# AFDC Students in the California Community Colleges 1992-93

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A Thesis

by

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Abstract

of

AFDC Students in the California Community Colleges 1992-93

Current Welfare Reform policies limit the time available for education and training for welfare recipients to one year or less. Training that provides these recipients with skills to earn above poverty wages is necessary for many of them to rise out of poverty. Whether vocational education of short duration in California Community Colleges can be a vehicle for economic mobility was investigated in this study.

Data from the California Community Colleges, the California Department of Social Services, and California's Employment Development Department was used to determine whether long term economic benefits were available to graduates of vocational education programs in the California Community Colleges.

Completing a vocational Certificate or Degree program of 18 units or more at a California Community College provided long term economic benefits to nearly 70 percent of unemployed AFDC female students of prime working age. Alternatively, although unemployed female students not completing a program of 18 or more units had increases in earnings averaging $1,500 each year for three years after college, they did not move out of poverty. More importantly, this

group of women did not complete programs at rates even close to the rates of their comparison group of unemployed female students.

_____ , Committee Chair
Robert Kloss, Ph.D.

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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

Education has long been acclaimed as the vehicle for mobility between social and economic classes. Most people believe that education provides resources to take advantage of opportunities often unavailable to them through any other means. The recent attention to education's role in providing vocational education will test the ability of education to act as a mobility mediator for the low economic classes currently being effected by the welfare reforms of the last decade.

The urgency of defining education's role in welfare reform is generated by a fundamental change in the U. S. public debate about welfare in recent years. The terms "welfare" and "jobs" are increasingly being linked in public discussions and the policies emanating from them. "The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act (PRWORA) passed by Congress and signed [into law] by President Clinton in August of 1996 represents the largest single change in federal provisions since the 'Great Society' years of the Lyndon Johnson administration" (Association of California School Administrators, 1998).

Current "Welfare Reform" policies focus on "Work First" and minimal training when necessary to move people in poverty into the workforce. The intent is to find employment for people receiving public assistance. The 1996 PRWORA replaced the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) with the

Temporary Assistance to Needy Families Block Grant (TANF). The legislation eliminated the *entitlement* in assistance programs, and among other provisions, placed time limits on receipt of benefits and required states to "move recipients into work training or jobs" (Sahr, 1998).

There has been, however, a radical disappearance of jobs that pay adequate wages for individuals with less than a high school education that would move them out of poverty. "Unless one has at least a high school diploma (and better yet, a college degree), it is extremely difficult to earn enough to support a family" (New York State College of Human Ecology, 1996). The problem states face is that unless recipients improve their educational status, it will be difficult for states to move those welfare recipients with low educational attainment into steady work.

The 1996 PRWORA does allow vocational education to count as work for as long as 12 months for up to 30 percent of those counted in the work participation rates required by the legislation. Policymakers continue to battle over issues in the PRWORA and legislation continues to amend its provisions. For example, Senator Paul Wellstone proposed an amendment to the Higher Education reauthorization Act (HEA) in the summer of 1998 that would have expanded "educational opportunities for recipients to include all types of postsecondary education and would extend the time limit for these activities" (American Association of Community Colleges,1998a). The American

Association of Community Colleges (AACC) (1998a) took the position that “the current 12 month limit hampers an individual's ability to find lasting, satisfying employment." In that position statement, they note that increasing the amount of time that a welfare recipient can participate in vocational education is "the most effective strategy for achieving self-sufficiency.” And, they maintain that: “Education and training for welfare recipients remains a priority for several other Capitol Hill lawmakers.”

The Republican controlled conference committee, however, rejected the Senate provision to expand the time limits for education and training and the ability of states to use postsecondary education strategies to meet their "work participation rate" requirements. “Instead, the Comptroller General is directed to study the effectiveness of educational approaches and rapid employment approaches to helping welfare recipients and other low-income adults become employed and economically self-sufficient” (American Association of Community Colleges, 1998b).

Current research monitoring the effects of the PRWORA indicates some devastating consequences for the recipients being denied benefits under the current provisions. The National Coalition for the Homeless (NCH) (1998a) have released preliminary reports from studies on the impact of welfare reform on homelessness from monitoring efforts in Los Angeles, Atlanta, Chicago, and various Health Care for the Homeless projects across the nation.

In the Los Angeles study, the Los Angeles Coalition to End Hunger & Homelessness reporting on the impact of welfare reform on women and children from April 1997 to November 1997 found that 20 percent of 602 families surveyed had had their incomes cut or reduced. Of those, 55 percent became homeless. For those families surveyed where no one was employed, "the reasons for not working included lack of child care, homelessness, *lack of education and skills* [emphasis added], and lack of transportation" (NCH, 1998a). Even for those who did find jobs, seventeen percent of the 602 families were employed but 70 percent of those employed were employed "just above or below minimum wage" (NCH, 1998a).

In Atlanta, beginning in June 1997, 161 personal interviews with families who had already become homeless were conducted by the Task Force for the Homeless in 14 homeless service agencies. Of the 161 homeless women interviewed, 93 percent had received public assistance in the previous year; "of those, 50% had their benefits terminated within the past year and 23% had their benefits reduced" (NCH, 1998a).

Other welfare reform monitoring projects presented in an issue brief, Early Findings on Welfare and Well-Being, from a joint project of the Children's Defense Fund and National Coalition for the Homeless (1998) have found unprecedented homelessness for children concentrated in former TANF families. They report that other studies show between 10 and 29 percent of former and

current TANF recipients increasingly can not pay their rent and were either evicted or face eviction. In addition, they report that 40 to 71 percent who left TANF did not find employment and for those who did find employment, "the proportion with above-poverty wages is small and dwindling."

## Community College Benefits for Welfare Recipients

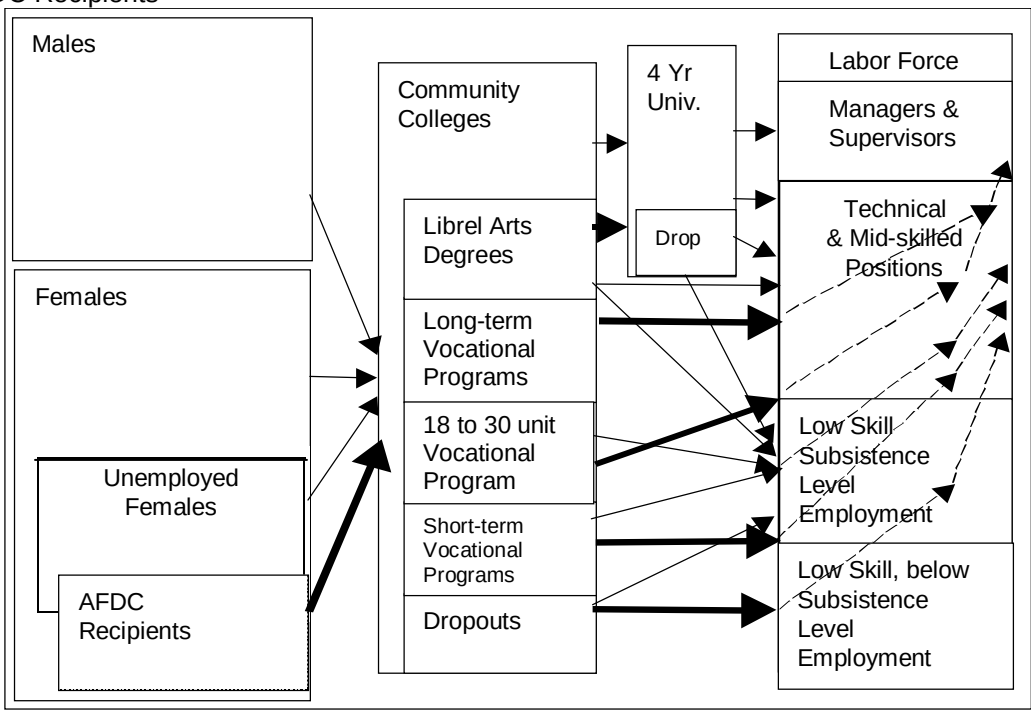
Clearly without additional skills current and former TANF head of households and their families face an increasingly desperate future. Short-term job training, however, has been shown to be ineffectual in raising people out of poverty (Grubb, 1996a; Jencks, 1993). Recent studies have provided evidence of long term economic benefits to sub-Bacalauriate education provided by community colleges (Grubb, 1996a, 1996b; Sanchez, Laanan, and Wiseley, 1999). Whether the long term effects of community college education extend to all classes as social mobility, human capital and certification theories would suggest or whether the earnings benefits of community college education are short lived or nonexistent for those entering with low skills or little attachment to the labor force to move out of poverty must be answered if we are to inform policy being made in the coming years.

Theories of class and status structures in America have long been used to understand the effects of education on mobility and education's role in solving the social problem of poverty in America. Many studies over the past thirty years have provided strong evidence of economic benefits of postsecondary education.

Most of the work in developing the relationship of education to earnings, however, focus on comparing high school dropouts, high school graduates, those with “some college,” and those with four-year college degrees.

Community college degrees and certificates are included in the “some college” category and until recently, little was known about the effects of community college education on the life chances of graduates from those institutions. Many colleges are responding to the needs of the current population of welfare recipients with very short-term programs that meet the limitations of current welfare reform policies. This study demonstrates that vocational training of sufficient length in California Community Colleges does function to move unemployed women on welfare living in poverty, who may have weak or no attachment to the labor force into employment that will move them out of poverty. The study also shows, however, that vocational training in community colleges that is not of sufficient length or content does not, however, move many of them out of poverty but simply turns them into the “working poor,” often still below the poverty line. This study provides evidence that programs of 18 to 30 units, usually one year or less, at community colleges in California can provide earnings benefits to raise and keep them out of poverty. Figure 1 below provides a visual view of the basis for this study.

Figure 1
Critical Paths Through the Community Colleges
For AFDC Recipients




The figure above shows the paths through community colleges for the unemployed female AFDC recipients. The dark solid lines show their paths based on human capital (Becker, 1964, 1975; Rosenbaum, 1976; Hope, 1984) and mobility (e.g. Meyer, 1977; Collins, 1979; Grubb, 1996) theories. The dotted lines show the paths that the belief system of individualism would provide for those who want to work hard to succeed (Cagan, 1978; Banks, 1989; Bellah and Lasch, 1978; Bellah et al., 1985; Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Ward, 1883; Wilson, 1996). Whether the group of AFDC women who were unemployed while in college gain mobility in the labor force through education and if so, under what circumstances are addressed by this study. Whether education as the vehicle for

mobility between social and economic classes will decrease welfare roles may depend on the ability of short term training to provide sufficient benefits for long term success, as shown by the dotted lines within the labor force box. Critics of those theories suggest.however, there is another aspect of the question this study must address to provide an understanding of the effects of community college programs. The critics of mobility theories recognize that education has no power over the economic opportunities available to the citizenry (Grubb, 1996b, 1999; Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Jencks, 1996; Wilson, 1996). Instead they suggest that education, especially at the low-skill levels, simply reorders the queue of the under and un-employed.

Moreover, they believe that, the educational systems in America are themselves structured under a class model that has only minor movement toward equality of opportunity and back as the focus of society sways toward using the redistributive effects of equal schooling and back again to meet the economic demands of the social structure (Jordan, 1998; Grubb, 1996, 1998; Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; The National Center for Public Policy and Higher Education, 1998). While four-year universities are increasingly available only to upper economic classes due to cost and location, the community colleges may be the only possible post secondary choice for many citizens in the middle and lower classes (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982).

The job opportunities for which graduates of these institutions compete are reflective of the resources necessary to enter them. University graduates typically vie for managerial and supervisory positions while community colleges prepare students for labor intensive and technical positions (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Grubb, 1996b, 1998). The new mini-programs being developed at community colleges for low-skilled low-wage jobs presents a new level of stratification in the system of higher education in America. And, the job opportunities for which that level of education prepares the students are far more subject to social and economic policies regardless of the effects of education on mobility.

This study provides evidence that vocational education in California Community Colleges can serve as a mechanism for social mobility. Although the study will does not attempt to show a reordering the queue of the under- and unemployed in California as suggested in the literature, it will provide strength to their argument by exhibiting the minimal effects of short term job training. The study exposes the inability of short term training to provide a sustainable income after college required for the economic structure to absorb them as additional long term employees in the labor market under the current economic and social policy paradigms.

Theories addressing why short term training is unable to provide sustained employment is discussed in the literature but further research is required on it's

effects with the new social policies recently enacted. Even with the new policies, however, understanding the constraints they place on the economy and education and the effects those policies will have on similar populations as the one in this study is urgently needed. Moreover, whether the constraints of the economic system as currently maintained simply allows displacement of current workers with newly trained low-skilled workers in jobs that will not provide the long term economic benefits available to other economic classes through the educational system should be researched to provide a basis for educational choices being made by those in the low-skilled population.

This thesis will discuss the social policies and economic strategies employed over the last century that are a product of a belief system that ignores the structural basis for the social problem of poverty and focuses blame on the individual, family, and culture. Evidence is provided that the unemployed women receiving AFDC in the 1992-93 academic year not completing programs of at least 18 units moved into jobs with below subsistence wages and did not gain sufficient resources to continue in the labor force much less move out of poverty. More importantly, the study raises questions about the resources available to continue in community colleges long enough to complete an 18 unit program. If the literature is correct, that inability to continue in either education or employment due to a lack of resources will further diminish their attachment to the labor force.

# Chapter 2

## Theory and Review of the Literature

Individualism is a basic and fundamental concept of American social thought and culture (Cagan, 1978; Banks, 1989; Bellah and Lasch, 1978; Bellah et al., 1985; Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Ward, 1883; Wilson, 1996). Elizabeth Cagan called individualism a "cornerstone of democratic society" in her 1978 article on educational reform. In this system of beliefs, life chances are seen as a result of individual effort, hard work and personal achievement. The opportunity to improve one's "station" in life is presumed by many to be equally available to all members of American society regardless of race, ethnic background, social class or gender. Even those with the greatest barriers to success accept this belief with little or no questioning of the impact of social structures on their life chances (Grubb, 1996a;Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Jencks, 1993; Wilson, 1996).

The focus on the individual results in beliefs that have existed since early American culture began to develop. It is the failure of the family (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Jencks, 1996; Wilson, 1996) and "…the moral fabric of individuals, not the social and economic structure of society, that is taken to be the root of the problem" (Wilson, 1996: p. 164).

Education has been suggested as the main vehicle for both instilling these values in social citizenry and providing the equal opportunity to achieve their

benefits. The realization of this ideal, however, has not come within reach of large segments of American society. Yet, in America, the schools have been very successful in the conveying the values of individualism, but much controversy remains on the ability of schooling to meet the expectations of that ideal (i.e. providing for mobility).

In order to understand how the structural inequalities continue to be ignored in both the belief system of most Americans and the social policies that are developed because of them, it is necessary to understand the economic and social functions education provides as well as the economic reality of the social and economic structures of the American capitalist economy that education works within. First the theories of education as a vehicle for mobility will be discussed. Second, the evolution of the belief system of individualism and its consistent focus on the failure of individuals, families, and whole groups of people will be presented. Next, the evolution of the labor market in America and the recent globalization of both the labor market and the economy will be discussed. And lastly, the ability of education to provide mobility within the constraints of the social policies that have resulted from those beliefs and the influences of the capitalist economic system will be scrutinized.

## Education and Mobility

Since the earliest sociological discourses, both in America with those by Ellsworth Faris (1928), Albion Small (1897) and Lester Ward (1883) and in

Europe by Emile Durkheim (1903) and Max Weber (1906), education has been enveloped in the explanations of social construction. Within the sociological writings on education and stratification a variety of approaches, questions, and concerns are developed. Organizational theorists (e.g. Bendix, 1966; Bidwell, 1965; Meyer, 1970; Meyer and Rowan, 1978; Meyer and Scott, 1983; Slate, 1976) discuss the roles of schools in society "with an awareness of political and organizational power" (Perrow, 1986; p. 265). Other theorists "applied ideas about work and occupations to school teaching and administration...(e.g. Gordon, 1957; Gross, Mason, and McEachern, 1958; Lortie, 1975)" while others "probed the subcultures of schools and colleges (e.g. Coleman, 1961; Trow, 1962; Wallace, 1966)..." (Bidwell, 1988; p. 449).

During the past hundred years, however, the idea of schooling as mobility-mediator has increasingly been criticized. "While social inequality is a social fact in American society, the contribution of schooling to inequality is a matter of debate" (Mehan, 1986; p. 1). And, whether schooling makes a difference in the life chances available to members of a society is the essence of the larger topic examined and presented in this thesis, that of the structural mechanics of social stratification. To understand how one attains positions in the American society, prevailing stratification models will be presented while focusing on the role that schooling plays on later life chances as suggested by those models. Furthermore, how access to education is managed to function within the social

stratification system to reinforce the structural inequities of that system must be understood.

The most central concerns of theorists writing in the sociology of education and stratification can be described by two somewhat generic and evolving terms - *Form* and *Content*. Research analyzing form and content discusses the relationships between education, social stratification and mobility, and issues of justice. Moreover, those sociologists discuss how, in the educational mechanisms, "life chances are embedded in the institutional fabric of society" (Bidwell, 1988; p. 449).

Although the literature has generally, since the beginnings in America at least, dealt with the institution, many sociologists have shifted their focus of attention from institutional topics to more group and individual-centered topics of study. This shift to a more ethnographic approach has generated a preponderance of classroom level studies. To describe the relationship between educational attainment and social mobility, however, a synthesis of the research into classroom and counselling interactions, the social organization of education, and the society-level socio-political analysis of institutional change is necessary. The synthesis has begun to crystallize in work both recently published and research underway by conflict theorists, symbolic interactionists, and ethnomethodologists to mention a few (Turner, 1988). The macro approach to stratification has shown us how the society is stratified, or rather, the location of

individuals in the system, and what movement there is within the stratification system. The micro oriented approaches inform us of the daily interaction processes and mechanisms of the stratification system (Mehan, 1986; p. 1).

A variety of components of the social stratification system seem to be common to nearly all the stratification paradigms in the literature: background socioeconomic variables, attained socioeconomic status, and schooling, where attained status is a function of background and schooling. And, the various theories of stratification can be distinguished most generally on the role they give to education. Two roles for schooling seem to predominate in the social stratification theories: one of mobility-mediator and the other of reproducer of the *status quo*.

No discussion of research on education would be complete without mentioning sociologists such as Durkheim, Weber, Ward, and Sorokin or the social philosopher John Dewey. Questions of social control dominated sociology in the first half of the 20th century. "Americans and Europeans approached the issue from different starting points," (Bidwell, 1988; p. 450) however, and some basic delineation of their differing arguments is called for.

## Social Control: The Americans

As early as 1883 Lester Ward posited in his *Dynamic Sociology* that "The principle mechanisms of social betterment...were mechanisms of individual improvement." Like many sociologists to follow (most until World War II and

many to the present), he believed that individuals were what made up society, change them and you change society. Education then, "by virtue of its beneficial effects on a person's values and knowledge, was among the chief instruments of social progress" (Bidwell, 1988; p. 450).

These sociologists focused on the *form* of education. They proposed that education taught individuals how to function in a complex social organization. John Dewey (1900), possibly the most cogent advocate of this approach, described education as a preparation for adult society. Schools were to "form students' capacity for independent, critical social practice." Albion Small, Dewey's colleague at the University of Chicago, included *content* in his idea of education's role. He believed that along with learning social skills, students needed practical skills to function in society (Bidwell, 1988; p. 450).

In the mid nineteenth century the educational reformer Horace Mann described the role of education as one in which education developed character and discipline necessary for adult success (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982). By the turn of the century, reformers began focusing more and more on content as awareness of the contradictory and "potentially revolutionary" nature of education providing both the concepts of "individual emancipation," independent thought and critical awareness, and the social control aspects focusing on "the behavior appropriate for class-differentiated citizenship" (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; p. 293).

The concepts of preparing students for citizenship were increasingly being replaced by the idea that schooling taught job skills (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982).

The shift from liberal education to vocational education increased throughout the twentieth century. Education became “the primary mechanism for preparing individuals for labor markets” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; p. 293). The transformation of education to vocational institutions “extended the class divisions of schooling and further undermined the conception of liberal education” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 293). Grubb and Lazerson (1982) further state that “Older conceptions of liberal education have been eliminated at every level of education (including higher education) in favor of vocational conceptions” (P.293). And, they conclude that this transformation implies that with this emphasis on vocational goals, schooling is now evaluated only by rates of return on investment in the form of increased earnings.

Grubb and Lazerson (1982; p. 54) indicate that Becker’s development of the “human capitol” theory as the economic effects of investment in education on employment and earnings in the 1960s “completed the identification of education with income returns.” More importantly they believed that that association of education and economic returns “codified the basic principle for evaluation: investment in children, and in educational programs specifically, ought to be undertaken only when the return in the form of increased earnings is at least as high as the return to private investment.” Moreover, the linking of education with

return on investment set barriers for those endorsing legislation and policy to utilize education to benefit children or the lower class. They further emphasized that:

> It has become impossible to justify public spending on schools that are challenging, enjoyable places for children; only demonstration of future benefits – in cognitive skills, in reduced delinquency and crime, above all in earnings differentials – is regarded as a legitimate argument.

## Social Control: The Europeans

Durkheim believed as the Americans did that schooling forms the student's habits, values, and skills which are needed to succeed in society. He believed, however, that "only the state, in contrast to the family, religious orders, or other parochial groups, could educate with sufficient disinterest to serve a whole nation." Durkheim was less concerned with teaching critical thought and practical action than were his American counterparts and more concerned with developing a national identity and preparing the student for social integration. In Durkheim's argument, three properties of schooling made it a natural vehicle for socialization: (1) schooling prepared the student for the regularities of the workplace, (2) teachers mirrored the authority figure of the state, and (3) students, probably for the first time, experienced a "society of equals" (Bidwell, 1988; p. 451).

