

AN ALTERNATIVE EMPLOYMENT STRATEGY
FOR RURAL YOUTH

by

GERTRUDE ANN JAMISON-HODGES

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Signature of Author

[Handwritten Signature]
Department of Urban Studies and Planning

December 18, 1979

Certified by

[Handwritten Signature]
Karen Polenske
Thesis Supervisor

Accepted by

[Handwritten Signature]
Langley Keyes
Chairman, Departmental Graduate Committee

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ABSTRACT

This thesis proposes an alternative employment strategy that was designed by and for rural youth. The strategy is couched in what is being called Youth Employment and Development Centers (YEDCs). The strategy takes the form of an employment training program, but, in fact, is much more. Employment and training are both provided in the program design. However, the unique feature is that they are provided in an environment that was constructed by rural youth in Mississippi. Furthermore, employment and training are only a portion of the array of services provided by YEDCs. The YEDCs are to be, basically, a youth-operated project providing supportive services to youth. The YEDC concept contends that, if rural youth are to be integrated into the labor economy, their whole environment must be impacted to include their families, their schools, and their communities.

The YEDCs proposes, as part of its operational concept, to increase the employability of rural youth by providing intervention mechanisms for altering existing systems as well as increasing youth employability through the provision of employment development services.

Thesis Supervisor: Karen Polenske
Title: Associate Professor of Urban and Regional
Studies

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INTRODUCTION

This thesis is about an alternative employment strategy designed by and for rural youth. The strategy is couched in what is being called Youth Employment and Development Centers (YEDCs). The strategy takes the form of an employment training program, but, in fact, is much more. Employment and training are both provided in the program design. However, the unique feature is that they are provided in an environment that was constructed by rural youth in Mississippi. Furthermore, employment and training are only a portion of the array of services provided by the YEDCs. The YEDCs are to be, basically, a youth-operated project providing supportive services to youth. The YEDC concept contends that, if rural youth are to be integrated into the labor economy, their whole environment must be impacted to include their families, their schools, and their communities.

The thesis is presented in two main chapters. Each chapter has two parts providing a full perspective on the chapter's focus. Chapter I, Part I, provides the rural context for looking at the YEDCs. A scenario of rural life is presented by contrasting and comparing rural life from a general perspective in the United States to rural life in Mississippi, in particular, the areas the YEDCs seek to operate in. Chapter II, Part II, follows up with the employment and training programs that have attempted to address the problems of unemployment and poverty in the past. Included

in this examination of employment and training policy is an analysis that speaks to their success and failure.

The objective of Chapter II is to provide a detailed description of the YEDC program. Chapter II, Part I reveals how the YEDC concept came about and the activities that led to its inception. Included is a description of the YEDC component activities. Chapter II, Part II, questions the YEDC approach and presents a justification of the program design. The exemplary features of the YEDC design are noted and a framework for analyzing the effectiveness of the program design is given.

The YEDC approach is not entirely a new concept. It borrows from the employment training models established under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 (MDTA) as expounded in Chapter I, Part II. The YEDC approach takes the process one step farther than prior models. It seeks to alter and to intervene into youth lives to effectuate a change-- a change in youth and the environment they live in.

CHAPTER I

Chapter I presents the contextual background for looking at the YEDC concept. Presented is the rural environment that the YEDC will find its place in. Additionally, the programs that have sought to address rural poverty and unemployment ills are presented in Part II.

CHAPTER I

PART I

Rural Development in the United States

James L. Walker in "The Current Structure and Dimensions of Rural Poverty in the South" maintains that poverty is a disproportionately Southern phenomenon based on the incidence of poverty being 50 percent higher in the South than for the nation in 1970. In short, the South's rate was twice that of the non-South at the time of the 1970 census.¹ Part of this can be attributed to the South's continued reliance on agriculture in a large rural society. In the wake of accelerating inflation and rising unemployment, the plight of the Southern poor darkens. So we see that to talk about poverty in rural America is a discussion of poverty in the South.

In recent years the South has undergone more socio-economic changes than any other region of the United States. This contention was supported by a study conducted by the Southern Regional Council in 1975. The long process of conversion from a traditionally low-wage agricultural society to one which participates increasingly in the moderate wage manufacture of goods and services, together with the effort to eradicate longstanding discriminatory practices, has indented the poverty stronghold.

Despite the recent strides the South remains profoundly poor. The 1970 Census showed that the South (Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia and West Virginia) contained

45 percent of the nation's poverty population though it contains roughly 30 percent of the nation's population.²

Within the South, there is a discrepancy between states and their level of well being. Of particular interest is Mississippi, the location of the proposed Youth Employment and Development Centers (YEDC's). Mississippi is predominantly a rural state. The state, however, is not governed by the rural dwellers who are in a majority, rather life is governed by the urban centers. Depending upon how you define urban, there are roughly four urban centers in the state, including Jackson, the capital of Mississippi. These centers serve as life lines to the rural areas. It is in the urban centers where the major economic activities take place. While the urban centers serve as umbilical cords for the pocket communities, they also serve as a funnel that draws the labor resources from the pocket communities. Additionally, the urban centers monopolize federal and state attention in terms of funding allocations. State economic development efforts are 'targeted' to "best bet" areas. "Best bet" areas are those areas that show good potential of simulating urban life in the short run. Rural life in Mississippi is different than rural life in the Northwest or East of the U.S. or developing countries' rural areas.

Rural Mississippians are caught in static poverty. Static poverty that began with the technical transformations in the agricultural economy but has been stagnated by 'benign neglect' imposed by urban bias and racial discrimination. Another feature of rural Mississippi that places Mississippi in a class of its own is its proportion of black population to white.

There are primarily two races--black and white. A few American Indians and Asians spot the state but not in significant numbers. Mississippi is roughly 50:50 in black-to-white population. Mississippi has a higher percentage of blacks than any other state. The black population is concentrated in the Delta part of the state and in and around the capital, Jackson. The black population is concentrated in the more agricultural areas of the state. 1970 Census data reported that 46 percent of the black population were rural nonfarm. This indicates that there were large numbers of blacks in rural areas on or off the farmland who depended on some way of life other than farming to survive. Less than 5 percent of blacks are farmers and farm managers. From 1960 to 1970 black employment in agriculture dropped 72 percent. 41 percent of the black farmworkers from 1965-1970 were counted as not in the labor force meaning that they had not found a way to earn a living.

To substantiate the claims of poverty in rural America, particularly the rural south with attention given to Mississippi, an examination of rural life and its implications for youth is presented. I will review rural life in terms of Population, Income and Employment, Health, Education, and Housing.

Population

The rural population in the U.S. has remained at about the same level, 54 million, for the past five decades. In 1973, 40 percent of the nation's poor lived in rural areas a share far greater than the rural share of the total population (31 percent). Three-fifths of the rural

population was composed of farm people in 1920; by 1970, the proportion was only one-fifth and today even less. Decline in agriculture employment has accounted for outmigration of the farm population³.

The total population in the target area as of 1970 was nearly 22,000. Census data of 1978 reports that youth between the ages of 14 and 24 totaled 5,100 or 23 percent of the population in the target towns. Youth 16-21 years of age make up 17 percent of the total population, or approximately 3,825 persons. The Black population constitutes 65-99 percent of these communities.

In terms of sheer numbers alone youth are making their presence known in Mississippi. According to the Mississippi Employment Security Commission, Mississippi's youth population has risen from less than 300,000 in 1960 to a projected total of over 435,000 for Fiscal Year 1979. (See Table 1.) The proportion of youth within the total population of the state has also increased dramatically. Whereas the 16 to 24 age bracket accounted for only 12.4 percent of the populace in 1960 and 16.1 percent in 1970, it is anticipated that the proportion will reach 18.0 percent for FY 1979. The increasing number of youth makes it necessary that Mississippi began to think seriously about how youth can be integrated into the labor economy.

Income and Employment

There is a general lower level of income in rural areas than compared with urban areas. Even within the rural frame, poverty prevails among certain groups more than others.

Poverty has been substantially more prevalent among the minority population than among the total population, and greatest of all among minorities living in the most rural nonfarm counties. A 1970 study showed

Table 1

MISSISSIPPI POPULATION

WHITE

<u>Ages</u>	<u>Male</u>			<u>Female</u>		
	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1979*</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1979*</u>
Under 16	207,780	207,860	212,440	197,460	197,710	206,480
16 - 19	45,180	54,610	62,300	40,940	51,290	59,020
20 - 24	41,510	58,220	73,010	40,320	57,760	69,330
Over 24	330,540	363,490	424,850	353,820	403,980	474,020
TOTAL	625 010	684,180	772,600	632,540	710,740	808,850

NONWHITE

<u>Ages</u>	<u>Male</u>			<u>Female</u>		
	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1979*</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1979*</u>
Under 16	208,040	171,920	155,010	206,340	171,030	153,610
16 - 19	35,910	40,880	43,870	35,320	40,740	43,590
20 - 24	24,920	24,160	40,860	28,000	28,940	43,140
Over 24	174,050	152,820	157,310	208,010	191,500	202,570
TOTAL	442,920	389,780	397,050	477,670	432,210	442,910

*Projected

Source: Mississippi Employment Security Commission, Youth Employment, Table 1, 1978.

that almost 60 percent of the minority persons in the most rural county had incomes below the low-income threshold.⁴

The income variation in rural areas is most noticeable in the South. As previously stated, the rate of southern poverty differs considerably from the rate of poverty in the rest of the U.S. There is also a great variation in income distribution among Southern states. In 1970, the national median family income was \$9590. Mississippi and Arkansas had median incomes approximately 65 percent of the national median and ranked considerably below the plurality of Southern states which fell within the range of 75-90 percent of the national figure. (See Table 2.)

In 1975 when the country was experiencing a per capita personal income (in dollars) of \$5,852, Mississippi was at \$4,044. The participating towns are in counties that registered a low per capita personal income of \$2,598 to a "high" of \$4,479. Hinds County, the home of the state capitol, Jackson, and the spoke of industrial development in the State, experienced a per capita personal income of \$5,622.

The wage earnings of rural Mississippians is indicative of the employment structure in the area. There are few manufacturing and industrial job opportunities in and around the Delta region of Mississippi. The Delta is commonly characterized by its desolate, economically deprived condition. Like many other areas in the South, the Delta for over 200 years relied on agriculture, an agrarian economy, to serve as its economic base. The monumental flight from the farm to the city left only those who could not leave - the young, the old, and the very poor. The flight literally drained the Delta of needed human resources.

Table 2

MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME BY RACE AND RATIO OF
BLACK TO WHITE INCOME, 1970

	<u>Total</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Black</u>	<u>Black as % of White</u>
Alabama	\$7,266	\$8,208	\$4,048	49.5%
Arkansas	6,273	6,828	3,455	51.0
Florida	8,267	8,818	4,983	56.9
Georgia	8,167	9,179	4,743	51.8
Kentucky	7,441	7,604	5,128	68.0
Louisiana	7,530	8,820	4,004	45.6
Maryland	11,063	11,635	7,701	66.2
Mississippi	6,071	7,578	3,202	42.3
North Carolina	7,774	8,507	4,803	56.6
Oklahoma	7,725	8,003	4,529	61.2
South Carolina	7,621	8,761	4,444	50.8
Tennessee	7,447	7,872	4,839	61.7
Texas	8,490	8,930	5,334	60.4
Virginia	9,049	9,767	5,742	59.1
West Virginia	7,415	7,494	4,851	65.7
United States	\$9,590	\$9,961	\$6,067	63.3%

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1970, GENERAL SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS, state volumes, PC(1)-C series, Table 57. Taken from the "Current Structure and Dimensions of Rural Poverty in the South," pg. 31.

