifications required for these jobs, and the wages paid. Each of the following sources for such information about job opportunities was relied on by three counselors: other school personnel, the district central office staff, information from the local public employment service office, and announcements of apprenticeship openings. Two counselors mentioned contacts with local companies as their source of current job information.

Their comments gave us little reason to believe that the counselors were satisfied with the prevailing situation. They supplied various reasons explaining their need for up-to-date information about the community's job openings. They defined the needed information as data that would show the volume of local demand for workers in specific occupations; explanatory

details such as training requirements, skill requirements and age requirements; and wage rates. With such information, the counselors believed they could better perform many of their tasks. For one, the courses the student should be advised to take and the design of the courses themselves could be more readily arrived at if more were known about the requirements attached to various jobs. And if this type of information came to the counselor by way of current job opportunities rather than by what we have termed "job prospects information," it would be sufficiently localized and current to give the counselor a "feel" for the situation in his own community.

The counselors believed, as well, that the information they conveyed to the students would be improved if it were received on a continuing basis. The student could then be helped to focus his education on general areas applying both to the job he hoped to obtain later and to related jobs with similar requirements that were opening up while his education and training were being completed. Also, the ability of the counselor to describe the requirements of actual job openings in positive and graphic terms would allow him to indicate to many students the hazards of ignoring particular subject matter areas or of dropping out of school altogether.

Some of the counselors, too, appeared to see in a continous flow, over time, of comprehensive job vacancy information for their communities a surrogate for the localized job prospects

information they felt they lacked. Changes in the volume of local job openings for given occupations, they reasoned, could sometimes be regarded as leading indicators of a change in the secular trend of labor demand for those jobs over a wider area. Further, the volume of local demand for workers in one occupation as compared with another would give counselors a better yardstick than they now possess for measuring the relative importance of one occupation in a community as against another. As one counselor said,

> "Some method should be devised to get information to counselors on a continuing basis showing the volume of job openings by occupation, and locally. There should be explanatory comment about needed qualifications as well as just numbers. This notion of volume of demand by occupation is so important because then we could relate this to the instruction being offered -- is the amount of instruction on bookkeeping out of all proportion to the volume of jobs in this field? Presently, teachers and counselors have no feeling for such relationships. Also, there is no good way for a counselor to update his job knowledge. Where a new job is emerging or an old one is declining he doesn't learn of this development until it is far too late to have prevented his giving out misinformation. Many of the written materials we receive are not revised often enough or are not local enough to give us this knowledge."

We found it less surprising that the counselors should so greatly emphasize the matter of <u>localized</u> information when they spoke of their needs for information about current job opportunities than we had when they were discussing the longer-term prospects of specific occupations. Because the question was not asked, we cannot produce a "score card" as to the geographic area they would wish to see covered in longer-term guidance materials. It

is certain, however, that they would wish to to be considerably narrower than national in scope and probably more limited than statewide.

We did, however, ask the counselors to give their preferences as to the area for which they wanted current job opportunities data. Three-fourths of the counselors selected as their first choice an area smaller than the entire Bay Area -- their own city or county, or even a part of a city or county. But when their three choices were combined, 90 per cent of them had also mentioned the Bay Area as a whole and two-thirds of them, the State. The high incidence of first choices for small geographic areas appeared to reflect the counselors' general belief that most of their students would work in the immediate area of the school district. One counselor in an industrial community said,

> "Most of our kids will wear out three or four cars in a lifetime and will not travel more than 50 miles away."

And surprisingly, many counselors in the more urban areas had similar views despite the fact that sizeable numbers of their students would go on to college. It was only those counselors representing schools in primarily bedroom areas who selected the Bay Area as a whole for their first choice as to the coverage of job opportunities information. The second and third choices of the counselors for the Bay Area or the State or the nation as the case might be did, however, reflect a realization of the potential mobility of their students. Also, they appreciated the

fact that, inevitably, there would be certain occupations fitting the goals of particular students which might not exist in their areas, or which could be portrayed adequately only by means of job data consolidated for a larger geographic entity than the local community. Thus, it would be necessary to receive information covering the larger geographic areas if needed data on such occupations were to be available.

We asked the counselors for their suggestions as to how the supply of current, local job opportunities information available to them might be increased.

Although many counselors volunteered that they did not know who would be the "best supplier" of this information (or who would supply the "best" information) the majority assumed that furnishing local labor market information was a function of the public employment service. A minority of them, however, believed that whatever this agency could do would need to be supplemented by efforts from other quarters, or that the function belonged elsewhere. Some counselors believed that the public service could not supply comprehensive enough job opportunities information because of its limited placement activity in the higher-level occupations. Others believed that even if the information collected were sufficiently comprehensive, it would not be presented in a way best serving the needs of educators. Hence this smaller group of counselors suggested that either school personnel be made responsible for collecting job opportunities data or that the job be given over

to local industry and the unions. Some representative comments on this matter follow:

> "The Employment Service could do it but only if they had a different staff set-up. That is, more staff to interview companies, and more staff to get information to us."
>
> "The district needs a coordinator who can get out and find job information from companies, associations, and employment people and transmit such local information to the school district. There should also be a counselor in each school who can collect job information from the district coordinator and who can make contacts with individual companies about coming to the schools."
>
> "I would like to see the local business community and unions put together current job information. Anything from the federal or state agencies would be out-of-date....They get bogged down."

In view of the substantial weight of opinion that school personnel should themselves, supply the counselors' need for labor market information, the counselors' replies to another of our questions take on added significance. We asked them if their school district, within the past five years, had conducted either a survey of the immediate job opportunities available in the community or a study of its long-range job outlook. Only 3 of the 19 counselors replied that either type of study had ever been conducted by their school districts. In two instances the work had been done by district staff. In one, students in the school's business department had made a survey. It would appear that although the counselors state they have an urgent need for job information, few school districts attempt to collect it. Rather, it is expected that this task will be performed by other public agencies

or it is proposed that business and labor assume the job.

One indication of how much assistance the schools may expect to receive from the public employment service or, at least of how much they are now receiving, is afforded by the answers of our respondents to another question that we asked of them. We inquired as to the type of assistance received by school counselors from the California Department of Employment.

The answers to this query were as varied as there were schools. One-fifth of the counselors replied that they received no assistance whatever from the Department. Four-fifths stated that they received help of some kind. But this help was by no means consistent or uniform among schools or school districts. While some of the counselors, in alluding to the assistance they received, were referring to the provision of labor market information, others were recalling the fact they could send their students to the local office for a GATB, or to the YOC for summertime employment. Or they mentioned that a Department employee visited the school to give typing and shorthand tests, or came once a year to take job applications and give job information. There was also the school that had an agreement with a local office whereby some school counselors were employed there each summer. This arrangement was regarded with very real enthusiasm, for the counselor describing it remarked,

> "We found it very valuable to learn the details of labor market problems. It gave us a new perspective on how to help our students."

But this recounting of the Department's several and not inconsiderable services to school counselors included no instances to indicate that our respondents were regularly receiving the type of information they claimed to need so urgently. Responses from the 63 per cent of the counselors who did say they received labor market information from the local office ranged widely as to the amount of information received. Some counselors were merely acknowledging that they obtained answers to their occasional telephone inquiries; others mentioned that they received pamphlets and reports; and yet others noted occasions when Department people had met with head counselors at district meetings or with counselors at the school.

Some indication, too, is given as to the amount of help the schools can expect to receive from business and other community groups or of what they are now receiving, from answers to another of our questions. We asked the counselors from what individuals, organizations, or groups in their communities they received information in other than published form, and we asked concerning the relative usefulness of the information obtained from these various sources. The counselors' replies showed not only that few agencies or groups serve as direct sources of occupational information for the schools, but also that one-sixth of the counselors maintained they received no unpublished information whatever that was useful.

Again, although the assistance the counselors received

from their contacts with individuals and community organizations was substantial, it did not amount to satisfying the need they had expressed for regularly-provided current local information about job opportunities. In some instances, however, these contacts should have provided highly useful information concerning local job prospects for specific occupations. The counselors included under the information they received in "other than published form," the assistance they obtained from the direct, personal involvement of some individual or group with the school. Such assistance could amount to furnishing speakers for classes or groups of students, providing company tours, helping with career days or other special events, or assisting in efforts to increase the motivation of minority-group students or to place them in jobs.

When responses of all the counselors are combined, it would appear that the following individuals and organizations have provided these counselors with the kinds of help that they value most. And the frequency with which the various sources of assistance were mentioned is indicated by the order in which they are listed: professional associations; service clubs; individual companies; community-action program groups; colleges and universities (mainly junior colleges); California Department of Employment; labor unions; individual professional workers; the armed services; and business and trade associations.

Public High Schools - Specialized Information for Special Student Groups

We attempted to explore another facet of the requirements of

school counselors by asking if they believed the information needs for satisfactory vocational counseling and guidance programs differed significantly as between different types of students and, if so, what information was needed for specific types of students.

As might be expected, the problem of conveying needed information to students from low socioeconomic backgrounds or from minority races and of communicating it by the most effective means was foremost among the concerns of our respondents. They believed the chief need of such students was for more "job knowledge." This they defined as more background information on specific jobs and on jobs in general, particularly in terms of the tasks performed on these jobs and the skills required to perform them. Further, several of the counselors maintained that this information should be presented nonverbally. As one respondent said,

> "These kids need information in nonverbal form about the nature and specifics of different jobs. They need more field trips to see jobs in action so they can visualize whether they might like that job. Telling them about jobs does not help when they cannot visualize that kind of world."

A particular concern was voiced as to the need for information that could motivate students from racial minorities or impoverished families because it was related to their understanding and to their needs. One respondent said,

> "They need more part-time work experience to learn work skills. In general, they need more concrete experiences and paid opportunities to explore jobs."

The need for success patterns was a recurring theme, and it was mentioned in connection with two stages of the students' development. It was suggested that these students need to learn the behavior patterns and attitudes that middle-class students learn at home and which enable the latter to compete successfully for jobs at the initial-interview stage. And for the success of their subsequent work careers it was held that minority-group and low-income students need to be shown that they can "make it" just as middle-class students do. One counselor presented this thought in terms of the need for personal counseling by saying,

> "They need more personal contact with the counselor to develop them to the level of the middle-class student...particularly to show them they can make it in the same way as the middle-class student."

Another said, "They need more first-hand exposure to successful job-holders of their own race."

One head counselor referred, as well, to the problems that middle-class, white counselors experience in attempting to understand and appreciate the problems of these students. He said,

> "There is a need to have minority-group counselors who have a real understanding of the backgrounds of minority students. Also, too many audiovisual materials are middle-class-oriented. The 'jargon' of black students could be used in some presentations, although not in the sense of talking down to them."

Other groups were mentioned, of course, which the counselors thought presented special problems to those preparing and using informational materials in connection with their counseling and guidance. The counselors were referring to potential dropouts,

low-ability students, general students, vocational students, and even academic students.

The potential dropout and the low-ability student ranked highest, after the student from a minority race or low-income background, in terms of the number of counselors who believed they needed information tailored to their particular needs. Almost 70 per cent of our respondents spoke of the special needs of both potential dropouts and low-ability students. There was some division of opinion, however, as to the type of information that was needed for the dropout. More than half of the counselors who mentioned this need for special information inferred that they wanted data which would be useful to the student after he had left school. He had made his decision to leave, these counselors reasoned, long before he came to them and it was their responsibility to help him in his job search as best they could. One counselor with this view, in describing the kind of information needed for advising the dropout said,

> "We need information immediately applicable and relating to specific jobs he can take when he drops out."

Other counselors of the same persuasion mentioned needing information about apprenticeship opportunities, information including wage data about jobs that do not require additional education, and hints as to the best way to approach employers if the job search is to be successful.

The remaining counselors held that the information the potential

dropout needed was a better understanding of himself, particularly as to how the present level of his training and ability might be related to the requirements of the job market. These counselors, in other words, believed that if sufficient information could be conveyed to the potential dropout about the relationship between the worker qualifications required for a job and the satisfactions to be derived from the job in terms of wages and working conditions, more students would appreciate the advantages of remaining in school.

Most of the counselors maintained that the low-ability student has need of a particular type of job information. He needs descriptions of those jobs he can handle with his ability and he needs to have this information presented in simple, nonverbal form. One respondent stated the case as follows,

> "He has got to be able to visualize jobs at his ability level in terms of job interests, scope of the work, and its future. He cannot be told these things because they have no meaning for him."

Another and possibly a more important point was raised by other counselors. They said that a major problem in dealing with low-ability students is to persuade them even to consider the jobs they can handle, because these jobs are generally believed demeaning in comparison to other jobs. As one counselor phrased the matter,

> "Our whole approach is wrong here. The 'low ability' jobs are presented right along with the higher-level jobs, and so they don't look at all attractive. Quite separate pamphlets should be prepared on some jobs that are extremely important but do not require much academic preparation. Then, the emphasis should be placed on the importance of these jobs to society

> and the traits that are needed for their successful performance -- such as dependability or a spirit of helpfulness. Presented this way, Nurse Aide would seem an important job -- which it is -- rather than a bottom-level job as it appears when combined with all medical jobs."

The information need for the counseling of general-course students cited by some respondents appears to reflect more the counselors' present lack of knowledge of the best methods for dealing with these students than the latter's requirement for information especially tailored to their needs. The plea for the general-course student was made at the most basic level possible, and it was expressed as a need for methods and techniques which would enable the counselor to detect the abilities and interest of these students who indicate so few of either during their school careers.

Some of the counselors stated that the vocational-course student, in contrast, had a need for very specific information of a type that is not always readily available. He, they said, needs detailed information on the requirements of various jobs in which he may be interested, such as their production standards and output levels per hour.

We had not expected that some counselors would single out the academic-course student as needing a special kind of information, namely, highly detailed information concerning professional occupations which is sufficiently descriptive that the student can identify with a given occupation on the basis of his own characteristics and interests. One counselor argued that "the college prep student can do anything."

As everything looks "interesting," at least to him, the problem is to discover what he likes most, early enough that it will be easy for him to prepare for what he really wants to do. One counselor maintained,

> "We don't know what college or what professional occupation to counsel this kid towards because job information is too generalized. We have the problem of sorting through many occupations in terms of individual need."

In sum, the counselors were, indeed, concerned with their bright students who go off to college and change their majors several times, perhaps, only to enter upon employment in which they are competent but dissatisfied. One counselor ended his discussion of this subject with the words,

> "How many social workers would be happier as computer designers, and vice versa?"

Public High Schools - Acquisition and Utilization of Labor Market Information Materials

When we asked how the schools acquired their occupational counseling and guidance materials, we found that between a fourth and a fifth of the counseling departments used one or another of the four following methods. Each counselor, himself, acquired his own materials; the district office provided them; the school library was responsible for acquisitions; or, all of these had some part in obtaining such materials. In addition, there was one school where the vice principal was so interested in the occupational guidance program that he made all acquisitions.

We found no consistent pattern among the sample schools as to the location and maintenance of their occupational materials. Generally speaking, occupational materials were located in the individual counseling offices or in the library. About one-fifth of the schools had set up a special occupational guidance library and, in addition, had placed materials in the counseling offices and the regular library. But about a third of the schools deposited guidance materials only in the general library or the main counseling office. In these instances, individual counselors did not have published occupational information readily at hand for specific counseling needs. Instead, the student was referred to the materials in the library or the outer office. Some schools did display this material on open, easily accessible racks, but one stored its publications in a closed filing cabinet behind the secretary's desk. In most cases the counseling department (usually the head counselor) and the librarian maintained the occupational files and, usually, they had clerical assistance for the task. But, because the materials were often scattered through the school, a variety of other school and district personnel were found to be maintaining these files. These included the business department, the school principal, and a representative from the school district central office. The problem of collecting and maintaining occupational materials, as one respondent pointed out, is complicated by the fact that the school district budget for these materials usually fluctuates from year to year, thus hindering their orderly planning, purchasing

and maintenance.

School practices differed, too, as to how occupational materials were made available to the students. In one-third of the schools, the counselor recommended various materials in his office or in the library to the students. In another one-third of the schools open files, bulletin boards, and other displays were used to supplement the counselors' recommendations as a method of bringing these materials to the students' attention and of making them accessible to the latter. We found only two schools with a special occupational unit in the curriculum in connection with which these materials were widely used. Other schools used a variety of informal methods to make occupational materials available to their students, including referral to the work-experience coordinator and leaving the library open during the lunch hour for this purpose. And, finally, there were the counselors at one school whose student body was comprised primarily of students from poverty families, who were so involved in the personal and social problems of these students that they did nothing with their occupational materials but pile them in boxes in an empty room.

When we asked about the use of audiovisual aids in occupational guidance, we found that two-thirds of the public high schools had none available, or no such aids that the counselors regarded as satisfactory. At only 16 per cent of the schools were any "advanced" audiovisual aids in use such as a combination of films, microfilms,

and videotapes presenting a variety of career descriptions. These schools were all using the San Mateo County Career Information Service, even though one of them was located in a non-adjacent county. Counselors at the remaining schools said they were using occupational films and filmstrips that, while not the best, were adequate.

In an attempt to provide a sort of summation of the informational resources available to school counselors, we asked them to describe the information they assembled in order to assist their students in arriving at such decisions as the selection of a college preparatory or vocational curriculum, or whether or not to continue their formal education. Four-fifths of our respondents said that they used all of the information in the student's confidential file, which included test scores, letters and other records of the student's educational history, and his grades. We do not know how much significance should be attached to the fact that only one-fifth of the counselors specified that in addition to assembling this, indeed, copious body of information relating to the student, they also brought into play data derived from follow-up studies of their graduates, or information concerning the job market. We do know that the counselors who mentioned these latter types of information related to the "world of work" were members of counseling departments which, in other respects, gave above-average attention to acquiring and using labor market information. The failure to mention that information pertaining to jobs was assembled or brought to the

attention of the student when he was involved in career decision-making, may, possibly, constitute some indication of the priority given these data. However, there can be no question that the information available to the school counselor which pertains to his counselee is highly valued and is extensive when compared to that possessed by the public or private employment agency counselor described in a previous section of this chapter.

Catholic High Schools

In many important respects, the responses of counselors in the Catholic high schools resembled those of their counterparts in the public secondary schools. There were points of difference, however. These, in the main, appeared to stem from the greater academic orientation of the Catholic schools and from the fact that their student bodies are drawn largely from families at middle- and upper-income levels.

At first thought, it might have been expected that information concerning jobs would not play a particularly important role in Catholic school counseling. Most graduates of these schools go on to college. The counselors have direct responsibility for all aspects of their counseling so that they alone have had to see that their schools were provided with the necessary materials for job guidance.

Possibly, certain aspects of their circumstances are reflected in the contents of their occupational libraries. Most of the guidance materials used by these schools are obtained from government

sources which may or may not make nominal charges for them, and from free distributions. Their collections of materials were often less extensive than those found in some of the public high schools. However, it appeared that the publications they did possess were used more assiduously than the collections obtained by the public high schools.

Catholic High Schools - Use of Published Information

Fewer published materials were named by the Catholic high school counselors, when we asked them which they regarded as the three most useful they received, than were noted by the counselors in the public high schools. Also, the Catholic school counselors arrived at a somewhat different order of priority in their evaluation of those materials they used in common with the public school counselors. Half of the Catholic school counselors gave their top preference to the Occupational Guides published by the California Department of Human Resources Development, and all of them named the Guides as among the three most useful publications they had. In contrast, these documents had occupied fourth place in the preferences of our respondents from the sample public schools. When all choices were combined, the Catholic school counselors like those in the public schools, gave second place to guidance materials obtained from commercial sources. However, the Department of Labor's Occupational Outlook Handbook which was far and away the most valued publication for occupational

guidance in the public schools, tied for third place in the Catholic schools with pamphlets and brochures from private comapanies.

When we asked the Catholic school counselors their opinions as to which publications were most frequently consulted by their students the Guides, the Handbook, and materials from Catholic publishing houses were about evenly represented.

Counselors in the Catholic high schools appeared to be satisfied that these various publications provided adequate information concerning the longer-term prospects for specific occupations. But they were unanimous in their opinion that they did not receive sufficient information as to developments in the current labor market. They, too, believed that more information should be available concerning current job openings, skill requirements, age requirements, and wages. In addition, some suggested that the public agencies should supply training for school counselors on the nature of such information as is available and on the scope and limitations of these data.

Catholic High Schools - Information on Future Job Prospects

Although the Catholic school counselors were generally satisfied with the longer-term job information available to them, they did have several concerns as to its content. Unlike the public school counselors who looked chiefly for content related to changes in the worker requirements for specific jobs, they were more interested in long-term trends of growth and decline in occupations or families

of occupations -- a difference probably related to the Catholic school counselor's preoccupation with the college-bound student. But the Catholic school counselors, like those in the public schools, were deeply interested in information about changes in the knowledges and skills generally required of workers. One of the respondents was quite specific on this matter, saying,

> "We need to know what types of general education are needed, and we need to know how much of each subject area is needed for career advancement."

This counselor elaborated further by maintaining that there should be a real effort to determine the changes that may or may not be occurring in the amount of mathematics that should be taught, the reading level that should be attained, the amount of instruction in chemistry or biology that should be given for the student to be successful later in his career rather than merely to be qualified with the necessary knowledge and skills to obtain an entry-level job.

Because the Catholic schools are primarily concerned with college-bound students, all of these counselors were interested in job prospects information which included projections extending up to ten years. Nonetheless, they did not fail to repeat that they also needed current job opportunities information for the limited number of students who would seek employment immediately after graduation.

Catholic High Schools - Information of Current Job Opportunities

In speaking of the geographic area for which current job

information should be available, all of the counselors included in their choices an area smaller than the Bay Area -- the city or county in which the school was located. However, three-quarters of them also specified the Bay Area in its entirety. And an equal proportion wished to see these data made available for an even larger area such as California or the western United States. As the counselors at these schools expected their students to go on to college and, possibly, to move over the entire western region, they believed that it should be possible to inform them of conditions and prospects in many areas.

Counselors from the Catholic high schools had few suggestions as to how the supply of information about current job opportunities coming to them might be increased. They made a point of the fact that they receive only one service from the public employment service and that service is the labor market information they receive. However, this information is all in published form and it is not as detailed or as comprehensive as might be desired. None of these schools had made any formal surveys of job opportunities in their areas because the area served by each school, or by each diocese or archdiocese, is too large to be surveyed with their resources. But those schools with placement personnel did engage in continuous and informal efforts to keep in touch with the situation as to immediate job opportunities.

We found that the Catholic as well as the public schools received some help in their guidance activities from various

organizations and groups in the community. Speakers for conferences and meetings were provided as well as tours and individual help for students. However, as with the public schools, the help provided by "outside" individuals and groups appeared to be rather slight. Among the individuals and groups named by the counselors as affording the schools some help were, in the following order: professional associations, service clubs, individual companies, individual professional workers, a Catholic university, labor unions, representatives of government, and a Catholic research agency.

Catholic High Schools - Specialized Information for Special Student Groups

Possibly because the student bodies of the Catholic schools are more homogeneous as to their economic backgrounds and ability levels than are those of the public schools, counselors from the former were less likely to stress that particular groups of students present particular occupational guidance needs. The respondent with the largest number of relatively low-income and racial-minority students in his charge said,

> "We have minority students and low-income students, but they do not come from deprived backgrounds. They are at least one generation away from poverty, so they have books and other educational materials in the home which puts them on a par with our other students."

Nonetheless, concern did exist among these counselors as to the special assists that might be available for students from minority-

group and low-income families. They were particularly interested in the special programs now being opened to minority-group students, particularly by the unions and the military. They were seeking information as to job opportunities in the professions where these students could compete successfully. And they, too, saw the need for increasing the personal awareness and the social competencies of these students so that they could compete with middle-class students on an equal basis in their search for jobs and in their subsequent careers.

The only other group of students that the Catholic high school counselors considered as needing special types of information for their effective guidance were what they termed "low-ability" students. However, their "low-ability" students were primarily those who would not be able to complete a four-year college curriculum. Again like their counterparts in the public schools, these counselors mentioned a need for more information about occupations that do not require advanced skills and extensive training. However, the counselor representing the one Catholic school which did have a substantial enrollment of low-ability students approaching the type which would be characterized as such in the public schools, stated,

> "Of course low-ability students need special labor market information about occupations that do not require college training. But, basically, they need to take the same academic courses as the college-bound student. They differ in that they need these courses stretched out more so they can handle the subject matter. We find that they do not need to be treated like people who

> cannot comprehend 'academic' materials, and they are successful if given time to develop this knowledge."

Catholic High Schools - Acquisition and Utilization of Labor Market Information Materials

In all but one of the sample Catholic high schools, the counselors, themselves, acquired the materials used in occupational guidance. In the single exception these materials were obtained by the school library and retained there. The other schools maintained files of such publications in the counseling offices, the general school library, and in a special occupational reading room. One of these schools had an open display area for publications of this sort. Another had set up an "occupational-reading cart" that was dispatched to various classrooms to serve as a mobile library. However, none of the Catholic high schools included a vocational unit in its curriculum.

We found that counselors in all of the Catholic schools assembled the same type of information as did the public schools counselors in order to help the student decide on his educational program and his career. This type of information included test scores, confidential files, grades, letters, and other records related to the student's educational history. In addition, the majority of the counselors said they included information about the job market. Half the counselors mentioned the highly practical turn taken by some of this "job counseling." As most graduates

obtain their first job through friends or family, the counselors asked detailed questions about the occupations and jobs of the former's various relatives. This process started the students thinking about jobs in a direct and realistic way and, if they intended to seek work immediately, might uncover some informal hiring channels.

In concluding this section, it should be stressed that despite the differences we have noted between certain of the practices and some of the opinions of the Catholic school and public school counselors, the two groups were of much the same mind in expressing their needs for more labor market information. Their judgments, too, as to the types of information needed were remarkably similar considering the greater proportion of Catholic school students going on to college.

Junior Colleges

Judged by any measure, the junior colleges would appear to have a pressing need for strong labor market information programs. At any one time a high proportion of their students are no more than one semester away from the labor market. The junior college curriculum is more oriented to the work world than is that of the secondary schools. More of the counselor's time is devoted to job guidance than is that of his opposite number in the high schools. Yet, we discovered that the types of publications used; the acquisition, maintenance, location, and availability of this

information; and the extent to which audiovisual materials were used, did not differ materially from the practices to be found in the high schools.

Junior Colleges - Use of Published Information

Counselors' selections of the published materials they believed most helpful in their guidance activities strongly resembled the preferences of their counterparts in the public high schools (Table 8-8). The U.S. Department of Labor's Occupational Outlook Handbook remained in first place, both as a first choice and when the counselors' three choices were combined. Occupational Guides from the State Department of Human Resources Development moved up from the fourth place they occupied on the public high school counselors' list to a strong second place among the junior college counselors. Third was the highly respected Career Information Service of the San Mateo County Board of Education which had also been the third preference in the high schools. Fourth rather than second in line were occupational guidance publications from commercial sources. Junior college counselors regarded pamphlets from private companies, trade associations, and unions useful sources of data as did their high school colleagues. In addition they named certain other sources not mentioned at the high schools -- career pamphlets from four-year colleges, the Counselors' Guide to College Majors[9] of the State Department of Education, and want ads appearing in the local press.

Table 8 - 8

Publications Chosen by Junior College Counselors as Most Useful and as One of Three Most Useful for Vocational Counseling and Guidance

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Publication	Per cent of schools	
	Most useful publication	One of three most useful publications
Occupational Outlook Handbook (U. S. Department of Labor)	50.0	87.5
Occupational Guides (California Department of Human Resources Development)	25.0	62.5
Career Information Service publications (San Mateo County Board of Education)	12.5	12.5
Occupational guidance publications from commercial sources	-	12.5
Pamphlets from private companies, trade associations, unions	-	25.0
Other	12.5	50.0

The counselors ascribed a considerably different order of priority to these various publications when they commented about which their students consulted most frequently (Table 8-9). The Occupational Guides moved up into first place as a first choice, displacing the Handbook and, according to the counselors, pamphlets from private companies, trade associations, and unions assumed second place in absorbing the students' attention. Then followed the Handbook and, finally, some mention of publications from commercial sources and the career information booklets issued by college departments.

Contrary to the public high school counselors, those from the junior colleges did not quarrel with the usefulness of these publications in their guidance activities. Those counselors who tended to disparage such publications as mentioned above as sources of useful job prospects information were relying on sources of their own that they regarded as more helpful. One respondent cited information derived from conferences and journals as the source utilized by his counseling department. Another expressed his confidence in information provided by the school's placement department and by the department deans who had contacts with business and industry leaders. Further, junior college technical programs are linked to present and projected labor needs by way of information coming to the school from its advisory committee. Thus, it is possible for junior college counselors to be less dependent on outside sources than are the high schools.

Table 8 - 9

Publications Judged by Junior College Counselors as Most Frequently Consulted or as One of Three Most Frequently Consulted by their Students

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Publication	Per cent of schools	
	Most frequently consulted	One of three most frequently consulted
Occupational Guides (California Department of Human Resources Development)	50.0	62.5
Pamphlets from private companies, trade associations, unions	37.5	62.5
Occupational Outlook Handbook (U. S. Department of Labor)	12.5	62.5
Occupational guidance publications from commercial sources	-	-
Other	-	12.5

Junior Colleges - Information on Future Job Prospects

When asked concerning the time period for which they wished occupational projections to be prepared, all of the junior college counselors voted for from one to five years as their first preference. After this choice they specified projections falling in a six- to ten-year range as most useful. These, however, were considered as "interesting," whereas the shorter forecasts were believed to be critically needed.