Max Weber, unlike Durkheim, was not concerned with education per se. His delineation of education's effects on society stemmed from his analysis of social stratification. He proposed that education became a means of legitimation

of traditional status honor by preparing students not for work so much as a "conduct of life" (Weber, 1946; pp. 242-243, 426). Although he saw education instituting new competition for status honor with training for occupations such as engineering and law, he also explained that major status groups would control the access and content of university education (Bidwell, 1988; p. 451).

## Social Stratification

As the Great Depression took hold in the U.S., the optimism of the earlier sociologists waned. Social stratification was a prime topic among the new concerns of the times. The forms and mechanisms of stratification were now seen to include the educational system.

Pitirim Sorokin was one of the first American sociologists to tie education to larger systems of social stratification (Ritzer, 1988: p. 52). He, like Weber, understood that educational systems were not the great vehicles for open social mobility that others (e.g. Parsons) suggested they were. He did believe that they could be open if familial control of access, finance and content were reduced, which he believed was becoming the case in America by 1927. Recent research of Scottish Universities, where access is granted more by ability, seem to suggest he was correct (Hope, 1984; Wilson, 1996). It is important to recognize that Sorokin believed the schools to be mechanisms of stratification, what he called "aristocritization" not a democratizer or leveler of society.

Sorokin also recognized that when an educational institution gained autonomy, it would substitute its own agenda, values, etc. for those of the prior controlling influences i.e. family, military, and the church. Two indicators of institutional autonomy were identified by Sorokin: "(1) the degree to which individuals' educational attainment is independent of ascriptive characteristics; and (2) the degree to which individuals' occupational attainment depends upon the kinds and amounts of schooling attained"(Bidwell, 1988; p. 452,453).

Research in education has progressed in the field of stratification through a variety of approaches. Studies of educational opportunity allocation (Alexander et al., 1975, 1978; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Coleman, 1966; Jencks, 1972, 1979, 1983; Mehan, 1981, 1986; Sewell et al., 1975, 1976) --- Sorokin's first indicator of institutional autonomy --- describe the differences in education available in a stratified society as well as the effects of schooling itself with socialization in such a society (Illich, 1970; Lauter and Howe, 1970 – cited in Skolnick, 1973) and the methods by which both students and faculty maintain the stratification system (Mehan, 1979, 1984). Even in such a contrasting array, which represents only a few grains of sand on the beach of current literature, a consistency arises. "...primary sources of individual differences in educational life chances arise more from the traits of students than from differences of access to school resources or exposure to school social organization" (Bidwell, 1988; p. 456).

This necessarily includes the social structure *visa vi* the effects of the social environment before, during and after schooling (Wilson, 1996).

Occupational attainment as a topic for research, Sorokin's second indicator, has followed two distinct perspectives: 1) "credentialing" or “Signalling”, the practice where certificates are awarded by schools which employers accept, is questioned or rather the relationship of what the students learn while attaining the credential and the jobs the credentials qualify students for is questioned, by some sociologists (e.g. Meyer, 1977; Collins, 1979; Grubb, 1996); 2) and "human capitol" where "schooling endows individuals with cognitive and motivational resources that are not otherwise available and that are essential for productive life on the job and elsewhere" (Bidwell, 1988; p. 454) are studied by others (e.g. Becker, 1964, 1975; Rosenbaum, 1976; Hope, 1984).

## Education, Class and the Labor Market

To understand how education functions in the current capitalist economy of America it is necessary to describe the transformation of the labor market over the past century. “The growth of entrepreneurial capitalism in the nineteenth century, which generated class heterogeneity at the same time that emigration made cities ethnically heterogeneous, increased the importance of schooling” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982, p. 132). The transformation of the system of production in America from cottage industries to a factory system of production was accompanied by a similar shift to vocational education in the schools. Public

education was used “to contain the social disruption of entrepreneurial capitalism, and to prepare youth for occupational success” (Grubb & Lazerson).

While education was considered the mechanism for socializing children to the shifting labor market, conceptions of socialization were differentiated based on class. “Educating poor children became synonymous with overcoming the childrearing deficiencies of poor families” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982). The children from families of both lower-class, mostly recent immigrants, and the middle-class, mostly white-protestants, needed to learn the new disciplines of work, such as punctuality, regularity, and the routines of work. The need for schooling for the poor was attributed to the failure of the family while the need for schooling for children of middle-class families was a “mild corrective of some of its deficiencies” (Grubb & Lazerson). Grubb & Lazerson continue the explanation of the differentiation with:

> By the end of the nineteenth century schooling had come to stand in *loco parentis* for all children, to remedy the different difficiencies of both poor and middle-class parents. In differentiating students by class and race while claiming universality and promising to mold one country out of a heterogeneous population, nineteenth century public education established the duality that has been elaborated ever since…as schools became more vocationally oriented, they began to degrade older conceptions of liberal education on which they were founded. The goals of schooling which Thomas Jefferson had promoted---to provide every citizen of the republic with critical facilities, “to diffuse knowledge more generally through the mass of the people”---were potentially disruptive in a class society…Lower-class children needed moral training, not extensive knowledge, and education valued for its own sake became a luxury for an elite few. While all should go to school, all children would not be equally educated.

The expansion of secondary education in the early twentieth century was driven by the increased industrialization of the American economy and was similarly differentiated by class. Vocational tracking of students from the lower-

class was nearly universally accepted in America. The superintendent of the Boston school system put it most aptly in a speech just prior to World War I when he stated that the schools “have offered equal opportunity for all to receive one kind of education, but what will make them democratic is to provide opportunity for all to receive such education as will fit them equally well for their particular life work”(as cited in Grubb & Lazerson, 1982).

By the time of the expansion of post-secondary education after World War II, a vocational purpose dominated secondary education. The expansion of post-secondary education was necessitated by the increase in demand for highly educated labor especially in the defense industry and education itself. The expansion of higher education, however, became problematic as the focus of higher education became more and more vocational. Students were attracted to colleges because of the higher earnings and increasingly the students attracted to the colleges included those from the working and lower-class which threatened the historic role of higher education of perpetuating class and racial differences.

Grubb & Lazerson (1982) attribute the rapid expansion of the community college system as the nations solution to this problem. They state:

> Again, the conflict inherent in the rush for places was muted by combining “equality of opportunity” with the creation of alternative institutions and programs for “appropriate” students. The principle mechanism of stratification was the expansion of the community college, which---because of its lower entrance requirements and because of barriers of distance and money---tended to attract students of lower incomes and lower class standing and more minority students than four year institutions, and to prepare them for working-class rather than middle-class jobs…Once again the concept of equal educational opportunity was compromised: while promising to be a route to social mobility for all, in reality education continued to distinguish students by their class and racial backgrounds.

The next transformation of the labor market began in the second half of the twentieth century. With advancements in technology and communications, systems of production became more technical and mechanized with the introduction of robotics. Line worker positions became operators of complex machinery. The result was a decrease in demand for low skilled workers and a smaller increase in jobs that required more technical skills. Even in manufacturing, while low-skilled jobs decreased, "…substantial numbers of new professional, technical, and managerial positions have been created. However, such jobs require at least some years of post-secondary education" (Wilson, 1996: p. 31).

The steady expansion of the labor market in the 1950s and 60s produced many more service jobs than manufacturing jobs. And, that shift from blue-collar jobs available to workers with little formal education to service jobs brought into the labor market more women who were traditionally excluded (Wilson, 1996: p. 27). Wilson (1996: p. 26) provides evidence that the deindustrialization of the economy had a great effect on the availability of jobs:

> In the 1970s, two-thirds of prime age [22-58] male workers with less than a high school education worked full-time, year round, in eight out of ten years. During the 1980s, only half did so...And, of those with high school diplomas, one out of ten did not hold a job in 1993, up sharply from 1967 when only one out of fifty reported that he had no job throughout the year…These changes are related to the decline of the mass production system in the United States.

With the expansion of the labor market in the 1950s came a growth in the strength of American labor unions and with the unions came more stable jobs.

When the stability of jobs increased, “the underclass shrank. Now it is growing again” (Jencks, 1996a: p. 114). Labor market flexibility prefers weak unions where employers can hire and fire at will, where new workers are easy to find, and labor functions as a commodity, an “infinitely divisible and rearrangeable good, like electric power…it guarantees that some workers will never find steady employment” (Jencks, 1996a: p. 114). In Jencks (1996a) book on how working poor in the underclass become homeless, he describes how thoroughly the American belief in flexible labor markets is embraced: “Almost everyone else [except labor leaders] believes that efficiency (often called competitiveness) must come first, and that social stability will somehow follow. How anyone can still believe this after watching what happened in the 1980s I do not know, but most people do.”

As advances in technology facilitated a more global economy and market for goods and services, it also facilitated expansion of the labor force by providing a new source of low-wage, low skill workforce from abroad. American companies could now move and expand production systems to utilize workers at the lowest wage globally. With globalization, the trend of deindustrializing America grew more rapid. With that deindustrialization came a similar increase in poverty due in part to the disappearance of manufacturing jobs that paid living wages for medium and low-skilled workers. Economic growth today does not necessarily produce good jobs in America. In The Disappearance of Work,

Wilson (1996: p. 153) states: “Capital and technology are so mobile that they do not always create good jobs in their own backyard.”

Concern for the increase in poverty did not include any recognition of the shift in labor market structures evidenced by Wilson (1996) as he quotes the work of economists Sheldon Danziger and Peter Gottschalk:

> In our view, the problem is not that more people have chosen not to work, but rather that demand by employers for less-skilled workers, even those willing to work at low wages, has declined. We find it paradoxical that so much attention has been focused on changing the labor-supply behavior of welfare recipients and so little has been given to changing the demand side of the labor market that has been increasingly unable to employ less-skilled and less-experienced workers.

During this shift in the labor market, however, Wilson (1996: p. 29)) found that “unlike men with lower education, college-educated men are working more, not less.” He provides evidence from numerous studies, one of which, John Kasarda’s 1990 study of nine major cities in the U.S., is telling of both trends. In Kasarda’s study “Jobs traditionally held by high school dropouts declined in all nine northern cities between 1980 and 1990, while those held by college graduates increased.” even those new jobs that were available “for workers with limited training and education” are in the services sector and are disproportionately held by women (Wilson, 1996: p. 32).

In those new service sector jobs, a different set of skills are required than those used by workers on production lines. The need for good language skills and those skills used where extensive public contact is required continues to increase. Even advancement into white-collar positions continues to increasingly require those “softer” skills unlike the “hard” job specific skills of blue-collar work.

And, the women with limited education but sufficient soft skills filling those new low-wage low-skilled jobs often times have children they must support.

Norton Grubb (1996b) provides the relationship of positions in the labor market---low-skilled, medium and technical-skilled, managerial and supervisory, and professional--- with the educational institutions---high school, community college, four year university, and professional school dropouts and graduates. The system he identifies as the supply-side of worker training evidences the current stratification system of secondary and post secondary education where access is determined more by economic resources.

With the increased vocational purpose of education in the twentieth century came a stronger mechanism for perpetuating the stratification system with “form” directed at the upper classes and “content” at the lower. Those in the working and lower-class have recognized, however, that even with its limited abilities, education may be the only mechanism for social mobility for those without wealth or status.

## Education, Capitalism and Social Policies

To understand how current welfare reform policy is using education to maintain structural inequalities in America it is necessary to understand how the belief systems behind social policy were developed and maintained. Furthermore, it is necessary to uncover the relationship between American capitalist economic policy and the social policies they influence.

Education is shown to be a mechanism to enforce economic and social policy. Moreover, social policy is discribed as the mechanism for enforcing economic policies of corporate capitalism in America through “Interest Group” politics. These policies are clearly shown to use both education and social policies to provide and maintain a more stable “army of the unemployed” of able bodied men, and more recently women, for employers (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Jencks, 1996a, 1996b; Wilson, 1996).

Social policy will be discussed in light of the American belief system that places blame on individuals, families and groups while disregarding structural systems of inequalities. With a preponderance of research into the causes and effects of poverty illuminating the structural nature of poverty, even coming from the General Accounting Office (GAO) in Washington D.C., policymakers have continued to ignore structural systems of inequality when developing social policy. Some contrasts of the American and European models are drawn using the work of Wilson (1996), Jencks (1996b), and Grubb (1996).

### *Social policy and poverty.*

The same problems confronting children and families keep reemerging because the reforms to treat them have always been contradictory and incomplete (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Jencks, 1996a, 1996b; Wilson, 1996). Public discussions of parental deficiencies focus on the effects of inequalities rather than their origins. “The myth of the family as the ‘basic unit of society’ has

led us to ignore the social and economic basis of family life and to blame the family for its problems" (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 40). And, discussions of family policy ignore the role of the state in economic policy. Moreover, the social welfare programs with which policymakers respond to the problems of poverty are based on class differences.

The tendency to blame families has its roots in the belief system that has guided American social policy since the early nineteenth century. While society changed from blaming individual families to blaming the family in whole groups, mainly immigrants and slaves, in the 1840's and 50's, it ignored the structural inequities (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 16). Social policy was also guided by a second belief that families are a private institution. Concern in the early twentieth century for keeping children with their single parent mothers in the home, usually widows and wives of disabled husbands, initiated the provision of "Mothers' pensions". "Since financial support of children was ideally a private responsibility, the funding of public institutions remained inadequate; public schools, juvenile facilities, and day nurseries were often grim places, and mother's pensions were stingy and their recipients stigmatized" (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 27).

Both conservatives and liberals have responded to poverty with social policies intended to help children. Both have generally ignored, however, the origins of income and racial inequalities in the class divisions of a capitalist

economy. As Wilson describes: “Too often, as reflected in the current public policy debates on welfare reform, the discussion of behavior and social responsibility fails to mention the structural underpinnings of poverty and welfare.” The focus is on shortcomings of the family without regards to the conditions that “have produced certain unique responses and behavior patterns over time” (Wilson, 1996: p. 53). Failing to address those origins of class guarantee structural inequalities will continue.

The origins and influences of poverty have been recognized as structural only in times of great economic uncertainty and social unrest such as the 1890s, 1930s, and 1960s and it is during those times of recognition of structural origin that poverty policies have been the most effective (Grubb & Lazerson,1982).

Mother’s pensions and childcare in 1909 and expansion of public schooling, especially high schools, were an effort to “mute the antagonism between capital and labor” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982). The focus on and emergence of vocational education and tracking that “continued the separation of middle-class and lower class children were justified by the different child rearing abilities of their parents” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982). Stratified education and social welfare smoothed the growth of capitalism in the early twentieth century.

Until the Great Depression, the state did very little to manage the economy. By the end of the 1930s, however, pressures began to mount from a coalition of labor leaders and liberals to take a more active role in managing

business cycles and the unregulated market to prevent recessions. These *Keynesian* policies “ranked full employment as the goal rather than maximum profits” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982). Business, worried that full employment would increase labor costs, quickly opposed Keynesian policies noting concerns of state intervention in private enterprise. By the time the Employment Act of 1946 was passed, it had been diluted to providing advisory rather than administrative agencies and set vague goals of “high” and “maximum” rather than full employment. Even with its diluted content, however, the state had “accepted an active role in managing the economy” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 241)

Economic policy as a tool for managing the economy quickly became focused on those with power in the economy and oriented itself with business and military interests. Policies emphasized military spending, tax cuts and subsidies favoring upper-income families and business rather than social welfare programs, services and progressive tax cuts. Policy choices became more defined in the 1960s when the apparent trade off between unemployment and inflation were discovered. “In the interest of lower wages and higher profits, business has preferred low rates of inflation to low unemployment rates, while labor and advocates for the poor have advocated low employment as a way of increasing real wages and redistributing income. The battle…has thus represented a form of class struggle between capital and labor, now taking place within the state” (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982).

Wilson (1996) describes how unemployment and welfare rates are related and concludes that: “As unemployment in the general population rises, the probability of exiting welfare deminishes.” Grubb and Lazerson (1982) explain the consequences of the failure of labor to make sufficient headway in the class struggle between capital and labor: “…the chronic inability of the American economy to achieve full employment (except in war time) has kept large numbers of families susceptible to the ravages of unemployment.”

Wilson (1996) describes how policy continues to support capitalist ideals at the expense of the poor and working class. He states:

> …in the absence of an effective labor-market policy, they [policymakers] have tolerated industry practices that undermine worker security, such as the decrease in benefits and the rise of involuntary part-time employment, and they have “allowed the minimum wage to erode to its second lowest level in purchasing power in 40 years.” After adjusting for inflation, “the minimum wage is 26 percent below its average level in the 1970s.” Moreover, they virtually eliminated AFDC benefits for families in which the mother is employed at least half-time. In the early 1970s, a working mother with two children whose wages equaled 75 percent of the amount designated as the poverty line could receive AFDC benefits as a wage supplement in forty-nine states; in 1995 only those in three states could. (Wilson, 1996: p. 50)

Although during the 1980s, and even in the early 1990s in California, high unemployment and high rates of inflation coexisted, the obsession with inflation and low wages continued unabated as corporate powers influenced policies to keep the minimum wage low. Economic policy has allowed the real value of minimum wage to erode by a third during the 1980s (Jencks, 1996a: p. 115) and by 1989 average hourly wages were lower in real terms than in any year since 1970 (Wilson, 1996: p. 156). Even with the 1995 adjustment to the minimum wage pushed through by the Clinton administration, the 1998 minimum wage

would have to be $2.40 higher than the mandated $5.15, a 47 percent increase, in order to match the 1968 peak-year value of $7.55 in 1998 dollars (Sahr, 1998). Those in lower wage jobs suffer the consequences of inflation at the highest rates. Men below the 20$^{th}$ percentile in wage distributions experienced a 30 percent drop in real wages between 1970 and 1989 (Wilson, 1996: p. 25). The low-wage strategy of American companies and their influence on economic policies has serious economic and social consequences as the former secretary of labor of the Carter administration suggests: “Most other industrialized nations have rejected this strategy because it implies lower and more unequal wages, with serious political, social, and economic implications” (as cited in Wilson, 1996: p. 152).

These low-wage strategies are reflected both in hiring practices and wage rates of the late 1980s and employees abilities to remain in employment at low wages as Wilson (1996) shows in his description of comments of employers and his findings from the Urban Poverty and Family Life Study (UPFLS) conducted in 1987 and 1988. They found that with turnover rates of 50 percent and higher employers made conscious decisions to tolerate turnover rather than increase wages. Jobs paying $5 or $6 an hour had high turnover rates, higher paying jobs, by contrast, had turnover rates of less than 20 percent per year. “Annual turnover rates of 50 to 100 percent are common in low-skill service jobs in Chicago, regardless of race or ethnicity of the employees” (Wilson, 1996: p. 142).

Wilson (1996: p. 145) describes how changes in economic policies could effect those facing the prospects of long term low wage employment:

> Despite the attitudes of employers, joblessness in inner-city ghetto neighborhoods would decline if the U.S. economy could sustain high levels of employment over a long period of time. …In a tight labor market, job vacancies are numerous, unemployment is of short duration, and wages are higher. Moreover, …the labor force expands because increased job opportunities not only reduce unemployment but also draw into the labor force those workers who, in periods of slack labor markets, respond to fading job prospects by dropping out of the labor force altogether.

The effects of these low wage policies are devastating to families who move in and out of poverty at an alarming rate. A University of Michigan Survey Research Center study reported that between 8 and 11 percent of individuals were in poverty at some time during the period of 1967 to 1972, but 21 percent were in poverty for at least one year during that period (as cited in Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 70). "The precariousness of family life is partly caused by low paying jobs" (Grubb & Lazerson 1982). With full-time minimum wage work, a parent of two children could not then and cannot now keep his or her family out of poverty.

Policymakers generally have tended to ignore these consequences of class for children, as well as many others. The stresses that low wage work produces within the family and the different values that children of those families receive from their parents can be devastating to their childrens' futures (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982; Jencks, 1996a; Wilson, 1996). Even when one of their own attempts to enlighten policymaking, long held beliefs guide interpretations as with Senator Daniel Moynihan's 1965 report on the black family. His report

emphasized that the socioeconomic system was ultimately "responsible for producing unstable poor black families." The commentary that followed, however, reported only the second part of the conclusion that that instability is "the principle source of most of the aberrant, inadequate, or antisocial behavior that did not establish, but now serves to perpetuate, the cycle of poverty and deprivation" (as cited in Wilson, 1996: p. 172). In his book on homelessness, Christopher Jencks (1996a: p. 114) puts it most succinctly:

> In the nineteenth century Marx christened this group the lumpen proletariat. Until relatively recently, American sociologists called them the lower class. Today many Americans refer to them as the "underclass." Regardless of how we label them, their troubles play a central role in homelessness. Because they cannot find steady jobs, they cannot afford to internalize the work ethic or link their self-respect to their job performance. Many leave the labor market entirely. Others treat work as no more than a way of picking up a few dollars as needed. The side effects of this adaptation include depression, rage, alcoholism, drug addiction, and domestic violence.

"Structural inequalities have therefore generated both the imperative for the state to intervene and the political resistance that keeps the states efforts of behalf of poor children relatively feeble" (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 7).