The decade of the sixties saw an accelerated movement of manufacturing into the region, and within some states growth in higher-paying service industries (finance, insurance, and real estate; professional and related services; and public administration) was substantial. However, employment opportunities in the region are still more concentrated than those of the more mature economy of the nation as a whole in low-wage extractive and light manufacturing industries. And, despite the fact that employment growth and industrial diversification have improved, labor force utilization in the evolving Southern industrial structure is still imperfect. Also, despite progressive trends, the South still has a greater proportion of its labor force employed by the agricultural industry than does the rest of the nation.^{5 5}

There are limited data available on the employment situation of youth in the target areas, however, county and state data on youth should provide some evidence of their situation. According to 1977 employment data from the Mississippi Employment Security Commission, all the counties included in the program (with the exception of Hinds) experienced high unemployment during this period. When the state unemployment rolls were at 7.4 percent in 1977, the participating town's county unemployment exceeded 9 percent. The percentages were higher in the individual target town. Despite the high unemployment, all segments of the youth population have shown significant increases in the degree of labor-force participation since 1960 except Black (non-white) males. (See Table 3.)

It is estimated that for FY 1979, nearly one out of every four persons in Mississippi's labor force will be between 16 and 24 years of age. Out of a total labor force of 1,017,900 roughly 252,000 will be youth.

Table 3

MISSISSIPPI

YOUTH LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES

<u>Ages</u>	<u>WHITE</u>					
	<u>Male</u>			<u>Female</u>		
	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1979*</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1979*</u>
16 - 17	31.9	27.6	42.0	14.7	13.2	25.6
18 - 19	60.7	57.1	76.4	36.2	38.3	52.7
20 - 24	82.0	81.1	93.8	42.3	51.7	65.2

<u>Ages</u>	<u>NONWHITE</u>					
	<u>Male</u>			<u>Female</u>		
	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1979*</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>	<u>1979*</u>
16 - 17	32.6	15.0	22.2	14.4	8.0	14.9
18 - 19	56.2	39.7	46.4	25.1	23.8	29.3
20 - 24	80.3	69.7	77.0	38.6	46.3	51.0

*Projected

Source: Mississippi Employment Security Commission, Youth Employment Table 5.

Of these youth over 78,000 will be minority race members while nearly 100,000 will be females. (See Table 4.) It is further estimated that the unemployed segment of the labor force will number some 69,200. Persons under the age of 25 will account for over 30,000 of the jobless, a highly disproportionate 43.7 percent of the total. This can be partially explained by the fact that the youthful worker generally is less skilled, less experienced, and has little job seniority. When job layoffs occur, youths are often among the first to go. For similar reasons they are among the last to be reemployed. As a result, unemployment rates for youth are considerably higher than for older workers. The rates are projected to range from 10.8 percent for 20 to 24 year olds, to 13.8 percent for 18 to 19 year olds and 15.5 percent for the 16 to 17 year age group. White youths should have slightly lower unemployment rates while minority races and females will tend towards even higher rates. (See Table 5.) Youth unemployment rates are also apt to range much higher during summer months due to the influx of students into the job market. Even when the economy is healthy, there are simply not enough jobs available to accommodate all the young people who want to work while school is out. It is projected that some 91,510 different youths who want to work will be out of a job at some time or other during FY 1979. Over half of these will be minority group members, nearly half will be females.

Based on past trends, it is also anticipated that a solid majority of youths will not work a full year during FY 1979. Only about 20.0 percent will work for 50 weeks or more. About 15.6 percent will work for three months or less and two out of five will not work at all during FY 1979. Smaller proportions of both females and minorities will be fully employed, while even larger percentages will not work at all.⁶

Table 4
MISSISSIPPI

LABOR FORCE BY AGE, RACE AND SEX
FY 1979*

<u>Ages</u>	<u>All Individuals</u>	<u>Males</u>		<u>Females</u>	
		<u>White</u>	<u>Nonwhite</u>	<u>White</u>	<u>Nonwhite</u>
16 - 17	28,760	13,090	4,860	7,560	3,250
18 - 19	55,940	23,810	10,180	15,560	6,390
20 - 24	167,090	68,460	31,470	45,170	21,990
Over 24	776,110	342,990	108,720	223,680	90,720
TOTAL	1,017,900	448,350	155,230	291,970	122,350

*Projected

Source: Mississippi Employment Security Commission, Youth Employment,
Table 8.

Table 5

MISSISSIPPI

YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT
FY 1979*

Ages	All Individuals		Male				Female			
	No.	Rate	White		Nonwhite		White		Nonwhite	
	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate
16 - 17	4460	15.5	1600	12.2	1090	22.4	810	10.7	960	29.
18 - 19	7710	13.8	2450	10.3	2000	19.6	1700	10.9	1560	24.
20 - 24	18090	10.8	4210	6.1	4840	15.4	3750	8.3	5290	24.
Over 24	38940	5.1	10840	3.2	9020	8.3	9720	4.3	9360	10.
TOTAL	69200	6.9	19100	4.3	16950	10.9	15980	5.5	17170	14.

*Projected

Source: Mississippi Employment Security Commission, Youth Employment, Table 3.

The income and employment data suggest that there needs to be a particular focus on black youth if they are to enter the labor force in Mississippi. It appears that white youth are finding channels into the labor economy. A channel must be provided for rural black youth in particular because their situation is compounded by the barriers of rural poverty.

Health

Rural people, in general, suffer from the lack of health care due to the inequities in medical provisions in this country. There are fewer properly equipped facilities in rural areas, making it difficult to attract physicians to these areas. Furthermore, rural practice does not afford physicians the glamor of specialization. The bulk of rural health care needs evolves around preventive and social medicine (nutrition, hygiene, family planning and so on.) These needs could generally be met by a competent paramedical professional. The fact that health services are located primarily in urban areas lessens the chance of rural people being served. Research shows that as a sufferer's distance from the source of medical health increases, the chance that he/she will seek treatment decreases at a much faster rate, because transportation is too costly and unpleasant, especially for the rural poor and ill.⁷

The need for health care for youth can be seen when viewing communicable diseases prevalent among them. In Mississippi in 1978, venereal disease among youth outnumbered all other communicable diseases combined. This indicates, in part, that youth are not receiving adequate, efficient health services--counseling, medical attention and so on.

Again, with roughly 30 percent of the nation's population, rural America has the services of 12 percent of the doctors and 18 percent of the nurses. For the whole nation, there is a doctor for every 665 persons. In the cities there are only 500 persons per doctor. In rural America, there are 24,000 persons per doctor. Since 1963, the number of counties without a single physician has increased from 98 to 135, and in many counties the number of doctors has declined. The "no doctor" areas include 4 percent of the nation and one-half million people.

The inequitable distribution of medical services and care is evidenced in the infant mortality rate. Infant mortality rates are related, according to the 92nd Congressional hearing on rural life, to both place of residence and level of income, and the rate is highest in the most rural and poverty stricken areas. Even in the high per capita income States, the most rural counties have an infant mortality rate nearly 7 percentage points above the national average for that group of states. For nonwhite infants in rural counties, even in the high-income States, infant mortality rates are more than twice as high as for all infants in rural counties.

In addition to the scarcity of health services, medical costs are beyond the financial capabilities of rural people. From 1967 to 1971, medical costs rose an average of 6.6 percent a year, and in 1974 it rose at a rate of 18 percent.⁸

Housing

Rural areas contain 60 percent of the total substandard units in America. Much of the housing in rural America is bad. Surveys in 1970 indicate that about one million rural homes were dilapidated - literally

falling down- and about 2 million were classified substandard mostly because of inadequate plumbing. Compounding the structural problems, about 30,000 rural communities lacked waste disposal systems. It is doubtful that conditions have changed much since then because of the continued low incomes of most people who live in bad housing.

Another serious rural housing problem is the persistently bad condition of rural housing occupied by Black population. In 1971, 75 percent of Black housing were substandard compared with 85 percent in 1960. In rural areas, Black families occupy almost a third of the substandard units. Most of the units they lived in were rented.

Education

Rural Americans have historically been shortchanged by the educational system serving them. The dismal failure of State and Federal policy to affect even minimal standards of education in rural areas is evidenced by the fact that in 1970, over 2 million rural adults had less than 5 years of schooling. For minorities, comparable figures are even more appalling - 24 percent of the Black population had left school by the fifth grade. The figures for Mexican Americans and American Indians are much higher. Across all segments of the adult rural population, illiteracy rates are nearly twice those found in urban areas.⁹

In 1970, the national median number of years of school completed for those 25 years or older was 12.1. In only three Southern states -- Florida, Maryland, and Oklahoma -- was the national median realized. In all other Southern states, average educational attainment was less, ranging to a low of 9.9 years in Kentucky. (See Table 6.)

Table 6

MEDIAN YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED FOR PERSONS
25 OR OLDER, BY RACE, 1960 AND 1970

	1960		1970	
	Total	Nonwhites	Total	Blacks
Alabama	9.1	6.5	10.9	8.5
Arkansas	8.9	6.5	10.5	7.9
Florida	10.9	7.0	12.1	8.8
Georgia	9.0	6.1	10.8	7.9
Kentucky	8.7	8.2	9.9	9.3
Louisiana	8.8	6.0	10.8	7.9
Maryland	10.4	8.1	12.1	9.9
Mississippi	8.9	6.0	10.7	7.5
North Carolina	8.9	7.0	10.6	8.5
Oklahoma	10.4	8.6	12.1	10.2
Tennessee	8.8	7.5	10.6	8.7
Texas	10.4	8.1	11.6	9.7
Virginia	9.9	7.2	11.7	8.6
West Virginia	8.8	8.4	10.6	9.5
United States	10.6	8.2	12.1	9.8

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census of Population: 1970, GENERAL SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS, U.S. Summary, PC(1)-C1, Table 88 and state volumes, PC(1)-C series, Table 51; 1960: U.S. Summary, PC(1)-1C, Table 115. From the "Current Structure and Dimensions of Rural Poverty in the South," pg. 14.

Many rural children are being denied an equal educational opportunity - 5.3 percent of the school age children living in rural areas were not enrolled in school compared with 3.8 percent in urban areas.¹⁰ Absenteeism is also very high among rural farm children. This is attributed to several factors. Farming families are often forced to pull their children out of school at harvest time. Children of migrants are constantly uprooted and moved from town to town as their parents seek employment. Because of poor health services, children are frequently absent from school due to poor health care. Poor rural families cannot always afford lunch or adequate clothing, and many schools do not provide free lunches. Thus, the rural child is hungry and his/her ability to learn is hampered.