The junior college counselors like those in the public high schools, stressed as most important in terms of their first choices, job prospects information which attempts to project changing worker requirements for specific jobs and occupations (Table 8-10). When all three preferences were combined, however, the prime need indicated was for the type of guidance materials which projects quantitative changes in the demand for workers in various occupations. The counselors were considerably more likely to emphasize the importance of such trend information in their counseling than were their counterparts from the public high schools. Also, as indicated above, they were less likely to argue about the usefulness of such publications as the Guides and the Handbook as vehicles for these projections.

The junior college counselors also were less inclined than the high school counselors to be greatly concerned with changes in the knowledges and skills generally required of workers. Inasmuch as they were speaking for schools where the curriculum was relatively

Table 8 - 10

Content of Job Prospects Information
Ranked by Junior College Counselors as Most Important
and as One of Three Most Important to Counseling Activities

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Content of information	Per cent of schools	
	Most important	One of three most important
Information concerning changes in the aptitudes, education, and training requirements for specific jobs	37.5	62.5
Information concerning long-term trends of growth or decline in specific occupations or families of occupations	25.0	75.0
Information concerning changes in the knowledges or skills generally required of workers	12.5	62.5
Information concerning the long-term trends of growth or decline in specific industries	12.5	50.0
Information concerning the probable economic growth or decline of specific geographic areas	-	25.0
Other	12.5	12.5

more specialized in line with the students' vocational goals than is true at the secondary level, this difference might well be expected. Also, their close association with industry representatives from their communities in the design of various junior college curricula quite probably gave them the greater interest they showed in industrial trends than was manifested by the high school counselors.

One head of a counseling department also referred to the same problem which troubled a Catholic high school counselor. He pointed to the usefulness of that information, could it but be obtained, which would permit educators and counselors to know the "types of general education and the levels of knowledge required for a student, later, to be successful in his career" -- not merely successful in competing for his first job and at the beginning stages of his work history.

Junior Colleges - Information on Current Job Opportunities

Our respondents from the junior colleges valued information about current job opportunities as greatly as did those in the high schools. They did not, however, tend to view themselves as lacking this information to the same extent as did the latter. Three-fourths cited the fact that considerable current job information came to them from other personnel in the school, particularly the school placement office. One school relied heavily for such information on a Department of Employment

representative located on campus. Another respondent spoke of plans to hire away from this Department a local office interviewer who would then head their placement office. Two-thirds of the junior college counselors reported scanning civil service lists to obtain additional information about current job opportunities, while one department head stated his staff combed the want ads to keep up on the current job market.

The junior college counselors, too, had their suggestions for increasing the supply of current job information available to them, for only three had considered this supply to be truly adequate (and one of these represented the school where an outstationed Department representative had charge of the placement office). Half of the remaining counselors held that the local office of the public employment service should periodically supply them with information concerning the volume and nature of labor needs in the community. Another popular suggestion, and one also made by a Catholic high school counselor, was that there should be much better training of counselors as to the labor market information which is available. More efficient means, they maintained, should be better advised as to the sources of these data.

When asked about the geographic area for which they would wish to see current job opportunities information issued, one-half of the counselors did select "this city" as one of their three choices. However, all of them included the entire Bay Area among their three choices and half of these respondents made it their

first choice. This greater emphasis on the larger area and also on the State as a whole than was found in the secondary schools, would indicate that the junior colleges can use more profitably various published and rather general items of labor market information than is the case in the high schools.

Nonetheless, we did find far more of a tendency in the junior colleges than in the secondary schools to survey their own communities. Half of the counselors stated that within the past five years personnel from their schools had made surveys both of jobs immediately available and of longer-term labor needs in the communities where these junior colleges were located.

These surveys were made despite the fact that the counselors appeared to be better satisfied with the services they received from the public employment agencies than were the high school counselors. When we asked the junior college counselors concerning the services they received from the public employment service in connection with their activities, two-thirds answered that they obtained labor market publications. The remaining counselors spoke either of "other" help received from the Department or said that assistance was given by this agency to the school placement office.

Junior college counseling departments as well as those in the high schools, lean on certain sources in the "outside" community to supply them with job information in other than published form. A considerably larger measure of such help

appeared to be forthcoming to the colleges than to the high schools. It can be assumed that the closer liaison between school and industry evident in the colleges arose both through the association of these two in the design of courses and curricula and because local employers regard the junior colleges as sources of trained, entrant workers. In any event, almost two-thirds of the junior college counselors named individual companies as important providers of occupational information for their counseling activities while only about a fourth of the high school counselors did likewise. In addition, more than a third of the junior college counselors mentioned their advisory committees as such a source and these committees, also, represent a tie-in with local business and industry. One-fourth of the counselors selected each of the following as helpful to them in the provision of information about occupations and the job market: professional organizations, business organizations, and the public employment service. One counselor spoke of the assistance received from representatives of local government, while another mentioned the help given by college coaches and athletic instructors who act as scouts for major-league athletic teams and can provide realistic information to young men interested in athletic careers.

Junior Colleges - Specialized Information for Special Student Groups

Almost all of the junior college counselors, as had been true of those in the public high schools, displayed a very real

concern about the particular need for effective career guidance of students drawn from low socioeconomic or racial-minority backgrounds. Several views were expressed as to the types of information that would best supply the requirement of such students for occupational counseling having a particular orientation or content. Some believed that much more background information about specific jobs, or even jobs in general, should be available than now is the case. The counselors admitted that comprehensive job descriptions with detailed information about job duties, employer requirements, worker qualifications and training, and many other items which give a "feel" for life in the occupation are available for the major professions such as physician, attorney, or accountant. But the same cannot be said of the less familiar occupations and it was in this area that some counselors held that additional work should be done.

Other junior college counselors believed that much need exists for information which will motivate and encourage these students to prepare for work in certain fields they may not believe are open to them -- or which will properly assess the difficulties these students may encounter if they do make certain career decisions. One type of information mentioned as particularly valuable to Negro and Mexican-Americans would include accounts of the experiences of members of their groups who have "made it." Another type was described by one respondent who said,

> "There should be special information as to which professional or technical careers are not racist,

> so they know where there are definite chances for career opportunities. But there should also be information so the student will be aware of what the hazards are of being a 'frontier person' in various careers. That is, what a minority person should know about the problems he may face by going into one that is a 'frontier occupation' for his group, to be as sure as possible he can cope with these problems if he decides to enter such an occupation."

Many counselors mentioned that particular care was needed in designing the format and manner of presenting career information to students coming from comparatively deprived backgrounds. One counseling dean commented,

> "The manner of presentation needs to be in such a way that he cannot only see a possibility of a professional career but the intermediate steps to the goal he wants through intermediate levels of training and employment in occupations related to his goal of a professional job."

In distinct opposition to the above views, however, was the counselor who said that he and his department believed, initially, that their students from racial minorities needed particular types of job information and specialized approaches in occupational guidance. However, the most prominent minority-group association on campus, in conversations with the counseling staff, maintained that these students have the same information needs as white middle-class students, and they wish to be treated in the same manner. This counselor said,

> "The guidance department has, therefore, treated all students the same, and there has been no problem."

Some concern was voiced for other groups of students, but no more than two-thirds of the junior college counselors believed there were

particular information needs to be met for any other group that the school was not already accommodating.

The concern that was mentioned for the potential dropout and the low-ability student was different than that brought forward in the public high schools, however. The junior college counselors also believed that it was necessary to know more about the kinds of jobs students could obtain without a college education. But, in addition, they thought that there was much need for specific information about helping the potential dropout solve his immediate, short-run problems, particularly his financial or personal difficulties, in order to enable him to remain in school. And as one counselor said of low-ability students,

> "Information is needed on the 'dignity of all work' so he does not feel dehumanized for not becoming a doctor."

Also suggested by one counselor was information to help the middle-class student and his parents when that student is not qualified to meet his own and their expectations. He said,

> "Information is needed to show what is really necessary to become, for example, a doctor, in terms of specific knowledge and how it is acquired. Then this information must be transmitted to both the student and his parents in a form understandable to them both."

As might be expected, several junior college counselors mentioned the special information needs of those adults included in their student bodies. One such group of adults is comprised of those seeking retraining for another job or occupation. The counselors favored more information about the job opportunities

for which these adults are usually being trained and their long-run prospects. More importantly, they said, information was required on how to help the adult appraise his experience and interests in order to relate them to training needs and job requirements.

The other type of adult student mentioned as requiring special types of assistance was the adult seeking reentry to the labor market after a prolonged absence. Such workers are typically women or ex-servicemen and often they have but few skills. According to the counselors, these workers need information on which jobs offer the best opportunities for reentrants, and the employer specifications for these jobs so that they may be more realistic in approaching their problems of training and job hunting. The counselors believed that these reentrants, too, require better information on how to appraise their interests, experience, and limitations in order to relate these to training needs and job requirements. Special emphasis, also, was placed on the need to have more information concerning the resolution of emotional, personal, and social difficulties which limit employment potential. This problem can be a particularly difficult one in the effective counseling of reentrant women workers who have been out of the labor force for years and who fear that they can no longer compete in the job market.

Junior Colleges - Acquisition and Utilization of Labor Market Information Materials

Junior colleges no less than the high schools, tended to lack an individual or unit having centralized responsibility for searching out and acquiring guidance materials. In two-thirds of the colleges each counselor acquired his own materials. While at half of these schools someone from the central office or the school librarian did acquire certain materials, these were usually destined for the school's general library or for the career guidance library. The existence of this amount of central acquisition, however, did not signify that a centralized, comprehensive source for the collection and distribution of guidance materials had been established.

We found little consistency as to the location and maintenance of guidance materials in the schools where our interviews were conducted. Materials were placed in both the library and each counseling office in 90 per cent of the schools; instead, or additionally, in a vocational guidance room in 38 per cent of the schools, and additionally in the school placement office at one school. While it may be advantageous to retain these materials in several places, the maintenance of scattered publications often appeared to be as haphazard as their acquisition. The counselors maintained them in two-thirds of the schools, and they had the help of librarians and students in some instances. However, the librarian alone had charge of these materials at two schools,

with or without the assistance of clerical help.

Counselors from all of the junior colleges sampled indicated that guidance materials were usually brought to the students' attention by means of the counselors' referring them to appropriate publications. Three schools, in addition, had open files and displays for student browsing, and one school referred students to the files in the placement office. We found the use of audiovisual aids in the junior colleges at a no more advanced state than in the high schools. The only school employing such assists comprehensively was, again, one using the County of San Mateo VIEW service. The general feeling of these counselors appeared to be that, presently, little is available in the way of really useful audiovisual materials for use in occupational counseling.

Our questioning about the various types of information assembled in order to assist students in their career planning elicited answers indicating that more information concerning the labor market was brought into play in occupational guidance at the junior college level than in the public high schools. As in these secondary schools, there was resort to the student's confidential file -- to letters, high school and college grades, test scores, and whatever other information about the student was available and could be helpful. However, in contrast to the usual practice of the counselors in our sample of public high schools, most of the junior college respondents mentioned their efforts to relate these data on the student's aptitudes, accomplishments,

and potential with appropriate information describing the job market.

Potential Contribution of Bay Area Employers to an Expanded Labor Market Information Program

The Institute's earlier study of employer policies in the Bay Area labor market[10] produced certain findings bearing on the amount of cooperation that might be expected from the area's employers if more centralized and better-coordinated efforts to gather labor market data were initiated than have been attempted to date. It appears appropriate to review these findings in light of the virtually unanimous expressions of opinion made in connection with the present study by employment agency placement people and by counselors in both employment agencies and schools. Quite generally, these respondents held that they needed more and better labor market information than they now receive for the optimum performance of their duties.

By no means can collection of all the different types of data stated as needed by these respondents come about from merely the voluntary cooperation and concerted action of various sectors of the community. Examples are several of kinds of information, stated as needed, that are not likely to be available on a local and continuing basis unless and until major expansions occur in certain national reporting systems. These examples include continuing series of total job vacancy data by area, and more frequent reports

than are provided by the decennial census on changes in the occupational composition of the area's employment.

However, a goodly proportion of the information claimed as needed by our respondents could be produced through rational planning and the effective joint action of various groups and agencies in the community. These types of information include the entire complex of qualitative or descriptive material about jobs -- job duties; employer specifications for entry and how these specifications may be changing; worker aptitudes, skills and proficiencies needed for success on the job; wage data and the like. These types of information also include data relating to changes in the occupational composition of local employment. Such data are comprised in turn, of the knowledge that can be pooled concerning the industrial development of the area and its subsections, changes in the products or services of its establishments, changes in their procedures and technologies, and on many other indicators and evidences of change in the area's economy and society.

Employers are very nearly the sole primary source of the type of job informationcharacterized above as "qualitative" or "descriptive." They are a principal source of information concerning developments which may change the volume and occupational distribution of employment. Hence, it is appropriate to review the Institute's earlier findings describing the extent to which local employers might be willing to increase the input of these data into a system

designed for their collection, processing, and dissemination; the probably quality of this input; and the circumstances under which requested information would be released.

We could only conclude from the Institue's survey of a representative sample of the Bay Area's larger establishments that employers, generally, believed that channels permitting them to communicate with "school people" were inadequate and also that they had little influence on school curricula.[11] Hence, employers tended to welcome structured situations enabling them to voice to "school people" and to representatives of government their changing job requirements and to describe the industrial and labor market developments giving rise to these changes. At the same time they expected to profit from a two- or a three-way flow of information giving them insights into such matters as "official" economic assumptions for specific areas and industries, changes in patterns of school enrollment, and projected numbers of graduates in given fields.

This background of opinion indicated that holding conferences attended by employers in given industries as well as by representatives from schools and appropriate government agencies might be appealing to employers. Such proved to be true when we asked various questions concerning the possibility of holding these conferences. However, before initiating these inquiries we attempted to learn the extent to which the area's larger employers engaged in manpower planning and in making manpower projections.

We found that almost three-fourths of our respondents reguarly prepared projections of output and that more than half prepared projections of employment for their own use. Not unexpectedly we learned, in our questions about the reliability of their manpower forecasts, that a substantial proportion of the short-term forecasts were reasonably accurate but that those for a longer term were often of dubious reliability. The majority of all our respondents believed, however, that they could prepare reasonably accurate two-year employment forecasts. And it will be recalled that much of the employment information wanted by the placement officers and counselors included in the present study, fell into a forecast period of no greater length.

The results of our questioning about projecting labor needs by occupation were less conclusive, although about one-third of the surveyed employers had made such projections for their own or others' uses. But irrespective of the reliability that may attach to such quantitative predictions, the average employer can muster an enormous body of experience, conjecture, factual data, and just plain hunches concerning the outlook in his industry for the occupations represented in his establishment. It should be noted that these various impressions and facts, whatever their shortcomings, if discussed generally and if consolidated, would supply a far better picture of expected occupational developments in the area than anything available at the present time.

Participation in Industry-wide Conferences

We found, surprisingly, little wariness among employers at the thought of participating in industry-wide conferences where they would discuss their future expectations as to production, employment, technological developments, and other factors that might influence the future course of employment and, particularly, occupational developments within their industries.[12] About three-quarters of the employers responding to our question regarding their willingness to participate in these conferences replied affirmatively. A fair number of those who did not, withheld a positive answer on the grounds that any decision on such a matter would have to be made at a higher level of their organizations.

In view of the insistence of our respondents in the present study that they require information respecting local developments, it is of interest that the employers included in the Institute's previous survey stressed that the industry conferences under consideration should be local conferences. About half of those willing to participate said that such conferences should be confined to the Bay Area. Most of the others stated that they should be held either at both Bay Area and State levels or at the State level alone. For the most part, a reply that these industry conferences should include representatives from an area of larger geographic extent than the Bay Area was premised on the consideration that Bay Area coverage alone would not bring together a representative group of employers.

There was, of course, an expectation on the part of most employers that they would receive some return for the efforts expended on their participation in such conferences. This return was very largely seen as the creation of a formal and recurring channel of communication between their respective industries and the schools. Even in those instances where our respondents were already participating in more or less regularly-held trade or professional association meetings at which such matters were discussed as were proposed for the agenda of these hypothetical conferences, these employers welcomed the prospect of meetings designed specifically to discuss labor needs with "school people."

Release of Two-year Employment Projections

In the Institute's previous survey of Bay Area employer policies, we also asked those three-quarters of our respondents who believed their establishments able to prepare reasonably accurate two-year employment projections if they would be willing to release these projections.[13] Our question stipulated that their forecasts would be combined with others for purposes of Bay Area or State employment forecasting under conditions where a strict confidentiality of individual data would be maintained.

Only about 10 per cent of all the employers who thought they could prepare reasonably accurate two-year projections of their total employment indicated a definite unwillingness to release them. And a majority of those who did not give a clearly affirmative

reply said that such a decision would have to be made at a higher level. Further, in answer to a direct question on the matter, three-quarters of the employers expressing a willingness to provide these two-year employment projections, presumably on an annual basis, said they would release such data to either a public or a private agency. Of the remaining fourth, the proportion specifying a public agency was more than double that favoring a private agency.

We might add that with respect to neither our question concerning a willingness to confer about industry-wide developments nor with that about releasing employment projections were there consistent variations, by size of establishment, in the pattern of responses. Nor were variations by industry of establishment sufficiently wide to indicate that any substantial segment of local industry would exclude itself from coverage by either of these programs, were they to be initiated (see Appendix Tables H-1 and H-2).

Major Findings

There can be no mistaking certain of the findings resulting from our inquiries about practices associated with the use and communication of labor market information in employment agencies and schools. First, was the near-universal judgment of our respondents that they possessed insufficient information for the effective performance of their duties. Second, was the wide variety

and often the depth of detail, of the data they claimed to require. Third, was the existence of many defects and lacks in the programs and practices they described. Such deficiencies, it must be noted, frequently reflected the impact on specific information and guidance programs of that same inadequacy of resources which, as earlier described, is affecting the operations of these organizations as a whole.

Turning first to the public employment agencies, we found local office managers maintaining that they lacked sufficient labor market information to do either an optimum placement or counseling job. They saw their greatest information deficit to be the shortage of specific, detailed data about the labor needs by occupation of local employers. These data -- in terms of number of jobs, location of jobs, hiring specifications, worker qualifications, wages paid -- were needed for job development, applicant screening, advising applicants in their own job search, and giving counseling that is precise and factual.

These managers also cited a pressing need for information about longer-term developments in occupations and in the economy, again in terms of their own communities. In part, they wanted these more ambitious, published studies and surveys because these include more descriptive and interpretative material concerning occupations than can be derived from lists of current job opportunities. Such descriptions were needed, they maintained, both to assist applicants in arriving at correct vocational decisions and to increase the

knowledge and skills of placement officers and counselors. In part, this longer-term information was also needed for the insight it can provide as to occupational trends, a critical ingredient of any planning concerned with training decisions. Further, these managers stated they needed more expert help in dealing with the other side of the placement and counseling coin -- the applicant.

The published material relating to local occupational and community developments issued by the Department were generally judged to be good, but insufficient in quantity. Suggestions for satisfying the much-maligned shortage of current job data and of information about community helping agencies and training facilities included greater centralization in collecting and publishing some types of material, a greater use of automatic data processing, and most especially, more time for employer visiting and the study of such information as was received. Reactions to the Department's regular reporting and record-keeping system were usually either apathetic or hostile. Its bulky and hard-to-use output was generally characterized as devoid of usefulness and the labor connected with local office input to the system was considered excessive.

Managers of private employment agencies unanimously confirmed the thinking of their counterparts in the public offices to the effect that an optimum placement and counseling job cannot be done without abundant current, local data concerning job opportunities. They saw the uses of such information in much the same light, as well.

It was necessary to know precisely "who hires whom and under what circumstances" in order to develop jobs economically, screen applicants satisfactorily, and to counsel the latter realistically as to the match between their expectations and the facts of the job market. Unlike their opposite numbers in the local offices, these managers usually believed that they were fairly well provided with such information. By dint of much resort to directories of employers, company publications, trade journals, market research studies, continuous telephone campaigns, and a detailed recording of all employer contacts, most of them possessed and maintained extensive client files which served as sources of the information they required.

A very much smaller interest was expressed by private agency respondents in published longer-term occupational information than was evinced by the local office managers. Their lack of interest in this material, however, was far from total as several of these managers recognized that the knowledge about job duties and worker qualifications for specific occupations usually found in such literature is an essential tool for placement and counseling. However, their relatively slight involvement in assisting applicants to make major career decisions was reflected in a concern for occupational trend information that was small compared with that of either public agency employees or school personnel.

There were private agency managers, too, who deplored the present lack of any published information concerning the annual

accomplishments of their industry -- mainly placement and fee payment statistics by occupation. They considered continued access to such information as giving valuable insight into the efficiency of their own performances. They also recognized the usefulness of these data for providing additional information on labor market trends. This view is one that well might be noted and adopted by others outside their industry, considering the growing volume of private agency placements and the fields in which they are made.

Counselors in the public high schools quite generally emphasized their need for information about current, local job opportunities to a degree we found surprising. Various explanations for the emphasis they placed on these data were suggested by their comments concerning the published materials they receive and use in connection with their work. Some counselors maintained they needed current, local job opportunities data simply to assist students who would shortly be seeking work. Others believed these data the best source of information available about local job requirements and local wage rates, and they thought most of their students would ultimately find employment in their own communities. A few expressed a more sophisticated thought. Namely, they referred to the fact that published information about longer-term occupational developments and about the comparative importance of various occupations generally relates to larger geographic entities than a local community or even a large metropolitan area. Hence, if local job vacancy data are received over a period of time

they will give needed trend information for the locality. Also, if these data are comprehensive they will substitute for the lack of current information about the occupational distribution of an area's employment by supplying at least some notion of the comparative importance of different occupations as based on their relative volumes of demand.

Other counselors appeared to stress their need for current rather than longer-term job information simply because they distrusted the latter. Some were sufficiently influenced by the "scare" literature of automation, for example, to question the feasibility of projecting occupational labor needs over the several years which would elapse before their students sought work. Hence they emphasized gearing training to the "first job" the student might seek. After job entry he and the employer could attend to the need for further education and training. Yet other counselors saw in information about current job opportunities valuable assists in guiding a student's choice of courses throughout his educational career, or in giving a more realistic quality to counseling -- particularly when the latter was directed to discouraging a potential dropout from leaving school.

We found that the high school counselors, and their students also, did value the published materials they received. However, such standard works as the Department of Labor's Handbook were more used as sources of descriptive material about jobs than for the trend information they contain. This need for descriptive material

about specific jobs, or "jobs in general," or the "world of work" for that matter, was much emphasized. It was pointed to as helpful in enabling the student or his counselor to recognize which job might best satisfy a particular student. Such descriptive material, too, was believed particularly helpful to students from deprived backgrounds who had lacked the opportunity to become acquainted with the larger world of jobs through vicarious experience and observation.

The needs of other student groups for job information tailored to their particular requirements was mentioned. Counselor comments as to these needs again pointed up the variety of output which should emerge from any system designed to supply the need for labor market information. Their comments also served to show the woeful lack of progress thus far made in the use of audiovisual aids and other "modern" assists to counseling.

Other lacks that could be noted in their responses were the slight amounts of assistance by way of information about the labor market that they received from the "outside" community of employers, universities, service and other organizations and government agencies including the public employment service; the sorry state of their practices in acquiring, maintaining, and disseminating their guidance materials; and their lack of training in the use of labor market information -- to say nothing of the little time afforded them to peruse it.

In sum, an impression emerged from the responses of the high school counselors that the store of information available to them for assisting students in planning their educational programs and

arriving at their career decisions was very long on data relating to the students' aptitudes and accomplishments, and markedly short on appropriate information derived from or descriptive of the world of work. This deficiency might, in part at least, serve to explain the near-despair of both public and private employment agency managers -- described elsewhere in this study -- at the lack of work readiness and the unrealistic expectations now generally characterizing their entrant worker applicants.

Catholic high school counselors, like those in the public schools, maintained that the quality of their counseling was unfavorably affected by a lack of knowledge concerning current job opportunities. In addition, they believed that counselors should receive more training from public agencies on the uses and limitations of these data. They attempted to supplement their store of current information through various contacts with the "outside" community but again, as with the public schools, the help received appeared to be slight.

These counselors registered greater satisfaction with the published guidance materials they received than did the public school counselors. They also placed a greater weight on occupational trends information, probably because of the larger proportion of their students who would go on to college. Further, they emphasized the need for knowing what knowledges and skills are generally required of workers -- another way of asking what the content of a general education should be -- a question greatly troubling

counselors in all the types of schools this study covers. And, in the main, the Catholic school counselors were less inclined than were those in public schools to specify that particular types of students presented needs for special types of guidance, probably because of the greater homogeneity of their student bodies as to backgrounds and ability levels.

We found that junior college counselors, more than their counterparts in the public and Catholic high schools, have facilities for developing current job information on their own. The schools' own placement services are one source of this information. Others are their vocational advisory committees, the efforts and contacts of other school personnel, particularly those in the vocational programs; special and sometimes informal relationships with the public employment service; and, in general, much closer ties with their communities' leaders in business, industry, and the professions. Additionally, half of the sample establishments had, in recent years, made surveys both of jobs immediately available and of longer-term labor needs in their communities.

These counselors, as a rule, valued the labor market publications they received as an adjunct to their advising on career decision-making and gave high place to publications from the State Department of Human Resources Development. At the same time, they were particularly insistent that particular groups of students require specialized guidance materials, thus

adding to the variety of output that would have to be produced if all of the needs for guidance materials our respondents described were to be met. In general, the record of the junior colleges in bringing information concerning the "world of work" into the context of their counseling was better than that of the public high schools. Nonetheless, their performance in acquiring and maintaining informational materials and in using "advanced" techniques to present this information appeared little superior to that found in the secondary schools. Also, findings presented previously in this study about limitations on the amount of career guidance actually given in the junior colleges should be recalled -- limitations connected with excessive student-counselor ratios and the extent to which student initiative governs whether or not any such counseling, in fact, takes place.

Along with the consensus shown by our respondents from employment offices and schools that they must have more information drawn from the "outside" to perform their duties effectively, is a widely-held impression of Bay area employers, documented by an earlier study of the Institute, that they lack channels of communication to get "inside" the schools. Moreover, these employers expressed a willingness to release certain needed data by means of conferences and reports if mechanisms permitting this to be done were set up at the area level through public or private, although preferably public, intermediacy. Further, these same employers stated that they, too, needed labor market information in various of their activities (see Appendix Table H-3).

Footnotes to Section VIII

1. See Occupational Guide Index, Department of Human (Sacramento). Approximately 450 Guides have been issued by the Department and these are subject to continuous revision.

2. See East Bay Manpower Survey, Alameda County 1966-1971, California Department of Employment in cooperation with City of Oakland 701 Project, San Francisco, July 1967, and Occupational Profile, City of San Francisco, State of California Human Relations Agency, Department of Employment, San Francisco, June 1969.

3. Donald G. Woodworth and Others, Final Report, Pilot Study of Services to Applicants: Phase II, Stanford Research Institute, SRI Project 6187, Menlo Park, California, June 1969. See particularly pp. 3 and 73. While the authors of the above report indicate the Employment Security Automated Reporting System (ESARS) may overcome some of the objections to the present reporting system as they see them, they do express certain reservations on even this score. No less are we without reservations in believing that this new computerized system (yet to be installed) will necessarily remedy the defects pointed up by our interviews, namely that (1) the data will be returned to the local offices in such form that the managers will recognize them as constituting a source of local labor market information, (2) the labor of preparing the input will be substantially under that required by present practices, or (3) steps will have been taken to return the output in more

attractive and usable form than is occurring at this writing.

4. Occupational Outlook Handbook: Employment Information on Occupations for Use in Guidance, 1968-69 Edition, Bulletin 1550, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (Washington, D.C.: 1968).

5. W. E. Hopke et al (eds.), Encyclopedia of Careers and Vocational Guidance (New York: Doubleday & Co., 1969); Science Research Associates, Chicago, Ill.; Chronicle Guidance Publications, Moravia, New York.

6. "Career Information Service," County of San Mateo, Board of Education, Vocational Center (San Mateo, California).

7. John R. Brokenshire, Directory of Occupational Centered Curriculums in California Junior Colleges and Schools for Adults (Sacramento, Calif.: State Department of Education, 1964).

8. Helping Students Learn Decision Making: A Parent Handbook (Palo Alto, Calif.: Palo Alto Unified School District, 1969 edition).

9. Joseph M. Jacobsen, Counselors' Guide to College Majors (Sacramento, Calif.: State Department of Education, 1966).

10. Margaret S. Gordon and Margaret Thal-Larsen, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market, Report of the San Francisco Bay Area Employer Policy Survey (Berkeley: Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, July 1969). See Chapter XII, Employment Projections.

11. Ibid., Chap. XI, Training, p. 499.

12. Ibid. See Chap. XII, pp. 528-532 for a more detailed discussion of the responses to our questions concerning conference

participation and the regular release of employment forecasts.