### *The effects: economic and social policies and poverty.*

The effects of economic policy have been most devastating to those on welfare. Wilson points out that between 1972 and 1992 the decline in real welfare benefits, including food stamps which helps stabilize benefits due to adjustment for inflation, was only 26 percent nationwide. During the period from 1991 to 1994 only six states maintained or increased AFDC payments, nine states cut benefits, and the others allowed the benefits to be eroded by inflation. "Between 1975 and 1995, after adjusting for inflation, AFDC benefits had

declined in every state so much that the average real value of AFDC benefits nationwide had plummeted 37 percent during this period" (Wilson, 1996: p. 165).

Jencks (1996a: p. 90) research on the homeless found similar effects on single mothers. "After adjusting for inflation, the number of single mothers reporting cash incomes of below either $2500 or $5000 rose dramatically during the 1980s." He cites the reason as their cash incomes lagging behind inflation. In relating this to homelessness he states: "As a result, the typical [single] mother's estimated rent burden climbed from 37% in 1974 to 60% in 1985 but then fell to 46% in 1989. " He makes it clear, however, that it was not landlord's greed but that the main problem facing single mothers during the 1980s was legislative. Showing how traditional belief systems would dictate policy, he sums up with: "I therefore believe that the main source of single mother's housing problems during the 1980s was state legislators' growing reluctance to subsidize families in which the parents did not live together" (Jencks, 1996a: p. 93). When describing the debate on causes of homelessness between democrats and republicans during the Reagan and Bush administrations he adds: "In this debate both sides seemed to agree on at least one principle: simple distortions are more politically persuasive than complicated truths" (Jencks, 1996a: p. 98).

Wilson (1996) reminds us that policymakers are not the only ones looking for simple explanations: "During hard economic times, people become more receptive to simplistic ideological messages that deflect attention away from the

real and complex source of their problems." It is important to appreciate that not only the poor and the working classes struggle to make ends meet, even the middle-class has experienced a decline in its living standard.

Most of the myths about welfare propagated as rhetoric to raise the issue to an emotional level in an effort to secure votes such as those like "most welfare families are long term recipients" or "most welfare mothers are black women with many children" are not supported by the research (or even any research). "Only a minority of the AFDC recipients were African-American in 1995, and the average number of children in welfare families was slightly less than the average number in nonwelfare families" (Wilson, 1996: p. 166). Jencks (1996a: p. 90) also reports that poor single mothers typically have fewer children. And, he continues with the explanation that the result is fewer welfare dollars to make rent and that "means they are more likely to become homeless."

Furthermore, Wilson (1996) addresses the "long term" myth with: "half of welfare recipients exited the first year, and three quarters left within two years." One third of the recipients interviewed in the UPFLS survey had been on welfare more than once. The cycle is clear, leave welfare for low-wage employment, try unsuccessfully to make ends meet, return to welfare. "Only 15% remained continuously on welfare for five years. Long term welfare mothers tend to be racial minorities, never married, high school dropouts, and those who lack employment experience" (Wilson, 1996: p. 167). Furthermore, he finds a

preponderance of evidence that welfare recipients prefer work over welfare and would readily accept jobs that will not result in their slipping deeper into poverty (p. 168).

Jencks (1996a: p. 110) tries to bring some reality to the argument and although it is quite long, his concluding statement required its inclusion:

> If we want to solve single mothers' economic problems by making them take jobs, we must stop imagining that putting single mothers to work will make the country richer or generate extra money to pay these mothers' bills. Single mothers now care for their children. If we make them take jobs, someone else will have to care for their children while they are at work. We will have to pay the people who watch these children more than we now pay their mothers to do the same job. That is going to cost the taxpayer more money.
>
> Working mothers who left their children in a nonrelative's home paid an average of $64 a week in 1990. Those who used childcare centers paid $76 a week. Meanwhile, cash welfare benefits for a mother with two children averaged $42 per child per week. In most states, therefore, paying single mothers to care for their own children was a bargain. That is one reason why states have been so reluctant to implement federal legislation aimed at putting more welfare mothers to work. In order to make every mother with preschool children, work, states would usually have to spend more for childcare than they would save on welfare payments. While some surveys suggest that voters favor this approach, state legislators have refused to pursue it.
>
> Those who want to solve welfare mothers' economic problems by putting them to work must also think more realistically about the cost of raising a family. The fact that cash welfare benefits are typically $300 to $400 a month for a mother with two children seems to have convinced a lot of people that families can really live on such sums. That delusion leads to an equally illusory corollary; if single mothers can live on welfare, they can also live on what they would earn in a minimum wage job. Both assumptions are wrong.

One of the studies Jencks (1996a) cites is that of Kathryn Edin and Laura Lein who interviewed hundreds of single mothers in four major cities. They found that urban welfare mothers typically need about twice as much cash as they get from welfare. Single mothers who worked in low wage jobs needed even more money for transportation, work clothes, child and medical care. The benefits of work were few, "Work yielded only two significant material advantages: working

mothers had better wardrobes, and they were likely to own cars" (Jencks, 1996a: p. 111). Most of the research in this area agrees that in order to make ends meet most heads of households in 1995 would have had to earn $8 or $9 an hour in full-time employment.

Wilson (1996) cites an Edin and Lein study where they found that "the average low income working mother would have to spend $317 more than her welfare counterpart to maintain the same standard of living." With an average gap in earnings-versus-expenses of 33 percent, most would need to generate large amounts of income outside of their regular employment (Wilson, 1996: p. 82-3).

LaDonna Pavetti's study also found similar results. Welfare recipients who attempted to leave welfare for employment found it was not economically feasible to remain off welfare when "low-wage jobs do not pay enough to support a family either and offer little access to better-paying jobs" (as cited in Wilson, 1996: p. 80). The decisions to remain on welfare represent rational and realistic options "given the existing constraints and limited opportunities facing them" (Wilson, 1996: p. 80). Even with a total income of $529 in AFDC and food stamps, they need to generate additional income to meet the minimum expenses of $876. Pavetti found that these mothers who often worked as bartenders and waitresses making around $5 an hour discovered that they needed $8 to $9 per

hour plus health benefits to make ends meet with the additional health and child care costs (as cited in Wilson, 1996: p. 80).

For their families to survive, welfare families must rely on unreported income and often as with low wage workers, supplement their income with illegitimate sources of income, thereby further weakening their attachment to the legitimate labor market (Wilson, 1996: p. 53). The poor may strongly agree with mainstream judgments of unacceptable behavior and yet feel utterly constrained by their circumstances, and for survival are sometimes forced to act in ways that violate mainstream norms (Wilson, 1996: p. 69).

The inability to influence or control the forces that affect one's life, create frustration and despondency, reinforced by others in the same position and weakening further the already weak attachment to the labor-force (Wilson, 1996). This often results in decreased self-efficacy contributing to the decreased beliefs in parenting abilities and parental influence over their children (Wilson, 1996: p. 76). The conditions of class profoundly influence the messages parents give to their children about success (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 75).

In addition, Wilson (1996) argues that, regular employment provides an "anchor for the spatial and temporal aspects of daily life" by providing a regular place to be during specified periods. He further argues that the concrete expectations of work and the ability to plan to get there are a "necessary condition of adaptation to an industrial economy." Grubb (1982: p. 77) adds that

the origins of patterns such as the lack of ability to plan, the devaluation of education, and feelings of powerlessness are rooted in their own work and lives and “lie not in the parents themselves but in the class structure in which they live.”

Additionally, other survival techniques attained in jobless poverty areas are often inappropriate for success in both education and the labor market such as “avoiding eye-to-eye contact or assuming a tough demeanor in the public sphere for self-protection” (Wilson, 1996: p. 63). These adaptations are linked to the structural sources of systematic impediments to opportunities in the society (Wilson, 1996: p. 72). Wilson (1996: p. 39) reported that as few as 18 percent of respondents in the UPFLS survey owned an automobile and reminds us:

> Among two-car middle class and affluent families, commuting is accepted as a fact of life; but it occurs in a context of safe school environments for children, more available and accessible day care, and higher incomes to support mobile, away-from-home lifestyles.

Grubb (1996a, 1999), Jencks (1996), and Wilson (1996) all argue that education and training may move the underclass into employment. But the labor market works in a competitive fashion. For every person moved into the labor market under these competitive terms, another worker will slip to the end of the queue. “In a competitive labor market, someone always has to be the last hired and the first fired. Training schemes can rearrange the queue, but they cannot eliminate it” (Jencks, 1996a: p. 114).

There have been many public presentations of the effects of policy on the underclass. Time Magazine ran a cover story in August of 1977 entitled: “The American Underclass: Minority within a Minority.” Over the next decade numerous books were written on the devastating effects that the article portrayed of people being stuck at the bottom of the economy for such long periods of time. Republicans and conservatives retaliated during the ascendancy of the Reagan administration with a literary blitz based on a culture-of-poverty argument that blamed liberal social policies since the 1960s.

Conservative analysts dominated public discussions in the first half of the 1980s with the culture-of-poverty arguments proposed in the media. “However, these journalistic accounts failed to establish a convincing case for a culture-of-poverty thesis that in effect ignores structural factors” (Wilson, 1996: p. 176). There were efforts to present a balanced view of poverty, such as the 1986 PBS television documentary “The Crisis on Federal Street,” but even the best of them had a “clear lack of a framework of relating behavior and culture to the structure of opportunity as in the ethnographic studies of Lee Rainwater, Kenneth Clark, Elliot Liebow, and Ulf Hannerz” (Wilson, 1996: p. 177).

In 1980, the Swedish scholar Walter Korpi pointed out how American researchers had ignored the obvious. His comments were extremely relevant then and are often still relevant today. He wrote: ”It is an intellectual paradox that living in a society that has been a sea of unemployment, American poverty

researchers have concentrated their research interests on the work motivation of the poor" rather than the cyclical nature of employment in the United States (as cited in Wilson, 1996). More ironical, Wilson continues, is the fact that they have "consistently uncovered empirical evidence that undermines, rather than supports, common assumptions about how welfare negatively affects individual initiative and motivation. Yet these assumptions persist among policymakers."

And, Wilson (1996) proceeds with: "Although it is reasonable to argue that policymakers are not aware of a good deal of the empirical research on the effects of welfare," they had been informed by the GAO, the investigative arm of Congress, in 1987 that "there is no conclusive evidence to support the prevailing common beliefs that welfare discourages individuals from working, breaks up two-parent families, or affects the childbearing rates of unmarried women, even young unmarried women." The GAO reviewed results of over one hundred empirical studies on the effects of welfare completed since 1975, analyzed case files, and interviewed officials at all levels of government agencies. Wilson suggests that these findings should have "generated a stir among members of Congress…But," he continues, "systematic scientific argument is no match for the dominant belief system: the views of members of Congress have apparently not been altered by the GAO report" (Wilson, 1996: p. 164).

More amazing is, however, how dominant the belief system is throughout the society. Inner-city residents of poverty ridden sectors, despite the

overwhelming joblessness and poverty they are confronted with, actually verbally endorse the American belief system values concerning individual initiative. In the UPFLS study, Wilson's (1996: p. 180) interviewers heard from a substantial majority of the respondents that "America is the land of opportunity where anybody can get ahead, and that individuals get pretty much what they deserve."

*Poverty: the measure.*

The U.S. measure of poverty, originally developed in the early 1960s, is an important social indicator that affects not only public perceptions of well-being in America, but also public policies and programs. It was developed as an indicator of the number and proportion of people with inadequate family incomes for needed consumption of food and other necessary goods and services. The current measure has remained virtually unchanged over the past 30 years. There have been recent criticisms of its ability to accurately identify the poor population. The Panel on Poverty and Family Assistance, commissioned by the National Research Council in 1995 to evaluate the "U.S. Poverty Rate" indicator, have some criticisms that have a bearing on this discussion.

The current measure does not distinguish between the needs of nonworkers and workers such as childcare, health insurance coverage, or transportation costs. The current measure also defines family resources as gross money income, it does not reflect the effects of important government policy initiatives that have significantly altered families' disposable income such

as the increase in the Social Security payroll tax, which reduces disposable income for workers. Although their analysis estimates that the current measure identifies a slightly lower dollar value for the poverty line for some people in nonworking families such as those who are retired or on public assistance, it underestimates the poverty rate for people in working families.

Of the 17 different methods to calculate poverty rates studied by the panel, only two resulted in a value below the “official” poverty line value (Table 1). Values calculated using the different methods studied ranged from 85 percent to 229 percent of the “official” poverty measure. Of the two below the current value the closest, with a value 92 percent of the current measure, was the value calculated using the original formula developed by Orshansky in the 1960s but with a slight variation in CPI (CPI-U-X1).

This suggests that using the current U.S. Poverty measure to calculate benefits for welfare that are an average of 60 to 75 percent of poverty (Jencks, 1993), the actual allocation may be 26 to 88 percent of the cash amount to live at the poverty level. More importantly, it suggests that unsubsidized full-time minimum wage employment may actually provide less than 25 percent but possibly as high as 68 percent of poverty for a family of three.

## **Welfare policy.**

When the modern welfare system of the U.S. was implemented in the Social Security Act of 1935, it was implemented as a dual welfare system, unlike

most all other advanced industrial nations that have a single universal social welfare program. Americans have one set of programs for the poor and another for the non-poor (Sahr, 1998). Programs designed for the non-poor such as, social security, unemployment and later medicare have beneficiaries across the society and are well protected by policymakers due to public pressures. Programs for the poor, however, have been used to implement social and economic beliefs of the American society and economy with little care of their effects on families or children.

Like many beliefs and institutions in our society, our conception of social welfare and the family and our expectations for those in them reflect the current social behaviors, values and norms that are experienced in daily life in the society. During the first half of the twentieth century, when the social norm was mothers in the home caring for children and husbands were sole bread winners, mothers that were widowed or wives of disabled husbands who had children under 18 were provided resources, as pitifully inadequate as they were, to stay in the home (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982). Mother and homemaker were believed to be the normal family role for mothers. Policymakers even then, however, were confronted with the "central dilemma how to implement public responsibility in an economy considered private" (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p. 247).

Mothers pensions of the early 1900s and Aid to Dependent Children in the 1930s were designed to enforce those ideas of motherhood with pitifully low

levels of support so as to not undermine local labor markets. As labor markets needed seasonal work, especially in the South and other agricultural areas, "employable" mothers who either had available childcare or could take their children with them into the fields or factories, "often found themselves cut off the roles as seasonal work began" (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: p.190).

As women began entering the labor force in increasing numbers and fewer roles for women excluded work, welfare mothers began to be characterized as taking advantage of those who couldn't afford to stay at home with their children. As early as 1962, policies began focusing on enabling welfare recipients to move into employment and off welfare by providing services, including education and training (Grubb, 1996a: p.39). Policies and programs increasingly focused on welfare-to-work through the 1960s, 1970s and 1980s with programs such as the "Work Incentive Program" (WIN) of 1967, which again focused on "employables" ---mothers with children over six--- to those of the Carter and Reagan eras. Those of the Reagan years that changed the employable definition from "mothers with children over six" to "mothers with children over three," however, codified the shift in public opinion and policy that mothers should be forced to work (Grubb & Lazerson, 1982: pp. 192-195).

**Current Welfare Policy**

The Family Support Act (FSA) of 1988 was considered at the time to be the definitive welfare overhaul of the day. It laid the ground work for the reforms

of the next decade. The Act allowed states, with a waiver system, to experiment with reforms to reduce their welfare case loads by moving recipients into employment. By the summer of 1996, 46 states had approved or pending waivers (Boehnen & Corbett, 1996 as cited in Blank, 1996).

The FSA integrated efforts to move recipients into jobs with basic skills training in the Job Opportunity and Basic Skill (JOBS) program. States were slow to implement this portion of the FSA as shown by the June 1995 rate of only 23 percent participation of mothers with children under three (Sawhill, 1998). As Governor of Arkansas, President Clinton supported the FSA but campaigned to "end welfare as we know it." Clinton's 1993 proposal for welfare reform, although it did have a two-year time limit, included universal health care, childcare, and child support provisions to ensure contributions from absent parents. It also included the creation of public sector jobs for those unable to find work in the private sector.

Legislation embodying his proposal, introduced in 1994, "was eclipsed, first by the focus on health care reform and later by the 1994 election…" Republicans won control of Congress in the election and introduced their own legislation, The Personal Responsibility Act (PRA), which was embodied in the House Republican "Contract with America." With the PRA, conservatives, and many others in the nation listening to their rhetoric, “seized on the time limits and

paid only lip service to the other provisions" (Joel F. Handler as cited in Wilson, 1996: p. 169).

Also of significance in the House bill passed in March of 1995 was movement to block granting of funds for each provision of the legislation. The Center for Budget and Policy Priorities, a policy research center in Washington, D.C., while discussing the problems states would face under the inflexible limits and restrictions of the PRA block grants stated: "Substantial numbers of such families [working poor who lose their jobs] apply for aid during economic downturns" (cited in Wilson, 1996: p. 170). The concern that states operating under balanced budgets would be unable to cover the costs of the social programs during economic downturns with unadjusted and decreasing block grants proposed in the PRA continues to be a problem under the current reform law.

Most governors strongly supported the increased state flexibility, and reduction of efforts to track categorical funds, of the block grants but were nervous about the implicit cost shifting to lower levels of government. The Senate Finance Committee endorsed the block grant approach adopted by the House but omitted some of the provisions most disliked by governors and sent the bill to the President for his signature. One estimate of the effects of the Senate and House proposals placed between 1.2 and 2.1 million more children pushed into poverty and 25 and 50 percent deeper levels of poverty, respectively, for those

already below the poverty line. When reacting to the estimates, Senator Daniel Patrick Moynihan stated: ‘Welfare reform in fact means welfare repeal. The repeal, that is, of Title IV-A of the Social Security Act. Everyone is to blame for this duplicity, everyone is an accomplice” (cited in Wilson, 1996: p. 171).

President Clinton vetoed that version of the bill in January 1996. In August of 1996, President Clinton signed a revised version, the PRWORA, into law. Fundamentally, the Act ended the "entitlement" status of public assistance. The Act ended the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), Emergency Assistance, and JOBS programs and replaced them with a single block grant to the states in the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF). The TANF block grant allocates a fixed amount of money, not adjusted for inflation even in future years, equal to the payments states received in 1994. Open-ended federal payments to states, providing increases when states faced increasing case loads, ended; if states run short of money at the end of the budget year, families can be turned away.

Some of the major provisions of the federal law included:

- The end of the "entitlement" status of benefits,
- Funding through block grants with emphasis on reducing welfare rolls,
- Time limits on the receipt of benefits and training,
- Eligibilty tied to work and training requirements,
- Restrictions on eligibility for legal immigrants.

Both states and recipients face time limits for benefits and training. States must meet work participation rates set by the Act or face a 5 percent reduction in

block grant amounts in the first year and 2 percent each subsequent year, for a total possible reduction of 21 percent by 2002. Recipients have time limits for receipt of benefits and training or face reduced or denial of benefits. State work participation rates started at 25 percent in fiscal year (FY) 1997 and increase 5 percent per year until 2002 where they remain at 50 percent. Adults in families receiving benefits must participate in "work activities" within 24 months. Work activities may include:

- Unsubsidized employment,
- Subsidized employment, in either private or public sectors,
- Work experience,
- On-the-job training,
- Job search and readiness training (6 week limit),
- Community service programs,
- Vocational education (12 month limit),
- Jobs skills training (directly related to employment),
- Education related to employment for those without high school diplomas or GEDs,
- Secondary school leading to a GED,
- Provision of child care for those participating in community service programs.

No more than 20 percent of a state's caseloads were to be met with participation in vocational education and teenage TANF recipients working on GEDs automatically counted in the 20 percent. The law requires that teen parents without high school diplomas or GEDs work towards attaining them or participate in another state approved education or training activity. Estimates were derived that "much of the 20 percent maximum for vocational education"

would be made up of these teen parents, creating a disincentive for states to invest in post secondary education (AACC, 1998).

The Balanced Budget Act of 1997 further limited the states ability to use vocational education as a means to meet the work participation rates and move more people into stable employment. The 1997 Act limited the percent of vocational education participants to 30 percent of those counted in the work participation rate rather than the 20 percent of total caseloads. The effects of this revision to the 1996 law for vocational education participation result in estimates of 7.5 percent in FY 1997 and 9 percent in 2002 increasing and decreasing sporatically over the five years with a range of 6 percent (in FY 2000) to 10.5 percent (in FY 1999) of caseloads.

Policymakers continue to amend the 1996 PRWORA through other legislation but most efforts to repair holes in the national safety net are met with significant resistance by conservatives who consider that such provisions "undermine the 1996 reforms" (Sahr, 1998).

### *California Implementation of PRWORA*

Californias implementation of PRWORA, “CalWorks” is one of the strictest implementations among the states with shorter time limits and higher work requirements to name a few of the tighter restrictions. Some of the more restrictive regulations cited by the California Department of Social Services (1998) are:

a. New applicants receive aid for 18 months [within two years] while current recipients may receive aid for 24 months [within three years].
b. Adults must accept any legal job unless otherwise exempted.
c. Recipients will participate in an initial 4-week period of job search, which can be extended at the county's discretion.
d. Following job search, adults in families receiving assistance will be required to work or be in work activities upon completion of an assessment.
e. Single parents will be required to participate a minimum of 20 hours per week, growing to 32 hours by mid-1999. In two parent families, one or both parents must work a combined total 35-hours each week starting in 1998.
f. If the recipient is not employed when the time limit is reached, the recipient enters community service provided the county certifies that "no job was available."
g. Grants to recipients who do not meet their work participation requirement are reduced by the adult's portion of the grant.