Exacerbating the employment problem is the literacy level of the local residents. Mississippi County data in 1970 suggest that the median school years completed ranged between 8.2 years to 12.3 years. The majority of the counties included in our focus had a median school year completed of 8.2 years to 8.7 years.¹¹ The literacy level suggests that even if the employment picture were brighter, few of the rural residents would be prepared to accept skilled employment due to the limitations posed by illiteracy alone.

Rural schools suffer from insufficient revenues. This results in poor curriculums, inadequately trained and overworked teachers, low salaries, limited facilities and materials, and a lack of counseling and guidance. In fiscal year 1973, \$70 million were allocated for educationally deprived migrant children from the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW). Ninety-two percent of these dollars went to metropolitan areas. One half of the financial support for public education

is derived from the local property tax in the United States. This form of support poses great difficulties for rural areas in financing schools. Rural real estate is often low in aggregate value, and even then, under-assessed.¹²

The effects of failure in the education system - illiteracy, lack of marketable skills, lost opportunity, low achievement, and a limited capacity for self government have had a crippling effect on the society and on the lives and aspirations of rural children and adults.

Conclusion

The state of rural America is an embarrassing situation for an economy such as ours that boasts prosperity and ranks high among the leading industrial nations of the world. Serious questions must be raised regarding our negligence in confronting the rural dilemma. The politics of neglect has produced a subculture of poverty-ridden communities. It behooves urban America to take a more serious look at their rural counterpart for all Americans have a high stake in rural development or decline. For the problems which many rural areas are experiencing are directly connected to those of cities and suburbs. Changing patterns of life in rural America have changed the character of life in all of America. Rural migrants forced from the farm by technological change flood the urban areas adding to the weight of already faltering tax structures, for rural people have to seek state-supported help if they are to survive in urban areas. In 1971, Senate hearings noted that migrants to urban areas of rural origin were more likely than nonmigrants or migrants of urban origin to live in poverty.

The question is, what strategy will break this poverty cycle and improve the condition of rural America. This thesis suggests that the answer lies in rural youth. We must find ways to develop and retain youth resources in rural areas. The proposed Youth Employment and Development Center prepared for the Mississippi Conference of Black Mayors presents a scheme that focuses on rural youth and takes into account their existing situation. The program provides alternatives that assures youth that they do not have to leave their community to find a place in society. Furthermore, the program increases their potential productivity, making it possible for youth to contribute to economic development. A review of past employment-training programs show that there exists a need to approach rural-youth unemployment from a different policy perspective. Part II presents a summary of education and training programs that have been formulated to address unemployment and poverty.

CHAPTER I

Part II

There have been several employment and training policies in the past that sought to address the issue of poverty and unemployment in the American economy to include rural areas. Rural areas were not the major focus of concern, however, but received some benefit from these employment training policies.

Government did not begin to take a role in dealing with employment problems in the U.S. until 1921. Even then its role was limited to financing vocational education, and to a limited extent, it monitored the apprenticeship program in the skilled trades. The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 was the first major employment training legislation. There were work-generating employment and training programs prior to MDTA but their legislation was motivated by different objectives. For example, the Works Progress Administration-later renamed Work Projects Administration (WPA) - was established in 1935 to administer a "make-work" program in response to the Great Depression. It was a economic development program designed to stabilize a total economy. The Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 was designed to stimulate economic growth in areas that were experiencing high unemployment. The agenda was not directed toward increasing employment opportunities for subgroups who were consistently unemployed or underemployed.

MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1962

Not until the second round of employment policy, beginning with the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA) of 1962 did the government, in its original intent, pass policy aimed at retraining and redistributing the labor force by improving the employability of subgroups. It also provided some assurance of an adequate labor supply for the economy. Congress authorized \$100,000,000 for the first program year (1963). During its early days MDTA began to fall short of its objectives. In the beginning, eligibility for admission to training was restricted to unemployed heads of households with three years of work experience. MDTA assisted primarily those unemployed persons who were the most qualified and most experienced; initially, it failed to address sufficiently the critical problems of the long-term unemployed.¹³

Early MDTA training was offered in the framework of institutional training (classroom instruction). Instruction was provided for such occupations as auto mechanics and repair, general machine operation, welding, typing, stenography, general office assistance, and cooking-- occupations already in demand. Little was done to forecast labor demands.

Shortly after MDTA Institutional Training was initiated, the rate of unemployment lessened and, with it, some of the widespread fear that advanced technology would prove devastating to the U.S. job market. But another, larger social change--the civil rights movement--was underway, and program emphases shifted to provide greater assistance to the

disadvantaged. Those concerned with the training programs turned their attention from the composition of the job market to the components of the job force and recognized that MDTA institutional training was reaching only a fraction of those who most required assistance.

One attempt to answer the insufficiency of MDTA Institutional Training came in 1965, during the "war on poverty" era, in the form of MDTA On-the Job Training (OJT). The OJT program was devised to place enrollees in jobs and to subsidize skill training as the new employees worked. OJT enlisted the cooperation of private employers and employer associations in an attempt to coordinate the public and private sectors of the labor market for the purpose of aiding the poor. In terms of assured employment to enrollees, OJT was, by nature, more successful than its MDTA Institutional counterpart. But, because persons were hired at the discretion of employers, those applicants who lacked education, skills, or familiarity with a working environment were hired last. In a further effort to encourage private employer involvement in programs for the disadvantaged, OJT funding was transferred in 1968 to the National Alliance of Businessmen (NABS). The NABS-JOBS (Job Opportunities in the Business Sector) program which resulted from that merger appealed to employers for reasons of publicity, profit, and budgeting advances,¹⁴ as well as by reason of their interest in aiding the disadvantaged. The number of jobs initially pledged greatly exceeded expectations, just as the number of pledges also exceeded the number of actual placements. It became increasingly apparent that more placements must be made and employee upgrading and retention programs be undertaken in order for NABS-

JOBES to achieve any real success. While few argue with the concept of NABS-JOBES, many have criticized its operational procedures and the ultimate practicality of a program dependent upon conditions of labor shortage in particular work environments. Few employers are able, even when willing, to hire disadvantaged minority members at the expense of established employees. Even so, the special efforts under JOBES in 1972 resulted in two-thirds of the placements being persons who were either Black or had Spanish surnames. NABS-JOBES has not yet become a program that creates new jobs as the result of expanded productivity.¹⁵ It remains, essentially, a labor redistribution program, which offers some assistance to a limited number of disadvantaged workers. And so, as it was, the needs of rural youth was not a priority under the MDTA. The thrust of MDTA was focused on adult wage earners. Further, MDTA did not have a community level focus.

EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY ACT (EOA) OF 1964

This act was designed specifically to provide the funds necessary to develop programs that would help the disadvantaged overcome their employment problems. Under this Act the youth employment problem in the U.S. drew attention.

The two main programs for the training and employment of youth were the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the Job Corps. The engrained theoretical concepts in this act approached unemployment for youth from two perspectives. Primarily, the thought was that youth were unemployed because of their inability to integrate into the world of work. They

were unemployable due to their lack of discipline and acceptance of the world of work. What was needed was an arena to "teach" people about work as well as provide a work environment. The other contention was that some unemployed persons were job ready in terms of their understanding the world of work but had not had the opportunity to 'practice' employment. Both of these contentions were approached under the EOA.

The Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC), and the Job Corps, established in 1965 by authority of the Economic Opportunity Act, were aimed directly at disadvantaged young people. NYC was based on the hope that low-income high school students provided with temporary employment might be enabled to remain in school. The Job Corps was founded on the premise that young people should be given the chance to move from environments so deprived or so disruptive as to hinder their successful incorporation into the labor force. Both suppositions have been challenged--the former because the high school dropout rate has been shown to increase during periods of high employment¹⁶, and the latter because there are those who support the contention that cultural deprivation does not adversely affect learning capability. The Job Corps and NYC have been charged with serving more as temporary depositories for troubled, sometimes troublesome, youth than as valid labor mechanisms. On the other hand, some young people have benefited substantially from the programs so that examination of positive as well as negative aspects of each is appropriate.

NEIGHBORHOOD YOUTH CORPS

The Neighborhood Youth Corps, largest federal training program for youth, was designed to provide remedial education and work experiences for poor high school students (in-school and summer programs) and for high school dropouts aged sixteen or over (out-of-school program). NYC was conceived as a wage subsidy program and, at the outset, provided little skill training. Because it was directed toward persons in adolescence, a growth period of limited duration, employment opportunities were devised to be temporary and the rate of NYC turnover was exceedingly high. Short enrollment periods, however, did not appear to adversely affect the employment futures of the trainees,¹⁷ and proponents of NYC argued that the orientation of disadvantaged youth to working environments eased their ultimate transition to adult labor force participation, while the minimum wages paid to program enrollees eased their financial burdens. From its inception, NYC successfully targeted the disadvantaged, with approximately equal representation of males and females, blacks and whites. And, since 1965, the NYC program design developed has increased its focus on skill-training and supportive services. NYC job training opportunities have been extended to private industry, and the summer program, which provided little training, counseling or remedial education, has been discontinued.

JOB CORPS

The Job Corps, as a program of intensive residential training and supportive services, was initiated as one of the major components of the

"war on poverty". It offered to disadvantaged young people, at rural conservation centers on public lands or at urban centers operated by private or non-profit organizations, a program of work, education, and counseling designed to ready enrollees for labor-force participation.

Evaluations of the Job Corps show that the program has successfully recruited the disadvantaged (100 percent of 1973 Job Corps participants came from families of poverty status and 59 percent were black¹⁸), but it has failed to retain them. In a program where much of the training can be completed in nine months and where the maximum skill training period is two years, average enrollment has been for a period less than seven months. Youth were not staying in the program long enough to complete a skill-training phase. High dropout rates have been attributed to the culture shock suffered by trainees forced into an unfamiliar, uncomfortable working environment. Opponents of the Job Corps design assert that the Job Corps was an attempt to empty streets corners of unemployed juvenile dissidents in an effort to minimize the advent of rioting. Because the prevailing "theory" was based on the employability of youth, the centers practiced strict discipline and were often staffed by the military.¹⁹ "Employability" meant that youth needed to ascribe to the discipline of the world of work and adhere to the codes of conduct as well.

There are other fundamental weaknesses to the operational procedure of the Job Corps. Partially because of the intensive services Job Corps provides (day care services, drug abuse programs, etc.), cost has been a formidable \$8,000 per trainee. Nor has the program incorporated an

equitable proportion of female trainees: in 1973 only 26 percent of Job Corps trainees were women.²⁰ Despite apparent drawbacks, the Job Corps has succeeded in one area where other programs have not. Since 1968, when administration was shifted from the Office of Economic Opportunity to the Department of Labor, increasing numbers of rural youth have been incorporated into the program--a circumstance of special importance to the South.