13. It has become customary to derogate the usefulness of employer forecasts on the grounds that employers tend to "guess" when confronted with requests for such information, or that this forecast tool fails to provide data for firms not now in existence. See particularly "Industry Employment Projections: by Sol Swerdloff in Long-term Manpower Projections, Proceedings of a Conference Conducted by the Research Program in Unemployment and the American Economy, University of California, Berkeley, R. A. Gordon, Editor, Washington, D.C., June 25-26, 1964.

However, techniques are available for taking care of the addition of new establishments. Also, responses to the Institute's questions in the Employer Policy Survey showed an increasing tendency on the Part of Bay Area establishments to engage in "manpower planning" and to make often sophisticated projections of future employment and production levels for their own purposes. A 1965 conference on the problems connected with devising methodologies and techniques for long-range projections of labor force and employment suggested, by reason of the strong support given by local employers to organizing and holding this meeting that their interest in improving the "state of the art" is considerable.

See for a report of this conference, Methodology and Techniques for Long Range Projections of Populations, Labor Force and Employment, Proceedings of Institutes....Sponsored by the San Francisco and

Southern California Chapters of the American Statistical Association and the Commission on Manpower, Automation and Technology, COMMAT Report No. 65-3, State of California, Sacramento, July 1965.

IX. THE NEEDS OF BAY AREA SCHOOL COUNSELING AND EMPLOYMENT AGENCY PERSONNEL

The present study has covered a considerable area. First, we stated our research objective as an effort to determine the impact of recent manpower legislation, policies, and practices on Bay Area employment agencies and school counseling departments -- and to determine the relationships of these two types of organizations with particular emphasis on the significance to their activities of labor market information.

Next, we described the Bay Area setting in which the two types of employment agencies and three kinds of schools included in our study must operate, and we summarized the changes that have affected this area in recent years.

We pictured two services as they are offered by Bay Area employment agencies and schools -- placement and occupational guidance -- and the changing circumstances in which these services must be provided. Thus, we established a broad perspective from which to view the significance of labor market information to the satisfactory provision of placement and counseling in these changing times.

When we focussed on labor market information we discovered that most of our respondents from both employment agencies and schools believed that the labor market information they now receive is inadequate for an optimal placement and counseling performance.

In order to return once more to a wide-angle perspective, our final questions of both employment service and school counseling personnel concerned the broad pattern of their total needs as they saw them.

What did our respondents lack that they thought it necessary to have for the satisfactory performance of their duties? We believed that in summing up their general situations, the need to establish a better labor market information program than now exists in the Bay Area would be shown in its proper relationship to the many other deficiencies now preventing the optimum performance of both employment agencies and schools.

We asked school counselors, in an open-ended question, to list their five greatest needs which if filled would enable them to do a more adequate day-to-day job of occupational guidance than they can perform at the present time, and to list these needs in descending order of priority. Very nearly the same pattern of priority characterizes their most strongly stated needs, as is relfected in the relative frequencies with which all five needs were stated (see Appendix Table I-1).

Most Important Needs of School Counselors

School counselors, in effect, summed up the findings of the present study themselves in listing the needs that would have to be supplied if they are to do a better day-to-day job of occupational guidance.

The chief deficiencies they saw in need of correction were general problems of structure, organization, and physical plant (Table 9-1). Considering our findings with respect to the organizational difficulties characterizing school counseling departments, the difficulties posed by excessive student-counselor ratios, the lack of adequate space

Table 9 - 1

Most Important Needs of School Counselors Which if Filled Would Permit More Adequate Day-to-Day Occupational Counseling, by Type of School

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Most important needs[a]	Per cent of schools			
	All schools	Public high schools	Catholic high schools	Junior colleges
General structure, organization or physical plant	71.0	68.4	100.0	75.0
More assistance or better facilities	51.6	52.6	100.0	25.0
Lower student-counselor ratio	38.7	36.8	25.0	50.0
Labor market information	48.4	36.8	50.0	75.0
Organization and staffing for occupational guidance	48.4	57.9	50.0	25.0
Testing and other information relating to counselees	32.3	31.6	25.0	37.5
Community involvement of counselors	29.0	26.3	50.0	25.0
Professional training and updating	25.8	15.8	25.0	50.0
Employment opportunities for students	12.9	15.8	-	12.5
Other	32.3	31.6	50.0	25.0

[a]Based on up to five responses per counselor who was requested to name five most important needs.

to carry on counseling, and the need for more clerical and other help, it is not surprising that such inadequacies were mentioned by counselors in almost three-quarters of all the sample schools. Not too far behind these basic lacks that inhibit the satisfactory provision of all types of counseling and tied for second place were the need for labor market information, and the need to remedy a whole series of deficiencies having a particular bearing on occupational guidance. These two were followed, in turn, by the counselors' needs for improved testing techniques and procedures, for greater involvement with the community, and for better professional training and more opportunities to update their skills. Further, some of the counselors looked beyond their own functions and maintained that the provision of more job opportunities for youth was essential if their work was to be effective. This list, given in answer to our open-ended question, has quite obviously appeared and reappeared at various times and in various guises throughout this study.

It is not surprising that our respondents themselves summarized the findings of our survey respecting school counseling in cataloguing their most pressing needs or, put another way, those deficiencies most needing to be remedied before they could do a more effective job of occupational counseling. But it is somewhat surprising that counselors in public secondary schools, Catholic secondary schools, and junior colleges expressed considerable unanimity as to the nature of their problem. In the main, they saw the deficiencies that prevented them from doing a better job of occupational counseling as strongly rooted in the inadequacies preventing them from giving better counseling in total.

School Counselors: General Needs of Structure, Organization, and Physical Plant

When all five of their most pressing needs were recorded we found that respondents from two-thirds of the public high schools, three-quarters of the junior colleges, and all of the Catholic high schools had expressed one or more needs connected with the general circumstances under which they carried on their counseling. In other words, before they could even think in terms of improving their guidance programs certain very positive improvements were needed in the setting or the conduct of the total counseling function.

At its most elementary level this need could be for no more than additional space. As one public school counselor said,

> "How can I possibly counsel a student when I am in a cubbyhole barely big enough for me and a student, with all my materials in piles around me?"

Another public high school counselor stated,

> "We could do much more in group counseling on occupational and other matters if there were somewhere that we could put a group. As it is, we are competing with the school nurse, the kitchen help, the supply rooms, and everyone else who has space needs."

Sometimes the counselors' requirements for space and for better equipment were more closely tied to the occupational guidance program. Room was needed for carrying on such guidance as well as the equipment to make this and other types of counseling effective. One public high school counselor summed up several responses when he said,

> "An occupational guidance center is needed in this school, equipped with the machinery to show any kind of vocational guidance information possible--films, video tape, slides, records--with a specialist to handle it, and large enough so it can be available on a drop-in basis."

Also expressed along with the need for more space, particularly by the public and Catholic high schools, were matters pertaining to administration. These included more clerical and other help, more help from administrators for the counseling department, and what one respondent described as the "time and the administrative structure to enable more communication between departments."

At the level of first choice as to their most pressing need, counselors from every type of school gave top place to a lower student-counselor ratio -- or as many elected this improvement as any other. Not surprisingly, the junior college counselors with their present average ratio of 455 to one, laid the heaviest stress on lowering this ratio.

School Counselors: Labor Market Information

Tieing for second place after such general requirements as we have mentioned, was the need expressed by the counselors for more and better information about the labor market. No need was more frequently mentioned by the junior college counselors. And when all five choices were consolidated, we found that counselors from about half of all the schools included in the present study had named this need as among their most important. The kinds of information desired by school counselors have already been detailed at length. In the context of our final question, the type wanted was summed up by one respondent in words that resembled the replies of many other school counselors when he said,

"We would like to have up-to-date information about current

> job opportunities in this area and have it expressed in easily-understandable form--especially for minority and lower socioeconomic students--with imaginative use of machines and film."

Another respondent, in pointing out the need for current, local information, suggested in addition that this material be in a central occupational library with a staff to maintain and publicize the information.

School Counselors: Organization and Staffing for Occupational Guidance

School counselors regarded the provision of adequate means to carry on occupational guidance to be as important as the informational content of this counseling.

In part, their concern was for more adequate staffing both in number and as to qualifications. They voiced a need for more qualified staff members to do a more effective occupational counseling and placement job for all students. It has already been noted that the work-study coordinator or the vocational education teacher can sometimes provide adequate placement services for particular groups of students. But it was rare to find effective placement service given to all students in a school. Nor was school placement the only area where makeshift arrangements were characteristic of staffing for occupational matters.

Even more frequently expressed was the need for a well-qualified and specialized occupational counselor. Several respondents maintained that they needed a counselor on the staff who could devote most of his time to acquiring and disseminating occupational information. Instead of having such an individual available, schools employed a variety of

substitutes. Two schools utilized a business teacher as a part-time occupational counselor. One school employed a sheet-metal teacher in this capacity. Another used a counselor who was once in business for himself and was interested in occupational counseling. As one counseling head said, "We have to have someone who knows something about the business world."

Another common need expressed in connection with the organization and direction of occupational guidance was that for an occupational unit in the curriculum. Most of the suggestions for an occupational unit were in terms of the traditional thinking of a class and class-hour set aside for vocational studies. But two school counselors independently suggested a much more elaborate vocational curriculum that would provide more integration of vocational studies with the rest of the school curricula and with the business and industrial community. Basically, these respondents suggested that the school day be restructured so students would have time to investigate occupational areas outside the school environment. Time would be available for them to volunteer for social or technical activities such as assisting in elementary schools, welfare offices, or public health or police agencies. Staff would be needed to supervise students, but these staff members could be drawn from any of the school teaching departments. The respondent with the most elaborate description of this type of program described it as follows:

> "There must be time for students to volunteer for social and technical activities outside the school. There should be a 'work-study' program for all students that is beyond the dollar sign. The school is a social and technical learning-place and society is the place to

> acquire much of this learning. There should be student contact with a variety of industries and organizations on both a 'look-around' basis and on a temporary work basis--volunteer or paid--in order to acquaint the student with potential careers. This kind of activity should make his education more meaningful to him because he is then getting direct contact with reality as it applies to what he is learning."

The respondent's school was attempting to put this plan into practice, but it could be done only on a limited basis because of the school's scarce resources and because the experiment had to be carried out within the framework of the regular school day.

School Counselors: Testing and Other Information Relating to Counselees

One-third of the school counselors wanted more elaborate vocational testing. Particularly, they were concerned with the development of tests that would utilize student follow-up information, employer information, and other related factors in order to identify those characteristics which make for success in a given occupation. And even when the need for an elaborate predictive tool was not specified, counselors spoke of the usefulness of new approaches to interest testing.

School Counselors: Community Involvement

A few counselors in each type of school included in this study expressed the need for counselors to become more involved in the community, particularly with the parents of their students. Then perhaps, counselors could anticipate the problems of their students and take preventive measures before their difficulties became serious. Also, the counselor would be provided the opportunity to increase the parents'

awareness of their children's academic strengths and weaknesses. Then, possibly the student could make more realistic choices as to his career direction without encountering undue resistance from his family.

A second aspect of "community involvement" had to do with the staffing of counseling departments. Many respondents held that the counselor or "someone in the counseling department" should, as his primary responsibility, maintain contact with business and industry. He should also serve as the in-service trainer on labor market information. Both a high-school and a junior-college counselor said virtually the same thing when the latter described this school staff member as

> "a counselor...who can do all the things we need to make a closer tie with labor markets, companies, personnel agencies, and the school."

School Counselors: Professional Training and Updating

Schools whose counselors had received the most professional training and the largest exposure to the world of work -- the junior colleges -- were also the schools whose respondents expressed the greatest interest in professional training for occupational guidance and in the provision of opportunities for updating this training. Such training, they believed, should center on the techniques of occupational counseling and on acquiring a broad and thorough knowledge of jobs, occupational trends, and the worker qualifications required for jobs.

A few public high school counselors, also, were concerned with the matter of counselor training. High school respondents, however, put this requirement at the end of their lists of most important needs when it was mentioned at all. Their comments focussed on three items.

One was the need for more attention to occupational counseling in the credentialing programs. As one high school counseling department head stated, "The orientation of the courses involved in credentialing is far from realistic." A second point mentioned was in-service training on how to use labor market information. Such training is practically nonexistent in public high schools and it is limited, at best, in the junior colleges. Third, these respondents mentioned the value of summertime employment for counselors in the Department of Employment. Such work experience enables the counselor to learn about the nature and volume of jobs and about the development and use of occupational information.

School Counselors: Other Important Needs

About an eighth of all the school counselors looked beyond the needs of their schools and their counseling departments in stating one problem that they believed it important to resolve before their guidance efforts could be truly effective. These respondents said that the economy must provide more jobs for youth. As one counselor remarked,

> "The name of the game is jobs, and we cannot be very effective in counseling for jobs when we and the students know that there are none for young people."

Finally, there was a miscellaneous group of suggestions, each made by one or a very few counselors. Some tended to be rather simplistic, as those which reflected the desire of some respondents for an "expansion of the continuation school." Other suggestions showed little awareness of usual student behavior, such as those expressing the wish to have more "students who are concerned enough about their futures to ask for

information and counseling."

One group of suggestions was aimed at the general need for better communication among industry, government, and the individual school. Respondents from two schools asked for better communication and a closer relationship with the public employment service. But the most comprehensive suggestion was from a Catholic high school counselor who said that this problem of lack of community-wide communication and coordination in matters pertaining to occupational guidance could best be resolved by establishing a

> "...clearinghouse agency in each county for all occupational materials to be used by all schools--including private schools--with materials on hand from government and business, with speakers and seminars furnished by these groups, and with other related activities, instead of leaving each school and each counselor to work alone."

This suggestion, in fact, as it was enlarged upon came to embody many of the matters mentioned by other counselors throughout the course of our interviewing. There was the element of a centralized source of labor market information, "a place for counselors to go" or to send their students. There was the element of coordinating all the information that was available as input to a single system -- information from public and private employment agencies and from various agencies of government to be joined with data obtained from employers, unions, and professional organizations. Also present was the notion of coordinating the many forms of support which industry can offer counselors and which as was often mentioned they value highly -- part-time job offers for students, summertime employment for students and school personnel, plant tours, opportunities for students to observe jobs, speakers for career days.

And, finally, a new dimension was added by this particular suggestion and the enlargement on it that followed. There would be "a place for employers to go" when they wished to offer help to an enterprise in which they have a very considerable stake, namely occupational guidance. A study of one industrial community in the Bay Area[1] has already shown that the small businessman as well as his larger counterparts wants to help the schools in this respect. But just as the schools need a central point at which they can make their requirements known, employers need to know where in the welter of school systems they should direct their offers of assistance.

Most Important Services a Public Employment Agency Can Perform for its Community

We were tempted to direct a final question to the employment agency managers included in this study that was parallel to our parting inquiry of the school counselors. It would have been simple merely to ask the managers about their most pressing needs which, if filled, would permit them to do a more effective employment service job.

But what is an effective employment service job? As mentioned earlier, a judgment as to effectiveness presupposes some ability to measure the outcome of services against program objectives and some consensus as to what these objectives should be. There was little reason to believe that the manager of a local office and the manager of a private employment agency would perceive their roles as identical. There was equally little certainty that the manager of a suburban, full-functioning public employment agency would view his mission in the same

light as a respondent from an Adult Opportunity Center located in a ghetto area. Obviously some insight as to their role perceptions was required before it would be feasible to evaluate the needs of respondents with a potential for being so differently oriented as our group of employment agency managers promised to be.

Hence we attempted to establish a point of reference by first asking the public and private agency managers what they believed to be the most important services their offices could perform for the communities in which these offices were located. We followed with a query as to whether or not their offices had the capabilities to provide these services. The managers' reasons as to why they lacked these necessary capabilities -- if they did -- then provided a clearly enunciated statement of the premises upon which they stated their needs which, if filled, would permit them to improve the services they offered to applicants and to employers.

Our open-ended question to the managers concerning the most important services they believed their offices could perform was a request for three services, listed in descending order or priority. Further, we requested that they ascribe their priorities with care. There are significant differences between the frequencies with which some services were listed by the public agency managers as a first choice, and the weight given to these services when their first answers are consolidated with second and third choices.

Most Important Service a Public Employment Agency Can Perform

The differences between the single service regarded as most

important and the manager's list of the three most important services his office offers affords, of course, an indication of the manager's concept of his primary duty as opposed to his less pressing responsibilities. The AOC manager, for example, who believes his chief duty to be that of performing a "public education" function for the disadvantaged, might mention his office's efforts at employability development as a second most important service given the community. And he might add his office's placement role, with emphasis on the benefits of this activity to the applicant as the responsibility he regarded next most important. On the other hand, the manager of a suburban full-functioning office could very likely specify the most important service his office gives the community as "placing workers" and then go on to speak of the satisfactions gained in making certain that "his employers" receive qualified workers. His second most important service, considering his orientation to placement, could likely to "placement" again. But on this second round he would extoll the value of that service in terms of shortening the worker's period of unemployment or making sure that the latter was placed on the right job for him. But when a third choice was opened to him, this manager might elect as a most important service to the community his office's work in screening applicants for training.

Thus we learned that when our sample local office managers were given but one choice as to the most important service their offices are performing, the largest proportion of them selected placement. And this group of managers emphasized the value to the community of sending qualified workers to employers, of taking care of employers who were

establishing new industries in their areas, and of serving establishments which were located in the outlying sections of the office territory as well as those near the local office (Table 9-2).

Another but smaller group repeated that placement was their most important function. However, these managers laid their emphasis on the value of this service to the applicant. An equal proportion of managers regarded as most important, the service they gave in performing a "public education" function which they characterized as advising applicants about the services obtainable through government.

Only one-eighth of these managers regarded employability development as their office's most important function, a fraction of all managers equal to that maintaining their most valuable service to the community to be the services they offered its youth.

Solitary local office managers, both of them managers of specialized offices, saw their principal functions in yet another light. One mentioned that the most important service his office could perform was to exercise "manpower planning" functions, that is, coordinate the efforts of the various groups offering manpower services. The other spoke of the importance of advising the community as to its manpower problems and the programs available -- or not available -- for resolving these problems.

Public Employment Agency Services: Training Programs

As was mentioned, a different order of priority characterized the importance of the various services offered by local offices when all three choices of important services named by the local office

Table 9 - 2

First Most Important Service a Public Employment Agency Can Perform for its Community, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

First most important service[a]	All agencies	Type of agency: Full functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
All agencies				
Number	16	7	4	5
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Placement: with emphasis on benefits to employers	25.0	42.7	25.0	-
Placement: with emphasis on benefits to applicants	18.8	14.4	50.0	-
Advise applicants as to services obtainable from government	18.8	14.3	-	40.0
Employability development including counseling	12.5	14.3	25.0	-
Manpower center for youth	12.5	14.3	-	20.0
Manpower planning and program coordination	6.2	-	-	20.0
Advise community as to manpower problems and programs	6.2	-	-	20.0

[a]Based on first of up to three responses per manager who was requested to name three most important services in descending order of importance.

managers were consolidated.

No manager listed the help provided by the local offices in establishing training programs as the most important service his office performed for its community. The addition of second and third choices, however, resulted in the mention of this item by the largest proportion of managers selecting any single service as a most important function of the offices (Table 9-3).

It can be scarcely surprising that the local offices' efforts to assist in establishing training programs by advising as to future labor needs for the occupations in question, screening prospective trainees, and carrying on many of the contacts and negotiations required "to get a new course on the road" should rank so highly in the managers' eyes. Their previous discussions of who is the "marginal worker" alone would have indicated their concern with the importance of training. So very often this worker was characterized as the one who lacked the basic education, or the work skills, or both, needed to meet the specifications on the job orders the office customarily received. One manager spoke for many in describing this most important service of his office,

> "Our second most important service is preparing as many persons as possible to compete in the labor market and this means, most of all, the provision of both basic and vocational training in which we help. After that comes the help we give in instilling motivation and in resolving those problems that prevent employment such as health, emotional problems, legal difficulties, child care, and transportation problems."

Table 9 - 3

Most Important Services a Public Employment Agency Can Perform for its Community, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Most important services[a]	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
Help establish training programs	37.5	42.7	75.0	-
Placement: with emphasis on benefits to applicants	31.3	28.6	50.0	20.0
Placement: with emphasis on benefits to employers	31.3	42.7	25.0	-
Employability development including counseling	31.3	28.6	50.0	20.0
Advise applicants as to services obtainable from government	18.8	14.3	-	40.0
Manpower planning and program coordination	12.5	-	25.0	20.0
Advise community as to manpower problems and programs	12.5	-	-	40.0
Advise employers as to manpower problems and programs	6.2	-	25.0	-
Assist in reemployment of veterans	6.2	-	25.0	-
Supply labor market information	6.2	-	25.0	-

[a]Based on up to three responses per manager who was requested to name three most important services in descending order of importance.

Public Employment Agency Services: Placement

There is some inaccuracy in holding that after the assistance given by the local offices in establishing training programs, their managers viewed the placement function as the next most important service rendered their communities. Actually, placement was viewed overwhelmingly by these managers as an important function when they were given, with three choices at their disposal, an opportunity to paint a broader picture of the important services their offices performed. Even the dearth of claims from the specialized offices that placement was an important service did not signify that their managers regarded placing workers an unimportant function of an employment service, but only that their offices were able to make very few. Because the orientation of replies concerning placement service was so different, however, and because this difference had some significance on what these managers later saw as diminishing their capabilities, the responses regarding placement were divided into two categories. When these are considered as one, almost two-thirds of the local office managers can be considered as regarding placement one of their three most important functions.

As mentioned, very few of the managers of specialized local offices could regard placement as the most important service performed by their offices. In fact placement, whether for its benefit to applicants or to employers, was mentioned by but one of these offices. A marked disinclination existed among the AOC and YOC managers even to believe it appropriate to consider placement as a service which they could or should be giving their communities. This feeling appeared

to stem from a reluctantly-acquired conviction that placement, in terms of matching available applicants with current job opportunities, was not feasible in view of the job openings and applicants they had to work with. Either the applicant had to be changed, or the job opportunities. Their question was therefore, are either of these changes, changes which an employment service can effect? This reasoning was expressed by the manager of one specialized office as follows:

> "I'm increasingly tempted to leave the placement business. Maybe the Department should get its HRD staff out of the whole placement operation. It's the disadvantaged, working through their own agencies, who should be on a payroll to develop jobs and talk to applicants. Only in that way will they learn what is involved in getting and holding jobs. And a lot of it is education and training --not employment service.
>
> "We've been trying to place the hard core for three years and it doesn't work. The problem can't be solved this way. The ghetto people have to learn on their own that you can't get a job without a skill. Once they learn this, they will turn on the schools and insist their children be taught job skills and whatever else will fit them for life.
>
> "Also, we should take a look at our people and work to bring jobs to _____ that fit our people. We are trying to make these people white-collar workers and this works only for the women. Too many of the men hate indoor work; they think office jobs aren't masculine. Besides they don't pay enough. However, maybe industry isn't the answer as those jobs are changing too, so we'll probably have to go on trying to change people. But we can't solve the whole problem that way. We need more jobs that fit our people."

A third of our respondents specified placement as one of the three most important services their offices were performing -- with this response based upon the premise that the community was benefitted because the applicant was assisted. Placement shortened the worker's unemployment

and, if skillfully handled, was a large factor in getting people into the jobs that were "right for them." Managers from the large metropolitan offices were particularly likely to subscribe to this view.

Other managers saw the importance of placement in a similar though not an identical vein -- or the same manager expressed a second view as to the benefits of placement. In any event, a third of the managers stated that placement was one of the most important services the respondent's office performed -- but for a different reason. This group of responses was based on another premise. It was assumed that placement benefits the community because by this means, employers can obtain workers who are qualified, who are "right for the jobs." Also the ability to perform this function satisfactorily was regarded as one way of increasing the community's attraction for new employers, or of encouraging existing establishments to expand their employment and, thus, of increasing the number of jobs available to local residents.

Public Employment Agency Services: Employability Development

Respondents from one-third of the public agencies thought the office's efforts to increase the employability of work applicants one of its major services to the community.

In evaluating the office's important services to the community and judging their priority, some managers, in view of the characteristics of their applicants, believed that the functions they performed should be judged in terms of a sequence over time. As one manager stated,

> "This is all such an immense question one doesn't know where to start answering it. But it does seem that one

> must start with employability development because that gets people ready so they can compete. Then, the employer must be educated so he will accept locally-available labor resources when they have been made job-ready. And finally, one can begin to talk about placement as being important."

Thus "employability development" did not appear to rank too heavily with the full-functioning offices where it was not as necessary to "change people" in order to match them against job orders as in the large metropolitan offices. Nor did this service receive a relatively high rating as "most important" in the specialized offices where other services had to be given before even "employability development" as defined by these managers could begin.

Public Employment Agency Services: Other "Most Important Services"

Several of the managers mentioned "public education" as an important service performed by the local offices, if not the most important. When asked as to the content of this education, the largest proportion of managers in the group mentioning this service defined it as "telling the applicants what services are available to them from government." One manager, after cautioning that it was hard for him to phrase the thought exactly as he meant it, did phrase his thoughts in these words,

> "Acquainting persons with the government world and showing them what it can do to help them. Getting them to understand the mechanics better so they can make better use of the machinery--which must be done without anger if needed services are to be delivered."

Another manager defined the same service as,

> "Giving information to the community so people will know what is available to them. They just don't get the message as to what we have here."

Some managers thought in broader terms -- of advising the entire community of the problems it faces and of the programs that have been initiated to deal with them. One manager said,

> "Our problem is to wake up the community -- to get one group to participate in America, in our democratic society, and convince the other group to let them do this by giving the disadvantaged housing, education, and the services they need."

At times the magnitude of gaining greater community understanding -- both of manpower problems and programs -- struck these managers as requiring superhuman effort. They were particularly discouraged by the magnitude of the effort required when even those who should have appreciated the problems and been aware of the programs showed little knowledge of either. One manager who had employed a school counselor in his office over the summer months said of this employee,

> "We had a high school counselor working here last summer. He said it was the first time he realized what we were doing. This made me despair considering all my TV time, meetings, speeches, conferences, work on committees. If the school counselors don't know, who does?"

A smaller group of local office managers regarded their job of "public education" as advising employers concerning manpower problems and programs. One manager commented on this aspect of his office's informational efforts as follows:

> "If we could educate the employers the rest (greater resources) would come naturally. Industry and government would then supply more jobs to be filled by the disadvantaged. They would see and the public would see that the Department received the resources we need to undertake the tremendous motivational and training job it takes to make these people truly employable."

In fact, many of the managers felt so strongly that they were bearing their burden of "public education" in isolation and without

adequate help, that there was a "for whom the bell tolls" quality to their comments. One manager ended a very long discussion of the matter by saying,

> "Our employers, our applicants, the whole community has to know the problems that we face in this office --no--the problems that we all face!"

Manpower planning and program coordination was also seen as an important service given by the local offices. Local office managers tended to "despair" not only because of the general public apathy surrounding their efforts but also because of the chaos frequently introduced into the manpower situation by way of the competing efforts of a rapidly proliferating group of agencies. Where, through great effort, the local office had succeeded in introducing some measure of coordination among various groups or programs, the manager was likely to view the achievement as his most important service. And this was particularly true of situations where it had been services to youth which required planning and coordination.

"Giving labor market information" was scarcely mentioned as a most important service by the local office managers. In fact, only a single manager listed this service as a separable and important function of the offices. When these managers took the "broad view" of their operations, labor market information assumed its proper place as an essential part of the placement process and of counseling, a function they included in the complex of services they termed employability development. However, very few managers failed to make it clear that they were, in fact, assuming the services of developing, using, and giving labor market information as a necessary condition to their

capability of performing the services which they did term their most important. The value of a strong labor market information program to the services a local office gives was not forgotten; it was merely assumed. This is shown in the following comment of a manager who was naming placement as the most important service his office could give its community, particularly in view of the situation of certain applicants for jobs. He commented,

> "Our greatest thing would be a strong and effective placement service. But the whole thing works in a circle. We need time for employer visits. Then we get our information about the labor market and we know where we can develop jobs. Without this information our clerical jobs are down so far that we can no longer help our older workers or the handicapped ones, so these programs are suffering."

Reasons Public Employment Agencies Lack the Capabilities to Provide Important Services

Not one single local office manager replied affirmatively when we asked these respondents if their offices possessed the capabilities to provide the services they regarded as most important (Table 9-4).

It was no more than logical, therefore, to probe for the reasons which, in their view, prevented their offices from providing important services to the communities in which they were located. The reasons which the managers supplied to our open-ended question may be regarded as a parallel, we believe, to the needs listed by the school counselors which must be filled if they are to do a better day-to-day job of occupational counseling. In this case, analogously, the managers looked at their total operation and pointed to those defects that would have to

Table 9 - 4

Reasons Public Employment Agencies Lack the Capabilities to Provide Important Services for Their Communities, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Reasons	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full functioning	Metropolitan employment service	Specialized
Have necessary capabilities	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Reasons related to staffing				
Lack sufficient numbers of staff	68.7	71.4	100.0	40.0
Lack of proper type of staff	18.8	-	-	60.0
Poor staff utilization	6.2	14.3	-	-
Reasons related to program				
Insufficient emphasis on training opportunities	50.0	57.1	50.0	40.0
Lack of program coordination by Department of Labor	31.3	28.6	25.0	40.0
Programs too rigid to serve applicants effectively	18.8	28.6	-	20.0
Employers' needs disregarded	12.5	14.3	25.0	-
Lack of community understanding and support	18.8	-	25.0	40.0

be remedied before they could expect to do a better day-to-day employment service job.