Although California's "enthusiastic" implementation is more restrictive with lower time limits and more drastic sanctions, "CalWorks" has some positive provisions that other state implementations do not have. Urban Institute simulations, in "Does Work Pay" (1998), using the California formulas for earnings disregards and benefit reduction rates provide a look at the cash incentives for work. The simulation is for a single parent family of three and calculations of income include TANF, cash value of food stamps, Federal Earned Income Tax Credits (EITC), California Earned Income tax credits, payroll tax and income tax liabilities.

To move from the total benefits income of nonwork at $825 (77 percent of poverty) to 20 hours of minimum wage work increases income by 49 percent to $1,226 at 114 percent of poverty. Full-time work (35 hours per week) at minimum wage will provide another increase of $223 per month moving the family to 134 percent of poverty. A last step in the simulation to full-time

employment at $9 per hour add $63 to monthly income placing the family at 140 percent of poverty.

Childcare, housing and Medical care subsidies are not included in the calculations. Additionally, California has the highest eligibility cutoff for childcare of the states reviewed with no copayments up to $1,669 and a maximum of $3,337 per month for those transitioning from TANF to work.

Additionally, counties are given incentives for reducing roles and share in sanctions for not meeting requirements. Some examples are: (1) 75 percent of savings generated from diversion, recipients who leave aid for a job, and reduced grant levels resulting from recipient earnings goes to the counties who meet goals outright ; (2) 25 percent of the savings is allocated on a statewide basis to those counties that are unable to meet employment outcomes because of good cause factors developed by CDSS; (3) Federal penalties to counties that do not meet the work requirements are shared 50-50 between the state and the applicable counties.

## Early Effects of PRWORA and CalWorks

Although the PRWORA has been in law since 1996, states could operate under their waivers from the FSA and implement the law as resources became available. California, under a waiver since the late eighties began implementing CalWorks in the summer of 1997. An article by Kathy Johnston (1997) from the

local county publication "Newtimes" in San Luis Obispo, California speaks to the frantic pace of the reforms:

> As talk-radio rhetoric on welfare reform rapidly becomes reality, San Luis Obispo County is mobilizing for the sudden and sweeping changes brought about by new federal and state laws designed to push aid recipients into the work force.
>
> Indeed, the challenges are daunting, as several thousand local welfare moms and other needy adults face the ticking clock that signals an end to aid dependency. Are there enough jobs for all the people who will need them, or do we need to create new jobs? Where will they get education and training? What impact can we expect on current job seekers, including students? What about finding affordable child care when there is already a shortage of available care for babies and toddlers? What happens when thousands of families lose their access to Medi-Cal?… False stereotypes about aid recipients and misinformation about the impacts of Welfare on the federal budget are considered the driving force that led to the strict new rules.

The answer to the question asked by Johnston in the article and by many others throughout the nation, "Are there enough jobs for all the people who will need them…" is evident in monitoring projects which began shortly after the implementation of PRWORA began. In an issue brief, Early Findings on Welfare and Well-Being, from a joint project of the Children's Defense Fund and National Coalition for the Homeless (1998), reviewing studies by the National Governor's Association and other studies, report that 40 to 71 percent of those who left TANF did not find employment. For those who did find employment, "the proportion with above-poverty wages is small and dwindling" when the three person poverty line was only $241 per week. A report from the Childrens Defense Fund (CDF) (1998) cites a study in Milwaukee that found that "Among those who left welfare for work in September 1996, only 16 percent earned above-poverty wages.

The Milwaukee study also reported that "although 72 percent of those leaving welfare in the first quarter of 1996 worked for at least some period over the next year, half of those who found work in that first quarter were unemployed or only marginally employed one year later." For those receiving TANF and working full-time as of September 1996, "only 28 percent remained employed two months later with earnings above $2,500 in both that quarter and the first quarter of 1997." The CDF reported on a similar study by the state of New York that found "only one-fifth to one-third of those who left welfare found jobs."

Both employed and unemployed former TANF recipients report having trouble buying food. Seventeen percent of those leaving TANF in South Carolina, 27 percent in Michigan, and 36 percent in a 10 state study reported having problems providing food for their families. "Large numbers of former recipients (including families and individuals) are turning to soup kitchens and food pantries" (Children's Defense Fund and National Coalition for the Homeless, 1998). The Center on Budget and Policy Priorities in Washington, DC, "estimates that one million unemployed individuals who would work, if work slots were available, will be denied food stamps in an average month under this provision" (cited in National Coalition for the Homeless, 1996).

Other welfare reform monitoring projects they reviewed report that between 10 and 29 percent of former and current TANF recipients increasingly can not pay their rent and were either evicted or face eviction. In the Atlanta

study they reviewed, 46 percent of homeless families interviewed had lost TANF benefits in the previous 12 months. They report that a Wisconson study shows a 50 percent increase in children in homeless shelters from 1994 to 1996, while single adult males, a group unaffected by TANF changes, increased only 1 percent.

The U.S. GAO report reviewed in the brief finds a tremendous drop in the proportion of welfare recipients receiving education or training. Using figures from 1994 through 1997, they reported a decrease in education/training particpation ranginging from 84 percent in Maryland to 30 percent in California. In a survey conducted by the California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office (CCCCO) in September of 1998, 33 percent of the colleges responding to the survey indicated that counties were not referring clients for training.

Although 30 percent of the colleges responded with county implementation delays as the reason, others responding reported that "their county's 'work-first' philosophy precluded any serious consideration of referrals to local community colleges..." and that where referrals would or were being made, they were made to other entities such as Community Based Organizations, Adult Regional Occupational Programs and Private Industry Councils. Colleges responding expressed strong concerns that "the de-emphasis on longer-term training and education would have an impact on clients' ability to acquire and maintain self- and/or family-sustaining employment."

More importantly, however, are the implications of moving the large number of welfare recipients into existing or newly created jobs. Although the unemployment rate ranges from 4.5 percent in "Silicon Valley" to 10 percent in Los Angeles, the unemployment rate for high school dropouts is 15 percent in California and the nation generally. There is no shortage of low skill workers already competing for current jobs. Even with estimated job creation of 30,000 new jobs per year over the next decade in California moving 350,000 to 450,000 welfare recipients into the workforce has significant consequences (Center for Continuing Study of the California Economy, 1997).

The Center for Continuing Study of the California Economy in their 1997 study, "The California Economy and Developing Annual Goals for Moving Welfare Recipients into the Workforce" expressed concerns that of the 13 million jobs in California, the 5 million low skilled jobs (40 percent) have "substantial turnover." The estimates of 6 million new hires in that 40 percent of California jobs indicates the instability of the labor market in low skill level employment. They provide the following statistics to emphasize the problem. Those competing for the 5 million low skill jobs include:

a. The 5 million workers who already held these jobs at some point in 1996
b. The 400,000 welfare recipients who are the initial target for welfare to work policies
c. Some portion (perhaps 400,000) of California's one million unemployed workers
d. Some "discouraged workers" who may re-enter the California workforce during this period of rapid job growth

They conclude with a nationally shared concern that "…unless the overall rate of economic growth is raised, it is likely that the hiring of a welfare recipient will result in someone else who is looking for a job not being hired." They also raise the concern that to expect that the additional jobs predicted "all be entry level" is unrealistic. They suggest that the newly created jobs will primarily be filled by (1) young workers moving into the labor force, (2) foreign workers imported to fill both lower and higher skilled jobs, and (3) from inmigration from other states.

With a continued drop in the numbers of people on welfare roles since the beginning of the economy's expansion in the late 1980s and state pressures to decrease numbers from the 1994 baselines or lose grant monies, the NCH monitoring project also had concerns about the practices of determinations of eligibilty on new applications. A study they found in Alabama makes real their concerns. A professor had undergraduate students pose as needy applicants. County welfare office intake workers repeatedly refused to give out applications upon request. Contrary to official state policy, workers demanded documentation prior to filling out an application "and refused to allow applications to be filled out off of the premises. Only 6 of the 27 students who requested TANF applications were able to obtain them" (Children’s Defense Fund and National Coalition for the Homeless, 1998).

**Education and Training Effects for Low Skilled Workers**

The concerns of many officials, researchers and journalists over the past thirty years citing insufficient available jobs and the inability of the labor market to absorb high numbers of low skilled workers has not deterred efforts to increase the low skilled labor force with Job Training and Basic Skills educational programs. The JOBS program created by the FSA in 1988 was only a recent entrant into the long line of training programs ignoring the demand side of the market. The idea of providing services, including education and training, to enable welfare recipients to move into employment and off welfare dates at least from 1962 (Grubb, 1996a). The growth of programs to train people for employment include the manpower programs of the 1960s, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) and Job Corp of the 1970s, the Job Training and Partnership Act (JTPA) of the 1980s to name only a few of the many programs created.

In many cases, job training programs appear to be worth doing because they both have "statistically significant effects" and their benefits outweigh costs. Grubb (1996a: p.27) points out, however, that "the effects have been so small that they have little real influence on the courses of peoples lives, the continuing need for welfare programs, or the future development of those enrolled in youth programs." JTPA programs, for example, may have benefits for those enrolled in the program that outweigh program costs. The average earnings increase,

however, was only $735 per year: "not enough to move individuals out of poverty…or enable them to leave welfare" (Grubb, 1996a: p.35).

Prior to the 1980s, early welfare-to-work experiments emphasized work rather than education or training. Beginning in the Nixon administration, states were allowed to experiment with their welfare-to-work programs. The California Work Experience Program (CWEP) created under Reagan in 1976 is one example where welfare recipients were required to "work off" their grant in a community service job. The evaluation of the program stated that it failed to meet any of its employment objectives. “Nonetheless, Reagan---never one to pay undue attention to the evidence---cited the program as a success virtually every time he discussed welfare and used its presumed ‘success’ to press for an expansion of welfare-to–work programs” (Grubb, 1996a: p.39)

During the Reagan Administration the experiments added job search training and work experience training. Grubb (1996a: p.41-42) reports on the outcomes of studies of five states experimenting with control groups.

> The [five] welfare-to-work experiments yielded benefits of some kind in virtually all states, and the benefits exceeded the costs of operating these programs… However, the effects were still modest by almost any standard…and the programs did not reduce the number of families on the welfare rolls, the goal at the heart of the welfare-to-work programs.

Grubb's (1996a) analysis of other programs lacking significant educational segments, such as some of the GAIN efforts, found the programs did not move heads of households off welfare. "Project Independence" that focused on “job search” increased earnings ($114 per year) and decreased welfare payments

even more. Although great for cost benefit analysis, Project Independence lowered total income for recipients. The Minority Female Single Parent (MSFP) demonstration, emphasized remedial education with a wide array of services such as child care, counseling, and job search. With the exception of the CET in San Jose, which added job specific skills and operated in an environment of decreasing unemployment, the MSFP "had no influence whatsoever on employment and earnings or the receipt of welfare benefits" (Grubb, 1996a: p.52). His analysis confirms the constant fear of welfare advocates that: “under certain conditions they [job services and training programs] may save taxpayers money, but they do so by making families with children who are dreadfully poor to start with even poorer" (p.49).

The JOBS program, started in 1988, is under a review with two different approaches to study the effectiveness of JOBS job training and placement functions. The study will evaluate the effectiveness of both functions using the "labor force attachment" model, emphasizing job placement and possibly short term training and the "human capital" model, emphasizing longer-term education and training (not college). Although early analysis of the different approaches in the programs shows early benefits of the labor force attachment model, longer term analysis is required for examination of sustaining benefits, since only minimal effects of the human capital model are evident in the first year after training. Results from similar experiments, though, are available from

evaluations of CETA that concluded that longer classroom training programs were on the whole more effective than shorter-term programs, especially for women (Grubb, 1996a: p.68).

Both on the job training and job search services are designed to get individuals into employment quickly. Emphasis is on socialization to the norms and values of employment: neither enhances basic cognitive or vocational skills. Whether such limited services have much effect over the long run and whether they merely substitute one group of underprepared workers for another are questions that most current evaluations of program success do not ask and cannot answer. What the research does show is that short term programs and services leave individuals with employment rates and earnings no higher than those of welfare recipients who had not enrolled in such programs. More importantly, they do not permanently move individuals off welfare. The reason for the lack of benefits to short job training programs is that they do not put individuals on career tracks with continued earnings increases, as formal schooling does. The most powerful evidence is the contrast between the typical job training benefits, which decay over four or five years, and the age-earnings associated with different levels of education, in which the benefits of education expand over time. Additionally, as Grubb (1996a: p.94) points out:

> this strategy ignores the fact that the low-skilled labor market for which job training programs prepare individuals is so unstable that, without an increase in basic skills that would enable them to escape the secondary labor market, they will continue to suffer intermittent employment, low earnings, and the discouragement that leads them back to marginal employment or welfare in the long run.

An understanding of the instability of the low-skilled labor market provides more realistic expectations for short term job training programs. And, understanding the hiring practice of employers can provide insight into that segment of the labor market. Thurow's (1974 cited in Grubb, 1999) queuing theory provides a structure for that analysis. According to the theory, "employers arrange job applicants in queues, hiring from the top and moving toward the bottom depending on the amount of labor they need" (Grubb, 1999). Evidence from numerous studies (Jencks, 1996a, 1996b; Grubb, 1996a, 1996b; Wilson, 1996) displays queuing effects that suggest as each job is filled in a fixed labor market another worker is displaced. Norton Grubb (1996, p. 22) adds that in addition to displacing other workers, in "inelastic" markets that displacement also tends to lower wages.

Whether the reforms of social welfare will displace low skilled workers only or whether the services provided for sustaining labor force participation will displace higher skilled workers, moving them down in the queue, will be determined by policies that either encourage or discourage long term education and training of welfare recipients. Under current policies, however, job training participants are not referred to longer-term training or subsequent education after short term training or even sensitized to life-long learning.

# Chapter 3

## Methodology

### Datasources

There are four main sources that were used to derive a dataset to respond to questions about the post-college earnings of students. The process involves electronically matching the student social security number from the student record files stored in the California Community Colleges (CCC) Chancellor's Office Management Information System (COMIS) with social security numbers (SSN) in the three other sources. SSNs were matched with: the records for those receiving public assistance maintained by the California Department of Social Services (DSS), the student records maintained by the California State University (CSU) Chancellor's Office, and the Unemployment Insurance (UI) wage record data files maintained by California Employment Development Department (EDD).

The COMIS database contains demographic and educational data of all students who attended California Community Colleges since fall 1990. As the state's official repository of community college student data, the COMIS contains demographic data such as age, gender, ethnicity, financial aid status, English language proficiency, and disability status. Furthermore, educational data maintained include pre-collegiate basic skills courses, occupational and non-occupational courses completed, grades, and AA/AS degrees and certificates of

18 or more units awarded. For the 1992-93 academic year 2,266,656 student records were in the COMIS system.

The California DSS maintains a database that includes SSN, codes to identify type of aid received and month of aid receipt. County welfare offices report data to the DSS monthly. The match for the 2,266,656 records sent to DSS identified 172,514 individual SSNs receiving a variety of aid (Table 2).

The CSU student record files maintained by the CSU Chancellor's Office include much of the information included in the COMIS but extends back to 1988 and includes additional information on eligibilty and application status. The electronic match found information on 206,840 student records submitted to the CSU Chancellor's Office. The 33,672 females identified as continuing their education at CSU were removed from the wage analysis of the study cohort (Table 3). The females removed included 1,073 receiving AFDC while at CCC.

The California EDD collects and maintains UI wage records, which are used to determine employment and earnings of individuals in the labor market to determine UI benefit eligibility and payment levels. Employers are required to comply with the state's UI Compensation law by submitting UI quarterly reports of earnings for their employees. For each employee covered, an employer is required to report the employee's SSN and the total amount of earnings received during the quarter. Additional information about the employer is also reported, such as the unique employer identification number, the county in which the

business is located, and the industry affiliation of the business. The EDD match provided 13,484,191 wage records for 738,653 unique SSNs from the student records submitted for matching for a four year time span.

For this analysis, the target population was drawn from 90,403 female students (Tables 4 and 5) 17-57 years old who were either *completers* or *leavers* of the CCC and were unemployed during the 1992-93 academic year. A *completer* is defined as a student who received a certificate or degree requiring 18 or more units to complete; whereas a *leaver* is defined as a student, who did not receive a certificate or degree, but may have completed some units or completed a shorter term program. The data analyses conducted for this study is based on information from 738,653 students enrolled in 103 of the 106 California Community Colleges who submitted SSNs to the Chancellor's Office.

The reporting domain of the cohort included students with a social security number who enrolled in at least 1/2 unit or eight hours of positive attendance during the academic year. Excluded from the reporting domain were: 1) students enrolled in K-12 during the cohort year; 2) students enrolled in any California State University during the two years following the cohort year; and 3) students enrolled in the year following the end of the cohort year at any college in the California Community Colleges system. Earnings for individuals who were employed by the military or federal government, self-employed, unemployed, or not in the work force were not part of the UI dataset and may be represented as

either unemployed or low-wage workers due to part-time work in UI covered employment.

## Analytic Approach

In order to make comparisons of earnings from first year out to second and third year out of college, the California Consumer Price Index for Urban (CPI-U) Consumers was used to adjust earnings for changes in inflation. Thus, all earnings were adjusted to 1995 dollars. For this study, earnings will be calculated for students who worked any quarters during the year and separately for those working all four quarters. The earnings of students in the cohort were evaluated using UI wage data beginning July 1, 1992, the quarter beginning their last year in college, through June 30, 1996, the fourth quarter of their third year out of college.

Match rates in the UI base wage file should not be taken as employment rates because of deficiencies in the UI base wage file. Many California workers are not represented in the UI file such as those who are self employed or independent contractors, nor are those employed by the military, federal government, U.S. postal service or out of state employees. Furthermore, following a randomly picked cohort from the CA UI base wage file will produce an average decrease in match rate of about 3 percent per year.

Further, in most of the tables representing average annual earnings the median annual earnings is displayed instead of the mean earnings to eliminate

and deminish errors. The median annual earnings represent the middle value in the distribution of the annual income. The annual income is derived by summing earnings for those working all four quarters. The purpose of using the median annual earnings is to have a more stable statistic. Compared to the mean, the median is more robust and less likely to be influenced by extreme outliers.

Completers will be analyzed by type of award conferred. Certificates are categorized by units required for completion and include the categories: 18 to 29.99 units, 30 to 59.99 units, and 60 or more units. Leavers will be categorized by units completed prior to leaving the institution and will include the categories: noncredit coursework only, 0.01 to 11.99 units, 12 to 23.99 units, and 24 or more units completed based on the total cumulative units reported for the student.

Because only two years of enrollment data were available in the COMIS for those students leaving CCC in the 92-93 academic year, vocational status for leavers was determined by examining the student enrollments for their last two years in college. Students were determined to be vocational if 12 vocational units were earned in an area of study identified in the CCC Taxonomy of Program (TOP) Manual (1983) as a discipline. Vocational courses were identified using course TOP code to determine vocational status of the course. Leavers were assigned a program of study based on the TOP code in which the most vocational units occurred.

Although many students receive multiple certificates during their educational careers at a community college, only one award is assigned for students in this cohort using the hierarchy of the vocational certificate with the greatest unit requirements. Units were aggregated for students across colleges so that an individual student attending two or more colleges had a single record indicating their total units earned at all colleges in the system.

A multivariate analysis was used to test whether the annual earnings three years after college are significantly different for two separate groups. Both groups will include females of prime working age after college (18-58) as referenced in Wilson (1996). Additionally, the study focused on those who had no earnings reported in the UI system during their last academic year in college. Those groups are: 1) female students receiving AFDC at least one month during their last academic year, and 2) female students not receiving public assistance, either AFDC or SSI/SSP, during their last year in college. Controls were made for ethnicity, age, program of study, and educational attainment.

A logistic regression analysis was also used to determine if completion of a program was significantly different for the two groups. Logistic regression analysis was used because the dependent and independent variables of program completion and AFDC status are dichotomous categorical variables. Controls were made for age and Basic Skills status. Design variables were created for AFDC status and basic skills status to allow comparisons in a

pairwise manner with the value of participation in a group as 1 and nonpartcipation as a –1.

## Data Cleaning

Data from DSS was only used when earnings reported from an employer were greater than $1.00 and where a single SSN had less than 60 employer records reported in any quarter. For cases where the number of records exceeded 59 in a quarter or the value was equal to $1.00 the earnings were set to missing for that SSN. Records containing $1.00 were set to missing because of employer practices of reporting $1.00 as a placeholder for earnings when submitting employee records for employees not working in the quarter but still on the books as an employee. Social security numbers that had over 59 employer records were considered in error and set to missing due to the likelihood of multiple employees being reported with the same SSN.

Students often attend more than one college and receive certificates or degree from both. Records with multiple awards from different colleges were combined into a single award with vocational awards kept over nonvocational and AA/AS degrees kept over certificates. Where multiple certificates were awarded the highest unit requirement was kept. If the awards had the same unit requirement, the program for the award was selected by alternately picking the high then low program code. No students in either group after selection of the cohorts followed had more than two equal unit requirement awards.

For students with multiple colleges of attendance the age, gender, and ethnicity were checked for consistency. Each was assigned the lowest value in conflicting records. For example, if one record had the student at 65 years old and the other had the student at 45, the student was assigned the age of 45.