In a 1968 assessment of the placement of Job Corps centers, it was noted that a relatively low proportion of centers was located in the South. The share is greater now although several Southern states still have no centers. Of the 29 national Conservation Corps centers, eleven are located in the South but concentrated in seven states. Of the 30 residential and urban centers, eleven are located in the South but concentrated in seven states. Five Southern states, one-third of the region's states--Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi and South Carolina--have no Job Centers of any kind.²¹

During the 1960's Job Corps & the NYC used the federal-state Employment Service (ES) to carry out referral duties. ES undertook referral duties for the Job Corps and the NYC out-of-school programs for youth. In 1966 the ES implemented the Human Resources Development Program, which assigned ES teams to poverty areas and required program revisions to improve counseling, testing, and job development for the disadvantaged.²²

Another job creation program of the 1960's was New Careers. New Careers, begun in 1967 and absorbed by Public Service Careers (PSC) in

1970, placed disadvantaged adults and out-of-school youths in paraprofessional jobs with public and private nonprofit agencies which provided human services--health, education, welfare and housing. Three additional segments of Public Service Careers encouraged federal, state, and local governments to "hire first and train later" the disadvantaged for full-time public service jobs. The premise upon which PSC was based was that public agencies could profitably hire the disadvantaged if they reassessed entry requirements, provided job training and upgrading, and, in the case of New Careers, provided advanced education necessary for the program participants in order to supply a partial solution to employment shortages in the ten rapidly expanding public sector.

Although PSC trainees and hiring agencies were well pleased with program results, difficulties were encountered. Some agencies made use of new funds to finance existing training, and some New Careers' sponsors failed to ensure that employee's abilities were developed to a level that would support them beyond the period of the federal grant. In addition, the economic slowdown of the early 1970's produced agency hiring freezes, and budget cuts led to the closedown of PSC programs in some areas.²³

EMERGENCY EMPLOYMENT ACT of 1971

The Emergency Employment Act of 1971 was the impetus for the Public Employment Program (PEP). PEP was a two-year terminal mechanism designed to combat a temporarily high incidence of unemployment by creating jobs in public services. At its zenith, in 1972, PEP did create

and fill 170,000 jobs. But PEP's success in effecting its secondary goal to "remedy the unmet needs for public services and civil service reform" and to "upgrade the disadvantaged worker" was modest.

Because program emphasis was on Vietnam era veterans, only 28 percent of PEP participants were women. Eighty percent of those women were relegated to low paying jobs in health, education, and social service categories. Seventy-three percent of all participants and 60 percent of the welfare recipients enrolled in the program were high school graduates. The young and old workers who, in 1972, comprised 38 and 20 percent, respectively, of the unemployed accounted for only 22 and 14 percent of PEP participation. The typical PEP participant was a high school educated white male of prime working age. He was provided with neither permanent employment nor skill training which might lead to permanent employment. Only 1.7 percent of federal funds went for training enrollees to assume paraprofessional responsibilities; the remainder of the appropriation served primarily to assist temporarily that segment of the unemployed least in need of assistance.²⁴

COMPREHENSIVE EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ACT OF 1973

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973 (CETA) repealed the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and portions of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 and substituted a new public employment program for the Emergency Employment Act of 1971. CETA became operative on July 1, 1974. CETA is an attempt through decategorization, to minimize the inefficient bureaucracy that emerged and, through decen-

tralization, to better provide for the disparate needs of separate localities. Decentralization under CETA works through a "prime sponsor" which may be a city or county with population of 100,000 or more, or a consortium of local governments of which at least one unit has a population of 100,000. For all areas not otherwise covered, the state assumes the role of prime sponsor for what is known as the "balance-of-state".

To the prime sponsor is left the determination of the mix of labor training programs most likely to meet local needs. CETA's Title I (commonly referred to as Comprehensive Manpower Services), permits the following activities: outreach, assessment and referral, education, institutional training, on-the-job training, payments to employers for the expansion of job opportunities, payment of allowances, supportive and employment-related services, the gathering and dispensing of labor market information, and public service employment. Prime sponsors may mix these activities as they wish, and CETA does not require the operation of all activities. This kind of flexible system allows prime sponsors to utilize those options that will succeed in reducing long-run structural unemployment in their areas.²⁵

The Job Corps was incorporated as Title IV of CETA and remains in the Department of Labor for administration and operation. Indians, offenders, youth, and non-English-speaking people are also administered by the DOL under Title II. Beginning with fiscal 1976, Title I local prime sponsors received priority

consideration for Title III funds.

Although CETA is generally considered to be the comprehensive employment training program in the U.S., all programs that perform employment training related services were not incorporated into the legislation. Other programs that were operated prior to CETA by state governments serve as delivery agents for CETA programs.

Public service employment has been given, under CETA, its first permanent role in national labor policy. Title II of the legislation established a program similar to PEP in that it is triggered by unemployment rates in excess of a specified minimum and provides transitional-to-permanent, rather than temporary, employment. Titles II and VI of CETA, both of which provide public-service employment, differ in area eligibility, client eligibility, and the permanency of the unemployment provided. Funds for Titles II and VI are to be used to create jobs that provide needed public services and to conduct training programs and other labor-related services necessary to fill those jobs and maintain the operation of the program. The legislative intent behind both Titles is that emphasis be placed upon jobs that will lead to permanent, unsubsidized employment opportunities and career advancement for program participants.²⁶

Under CETA Title I youth receive the bulk of the services. Youth 16-21 (in-school and out-of-school) participate in work-training combination programs. Rural youth receive limited attention vis-a-vis the school system and the local municipal government through the CETA program. The intent of the in-school program is to encourage continued

school attendance of those students who would normally drop out because of economic conditions. The out-of-school program addresses the employment needs of youth by providing work experience supplemented with supportive services as provided in the in-school youth.

The CETA program has been revised and amended to combat inequities and deficiencies in the program. Critics of the program claim that public-service employment slots are generally low-level dead end positions. Municipalities have used these slots to continue to provide services in a declining economy. White middle-class professionals displaced by shrinking municipal budgets have been hired with CETA funds. These public-service jobs are generally "pre-selected" and not left open to random selection. (My experiences during my employment with a CETA prime sponsor substantiates this claim. Jobs that were professional in nature were always noted as being "filled" before the public announcement was made.)

Summary

In the early sixties, when education and training goals were to increase the "employability" of certain groups and to some degree, perform redistributive functions, the prevailing economic argument was whether the high unemployment rate was the result of insufficient aggregate demand or whether it was a structural problem. Since the early sixties, billions of dollars have been poured into employment and training programs to increase employability. The seventies have come and nearly gone and the questions still remain. (See Table 7.)

Table 7

ENROLLMENT AND EXPENDITURES, FEDERAL MANPOWER PROGRAM,
FISCAL YEARS 1963-1974

Program	Total Enrollment (in thousands)	Total Expenditures (in thousands)
MDTA	2,519.1	\$ 3,567,775
Neighborhood Youth Corps	5,762.2	3,721,401
Operation Mainstream	180.1	490,436
Public Service Careers	160.1	339,946
Concentrated Employment Program	650.4	1,096,812
Work Incentive Program	997.7	886,427
JOBS	394.1	848,084
Job Corps	230.4	874,505
Public Employment Program	672.9	2,482,142*
TOTAL	11,572.3	\$14,366,600

*Includes \$44,010,000 allotted under Title II and \$237,110,000 allotted under Title III-A of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973.

Source: Manpower Report of the President, 1975 (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1975), table E-1, p. 317.
Taken from Bloom and Gordon, Economics of the Labor Market.

Table 8 shows unemployment rates for different race-age-sex-groups for four separate years in the 1970's. The most obvious feature of the table is the marked deterioration of the relative employment situation of minorities. The 1978 unemployment rates of adult whites (age 25+) was less than one percentage point higher than their 1970 and 1973 values, the unemployment rates of black adults are two to three percentage points higher.

The unemployment rates of younger age groups, our primary focus, depicts a similar scheme. The rates of younger whites (ages 16 to 19 and 20 to 24) are also not much different from those in 1970 and 1973, while the unemployment rates of black youth have skyrocketed. Of the black youth employed, between 30 and 40 percent were participants in various youth employment programs. Though our focus is on rural youth, we can gain some image of their situation if we accept the premise that their situation is probably worse than those stated for the general youth norm. Realizing that the published unemployment rates understate the severity of the changes in unemployment, we can say that, rural true unemployment hovers around 40 to 50 percent. The labor force participation rates of minority youth have fallen since 1970, while the participation rates for white youth have risen. The ratio of employment to population is almost twice as great for white teenagers as for black. ²⁸

Minority youth have been an exception in every positive improvement toward closing the unemployment gap between blacks and whites in this country. The performance of the labor market in the United States

Table 8

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY RACE, AGE, AND SEX FOR SELECTED
YEARS IN THE 1970s

Age	1970		1973		1977		1978	
	White	Black and other	White	Black and other	White	Black and other	White	Black and other
16 - 19 M	13.7	24.9	12.3	26.9	15.0	37.0	13.5	34.4
F	13.3	34.4	13.0	34.5	15.9	39.9	14.4	38.4
20 - 24 M	7.8	12.6	6.5	12.6	9.3	21.7	7.6	20.0
F	6.9	15.0	7.0	17.6	9.3	23.6	8.3	22.3
25+ M	2.6	4.4	2.4	4.2	3.8	7.7	3.1	6.4
F	3.9	5.2	3.7	6.1	5.5	9.1	4.5	8.2
TOTAL	4.9		4.9		7.0		6.0	

Source: B.L.S. Employment and Earnings for 1970, 1973, and 1977: unpublished B.L.S. data for 1978. Taken from Johnson, George. "Do Structural Employment and Training Programs Influence Unemployment," Challenge, pg. 35.

during the 1970's has been quite good, with the significant exception of the minorities. The labor force of young persons and women has increased markedly relative to the labor force of adult men. In an economy characterized by relative wage rigidity and severe structural unemployment, this would have meant large increases in the unemployment rates of these rapidly growing groups. But, again, with the exception of minorities (especially youth), this did not happen. Instead, the distribution of employment adjusted quite well to the changed distribution of the other groups in the labor force.

As demonstrated, there is much, still to be done towards reducing unemployment and poverty in the United States among rural youth. Past employment programs have failed to focus on rural youth problems. With the advent of CETA, flexibility allows for program designs that will address the needs of rural youth.

Within the CETA framework, I have proposed a rural-youth employment training program that addresses the needs of rural youth from a different policy perspective. Past programs have sought to approach the problem by increasing human capital or increasing the supply of temporary jobs. The YEDC approach not only increases human capital and provides jobs but attempts to impact every facet of youth life. Chapter II presents the YEDC story and how its objectives are to be met.

CHAPTER II

PART I

The Youth Employment and Development Centers

In May 1979, the Mississippi Institute for Small Towns, Inc. (MIST), Jackson, Mississippi, a non-profit community development technical assistance operation, secured my assistance and a fellow colleague to implement a planning grant. The product of the planning grant was the Youth Employment and Development Center proposal. This chapter outlines the process that brought about the Youth Employment and Development Center (YEDC) concept. Additionally, the YEDC program is described in detail. Further, the YEDC is examined in terms of its potential ability to impact rural youth unemployment.