Public Employment Agencies: Deficiencies Related to Staffing

When they were questioned about their capabilities, managers of more than two-thirds of the local offices immediately and emphatically stated that they lacked sufficient staff and therefore sufficient time to do a "good employment service job." This inadequacy in terms of sheer numbers of hands to deal with the work load produced what they regarded as the major shortcomings in the services they offered. It meant that they had to do an "uneven" job; services had to be withdrawn from important sectors of the community in order to work on special programs. Others considered the principal evil of their lack of staff to lie in the growing inability of their offices to supply "individualized" services to anyone -- whether persons entitled to special services of what some of them called the "garden-variety-type of applicant." And they defined "individualized" services as "what the person really needs."

Managers of the full-functioning offices were especially likely to mention that inadequate staff resources were limiting their ability to help all of the applicants who sought their services. Managers of the metropolitan offices in noting this deficiency stressed particularly their lack of time to do a "good placement job" and by this they meant the problem of giving individualized and expert service when the job orders they worked on required a skillful matching of job and applicant.

The managers of specialized offices, although some did complain of lacking adequate numbers of staff, were more inclined to remark that they did not have enough of the right kind of staff. Some of these managers commented that the ordinary workings of a merit system did not deliver to their offices the type of personnel they needed for serving their clientele. There were problems, too, with the newer classifications recruited from among the disadvantaged. In time, some believed, improved staff selection and training might produce the new "breed" of workers they needed. Meanwhile, one YOC manager expressed his frustration at the present situation by saying,

> "We don't have enough staff, but it isn't numbers alone that's important. We need a special kind of people. They must be concerned, objective experts. We certainly cannot use those who aren't concerned. But we can't use the unskilled bleeders either."

A much smaller proportion of managers in discussing their staffing problems laid their difficulties neither to numbers nor type of staff but to staff utilization. These respondents believed that they were unable to exploit fully the potential of their staffs because it was too difficult to move personnel from program to program in line with fluctuations in the demand for services. Or, they complained that they were often required to hold the staffing of some special program at an arbitrary level when this program, in their office, was not productive. At the same time others that were demonstrably neglected went understaffed.

Public Employment Agencies: Deficiencies Related to Program

The single greatest deficiency in the complex of programs with

which they were concerned was, according to the local office managers, the lack of training "slots" which they could offer their applicants and, sometimes, the way this training was conducted, even when opportunities were available. A common type of comment was as follows:

> "No, we certainly lack the resources to deliver the services that are needed. Just to begin with - the number of training slots for _____ is pitifully small. Then when they start a course, an arbitrary size of 20 or 30 will be set - and you probably don't have 20 or 30 people who need that one particular kind of training. Furthermore, once in they have to go along in lock-step. Probably, some could move much faster, but if you shoved them ahead, the next step wouldn't be ready for them. But if you hold them back, they become resentful."

Some managers were, themselves, sufficiently resentful of what they regarded as the lack of paid training opportunities both for basic education and job training that they looked with envious eyes on programs that they regarded as oversupported in comparison with MDT. One manager in speaking of another program said,

> "They were given a staff of 30 people to manage 127 slots. YOC could have handled their entire program with 5 people. The UI machinery could have been used to pay the allowances and that would have gotten some 'fat' to ease counselors' loads. Their counselors only had 20 kids apiece. We could have saved more than half the money they squandered which was enough to double our number of MDT slots."

Whatever the merits of this manager's contentions, almost one-third of the respondents mentioned duplications of programs, lack of coordination between programs, and other problems that they were experiencing in their dealings with other manpower agencies and groups. Almost invariably, they attributed their problems to a lack of effective coordination by the Department of Labor. Several evils were laid at the

door of this lack of overall direction. One was characterized as,

> "Throwing too much money out to people who do not know how to use it - who cannot screen workers, whom employers have grown to distrust and who are not honest. Employers will have nothing to do with them and it blackens the image of all of us."

And very common were such briefer remarks as "We must have some coordination between our manpower programs," or "Too many agencies are involved in all of this."

An eighth of the managers commented on the "rigidities" of many of the manpower programs as reducing their capabilities to render needed services. There was an earlier comment, as mentioned, that these rigidities diminished their ability to achieve good staff utilization. Additionally, they complained that this program defect frequently impaired the quality of the services that could be given applicants. They were referring primarily to the various eligibility criteria which resulted often in making groups of applicants whose needs for service were indistinguishable, candidates for quite different amounts of assistance simply because some could qualify for WIN, some were eligible for CEP, and others could "get under the wire" for neither.

Public Employment Agencies: Lack of Community Understanding and Support

In answer to our question concerning the reasons why the local office managers lacked the capabilities of providing their communities with important services, slightly under one-fifth of them alluded to the lack of understanding and support which they were meeting within these communities. Later, with a somewhat different thrust to our

question - or possibly because of intervening questioning - they assigned a greater weight to the problems imposed by this lack.

When we inquired whether or not they had received indications from the users of their services that would reflect satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the performance of their offices, their replies were very much as might have been expected from the managers of any enterprise dealing with the public. References were made both to "fan mail" and to "crank letters." For the most part, both applicants and employers had expressed satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the services received. A large proportion of the managers, however, believed that much of the dissatisfaction which was expressed was justified. In other words, they agreed with their critics.

Therefore, when we asked what would be needed to improve their offices' services in those instances where they believed this dissatisfaction to be warranted, the needs they mentioned quite generally duplicated those they had earlier described as responsible for deficiencies in their capabilities. However, at this juncture a very much greater weight was given to the need for public understanding and support. Quite probably this emphasis was conferred because we were discussing an improvement of their services to those with whom the managers had demonstrably failed to communicate.

Needs that Must be Filled to Improve Public Employment Agencies' Services

Almost a third of the local office managers spoke of their difficulties in communicating with applicants and employers under

certain circumstances (Table 9-5). And they mentioned, as well, their constant need to develop better techniques of communication. Some of the circumstances in which it is difficult to "get through" to the applicant would be congenital with any type of employment service. However such difficulties have been much magnified with the current program emphasis. As one manager asked,

> "How do you tell a person he just can't be referred? We do our best but there will always be people who simply are not employable. Nothing much can be done to improve our service for such people. They shouldn't have to come to an ES office for assistance."

We have already mentioned the managers' own attitudes respecting the services they did not believe they were equipped to give to employers, mainstream applicants, and disadvantaged applicants. Hence, it is likely that the substance of what they were communicating made it as difficult to obtain the "understanding" of these groups as the techniques used to transmit their message. Basically, the managers understood this when they said they needed greater awareness - by the community, by employers, by disadvantaged individuals and the groups representing them - of the problems faced by a public employment service in view of the programs they were administering with the resources provided them.

As large a proportion of managers reiterated their need for improvements in the staffing and facilities of their offices as asked for greater support from the community. Most greatly emphasized in this final stage of our questioning, particularly in the full-functioning offices, was the need to achieve a more balanced program so that <u>all</u> applicants could be served and the needs of employers given greater

Table 9 - 5

Needs That Must be Filled to Improve Public Employment Agencies' Services to Employers and Applicants, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Needs	Per cent of agencies			
		Type of agency		
	All agencies	Full func-tioning	Metropolitan employment service	Special-ized
Needs related to community understanding and support				
Improved communication with employers and/or applicants	31.3	14.3	75.0	20.0
More awareness by community of problems of public employment service	18.8	14.3	-	40.0
More awareness by employers of problems of public employment service	12.5	14.3	-	20.0
More awareness by disadvantaged applicants and groups of problems of public employment service	12.5	14.3	-	20.0
Needs related to staffing or facilities				
More time and staff	31.3	28.6	-	60.0
More time and staff to serve employers	18.8	28.6	25.0	-
More time and staff to serve applicants	12.5	14.3	25.0	-
Better physical facilities	6.2	6.2	-	20.0
Needs related to program				
Better coordination of programs	18.8	28.6	-	20.0
More training opportunities	6.2	-	-	20.0

heed.[2] One manager expressed this viewpoint by saying,

> "We need more staff for regular placement. Things need to be 'evened up' until our mainstream activities can catch up with the HRD programs."

And finally, the need for better program coordination was not forgotten. What had been mentioned before in terms of an impediment blunting their capabilities was now repeated positively as a statement of need,

> "We must have better coordination of our manpower programs before we can improve our services."

Most Important Services a Private Employment Can Perform for its Community

Our series of questions of the private employment agency managers followed the same sequence as our inquiries of the local office managers. Again, we attempted to learn which of the services these offices performed was regarded by them as of topmost importance. Then we widened the field and asked for the three services they thought most important. Not surprisingly these managers were solidly on the side of placement, as placement is their business.

Most Important Service a Private Employment Agency Can Perform

Not quite all of the private agency managers mentioned placing workers as the single most important aim of their offices in their first answer to our question (Table 9-6). There were 10 per cent who gave first place to the manner in which they conducted their operations. This thought was expressed variously -- as dealing "honestly and expertly with both the applicant and employer," or "creating a favorable public

Table 9 - 6

First Most Important Service a Private Employment Agency Can Perform for its Community, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

First most important service[a]	All agencies	Type of agency: Non-affiliated	Type of agency: Affiliated
All agencies			
Number	30	17	13
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
Placement: with emphasis on benefits to applicants	50.0	52.9	46.1
Placement: with emphasis on benefits to employers	30.0	29.4	30.8
Operate in expert and ethical manner	10.0	11.8	7.7
Employability development including counseling	3.4	5.9	-
Have well-trained staff	3.3	-	7.7
Remain in business because of quality of service	3.3	-	7.7

[a]Based on first of up to three responses per manager who was requested to name three most important services in descending order of importance.

relations climate for the industry through good operations and self-policing," or by trying "by professional and ethical procedures to upgrade the private agency industry."

On the first round, a lone private agency manager named the counseling his office offered as its most important contribution to the community, while another thought that having a "really well trained staff," the best service that could be given either employers or applicants. And there was the manager who believed his own survival in a highly competitive industry -- particularly if achieved through the quality of services he offered -- the most important service he could perform. "To remain solvent" was his concluding definition of this service.

In describing the most important function their offices performed -- placement -- half of the private agency managers tilted the balance of this function towards its role as a service to applicants. They were most likely to describe its benefits in terms of "shortening the worker's period of unemployment." One typical comment was,

> "We can put applicants to work faster than they can find jobs themselves. Also, they will receive a higher salary through this agency than they can get themselves."

After pointing out the value of speedy placement for the applicant, it was quite common for them to relate this service to the community's welfare by remarking that it was in the best interests of everyone to "get people off the unemployment rolls."

However, almost a third of the private agency respondents saw placement primarily as a service to employers. These managers termed

their most important accomplishment as "being able to supply employers with the people who meet their needs." And there were, of course, managers who noted the two aspects of a successful placement -- or even three. As one respondent said,

> "Our first service is placing the best qualified worker we can find in the job that is best suited to him. This is happiness for the employer, and we will get his repeat business."

Private Employment Agency Services: Placement

Giving the private agency managers the broader opportunity of specifying up to three of their office's most important services did not diminish the relative importance they ascribed to the placement function (Table 9-7). With three choices at their command not a single manager failed to include placement as one of his most important services. In contrast, a third of the public agency respondents did not include placement as among the most important services their offices performed for the community even when three opportunities for the inclusion of this service were presented.

Private Employment Agency Services: Employability Development

Many of the private agency managers mentioned employability development as their second or third most important service. As a result, a third of them specified this function when their three selections were combined, the same proportion as characterized local office managers' responses. However, as mentioned earlier in this study, "employability development," as construed by a private agency manager, is largely limited to employment counseling.

Table 9 - 7

Most Important Services a Private Employment Agency Can Perform for its Community, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Most important services[a]	Per cent of agencies		
		Type of agency	
	All agencies	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
Placement: with emphasis on benefits to applicants	66.7	64.7	69.2
Placement: with emphasis on benefits to employers	33.3	29.4	38.5
Employability development including counseling	33.3	47.1	15.4
Supply labor market information	30.0	29.4	30.8
Operate in expert and ethical manner	26.7	29.4	23.1
Remain in business because of quality of service	6.7	-	15.4
Counsel new inmigrants to area	6.7	-	15.4
Other	19.9	11.8	30.8

[a]Based on up to three responses per manager who was requested to name three most important services in descending order of importance.

But there were private agency managers at this point in our questioning who enlarged on the scope of this counseling, in terms of its benefit to the community by adding,

> "It is working with minority-group persons to get them to where they can be employed" -- or "We advise and advise and try to make sure that these young people will get more training for employment."

Private Employment Agency Services: Labor Market Information

Almost a third of the private agency respondents named supplying labor market information as one of the most important services offered by their offices. Generally the managers who did so clearly regarded their mention of this item as a service to employers, for several had already included the provision of this information under employment counseling. Thus, most who mentioned their supplying labor market information, defined this action as,

> "Giving information about the labor market to employers," or

> "Supplying employers with information about wage scales," or

> "Working with the Chamber of Commerce and any other community agency to give them whatever information they want."

There was, however, an important exception to this bias towards employers. Some private agency managers regarded it as a separate and a most important function of their offices (and it was a volunteered fourth choice of several) to give labor market information to new inmigrants to the area. This function was described as,

> "Explaining this area to new out-of-state people, telling them about the jobs here, and then serving as a central

> listing place for these newcomers when they want jobs."

Private Employment Agencies: Other "Most Important Services"

Additional private agency respondents mentioned operating "ethically and expertly" or "remaining solvent" when they were able to specify important services they performed beyond the first and most important. Particularly was operating in a manner to improve the industry's image of great concern to many of these respondents. One manager ended a discussion of this concern by saying,

> "We must always be careful to place our people in such a way that both the employer and the applicant are pleased -- are satisfied. Only then is the community served. And only then can the image of our agencies as 'flesh dealers' go on fading."

Various managers singly brought up a variety of services, each regarded as among the most important his office performed for its community. These included,

> "Support the free enterprise system in this community" (by "finding jobs for people who really want and need jobs").

> "Upgrading the labor force...people who can't get any further where they are come to us for improvement; often it takes a long time, but we can do it."

> "We are achieving closer relationships with the schools and other organizations and this should be of real service."

> "The fact that anytime, day or night, Saturdays, Sundays, and holidays there is someone here who can send out competent people to take care of the sick is our service to this community."

Capabilities of Private Employment Agencies to Provide Important Services

As mentioned, no local office manager replied affirmatively when we asked if his office possessed the capabilities to provide the services he regarded as most important to his community. In complete contrast, every private agency manager save one was convinced that, indeed, he did possess the necessary capabilities (Table 9-8). When these managers enlarged on the point it was their argument that as they were "still in business" they must be rendering these services; ergo, they had the capabilities to do so. Quite possibly, the loner among them provided, with his response, a good part of the answer to the large and complex questions provoked by this sharp contrast between the role perceptions of personnel in the two types of organizations.

This solitary exceptions' choice of the most important service his office could give its community had been,

> "To utilize all of our skills in placing the unemployed and the underemployed for the community's benefit."

When we later asked if his office was performing this service, he replied negatively -- that "it would not be a profitable venture to operate this way." The strong implication of his subsequent remarks was that the costs of the amount of "employability development" required to place some of his applicants whom it would be to the benefit of the community to place were so far beyond the fees that could be collected from either applicant or employer that subsidizing the operation by public funds was required -- it was not a matter that private enterprise could undertake and remain solvent. But to the extent

Table 9 - 8

Reasons Private Employment Agencies Lack the Capabilities to Provide Important Services for their Communities, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Reasons	Per cent of agencies		
		Type of agency	
	All agencies	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
Have necessary capabilities	96.7	100.0	92.3
Other (not a profitable venture to supply services mentioned)	3.3	-	7.7

Table 9 - 9

Needs That Must be Filled to Improve Private Employment Agencies' Services to Employers and Applicants, by Type of Agency

Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

Needs	Per cent of agencies		
	All agencies[a]	Non-affiliated	Affiliated
No indications of dissatisfaction or no justifiable complaints (therefore, no needs that must be filled)	60.0	47.1	76.9
Improved communication with employers and/or applicants	26.6	35.3	15.4
Fee refund or additional service	6.7	5.9	7.7

[a]Information not available for one agency.

this job was publicly supported, it could be done -- except for the unemployables -- for he was speaking of those who "wanted to work."

Needs that Must be Filled to Improve Private Employment Agencies' Services

When we asked the private agency managers if they had received indications of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with their services which were justified, their answers were overwhelmingly on the side that such indications as they were aware of overwhelmingly reflected a satisfied clientele.

Their deomonstration of the accuracy of this contention was simply that they were still "in business." It would be impossible for them to remain solvent, they maintained, if they did not receive "repeat business." And this they did, both from employers and applicants -- either repeat business, or the new business that came their way from the associates of satisfied employers and that of the friends, relatives, and acquaintances of satisfied applicants.

This does not imply that there were lacking some reports of calls from irate employers and from unhappy applicants -- even to threats of litigation. However, the majority of these managers reported that except for "crank situations," either no such incidents occurred or they were very rare (Table 9-9). A small number said that when trouble arose, whether justified or not, they immediately refunded the fee, whether to employer or applicant. Also, if the occasion warranted, they undertook to place the applicant again -- or to fill the job again -- without imposing a second fee.

Thus, only about a quarter of the respondents remained eligible to answer our final question concerning what was needed to improve their services to applicants and employers when they believed the complaints they received were justified. The answer of these managers resembled that of their counterparts in public service in that it was "improved communications." However, the resemblance extends only as far as the words chosen to describe their respective circumstances. The improvements the private agency managers specified as needed appeared to relate more to procedural than to substantive matters.

The private agency managers were not asking for "greater public understanding and support of what we are doing." They did not worry that employers failed to understand that they couldn't "do a real placement job because of all the special programs." They were not troubled because "mainstream applicants can't see why there is no time to serve them, while the disadvantaged complain the service they receive is not good enough."

Rather the communications problems the private agency managers complained of were the kind bound to arise in any employment office. There were the employers who insisted they had not been sent workers with the proper qualifications. Equally, some applicants maintained that the jobs they were sent to fill, or perhaps they mistakenly accepted, had been misrepresented.

Thus, the chief need the private agency managers believed they had to fill was the need "to go on doing their best" -- to improve communications with employers and applicants.

Helpful in this improvement, most believed, would be considerably

more effort by employers to state their job specifications fully and accurately, to involve the working supervisor in describing needed qualifications rather than "leaving it all to the personnel manager." Others thought that most of the time it was unfair to be blamed for the "applicant's shortcomings." However, they admitted a need for constantly improving their screening as the only answer. And, finally one manager commented "we must continually keep on improving our service through the use of any modern management techniques and modern equipment that prove useful."

Findings -- School Counseling

The principal finding of our section on the needs of school counselors if they are to do a more adequate day-to-day job of occupational guidance was, quite simply, a listing by priority of the needs of our respondents as they saw them.

Notable was the fact that these respondents, no matter the type of school represented, maintained that certain general deficiencies of structure, organization, and physical plant unfavorably affecting the counseling function as a whole must be remedied before their performance as to occupational guidance could be much improved.

Following this basic requirement were other and lesser needs such as the provision of more information about the labor market to improve the content of their counseling, and a better staffing and organization of various occupational guidance activities in which they included both school placement and guidance counseling.

Our respondents also specified a need for better occupational

tests and testing techniques, and a greater opportunity for counselors to become involved with others in the outside community. Mentioned too were better professional training for counselors and the opening of more jobs to youth.

Finally, a need was expressed for some instrumentality which, on a continuing basis, could coordinate the needs of individual schools for information and other types of assistance with the resources of those, representing both the public and private sectors, able and willing to supply the needed help.

Findings -- Employment Service

Our findings based upon the reported needs of employment agency managers show the requirements of the local office managers to resemble those of school counselors in one very important respect. A large majority of each group maintained that their services could not be improved without a sharp augmentation of resources -- more time, and therefore more staff to carry on assigned duties.

However, the public agency managers gave great weight to a matter mentioned by neither school counselors nor the heads of private employment agencies. They believed that lacking was the understanding and support not only of those whom they were attempting to serve but also of the community at large. Consequently they felt a great need to "improve communication." There is some hint of an analogous problem in those replies of school counselors which are related to lacks of contact with the world of work in the organization of occupational guidance activities and lacks of information about the labor market.

At least some threat exists that sooner or later, if better communication cannot be created between the world of work and those who advise students, the content of guidance as well as its paucity will be attacked. Not only "ghetto people" as in the words of one local office manager but other parents also "will turn on the school and insist children be taught job skills and whatever else will fit them for life."

But at the moment, the public regards deficiencies of public policy and performance related to the job search as of greater seriousness than those associated with counseling students so that they can later compete in obtaining work. Hence public agency managers are more exposed to a lack of "community understanding and support" of their activities as of now than are the counselors, whose turn may well be next.

To achieve greater understanding and support, the prevailing feeling among the managers was that they must be given greater resources. And they need these greater resources for two reasons of equal importance. First, is the need to serve all applicants, not solely or even preponderantly the disadvantaged -- as well as employers whose patronage is required if either qualified or unqualified workers are to be assisted. Second, far greater resources are required to serve the disadvantaged effectively. This service, they point out, is obviously one whose difficulty of performance has not been recognized in the amount of funds allotted it. Further, along with the greater amounts of money, time, and expertise required for the task is the requirement for improved coordination of the programs and agencies concerned with the task.

Meanwhile, the reactions of the private agencies provided little doubt that the services of placement and of providing the amount of employment counseling required to effect placement were valued by employers, job seekers, and the community. Were this not so, agencies performing these functions in competition with a free service could not, as they managers say, "remain solvent."

Footnotes to Section IX

1. John A. McClure, Training by Employers in Richmond, Calif. (Berkeley: University of California, School of Education, 1966).

2. William Haber and Daniel H. Kruger, The Role of the United States Employment Service in a Changing Economy (Kalamazoo, Michigan: The W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, 1964). See Chapter V, "Developing Problems and Issues" and particularly p. 60 where the authors state,

> "There must be a balanced program of services for all applicants, and the activities in behalf of special applicant groups must be closely integrated with the mainstream placement transactions. Failure to do so will strengthen the view held by many hiring officials, that the public employment service is primarily concerned with disadvantaged segments of the labor force --the economically underprivileged or the occupationally less suitable worker."

X. PROPOSED SYSTEM FOR DEVELOPING AND DELIVERING LABOR MARKET INFORMATION

Our findings concerning the current status of developing and delivering labor market information in the Bay Area pointed up many deficiencies in our capabilities to accomplish these tasks. We observed the lack of rationale that now exists in the incomplete and chaotic activities characterizing present efforts to supply an adequate body of information to those needing it for purposes of job placement and occupational guidance.

Although we framed various individual recommendations that would alleviate the prevailing situation, we also suggested a more radical and thorough-going approach to the problems of supplying labor market information. Namely, we maintained that the needs for this information should be explored in an orderly and comprehensive fashion as well as the sources of these data, the informational gaps resulting from present practices, and the costs of allowing these gaps to continue. Out of this exploration, we indicated, there might emerge the outlines of a "labor market information system" for the Bay Area.

The following section represents an attempt to describe such an exploration and to sketch such a "system."

Needs and Resources

Clearly, the potential participants in such a system, both as suppliers and users in varying forms and degrees of labor market

information include, although are not limited to the public employment service; private employment agencies; federal, state, and local civil service commissions and personnel boards; public and private school and college placement services; the counseling departments of public and private secondary schools, colleges, and training agencies; community-action groups and antipoverty agencies; business and industrial-development organizations; various federal, state, and local government agencies--and many others that could lengthen this list almost endlessly were every group and agency to be named which can register a valid claim for labor market information or make an essential contribution to its preparation. To simplify the following, we will concentrate on the organizations represented by our respondents in the present study, which does not imply that either the needs or contributions of others not mentioned could be ignored in any comprehensive system to supply Bay Area information needs.

The first step in arriving at the requirements to be placed on a system designed to deliver needed information must be a rigorous definition of requirements and a realistic appraisal of the capabilities and the resources on hand to meet these requirements. This process of definition and appraisal must begin at the working level where the applicant for work is placed or given job information services or his employability is developed. It must begin at the level where the counselee is counseled or the student is given vocational guidance. To <u>begin</u> at any other than the working level provides no assurance that the information which is required will ultimately be presented in a manner that is appropriate to the needs of that

clientele to which it is to be delivered.

To stop at the working level in the process of defining needs and appraising capabilities and resources guarantees the impossibility of preparing much of the output stated as needed at that level. Hence, this process must proceed "up" (either in terms of organizational hierarchy or geographic scope) with a decision made at each successive stage as to which of the needs registered there can be supplied most satisfactorily and most economically by resources at that level, by resources within that organization, or possibly, only by means of some trade-off whereby the unit at that level exchanges some service of which it is capable for needed input to the sytem.

Some examples and some hypothesizing based on the now-familiar context of needs for labor market information as expressed by our respondents, may serve to indicate the maze of activities and circumstances through which this searching out of needs and capabilities would have to be pursued.

The local office manager in a "bedroom community" has stated he requires reasonably current and reasonably comprehensive job opportunities data and also short-range forecasts of occupational trends to do a satisfactory placement and counseling job. This manager has sufficient capabilities to mount an employer contact program which will net him adequate enough job opportunities data respecting the population-serving industries in his community and the very few manufacturers located there, one or two of whom represent activities that are uncommon in the Bay Area. However, the majority of the workers in this area are commuters to one or another of two

adjacent counties. This manager (like his compatriots in the schools) is utterly dependent on the existence of a metropolitan area-wide data collection and delivery system to supply him with either current job opportunities data or occupational trends information relevant to the needs of a majority of either the work force or the student population resident in his county.

Hence, his receiving information concerning current job opportunities at the geographic level suitable to the residents of his county presupposes the existence of an area-wide system. This system, in order to supply all managers, and others, with information concerning job opporunities area-wide must, in turn, levy on him the charge of transmitting upward for purposes of consolidation of that information which he collected with the primary purpose of serving his immediate needs--but which will serve his needs and those of his community only partially.

The manufacturers in this county are representatives of industries and, therefore, of occupational needs that are widely scattered throughout the state in comparatively small but important enterprises. In order to prepare even reasonably-accurate trends information concerning the occupations peculiar to these industries, representative data concerning them cannot be assembled at less than the statewide level, and even at that level require reconciliation with data which can be developed or interpreted only nationally. The existence of this situation, many times over, suggests that more often than not, the requirement for occupational trends information that originates out of the necessity of satisfactorily performing a task at the working

level of employment office or school cannot be met without a succession of information inputs extending from the local office to area, state, and national sources. In turn, these inputs must be analyzed, interpreted, consolidated, and released in one or several forms. And each of these forms should reflect the geographic scope, time period, orientation to special needs, amount of descriptive as opposed to quantitative content, and choice of media for presentation established as needed for the satisfactory performance of an assigned duty at the working level of school system or employment service--or at other of their levels, or in other organizations.

Our fictional local office manager, too, in the performance of his duties and in pursuing his various community relationships would, quite likely, have found himself frequently unable to supply requests for information from individuals and organizations to which he had been represented by his own agency as a source having responsibility to supply these data. These requests could have come from employers, for example, wanting wage or industrial-development information or advice concerning the best methods of preventing the turnover of recent minority hires. Or, as another example, local school counselors may have asked him for assistance on a problem he shared with them --what information was available that might help in motivating the minority-group students at the local high school, drawn from the nearby housing project, to aspire to the professional and technical jobs opening up in a neighboring county. And what were these jobs and their usual specifications.

This manager's own counselors may have succeeded in putting

together an exhaustive inventory of training opportunities available in their county but they expressed a constant need for equivalent information concerning a neighboring office area. There, the amount of local office-time available for the task had not permitted the same type of job to be done. Further, this manager had the uneasy feeling that if any of the laboriously-collected and transmitted follow-up information about the subsequent work careers of his applicants who had been trained under MDT and other publicly-supported training programs had ever been returned to him in useable form, his staff might be able to screen their referrals to such training with more predictable chances of success or failure.

It is not likely that this manager would have failed to observe the lack of well-directed effort within his own agency to pool such resources and capabilities as were available within the organization, to set up well-defined divisions of labor facilitating the production of maximum output in view of existing resources, and to establish a system of priorities respecting the types of output produced. Nor is it probable that he would have missed observing several instances where pooled resources and divisions of labor between his own agency and outside groups and organizations might have brought about the satisfaction of common or complementary needs for information. For example, he may have seen both a County Board of Education Coordinator and his own Veterans' Representative gathering job information which overlapped in certain areas and which, even if "put together," would provide insufficient coverage of the community's employment total. But even this modicum of information could not be

consolidated because each collection of data lacked one or more items, easily gathered, that were essential to the other user.

He may have watched funds given the local school system to establish "innovative" programs, or funds expended on special studies carried out by his own office fall short of buying the volume of information that could have been provided to not one but several classes of users in his community. And this may have occurred for simple lack of the funded or reporting organization's clearing news of its windfall with others in the community. These others quite probably could have satisfied certain of their pressing needs for the type of information generated, had only slight modifications been introduced into the program's design or the study's method of data collection.