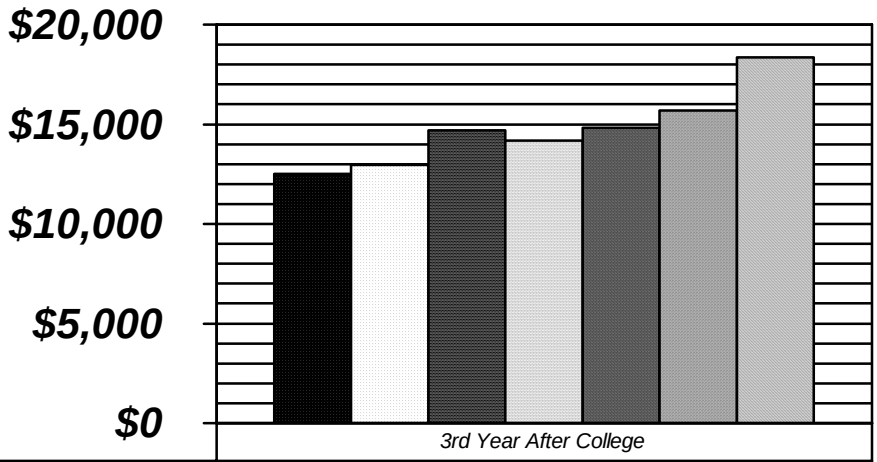
Chapter 4

## Results

For this analysis, the target population focused on female students of prime working age who were 17-57 years old and unemployed during their last year in college and were enrolled in vocational programs. Two groups were selected. The study group from 16,433 unemployed AFDC females and the comparison group from 73,970 unemployed nonAFDC females (Table 5). The majority of students in both unemployed groups, 92 percent of AFDC and 94 percent of nonAFDC students, were enrolled in less than 12 units of vocational coursework during their last two years in college. The resulting two groups of vocational females consisted of 1,277 AFDC students and 4,351 nonAFDC students (Table 6).

The earnings for unemployed female students in their third year out of college were significantly different ($p<0.0001$) by the type of coursework (e.g. nonvocational, skills upgrade, casual vocational or vocational) they completed during their last two years in college (Table 7). Figure 2 below shows the relationship between the median earnings of unemployed female students three years after college and the type of coursework completed at a CCC.

Figure 2
Median Income for Third Year After College
for Unemployed Females 17-57 by Type of Coursework



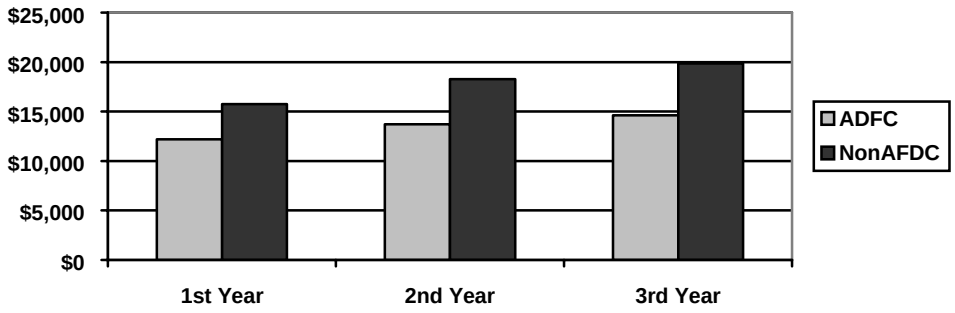

| | 3rd Year After College |
|---|---|
| Nonvocational | $12,520 |
| Skills Upgrade Noncredit | $12,969 |
| Skills Upgrade Credit | $14,708 |
| Casual Vocational Noncredit | $14,168 |
| Casual Vocational Credit | $14,829 |
| Vocational Noncredit | $15,695 |
| Vocational Credit | $18,355 |

Vocational students earned higher incomes than their nonvocational counterparts in each of the three years after college. For both the AFDC and nonAFDC groups, the within group significance for earnings three years after college was similar when contrasting type of coursework (Tables 6 & 8). The vocational AFDC students had significantly ($p<.0001$) higher third year earnings than any of the other AFDC student groups and similarly, the vocational nonAFDC students had significantly ($p<.0001$) higher third year earnings than any of the other nonAFDC student groups. The median earnings show the effects of vocational coursework for these two groups with 37 percent higher

medians for vocational AFDC students than nonvocational and 49 percent higher medians for nonAFDC students in third year out earnings (Table 6).

For the unemployed vocational female students, the nonAFDC group had significantly higher earnings three years after college: on all earnings ($p<.0001$) with a mean of $16,171 compared to $12,015 for the AFDC students and for those working all four quarters ($p<.0001$) with a mean of $23,192 compared to $17,595 for the AFDC students (Table 9). Figure 3 shows the relative differences in median incomes for each year after college.

Figure 3
Annual Median Earnings for Three Years After College
for Unemployed Female Credit Vocational Students 17-57
by Type AFDC Status




| | First | N | Second | N | Third | N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ADFC | $12,180 | 175 | $13,724 | 315 | $14,616 | 347 |
| NonAFDC | $15,766 | 537 | $18,287 | 905 | $19,860 | 912 |

Source: Table 10

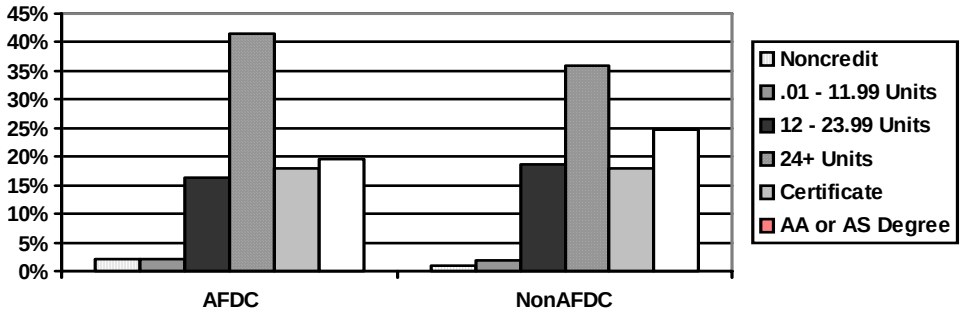
There was, however, a significant difference between the third year earnings for the two groups within only four vocational programs: Accounting, Cosmetology, Nursing, and Secretarial Studies (Table 11).

Additionally, there was no significant difference between the groups for those taking accounting or secretarial studies when controlling for educational

attainment and degree type (Table 12). Although the difference in earnings remained significant ($p<.0001$) for nursing students, AFDC nursing student earnings for certificate holders were higher than the nonAFDC certificate holders, while the AFDC AA/AS holders were lower than the nonAFDC AA/AS holders. Third year earnings for Cosmetology students also remained significantly ($p<.0482$) lower for those AFDC students working all four quarters but was not significant when considering educational attainment on earnings in any quarter (Table 12).

Although significant differences in third year after college earnings was found between the two groups when considering educational attainment for some programs, educational attainment appears more problematic. Educational attainment, more importantly, is significantly different ($p<.0001$) for the two groups when considering AFDC status and programs (Table 13).

Figure 4
Vocational Unemployed Female Students 17-57
Educational Attainment by AFDC Status




| | AFDC | NonAFDC |
|---|---|---|
| Noncredit | 2.1% | 1.0% |
| .01 - 11.99 Units | 2.2% | 1.9% |
| 12 - 23.99 Units | 16.4% | 18.6% |
| 24+ Units | 41.5% | 35.9% |
| Certificate | 18.0% | 18.0% |
| AA or AS Degree | 19.7% | 24.6% |

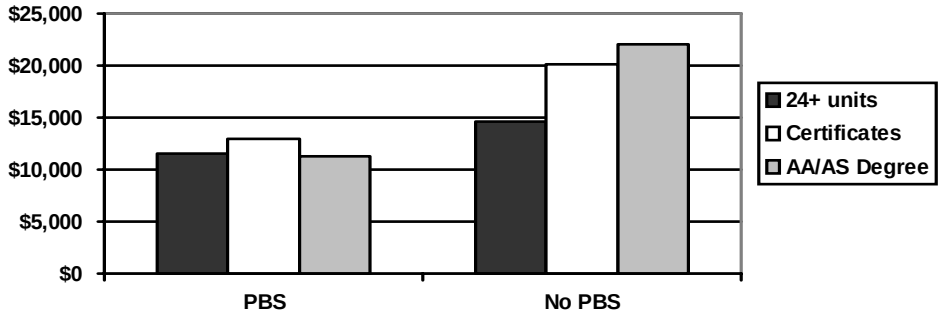
Source: Table 15

Although nearly equal percentages of vocational AFDC (79.3%) and notAFDC (78.5%) students completed 24 or more units, or received a formal Certificate or AA/AS degree (Table 15), a significantly ($p<.0015$) smaller proportion of AFDC students (37.7%:42.6%) were able to complete a program of 18 units or more and receive a certificate or degree (Table 16). And, program completion has a significant effect on earnings in the first ($p<.0001$), second ($p<.0001$), and third ($p<.0001$) year out of college (Tables 10 & 17).

Over twice as large a proportion of the vocational AFDC females took precollegiate basic skills coursework while at the community colleges. Fifteen percent of the unemployed vocational AFDC females took basic skills courses while only 6 percent of their nonAFDC counterparts did (Table 18). Basic skills

coursework significantly (p<.01) decreased the chance of completing a certificate or degree program (Table 19). Within the vocational AFDC female group, basic skills coursework was twice as prevalent (135:58) in the leaver groups (16 percent) compared to the completers (12 percent). Basic Skills coursework also significantly (p<.006) affected earnings for those found employed all 4 quarters three years after college for the AFDC group but not for the nonAFDC group (Table 20-21).

Figure 5
Unemployed AFDC Female Vocational Students 17-57
Third Year After Colleges Earnings by PBS Status




| | PBS | No PBS |
|---|---|---|
| 24+ units | $ 11,536 | $ 14,657 |
| Certificates | 12,950 | 20,118 |
| AA/AS Degree | 11,281 | 22,097 |

Source: Table 20

Limited English Proficiency (LEP) was not prevalent in either group with only 2.6 percent of the AFDC group and 4.3 percent of the nonAFDC group enrolled in LEP courses while at the community college (Table 18).

Chapter 5

## Conclusions

California Community Colleges did function as a vehicle for social mobility for some groups of the unemployed welfare recipients in this study. Long term economic benefits that moved them above poverty were realized by over half of those who completed a vocational certificate program requiring 18 or more units or a two year vocational Associate degree program (Table 22-23). The rate of completion of a certificate or degree program for the vocational AFDC females in this study, 37.7 percent (Table 15), was slightly higher than the national rate of 31 percent reported by Grubb (1996) and the majority of those completing moved out of poverty even in their first year after college.

Completing short term programs of under 18 units or earning high numbers of units without completing the certificate or degree requirements did not provide the women in this study with long term economic benefits in most of the cases. Less than 17 percent (Table 23) of the unemployed AFDC females who did not receive a certificate or degree earned over the 1995 Federal poverty line (FPL) of $12,278 for a family of three (U.S. Census Bureau, 1998) in their third year after college. The seventeen percent of Leavers earning wages above poverty nearly matches the 16 percent found with above poverty wages discovered in the CDF (1998) study. The low percentage earning above poverty support's Grubb's (1996) assertion that "the economic benefits of small amounts

of postsecondary education (less than one year) are virtually nonexistent for both men and women, and even more substantial amounts (one or two years) are virtually worthless for women in particular."

Grubb's, (1996) work in examining the mid-skilled labor market suggests that without the diploma, employers will not even consider the short term completers and noncompleters for the mid-skilled occupations. If these women's work in community colleges was focused in short term job readiness programs to move them into low-skill low wage jobs, which the current PRWORA mandates, they may have met their educational goals but did not move out of poverty. Nearly all groups, including those not receiving vocational degrees, had high increases in earnings from their first year out of college to their third year after college. The change in median annual earnings for those working in all 4 quarters in the nonvocational group, typical of the short term program groups, from $7,572 to $10,633, a 40 percent increase, suggests that these females are in low wage employment (Table 10). Although this is double what Grubb (1996a) reported for JTPA participants, it is evident that this group did not become economically self sufficient. Wilson (1996) and Jencks (1997), moreover, both warn that low wage and minimum wage jobs will not move families out of poverty and work in those low wage jobs can not be sustained without other resources available to them.

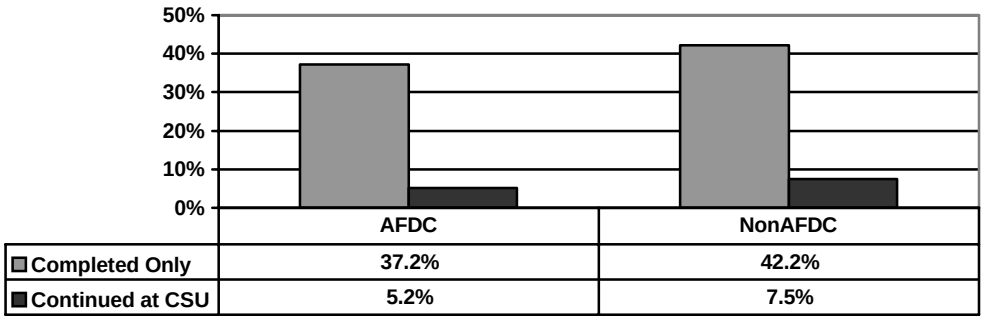
Unemployed vocational female student's earnings three years after college are well above the federal poverty threshold when they complete either a certificate or a degree program whether or not they received AFDC during their last year in college. For those receiving AFDC benefits during their last year in college, over half (53.3%) of the completers who were found employed in California UI covered employment three years after college earned above the FPL (Table 22). Just under 70 percent (68.5%) of those found working in all four quarters earned the FPL of $12,278 or more (Table 23). Grubb (1996b) describes the relationship of long term economic benefits and completing an integrated community college program as a package of skills that provide both entry-level skill requirements and those skills valued by employers for promotion and advancement in the workplace.

The majority of unemployed AFDC female students, however, did not enroll in or complete programs that would function to move them out of poverty. While 92.1 percent of the unemployed AFDC females enrolled in nonvocational or low vocational unit programs, none of the groups of programs outside of vocational ones had median earnings three years after college that would place them above the FPL.

Just as important, very few nonvocational programs had completers Only 211 (1.3 percent) of 15,697 unemployed AFDC female students 17-57 years old not enrolling in at least 12 units of vocational coursework completed certificates

or degrees (Table 26). These AFDC females did not complete long term programs nor did they transfer to CSU. The AFDC females overall transferred to CSU at very low rates (3.6 percent) compared to their nonAFDC counterparts at 7.5 percent (Table 26). The vocational AFDC female students both completed programs and transferred to CSU at rates much closer to their nonAFDC counterparts as shown in Figure 6 below.

Figure 6
Completion and Transfer of Vocational Unemployed Female Students 17-57




Source: Table 26

Although the data does not provide the answer to why the AFDC females did not complete long term programs or transfer to CSU at the same rates as their nonAFDC counterparts or those in the national studies presented by Grubb (1996), Wilson's (1996) work in the FPLS suggests that resources to continue long term educational programs were insufficient for this group. Both the Department of Labor's Consumer Expense Survey, conducted in the mid eighties, and Edin's work in 1988-90 (Jencks, 1993), estimate that 40 percent of expenses need to be additional income above AFDC benefits. Jencks (1993) also suggests that AFDC recipients in nearly every state would need to earn

$300-$400 dollars more to meet their expenses every month. While the resources of the nonAFDC students allowed them to complete at higher rates, the burden of attending school with the lack of resources available to the AFDC students during the period of this study was deadening. And, if Wilson's (1996) proposition that failure to retain jobs deminishes labor force attachment can be extended to schooling and his argument is correct, then the result of their failure to complete will further weaken their attachment both to education and the labor force. Additionally, the evidence also supports the premise that higher education itself is stratified with only lower stratas of education being available to those with less resources to enter or enough resources to continue into the higher levels of education in California.

The higher percentage of AFDC females who took basic skills provided evidence of another impediment to completion and the long term economic benefits completing a program provides. The additional time and endurance required when adding remedial coursework to the work already required in vocational programs at CCC that would move them out of poverty appeared to be overwhelming for this group of women. The nonAFDC counterparts of this study who took basic skills courses but had sufficient resources to not work while in college completed at a 33.3 percent higher rate (Table 20).

When only 42.4 percent of the unemployed AFDC female students either complete a program of 18 units or more or continue their education at a CSU and

less than 17 percent of those who don't complete earn above poverty in three years in California, it is questionable whether work first policies will be successful in moving these people out of poverty. Furthermore, unless either many more resources are provided to these women to help them stay in school to improve their skills so they can step out of low wage jobs or sufficient wage increases are made at the bottom of the labor market, they and the children in their care will continue to suffer the pains of poverty.

## Indications for Further Research

The most important question raised but not answered by this research is why these women complete educational programs of sufficient length to provide long term economic benefits at such dismal rates. Qualitative research that could answer this question would provide community colleges with information to better address the barriers these women face as they try to remain in school to gain sufficient skills to move up in the labor market.

The research in this thesis did not include the rates at which any of these women returned to welfare over the followup period. Rematching these women's SSNs to the DSS database for the entire follow-up period would provide those rates and help us understand better the effects of short term programs, simple accumulation of units and low wage employment. Checking for these women's SSN's in the COMIS for the second, third and fourth years after the cohort year would also provide us with information on those who may have simply stopped

out for a year. Long term follow-up at five and seven years after college should be done to examine the sustainabilty of the economic benefit effects of community college educational programs in California.

The CCCs are now implementing data collection for all program completions, no matter what the length, which will allow future research to be done on the impact of completing programs of less than 18 units which were not identified in this study. Follow-up of those students who complete programs of less than 18 units separately from those who drop out needs to be accomplished if we are to understand the consequences of the policies currently in place which focus on very short term training programs.

This research also did not account for those women who may have entered self employment in a number of occupations that may require the worker to be an independent contractor such as the cosmetology and child development (child care) fields. With current privacy restrictions, data on earnings for self employed individuals is not available. Unless new inroads are made in data matches with the IRS or Franchise Tax Board, field research will be required to fully understand the effectiveness of programs leading to employment in areas dominated by self employed or independent contractor employees.

The question of whether those who entered employment displaced other low skilled workers in a fixed labor market was not answered by this study, but is critical to the success of current welfare policy implementations. If the literature

is correct and a reordering of the queue of the under and unemployed is the result of short term training, then both the people pushed down in the queue and the state, unable to meet it's work participation rates, will suffer from the same loss of funds.

Table 1
Examples of Poverty Thresholds for Four-Person Families
Set by Various Methods for Years Around 1980 and 1990, in Constant 1992 Dollars

| Type and Source of Threshold | Thresholds Set for Years Around 1980 | Thresholds Set for Years Around 1990 | Percentage of Orshanski Rate 1980 | 1990 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Expert Budget Thresholds** | | | | |
| Official (Orshansky threshold indexed by CPI-U) 1963 | 14,228 | 14,228 | | |
| Orshansky 1963 threshold indexed by CPI-U-X1 | 13,082 | 13,082 | 92% | 92% |
| Orshansky food multiplier developed from CEX data | 16,163 (1980) | 20,659 (1991) | 114% | 145% |
| Ruggles housing multiplier | 21,331 (1980) | 21,640 (1992) | 150% | 152% |
| Weinberg/Lamas food/housing multiplier—25th percentile | N.A. | 20,267 (1989) | | 142% |
| Weinberg/Lamas food/housing multiplier—35th percentile | N.A. | 21,790 (1989) | | 153% |
| BLS lower level budget | 19,587 (1981) | N.A. | 138% | |
| Renwick budget *a* | N.A. | 17,600 (1992) | | 124% |
| Schwarz and Volgy budget | N.A. | 18,983 (1990) | | 133% |
| **Relative Thresholds** | | | | |
| Vaughan one-half median before-tax four-person family income | 20,715 (1980) | 22,308 (1992) | 146% | 157% |
| Vaughan one-half median after-tax four-person family income | 16,629 (1980) | 18,018 (1992) | 117% | 127% |
| Expert Committee on Family Budget Revisions social minimum | 15,584 (1979) | 19,987 (1991)b | 110% | 140% |
| **Subjective Thresholds** | | | | |
| Vaughan “poverty” | 15,895 (1980) | 17,703 (1989) | 112% | 124% |
| General Social Survey “poverty” | N.A. | 17,228 (1993) | | 121% |
| Colasanto et al. | 12,160 (1981) | N.A. | 85% | |
| Danziger et al.*c* | 24,680 (1980) | N.A. | 173% | |
| De Vos and Garner *d* | 32,530 (1982) | N.A. | 229% | |

NOTE: All thresholds are after-tax unless otherwise noted; dates in parentheses are the year for which the threshold was developed; all amounts are expressed in constant 1992 dollars using the CPI-U (except the second one, as noted).

*a* Renwick threshold calculated as weighted average of thresholds for two-adult/two-child families with one earner and two earners. (Weighting assumes that 75% of two-adult/two-child families have two earners and that one-third of those pay for day care.)

*b* Calculated as one-half average (rather than median) expenditures of four-person consumer units.

*c* Survey question did not specify whether respondents were to indicate minimum income level before or after taxes.

*d* Survey question asked respondents to indicate minimum income level before taxes.