The planning grant had been awarded to the Mississippi Conference of Black Mayors (MCBM), Inc., to assess the needs of rural youth in their respective communities. MCBM subcontracted with MIST, Inc., who, in turn, secured our services. I assumed the role of Project Coordinator, and my colleague served as Research Analyst for the planning project. The grant mandated that certain activities take place. An interesting directive was the mandate to have youth included in the planning process. According to the grant, a local planning task force was to be organized in each community represented by the MCBM. At least fifty percent of the task force had to be youth "representative of the target population". A Project Planning Task Force was to be organized to synthesize the local task force assessments. The local task forces, according to the Scope of

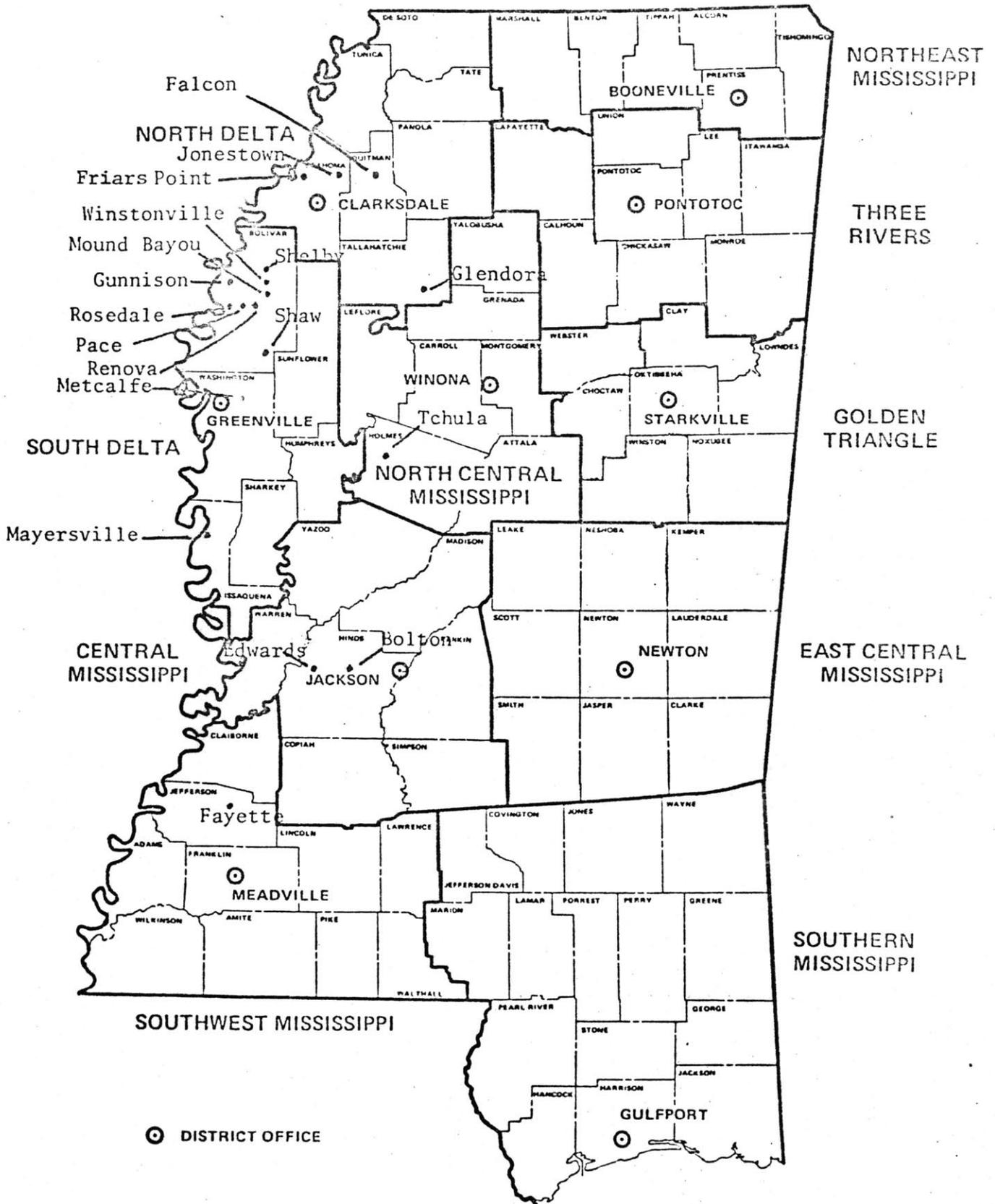
Services, were to 1) "inventory and evaluate educational institutional services, e.g. academic and career counseling and, 2) "inventory and evaluate non-educational institutional services, e.g. health care and recreational facilities.

The planning grant directed that a meeting be held with the mayors to introduce them to the planning format and to instruct them on how to report the activities of their respective task forces. A method had to be devised that would allow the respective task forces to assess their issues individually, but to conduct the assessment in some kind of consistent framework. The consistent framework would make it possible to compile all the individual assessments into a single document. I developed two planning workbooks for that purpose. One workbook was for use by the local task forces' assessment and the other workbook design was for the Project Planning Task Force. The planning workbooks provided a consistent model for examining rural youth needs.

Seventeen of the MCBM membership towns participated in the planning project. These were: Gunnison, Renova, Mound Bayou, Pace, Rosedale, Shaw, Shelby and Winstonville in Bolivar County; Jonestown and Friars Point in Coahoma County; Bolton and Edwards in Hinds County; Tchula in Holmes County; Mayersville in Issaquena County; Falcon in Quitman County; Glendora in Tallahatchie County; and the town of Metcalfe in Washington County. (See Figure 1.) These predominantly black towns are located primarily in the Delta portion of the state.

The planning phase officially began at the June 1979 monthly meeting of the MCBM where the planning process was presented to the mayors. The

FIGURE 1
 LOCATION OF BLACK MANAGED TOWNS BY
 PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT DISTRICTS



mayors' respective areas of responsibility were discussed. The mayors were informed about the mandate to organize youth task forces and were directed to appoint youth task force coordinators. The planning workbooks were reviewed, and a tentative schedule of task force meeting dates was developed.

Meetings were held with nearly 200 volunteer youth ranging in task force membership of 5 to 30 persons. There were major problem areas that were defined consistently by the task forces. The problems faced by youth in these communities were youth unemployment; a lack of adequate education and facilities; teenage pregnancy; youthful offenders; youth abuse and neglect; and general youth apathy. Goal statements were constructed to address these problem areas.

To conclude the planning process, a state planning conference was convened at Tougaloo College, Tougaloo, Mississippi. The state conference served as the Project Planning Task Force mandated by the grant. Youth representatives from the local task forces pooled their ideas to give form to a youth development program. The forum was guided by general goal statements that were condensed from the goal statements that emerged from the local assessment process. The youth at the State Conference established goals for the proposed Youth Employment and Development Center that was birthed at the conference. According to youth, the YEDC should seek to:

- I. Allow youth the opportunity to have direct involvement in community, state and national affairs through active research on policy that affect youth,

- II. Increase communication between young people and their family members as well as the community at large,
- III. Promote maturity and positive self-images through the fulfillment of group-designated responsibilities and the performance of leadership roles,
- IV. Provide a place for youth to go and participate in meaningful activity,
- V. Offer youth the cooperation of public agencies when their services are demanded,
- VI. Provide employment opportunities for youth in the administration of youth programs as well as in other sector enterprises,
- VII. Provide supportive services that will enable youth to acquire and maintain employment,
- VIII. Intervene in institutional processes, when possible, to promote and increase the effective delivery of services to youth in all facets of youth life.

The following Youth Employment and Development Center (YEDC) concept is the result of youth in Mississippi establishing their own priorities and designing meaningful program constructs to address their priorities.

Program Focus

Unemployment emerged as the most critically felt problem. The task forces faced the unemployment issue with an understanding that unemployment is part of a larger issue where unemployment is tangential to other major social barriers. The objectives of the Youth Employment and Development Center will be captured in the merger of community revitalization

with youth employment. In this manner, the program takes on a dual focus: to provide meaningful training/employment experiences supplemented with integrative supportive services; and to contribute to the revitalization of the rural communities these youth live in.

A multiplier effect results from the skill-training-through-community revitalization concept. From a macro perspective, the following will be accomplished:

- the labor force pool of skilled workers in the area will be expanded as a result of youth being trained in selected industry areas;
- the youth will acquire skills that are marketable in the general world of work as well as within their respective communities;
- the physical appearance of the towns will be greatly enhanced improving the economic potential of the towns;
- the self-esteem of youth will be heightened as a result of their visible investment into the community;
- because of this investment, youth will be more inclined to maintain and support other community efforts and remain in the community.

The underlying hypothesis in this training model is that youth participation in community revitalization institutionalizes youth into the community structure creating a sense of investment and belonging.

Target Group

Youth who are unemployed or underemployed (as defined by the Department of Labor) or in school, 16 through 21, or a member of a family with a total income at or below 85% of the "lower living standards" (also defined

by the Department of Labor) are the intended target group. Preference will be given to economically disadvantaged young people. Efforts will be made to attract "high risk" youth such as school drop-outs, offenders, and teenage parents on the condition that they participate in the educational activities.

Program Design

As stated, the proposed YEDC seeks to arrest the employment problems faced by rural youth through the provision of immediate relief in the form of employment or on-the-job training, supplemented with an array of supportive services that are integrated into the design over a three-year period. (See Figure 2.) The YEDC program design is embedded in a component delivery system. Six components comprise the program. The components are: Employment, Health, Community Service, Economic Development and Recreation. Participants will be able to move throughout the component delivery system to acquire needed services. (See Figure 3.) Each component fulfills program objectives and goals.