This manager, too, may have pondered the illogicality of his being shut off from all the job knowledge to be gained out of the thriving placement business in professional, technical, and managerial jobs conducted by two private employment agencies in his county. Each of them specialized in referring such applicants to employers in particular industries in one or the other of two adjacent counties where the demand for these workers was high. Meanwhile, these private agency managers could have profited from much of the information he compiled and from that contained in his organization's quarterly Area Manpower Review and Occupational Guides. But counselors from his office, the local public and Catholic secondary schools, and the community college either never thought to contact, or they felt constrained from contacting these two offices in order to discuss the wealth of information located there concerning the worker qualifications and wage rates

commonly attached to their job orders by the many employers these agencies served.

As should be abundantly clear, there is good reason that a cataloguing of needs for labor market information and an appraisal of the resources and capabilities for supplying these needs should, in the very near future, begin at the working level of not one but several Bay Area organizations. And this process should continue upward, and often outward, until the outlines of a "system" can be perceived, the system designed and costed out and its implementation set in motion by means of creating the necessary administrative organization and direction and supplying the required resources and capabilities.

There is good reason to believe that a more general accounting of needs for labor market information throughout the Bay Area would result in establishing much the same priorities as to these requirements as were indicated by the preferences of our respondents. And it is a certainty that with needs expressed from more quarters there would be an even greater diversity registered regarding the aspects of this information that should be stressed and the format in which it should be delivered.

Current Job Opportunties Information

Assuming that the problems attendant on supplying the requested amount of current job opportunities information were the first explored in designing a Bay Area information system, certain changes of priorities in operating as well as research and reporting programs

at area, state, and federal levels would need to be considered. In addition, it would appear profitable to look beyond agency boundaries for additional resources and capabilities with which to increase the amount and quality of job opportunities information.

An obviously good investment would be a more generous funding of the public employment service employer visiting program. The effects on operations of the present penny-pinching financing of this activity were pointed up in a previous section of this study.

Joining forces with school personnel to collect portions of these data would serve to extend the resources available and also to obtain coverage for very small areas. Doing so, however, would presuppose the use of uniform schedules and reporting methods by both employment service and school personnel, and would rest upon a clear recognition that the needs of both users were to be served. Further, and more important, it would require that more time be available for occupational guidance counselors and coordinators to contact employers in their communities. As mentioned previously in this study, their present lack of time and opportunities for such contacts tends to reduce the quality of guidance counseling for more reasons than the prevailing lack of information about current job opportunities.

And it would seem better than merely deploring the serious lack of resources available for gathering such information, to attempt some truly innovative approaches to the problem of increasing the supply of "foot soldiers" able to participate in the task. There is no real reason why adequately trained senior high school students or community college students, particularly if enrolled in guidance courses

or vocational courses and using uniform reporting techniques, could not with great profit to themselves and their communities, participate in a semiannual or annual collection of job opportunities data. With adequate employer cooperation which certainly could be obtained, such forays in the name of research and reporting could be combined with opportunities to "observe jobs" and to see "the world of work." Special interests of students could be accommodated under the supervision of counselors and vocational teachers. Students in specific programs could visit establishments in appropriate industries where they would learn at first hand and also record such items about available jobs in their fields as job duties, employer specifications, training requirements, promotional opportunities, and wages. And the nearer the student was to his own entry to the labor force or to making a major career decision the more "relevant" to him should appear the education afforded through this exposure to the world beyond school walls.

Certain methods of operation by the public employment service would have to be appraised in terms of their effect on a comprehensive manpower information program and, where necessary, measures should be devised to compensate for these effects. As examples, the computerized "job bank" that makes an organized list of current job openings from a central source available to all public employment agencies (and possibly to other community organizations as well), and the "self-service" and self-screening forms of placement activity which involves the conspicuous posting in the local office of available job openings together with their specifications and wage rates, are both of them

operations which increase the alertness of employment service personnel and of applicants, to the nature of current job opportunities. But it must be noted that various of our findings described in previous sections of this study indicate that the advantages to our knowledge concerning job opportunities in certain fields that would be gained through either or both of these modes of operation, may be more than offset by the results of an increasing retreat of the public employment service from other job fields.

It appears that focussing on the needs of the less competitive type of applicant and possibly giving him a competitive advantage over the more qualified applicant, as occurs with job order sharing and the disappearance of careful applicant screening, have contributed to the general rout of the Bay Area public service from participation in recruitment for higher-level jobs. The implications of this development, if the trend cannot be reversed, are considerable for constructing a system aimed at the acquisition of comprehensive local job vacancy data. Descriptive data wanted in connection with job opportunities in the most rapidly expanding occupational sector of the economy, namely, white-collar jobs, cannot be otained from such sources as local office closed order files. Rather, they must be gathered, if they are to be complete, either directly from employers because they are hiring at the gate or through the intermediacy of private employment agencies.

If the needs of those looking primarily to the quantitative aspects of job opportunities information are to be satisfied, the inclusion into a Bay Area system of gathering these data of some such

program as JOLTS (Job Opportunities Labor Turnover Statistics) must be regarded as essential and should be speeded. However, even the benefits that would result from such a program would not be great unless certain precautions were observed. It would be most helpful to have data provided on a recurring basis that showed total job vacancies by occupation or occupational group, to provide a systematic statistical framework of the relative magnitudes of labor demand by occupation. But careful attention would need to be given the matter of gaining from such a program the type of output needed to ensure the most useful framework of statistics for the larger mass of job opportunities data gathered by other means and in greater detail. Viewed in this light, it would appear that a Bay Area job vacancy series should be based on a sufficiently rich sample that it could be published in the finest occupational detail possible. Because of the industrial composition of Bay Area employment, priority should be given the white-collar occupations despite this area's more-than-customary use of union hiring as a recruitment channel. An effort should be made, as well, to design a sample that would permit the release of at least some occupational data on a finer-than-areawide basis, for example, East Bay and West Bay. And the disadvantages of omitting rapidly-growing Santa Clara County from the "Bay Area" in any reporting system designed to portray developments as to job opportunities in the region surrounding the Bay should be carefully weighed before arrival at any decision that this be done.

Occupational Trends Information

Judged by our findings, it appears likely that the problems connected with expanding the amount of available information about longer-term occupational trends would be the second explored in designing a Bay Area information system. An exploration of the problems connected with increasing the capabilities and resources available at the area level of expand the output of occupational trends information should soon uncover many of the same difficulties inviting the same solutions as attend design of a system to increase the amount of information about current job opportunities. Again, a large amount of field work and of employer contacts would be required and, again, some method of augmenting the number of persons who would assist in this work, would have to be found.

As to additional resources that could be made available for developing trends information, we would strongly suggest that the findings of the Institute's Employer Policy Survey of 1967 be reviewed. One of these indicated that employers would welcome continuing, Bay Area-level, industry-wide conferences organized and held throughout the year which would address themselves to the matter of developments in specific industries as these affect occupational requirements and trends. Such conferences could provide an invaluable resource for analyzing and interpreting field data and for indicating where additional data require collection. If the organization of such a continuing series of conferences appeared to be beyond the capabilities of the government agencies and schools standing to profit from them, the assumption of this function might well be proposed to an appropriate

private group or foundation. Or, possibly, some Bay Area university or college could be persuaded to establish a "Manpower Center," offering courses oriented to those planning to enter or to advance their careers in such fields as employment security or occupational guidance. Such a center would be a logical choice to provide leadership in conducting this type of conference series or, for that matter, in administering the reporting system described below. These roles could prove as relevant to the center's program as they would be helpful in increasing the community's store of needed information.

A second information resource that was indicated as potentially obtainable by the Institute's earlier Employer Policy Survey was the annual projection of future employment levels--probably two-year forecasts--by a representative and all-industry sample of Bay Area employers. It has become customary to derogate the usefulness of such employer forecasts on the grounds that employers tend to "guess" when confronted with requests for this information, or that this forecast tool fails to provide data for firms not now in existence. Techniques other than a questioning of existing establishments must be and have been devised to take care of the latter problem. However, responses to the Institute's questions in the above survey showed an increasing tendency on the part of Bay Area establishments to engage in "manpower planning" and to make often sophisticated projections of future employment and production levels for their own purposes. Further, a 1965 conference on the problems connected with devising methodologies and techniques for long-range projections of labor force and employment suggested, by reason of the strong support given by local employers to organizing

and holding this meeting, that their interest in improving "the state of the art" is considerable. Inasmuch as respondents in the present study placed prime emphasis on occupational trends information that related to the Bay Area, it would appear worth the effort, if only on a trial basis and subject to later evaluation of its work, to obtain the amount of quantitative data concerning future area employment developments obtainable through such a reporting system.

Despite all efforts to develop projections through use of local sources, however, any system designed to provide occupational trends information of a quantitative nature must depend heavily on the existence at higher-than-area levels of a considerable volume of research activity. This is the effort addressed to amassing compendious data concerning social, economic, and other matters and to constructing the larger framework of population, labor force, employment and production trends within which any area projections must appear logical and consistent.

In the search for potential assists to constructing strong area occupational trends program, it may strike some that expanding the Bureau of Labor Statistics Cooperative Employment Statistics Program (BLS 790) to include occupational data should receive a much higher priority than it has been given to this date. If even the major occupational distribution of wage and salary employment were obtained annually for states and metropolitan areas this program would be of immense assistance in constructing and validating state and area occupational estimates over the intercensal period. Further, expansion of this program should be a cheaper means of achieving this assistance

than either enlarging the monthly census household sample sufficiently to be representative of states and areas, or providing a quinquennial census. Either of these actions would be of much assistance in providing a systematic skeleton of numbers on which to base area occupational estimates, and both would provide many other important benefits as well. However, neither offers much promise of being undertaken.

Unfortunately, there is little understanding or appreciation among the larger public or even the users of labor market data, of the reporting systems required to support the technical work--such as constructing input-output tables, designing matrices, and arriving at needed adjustment ratios--that precedes production of the very information these same users maintain they must have. Thus, an appropriate recommendation in times of budget stringency might well be to promote by means of more cogent explanations a wider appreciation of the often seemingly esoteric work that must be supported in such agencies as the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Census Bureau if a sound foundation is to be provided for "practical, local" manpower estimates and projections.

So far as problems arising out of developing the content of the information are concerned, we shall not continue our attempts to indicate the difficulties associated with designing a system to supply Bay Area employment agencies and school counseling departments with the information they state they require beyond their two top preferences. Some types of information given lower priority by our respondents such as area and industry trends and improved employer directories, would emerge as spin-offs from production of the two types of data

accorded the highest preferences. Other matters such as the acquisition and maintenance of information materials by users, or the better training of users, although important are ancillary to the system itself. Relationships between administrative and labor market information reporting systems lie largely within the province of those who are responsible for determining the volume and type of data required for administrative evaluation and decision. Our findings do suggest, however, that much remains to be done both to ease the burden of supplying input to the regular manpower reporting systems and to design their output with a view to increasing its utility at operating levels.

Output of the "System"

One matter, however, that should receive as much or more attention as producing an adequate supply of labor market information is the problem of designing as wide a variety of means and formats for its presentation as a careful study of this subject can establish are needed to serve the many purposes of its users.

Certain means of presenting labor market data have proven their worth over long periods of time for meeting some users' needs--sturdy volumes followed with periodic supplements such as the Occupational Outlook Handbook, and pamphlets such as California's Occupational Guides. Other formats such as machine listings from a job bank and comprehensive job postings in a local service center are emerging and proving to be valuable for other users' purposes. Our findings suggest, as well, that the range of available labor market

publications should be greatly expanded by the addition of many special-purpose documents. Some are needed to carry a particular message to specific groups in order to maximize services to these groups, whether employment service applicants from racial minorities or housewives seeking training at a junior college after long absence from the labor market. Others are wanted for carrying a particular species of content related to job opportunities data. Examples of the latter are the "how to find a job" type of pamphlets, whether for use of the job-ready applicant at an employment office, the school leaver, or the claimant for unemployment insurance receiving his periodic eligibility review. Nor have we so much as mentioned the need that exists for nonverbal materials and for new and different ways of "getting through" to the ultimate users, the data that were so laboriously collected.

And finally with respect to the output of the system, it is tempting to believe that some of the knottier problems which can be expected to emerge in connection with the effective delivery of needed labor market information are resolvable through a far greater resort to means supplied by modern technology than anything witnessed to date. It is a certainty that any system designed to deliver labor market information satisfactorily will fail in its mission, no matter what the volume and quality of this information, unless various problems described elsewhere in this study are surmounted with truly innovative solutions. Only the use of methods that are radically different from those now being attempted can overcome such impedances presented to an effective delivery of information as would result from

sole reliance on the performance of staffs which are already overburdened and which lack expertise in the information they dispense as well as the necessary tools for its delivery in ways best suited to their clienteles.

But it can be pointed out that:

It is not beyond the capabilities of modern technology to design and program a machine that would assist the counselor in dissuading the potential dropout from leaving school. The precise and factual replies that could be programmed on the job opportunities available to a ninth-grader following his inviting these responses with his qualifications for work, could go far to acquaint him with labor market realities. Conversely, programmed replies as to the educational requirements of jobs in which this student expressed an interest could go equally far to imbue him with a new respect for the benefits of continued education and training.

Resorts to mechanized information retrieval can also be tailored to the needs of employment service applicants or students needing or wishing to know the educational and other requirements, wages paid, job duties, and prospects for advancement attached to jobs for which they are qualified or in which they express an interest.

Further, a computer operation of the above type linked to a telecommunications system can permit any employment service applicant or student to receive such information by phone or telewriter, under circumstances timed to his convenience or need.

Entire "world of work" course units can be filmed and shown either directly or through closed-circuit television, as can also

presentations related to the job duties and "life styles" connected with a variety of occupations.

Specific counseling situations can be handled by film or computer, including such recurrent problems as "how to hunt for a job" or "helpful hints to the liberal arts graduate with no saleable skills," or "what the recently-discharged veteran should know about the current Bay Area labor market."

The effort and expense involved in developing, testing, and installing innovations of this sort would be considerable. The difficulties of constantly updating the information and of revising the software needed to support such innovations would be great. The administrative problems connected with securing strong direction over, coordinated action from, and support for the several participating agencies that would be associated in the joint venture required for the optimum utilization of such innovations would be enormous. There are few if any alternatives, however, to utilizing the benefits of modern technology if many of our educational and manpower services are to meet the needs of a modern society as they must--and soon.

The School "Occupational Counselor"

No matter what the final output of our "system," and no matter what the arrangements that could be made for as much centralized delivery of this output as is possible, there will still remain the problem of maximizing the capabilities of school counseling departments to take care of the day-to-day occupational guidance needs of their students. Some of our respondents recognized this need as it

exists presently by urging that there should be a counselor specialized in this type of counseling in every school.

In our view it is critically necessary that there should be a larger measure of specialization for occupational guidance in school counseling departments and that one counselor, or one school employee, should have as his major responsibility the provision of occupational guidance. However, we would seriously question that the appointment of an individual to such a position, although a necessary condition for effective occupational guidance would constitute, in itself, a sufficient condition for this outcome.

Given the information needs of school counselors as they have been reported to us throughout the present study, the effectiveness of an "occupational counselor," as we shall term him, would be severely limited if he were not supported by an area-wide system such as we have just described. In order to perform his duties satisfactorily, he would need to be backed by an information-collection apparatus which could supply him with the output of extensive research originating throughout the Bay Area. His own efforts to gather job information in his immediate locality would not be sufficient to provide his counseling department with the types of information these departments have informed us, for the most part, that they need. Also, to meet the needs reported to us by our school respondents, this "occupational counselor," to be of maximum effectiveness would have to be supported by a system of sufficient scope and therefore of resources that its output could be delivered in the many forms needed to satisfy the prevailing requirements of school guidance programs. These requirements

as we have just mentioned are such that they dictate a wide variety of output tailored to the equally wide variety of problems presented by the entire Bay Area's diverse student population.

Further, it is difficult to maintain that mere appointment of an occupational counselor would go far to remedy existing deficiencies in occupational guidance given the present situation with respect to counselor certification, training, updating, and his general relationships with the agencies most intimately concerned with developing and disseminating labor market information.

Therefore it seems obvious that there must be something new in administrative arrangements in order to provide for the effective functioning of a counselor specialized to give occupational guidance in the schools. It would appear that we can well recommend a borrowing, in part at least, from the Swedish experience.[1] This counselor, although stationed in the school, should not be solely an employee of the school. His position should be funded to the extent of one half at least by the federal-state employment service system with very strong surveillance maintained by the federal authorities over the standards set for these counselors stationed in each public high school and junior college, and over the functioning of this network of personnel.

We are recommending that this counselor occupy a school position and be subject to school salary schedules, to the administrative authority exercised over other school personnel, and to the credentialing and experience requirements of the state and the school district. This we suggest because the subjects of his activity are

the school district's students and, presumably, it is school personnel who are best fitted to deal with students. They, too, can be most conversant with the school's generous informational resources concerning the needs, the aptitudes and attitudes, and the performance and potential of its students.

However, we are also recommending that this occupational counselor's position be funded in part by an agency of government, and that he accept functional direction from outside the school system. His position requires this duality of support and responsibility, in part, to give him recourse against excessive demands by the school and, in part, to provide him with resources of information about the world of work that equal those he normally has at his disposal respecting his counselees. Only if the occupational counselor is given support from outside the school system, we believe, can those impediments to the effectiveness of all counseling such as heavy student-counselor ratios and lacks of space and equipment--which beyond doubt will be long in disappearing--be prevented from smothering the emergence of effective occupational guidance--an activity that has become crucially necessary to the general welfare, in light of recent manpower developments. And only if the occupational counselor can be assured of assistance from beyond the school can he expect to acquire through continuing training, contacts, and other forms of assistance an expertise with respect to the world of work that equals his capacity to deal with students and their needs.

Footnotes to Section X

1. Labour Market Policy in Sweden, OECD Reviews of Manpower and Social Policies, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Paris, 1963. See pp. 32-33 for a discussion of vocational guidance in Sweden. In addition to the "vocational guidance officers" stationed in the employment offices, there are "teacher-counselors." These are specially trained teachers in the school districts who, although subordinate to local boards of education, are also employed part-time by the employment service to which they are responsible for vocational counseling.

Appendix A

Additional Information Relating to Sample Selection

Public Employment Agencies

In July 1968 the volume of work load accomplished by the 16 sample Bay Area public employment agencies amounted to about 90 per cent of the six-county totals for the more important work load items including new applications and placements (see Appendix Table A-1). At the time of our survey, the same proportionate relationship would have characterized their annual performance.

We selected this exceedingly rich "sample" because of several factors. For one, the Institute's previously-conducted survey of employers yielded data, by county and by parts of counties, on various recruitment policies including use of public and private agencies. In order to utilize this background information gained from the earlier survey in connection with the present study, the major offices in all six counties had to be included at minimum. For this reason alone, seven of the eight offices that offered both employment service and unemployment insurance services in the Bay Area in July 1968, usually in the smaller and medium-sized cities, were necessarily included. These offices have been termed "full-functioning offices" throughout our report. Obtaining satisfactory coverage by county also dictated the inclusion of all four "metropolitan employment service offices." These four offices required individual coverage for other reasons as well. Three major cities, each with very different characteristics, are represented in this group of offices. Also, two of these offices are the only ones, specialized by occupation, in the Bay Area.

However, only five of the 17 "specialized offices" in the six counties were sampled, giving a coverage for this group of 29 per cent as compared with 87 per cent of the full-functioning offices and 100 per cent of the metropolitan employment service offices (see Appendix Table A-2). Therefore, it would appear that the special program offices such as adult and youth opportunity centers and the service centers have been treated disproportionately to their weight in the total of all offices. Actually, this deficit is apparent rather than real from the standpoint of describing programs, practices, and attitudes in such offices. The two complexes of Adult Opportunity Centers (each consisting of one Central Center and four branches) were covered in their entirety with two interviews of supervisory personnel at the headquarters centers. Although only three of the eleven Youth Opportunity Centers were included in the sample, these interviews

were conducted with supervisory YOC personnel in three counties who could speak for operations at all of the centers under their direction. Three Service Centers and one Skill Center were excluded from the sample because at these offices, placement service activities are minimal or nonexistent. Also the Service Centers, although they do include Department personnel, were not under employment service managers at the time of our survey.

Private Employment Agencies

Our selection of a sample of private employment agencies was guided by the same major considerations as were involved in the choice of local offices. We wished our sample to be reasonably representative in its distribution, of the location of all Bay Area agencies by county and of the type of clientele served by all of the private agencies. Our problem lay in determining the size of the Bay Area universe of private employment agencies and the location and type of these offices.

For lack of definitive, current data giving us this information we have estimated the July 1968 number of Bay Area agencies to total 250 (see Appendix Table A-3). Our method of estimate was as follows:

The U. S. Bureau of the Census, Census of Business, 1963, Vol. 7, Selected Services - Area Statistics, U. S. Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1966 (the latest census released at this writing) shows a Bay Area total for November 1963 of 191 private employment agencies, with the latter distributed by county. The report, Placement and Fees of Private Employment Agencies in California, Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Labor Law Enforcement, Labor Commissioner, San Francisco, California (issued annually until 1966 when this report was discontinued) gives the number of general employment agencies in the State as a whole but not for metropolitan areas or counties. The county detail, however, can be obtained by counting the license documents upon which this report was based. Through the courtesy of the Bureau of Employment Agencies, California Department of Professional and Vocational Standards, these documents were made available to the author for 1968 so that a count for the Bay Area distributed by county could be made for that year. Like documents for earlier years were made available by the Librarian of the California Department of Industrial Relations.

Because of certain definitional differences and also because there is some inflation in the license figures produced by a heavy turnover of establishments, statistics on licenses exceed the Census figures by almost one-third, e.g., the 1963 Census of Business total for California was 758 while the comparable figure published by the Labor Commissioner was 1,032.

We elected to use the Census of Business total of 191 for the Bay Area and the figures for the six component counties as a 1963 base for our estimate. However, these 1963 figures were increased in line with the trends shown by the license documents, yielding a Bay Area estimate of 250 for 1968. This total is considerably smaller than the 353 licenses active in 1968 as obtained from our count of these documents. However, an unduplicated count of all the agencies which appeared to be "general employment agencies" in the classified sections of the various telephone directories covering the cities, towns, and rural areas of the six counties supplied strong corroboration that there could not be more than 260 private employment agencies in the six counties and there might be fewer. Our method, too, resulted in slight shifts in the distribution of agencies by county from that shown by the Census for 1963. In all instances these shifts would have been expected in view of the differential rates of employment and populations growth by county in the years 1963-1968.

A comparison of the above estimates with the data shown for reporting units under the Unemployment Insurance Act in Appendix Table C-6 indicates these estimates are not out of line when an allowance is made for the number of agencies that are operated by proprietors or partners and have no paid employees, and also for certain definitional differences.

The various and sometimes judgmental methods used to apportion our estimated total number of private employment agencies by county were applied as well to distributing them by type of clientele served (see Appendix Table A-4).

As all evidence suggests that Bay Area private employment agencies are preponderantly engaged in serving white-collar workers, the distribution shown in our sample may appear unrepresentative in that little more than a half of the sample agencies serve white-collar workers exclusively. However, it should be noted that almost all of the agencies which we classified as serving both white- and blue-collar workers are primarily engaged in placing clerical workers. Also, the majority classified as serving "specific occupations" restrict themselves to placing workers in professional or technical occupations.

It is indicated in the text that we believe our sample of private employment agencies to be significantly biased in the direction of well-established, larger, more prosperous and older firms than those which, on the average, comprise the entire industry. Notwithstanding this bias, it should be noted that in this industry whose establishments have an inordinately high turnover rate, 33 per cent of our sample agencies are five or fewer than five years old. Also, 20 per cent of the sample agencies have less than four workers, and two-thirds employ fewer than nine.

This distribution by size is in sharp contrast to the much larger staffs engaged in similar activities in the public employment agencies (see Appendix Table A-5).

Public High Schools

Our essentially judgmental selection of a sample of public high schools was based on a combination of factors. Not least of these were budget and time constraints which indicated that we could not afford a sample of much larger size than 20. This latter figure gave promise of including about 15 per cent of all high schools in the Bay Area and about 15 per cent of total public secondary-school enrollment (see Appendix Table A-6). We were able to achieve reasonably representative coverage by county in this sample except for San Francisco where the necessary inclusion of at least two schools gave us an overrepresentation of both schools and enrollment.

We relied on informed opinion to achieve for the Bay Area as a whole reasonable representation in our sample of the various types of school populations enrolled, so far as socioeconomic characteristics are concerned. As indicated in the text, however, we did bias our selection in the direction of older schools in order to draw historical comparisons. This decision appears to have given us a sample enrollment comprised of a higher proportion of students from low-income families than would characterize all Bay Area public high school students.

Catholic High Schools

Our decision to include Catholic high schools in the present study despite our omission of other types of private secondary schools was dictated by the importance of the former in the pattern of Bay Area secondary school enrollment. When public and Catholic high school enrollments are combined, the Catholic schools account for nine per cent of the Bay Area total and for one-fourth of all San Francisco County's high school students (see Appendix Table A-7).

Our sample of Catholic high schools is unquestionably biased in the direction of the urban school because our selection provides no representation of three counties where suburban schools are prominent. However, as our sample schools were above-average in size, the inclusion of only four in the counties where Catholic school enrollment is heavy already accounted for 18 per cent of all Catholic secondary school enrollment in the Bay Area, as compared with a comparable 15 per cent for the public schools (see Appendix Table A-8).

Generally, the educational emphasis in Catholic high schools is heavily academic and directed towards preparing students for college entrance. We may have introduced additional bias into our small sample with a conscious attempt to include schools that placed at least some emphasis on vocationally-oriented courses and occupationally-oriented counseling.

Junior Colleges

In contrast to the sample of secondary schools, our selection of junior colleges is liberal, indeed, accounting for more than half of all such schools and for two-thirds of all junior college students in the Bay Area (see Appendix Table A-9).

Such bias as this sample may have, and it should be inconsequential, could arise from the fact that the sample schools are, on the average, somewhat longer-established, somewhat larger, and they may be slightly more urban than is the average of all junior colleges in the area. The three small and recently-established suburban districts that were omitted, together contained but 18 per cent of the area's total enrollment in junior colleges. Also, their suburban character appears to be adequately reflected in other districts that are included in the sample.

Appendix Table A - 1

Number of Agencies, New Applications Taken and Placements Made for All Bay Area Public Employment Agencies, for Public Agencies in Sample, and for Per cent of Public Agencies Sampled, by County, July 1968

	All public agencies			Sample public agencies			Per cent sampled		
	Offices	Applications	Placements	Offices	Applications	Placements	Offices	Applications	Placements
All agencies	29	26,487	11,305	16	23,242	9,922	55.2	87.7	87.8
Alameda	10	8,344	3,572	5	6,467	2,726	50.0	77.5	76.3
Contra Costa	3	2,514	1,041	2	2,489	1,021	66.6	99.4	98.1
Marin	1	716	305	1	716	305	100.0	100.0	100.0
San Francisco	9	7,587	3,111	4	6,708	2,865	44.4	88.4	92.1
San Mateo	1	1,631	621	1	1,631	621	100.0	100.0	100.0
Santa Clara	5	5,695	2,655	3	5,231	2,384	60.0	91.8	89.8

Source: New applications and placement figures are from Employment Service Activities by Local Office, Report 513D, Number 261, published by Research and Statistics, California Department of Employment, Sacramento, September 1968.

Appendix Table A - 2

All Bay Area Public Employment Agencies, Public Agencies in Sample, and Per cent of Public Agencies Sampled, by Type of Office, July 1968

Type of agency	All public agencies	Sample public agencies	Per cent sampled
All agencies	29	16	55.2
Full-functioning[a]	8	7	87.5
Metropolitan employment service[b]	4	4	100.0
Specialized	17	5	29.4
Adult Opportunity Centers	2[c]	2	100.0
Youth Opportunity Centers	11	3	27.3
Service Centers	3	0	0.0
Skill Center	1	0	0.0

[a]Full-functioning local offices offer both employment and unemployment insurance services under single management on the same premises.

[b]In the large cities, only employment service activities are conducted at the local employment service office. These offices may or may not be further specialized by occupation or industry.

[c]A complex consisting of a Central Adult Opportunity Center and its branch centers has been counted as 1 office because personnel and work load statistics are consolidated before transmittal to levels above the central unit. The single interview conducted at each of the 2 AOC complexes was administered to supervisory personnel at the Central Center who possessed an overview of activities conducted in all of the included branches. In contrast, each Youth Opportunity Center maintains a separate identity when transmitting its work load statistics. In each city where YOC's are located the manager of but one was interviewed, and the personnel and work load statistics of only that office are included in the sample coverage.

Appendix Table A - 3

Estimated Number of All Bay Area Private Employment Agencies, Private Agencies in Sample, and Per cent of Private Agencies Sampled, by County, July 1968

County	Estimated number of all private agencies	Sample private agencies	Per cent sampled
All agencies	250[a]	30	12.0
Alameda	55	6	10.9
Contra Costa	18	2	11.1
Marin	5	1	20.0
San Francisco	85	11	12.9
San Mateo	27	4	14.8
Santa Clara	60	6	10.0

[a]See preceding discussion under Appendix A for method of estimate.