SOURCE: C. Citro and R. Michaels eds, National Academy Press, 1995: Measuring Poverty: A New Approach; TABLE 2-5 http://www.nap.edu/readingroom/books/poverty/

For pdf versions: http://www.census.gov/hhes/poverty/povmeas/toc.html

Table 2
Students in the 1992-93 Academic Year
Identified by the Department of Social Services
By Aid Type

| AIDCODE | Category | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative Frequency | Cumulative Percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | SSI/SSP Aged | 8,544 | 5% | 8,544 | 5% |
| 20 | SSI/SSP Blind | 1,939 | 1.1 | 10,483 | 6.1 |
| 30 | AFDC - Family | 93,548 | 54.2 | 104,031 | 60.3 |
| 32 | AFDC - Family (State) | 1,350 | 0.8 | 105,381 | 61.1 |
| 33 | AFDC - Unemployed Parent (State) | 227 | 0.1 | 105,608 | 61.2 |
| 35 | AFDC - Unemployed Parent (State) | 29,921 | 17.3 | 135,529 | 78.6 |
| 40 | AFDC - Foster Assistance | 784 | 0.5 | 136,313 | 79.0 |
| 42 | AFDC - Foster Care (Federal) | 671 | 0.4 | 136,984 | 79.4 |
| 60 | SSI/SSP Disabled | 35,413 | 20.5 | 172,397 | 99.9 |
| 62 | SSI/SSP Special Circumstances | 117 | 0.1 | 172,514 | 100% |

Table 3
All Students Leaving CCC in 1992-3 for At Least One Year
By DSS Aid Code and CSU Status

| | Type of Aid | DSS Aid Code | Not Found at CSU N | Found at CSU N | ALL Students N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Leavers | | | | | |
| | SSI/Aged | 10 | 2,274 | 31 | 2,305 |
| | SSI/Blind | 20 | 475 | 31 | 506 |
| | SSI/Disabled | 60 | 9,266 | 321 | 9,587 |
| | | 62 | 34 | 1 | 35 |
| | Total SSI | | 12,049 | 384 | 12,433 |
| | AFDC - Family | 30 | 28,189 | 1,045 | 29,234 |
| | | 32 | 487 | 16 | 503 |
| | | 33 | 93 | 2 | 95 |
| | | 35 | 8,652 | 253 | 8,905 |
| | Total AFDC - Family | | 37,421 | 1,316 | 38,737 |
| | AFDC - Foster Care | 40 | 168 | 3 | 171 |
| | | 42 | 174 | 2 | 176 |
| | Total AFDC - Foster Care | | 342 | 5 | 347 |
| | Total AFDC | | 37,763 | 1,321 | 39,084 |
| | Not AFDC, Disabled, or Foster Care | | 628,250 | 58,886 | 687,136 |
| Total Leavers | | | 678,062 | 60,591 | 738,653 |
| **GENDER** | | | | | |
| Female | SSI/Aged | 10 | 1,366 | 20 | 1,386 |
| | SSI/Blind | 20 | 259 | 16 | 275 |
| | SSI/Disabled | 60 | 4,452 | 151 | 4,603 |
| | | 62 | 19 . | | 19 |
| | Total SSI | | 6,096 | 187 | 6,283 |
| | AFDC - Family | 30 | 24,787 | 955 | 25,742 |
| | | 32 | 457 | 15 | 472 |
| | | 33 | 64 | 2 | 66 |
| | | 35 | 3,625 | 97 | 3,722 |
| | Total AFDC - Family | | 28,933 | 1,069 | 30,002 |
| | AFDC Foster Care | 40 | 78 | 2 | 80 |
| | | 42 | 91 | 2 | 93 |
| | Total AFDC - Foster Care | | 169 | 4 | 173 |
| | Total AFDC | | 29,102 | 1,073 | 30,175 |
| | Not AFDC, Disabled, or Foster Care | | 324,509 | 32,412 | 356,921 |
| Total Female Leavers | | | 359,707 | 33,672 | 393,379 |

Table continued next page

Table 3 continued

| Gender | Type of Aid | DSS Aid Code | Not Found at CSU N | Found at CSU N | ALL Students N |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Male | SSI/Aged | 10 | 884 | 11 | 895 |
| | SSI/Blind | 20 | 214 | 15 | 229 |
| | SSI/Disabled | 60 | 4,735 | 170 | 4,905 |
| | | 62 | 15 | 1 | 16 |
| | Total SSI | | 5,848 | 197 | 6,045 |
| | AFDC - Family | 30 | 3,304 | 89 | 3,393 |
| | | 32 | 27 | 1 | 28 |
| | | 33 | 29 . | | 29 |
| | | 35 | 4,976 | 156 | 5,132 |
| | Total AFDC - Family | | 8,336 | 246 | 8,582 |
| | AFDC Foster Care | 40 | 89 | 1 | 90 |
| | | 42 | 80 . | | 80 |
| | Total AFDC - Foster Care | | 169 | 1 | 170 |
| | Total AFDC | | 8,505 | 247 | 8,752 |
| | Not AFDC, Disabled, or Foster Care | | 300,488 | 26,355 | 326,843 |
| Total Male Leavers | | | 314,841 | 26,799 | 341,640 |
| Unknown | SSI/Aged | 10 | 24 . | | 24 |
| | SSI/Blind | 20 | 2 . | | 2 |
| | SSI/Disabled | 60 | 79 . | | 79 |
| | Total SSI | | 105 | 0 | 105 |
| | AFDC - Family | 30 | 98 | 1 | 99 |
| | | 32 | 3 . | | 3 |
| | | 35 | 51 . | | 51 |
| | Total AFDC - Family | | 152 | 1 | 153 |
| | AFDC Foster Care | 40 | 1 . | | 1 |
| | | 42 | 3 . | | 3 |
| | Total AFDC - Foster Care | | 4 | 0 | 4 |
| | Total AFDC | | 156 | 1 | 157 |
| | Not AFDC, Disabled, or Foster Care | | 3,253 | 119 | 3,372 |
| Total Unknown Gender Leavers | | | 3,514 | 120 | 3,634 |

Table 4
Quarters with Earnings in CA UI Covered Employment
for Females during their Last Year in College for those Not Continuing at CSU
by AFDC Status, Age and Ethnicity

| | | Number Quarters with Earnings | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ALL | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Age/Ethnicity | N | N | N | N | N | N |
| AFDC | | | | | | |
| 00-16 | 162 | 127 | 16 | 8 | 8 | 3 |
| 17-19 | 3,401 | 1,683 | 549 | 433 | 360 | 376 |
| 20-29 | 13,947 | 7,754 | 2,002 | 1,532 | 1,308 | 1,351 |
| 30-39 | 8,770 | 5,204 | 1,059 | 835 | 713 | 959 |
| 40-49 | 2,425 | 1,597 | 218 | 202 | 157 | 251 |
| 50-59 | 287 | 209 | 22 | 16 | 21 | 19 |
| 60-99 | 110 | 71 | 20 | 6 | 4 | 9 |
| ALL | 29,102 | 16,645 | 3,886 | 3,032 | 2,571 | 2,968 |
| Not AFDC or SSI/SSP | | | | | | |
| 00-16 | 1,991 | 1,402 | 140 | 82 | 94 | 273 |
| 17-19 | 25,799 | 5,801 | 2,949 | 3,208 | 4,108 | 9,733 |
| 20-29 | 114,167 | 23,157 | 7,667 | 9,578 | 14,333 | 59,432 |
| 30-39 | 80,490 | 21,797 | 4,509 | 5,047 | 8,161 | 40,976 |
| 40-49 | 55,091 | 15,908 | 2,800 | 3,140 | 5,281 | 27,962 |
| 50-59 | 23,790 | 8,732 | 1,228 | 1,305 | 2,001 | 10,524 |
| 60-99 | 23,181 | 18,028 | 701 | 654 | 864 | 2,934 |
| ALL | 324,509 | 94,825 | 19,994 | 23,014 | 34,842 | 151,834 |
| AFDC | | | | | | |
| American Indian | 609 | 366 | 88 | 56 | 51 | 48 |
| Asian | 1,787 | 1,363 | 150 | 98 | 85 | 91 |
| Black | 7,235 | 3,969 | 1,085 | 804 | 616 | 761 |
| Filipino | 321 | 171 | 34 | 35 | 41 | 40 |
| Hispanic | 6,698 | 3,703 | 857 | 725 | 642 | 771 |
| Other Nonwhite | 342 | 210 | 33 | 36 | 30 | 33 |
| Pacific Islander | 116 | 72 | 14 | 8 | 13 | 9 |
| Unknown | 772 | 435 | 101 | 78 | 73 | 85 |
| White | 11,222 | 6,356 | 1,524 | 1,192 | 1,020 | 1,130 |
| ALL | 29,102 | 16,645 | 3,886 | 3,032 | 2,571 | 2,968 |
| Not AFDC or SSI/SSP | | | | | | |
| American Indian | 3,579 | 894 | 242 | 284 | 474 | 1,685 |
| Asian | 26,251 | 10,231 | 1,827 | 1,897 | 2,459 | 9,837 |
| Black | 21,672 | 5,299 | 1,531 | 1,581 | 2,286 | 10,975 |
| Filipino | 9,405 | 1,793 | 545 | 668 | 1,110 | 5,289 |
| Hispanic | 53,839 | 13,781 | 3,571 | 4,097 | 6,065 | 26,325 |
| Other Nonwhite | 4,234 | 1,186 | 262 | 288 | 476 | 2,022 |
| Pacific Islander | 1,541 | 410 | 109 | 110 | 173 | 739 |
| Unknown | 13,484 | 5,095 | 716 | 819 | 1,275 | 5,579 |
| White | 190,504 | 56,136 | 11,191 | 13,270 | 20,524 | 89,383 |
| ALL | 324,509 | 94,825 | 19,994 | 23,014 | 34,842 | 151,834 |
| ALL | 353,611 | 111,470 | 23,880 | 26,046 | 37,413 | 154,802 |

note: Counts are duplicated for those attending multiple colleges.

Table 5
Quarters with Earnings in CA UI Covered Employment
for Females 17-57 during their Last Year in College for those Not Continuing at CSU
by AFDC Status, Age and Ethnicity

| | | Number Quarters with Earnings | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ALL | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Age/Ethnicity | N | N | N | N | N | N |
| **AFDC** | | | | | | |
| 17-19 | 3,401 | 1,683 | 549 | 433 | 360 | 376 |
| 20-29 | 13,947 | 7,754 | 2,002 | 1,532 | 1,308 | 1,351 |
| 30-39 | 8,770 | 5,204 | 1,059 | 835 | 713 | 959 |
| 40-49 | 2,425 | 1,597 | 218 | 202 | 157 | 251 |
| 50-59 | 267 | 195 | 21 | 15 | 20 | 16 |
| ALL | 28,810 | 16,433 | 3,849 | 3,017 | 2,558 | 2,953 |
| **Not AFDC or SSI/SSP** | | | | | | |
| 17-19 | 25,799 | 5,801 | 2,949 | 3,208 | 4,108 | 9,733 |
| 20-29 | 114,167 | 23,157 | 7,667 | 9,578 | 14,333 | 59,432 |
| 30-39 | 80,490 | 21,797 | 4,509 | 5,047 | 8,161 | 40,976 |
| 40-49 | 55,091 | 15,908 | 2,800 | 3,140 | 5,281 | 27,962 |
| 50-59 | 20,722 | 7,307 | 1,064 | 1,142 | 1,759 | 9,450 |
| ALL | 296,269 | 73,970 | 18,989 | 22,115 | 33,642 | 147,553 |
| **AFDC** | | | | | | |
| American Indian | 603 | 362 | 87 | 56 | 51 | 47 |
| Asian | 1,750 | 1,334 | 145 | 98 | 83 | 90 |
| Black | 7,192 | 3,934 | 1,082 | 802 | 615 | 759 |
| Filipino | 319 | 170 | 34 | 35 | 41 | 39 |
| Hispanic | 6,625 | 3,649 | 850 | 719 | 638 | 769 |
| Other Nonwhite | 337 | 207 | 31 | 36 | 30 | 33 |
| Pacific Islander | 116 | 72 | 14 | 8 | 13 | 9 |
| Unknown | 737 | 415 | 96 | 74 | 71 | 81 |
| White | 11,131 | 6,290 | 1,510 | 1,189 | 1,016 | 1,126 |
| ALL | 28,810 | 16,433 | 3,849 | 3,017 | 2,558 | 2,953 |
| **Not AFDC or SSI/SSP** | | | | | | |
| American Indian | 3,362 | 747 | 235 | 277 | 464 | 1,639 |
| Asian | 25,026 | 9,365 | 1,770 | 1,849 | 2,410 | 9,632 |
| Black | 20,774 | 4,767 | 1,482 | 1,548 | 2,231 | 10,746 |
| Filipino | 9,074 | 1,638 | 526 | 647 | 1,091 | 5,172 |
| Hispanic | 52,256 | 12,829 | 3,479 | 4,021 | 5,961 | 25,966 |
| Other Nonwhite | 3,963 | 998 | 251 | 280 | 462 | 1,972 |
| Pacific Islander | 1,499 | 379 | 108 | 109 | 172 | 731 |
| Unknown | 10,414 | 2,842 | 622 | 727 | 1,134 | 5,089 |
| White | 169,901 | 40,405 | 10,516 | 12,657 | 19,717 | 86,606 |
| ALL | 296,269 | 73,970 | 18,989 | 22,115 | 33,642 | 147,553 |
| ALL | 325,079 | 90,403 | 22,838 | 25,132 | 36,200 | 150,506 |

note: Counts are duplicated for those attending multiple colleges.

Table 6
Third Year After College Earnings in Constant 1995 Dollars
for Unemployed Female 17-57 Year Old Students
Leaving College in the 1992-93 Academic Year
by Type of Coursework

| | N | Percent | Median Earnings | Worked 4 Quarters |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **AFDC** | | | | |
| ALL STUDENTS | 16,428 | 100% | $ 11,294 | 2,516 |
| NON-VOCATIONAL STUDENTS | 12,640 | 76.9% | $ 10,633 | 1,708 |
| SKILLS UPGRADE NONCRED | 87 | 0.5% | $ 12,966 | 23 |
| SKILLS UPGRADE CREDIT | 569 | 3.5% | $ 11,618 | 95 |
| CASUAL VOCATIONAL NONCREDIT | 384 | 2.3% | $ 11,790 | 65 |
| CASUAL VOCATIONAL CREDIT | 1,471 | 9.0% | $ 12,425 | 281 |
| VOC STUDENTS NONCREDIT | 18 | 0.1% | ******* | ******* |
| VOC STUDENTS CREDIT | 1,259 | 7.7% | $ 14,616 | 347 |
| Total Vocational | 1,277 | 7.8% | | |
| Difference between Vocational Credit and Nonvocational | | | $ 3,983 | 37% |
| **Not AFDC** | | | | |
| ALL STUDENTS | 73,823 | 100% | $ 14,498 | 8,646 |
| NON-VOCATIONAL STUDENTS | 52,352 | 70.9% | $ 13,364 | 5,569 |
| SKILLS UPGRADE NONCRED | 334 | 0.5% | $ 14,208 | 38 |
| SKILLS UPGRADE CREDIT | 6,787 | 9.2% | $ 15,189 | 832 |
| CASUAL VOCATIONAL NONCREDIT | 1,905 | 2.6% | $ 14,485 | 217 |
| CASUAL VOCATIONAL CREDIT | 8,094 | 11.0% | $ 15,776 | 1,078 |
| VOC STUDENTS NONCREDIT | 47 | 0.1% | $ 15,695 | 10 |
| VOC STUDENTS CREDIT | 4,304 | 5.8% | $ 19,860 | 911 |
| Total Vocational | 4,351 | 5.9% | | |
| Difference between Vocational Credit and Nonvocational | | | $ 6,496 | 49% |

Skills Upgrade: Students earning less than 12 credit units or 648 noncredit hours with vocational coursework only.

Casual vocational: Students earning less than 12 credit units or 648 noncredit hours of vocational coursework with some nonvocational units earned.

Voc Students: Students earning at least 12 credit units or 648 noncredit hours of vocational coursework.

note: Privacy restrictions require suppression of cells containing less than five. Suppressed cells are filled with asterisks (*******).

Table 7
Output of ANOVA Analysis: Earnings by Program Type
Model: Earnings Third Year After College=Program Type (e.g. vocational, nonvocational, etc.)

General Linear Models Procedure
Class Level Information

| Class | Levels | Values |
|---|---|---|
| PROGRAM | 7 | 0001 0002 0003 0004 0005 0006 0007 |

Number of observations in data set = 90251

NOTE: Due to missing values, only 11180 observations can be used in this analysis.

General Linear Models Procedure

Dependent Variable: WAGE3

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 6 | 41312900317.97040 | 6885483386.32841 | 41.91 | 0.0001 |
| Error | 11173 | 1835581935923.57000 | 164287294.00551 | | |
| Corrected Total | 11179 | 1876894836241.54000 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGE3 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.022011 | 77.20639 | 12817.46051312 | 16601.55304114 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PROGRAM | 6 | 41312900317.97070 | 6885483386.32845 | 41.91 | 0.0001 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PROGRAM | 6 | 41312900317.97060 | 6885483386.32844 | 41.91 | 0.0001 |

Table 8
Output of ANOVA Analysis: Earnings by AFDC & Program
Model: Wages Third Year After College=Program Type by AFDC Status

**Vocational Unemployed AFDC Females 17-57**

```
Class Level Information

Class    Levels    Values
PROGRAM       7    0001 0002 0003 0004 0005 0006 0007

Number of observations in by group = 16428
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 2520 observations can be used in this analysis.

Dependent Variable: WAGE3

Source        DF        Sum of Squares          Mean Square   F Value     Pr > F
Model          6     9460255004.018120    1576709167.336350     21.73     0.0001

Error       2513   182302076730.378000      72543603.951603
Corrected   2519   191762331734.396000

       R-Square                 C.V.            Root MSE           WAGE3 Mean
       0.049333             65.52398        8517.25331029       12998.68214286

Source        DF            Type I SS          Mean Square   F Value     Pr > F
PROGRAM        6     9460255004.018150    1576709167.336360     21.73     0.0001
Source        DF           Type III SS          Mean Square   F Value     Pr > F
PROGRAM        6     9460255004.018160    1576709167.336360     21.73     0.0001
```

**Vocational Unemployed nonAFDC Females 17-57**

```
Class    Levels    Values
PROGRAM       7    0001 0002 0003 0004 0005 0006 0007

Number of observations in by group = 73823
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 8660 observations can be used in this analysis.

Dependent Variable: WAGE3
Source       DF        Sum of Squares          Mean Square   F Value     Pr > F
Model         6     34325583969.94480     5720930661.65747     30.77     0.0001
Error      8653   1608576845514.52000      185898167.74697
Corrected  8659   1642902429484.46000

    R-Square                 C.V.            Root MSE           WAGE3 Mean
    0.020893             77.24916       13634.44783433       17649.96351039

Source        DF            Type I SS          Mean Square   F Value     Pr > F
PROGRAM        6     34325583969.94500     5720930661.65751     30.77     0.0001
Source        DF           Type III SS          Mean Square   F Value     Pr > F
PROGRAM        6     34325583969.94490     5720930661.65749     30.77     0.0001
```

Table 9
Third Year After College Earnings by AFDC Status
for Vocational Unemployed Females 17-57
Means and Output of ANOVA

| | Any Qtrs | | All 4 Qtrs | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | MEAN | N | MEAN | N |
| AFDC | $12,015* | 697 | $17,595* | 347 |
| Not AFDC | $16,171* | 1,714 | $23,192* | 912 |

* Significant at .0001

**General Linear Models Procedure**

Class Level Information

| Class | Levels | Values |
|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 2 | AFDC Not AFDC |

Number of observations in data set = 5563

| Group | Obs | Dependent Variables |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2411 | WAGEY3 |
| 2 | 1259 | WAGE3 |

NOTE: Variables in each group are consistent with respect to the presence or absence of missing values.