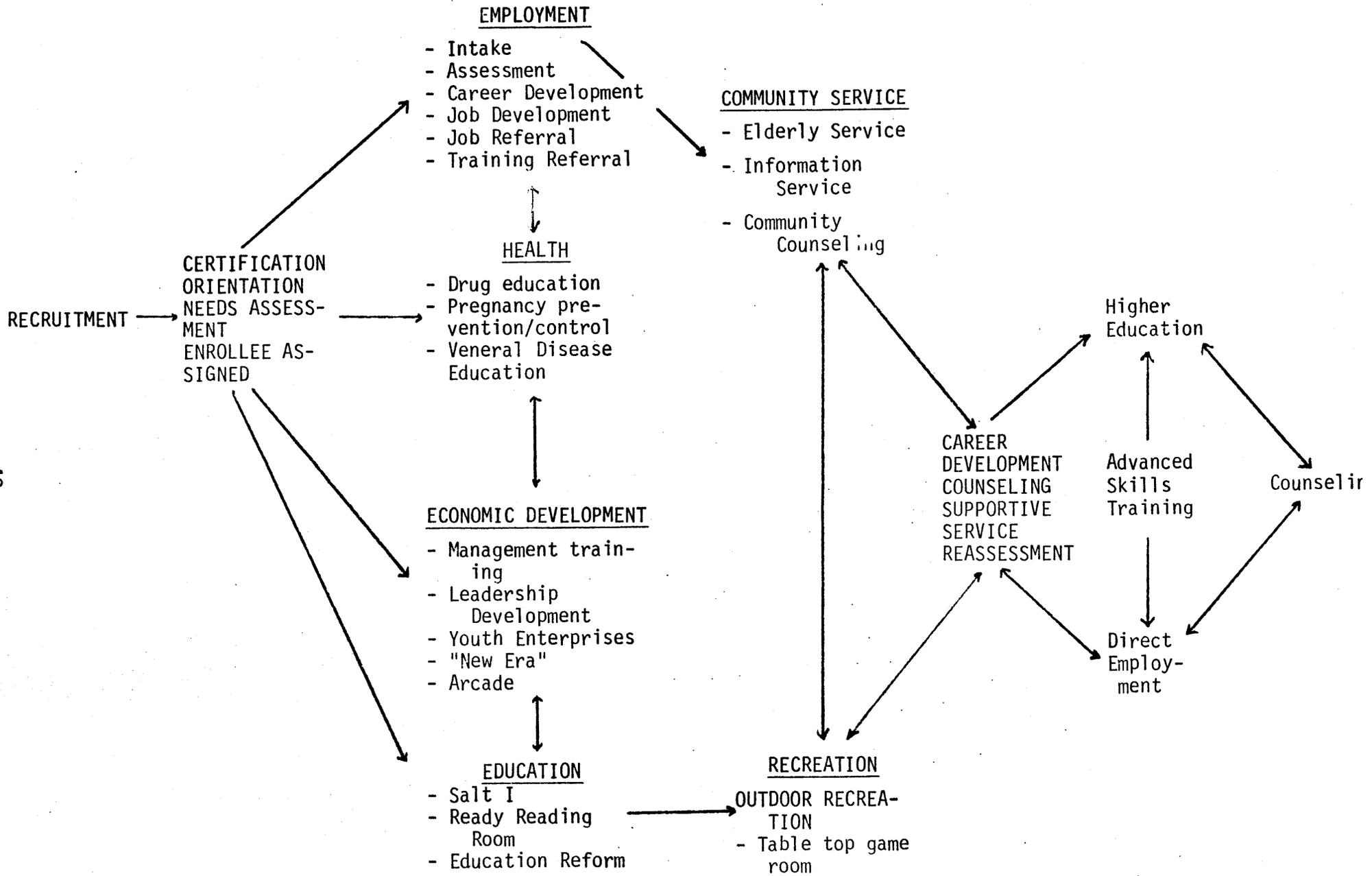
Employment. The employment component will provide direct employment for those youth who are job ready as well as provide skill training for the unskilled youth. The skill training will be carried out through three phases: Intake and Assessment, Orientation and Counseling, Skills Training, and Transitional Counseling/Job Placement:

Phase I - Intake and Assessment. A preapplication will be completed on each applicant ascertaining the youth's eligibility to participate as

FIGURE 2
PROGRAM PHASE-IN

COMPONENT	FIRST YEAR	SECOND YEAR	THIRD YEAR
EMPLOYMENT	Training Career Development Job Referral	Training Career Development Job Referral	Training Career Development Job Referral
EDUCATION	Student Activities Ready Reading Room	Student Activities Ready Reading Room Tutoring	SALT I Student Activities Tutoring Ready Reading Room
HEALTH		Pregnancy Prevention and Control Drug Education	Hot Line Pregnancy Prevention and Control Drug Education
COMMUNITY SERVICE		Information Service Community Counseling	Information Service Community Counseling
ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT	"New Era" Forum	"New Era" Forum Junior Achievement Arcade Enterprise Management Leadership	"New Era" Forum Junior Achievement Arcade Management Leadership
RECREATION		Table Top Games Outdoor Recreation	Table Top Games Outdoor Recreation

FIGURE 3



PROGRAM COMPONENT CLIENT SERVICE DESIGN

outline the career objectives of the applicant. A Career Development plan will be completed on each applicant. If the training is consistent with the outlined plan and the applicant is eligible, the application is accepted into the applicant pool.

Phase II - Orientation and Counseling. Once the participants have been selected by a selection committee, an orientation and counseling seminar will be conducted. The trainees and their parents will be encouraged to participate. The training objectives and responsibilities will be outlined at that time. An individualized plan noting competencies and deficiencies will be prepared on each participant.

Phase III - Skills Training. In this phase, trainees will become acquainted with the skills involved in their agreed occupational category. Orientation in a classroom setting will precede any hands-on experience. Through on-the-job training the trainee will be exposed to the tools and skills of the trade. Each trainee will gain practical experience through meaningful work during this phase.

Phase IV - Transitional Counseling/Job Placement. At the conclusion of the skills transference phase, each trainee will be counseled to determine impressions or changes that have been made as a result of the training experience. Support and direction will be given to the trainee in pursuing options requiring fees and nominal deposits. If the trainee is job ready, the local employment service will provide job development/referral support. Support will be provided by the Career Development Coordinator working out of the school system. Arrangements will be made to have academic credit awarded for training/work experience.

Direct employment will be available through slots created to staff the YEDC operation and support programs. A selection board will convene to select and hire youth.

Education. The education component will be comprised of several activities. These activities will be geared toward providing immediate relief to the educational problem through the provision of supplemental educational facilities, as well as long-term relief vis-a-vis intervention into the existing education system.

A "Ready Reading Room" (mini library) will be located in each project town that will provide easy, interesting and practical reading material to the youth audience. The Reading Room is a spin-off from the concept introduced by Dr. Daniel N. Fader, at the University of Michigan. Fader noticed in his involvement with youth that students fail because they could not read with any degree of proficiency or understanding. Proficiency and understanding comes with the habit of continued, regular reading. Students associate their failure and alienation to the school environment with the hardcover textbooks that are given them in schools. Libraries to most young people, are only places with tables where youth can sit and work. Fader believes that if youth are surrounded with newspapers, magazines, and paperbound books the temptation to peruse, browse and read is inevitable. Each Ready Reading Room user will be encouraged to keep a personal log (that will be kept on file in the Reading Room) of all the material handled by the user on each visit. To supplement this project, arrangements will be made with the Mississippi Library

Commission to have the Bookmobile schedule regular stops in the project towns. Ready Reading Room participants will be encouraged to make suggestions to Bookmobile staff to improve the reading selection of the Bookmobiles.

Youth are seeking more involvement in their educational process as well as more responsibility in the provision of this service. Though the existing system has its limitations, the youth felt that minor modifications would produce a more effective school program.

The students seek intervention into the administrative structure. They want to be able to have input into decision-making. An attempt will be made to incorporate a Student Advisory Council (SAC) in each school serving target youth. This council will serve as the student voice on issues that concern and affect students. The council will also serve as a support system when school officials are implementing agreed-upon changes to be made in the system. Their relationship will be based on one that lends itself to a total harmonious school community. No longer will school officials be confronted with resisting mechanisms when implementing new ideas. The SAC should prove useful to school officials as well as students.

Lastly, SAC will serve as a grievance and hearing board. Presently, school systems provide ineffective or non-existent means for students to seek redress. Final decisions are made without much recourse. The SAC will provide students, administration and faculty a forum for compromising and negotiating decisions considered adverse by the complainant.

To spearhead the student intervention efforts, the project coined New "U" (for Unity) is being proposed and will be coordinated by the SAC.

New "U" seeks to raise the consciousness level of students, administrators and teachers in their cooperative relationship in the learning environment. The underlying agenda is to allow the actors in the school environment a chance to see how their roles are perceived by others as well as to see how they view themselves as part of the educational environment. The sensitization will be accomplished through role playing, seminars, films, and other creative mechanisms designed by them. The underlying assumption is that awareness will lead to modified behavior.

As an alternative strategy, in the event that school districts do not accept the intervention process, the intervention education activities will take form in the local youth support groups. The local youth support groups will serve as an advocacy for youth soliciting community support. The community, in turn, will encourage school systems to include youth in their policy decisions and make provisions for organized student leadership.

The third program year marks the beginning of the School for Alternative Learning and Training (SALT) I. SALT I is primarily designed to address the educational needs of youth who are not being served by existing educational institutions. These youth have been generally alienated from the system by personal barriers, such as family financial difficulties, as well as institutional barriers, such as racism and discrimination. The YEDC Program Director will organize the SALT I efforts.

SALT I will seek to provide an educational program that has more relevance and impact upon the students' lives. The basic concept of the school will be to impart to each student information, skills, and the opportunity to participate in experiences necessary to make

intelligent decisions. The object is not to impose conformity but rather to assist the students in determining the direction they want to go in.

Small group tutoring, ranging in size from three to six students, will be instituted. A major contention of SALT I is that small groups are more productive than the traditional relationship between teacher and students. Teachers will be encouraged to develop significant relationships with students and use the peer group as a vehicle for teaching skills and subject matter. Students will be encouraged to enroll in other ongoing educational projects that will promote career development.

SALT I will be guided by four primary functions: 1) to promote basic education; 2) to provide access to skill training; 3) to heighten the political awareness of the participants; and 4) to heighten cultural awareness of the participants. The program will provide educational services to the illiterate and semi-illiterate from the teaching of simple reading skills to providing high school equivalency and college preparatory training.

The key to the instructional process centers around the informal nature of the school's learning environment. It was found in past projects that basic education is successful only when it relates to accomplishing a particular objective. These objectives will be determined through career development counseling.

As in the employment component, a career development plan will be completed on each participant. Studies have demonstrated that youth who determine career goals early in their educational process are more likely

to enter the labor market and become productive consumers. SALT I will design a basic course of study that will prepare the youth to enter further study in the desired discipline.

Health. There were 453 babies born to girls fourteen and under in Mississippi in 1978. Mississippi has the highest infant mortality rate in the country. Last year, the State Department of Public Welfare received 1260 reports of unsubstantiated abuse and/or neglect, and handled 535 cases of substantiated abuse involving 632 children. Drug abuse and addiction among youth increases every year, with deaths from drug overdoses serving to compound the seriousness of the situation. Venereal disease among youth outnumber all other communicable diseases combined. These facts obviously indicate that youth are not receiving adequate and efficient health services--counseling, medical attention, information and referral.

The health component consists of five activities: Pregnancy Prevention and Control, Venereal Disease Prevention and Control, Drug Education, Hot Line for Child Abuse and Neglect, and referral services for handicapped youth.

The Pregnancy Prevention and Control is unique in that it will target males. The assumption is that young men are as unaware, if not more unaware, of the implications of pregnancy, its prevention and consequences as are young women. Youth will be counseled by service workers from various public agencies on the consequences of drug usage, venereal disease, teenage pregnancy (using teenage mothers as resources), and other social problems. Reading material and films will be used as reinforcement aids.

The Hot Line for Child Abuse and Neglect will operate from a central location. This operation will support the state Child Abuse Line. State statistics from the State Department of Public Welfare (operator of Hot Line) show low reporting of child abuse in target areas, though verbal accounts and incidences are known. Local reports on YEDC Hot Line will be submitted to the state system for follow-up. The community will be encouraged to utilize the Hot Line system at the first signs of a crises. Community Service. The community service component will seek to provide service to the community at large as well as youth. This component provides an information service activity and a community counseling service. The Information Service will provide youth with information on existing social service availability. Consumer information will be provided youth on request. The Ready Reading Room will store consumer information to supplement this activity. Outreach is viewed as a very crucial element in providing services in rural communities. This project takes the view that for significant segments of the rural population, the mere existence of programs is not enough to insure participation. Alienation, lack of information and insufficient motivation must all be overcome in soliciting general project support. Youth, armed with information, will be available to the community.