Appendix Table A - 4

Bay Area Private Employment Agencies in Sample, by Occupational Specialization, July 1968

All agencies	
Number	30
Per cent	100.0
White-collar occupations only	53.4
White- and blue-collar occupations combined	26.6
Specific occupations[a]	20.0

[a]Includes agencies specializing exclusively in scientific, technical, health, or domestic service occupations.

Appendix Table A - 5

Sample Bay Area Public Employment Agencies by Number of Employees Engaged in Nonagricultural Employment Service Activities, and Sample Bay Area Private Employment Service Agencies, by Number of Employees, July 1968

Number of employees	Public agencies (employment service employees)	Private agencies (all employees)
All agencies		
Number	14[a]	30
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Under 4	0.0	20.0
5 and under 9	0.0	46.7
9 and under 25	35.7	33.3
25 and under 50	28.6	0.0
50 and over	35.7	0.0

[a]Employment service personnel in the two Adult Opportunity Centers have been omitted from this table as it would be misleading to show these 173 employees working in 2 Central Centers and 8 branch offices as large offices.

Appendix Table A - 6

Number and Enrollment of All Bay Area Public High Schools, Sample Public High Schools, and Per Cent of Public High Schools Sampled, by County, 1968/69

County	All high schools		Sample high schools		Per cent sampled	
	Number of schools	Enrollment	Number of schools	Enrollment	Schools	Enrollment
All counties	135	220,706	19	33,252	14.1	15.1
Alameda	35	55,760	4	7,696	11.4	13.8
Contra Costa	25	38,600	4	6,348	16.0	16.4
Marin	7	11,798	1	1,703	14.3	14.4
San Francisco	10	21,332	2	4,619	20.0	21.7
San Mateo	21	33,221	3	4,763	14.3	14.3
Santa Clara	37	59,995	5	8,123	13.5	13.5

Source: Directory of Administrative and Supervisory Personnel of California Public Schools, 1969 (Sacramento: State of California, Bureau of Publications).

Appendix Table A - 7

Bay Area Public and Catholic High School Enrollment and Catholic High School Enrollment as a Per Cent of Combined Enrollment, by County, 1968/69

County	Combined public and Catholic enrollment	Public high school enrollment	Catholic high school enrollment	Catholic high school enrollment as per cent of combined enrollment
All counties	242,169	220,706	21,463	8.9
Alameda	60,412	55,760	4,652	7.7
Contra Costa	40,024	38,600	1,424	3.6
Marin	12,907	11,798	1,109	8.6
San Francisco	28,415	21,332	7,083	24.9
San Mateo	35,462	33,221	2,241	6.7
Santa Clara	64,949	59,995	4,954	8.3

Source: Directory of Administrative and Supervisory Personnel of California Public Schools, 1969 (Sacramento: State of California, Bureau of Publications); the Department of Education, San Francisco Archdiocese, San Francisco, California, and the Department of Education, Oakland Diocese, Oakland, California.

Appendix Table A - 8

Number and Enrollment of All Bay Area Catholic High Schools, Sample Catholic High Schools, and Per Cent of Catholic High Schools Sampled, by County, 1968/69

County	All Catholic high schools		Sample Catholic high schools		Per cent sampled	
	Number of schools	Enrollment	Number of schools	Enrollment	Schools	Enrollment
All counties	42	21,463	4	3,748	9.5	17.5
Alameda	8	4,652	1	1,141	12.5	24.5
Contra Costa	3	1,424	-	-	-	-
Marin	3	1,109	-	-	-	-
San Francisco	14	7,083	2	1,807	14.3	25.5
San Mateo	8	2,241	-	-	-	-
Santa Clara	6	4,954	1	800	16.7	16.1

Source: Department of Education, Archdiocese of San Francisco, San Francisco, California, and Department of Education, Oakland Diocese, Oakland, California.

Appendix Table A - 9

Number and Enrollment of All Bay Area Junior Colleges, Sample Junior Colleges, and Per Cent of Junior Colleges Sampled, by County, 1968/69

County	All junior colleges		Sample junior colleges		Per cent sampled	
	Number of schools	Enrollment[a]	Number of schools	Enrollment[a]	Schools	Enrollment
All counties	14	78,636	8	52.869	57.1	67.4
Alameda	4	27,084	2	17,080	50.0	63.1
Contra Costa	2	8,537	1	3,024	50.0	35.4
Marin	1	3,750	1	3,750	100.0	100.0
San Francisco	1	12,182	1	12,182	100.0	100.0
San Mateo	2	9,544	1	7,744	50.0	81.1
Santa Clara	4	17,539	2	9,089	50.0	51.8

[a]Enrollment figures on this table and throughout the study refer only to the day-time enrollment of the junior colleges.

Source: Directory of Administrative and Supervisory Personnel of California Public Schools, 1969 (Sacramento: State of California, Bureau of Publications).

Appendix Table A - 10

First Interviews Conducted in Sample Employment Agencies and Schools, by Months, 1969

Employment agencies and schools	Total interviewed	Month first interviewed					
		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May	June
All agencies and schools	77[a]	1	3	19	21	25	8
Private employment agencies	30	1		8	7	10	4
Public employment agencies	16		3	4	4	5	
Public high schools	19			7	10	2	
Catholic high schools	4						4
Junior colleges	8					8	

[a]In addition, ten of the above agencies and schools required a second or subsequent interview for a total of 94 interview in all.

Appendix B

Additional Information Relating to Industrial Characteristics of Bay Area Counties

San Francisco is the area's county of heaviest employment, though not of largest population. Shown in this relationship its indisputable position as one of the great headquarters areas of the Pacific basin as well as of the Bay Area itself. To achieve the concentrated employment density on its small area required for this administrative eminence, the "City" daily gains an increment in excess of 150,000 commuting workers to supplement its own resident labor force. But despite this net gain of commuters, San Francisco suffers an almost permanent shortage of professional, technical, and clerical workers at the same time that lesser skilled industrial-type workers are usually in surplus. Employment in four industries: services, trade, government, and the finance complex exceeds that in manufacturing, and the latter is equalled in importance by the work force in the transportation group of industries.

Government, including the schools, employs more workers in Alameda County than does any other major industry division. Besides those who teach, many of these workers are employed in administrative or clerical posts by the multiplicity of local and special government jurisdictions which characterizes this county, unlike San Francisco where city and county government are combined and federal employment predominates. A substantial proportion of Alameda County's government workers, nevertheless, are employed by large industrial-type (chiefly military and naval) institutions or are in lesser-skilled jobs. Also, manufacturing employment is almost twice as important to this county's economy as to San Francisco's. Primary and fabricated metals, food processing, nonelectrical machinery and transportation equipment manufacturing are all large areas of job opportunity. But, much of the recent employment expansion of Alameda County's manufacturing as of other industries has occurred well south of the central cities in areas where land is available for development. For that reason, the county's larger proportion of manufacturing than is to be found in San Francisco has not opened jobs to the unemployed and underemployed in the central cities to the extent that might have been expected.

In contrast, Contra Costa's second most important industry, manufacturing, is still largely located, and is now rapidly expanding, within the older industrial areas of the county. In this county, therefore, imbalances between labor demand and supply relate not so much to the barriers of distance between supplies of

potential workers and an increasing labor demand, but to the nature of the latter. Contra Costa County's manufacturing is strongly characterized by such process industries as chemicals and petroleum, and by primary metals, where technological improvements are diminishing the proportions to total employment of lesser-skilled and unskilled production workers. However, similarly to Alameda County, Contra Costa does include a large area of open land. This space is now falling to the subdivider and to the promoter of light industrial development.

Marin County serves in large part as a labor supply area from which white-collar workers commute to other sections of the Bay Area, primarily San Francisco. Its principal industries are of the population-serving variety, such as services, government, and trade. Employment in trade, the county's third-largest industry division, is, in fact, more than three times as large as that in manufacturing.

San Mateo County, which long shared Marin County's characteristic of being, primarily, a "bedroom area" for its larger neighbor, San Francisco, now boasts a sizable manufacturing industry supplementing the employment needed to serve an expanding suburban population. In addition, the location in San Mateo County of the San Francisco Airport has created an important transportation industry offering many industrial-type job opportunities besides those in manufacturing. The largest proportion of San Mateo County's manufacturing employment, however, is in electrical machinery, principally the manufacture of electronics components -- again an activity strongly affected by a modern technology that finds decreasing place for the unskilled worker.

It is really in Santa Clara County, however, that the influence of twentieth-century technology has been most strongly felt. In an area previously, and even at present, noted for its agriculture and agriculture-related activities, manufacturing now comprises, as is true of no other Bay Area county, the largest single major industry division. In large part, though, it is manufacturing with a difference. About three-quarters of this county's durable manufacturing total consists of workers in the aerospace group -- ordnance, electrical machinery, and instruments -- all insatiable users of professional, technical, and skilled personnel rather than of the lesser-skilled.

Appendix Table B - 1

Estimated Employment in Bay Area Counties, by Major Industry Group, July 1968

Major industry group	All counties	Alameda	Contra Costa	Marin	San Francisco	San Mateo	Santa Clara
Employment[a]							
Number (in thousands)	1,758.0	439.8	144.1	50.9	525.7	194.5	403.0
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Agriculture	1.2	1.1	1.7	2.2	0.0	1.1	2.5
Construction	5.3	5.3	7.5	6.1	4.1	6.6	5.3
Manufacturing	19.4	19.3	20.5	7.3	11.5	17.5	31.9
Durable	11.9	11.9	9.1	4.9	3.4	12.2	24.8
Nondurable	7.5	7.4	11.4	2.4	8.1	5.3	7.1
Transportation and utilities	8.5	7.4	5.8	4.3	11.5	15.2	3.9
Trade	20.2	20.4	21.0	23.2	20.7	22.6	17.7
Wholesale	5.7	5.5	2.5	2.2	8.5	6.5	3.6
Retail	14.5	14.9	18.5	21.0	12.2	16.1	14.1
Finance, insurance and real estate	6.4	4.1	3.4	5.7	12.2	4.1	3.5
Services	20.8	18.4	20.0	26.1	22.2	19.6	22.0
Government	17.9	23.7	19.5	24.1	17.6	12.9	12.9
All other[b]	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.0	0.2	0.4	0.3

[a]Estimates of total employment include wage and salary workers, self-employed, and unpaid family workers and domestics.

[b]Includes mining, forestry and miscellaneous agricultural services.

Sources: Percentages computed from Area Manpower Review, San Francisco-Oakland Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, Winter 1968-1969, Annual Review and Outlook, Department of Employment, Coastal Area Office, San Francisco, January 1969, County Series, pp. 5-9 and the same publication for the San Jose Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, San Francisco, March 1969, p. 6.

Appendix Table B - 2

Bay Area Population and Employment and Increase from July 1960, by County, July 1968

County	Population - July 1968				Employment - July 1968			
	Total	Per cent of Bay Area	Increase from July 1960		Total	Per cent of Bay Area	Increase from July 1960	
			Number	Per cent			Number	Per cent
All counties								
Number (in thousands)	4,142.4	100.0	851.4	25.9	1,758.0	100.0	413.7	30.8
Alameda	1,069.9	25.8	161.7	17.8	439.8	25.0	86.8	24.6
Contra Costa	550.8	13.3	141.8	34.7	144.1	8.2	40.7	39.4
Marin	207.4	5.0	60.6	41.3	50.9	2.9	18.0	54.7
San Francisco	748.7	18.1	8.4	1.1	525.7	30.0	49.8	10.5
San Mateo	553.7	13.4	109.3	24.6	194.5	11.0	63.4	48.4
Santa Clara	1,011.9	24.4	369.6	57.5	403.0	22.9	155.0	62.5

Sources: Percentages for population computed from 1960 U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census figures and from California Department of Finance July 1968 estimates as published in Economic Report of the Governor, 1969, Table A3, page 56.

Percentages for total employment computed from Area Manpower Review, San Francisco-Oakland Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, Winter 1968-1969, Annual Review and Outlook, California Department of Employment, Coastal Area Research and Statistics, San Francisco, California, January 1969, pp. 5-9 and from Area Manpower Review, San Jose Metropolitan Statistical Area, Winter 1968-1969, Annual Review and Outlook, California Department of Employment, Coastal Area Research and Statistics, San Francisco, California, March 1969, p. 4.

Appendix Table B - 3

Wage and Salary Workers in the United States and the Bay Area, in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Major Industry Group, July, 1960

Major industry group	United States	Bay Area[a]
All workers		
Number (in thousands)	54,353.0	1,157.7
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Mining and construction	7.1	6.9
Manufacturing	30.8	23.6
Durable	17.3	12.6
Nondurable	13.5	11.0
Transportation and utilities	7.5	9.9
Trade	20.9	21.2
Wholesale	5.5	6.9
Retail	15.4	14.3
Finance, insurance, and real estate	5.0	6.5
Services	13.9	14.4
Government	14.8	17.5
Federal	4.1	5.9
State and local	10.7	11.6

[a]Includes the San Jose Area in addition to the 5 counties of the San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area.

Sources: Percentages for the United States computed from Employment and Earnings Statistics for the United States, 1909-68, Bulletin 1312-6, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor, August 1968.

Percentages for the Bay Area computed from Estimated Number of Wage and Salary Workers in Nonagricultural Establishments by Industry, San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area, 1949-1968 and from Estimated Number of Wage and Salary Workers in Nonagricultural Establishments by Industry, San Jose Metropolitan Area, 1949-1968, Division of Labor Statistics and Research, California Department of Industrial Relations, San Francisco, December, 1968.

Appendix Table B - 4

Wage and Salary Workers in the Bay Area[a] in Nonagricultural Establishments, by Major Industry Group and Per Cent Change from July 1960 and July 1968

Major industry group	July 1960	July 1968	Per cent change
All wage and salary workers Number (in thousands)	1,157.7	1,568.6	35.5
Mining and construction	79.7	84.9	6.5
Manufacturing	272.8	333.1	22.1
Durable	145.5	205.4	41.2
Nondurable	127.3	127.7	0.3
Transportation and utilities	114.1	146.2	28.1
Trade	245.6	316.9	29.0
Wholesale	80.3	94.0	17.1
Retail	165.3	222.9	34.8
Finance, insurance, and real estate	75.4	101.1	34.1
Services	167.1	272.3	63.0
Government	203.0	314.1	54.7
Federal	69.0	97.1	40.7
State and local	134.0	217.0	61.9

[a]Includes the San Jose Area in addition to the 5 counties of the San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area.

Source: Employment figures from Estimated Number of Wage and Salary Workers in Nonagricultural Establishments by Industry, San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area, 1949-1968 and from Estimated Number of Wage and Salary Workers in Nonagricultural Establishments by Industry, San Jose Metropolitan Area, 1949-1968, Division of Labor Statistics and Research, California Department of Industrial Relations, San Francisco, December, 1968.

Appendix Table B - 5

Major Occupation Group of Employed Persons in the United States and the Bay Area, 1960

Major occupation group	United States	Bay Area[a]
All workers		
Number (in thousands)	64,646.6	1,266.1
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical	11.2	15.0
Managers and officials	8.4	9.5
Clerical	14.4	18.6
Sales	7.2	8.2
Craftsmen	13.5	13.5
Operatives	18.4	12.8
Laborers (except farm and mine)	4.8	4.3
Service	11.1	10.9
Service except private household	8.4	8.7
Private household	2.7	2.2
Farm	6.1	1.2
Farm managers	3.9	0.6
Farm laborers	2.2	0.6
Occupation not reported	4.9	6.0

[a]Includes the San Jose Area in addition to the 5 counties of the San Francisco-Oakland Metropolitan Area.

Sources: Percentages for the United States were computed from U. S. Census of Population, 1960, Final Report, P. C(2)-7C; Table 1. Percentages for the Bay Area were computed from the aggregated totals for the 6 counties in U. S. Census of Population, 1960; General Social and Economic Statistics, Volume 1; Characteristics of the Population, California, Table 84.

Appendix Table B - 6

Major Occupation Group of Employed Persons in the United States, July 1960 and July 1968

Major occupation group	July 1960	July 1968
All workers		
Number (in thousands)	68,689.0	77,746.0
Per cent	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical	10.3	12.7
Managers and officials	10.1	10.1
Clerical	14.4	16.9
Sales	6.4	6.1
Craftsmen	12.9	13.3
Operatives	17.8	18.0
Laborers (except farm and mine)	6.2	5.4
Service	12.4	12.2
Service except private household	9.2	10.1
Private household	3.2	2.1
Farm	9.5	5.3
Farm managers	4.3	2.7
Farm laborers	5.2	2.6

Note: Differences in the total number employed in the United States as between this table and Table B-5 reflect differences in reportage by the Decennial Census of an earlier month in 1960 than the July monthly Report of the Labor Force, as well as certain consistent differences between the two census surveys arising from their different methodologies.

Sources: Percentages for July 1960 computed from Table A-10, Employment and Earnings, Vol. 7, No. 2, August 1960, Bureau of Labor Statistics, U. S. Department of Labor. Percentages for July 1968 computed from Table A-18, Employment and Earnings, Vol. 15, No. 2, August 1968.

Appendix Table B-7

Population in Bay Area Counties by Racial and Ethnic Characteristics, 1960

Racial and ethnic characteristics	All counties	Alameda	Contra Costa	Marin	San Francisco	San Mateo	Santa Clara
Population							
Number	3,291,077	908,209	409,030	146,820	740,316	444,387	642,315
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
White	89.3	84.7	92.6	96.2	81.6	95.7	96.8
Spanish-surname	7.5	7.5	6.1	3.8	7.0	4.4	12.1
Other white	81.8	77.2	86.5	92.4	74.6	91.3	84.7
Nonwhite	10.7	15.3	7.4	3.8	18.4	4.3	3.2
Negro	7.0	12.2	6.2	2.8	10.1	2.5	0.6
Indian	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Japanese	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.4	1.3	0.8	1.6
Chinese	1.7	1.3	0.2	0.3	4.9	0.5	0.4
Filipino	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.1	1.7	0.3	0.4
Other races	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1

Sources: Percentages by race computed from U. S. Census of Population, 1960, General Population Characteristics, California PC (1)-6B, Table 28, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1961. Percentages by Spanish surname computed from data in Californians of Spanish Surname, California Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Fair Employment Practices, San Francisco, California, May 1964.

Appendix Table B - 8

Public School Enrollment in the Bay Area and Per Cent Increase from 1960, by County, 1968/69

County	Enrollment[a]	Per cent of Bay Area	Increase from 1960	
			Number	Per cent
All counties	926,044	100.0	364,583	64.9
Alameda	236,894	25.6	122,765	107.6
Contra Costa	142,349	15.4	40,732	40.1
Marin	46,715	5.0	18,925	68.1
San Francisco	105,892	11.4	17,336	19.6
San Mateo	128,389	13.9	32,091	33.3
Santa Clara	265,805	28.7	132,734	99.7

[a]Combined elementary and secondary public school enrollment. Excludes post-secondary enrollment.

Sources: Directory of Administrative and Supervisory Personnel 1969 (Sacramento: Bureau of Publications, 1969) and Age and Grade Placement of Pupils in California Public Schools, April 1960 (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1964), Tables 17 and 18, pp. 42-56.

Appendix Table B - 9

Public High School Enrollment in the Bay Area and Per Cent Increase from 1960, by County, 1968/69

County	Enrollment	Per cent of Bay Area	Increase from 1960	
			Number	Per cent
All counties	220,706	100.0	94,699	75.2
Alameda	55,760	25.2	19,819	55.1
Contra Costa	38,600	17.5	18,986	96.8
Marin	11,798	5.3	6,123	107.9
San Francisco	21,332	9.7	5,139	31.7
San Mateo	33,221	15.1	11,112	50.3
Santa Clara	59,995	27.2	33,520	126.6

Sources: Directory of Administrative and Supervisory Personnel of California Public Schools, 1969 (Sacramento: Bureau of Publications) and California School Directory 1960/61 (Burlingame: California Association of Secondary School Administrators).

Appendix Table B - 10

Junior College Enrollment in the Bay Area and Per Cent Increase from 1960, by County, 1968/69

County	Enrollment	Per cent of Bay Area	Increase from 1960	
			Number	Per cent
All counties	78,636	100.0	54,341	223.7
Alameda	27,084	34.4	22,338	470.7
Contra Costa	8,537	10.9	5,930	227.5
Marin	3,750	4.8	2,995	396.7
San Francisco	12,182	15.5	5,732	88.9
San Mateo	9,544	12.1	3,565	59.6
Santa Clara	17,539	22.3	13,781	366.7

Sources: Directory of Administrative and Supervisory Personnel of California Public Schools, 1969 (Sacramento: Bureau of Publications) and California School Directory 1960/61 (Burlingame: California Association of Secondary School Administrators).

Appendix Table B - 11

Catholic High School Enrollment in the Bay Area and Per Cent Increase from 1960, by County, 1968/69

County	Enrollment	Per cent of Bay Area	Increase from 1960	
			Number	Per cent
All counties	21,463	100.0	6,044	39.2
Alameda	4,652	21.7	1,105	31.2
Contra Costa	1,424	6.6	1,273	843.0
Marin	1,109	5.2	199	21.9
San Francisco	7,083	33.0	173	2.5
San Mateo	2,241	10.4	7	0.3
Santa Clara	4,954	23.1	3,287	197.2

Source: Department of Education, Archdiocese of San Francisco, San Francisco, California, 1969, and Department of Education, Diocese of Oakland, Oakland, California, 1969.

Appendix Table B - 12

Public School Enrollment in Bay Area Counties by Nonminority and Minority Groups, 1968/69

Nonminority and minority groups	All counties	Alameda	Contra Costa	Marin	San Francisco	San Mateo	Santa Clara
Enrollment							
Number	911,108[a]	232,024	145,875	46,946	94,552	123,248	268,463
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
All nonminority groups	74.2	66.6	83.8	94.1	41.4	83.1	79.4
All minority groups	25.8	33.4	16.2	5.9	58.6	16.9	20.6
Negro	10.8	19.4	8.8	2.6	27.5	6.6	1.8
Spanish-surname	10.7	10.3	5.7	1.9	12.9	7.3	16.2
Oriental	4.1	3.3	1.5	1.3	18.0	2.8	2.4
American Indian	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2

[a]Combined elementary and secondary public school enrollment. Excludes post-secondary enrollment. The above total differs slightly from the comparable figure of 926,044 obtained from published sources.

Source: Unpublished school district data from the California State Department of Education, Bureau of Intergroup Relations (HEW survey from the Office for Civil Rights).

Appendix Table B - 13

Enrolled Children from Families Receiving
Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC)
as a Per cent of Total Public School Enrollment,
by County, Spring 1969

County	Total enrollment[a]	Per cent AFDC children of total enrollment
All counties	926,044	10.1
Alameda	236,894	9.9
Contra Costa	142,349	9.4
Marin	46,715	3.2
San Francisco	105,892	28.3
San Mateo	128,389	4.2
Santa Clara	265,805	7.4

[a]Combined elementary and secondary public school enrollment. Excludes post-secondary enrollment.

Source: Unpublished school district data from the California State Department of Education, Office of Compensatory Education, Bureau of Administration and Finance, Sacramento.

Appendix Table C - 1

The following table was derived from data collected in the Institute's Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967 and is published on p. 208 of the project report, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market. As can be noted, in the instance of no major occupational group did a majority of the sampled employers report that their search for workers was limited to the city where their establishment was located. Recruitment of workers with specialized skills or high educational requirements was understandably conducted over a broad geographic extent. However, only 41 per cent of the sampled employers reported limiting their search for even unskilled workers to the city of location and only 28 per cent limited their recruitment of clerical workers to this extent despite the tendency of women workers to resist time-consuming commutes. The amount of recruitment beyond Bay Area boundaries is particularly indicative of the potential for use of intra- and interstate referral networks.

Area in Which Survey Employers Customarily Recruit Workers, by Major Occupational Group -- Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967, Part II Data

Area	Professional and technical	Mana-gerial	Cleri-cal	Sales	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	Service
All establishments[a]								
Number	126	140	156	77	119	99	106	85
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
City where located	3.2	17.1	27.6	15.6	30.3	32.3	40.6	38.8
Recruitment extended to:								
Bay Area	37.3	35.0	69.2	55.8	60.5	65.7	57.6	55.3
California	11.9	13.7	1.9	6.5	5.0	1.0	--	3.5
Western States	21.4	17.1	--	16.9	1.7	--	--	2.4
United States	23.0	15.0	1.3	5.2	1.7	--	--	--
Beyond United States	3.2	2.1	--	--	.8	2.0	1.8	--

[a]All establishments exclude employers under each major occupational group not employing such workers and employers not providing information. The number of establishments corresponds directly to the number reporting for each occupational group.

Appendix C - 2

Below, follows the Code of Ethics of the National Employment Association as it appears in the publication of that organization, Private Employment Agencies 1969-1970 Directory, Members of the National Employment Association, 2000 K Street N.W., Washington, D.C.

National Employment Association

Code of Ethics

Professional Employment Services are an important part of the Nation's free enterprise system. In seeking to bring qualified candidates, and potential employers together, they perform a valuable service for both business and the public.

The National Employment Association operates for the mutual benefit of its members, employers, and the employment seeking public.

The following areas of responsibility present general principles recognized by the association member, and he shall to the best of his ability:

Responsibility to The Community

Be a contributing part of the community through participation in community activities.

Serve as a reliable source of information on matters pertaining to the employment field.

Responsibility to The Applicant

Strive for the right of every individual who wants the dignity of work to choose his field of endeavor and utilize his abilities and talents for his own fulfillment and the good of his country.

Responsibility to The Employer

Represent the best interests of the employer by acting as an effective extension of the employer's recruitment effort and respect every confidence entrusted by client-companies.

Extend professional service to all qualified employed and unemployed candidates regardless of race, color, creed, religion, national origin, sex, age, income level or physical handicap.

Responsibility to The Nation

Engage actively in preserving the free enterprise system as essential to a continuation of the Nation's growth and strength.

Cooperate in local and national efforts to maintain a high level economy through reduction of national levels of unemployment.

Appendix Table C - 3

The following table concerning recruitment channels for white-collar workers was derived from data collected in the Institute's Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967, and is published on p. 197 of the project report, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market.

Most Important Recruitment Channel Used by Survey Establishments for White-Collar Workers, by Major Occupation Group -- Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967

Most important channel	Professional	Managerial	Clerical	Sales
All establishments[a]				
Number	251	302	304	166
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Informal channels	35.9	82.3	22.3	59.7
Direct hiring	15.5	5.6	15.8	23.6
Recommendations of own employees or "word of mouth"	4.8	1.0	3.6	8.4
From within the establishment	10.0	72.4	1.6	21.7
Referrals from clients, suppliers, and associates	1.2	1.3	--	4.8
Headquarters or divisional employment office, transfers	4.4	2.0	1.3	1.2
Formal channels	58.1	15.0	77.0	37.3
Private employment agencies	20.7	5.6	40.5	13.3
California Department of Employment	--	--	15.5	4.2
School or college placement services	14.3	1.7	1.0	2.4
Unions	1.6	--	4.9	6.6
Newspaper advertising	12.3	2.7	11.8	10.8
Trade or professional journals	4.4	2.0	--	--
Professional or management associations	2.8	1.3	--	--
Civil service lists	4.0	1.7	3.3	--
Other	4.0	2.7	0.7	3.0

[a]Totals exclude establishments not employing workers in a given occupation group and three establishments that did not complete the Part II recruitment table.

Appendix Table C - 4

The following table concerning recruitment channels for blue-collar workers was derived from data collected in the Institute's Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967, and is published on p. 198 of the project report, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market.

Most Important Recruitment Channel Used by Survey Establishments for Blue-Collar and Service Workers, by Major Occupation Group -- Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967

Most important channel	Skilled	Semi-skilled	Un-skilled	Service
All establishments[a]				
Number	247	239	244	207
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Informal channels	27.8	34.7	30.8	37.7
Direct hiring	10.9	14.2	24.2	33.3
Recommendations of own employees	3.6	1.7	2.9	2.9
From within the establishment	11.3	13.4	--	--
Recalls	2.0	5.4	3.7	1.5
Formal channels	69.4	64.9	68.0	62.3
Private employment agencies	3.6	1.7	2.0	5.3
California Department of Employment	8.1	9.2	17.6	15.5
Unions	42.8	44.8	40.6	30.9
Newspaper advertising	11.7	7.1	4.9	7.7
Civil service lists	3.2	2.1	2.9	2.9
Other	2.8	0.4	1.2	--

[a]Totals exclude establishments not employing workers in a given occupation group and three establishments that did not complete the Part II recruitment table.

Appendix Table C - 5

The following table shows year-by-year percentage changes from 1960 in the number of licenses issued to general employment agencies in California as a whole. Similar data are not available for the Bay Area in published form. The 36 per cent increase recorded by 1968 for the State has more value for registering the amount of gain that occurred over these years in the number of licenses in force, however, than it has as an indication of developments affecting the segment of the industry that transacts the largest share of its business. As discussed earlier in connection with our sample selection of private agencies, it appears irrefutable that these licensing figures for definitional and other reasons are considerably larger than the number of agencies that could be regarded as of sufficient substance and durability to be included in this study. Hence, the rate of increase for this larger mass should be materially slower than for the firms forming the industry's more active component, particularly for those having an average or above-average number of paid employees -- a contention sustained by the data in Appendix Table C - 6.