Dependent Variable: WAGEY3

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 1 | 8558473095.21 | 46.00 | 0.0001 |
| Error | 2409 | 448250577527.82 | | |
| Corrected Total | 2410 | 456809050623.02 | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | WAGEY3 Mean |
|---|---|---|
| 0.018735 | 91.12425 | 14969.5268 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 8558473095.21 | 46.00 | 0.0001 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 8558473095.21 | 46.00 | 0.0001 |

Dependent Variable: WAGE3

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 1 | 7874125491.33 | 40.89 | 0.0001 |
| Error | 1257 | 242045643016.84 | | |
| Corrected Total | 1258 | 249919768508.18 | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | WAGE3 Mean |
|---|---|---|
| 0.031507 | 64.09752 | 21649.0969 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 7874125491.33 | 40.89 | 0.0001 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 7874125491.33 | 40.89 | 0.0001 |

Table 10
Unemployed Female 17-57 Year Old Students
Leaving College in the 1992-93 Academic Year
Income in Constant 1995 Dollars by Educational Attainment by Program Area
Community College System Statewide

| Educational Attainment | Total Students | 1993-94 First Year Out of College % Match | % Worked 4 Qtrs | Median Annual* Income | 1994-95 Second Year Out of College % Match | % Worked 4 Qtrs | Median Annual* Income | 1995-96 Third Year Out of College % Match | % Worked 4 Qtrs | Median Annual* Income |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **AFDC** | | | | | | | | | | |
| ALL AFDC STUDENTS | 16,428 | 28.8% | 17.1% | $8,619 | 37.7% | 32.8% | $10,552 | 41.4% | 37.0% | $11,294 |
| Noncredit or 0 Units Earned | 7,091 | 24.9% | 14.2% | $7,601 | 33.8% | 28.2% | $9,552 | 37.7% | 32.8% | $10,007 |
| .01 - 11.99 Units | 4,579 | 29.7% | 14.7% | $7,807 | 39.3% | 31.3% | $9,938 | 43.0% | 36.5% | $10,937 |
| 12 - 23.99 Units | 1,728 | 32.3% | 18.3% | $8,907 | 40.3% | 36.2% | $11,393 | 44.2% | 36.6% | $12,042 |
| 24+ Units | 2,442 | 30.1% | 19.9% | $9,266 | 39.5% | 37.9% | $11,351 | 42.4% | 42.2% | $12,343 |
| Certificate | 232 | 52.6% | 33.6% | $15,420 | 59.5% | 54.3% | $15,124 | 58.2% | 65.9% | $16,613 |
| AA or AS Degree | 356 | 52.0% | 35.7% | $13,421 | 59.0% | 49.5% | $15,816 | 64.9% | 51.1% | $16,624 |
| NON-VOCATIONAL | 12,640 | 26.8% | 14.0% | $7,572 | 35.7% | 30.2% | $9,787 | 39.5% | 34.2% | $10,633 |
| Noncredit or 0 Units Earned | 6,533 | 24.6% | 12.8% | $7,391 | 33.4% | 27.3% | $9,199 | 37.0% | 31.9% | $9,869 |
| .01 - 11.99 Units | 3,562 | 29.6% | 13.5% | $7,170 | 38.6% | 30.7% | $9,624 | 43.0% | 35.4% | $10,818 |
| 12 - 23.99 Units | 1,110 | 31.1% | 17.4% | $8,109 | 38.9% | 35.4% | $10,958 | 42.8% | 34.1% | $11,686 |
| 24+ Units | 1,369 | 25.9% | 17.5% | $9,308 | 36.4% | 35.7% | $11,232 | 38.2% | 40.5% | $11,678 |
| Certificate | 4 | **** | **** | ******* | **** | **** | ******* | **** | **** | ******* |
| AA or AS Degree | 62 | 32.3% | **** | ******* | 46.8% | 51.7% | $7,648 | 59.7% | 51.4% | $14,208 |
| VOC STUDENTS CREDIT | 1,259 | 45.1% | 30.8% | $12,180 | 51.7% | 48.4% | $13,724 | 55.4% | 49.8% | $14,616 |
| Noncredit or 0 Units Earned | 26 | 46.2% | **** | ******* | 53.8% | 42.9% | $22,760 | 57.7% | 40.0% | $12,457 |
| .01 - 11.99 Units | 28 | 21.4% | **** | ******* | 32.1% | **** | ******* | 46.4% | 38.5% | $6,860 |
| 12 - 23.99 Units | 207 | 40.1% | 26.5% | $10,248 | 45.4% | 46.8% | $14,712 | 50.7% | 44.8% | $12,296 |
| 24+ Units | 523 | 38.0% | 23.1% | $8,723 | 45.5% | 44.1% | $10,710 | 49.3% | 41.9% | $12,195 |
| Certificate | 227 | 53.7% | 33.6% | $15,420 | 60.4% | 54.7% | $15,124 | 59.0% | 66.4% | $16,613 |
| AA or AS Degree | 248 | 58.9% | 41.1% | $14,459 | 64.1% | 51.6% | $18,521 | 69.4% | 53.5% | $19,406 |

Table continued next page

Table 10 continued
Unemployed Female 17-57 Year Old Students
Leaving College in the 1992-93 Academic Year
Income in Constant 1995 Dollars by Educational Attainment by Program Area
Community College System Statewide

| Educational Attainment | Total Students | 1993-94 First Year Out of College % Match | % Worked 4 Qtrs | Median Annual* Income | 1994-95 Second Year Out of College % Match | % Worked 4 Qtrs | Median Annual* Income | 1995-96 Third Year Out of College % Match | % Worked 4 Qtrs | Median Annual* Income |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Not AFDC** | | | | | | | | | | |
| ALL Not AFDC STUDENTS | 73,823 | 19.8% | 21.6% | $10,377 | 24.9% | 38.5% | $12,974 | 27.3% | 42.9% | $14,498 |
| Noncredit or 0 Units Earned | 22,880 | 16.8% | 18.5% | $8,898 | 21.5% | 34.6% | $11,171 | 23.5% | 40.0% | $12,324 |
| .01 - 11.99 Units | 26,992 | 19.9% | 20.9% | $9,989 | 25.1% | 37.9% | $12,927 | 27.7% | 42.5% | $14,409 |
| 12 - 23.99 Units | 8,493 | 20.6% | 22.5% | $9,745 | 25.7% | 39.4% | $12,806 | 28.6% | 43.5% | $14,283 |
| 24+ Units | 12,784 | 21.2% | 21.0% | $10,315 | 27.0% | 39.5% | $13,241 | 29.6% | 44.2% | $15,626 |
| Certificate | 807 | 40.0% | 36.2% | $16,585 | 45.6% | 54.1% | $19,345 | 44.6% | 53.1% | $21,126 |
| AA or AS Degree | 1,867 | 33.4% | 38.5% | $20,018 | 39.0% | 54.6% | $21,966 | 40.7% | 54.1% | $23,415 |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| NON-VOCATIONAL | 52,352 | 18.5% | 19.0% | $9,377 | 23.6% | 35.7% | $12,111 | 26.2% | 40.6% | $13,364 |
| Noncredit or 0 Units Earned | 20,257 | 16.6% | 17.5% | $8,762 | 21.3% | 33.7% | $11,027 | 23.3% | 38.9% | $12,006 |
| .01 - 11.99 Units | 18,547 | 19.7% | 19.9% | $9,486 | 24.9% | 36.6% | $12,839 | 27.6% | 41.8% | $13,913 |
| 12 - 23.99 Units | 5,239 | 19.8% | 21.0% | $9,829 | 25.1% | 37.8% | $12,602 | 28.3% | 41.5% | $14,119 |
| 24+ Units | 7,703 | 19.8% | 18.3% | $9,792 | 25.3% | 36.2% | $12,766 | 28.5% | 41.0% | $14,376 |
| Certificate | 13 | **** | **** | ******* | **** | **** | ******* | **** | **** | ******* |
| AA or AS Degree | 593 | 18.2% | 25.9% | $8,837 | 26.3% | 39.7% | $10,315 | 30.9% | 43.2% | $15,600 |
| | | | | | | | | | | |
| VOC STUDENTS CREDIT | 4,304 | 35.4% | 35.3% | $15,766 | 40.6% | 51.8% | $18,287 | 39.8% | 53.2% | $19,860 |
| Noncredit or 0 Units Earned | 42 | 31.0% | 46.2% | $9,614 | 42.9% | 27.8% | $15,906 | 33.3% | 35.7% | $18,604 |
| .01 - 11.99 Units | 83 | 36.1% | 23.3% | $7,592 | 34.9% | 37.9% | $12,652 | 30.1% | 60.0% | $11,807 |
| 12 - 23.99 Units | 799 | 28.0% | 30.4% | $10,111 | 32.0% | 42.2% | $13,612 | 33.0% | 50.4% | $13,925 |
| 24+ Units | 1,546 | 29.9% | 29.6% | $11,096 | 36.5% | 47.9% | $14,241 | 35.5% | 49.7% | $17,540 |
| Certificate | 775 | 40.5% | 36.3% | $16,868 | 46.1% | 54.3% | $19,567 | 44.9% | 53.4% | $21,250 |
| AA or AS Degree | 1,059 | 45.1% | 42.9% | $22,495 | 49.5% | 60.5% | $25,386 | 48.5% | 58.4% | $27,143 |

Table 11
Twenty Highest Enrollment Programs Ranked by Highest Enrollment
With Third Year After College Median Earnings for those working all 4 Quarters

| Program | Total Students | 3rd Year Median Earnings | N | Program Rank by Earnings | Sig1 at p< | Sig2 at p< |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **AFDC** | 1,128 | | | | | |
| SECRETARIAL STUDIES, GEN | 201 | $13,032 | 53 | 7 | .017 | |
| VOCATIONAL with nonVocational Award | 160 | $12,388 | 34 | 9 | | |
| COSMETOLOGY | 146 | $10,327 | 26 | 11 | .044 | .0482 |
| NURSING | 145 | $28,770 | 57 | 2 | .029 | .0001 |
| HUMAN SERVICES | 74 | $12,809 | 19 | 8 | | |
| ACCOUNTING | 68 | $13,987 | 18 | 5 | .028 | |
| BUSINESS & COMMERCE, GEN | 61 | $17,132 | 18 | 4 | | |
| ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE | 56 | $13,779 | 12 | 6 | | |
| FAMILY RELATIONS & CHILD DEVEL | 45 | $10,625 | 16 | 10 | | |
| DENTAL PROFES/OCCUP, GEN | 28 | $20,226 | 17 | 3 | | |
| BUSINESS MGMT | 26 | $8,961 | 7 | 12 | | |
| FOOD SERVICE TECHY | 21 | ******* | ******* | | | |
| SOCIAL WORK & HELPING SERV | 18 | ******* | ******* | | | |
| LAW, GEN | 16 | ******* | ******* | | | |
| REAL ESTATE | 13 | ******* | ******* | | | |
| DATA PROCESSING | 11 | ******* | ******* | | | |
| PSYCHIATRIC TECHY | 11 | $34,960 | 6 | 1 | | |
| AUTOMOTIVE TECHY | 10 | ******* | ******* | | | |
| BANKING & FINANCE | 9 | ******* | ******* | | | |
| ELECTRONICS & ELECTRIC TECHY | 9 | ******* | ******* | | | |
| **Not AFDC** | 3,660 | | | | | |
| NURSING | 580 | $33,623 | 235 | 1 | .029 | .0001 |
| VOCATIONAL with nonVocational Award | 550 | $15,263 | 94 | 21 | | |
| COSMETOLOGY | 415 | $13,025 | 75 | 25 | .044 | .0482 |
| SECRETARIAL STUDIES, GEN | 349 | $15,202 | 73 | 22 | .017 | |
| HUMAN SERVICES | 233 | $15,501 | 32 | 20 | | |
| ACCOUNTING | 230 | $19,500 | 47 | 14 | .028 | |
| FAMILY RELATIONS & CHILD DEVEL | 209 | $10,064 | 35 | 28 | | |
| BUSINESS MGMT | 144 | $16,520 | 19 | 18 | | |
| REAL ESTATE | 136 | $13,255 | 16 | 24 | | |
| BUSINESS & COMMERCE, GEN | 134 | $17,205 | 21 | 17 | | |
| TRANSPORTATION | 104 | $19,901 | 14 | 13 | | |
| ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE | 86 | $18,566 | 15 | 16 | | |
| DENTAL PROFES/OCCUP, GEN | 84 | $31,726 | 43 | 3 | | |
| CLOTHING & TEXTILES | 76 | $12,948 | 14 | 26 | | |
| LAW, GEN | 72 | $22,638 | 17 | 10 | | |
| COMPUTER & INFO SCI, GEN. | 53 | $24,782 | 10 | 5 | | |
| INTERIOR DESIGN | 53 | $28,101 | 6 | 6 | | |
| RADIOLOGICAL TECHY | 53 | $23,541 | 18 | 7 | | |
| MEDICAL SPECIALTIES, GEN. | 51 | $32,130 | 29 | 2 | | |
| ORNAMENTAL HORTICULTURE | 48 | $20,612 | 6 | 11 | | |

note: Privacy restrictions require suppression of cell containing less than five. Suppressed cells are filled with asterisks (*******).

Sig1 at p<: Earnings significantly different using anova between groups, AFDC and NotAFDC, within program.

Sig2 at p<: Earnings significantly different using anova between groups, AFDC and NotAFDC, within program controlling for educational attainment and degree type.

Table 12
Analysis of Variance for Vocational Unemployed Females 17-57
Third Year After College Earnings for those Working All 4 Quarters
by AFDC Status and Educational Attainment

General Linear Models Procedure
Class Level Information

| Class | Levels | Values |
|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 2 | AFDC Not AFDC |
| DEG | 6 | 0 1 2 3 4 5 |

Dependent Variable: WAGE3

**ACCOUNTING**

Number of observations in data set = 298
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 65 observations can be used in this analysis.

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 5 | 471525937.59 | 94305187.52 | 1.46 | 0.2156 |
| Error | 59 | 3802598051.55 | 64450814.43 | | |
| Corrected Total | 64 | 4274123989.14 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGE3 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.110321 | 44.45541 | 8028.1265 | 18058.831 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 315629160.49 | 315629160.49 | 4.90 | 0.0308 |
| DEG | 4 | 155896777.10 | 38974194.28 | 0.60 | 0.6608 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 357213606.23 | 357213606.23 | 5.54 | 0.0219 |
| DEG | 4 | 155896777.10 | 38974194.28 | 0.60 | 0.6608 |

**COSMETOLOGY**

Number of observations in data set = 561
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 101 observations can be used in this analysis.

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 6 | 649441021.23 | 108240170.21 | 2.21 | 0.0482 |
| Error | 94 | 4593545071.28 | 48867500.76 | | |
| Corrected Total | 100 | 5242986092.51 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGE3 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.123869 | 52.42662 | 6990.5294 | 13333.931 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 210512111.79 | 210512111.79 | 4.31 | 0.0407 |
| DEG | 5 | 438928909.44 | 87785781.89 | 1.80 | 0.1211 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 201684097.93 | 201684097.93 | 4.13 | 0.0450 |
| DEG | 5 | 438928909.44 | 87785781.89 | 1.80 | 0.1211 |

Table continued next page

Table 12 continued

**NURSING**

Number of observations in data set = 725
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 292 observations can be used in this analysis.

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 5 | 5173765025.8 | 1034753005.2 | 5.84 | 0.0001 |
| Error | 286 | 50676054946.2 | 177189003.3 | | |
| Corrected Total | 291 | 55849819972.0 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGE3 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.092637 | 42.05507 | 13311.236 | 31651.918 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 912702293.4 | 912702293.4 | 5.15 | 0.0240 |
| DEG | 4 | 4261062732.4 | 1065265683.1 | 6.01 | 0.0001 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 276948540.2 | 276948540.2 | 1.56 | 0.2122 |
| DEG | 4 | 4261062732.4 | 1065265683.1 | 6.01 | 0.0001 |

**SECRETARIAL STUDIES, GEN**

Number of observations in data set = 550
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 126 observations can be used in this analysis.

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 6 | 805001207.54 | 134166867.92 | 1.73 | 0.1201 |
| Error | 119 | 9235582113.95 | 77609933.73 | | |
| Corrected Total | 125 | 10040583321.49 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGE3 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.080175 | 55.38399 | 8809.6500 | 15906.492 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 448032157.43 | 448032157.43 | 5.77 | 0.0178 |
| DEG | 5 | 356969050.11 | 71393810.02 | 0.92 | 0.4707 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 609196523.88 | 609196523.88 | 7.85 | 0.0059 |
| DEG | 5 | 356969050.11 | 71393810.02 | 0.92 | 0.4707 |

Table 13
Analysis of Variance for Vocational Unemployed Females 17-57
Third Year After College Earnings for those Working Any Quarter
by AFDC Status and Educational Attainment

General Linear Models Procedure
Class Level Information

| Class | Levels | Values |
|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 2 | AFDC Not AFDC |
| DEG | 6 | 0 1 2 3 4 5 |

Dependent Variable: WAGEY3

**ACCOUNTING**

Number of observations in data set = 298
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 124 observations can be used in this analysis.

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 5 | 732502448.898 | 1.72 | 0.1360 |
| Error | 118 | 10069304324.029 | | |
| Corrected Total | 123 | 10801806772.927 | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | WAGEY3 Mean |
|---|---|---|
| 0.067813 | 72.62271 | 12719.9758 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 573934613.939 | 6.73 | 0.0107 |
| DEG | 4 | 158567834.960 | 0.46 | 0.7616 |
| Source | DF | Type III SS | F Value | Pr > F |
| AFDC | 1 | 447854322.101 | 5.25 | 0.0237 |
| DEG | 4 | 158567834.960 | 0.46 | 0.7616 |

**COSMETOLOGY**

Number of observations in data set = 561
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 224 observations can be used in this analysis.

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 6 | 521621126.388 | 1.58 | 0.1541 |
| Error | 217 | 11938527160.607 | | |
| Corrected Total | 223 | 12460148286.996 | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | WAGEY3 Mean |
|---|---|---|
| 0.041863 | 93.89654 | 7899.43304 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 206482100.934 | 3.75 | 0.0540 |
| DEG | 5 | 315139025.454 | 1.15 | 0.3373 |
| Source | DF | Type III SS | F Value | Pr > F |
| AFDC | 1 | 171788845.921 | 3.12 | 0.0786 |
| DEG | 5 | 315139025.454 | 1.15 | 0.3373 |

Table continued next page

Table 13 continued

**Nursing**

Number of observations in data set = 725
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 490 observations can be used in this analysis.

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 6 | 7403623698.02 | 5.63 | 0.0001 |
| Error | 483 | 105875439890.19 | | |
| Corrected Total | 489 | 113279063588.21 | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | WAGEY3 Mean |
|---|---|---|
| 0.065357 | 58.62148 | 25256.1551 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 903661694.40 | 4.12 | 0.0429 |
| DEG | 5 | 6499962003.62 | 5.93 | 0.0001 |
| Source | DF | Type III SS | F Value | Pr > F |
| AFDC | 1 | 286804343.90 | 1.31 | 0.2533 |
| DEG | 5 | 6499962003.62 | 5.93 | 0.0001 |

**SECRETARIAL STUDIES, GEN**

Number of observations in data set = 550
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 253 observations can be used in this analysis.

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 6 | 1044328610.07 | 2.06 | 0.0586 |
| Error | 246 | 20789658977.79 | | |
| Corrected Total | 252 | 21833987587.86 | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | WAGEY3 Mean |
|---|---|---|
| 0.047830 | 84.57926 | 10869.0672 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | 1 | 813062863.341 | 9.62 | 0.0021 |
| DEG | 5 | 231265746.727 | 0.55 | 0.7403 |
| Source | DF | Type III SS | F Value | Pr > F |
| AFDC | 1 | 886943665.665 | 10.50 | 0.0014 |
| DEG | 5 | 231265746.727 | 0.55 | 0.7403 |

Table 14
ANOVA Output for Model: Educational Attainment=AFDC Program
Vocational Unemployed Females 17-57

```
Analysis of Variance
General Linear Models Procedure

Class Level Information

Class    Levels    Values
AFDC          2    ADFC NonAFDC

PROGRAM      83    0101 0102 0109 0112 0114 0115 0116 0201 0203 0500 0501
                   0502 0504 0506 0509 0510 0511 0514 0516 0599 0602 0603
                   0700 0701 0703 0704 0808 0925 0934 0935 0936 0937 0945
                   0947 0948 0950 0952 0953 0956 0957 1004 1009 1010 1011
                   1030 1202 1203 1204 1206 1207 1209 1211 1212 1215 1225
                   1239 1250 1255 1299 1300 1302 1303 1304 1305 1306 1401
                   1601 2101 2103 2104 2105 2107 2133 2199 3000 3001 3002
                   3005 3007 3009 4930 8888 9999

Number of observations in data set = 5628

Dependent Variable: DEGREE
                                      Sum of            Mean
Source                    DF          Squares          Square  F Value    Pr > F
Model                     83     1446.7346319      17.4305377    14.44    0.0001
Error                   5544     6693.6639111       1.2073708
Corrected Total         5627     8140.3985430

                  R-Square             C.V.        Root MSE        DEGREE Mean
                  0.177723         25.23184       1.0988043          4.3548330

Source                    DF        Type I SS     Mean Square  F Value    Pr > F
AFDC                       1       15.8576734      15.8576734    13.13    0.0003
PROGRAM                   82     1430.8769584      17.4497190    14.45    0.0001

Source                    DF      Type III SS     Mean Square  F Value    Pr > F
AFDC                       1        6.3634156       6.3634156     5.27    0.0217
PROGRAM                   82     1430.8769584      17.4497190    14.45    0.0001
```

Table 15
Educational Attainment for Vocational Unemployed Females Students 17-57 by AFDC Status

| | AFDC | | Not AFDC | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Students | Percent | Students | Percent |
| VOC STUDENTS CREDIT | 1,259 | 100% | 4,304 | 100% |
| Noncredit or 0 Units Earned | 26 | 2.1% | 42 | 1.0% |
| .01 - 11.99 Units | 28 | 2.2% | 83 | 1.9% |
| 12 - 23.99 Units | 207 | 16.4% | 799 | 18.6% |
| 24+ Units | 523 | 41.5% | 1,546 | 35.9% |
| Certificate | 227 | 18.0% | 775 | 18.0% |
| AA or AS Degree | 248 | 19.7% | 1,059 | 24.6% |

Table 16
Logistic Regression Analysis: Completion by AFDC
for Vocational Unemployed Females 17-57

The LOGISTIC Procedure

Data Set: WORK.P
Response Variable: COMPLTER
Response Levels: 2
Number of Observations: 5628
Link Function: Logit

Response Profile

| Ordered Value | COMPLTER | Count |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0 | 3318 |
| 2 | 1 | 2310 |

Simple Statistics for Explanatory Variables

| Variable | COMPLTER | Mean | Standard Deviation | Minimum | Maximum |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDCN | 0 | -0.516576 | 0.856370 | -1.000000 | 1.000000 |
| | 1 | -0.588745 | 0.808494 | -1.000000 | 1.000000 |
| | Total | -0.546198 | 0.837731 | -1.000000 | 1.000000 |

Model Fitting Information and Testing Global Null Hypothesis BETA=0

| Criterion | Intercept Only | Intercept and Covariates | Chi-Square for Covariates |
|---|---|---|---|
| AIC | 7622.550 | 7614.363 | . |
| SC | 7629.185 | 7627.634 | . |
| -2 LOG L | 7620.550 | 7610.363 | 10.186 with 1 DF (p=0.0014) |
| Score | . | . | 10.109 with 1 DF (p=0.0015) |

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

| Variable | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | Wald Chi-Square | Pr > Chi-Square | Standardized Estimate | Odds Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| INTERCPT | 1 | 0.4197 | 0.0328 | 164.0739 | 0.0001 | . | . |
| AFDCN | 1 | 0.1041 | 0.0328 | 10.0904 | 0.0015 | 0.048073 | 1.110 |

Association of Predicted Probabilities and Observed Responses

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Concordant | = 19.2% | Somers' D | = 0.036 |
| Discordant | = 15.6% | Gamma | = 0.104 |
| Tied | = 65.2% | Tau-a | = 0.017 |
| (7664580 pairs) | | c | = 0.518 |

Table 17
Significance of Earnings Differences for Three Years After College

Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Vocational Unemployed Females 17-57

General Linear Models Procedure
Class Level Information

| Class | Levels | Values |
|---|---|---|
| COMPLTER | 2 | 0 1 |

Number of observations in data set = 186130

| Group | Obs | Dependent Variables |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 40793 | WAGEY1 |
| 2 | 51647 | WAGEY2 |
| 3 | 56421 | WAGEY3 |

NOTE: Variables in each group are consistent with respect to the presence or absence of missing values.