A Community Counseling Service will be instituted to provide youth a listening ear and a sounding board. Often times, youth make ill decisions or commit ill-conceived acts because of their inability to find alternatives for problems. The community counseling service will be able to address life cycle developmental problems, as well as those problems

brought on by the external environment. Counselors will be available during times youth are free after school and on weekends. These counselors will be professionals and para-professionals trained in basic counseling techniques.

Economic Development. This component has been designed to allow for on-the-job training of youth through the establishment of youth enterprises vis-a-vis the creation of a Junior Achievement organization. Through this organization, youth will be provided the opportunity to gain marketable skills through management training and leadership development workshops. Sessions in the areas of sales management, inventory control, and marketing and advertising procedures will be offered to budding entrepreneurs. Additionally, the program is designed to stimulate initiative and motivation in youth through workshops and seminars conducted by local businessmen under Junior Achievement auspices.

One vitally important aspect of the Economic Development component is the establishment of small youth enterprises. An Arcade is a business venture youth could undertake with minimal adult supervision. Arcades will be owned and operated solely by youth once they have acquired the skills to manage them effectively. The Arcade would provide employment for youth and help retain capital in the community. It will be a place where youth can entertain themselves for hours while developing hand-eye coordination, and sharpening thought processes.

New Era forums are another activity under this component. The New Era forums will be an activity supported by the Student Advisory Committee (SAC). The forums will focus on youth and their level of

technological awareness. Because Mississippi ranks at the bottom of the educational totem pole, its youth, especially rural youth, are being shortchanged academically. A great many youth are neither aware of nor concerned about what the world is like outside their own immediate environs. The New Era forums have been designed to address this problem from a practical perspective. Practitioners will be invited to speak to youth on their area of expertise. Training sessions will provide youth with reading materials, films, and lectures on technological advancements made in recent years in this country. Cooperative relationships will be formed with national technical institutes, such as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, as well as local universities and colleges. Efforts will be made to solicit speakers and demonstrations in Alternative Energy sources, Space Technology, Agricultural Technology, Medical Technology, Hydrology, and other advanced technology areas.

The New Era forums will be coordinated by the Career Development Coordinator and the Student Activities Coordinator in each school system. The SAC will provide resource support in garnering student support for these projects. The forums will be open to the community.

Recreation. Rural youth in Mississippi are in dire need of adequate, wholesome recreational environments. Thousands of rural youth are unemployed after school and during the summer months, leaving them with plenty of leisure time. Where recreational facilities are inadequate or virtually nonexistent, this leisure time is spent idly. Yet, in order for youth to reach their fullest mental and physical potential, it is essential that they be encouraged to work and play constructively. The recreation

program is designed to allow youth to recreate in an environment that has been especially tailored for their enjoyment, while they simultaneously develop a sense of accomplishment by working at solving their own problems through recreation.

Older youth will be encouraged to volunteer to clear available public land for outdoor recreational activities. Program funds will be available to lease land.

A table top game room will be instituted in each neighborhood to provide youth with challenging, indoor recreation. Games, such as Scrabble, Chess and Backgammon will help youth develop a sense of competitiveness as well as expand their thought processes. The table top game room will be located in the YEDC.

Program Administration

The Mississippi Conference of Black Mayors (MCBM), Inc. will subcontract with the Mississippi Institute for Small Towns (MIST), Inc. for the administrative and programmatic implementation of the Youth Employment and Development program. As subcontractor, MIST will also be responsible for monitoring and evaluating day-to-day operation of project activities vis-a-vis the Project Coordinator and Research Analyst.

A Youth Employment Policy Committee will be formed. It will be composed of youth representatives, members of MCBM, school board representatives and representatives from agencies that serve youth. The policy committee will establish policy for program operations.

Each membership town will organize youth support groups, if one is

not in place, composed of youth and concerned citizens. The support groups will serve as a resource for program activities and a liaison to the community.

At the end of the funding cycle, the YEDCs will operate the same administrative structure, with the funding being shifted to state CETA slots and municipal resources. Efforts have been successful in incorporating state CETA program administrators into the planning design of this project. (Refer to Figure 4.)

Program Management

The Executive Director of the Mississippi Institute for Small Towns, Inc. will have overall authority in the operation of the youth employment and development program. A Project Coordinator will be employed to coordinate the activities between the YEDCs, MIST and other participating sources. The selection committee will select program participants, as noted earlier. All payments made with YEDC funds must be approved by the YEDC Project Coordinator and authorized MCBM official. Payments must be documented. The Career Development Specialists will be employed to render services directly to the participants. Specialists will collect time and attendance records on participants and disburse participant payroll checks. The Bookkeeper will be responsible for keeping records, making payrolls and assisting with all related invoices and financial reports. The Research Analyst will monitor program activities according to the Executive Director's direction. The Secretary will handle the clerical demands of the program operation. (Refer to Figure 5.)

Figure 4

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE

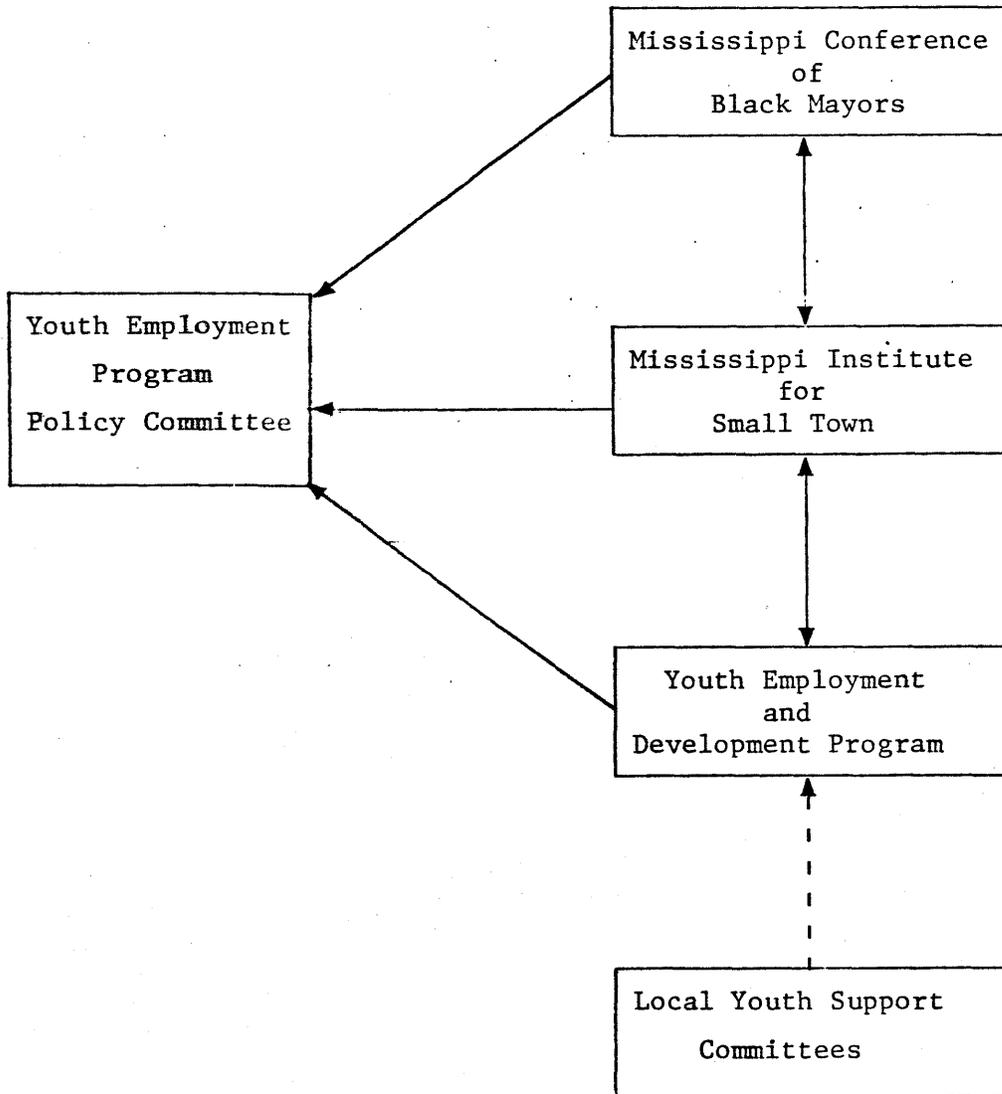
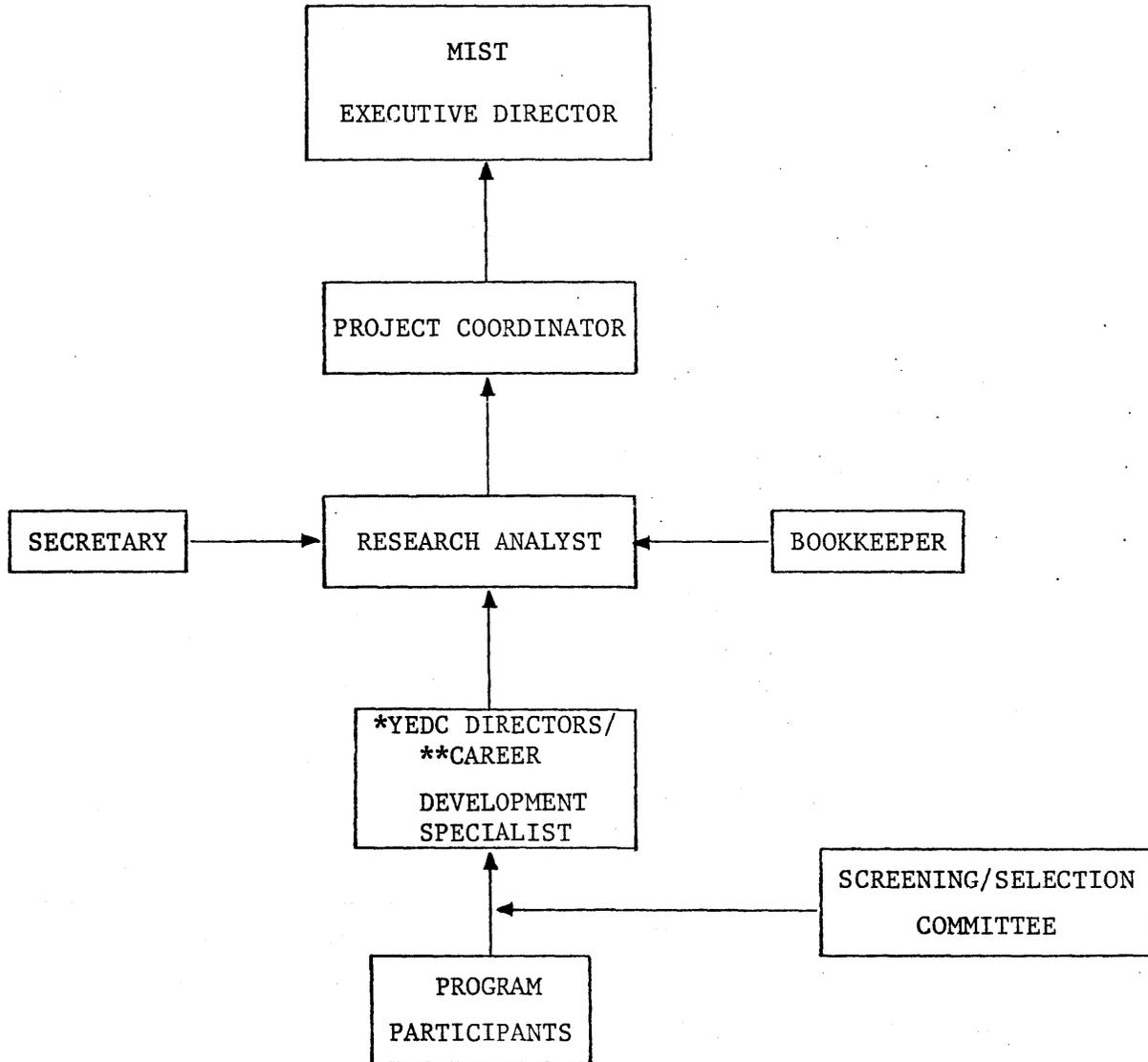


Figure 5
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART



CHAPTER II

PART II

Justification of Design

There are several questions that must be answered as to what makes the YEDC approach more meaningful or applicable to rural youth than the precedence set by other employment and training programs. Additionally, we must focus some attention on the political realities of such a program becoming operational. This part seeks to ascertain the effectiveness of the YEDC approach by examining the inherent features of the concept and making some connections to the applicable policy prescription upon which this program is based.