Number of Licensed General Private Employment Agencies in California, 1960-1968

Year	Number of general agencies[a]	Per cent change from 1960
1960	963	
1961	976	1.3
1962	1,105	14.7
1963	1,032	7.1
1964	1,031	7.1
1965	1,121	16.4
1966	1,114	15.7
1967	INA	INA
1968	1,314	36.4

[a]General agencies are all agencies other than theatrical and motion-picture, artists' managers, labor contractors, farm labor contractors, and nurses' registries.

Sources: Percentages computed from number of agencies as shown for the years 1960-1966 on page 5 of Placements and Fees of Private Employment Agencies in California, 1966, Department of Industrial Relations, Division of Labor Law Enforcement, San Francisco, California, January 1968. Unpublished figure for 1968 obtained from the Department of Professional and Vocational Standards, Bureau of Employment Agencies.

Appendix Table C - 6

Another source of data as to the number and employment of private employment agencies are the employment figures reported quarterly to the California Department of Employment by employers covered by unemployment insurance. This group of firms, however, excludes the substantial number of agencies which are operated by proprietors and partners and, if staffed additionally, have as personnel only unpaid family workers. It can be expected, therefore, that the 1960-68 changes shown in the table below will be of greater magnitude than those characteristic of the entire industry. Further, these figures are not completely comparable with the license totals for general employment agencies or with the establishments included in our sample. The agencies shown in this table do include labor contractors and nurses' registries although theatrical and motion-picture agencies are excluded. The number of labor contractors with paid employees in the Bay Area should be small as is the number of nurses' registries. Thus, this element of noncomparability should not greatly affect the applicability of the trends shown to the larger general employment agencies of the Bay Area.

Despite their several limitations for our purposes, the figures on the following table have the added virtue of indicating the differential rates of growth by county of these agencies since 1968.

Number of Private Employment Agencies Having Employment and Number of Employees, by County, July 1960-July 1968

County	Number of agencies		Number of employees		Per cent change 1960-1968	
	1960	1968	1960	1968	Number of agencies	Number of employees
All counties	99	186	569	1,789	87.9	214.4
Alameda	20	39	72	203	95.0	181.9
Contra Costa	4	12	11	99	200.0	800.0
San Francisco and Marin	43	73	362	1,214	69.8	235.4
San Mateo	11	19	23	81	72.7	252.2
Santa Clara	21	43	101	192	104.8	90.1

Source: Per cents computed from unpublished 3-digit industry, by-county employment data for establishments covered by unemployment insurance.

Appendix D - 1

Our intent in asking school counseling departments to characterize their schools as primarily comprised of students from middle and upper socioeconomic levels, lower socioeconomic levels, etc. (as Question 7 - Section I appears in the published schedule) was to establish this variable for the population of schools. When it became apparent that this information could also be gathered in terms of the percentage distribution of the individual student bodies, we proceeded to do so. If the data on socioeconomic levels are presented for the three types of schools by percentage of student bodies in the middle and upper levels (above an annual income of $4,000 for the student's family) our findings are as follows:

Estimated Per Cent of Student Bodies in Public and Catholic High Schools and Junior Colleges, by Socioeconomic Level of Student Families, 1968/1969

Socioeconomic level[a]	Type of school		
	Public high school	Catholic high school	Junior college
All student bodies			
Number	33,252	3,748	52,869
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0
At upper and middle socio-economic level	69.4	91.1	64.2
At lower socioeconomic level	30.6	8.9	35.8

[a]Estimates as to distribution of student bodies by socioeconomic status reflect the counselor's interpretation of school records at his disposal.

Appendix E - 1

According to Your Benefit Program, a pamphlet prepared by the California State Personnel Board, Sacramento, California, January 1965 edition, the State employee's benefit program had a cash value of 26 per cent of his salary in 1964. For the various benefits received, the State paid the following percentages of the average salary, according to this most recently-published information on the subject:

Benefit	Per cent of average employee's salary
Total benefit program	26
State Employee's Retirement System	7
Social Security	2
Vacation	6
Holidays	4
Rest periods	3
Sick leave	2
Health insurance	1
Workmen's Compensation	1
Miscellaneous leaves with pay	*

*Less than half of one per cent.

Appendix E - 2

The major features of California's retirement system for State employees are as follows:

State employees are eligible to retire and receive a monthly annuity when they reach age 55 and have at least $500 on deposit in the retirement fund or have 20 years of credited service. The normal retirement age is 60; the compulsory retirement age is 70.

The basic benefit formula for a voluntary service retirement provides one-sixtieth (1/60th) of an employee's "final compensation" (highest average monthly salary earnable over three consecutive years of service) for each year of credited service on retirement at age 60. For 30 years of service at age 60 the annuity would equal 30/60th or 1/2 of "final compensation."

If employees become incapacitated to perform the duties of their positions and have over $500 on deposit in the retirement fund, or at least 10 years of credited service, they may be eligible to retire for disability with a monthly annuity.

State employees who were appointed after November 6, 1961 have coordinated coverage of the State Employee's Retirement System and Social Security. For employees who have the coordinated coverage, a modification of the 1/60th formula applies to the years during which coverage was by Social Security. Retirement annuities under the State system as well as the Social Security System are partially financed by monthly employee contributions on a graduated percentage of salary, and the State matches each employee contribution to the retirement fund.

Appendix F - 1

The following tables concerning the use of public and private employment agencies were derived from data collected in the Institute's Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, and are published on pp. 218, 219, 225, and 226 of the project report, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market.

Reasons for Frequent Use of California Department of Employment -- Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967

Reasons for frequent use	All responses
All responses[a]	
Number	213
Per cent	100.0
Good source of workers	54.5
Good source in general -- no occupation specifically mentioned	25.8
White-collar workers, including clerical and sales	8.9
Blue-collar workers	6.6
Unskilled workers	6.6
Specialized personnel, including professional and technical	2.3
Has applicants available	2.8
Knows needs of employer	1.4
Reasons associated with nonuse of other channels	6.5
Objects to payment of fee (to private agency) by the applicant	4.2
Objects to such fee payment by the employer	2.3
Uses to obtain greater or maximum coverage	12.2
Policy of the employer always to list	3.8
Uses a tax-supported public service	3.8
Uses when other sources cannot supply workers	5.2
When civil service lists are not adequate	3.3
When union cannot supply workers	1.9
Uses as a source of minority group applicants	1.4
Other	12.7

[a]Total includes all responses by the 167 establishments reporting frequent use of the CDE; some establishments mentioned more than one reason.

Appendix F - 1, continued

Reasons for Infrequent Use or Nonuse of California Department of Employment -- Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967

Reasons for infrequent use or nonuse	All responses
All responses[a]	
Number	154
Per cent	100.0
Unfavorable comments	35.4
Is not a good source in general; poor or unsatisfactory results	16.6
Inadequate screening of applicants; sends people without appropriate qualifications	13.0
Not a good source of well qualified or high calibre people	5.8
Uses other sources	32.3
Direct hiring	13.6
Unions	11.0
Advertising	3.2
Private agencies	2.6
Civil service lists	1.9
No need	8.4
Favorable comments (explaining occasional use)	8.9
Good source of white-collar workers	3.2
Good results in general	1.9
Uses to obtain greater or maximum coverage	1.9
Uses as a source of minority group applicants	1.9
Other	15.0

[a]Total includes all responses of the 142 establishments reporting infrequent or rare use of the California Department of Employment; some establishments mentioned more than one reason.

Appendix F - 1, continued

Reasons for Frequent Use of Private Employment Agencies --
Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967

Reasons for frequent use	All responses
All responses[a]	
Number	192
Per cent	100.0
Good source of workers	77.1
Good source in general; no particular occupation group mentioned	13.5
Good screening of applicants	20.8
White-collar workers, including clerical and sales	23.5
Specialized personnel, including professional and technical	9.4
Well qualified or high calibre people	2.6
Knows needs of establishment	4.7
Have applicants available	2.6
Uses to obtain greater or maximum coverage	7.8
Convenient	2.6
Uses when union cannot supply applicants	2.1
Other	10.4

[a]Total responses of the 151 establishments that reported frequent use of private employment agencies; some establishments mentioned more than one reason.

Appendix F - 1, continued

Reasons for Infrequent Use or Nonuse of Private Employment Agencies -- Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967

Reasons for infrequent use or nonuse	All responses
All responses[a]	
Number	202
Per cent	100.0
Uses other sources	35.2
Direct hiring	12.8
Unions	9.4
Advertising	4.5
Department of Employment	3.5
Referrals of own employees	2.5
School placement agencies	2.5
Unfavorable comments	7.5
Not a good source in general	2.5
Inadequate screening of applicants	2.0
Not a good source of specialized personnel	1.5
Not a good source of white-collar workers	1.5
Objects to payment of fee	16.7
By applicants	9.8
By establishment	6.9
No need	9.4
Prevented by statute or administrative regulation (government agencies)	5.9
Not the policy of the establishment to list	1.5
Favorable comments (explaining occasional use)	14.9
Other	8.9

[a]Total responses of the 158 establishments reporting infrequent or rare use of private employment agencies; some establishments mentioned more than one reason.

Appendix F - 2

Data for the following table concerning the use of tests by employers were collected for the Institute's report, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market and are published on p. 280.

Extent of Use of Aptitude or Other Tests by Survey Establishments in Selection of Workers by Major Occupational Group -- Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967

Major occupational group	Total		Uses tests	Does not use tests
	Number	Per cent		
Professional and technical	258	100.0	31.8	68.2
Managerial	303	100.0	22.4	77.6
Clerical	305	100.0	59.0	41.0
Sales	177	100.0	38.4	61.6
Skilled	244	100.0	31.6	68.4
Semiskilled	238	100.0	29.8	70.2
Unskilled	244	100.0	27.0	73.0
Service	206	100.0	23.3	76.7

[a]The total for each occupational group excludes employers not employing such workers and employers not providing information.

Appendix F - 3

We found considerable confirmation of the views of both public and private employment agency managers as to the "saleability" of the liberal arts degree in our interviews with sample Bay Area employers for the Institute's earlier survey. Although the following table is derived from data pertaining only to recruitment for potential managers, these are the jobs that would fall within the aspirations of most college graduates. This table is published on p. 278 of the Institute's report, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market.

Majors or Courses of Study Preferred by Survey Establishments for Potential Managers -- Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967

All establishments[a]	
Number	134
Per cent	100.0
Business administration	41.0
Engineering	30.6
Natural sciences	10.5
Humanities[b]	8.2
Major "providing background appropriate to the job"	6.0
Other majors or courses of study	3.7

[a]The total excludes employers not requiring a college degree for managers, and employers not providing information. The number of responses exceeds the number of establishments as some employers mentioned more than one preference.

[b]Humanities include mathematics majors.

Appendix G - 1

Below is the test-selection list of one of the sample junior colleges, showing the wide range of tests that may be given to help in the career-planning process.

NAME_____ DATE_____

COUNSELOR_____ SPECIAL INSTRUCTIONS_____

Test Assigned		Date Taken
	ACHIEVEMENT TEST	
_____	S.T.E.P.	_____
_____	Writing	_____
_____	Listening	_____
_____	Math	_____
_____	Social Studies	_____
_____	Science	_____
_____	Reading	_____
	ACADEMIC APTITUDE	
_____	Calif. Test of Mental Maturity	_____
_____	College Qualification Test	_____
_____	Co-op. Engl. Expression	_____
_____	Co-op. Read. Comprehension	_____
_____	Gen. Aptitude Test Battery (GATB)	_____
_____	G.E.D. (high school form)	_____
_____	Henmon Nelson Test of Men. Abil.	_____
_____	Ohio State Psych. Exam.	_____
_____	Stanford Binet Intell. Test	_____
_____	Otis Test of Mental Abil.	_____
_____	Wechsler Adult Intell. Scale	_____
	SPECIAL APTITUDES	
_____	Army General Class. Test	_____
_____	Bennett Mech. Comprehension	_____
_____	Calif. Study Methods Survey	_____
_____	Davis Reading Test	_____

Appendix G - 1, continued

SPECIAL APTITUDES
(continued)

_____	Differential Aptitude Test	_____
_____	Numerical	_____
_____	Language	_____
_____	Abstract Reasoning	_____
_____	Verbal Reasoning	_____
_____	Clerical	_____
_____	Space Relations	_____
_____	Mechanical	_____
_____	Engin. and Phys. Sci. Aptitude	_____
_____	General Clerical Test	_____
_____	Graves Design Judgement	_____
_____	Macquarrie Test of Mech. Ability	_____
_____	Minn. Clerical Test	_____
_____	Minn. Paper Form Board	_____
_____	Nelson Denny Reading Test	_____
_____	New Purdue Placement Test in Eng.	_____
_____	Pre-Engin. Ability Test	_____
_____	Stanford Science Aptitude	_____
_____	Watson Glaser Crit. Think. Appar.	_____

COLLEGE OF MARIN PLACEMENT TESTS

_____	Chemistry Placement	_____
_____	Co-op. Math: Algebra I	_____
_____	Co-op. Math: Algebra II	_____
_____	Co-op. Math: Trigonometry	_____

INTEREST TESTS

_____	Kuder Pref. Record: Vocational	_____
_____	Michigan Vocab. Profile Test	_____
_____	Strong Voc. Int. Blank: Men	_____
_____	Strong Voc. Int. Blank: Women	_____
_____	Kuder DD	_____

Appendix G - 1, continued

PERSONALITY INVENTORIES

_____	Adjective Check List	_____
_____	AVL Study of Values	_____
_____	Bell Adjustment Inventory	_____
_____	California Psych. Inventory	_____
_____	Kuder Pref. Record: Personal	_____
_____	M.M.P.I.	_____
_____	Omnibus Personality Inven. (OPI)	_____
_____	Rotter Incomplete Sentence	_____

REMARKS

Appendix H

Appendix Table H - 1

Willingness of Survey Establishments to Participate in Industry-Wide Conferences, by Major Industry Group

Major industry group	Total		Per cent of establishments		
	Number	Per cent	Willing to participate	Not willing to participate	Other[a]
All establishments[b]	291	100.0	75.9	16.5	7.6
Mining and construction	25	100.0	80.0	16.0	4.0
Manufacturing					
Durable goods	53	100.0	75.4	18.9	5.7
Nondurable goods	60	100.0	71.6	20.0	8.4
Transportation and utilities	26	100.0	61.6	23.1	15.3
Trade					
Wholesale[c]	12	100.0	50.0	33.3	16.7
Retail	31	100.0	71.0	16.1	12.9
Finance, insurance, and real estate	25	100.0	84.0	4.0	12.0
Services	32	100.0	87.5	12.5	--
Government	27	100.0	92.6	7.4	--

[a]Includes establishments for which decision to participate would have to be made at a higher level of the organization and respondents who were undecided.

[b]Total excludes establishments that did not provide information.

[c]Percentages based on fewer than 15 cases.

Source: Unpublished data from Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967.

Appendix Table H - 2

Willingness of Survey Establishments to Release Projections of Future Employment Levels for Use in Forecasting, by Major Industry Group

Major industry group	Total		Per cent of establishments		
	Number	Per cent	Willing to release projections	Not willing to release projections	Other[a]
All establishments[b]	226	100.0	72.6	9.7	17.7
Mining and construction	8	100.0	87.5	-	12.5
Manufacturing					
Durable goods	46	100.0	71.8	15.2	13.0
Nondurable goods	50	100.0	72.0	8.0	20.0
Transportation and utilities	18	100.0	61.0	11.1	27.9
Trade					
Wholesale[c]	10	100.0	60.0	20.0	20.0
Retail	20	100.0	65.0	10.0	25.0
Finance, insurance, and real estate	21	100.0	66.7	9.5	23.8
Services	28	100.0	78.6	10.7	10.7
Government	25	100.0	88.0	-	12.0

[a]Includes establishments for which decision to release projections would have to be made at a higher level of the organization and respondents who were undecided.

[b]Total excludes establishments that did not believe they could prepare "reasonably accurate" projections or that did not provide information.

[c]Percentages based on fewer than 15 cases.

Source: Unpublished data from Bay Area Employer Policy Survey, 1967.

Appendix Table H - 3

The following table concerning employer labor needs for labor market information was derived from data collected in the Institute's Bay Area Employer Policy Survey and is published on p. 255 of the project report, Employer Policies in a Changing Labor Market.

Types of Labor Market Information Needed in Planning Recruitment Efforts, by Number of Employees --

(Data are based on five responses of establishments)

Types of labor market information	Total	Less than 250	250 to 499	500 to 999	1,000 to 1,999	2,000 and over
All responses[a]						
Number	424	117	106	75	58	68
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Current wage rates	38.3	48.8	36.8	34.7	34.5	29.4
Labor demand/supply developments in specific occupations	20.0	17.9	19.8	21.3	20.7	22.1
Information concerning comparative adequacy of labor in various geographic areas	16.7	14.5	15.1	17.3	22.4	17.6
General employment trends in the Bay Area and in the state	16.5	17.1	17.0	14.7	13.8	19.1
Modifications in qualification standards for specific occupations	8.5	1.7	11.3	12.0	8.6	11.8

[a]Total excludes establishments that indicated they did not require any of the designated types of labor market information; total exceeds the number of establishments reporting, since some employers mentioned more than one type of information.

Appendix Table I - 1

First Most Important Need of School Counselors Which if Filled Would Permit More Adequate Day-to-Day Occupational Counseling, by Type of School

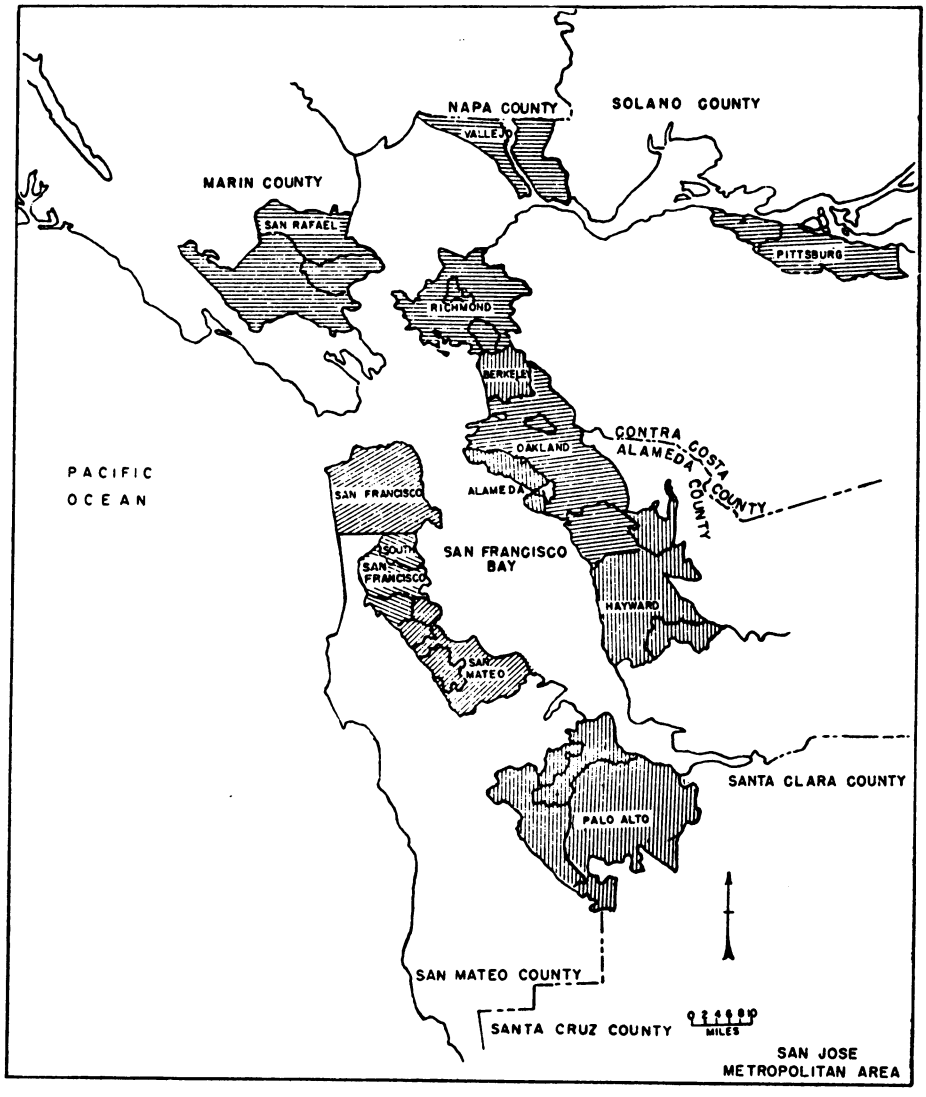
Bay Area Placement and Counseling Survey, 1968

First most important need[a]	All schools	Type of school: Public high schools	Catholic high schools	Junior colleges
All schools				
Number	31	19	4	8
Per cent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
General structure, organization, or physical plant	38.7	31.6	50.0	50.0
Lower student-counselor ratio	29.0	26.3	25.0	37.5
More assistance or better facilities	9.7	5.3	25.0	12.5
Labor market information	16.1	10.5	25.0	25.0
Organization and staffing for occupational guidance	16.1	26.3	-	-
Community involvement of counselors	9.7	10.5	-	12.5
Testing and other information relating to counselees	6.5	5.3	-	12.5
Professional training and updating	3.2	-	25.0	-
Employment opportunities for students	3.2	5.3	-	-
Other	6.5	10.5	-	-

[a]Based on first of up to five responses per counselor who was requested to name five most important needs in descending order of importance.

Appendix J - 1

SAN FRANCISCO BAY REGION
COMMUNITY LABOR MARKET AREA BOUNDARIES



Appendix K

INSTITUTE OF INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

2521 Channing Way
University of California
Berkeley, California 94720

BAY AREA STUDY OF EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES AND SCHOOL PLACEMENT SERVICES

School Counselors' Interview Schedule

All information reported on this interview schedule together with any that may be supplied on other documents will be held in strict confidence. No information from these sources will be published in such manner that data relating to individual counselors or schools can be identified.

A study of employment agencies, both public and private and of school placement services is now being conducted by the Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, Berkeley. This study, in turn, represents one phase of a comprehensive, in-depth survey of the Bay Area labor market. An earlier part of this survey, a study of employer policies and practices, including those related to the recruitment and selection of workers has already been completed.

To supplement the information now being gathered from a wide variety of Bay Area placement agencies and services concerning their policies and procedures, we are asking a limited number of school counselors for data drawn from their experience and for their opinions on various subjects related to counseling.

School counselors are important users of labor market information, much of which is generated in the placement process. The opinions of school counselors, therefore, should be reflected in any appraisals as to the amount and type of information needed for satisfactory vocational counseling and in any evaluations of the adequacy of the information now available for this purpose.

For this reason, your cooperation in completing the following schedule will be particularly appreciated.

Name(s) and Title(s) of Person(s) Supplying Information	Phone Number(s)	Name of Interviewer:
		Date:

School: _____

SCHOOL COUNSELOR'S INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. IDENTIFICATION AND BACKGROUND

1. Name of School or Training Agency: _____

   _____

2. Address: _____

3. Type of School:

   a. Secondary School ☐ Junior College ☐

   College or University ☐ Other ☐ , specify: _____

   b. Public ☐ Private ☐ Other ☐ , specify:

   _____

4. Are students enrolled:

   Primarily in academic programs? ☐

   Primarily in vocational programs? ☐

   Significantly in both types of programs? ☐

   Other ☐, specify: _____

   _____

5. If vocational programs are included in the curriculum, list principal programs, specifying any that combine work experience with course instruction: _____

   _____

6. Are vocational programs, including those which combine work experience with course instruction, now receiving more emphasis than in 1960? Yes _____ No _____

   a. If Yes, give details as to trends: _____

   _____

7. Are students drawn primarily from:

Middle and upper socioeconomic levels? ☐

Lower socioeconomic levels? ☐

Other ☐, specify: _____

_____

8. What is the approximate racial composition of the student body at the present time? _____

_____

a. Describe the approximate racial composition of the student body in 1960: _____

_____

9. Approximately what percentage of the graduates can be expected to:

Enter a 4-year college? _____ a 2-year college? _____

a trade school? _____ the military? _____ marry? _____ seek employment? _____

other? _____ , specify: _____

II. ORGANIZATION, STAFFING AND FUNCTIONS OF COUNSELING UNIT

1. How many employees are now assigned to counseling activities? _____

   (Date: _____)

   a. Of this number, how many are:

      (1) Counselors, full-time? _____ Counselors, part-time? _____

      (2) In teaching, or administrative classifications and engaged in counseling activities, full-time? _____ part-time? _____

      If (2) is answered, give details: _____

      _____

      (3) In other classifications and engaged in counseling activities, full-time? _____ part-time? _____

      If (3) is answered, give details: _____

      _____

   b. What is the usual counselor/student ratio of a full-time counselor?

      _____

   c. How many students are now enrolled? _____ (Date: _____)

2. How many employees were assigned to counseling activities in 1960? _____

   a. Of this number, how many were counselors, full-time? _____ counselors, part-time? _____

   b. How many students were enrolled in 1960? _____

3. To whom is the Counselor responsible? _____

   a. To whom is the Head Counselor responsible? _____

4. Describe briefly the assignments of counseling staff, indicating any specialization that may exist: _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. Describe briefly the types of relationships that may exist among counselors and administrators, teachers, school psychologists and others within and outside the school to assist the total school counseling program or the counseling of individual students:

_____

_____

6. What assistance does the Counselor receive from the California Department of Employment in connection with his counseling activities?

_____

_____

7. What assistance does the Counselor receive from other agencies and groups in the community in connection with his counseling activities?

_____

_____

_____

8. Do all students receive counseling in occupational planning?

Yes _____ No _____

a. If No, approximately what percent of all students do receive such counseling? _____%

9. Has the proportion of all students receiving counseling in occupational planning changed significantly since 1960? Yes _____ No _____

a. If Yes, has this proportion:

Risen significantly? ☐ If checked, from ___% of total to ____%

Fallen significantly? ☐ If checked, from ___% of total to ____%

Other? ☐, specify: _____

_____

10. On the average, how many times per year does the student see a counselor? _____

    a. What percent of these student contacts are required - for programming or other reasons? _____%

    b. What percent occur at the option of the student? _____%

11. Are all students given tests to determine their vocational aptitudes and/or interests? Yes _____ No _____

    a. If No, approximately what percent of all students are given such tests? _____%

12. Under what circumstances are students tested to determine their vocational aptitudes and/or interests?

    a. In connection with a general testing program? ☐ _____

    b. In relation to a specific guidance course? ☐ _____

    c. At the student's request? ☐ _____

    d. Other circumstances? ☐ _____

13. Has the proportion of all students given tests to determine their vocational aptitudes and/or interests changed significantly since 1960? Yes _____ No _____

    a. If Yes, has this proportion:

    Risen significantly? ☐ If checked, from ____% of total to _____%

    Fallen significantly? ☐ If checked, from ____% of total to _____%

    Other? ☐, specify: _____

14. Typically, what percent of the Counselor's work load reflects assistance to students in educational-vocational planning and decision-making (i.e., planning their job futures) _____%, assistance in the solution of their purely educational problems _____%, their social and personal difficulties _____%, various administrative duties such as processing absence excuses _____% or other duties? _____% specify: _____

    a. If the Counselor is a part-time instructor what subjects does he teach? _____

15. Typically, what proportion of the Counselor's time is available to him for the conduct of research, job surveys, or student follow-up studies as apart from the duties that involve his "seeing" students, teachers and parents? _____

16. Is clerical or other help available to the Counselor to assist him in preparing and maintaining necessary school and student records? Yes _____ No _____

    a. If Yes, in your opinion is this assistance adequate in amount? Yes _____ No _____

17. Is help available to the Counselor to assist him in collecting and maintaining current information and published materials on changing occupational needs and opportunities for use in working with the students? Yes _____ No _____

    a. If Yes, who provides this assistance? _____

    _____

    b. If Yes, in your opinion is this assistance adequate in amount?

    Yes _____ No _____

18. Describe the kinds of vocational counseling and guidance materials for use in occupational counseling available in this school or training agency: _____

    _____

    a. How are these materials acquired? _____

    _____

    b. Where are these materials located? _____

    _____

    c. How are these materials maintained? _____

    _____

    d. How are the contents of these materials made available to or related to the students? _____

    _____

19. Describe briefly the kinds of audiovisual aids for use in vocational counseling available in this school or training agency:

    _____

    _____

    _____

20. Describe the information which is assembled by the Counselor to assist the student in the latter's arriving at such decisions as the selection of a college preparatory or vocational curriculum or whether or not his formal education should be continued: _____

_____

_____

21. Does the school participate in such events as "Career Days"? Yes ___ No ___

a. If Yes, describe the nature of such participation: _____

_____

_____

22. Does the school curriculum include courses (or parts of courses) concerning the "world of work"? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes,

a. Describe the content and orientation of these course(s):

_____

_____

_____

b. What is the Counselor's relationship to this instruction?

Is he:

The instructor? ☐

A resource person? ☐

Other? ☐, specify: _____

23. Does the school maintain a placement service? Yes _____ No _____

a. If Yes,

(1) Describe the service, indicating the qualifications and activities of the person(s) maintaining it: _____

_____

_____

(2) Describe the relation of the Counselor to this service:

_____

_____

b. If No,

(1) What placement services are offered to students seeking temporary jobs? _____

_____

(a) How would you characterize the adequacy of these services?

_____

(2) What placement services are offered to terminal students seeking career-type jobs? _____

_____

(a) How would you characterize the adequacy of these services?