The YEDC proposes, as part of its operational concept, to increase the employability of rural youth by providing intervention mechanisms for altering existing systems as well as increasing youth employability through the provision of employment training services. The intervention strategy works on the supply side as well as the demand side of the labor market. On the supply side, as will be expanded upon later, intervention takes place through the education, health, and recreation activities provided by the program. On the demand side, intervention is promoted by economic development activities.

The YEDC paradigm is not entirely a new concept. It is an employability concept that is a spin-off from the model established under the skill-training concept originally used under MDTA. The MDTA model

has been expanded and reformed to effectuate a more comprehensive and applicable approach for rural youth. The exemplary features of the YEDC paradigm are: the planning process; the dynamics behind the community-service-center-delivery model; the comprehensive-service-delivery approach; the promotion of community and economic development and the distribution of income.

The planning process, as outlined in Chapter I, Part I, supports the premise that rural youth are better prepared to speak to their needs than any other source. The YEDC proposal is the product of rural youth meeting and organizing across Northwest Mississippi to assess their existing employment situation. The task force paradigm was used in each community to solicit youth support and input. Given the guidance of planning workbooks and the support of the local administrations, youth undertook the challenge of giving form to their ideas. Because the program design is one framed by youth, it can be assumed that the YEDC design will be more useful and effective than one framed by other means.

The community employment and development service center delivery model is based on the a priori assumption that community program locations increases the potential for effective delivery of youth services in rural areas based on the transportation barrier factor alone.

Transportation is an acute barrier in rural areas often exacerbating existing social problems. Public transportation systems are limited to nil, so that rural people are forced to rely on private transportation means. A 1969 research report compiled by the Department of Labor supports the community service center approach as an appropriate model for delivering rural youth services. The report stated that it was important to have

a community perspective because disadvantaged youth are generally concentrated in particular pockets, ghettos and rural hollows. Locating programs in communities combats the accessibility barrier. Alienation, low motivation, and other social barriers must be overcome. Past employment and development projects also showed that, in some instances, these social barriers can be overcome by bringing the program to the target group.²⁸ Conclusively, it can be stated that locating programs in communities is a significant consideration given by the YEDC model.

The comprehensive component delivery system, that is, the provision of services through categorized projects under a panoply designed to serve rural youth, allows the latitude and versatility to promote total human development. If we accept the assumption that increasing 'human capital' involves the development of the total self, then we can assume that a multifaceted approach has its advantages. The program enhances the development of social, political, and economic awareness. Socially, the program enforces a peer-group-support network by providing a forum for positive youth interaction. Their participation in community revitalization projects buys them into the economic development process. The strategy surrounding the intervention mechanisms serves as a political orientation to the reality of policy and institutions as well as serving as a change agent.

The distribution of income through the provision of training/employment wages (stipends) increases the attractiveness of the program and it provides additional income for family units. It is not unusual for a family of four in rural Mississippi to earn as little as \$3,500 annually.

The employment of one youth at \$3.00 per hour part-time (working up to 15 hours per week) can increase the household earnings by \$2,300 annually. This is a significant increase in purchasing power. The increased family income of household units serves as a multiplier effect in the consumption market area. The implementation of the YEDC strategy should make a positive impact on the program participant's family structure. Families often disintegrate because of financial problems.

It is necessary for organizations or activities serving and representing rural youth interest to be about the business or intervention as a strategy for altering institutions. Institutions, for reasons given, do not generally see the needs of youth as being separate issues deserving attention. The intervention strategies in the YEDC model take on several dimensions and intervene at different levels of institutional constraints. The intervention philosophy suggests that project activities will directly assist, support, or represent youth in their dealings with their social and institutional environments. By and large, the project will serve as an advocate for the interest of youth, a change agent. The Vocational Advisory Service, a youth project in New York proved to be one of the more marked interventionist agency during the MDTA period. Interventions were not planned as a regular part of agency policy. Rather, they evolved in response to the pressing needs of their youth clients. Few employment and development service agencies were organized to facilitate interventions, and intervention contributed to a hectic pace and atmosphere in the Vocational Advisory Service project.²⁹ When intervention is a designed activity, it does not obstruct the operational and delivery system when

the need for intervention arises. Interventionism suggests a recognition that even in the provision of the best supportive services, disadvantaged rural youth alone and unsupported cannot control the array of impersonal and sometimes hostile forces operating in their environment. These barriers interfere with free decision-making and choice selection. The intervention strategies are going to require program operators who know about welfare law, and policy, educational rights and responsibilities, and youthful offenders protection laws and about how bureaucracies operated.

As mentioned, the intervention strategy employed in the YEDC takes on several dimensions. Intervention will be accomplished through the Student Advisory Committee (SAC) that will be functioning in each school system, the community information system that will provide direction and information to the general community, and the ongoing monitoring of public agencies conducted by youth support groups. Intervention in the family process is viewed in this model as being a crucial element in the youth's effective participation in program activities. The project will make family intervention a part of the intake counseling process. As noted, parents will be solicited to participate in the orientation/counseling process where youth learn about the YEDC program and participant responsibilities. It is recognized that families are the most significant support factor in youth's lives.

We have examined the major underlying design features that contribute to the potential success of the YEDC program. Aside from the attributes of the program, attention must be given to the political context that will mandate the operational reality of the program. In other words, in placing

the project in a political context, we view the real probabilities of program implementation.

The major political feasibility support comes from the collective inherent power of the Mississippi Conference of Black Mayors (MCBM), Inc. The MCBM, the grantee, has a network of rural development supporters on various government levels. Further, the rural platform is reinforced by national lobby groups such as Rural America, Inc. and the National Rural Center. These groups recognize and support the needs of the MCBM membership towns. Additionally, rural needs have not been sufficiently addressed by the Carter administration in any terms comparable to the needs present in the communities. With reelection on the horizon, major constituents, such as rural populations, must be spoken to. The MCBM proposal provides a mechanism to address rural youth employment needs.

The reality of proposal funding is based on several factors. First, the agency's funding priority and the time of year the proposal is received. If the proposal is received at a time when excess funds remain, the chances for funding are favorable. Secondly, the demonstrated capabilities of the grantee to mobilize support and resources is critical. The mayors have solicited support from several federal agencies in the past for other projects with great success. Lastly, the skill of the project negotiator in defending the concept and convincing the grantor that this project is the "best" approach and this target group is the most deserving bears weight. The program proposal will undergo cycles of scrutiny to ensure that a concise, well-designed, deliberate prepared proposal will be presented. The proposal developer will serve as negotiator for the proposal.

Using the proposal developer as negotiator ensures that information on implications and consequences will be appropriately addressed. With the concerted efforts of the mayors, lobby groups, and the independent funding source, the potential reality of the YEDC concept looks favorable.

Conclusion

The YEDC proposal as of December 1979, is being prepared for submission to Youthwork, Inc. for funding support. It is expected by the first of the year (1980) the program will be in its early implementation stages. It has taken six (6) months to put all the pieces together. Now that all the pieces are together, the future of the YEDCs is promising. Youthwork, Inc. has committed support to the YEDC project and will assist the MCBM in leveraging additional funds from the federal government.

The YEDC concept is viewed as a fresh approach for dealing with rural youth. Anticipation of its success is high. Rural youth who participated in the planning process have already organized youth community groups across the state in anticipation of the YEDC taking form. School systems and public agencies have agreed to participate and perform definite roles, they wait in anticipation. The probable success of the YEDC can be seen in the spirit of anticipation.

FOOTNOTES

1. James L. Walker, "The Current Structure and Dimensions of Rural Poverty in the South," (1970) p. 10.
2. Southern Regional Council, The Job Ahead, Manpower Policies in the South (Atlanta, Georgia: 1975) p. 4.
3. Arthur M. Ford, Political Economics of Rural Poverty in the South (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Ballinger Publishing Company, 1973) p. 22.
4. Ford, p. 5.
5. Walker, p. 4.
6. Mississippi Employment Security Commission "Youth Employment". A Report on Youth Employment in Mississippi (Jackson, Mississippi: MESC, 1978) p. 12-15.
7. Report of the First National Conference on Rural America, April 14-17, 1975 Toward a Platform for Rural America (Rural America, Inc. and Rural Housing Alliance, Washington, D.C., 1976) p. 19.
8. Report, p. 30.
9. Report, p. 38
10. Southern Regional Council, p. 9.
11. Brooks, Sandra, Handbook of Selected Data for Mississippi (Jackson, Mississippi: Mississippi Research and Development Center, 1976) p. 25.
12. Report, p. 39.
13. Ewan Clague and Leo Kramer, Manpower Policies and Program, A Review, 1935-1975 (Kalamazoo and Washington: W. W. Lipton Institute for Employment Research, 1976) p. 18 - 21.
14. Report, p. 12.
15. Report, p. 13.

16. Report, p. 22.
17. Sar A. Levitan and Garth L. Mangum, Federal Training and Work Programs in the Sixties (Michigan:Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1969) p. 229.
18. Levitan, p. 197.
19. Report, 17.
20. Levitan, p. 179.
21. Southern Regional Council, p. 13.
22. Report, p. 20.
23. Southern Regional Council, p. 21.
24. Report, p. 15.
25. Gordon Bloom and Herbert Northrup, Economics of the Labor Market (Homewood, Ill.:Irvin, 1977) p. 424.
26. U.S. Department of Labor and the U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Employment and Training Report of the President (Washington, D.C.:U.S. Government Printing Office, 1977) p. 45.
27. George E. Johnson, "Do Structural Employment and Training Programs Influence Unemployment", Challenge , Vol. 22, No. 2, 1979.
28. U. S. Department of Labor, p. 91.
29. U. S. Department of Labor, p. 93.

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