_____

_____

24. Does the school have a program aimed specifically at the prevention of school dropouts? Yes _____ No _____

    a. If Yes, describe: _____

    _____

    _____

    b. If Yes, what is the relation of the Counselor to this program?

    _____

    _____

25. Of the total number of counselors:

    a. How many have completed all requirements for the special counselor's credential? _____

    b. How many have been issued this credential on a "postponement of requirements" basis? _____

26. Of the current staff of counselors, how many have occupied their posts for the following numbers of years? Less than one year _____ One to three years _____ Three to five _____ Five to ten _____ More than ten _____

27. What are the average first-year earnings of a fully qualified Counselor in your school or training agency? _____

    What were the highest annual earnings paid a fully qualified Counselor in your school or training agency last year? _____

    a. Describe any employee benefits that may be furnished:

    _____

    _____

    _____

III. INFORMATION NEEDS OF COUNSELORS

1. Of the published materials available to the staff of this school or training agency, which (in order of their value) do you consider the three most useful for vocational counseling and guidance? (Exclude school catalogues)

Title	Author or Publisher

2. Of the published vocational counseling and guidance materials available to students for their direct use, which three (in order of their use) do you believe the students consult most frequently? (Exclude school catalogues)

Title	Author or Publisher

3. Do you have available for use in your day-to-day vocational counseling and guidance activities,

   a. Information on current job opportunities? Yes _____ No _____

      (1) If Yes, describe: _____

      _____

   b. Information on future job prospects? Yes _____ No _____

      (1) If Yes, describe : _____

      _____

      _____

4. As to information on current job opportunities, how would you rank (in order of their importance to your counseling activities) data relating to the following geographic areas? (1,2, 3 only)

☐ This city	☐ Western Region*
☐ Bay Area as a whole	☐ Nation
☐ California	☐ Other geographic area, specify _____

a. In your opinion, is sufficient information now available to you of the above types you believe most important? Yes ____ No ____

b. Have you any suggestions as to how the supply of such information available to you might be increased? _____

_____

5. As to information on future job prospects, how would you rank (in order of their importance to your counseling activities) data relating to the following time periods? (1,2,3 only)

☐ Job prospects within the next 5 years

☐ Job prospects within the next 5 to 10 years

☐ Job prospects beyond 10 years

☐ Other, specify: _____

_____

* Defined as: States of Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Hawaii, Idaho, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, Washington, Wyoming.

6. As to the content of future job prospects information, how would you rank (in order of their importance to your counseling activities) data reflecting the following subject matter areas? (1, 2, 3 only)

- [ ] Information concerning long-term trends of growth or decline in specific occupations or families of occupations
- [ ] Information concerning long-term trends of growth or decline in specific industries
- [ ] Information concerning the probable economic growth or decline of specific geographic areas
- [ ] Information concerning changes in the knowledges or skills generally required of workers
- [ ] Information concerning changes in the aptitude, education and training requirements for specific jobs.
- [ ] Other, specify: _____

_____

7. From what individuals, organizations, or groups in your community do you receive information in other than published form which you regard as useful in vocational counseling and guidance? (List in order of the usefulness to you of the information received.) (1, 2, 3 only)

First: _____

Second: _____

Third: _____

(7)a. Describe briefly, the types of information received from the three sources above you regard as most helpful.

First: _____

_____

_____

Second: _____

_____

_____

Third: _____

_____

_____

8. Within the past five years, have you or, to your knowledge, has this school district conducted a one-time or continuing survey of immediate job opportunities available in this community? Yes _____ No _____

a. If Yes, give details: _____

_____

9. Within the past five years, have you or, to your knowledge, has this school district conducted a one-time or continuing study of the long-range job outlook in this community? Yes _____ No _____

a. If Yes, give details: _____

_____

10. Do you believe that the informational needs for a satisfactory vocational counseling and guidance program directed to students from low socioeconomic and/or minority-group backgrounds differ significantly from those of a program primarily geared to students from a middle-class background? Yes _____ No _____

(10) a. If Yes, describe the kinds of information and the manner of their presentation which you believe are particularly needed in counseling students from low socioeconomic and/or minority-group backgrounds:

_____

_____

_____

11. Other than students from a low socioeconomic or minority-group background whose vocational counseling and guidance you may or may not believe presents particular informational needs, are there other types of students in your school or training agency whose satisfactory vocational guidance, you believe, presents particular informational needs?

Yes _____ No _____

a. If Yes, indicate these types of students as follows:

- [ ] The academic course student
- [ ] The general course student
- [ ] The vocational course student
- [ ] The commercial course student
- [ ] The potential dropout
- [ ] The low ability student
- [ ] Adult students seeking retraining
- [ ] Adult students seeking reentry to the labor market
- [ ] Other, specify: _____

(11) b. If any of the above has been checked, describe the kinds of information and the manner of their presentation which you believe are particularly needed in counseling each type of student indicated:

Type of student	Informational needs

12. What in descending order of priority (most important, next important, etc.) do you consider your five greatest needs which, if filled, would enable you to do a more adequate day-to-day job of vocational counseling and guidance than is possible at the present time?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix L

INSTITUTE OF INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

2521 Channing Way
University of California
Berkeley, California 94720

BAY AREA STUDY OF EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES AND SCHOOL PLACEMENT SERVICES

Interview Schedule

All information reported on this interview schedule together with that which may be supplied on unpublished statistical tables or other documents will be held in strict confidence. No information from these sources will be published in such manner that data relating to individual establishments can be identified.

This study of employment agencies, both public and private, and of school placement services, represents one phase of a comprehensive survey of the Bay Area Labor Market now being conducted by the Institute of Industrial Relations, University of California, Berkeley. A survey of employer policies and practices, including those related to recruitment and selection has preceded this study.

To supplement the information contained in this schedule, we are requesting, whenever such materials are available:

> Copies of advertisements, brochures, or other published items of your agency or service, particularly where these include information as to the applicants you have available, the job openings you seek to fill, or the services you furnish applicants and employers ☐

Name(s) and Title(s) of Person(s) Supplying Information	Phone Number(s)	Name of Interviewer:
		Date:

Organization: _____

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

I. IDENTIFICATION AND MAJOR CHARACTERISTICS OF AGENCY OR SERVICE

1. Name: _____

2. Address: _____

3. Type of organization:

   a. Public ☐ Private ☐ Public School or College ☐
   Private School or College ☐ Professional Nonprofit ☐
   Other ☐ specify _____

   b. Single Unit ☐ Branch Unit ☐ Other ☐
   specify _____

   c. If your agency or service is a unit within another establishment, holds a franchise from another establishment, or is a branch of a larger establishment, give establishment's:

   (1) Name: _____

   (2) Address: _____

   (3) Principal activities: _____

   _____

4. Type of services provided:

   a. Does agency or service specialize in placing workers in specific occupations or industries or in placing workers with special characteristics? Yes ☐ No ☐

   If Yes,

   (1) What occupations?

   _____

   _____

   _____

(2) What industries?

_____

_____

(3) What worker characteristics?

_____

_____

_____

b. If placement services are specialized on some other basis than the above, describe: _____

_____

5. Are most of the work applicants served by this office residents of this city? Yes _____ No _____

a. Are significant numbers of the applicants you serve residents of:

Other cities in county ☐

Other cities in the Bay Area ☐

Other areas of California ☐

States other than California ☐

Other, specify _____ ☐

6. Are most of the places of business of employers served by this office located in this city? Yes _____ No _____

a. Are significant numbers of the establishments you serve (either directly or in cooperation with other branches of your agency) located in:

Other cities in county ☐

Other cities in the Bay Area ☐

Other areas of California ☐

States other than California ☐

Other, specify _____ ☐

7. If your agency or service functions within defined geographic limits, describe the area of its jurisdiction or customary operations: _____

_____

8. Does your agency or service provide other than placement services (a job match) to job seekers? Yes _____ No _____

   a. If Yes, what are these services?

   _____

   _____

9. Does your agency or service provide other than recruitment services to employers? Yes _____ No _____

   a. If Yes, what are these services?

   _____

   _____

II. ORGANIZATION OF AGENCY OR SERVICE

1. How many workers were employed by your agency or service in:

   July 1960? _____ July 1968? _____ Currently _____ (Date _____)

   a. List the units or activities of your agency or service included in the above employment figures:

      July 1960 _____

      July 1968 _____

2. Of these totals,

   a. How many workers* were engaged in nonagricultural employment service activities in: July 1960? _____ July 1968? _____ Currently? _____

      (1) If the figures shown above differ significantly as between July 1960 and July 1968, give reasons:

      _____

      _____

   b. How many workers* were engaged in placement activities in July 1960? _____ July 1968? _____ Currently? _____

   c. How many workers* were engaged in counseling in July 1960? _____ July 1968? _____ Currently? _____

3. Of the workers* shown in Question 2a above as engaged in nonagricultural employment service activities in July 1968, how many were in managerial and professional classifications _____ clerical classifications _____ other classifications _____ specify _____?

*Express as full-time personnel equivalents

4. Indicate by percent as nearly as possible the proportions of total staff time (i.e., that of the staff reported in Question 2a above) devoted to the following activities:

	July 1960	July 1968
a. Total	100%	100%
(1) Employability development		
(2) Employer relations and placement		
(3) Manpower employment information		
(4) Administrative and technical support		

b. If the proportions shown above differ significantly as between July 1960 and July 1968, give reasons:

(1) _____

(2) _____

(3) _____

(4) _____

III. PLACEMENT STAFF

1. What are the average first-year earnings of a fully qualified placement worker in your office? _____ What were the highest annual earnings paid a fully qualified placement worker in your office last year? _____

   a. Do commissions or bonuses comprise part of these earnings?

      Yes _____ No _____

   b. Describe any employee benefits that may be furnished:

      _____

      _____

      _____

2. Describe the minimum qualifications required (or if there are no stated requirements, your preferences) for employment in your office as a fully qualified:

   a. Placement Worker

	Required	Preferred*
(1) Educational Attainment (amount and major course of study)	_____	_____
(2) Years of Work Experience	_____	_____
(3) Type of Work Experience	_____	_____
(4) Other, specify _____	_____	_____

   b. What percent of your present fully qualified placement personnel substantially meet the specified requirements or preferences shown above? _____%

* Use "preferred" column only when no stated requirements exist.

c. How many employees now on your staff are being trained, formally or informally, to become fully qualified placement workers? _____

3. Describe the extent to which placement personnel are specialized:

a. By industry _____

_____

b. By occupation _____

_____

c. By specific employer account _____

_____

d. By other criteria _____

_____

4. Do placement personnel who place applicants in a given industry, customarily:

a. Take employer job orders for this industry? Yes _____ No _____

b. Visit employers representing this industry? Yes _____ No _____

c. Counsel applicants interested in jobs in this industry?

Yes _____ No _____

d. Supply labor market information concerning this industry?

Yes _____ No _____

(1) If Yes,

(a) To others in this office? Yes _____ No _____

(b) To other levels of organization? Yes _____ No _____

(c) To schools or training agencies? Yes _____ No _____

(d) To individuals or groups outside this office? Yes _____ No _____

(2) For each "Yes" give details as to type of information and frequency of communication:

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____

5. Do placement personnel who place applicants in a given occupation, customarily:

a. Take employer job orders for workers in this occupation?

Yes _____ No _____

b. Visit employers in connection with recruiting workers in this occupation? Yes _____ No _____

c. Counsel applicants interested in jobs in this occupation?

Yes _____ No _____

d. Supply labor market information concerning this occupation?

Yes _____ No _____

(1) If Yes,

(a) To others in this office? Yes _____ No _____

(b) To other levels of organization? Yes _____ No _____

(c) To schools or training agencies? Yes _____ No _____

(d) To individuals or groups outside this office? Yes _____ No_____

(2) For each "Yes" give details as to types of information and frequency of communication:

(a) _____

(b) _____

(c) _____

(d) _____

6. Do placement personnel who place applicants with specific employers as assigned, customarily:

   a. Take employer job orders from these specific employers?

      Yes _____ No _____

   b. Visit these specific employers? Yes _____ No _____

7. If placement workers are not specialized by industry, occupation, or specific employer, do they, nonetheless:

   a. Take employer job orders? Yes _____ No _____

   b. Make employer field visits? Yes _____ No _____

   c. Counsel applicants? Yes _____ No _____

   d. Supply labor market information? Yes _____ No _____

      (1) If Yes,

         (a) To others in this office? Yes _____ No _____

         (b) To other levels of organization? Yes _____ No _____

         (c) To schools or training agencies? Yes _____ No _____

         (d) To individuals or groups outside this office? Yes _____ No _____

      (2) For each "Yes" give details as to types of information and frequency of communication:

         (a) _____

         (b) _____

         (c) _____

         (d) _____

8. Are any of your placement workers assigned definite placement responsibility for workers with special characteristics?

Yes _____ No _____

a. If Yes, are these special worker groups:

High School Students ☐ College Students ☐

Youth ☐* College Alumni ☐ Older Workers ☐

Minority Group Workers ☐ Handicapped Workers ☐

Veterans ☐ Other ☐ specify: _____

b. If any of above are checked, show the staffing arrangements for each program:

Staffing		Program(s)
☐	One placement worker, part-time, serves the program(s) indicated opposite:	
	Worker A	_____
	Worker B	_____
	Worker C	_____
☐	One placement worker, full-time, serves the program(s) indicated opposite:	
	Worker A	_____
	Worker B	_____
	Worker C	_____

* Check "Youth" only when specialization exists for the young worker as such and as apart from his student status.

☐ More than one worker, full-time or part-time, serves the programs indicated opposite: (Express in full-time personnel equivalents)

A _____

B _____

C _____

☐ Other arrangement, specify:

_____

_____

_____

9. Have your placement workers received training related to the placement process such as order taking, application taking, use of labor market information, etc., in the past year? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, describe:

a. Subject matter of training: _____

b. Length of training: _____

c. Number of placement workers trained: _____

10. Of your current staff of placement workers who are fully qualified, how many have occupied their jobs in this office for the following number of years? Less than one _____ One to three _____ Three to five _____ Five to ten _____ More than ten _____

IV. COUNSELING STAFF

1. Is employment counseling in your agency or service given:

   Exclusively or predominately by designated individuals with the classification of counselor? ☐

   In conjunction with placement activity, and by placement workers? ☐

   Other, give details: ☐

   _____

   _____

2. If a separate counselor classification exists in your agency or service, what are the average first-year earnings of a fully qualified counselor? _____ What were the highest annual earnings paid a fully qualified counselor in your office last year? _____

   a. Do commissions or bonuses comprise part of these earnings?

      Yes _____ No _____

   b. Describe any employee benefits that may be furnished:

      _____

      _____

      _____

3. Describe the minimum qualifications required (or if there are no stated requirements, your preferences) for employment in your office as a fully qualified:

a. Counselor

	Required	Preferred*
(1) Educational Attainment (amount and major course of study)	_____	_____
(2) Years of Work Experience	_____	_____
(3) Type of Work Experience	_____	_____
(4) Other, specify _____	_____	_____

b. What percent of your present fully qualified counselors substantially meet the specified requirements or preferences shown above? _____%

c. How many persons now on your staff are being trained, formally or informally, to become fully qualified counselors? _____

d. Does your staff include counselor aides (or semiprofessional workers, however designated) who assist in some part of the counseling function? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, describe for these workers, their:

(1) Recruitment _____

(2) Qualifications _____

(3) Functions _____

* Use "preferred" column only when no stated requirements exist.

4. Does a given type of applicant account for a predominant portion of the counseling interviews given in this office? Yes _____ No _____

   If Yes, describe: _____

5. Approximately what proportion of your past year's counseling workload has reflected the counseling of:

   High School Students _____ College Students _____ Youth* _____

   College Alumni _____ Minority Group Workers _____ Older Workers _____

   Reentrants to the Labor Force _____ Veterans _____

   Handicapped Workers _____ U. I. Claimants _____ Relief Clients _____

   Applicants seeking or enrolled in training _____

   Post placement Counselees _____ Other, specify: _____

   a. If "High School Students" was checked in Question 5 above, does this office have a formal arrangement with a local high school or schools to provide counseling for these students? Yes _____ No _____

   b. If Yes, describe: _____

   _____

6. Are any of your counselors specifically assigned counseling responsibility for any of the applicant groups indicated in Question 5 above? Yes _____ No _____

   If Yes, for which groups has such specialized responsibility been assigned? _____

   _____

* Check "Youth" only when specialization exists for the young worker as such and as apart from his student status.

7. Of the total number of individuals in this office significantly engaged in counseling, how many customarily counsel full-time? _____ part-time? _____

8. What is the average length of an initial counseling interview? _____ of a subsequent counseling interview?_____

   a. What is the usual ratio of total to initial counseling interviews in this office?_____

   b. If the length of counseling interviews given to different types of applicants differs significantly, give details: _____

   _____

   c. Describe the range of problems for which applicants are usually counseled: _____

   _____

   _____

   d. Describe the content of the information usually imparted to an applicant during a counseling interview: _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

9. Do counselors customarily:

   a. Take employer job orders? Yes _____ No _____

   b. Serve as placement officers? Yes _____ No _____

   c. Make employer field visits? Yes _____ No _____

   d. Maintain close contacts with the representatives of local schools and colleges? Yes _____ No _____

   e. Maintain close contacts with the representatives of local groups serving disadvantaged workers? Yes _____ No _____

   f. Work with local Veteran groups? Yes _____ No _____

   g. Work with local professional or commercial associations? Yes _____ No _____

   h. Work with local apprenticeship councils? Yes _____ No _____

   i. Supply information concerning their current counseling experience:

      (1) To others in this office? Yes _____ No _____

      (2) To other levels of the organization? Yes _____ No _____

      (3) To representatives of the schools or training agencies? Yes _____ No _____

      (4) To individuals or groups outside this office? Yes _____ No _____

10. If counselors, directly or through channels supply representatives of schools or training agencies or individuals or groups outside this office with information derived from their counseling experience, give details as to the type of information and frequency of communication:

(3) _____

(4) _____

11. Have your counselors received training related to counseling in the past year? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, describe:

a. Subject matter of training: _____

b. Length of training: _____

c. Number of counselors trained: _____

12. What published or unpublished materials available in your office do the counselors find most useful for reference in the performance of their counseling? _____

_____

_____

13. Of your current staff of counselors, how many have occupied their jobs in this office for the following number of years?

Less than one _____ One to three _____ Three to five _____

Five to ten _____ More than ten _____

V. PROCEDURES OF AGENCY OR SERVICE

1. What percentage of your total referrals would you estimate are made:

   a. Without file search? _____%

   b. What percentage are made following file search? _____%

   c. In locating job opportunities for which you have applicants, what percentage of your referrals involves utilizing the services of other branches of your organization within this city? _____% within the Bay Area? _____% or outside the Bay Area? _____%

   d. In locating applicants for whom you have job opportunities, what percentage of your referrals involves utilizing the services of other branches of your organization within this city? _____% within the Bay Area? _____% or outside the Bay Area? _____%

   e. In situations where you "share orders" with or act upon the job orders of another branch of your organization or another agency, briefly describe the procedures followed:

   _____

   _____

   (1) Describe any problems you may be encountering with these procedures: _____

   _____

f. If the nature and/or volume of your interactions with other branches of your organization or another agency in connection with your referral activities has changed significantly since 1960, give details: _____

_____

g. In what percentage of your referrals are you assisted by such mechanized referral aids as computerized data search and retrieval? _____% a telecommunications network? _____%

other such aids _____% Specify: _____

If any of the above listed in "g" contribute to your referral process, describe: _____

_____

2. Under what circumstances do you customarily engage in job development?

_____

_____

a. Describe the extent of your efforts at job development: _____

_____

_____

3. Under what circumstances do you customarily attempt to enlarge your supply of applicants? _____

_____

a. Describe the means used to enlarge the supply of available applicants: _____

_____

4. What percentage of the job openings you receive would you estimate require close and detailed screening of applicant qualifications against job specifications in order to effect a placement? _____%(Define)_____

a. Do you check applicant references? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, describe the extent of this checking: _____

_____

b. Do you require detailed work histories or job resumés? Yes ____ No _____

If Yes, are these validated? Yes _____ No _____

c. Do you administer tests in connection with the placement process? Yes _____ No _____

(1) If Yes, list the tests administered:

_____

(2) If Yes, describe the extent to which such tests are given:

_____

d. Do you administer tests in connection with your counseling? Yes _____ No _____

(1) If Yes, list the tests administered:

_____

(2) If Yes, describe the extent to which such tests are given:

_____

_____

5. Do you have any procedures or sources of information enabling you to estimate how long all or some of the workers you place on other than casual, temporary, or limited-time jobs remain at work with the employer to whom you referred them? Yes _____ No _____

   a. If Yes, what percentage of the workers placed by your office would you estimate are at work:

      One month after hire? _____ %

      Three months after hire? _____%

      Six months after hire? _____%

   b. If the above percentages differ materially by occupation ☐ industry ☐ worker characteristics ☐ pay scale ☐ or other ☐, give details: _____

      _____

      _____

6. In terms of the job openings you receive, what worker traits or deficiencies characterize the hard-to-place worker? _____

_____

a. Does your office make special efforts to develop job opportunities for workers who are only marginally placeable? Yes _____ No _____

b. If Yes,

(1) What are the types of workers for whom you make special efforts?

_____

(2) What is the nature of your efforts for workers of each type named above?

Types of workers	Efforts
_____	_____
_____	_____

(3) How would you characterize the success of your efforts in obtaining additional job openings for workers of each of these types?

Types of workers	Success of efforts
_____	_____
_____	_____

7. In addition to, or instead of, special efforts at job development for workers of these types, do you make special efforts for their "employability development"? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, towards workers of which types are your efforts directed and what kinds of efforts are made?

Types of workers	Kinds of efforts
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

8. Does your office maintain contact with local community, business, or minority group organizations in order to expand the number of minority group applicants you have available for referral? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes,

a. What is the nature of your efforts in this connection?

_____

_____

b. How would you characterize the success of your efforts in obtaining more minority group applicants for referral?

_____

_____

9. Describe the type and importance of direct employer recruitment or "positive recruitment" in your operations as follows:

a. Approximately how many employers' recruiters used your facilities for direct recruitment in January-June, 1968? _____

b. Approximately how many referrals of applicants registered in your office resulted from this activity in January-June, 1968? _____

c. Approximately how many placements resulted from the above referrals in January-June, 1968? _____

d. Has the volume of direct employer recruitment conducted in your office changed significantly from 1960 to 1968? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, give details: _____

_____

e. What were the principal industries represented by employers' recruiters in your office in January-June, 1968?

_____

_____

If the industries represented in 1968 were significantly different from those represented in 1960, give details:

_____

_____

f. What were the occupations in which employers' recruiters were most actively seeking workers in January-June, 1968?

_____

_____

If the occupations in which workers were principally sought have changed significantly from 1960 to 1968, give details:

_____

_____

g. Were employers' recruiters seeking workers with any particular characteristics in January-June, 1968? Yes _____ No _____

If Yes, specify these characteristics: _____

_____

If the worker characteristics sought have changed significantly from 1960 to 1968, give details: _____

_____

/To be Answered by School Placement Services Only/

10. Describe the relations of your placement service with other employment agencies, both public and private, as they involve:

a. Cooperative arrangements as to vocational counseling and guidance _____

_____

b. Obtaining labor market information _____

_____

c. Placement _____

_____

d. Other services _____

_____

/To be Answered by Nonpublic Agencies Only/

11. Are fees charged for your placement services? Yes _____ No _____

    If Yes,

    a. In what percentage of your placements does the employer pay the fee? _____%

    b. In what percentage does the applicant pay the fee? _____%

    c. If the practice of fee payment differs significantly by occupation:

    In what occupations is the employer most likely to pay the fee? _____

    In what occupations is the worker most likely to pay the fee? _____

12. Does your office supply applicant services other than placement for which a fee is charged? Yes _____ No _____

    If Yes, describe: _____

    _____

13. Does your office supply employer services other than recruitment for which a fee is charged? Yes _____ No _____

    If Yes, describe: _____

    _____

VI. WORKLOAD OF AGENCY OR SERVICE

General

1. As nearly as can be estimated, distribute by percent of the number of applicants contacting your office over a representative period of recent date, that type of service* the applicant most likely received:

Applicants - Total	100%
Referred to employer for job	_____
Referred to training	_____
Referred to another agency for service other than training	_____
Given service other than job referral by your office (including counseling)	_____
No service given	_____

(* Assign priority to the service received in the order listed above.)

a. Where applicants were referred to another agency for service other than training, what was the service for which they were customarily referred? _____

_____

b. Where applicants were given service other than referral by your office, what was the service customarily given?

_____

_____

c. On the average, what is your referral/placement ratio? _____

New Applications and Referrals

2. How many workers applied to your office for jobs

   In July 1960? _____ In July 1968? _____

   To the extent possible, distribute the July 1968 total of your new applicants as follows:

a. Total	_____	100%
Men	_____	_____
Women	_____	_____
b. Total	_____	100%
Negro	_____	_____
Mex.-Am.	_____	_____
Other	_____	_____
c. Total	_____	100%
Under 22	_____	_____
22 - 44	_____	_____
45 and over	_____	_____

3. How many referrals to nonagricultural jobs were made by your office

   In July 1960? _____ In July 1968? _____

Job Openings and Placements

4. How many job openings did your office receive

   In July 1960? _____ In July 1968? _____

5. How many job openings remained unfilled in your office at the end

   Of July 1960? _____ Of July 1968? _____

6. How many placements in nonagricultural jobs were made by your office

   In July 1960? _____ In July 1968? _____

   To the extent possible, distribute the July 1968 total of your nonagricultural placements as follows:

a. Total	_____	100%	Definition
Short-term	_____	_____	_____
Permanent	_____	_____	_____
b. Total	_____	100%	
Men	_____	_____	
Women	_____	_____	
c. Total	_____	100%	
Negro	_____	_____	
Mex.-Am.	_____	_____	
Other	_____	_____	
d. Total	_____	100%	
Under 22	_____	_____	
22 - 44	_____	_____	
45 and over	_____	_____	

7. Distribute by major occupational group your July 1968 total of job openings received as follows:

Public agencies			Private agencies		
Occupational group	Number	Percent	Occupational group	Number	Percent
Total		100.0			100.0
Prof., tech. & mgr.					
Clerical					
Sales					
Domestic					
Service exc. dom.					
Farming, fishing, forestry & related					
Other					

8. Distribute by major occupational group your July 1968 total nonagricultural placements as follows:

Public agencies			Private agencies		
Occupational group	Number	Percent	Occupational group	Number	Percent
Total		100.0			100.0
Prof., tech. & mgr.					
Clerical					
Sales					
Domestic					
Service exc. dom.					
Farming, fishing, forestry & related					
Other					

9. Distribute by industry group your July 1968 total nonagricultural placements as follows:

Industry group	Number	Percent	Comments
Total		100.0	
Forestry, fisheries, mining			
Construction			
Manufacturing			
Transportation and utilities			
Wholesale and retail trade			
Finance, insurance and real estate			
Services other than private household			
Private household			
Government			
Federal			
State			
Local			
International			
NEC			

Other Workload

10. How many counseling interviews were given in your office

In July 1960?		In July 1968?	
Total _____	Initial _____	Total _____	Initial _____

11. How many applicants received such other services from your office in July 1968 as:

Referral to MDT Institutional-type training	_____
Referral to CEP	_____
Referral to OJT	_____
Referral to NYC	_____
Referral to Job Corps	_____
Other, specify	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

12. How many employer visits were made by the staff of your office

In July 1960? _____ In July 1968? _____

VII. INFORMATION NEEDED BY AGENCY OR SERVICE

1. What types of information do you need in your office to carry on an optimum placement operation? _____

   _____

   _____

   a. Do you believe the information you receive for this purpose is adequate? Yes _____ No _____

   b. If No, what are your suggestions for improvement? _____

   _____

   _____

2. What types of information do you need in your office to carry on an optimum counseling operation? _____

   _____

   a. Do you believe the information you receive for this purpose is adequate? Yes _____ No _____

   b. If No, what are your suggestions for improvement? _____

   _____

   _____

3. Are there serious shortcomings in the existing reporting and record-keeping procedures used by your organization in producing information directly useful to you for placement? Yes _____ No _____

   a. If Yes, describe: _____

   _____

   _____

   b. Have you suggestions for improvement? _____

   _____

   _____

4. Are there serious shortcomings in the existing reporting and record-keeping procedures used by your organization in producing information directly useful to you for counseling?

   Yes _____ No _____

   a. If Yes, describe: _____

   _____

   _____

   b. Have you suggestions for improvement? _____

   _____

   _____

VIII. IMPACT OF THE AGENCY OR SERVICE

1. What do you believe to be the most important services your office can perform for the community in which it is located? (List in order of their importance in your view)

   First: _____

   Second: _____

   Third: _____

2. Does your office now have the capabilities to provide each of these services? Yes _____ No _____

   If No, what are the reasons? _____

   _____

   _____

3. Have you received indications from users that would reflect satisfaction with the services that your office provides? Yes _____ No _____

   If Yes, describe: _____

   _____

   _____

4. Have you received indications from users that would reflect dissatisfaction with the services that your office provides? Yes _____ No _____

   If Yes, describe: _____

   _____

5. If you have received indications of dissatisfaction that you would regard as justified, what do you believe is needed to improve your services? _____

   _____

   _____