**Dependent Variable: WAGEY1**

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 1 | 143926840369.40400000 | 143926840369.40400000 | 2529.21 | 0.0001 |
| Error | 40791 | 2321242049176.34000000 | 56905740.21662480 | | |
| Corrected | 40792 | 2465168889545.74000000 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGEY1 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.058384 | 130.0901 | 7543.58934570 | 5798.74241784 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COMPLTER | 1 | 143926840369.40400000 | 143926840369.40400000 | 2529.21 | 0.0001 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COMPLTER | 1 | 143926840369.40400000 | 143926840369.40400000 | 2529.21 | 0.0001 |

**Dependent Variable: WAGEY2**

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 1 | 243869204225.77300000 | 243869204225.77300000 | 2341.29 | 0.0001 |
| Error | 51645 | 5379350844735.75000000 | 104160148.02470200 | | |
| Corrected | 51646 | 5623220048961.52000000 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGEY2 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.043368 | 119.1509 | 10205.88790967 | 8565.51262815 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COMPLTER | 1 | 243869204225.77300000 | 243869204225.77300000 | 2341.29 | 0.0001 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COMPLTER | 1 | 243869204225.77300000 | 243869204225.77300000 | 2341.29 | 0.0001 |

Table continued next page

Table 17 continued

**Dependent Variable: WAGEY3**

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 1 | 238316149516.89500000 | 238316149516.89500000 | 1847.52 | 0.0001 |
| Error | 56419 | 7277635870012.34000000 | 128992642.01797800 | | |
| Corrected | 56420 | 7515952019529.24000000 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGEY3 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.031708 | 112.9361 | 11357.49276988 | 10056.56494922 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| COMPLTER | 1 | 238316149516.89600000 | 238316149516.89600000 | 1847.52 | 0.0001 |
| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
| COMPLTER | 1 | 238316149516.89600000 | 238316149516.89600000 | 1847.52 | 0.0001 |

Table 18
Educational Attainment by AFDC Status, Precollegiate Basic Skills (PBS) and Limited English Proficiency (LEP) Status for Unemployed Female 17-57 Year Old Vocational Students Leaving College in the 1992-93 Academic Year

| | All | No PBS | | PBS | | No LEP | | LEP | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| **ALL Students** | | | | | | | | | |
| AFDC | 1,277 | 1,084 | 84.9% | 193 | 15.1% | 1,244 | 97.4% | 33 | 2.6% |
| Not AFDC | 4,351 | 4,083 | 93.8 | 268 | 6.2 | 4,165 | 95.7 | 186 | 4.3 |
| **Noncredit Only** | | | | | | | | | |
| AFDC | 44 | 41 | 93.2 | 3 | 6.8 | 37 | 84.1 | 7 | 15.9 |
| Not AFDC | 84 | 80 | 95.2 | 4 | 4.8 | 61 | 72.6 | 23 | 27.4 |
| **Noncredit Vocational with less than 12 credit units** | | | | | | | | | |
| AFDC | 28 | 22 | 78.6 | 6 | 21.4 | 28 | 100 | . | . |
| Not AFDC | 87 | 81 | 93.1 | 6 | 6.9 | 81 | 93.1 | 6 | 6.9 |
| **12 to 23.9 units** | | | | | | | | | |
| AFDC | 207 | 173 | 83.6 | 34 | 16.4 | 206 | 99.5 | 1 | 0.5 |
| Not AFDC | 799 | 752 | 94.1 | 47 | 5.9 | 789 | 98.7 | 10 | 1.3 |
| **24+ units** | | | | | | | | | |
| AFDC | 523 | 431 | 82.4 | 92 | 17.6 | 500 | 95.6 | 23 | 4.4 |
| Not AFDC | 1,546 | 1,441 | 93.2 | 105 | 6.8 | 1,481 | 95.8 | 65 | 4.2 |
| **Certificates** | | | | | | | | | |
| AFDC | 227 | 196 | 86.3 | 31 | 13.7 | 225 | 99.1 | 2 | 0.9 |
| Not AFDC | 776 | 750 | 96.6 | 26 | 3.4 | 748 | 96.4 | 28 | 3.6 |
| **AA/AS Degree** | | | | | | | | | |
| AFDC | 248 | 221 | 89.1 | 27 | 10.9 | 248 | 100 | . | . |
| Not AFDC | 1,059 | 979 | 92.4 | 80 | 7.6 | 1,005 | 94.9 | 54 | 5.1 |

Table 19
Logistic Regression Analysis: Completion by AFDC and Precollegiate Basic Skills Status
for Vocational Unemployed Females 17-57

The LOGISTIC Procedure

Data Set: WORK.P
Response Variable: COMPLTER
Response Levels: 2
Number of Observations: 5628
Link Function: Logit

Response Profile

| Ordered Value | COMPLTER | Count |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 0 | 3318 |
| 2 | 1 | 2310 |

Model Fitting Information and Testing Global Null Hypothesis BETA=0

| Criterion | Intercept Only | Intercept and Covariates | Chi-Square for Covariates |
|---|---|---|---|
| AIC | 7622.550 | 7618.250 | . |
| SC | 7629.185 | 7631.522 | . |
| -2 LOG L | 7620.550 | 7614.250 | 6.299 with 1 DF (p=0.0121) |
| Score | . | . | 6.209 with 1 DF (p=0.0127) |

Analysis of Maximum Likelihood Estimates

| Variable | DF | Parameter Estimate | Standard Error | Wald Chi-Square | Pr > Chi-Square | Standardized Estimate | Odds Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| INTERCPT | 1 | 0.4679 | 0.0506 | 85.3488 | 0.0001 | . | . |
| PBSN | 1 | 0.1259 | 0.0506 | 6.1828 | 0.0129 | 0.038086 | 1.134 |

Association of Predicted Probabilities and Observed Responses

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Concordant = | 8.3% | Somers' D = | 0.019 |
| Discordant = | 6.5% | Gamma = | 0.125 |
| Tied = | 85.2% | Tau-a = | 0.009 |
| (7664580 pairs) | | c = | 0.509 |

Table 20
Unemployed Female 17-57 Year Old Students Third Year After College Earnings
by Educational Attainment, AFDC Status, Precollegiate Basic Skills (PBS) Status

| | PBS | | | | Not PBS | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Percent | Mean Earnings | N Used In Mean | N | Percent | Mean Earnings | N Used In Mean |
| **Worked Any Quarter** | | | | | | | | |
| **AFDC** | | | | | | | | |
| ALL | 193 | 100% | $8,326 | 103 | 1,084 | 100% | $12,626 | 599 |
| Noncredit (NC) Only | 3 | 2 | ***** | ***** | 41 | 4 | 13,723 | 19 |
| NC Voc w/ <12 units | 6 | 3 | ***** | ***** | 22 | 2 | 16,200 | 9 |
| 12 to 23.9 units | 34 | 18 | 9,782 | 20 | 173 | 16 | 8,508 | 85 |
| 24+ units | 92 | 48 | 6,975 | 47 | 431 | 40 | 8,634 | 211 |
| Certificates | 31 | 16 | 12,770 | 17 | 196 | 18 | 17,049 | 117 |
| AA/AS Degree | 27 | 14 | 7,676 | 14 | 221 | 20 | 16,561 | 158 |
| **Not AFDC** | | | | | | | | |
| ALL | 268 | 100% | $15,597 | 107 | 4,083 | 100% | $16,178 | 1,622 |
| Noncredit Only | 4 | 1 | ***** | ***** | 80 | 2 | 12,867 | 25 |
| NC Voc w/ <12 units | 6 | 2 | ***** | ***** | 81 | 2 | 11,098 | 25 |
| 12 to 23.9 units | 47 | 18 | 15,594 | 21 | 752 | 18 | 11,526 | 243 |
| 24+ units | 105 | 39 | 12,004 | 37 | 1,441 | 35 | 13,493 | 512 |
| Certificates | 26 | 10 | 13,642 | 11 | 750 | 18 | 16,546 | 337 |
| AA/AS Degree | 80 | 30 | 21,197 | 34 | 979 | 24 | 21,574 | 480 |
| **Worked All 4 Quarters** | | | | | | | | |
| **AFDC** | | | | | | | | |
| ALL | 193 | 100% | $12,891 | 42 | 1,084 | 100% | $18,204 | 307 |
| Noncredit Only | 3 | 2 | ***** | ***** | 41 | 4 | 18,428 | 8 |
| NC Voc w/ <12 units | 6 | 3 | ***** | ***** | 22 | 2 | 23,576 | 5 |
| 12 to 23.9 units | 34 | 18 | 16,271 | 9 | 173 | 16 | 13,105 | 38 |
| 24+ units | 92 | 48 | 11,536 | 17 | 431 | 40 | 14,657 | 91 |
| Certificates | 31 | 16 | 12,950 | 11 | 196 | 18 | 20,118 | 78 |
| AA/AS Degree | 27 | 14 | 11,281 | 5 | 221 | 20 | 22,097 | 87 |
| **Not AFDC** | | | | | | | | |
| ALL | 268 | 100% | $25,357 | 50 | 4,083 | 100% | $22,993 | 872 |
| Noncredit Only | 4 | 1 | ***** | ***** | 80 | 2 | 17,240 | 14 |
| NC Voc w/ <12 units | 6 | 2 | ***** | ***** | 81 | 2 | 16,791 | 14 |
| 12 to 23.9 units | 47 | 18 | 27,230 | 10 | 752 | 18 | 17,562 | 123 |
| 24+ units | 105 | 39 | 19,069 | 18 | 1,441 | 35 | 20,619 | 255 |
| Certificates | 26 | 10 | ***** | ***** | 750 | 18 | 22,834 | 182 |
| AA/AS Degree | 80 | 30 | 32,376 | 16 | 979 | 24 | 28,167 | 284 |

note: Privacy restrictions require suppression of cells containing less than five. Suppressed cells are filled with asterisks (*******).

Table 21
ANOVA Output for PBS effects on Third Year After College Earnings
For Those Working in All 4 Quarters

nonAFDC females 17-57

General Linear Models Procedure
Class Level Information

| Class | Levels | Values |
|---|---|---|
| PBS | 2 | 0 2 |

Number of observations in by group = 4351
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 922 observations can be used in this analysis.

Dependent Variable: WAGE3

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 1 | 264387547.17 | 264387547.17 | 1.25 | 0.2631 |
| Error | 920 | 194016467416.4 | 210887464.58 | | |
| Corrected Total | 921 | 194280854963.6 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGE3 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.001361 | 62.80809 | 14521.965 | 23121.169 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PBS | 1 | 264387547.17 | 264387547.17 | 1.25 | 0.2631 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PBS | 1 | 264387547.17 | 264387547.17 | 1.25 | 0.2631 |

AFDC female 17-57

Number of observations in by group = 1277
NOTE: Due to missing values, only 349 observations can be used in this analysis.

Dependent Variable: WAGE3

| Source | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | 1 | 1043215977.6 | 1043215977.6 | 7.56 | 0.0063 |
| Error | 347 | 47867630986.7 | 137947063.4 | | |
| Corrected Total | 348 | 48910846964.3 | | | |

| R-Square | C.V. | Root MSE | WAGE3 Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0.021329 | 66.86681 | 11745.087 | 17564.897 |

| Source | DF | Type I SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PBS | 1 | 1043215977.6 | 1043215977.6 | 7.56 | 0.0063 |

| Source | DF | Type III SS | Mean Square | F Value | Pr > F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PBS | 1 | 1043215977.6 | 1043215977.6 | 7.56 | 0.0063 |

Table 22
Completers Third Year Earnings in Constant 1995 Dollars
For Those Working in Any Quarter

| | AFDC | | Not AFDC | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Annual Wages | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| Below $12,278 | 143 | 46.7% | 332 | 38.5% |
| $12,278+ | 163 | 53.3 | 530 | 61.5 |
| All | 306 | 100.0% | 862 | 100.0% |

| Decile | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std Dev |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **AFDC Completers** | | | | | |
| First Decile | 30 | $ 43 | $ 1,863 | $ 818.90 | 534.3 |
| Second Decile | 31 | $ 1,966 | $ 3,881 | $ 2,959.40 | 614.7 |
| Third Decile | 31 | $ 3,926 | $ 6,698 | $ 5,286.70 | 891.7 |
| Fourth Decile | 30 | $ 6,779 | $ 9,841 | $ 8,269.10 | 882.5 |
| Fifth Decile | 31 | $ 10,097 | $ 13,612 | $11,708.20 | 1140.5 |
| Sixth Decile | 31 | $ 13,869 | $ 17,888 | $15,806.30 | 1120.9 |
| Seventh Decile | 30 | $ 17,937 | $ 21,262 | $19,656.10 | 1098.6 |
| Eighth Decile | 31 | $ 21,338 | $ 26,184 | $23,572.40 | 1539.7 |
| Ninth Decile | 31 | $ 26,219 | $ 35,659 | $30,908.70 | 3061.1 |
| Tenth Decile | 30 | $ 35,966 | $ 62,186 | $42,533.90 | 5930.2 |
| **Not AFDC completers** | | | | | |
| First Decile | 85 | $ 29 | $ 1,982 | $ 887.80 | 622.9 |
| Second Decile | 87 | $ 1,988 | $ 5,015 | $ 3,518.60 | 919.4 |
| Third Decile | 86 | $ 5,080 | $ 9,024 | $ 7,109.30 | 1165.8 |
| Fourth Decile | 87 | $ 9,091 | $ 12,876 | $11,013.70 | 1137.5 |
| Fifth Decile | 86 | $ 12,998 | $ 17,205 | $15,065.00 | 1220.5 |
| Sixth Decile | 86 | $ 17,263 | $ 21,837 | $19,306.30 | 1349.1 |
| Seventh Decile | 87 | $ 21,842 | $ 26,058 | $23,873.40 | 1196 |
| Eighth Decile | 86 | $ 26,222 | $ 32,130 | $28,894.60 | 1899.5 |
| Ninth Decile | 86 | $ 32,198 | $ 39,686 | $35,847.40 | 2356.9 |
| Tenth Decile | 86 | $ 39,755 | $ 81,900 | $49,423.30 | 8869.2 |

Table 23
Completers Third Year Earnings
for Those Working All 4 Quarters in Constant 1995 Dollars

| | AFDC | | Not AFDC | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Annual Wages | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| $12,278+ | 124 | 68.5% | 403 | 82.9% |
| Below $12,278 | 57 | 31.5 | 83 | 17.1 |
| All | 281 | 100.0% | 486 | 100.0% |

| Decile | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std Dev |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **AFDC Completers** | | | | | |
| First Decile | 18 | $ 2,050 | $ 6,147 | $ 4,648.70 | 1251.1 |
| Second Decile | 18 | $ 6,631 | $ 8,969 | $ 7,876.90 | 779.9 |
| Third Decile | 18 | $ 9,325 | $ 11,884 | $10,613.00 | 761.1 |
| Fourth Decile | 18 | $ 11,906 | $ 14,969 | $13,360.70 | 939.3 |
| Fifth Decile | 18 | $ 15,091 | $ 17,937 | $16,488.80 | 825.9 |
| Sixth Decile | 19 | $ 18,210 | $ 21,202 | $19,847.40 | 931 |
| Seventh Decile | 18 | $ 21,238 | $ 24,581 | $22,527.20 | 937.8 |
| Eighth Decile | 18 | $ 25,369 | $ 32,374 | $27,619.10 | 2087.6 |
| Ninth Decile | 18 | $ 32,392 | $ 38,410 | $35,483.60 | 2224.4 |
| Tenth Decile | 18 | $ 38,712 | $ 62,186 | $45,458.20 | 5914.8 |
| **Not AFDC completers** | | | | | |
| First Decile | 48 | $ 2,271 | $ 8,813 | $ 6,507.00 | 1917.1 |
| Second Decile | 49 | $ 8,877 | $ 13,515 | $11,458.00 | 1387.3 |
| Third Decile | 49 | $ 13,672 | $ 17,422 | $15,443.20 | 1158.2 |
| Fourth Decile | 48 | $ 17,435 | $ 20,379 | $18,838.70 | 883.5 |
| Fifth Decile | 49 | $ 20,536 | $ 24,053 | $22,477.20 | 908.4 |
| Sixth Decile | 49 | $ 24,252 | $ 27,881 | $25,945.10 | 1108.5 |
| Seventh Decile | 48 | $ 27,889 | $ 32,503 | $30,607.00 | 1416.9 |
| Eighth Decile | 49 | $ 32,683 | $ 38,395 | $35,853.60 | 1831 |
| Ninth Decile | 49 | $ 38,428 | $ 44,102 | $41,231.50 | 1806.8 |
| Tenth Decile | 48 | $ 44,279 | $ 81,900 | $54,846.30 | 8152.3 |

Table 24
Noncompleters Third Year After College Earnings
for Those Working Any Quarter in Constant 1995 Dollars

| | AFDC | | Not AFDC | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Annual Wages | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| Below $12,278 | 4,115 | 83.1% | 9,673 | 71.5% |
| $12,278+ | 834 | 16.9% | 3,849 | 28.5% |
| All | 4,949 | 100.0% | 13,522 | 100.0% |

**AFDC: Wages in Any Quarter**

| Decile | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std Dev |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| First Decile | 494 | $ 6 | $ 288 | $ 131.80 | 77.2 |
| Second Decile | 495 | $ 289 | $ 790 | $ 525.70 | 144.4 |
| Third Decile | 495 | $ 791 | $ 1,591 | $ 1,163.20 | 221.5 |
| Fourth Decile | 495 | $ 1,592 | $ 2,603 | $ 2,099.50 | 298.2 |
| Fifth Decile | 495 | $ 2,611 | $ 3,863 | $ 3,199.40 | 361.5 |
| Sixth Decile | 495 | $ 3,864 | $ 5,584 | $ 4,650.70 | 507.5 |
| Seventh Decile | 495 | $ 5,591 | $ 7,811 | $ 6,654.60 | 636.4 |
| Eighth Decile | 495 | $ 7,813 | $ 10,991 | $ 9,362.40 | 915.8 |
| Ninth Decile | 495 | $ 10,999 | $ 15,834 | $13,223.40 | 1,399.6 |
| Tenth Decile | 495 | $ 15,839 | $ 70,267 | $22,149.70 | 7,254.2 |

**Not AFDC: Wages in Any Quarter**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| First Decile | 1,353 | $ 3 | $ 490 | $ 223.00 | 139.6 |
| Second Decile | 1,352 | $ 491 | $ 1,348 | $ 900.80 | 252.4 |
| Third Decile | 1,351 | $ 1,349 | $ 2,569 | $ 1,933.90 | 354.1 |
| Fourth Decile | 1,353 | $ 2,571 | $ 4,151 | $ 3,330.30 | 453.1 |
| Fifth Decile | 1,352 | $ 4,153 | $ 6,192 | $ 5,122.60 | 580.8 |
| Sixth Decile | 1,352 | $ 6,196 | $ 8,632 | $ 7,348.60 | 714.7 |
| Seventh Decile | 1,353 | $ 8,633 | $ 11,764 | $10,128.20 | 896.6 |
| Eighth Decile | 1,352 | $ 11,766 | $ 16,096 | $13,773.30 | 1,269.5 |
| Ninth Decile | 1,352 | $ 16,107 | $ 23,410 | $19,358.50 | 2,086.2 |
| Tenth Decile | 1,352 | $ 23,433 | $ 199,694 | $36,051.90 | 16,803.9 |

Table 25
Noncompleters Third Year After College Earnings
for Those Working All 4 Quarters in Constant 1995 Dollars

| | AFDC | | Not AFDC | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Annual Wages | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| $12,278+ | 82 | 49.4% | 278 | 65.3% |
| Below $12,278 | 84 | 50.6 | 148 | 34.7 |

**AFDC: Working All 4 Quarters**

| Decile | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std Dev |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| First Decile | 168 | $ 389 | $ 3,761 | $ 2,706.00 | 780.0 |
| Second Decile | 170 | $ 3,797 | $ 5,571 | $ 4,647.30 | 517.3 |
| Third Decile | 168 | $ 5,574 | $ 7,195 | $ 6,370.00 | 474.7 |
| Fourth Decile | 169 | $ 7,198 | $ 9,011 | $ 8,077.90 | 537.6 |
| Fifth Decile | 169 | $ 9,025 | $ 10,600 | $ 9,777.60 | 452.1 |
| Sixth Decile | 169 | $ 10,607 | $ 12,375 | $11,430.70 | 521.9 |
| Seventh Decile | 169 | $ 12,404 | $ 14,541 | $13,411.10 | 650.6 |
| Eighth Decile | 168 | $ 14,552 | $ 17,245 | $15,837.00 | 753.0 |
| Ninth Decile | 170 | $ 17,253 | $ 21,310 | $19,046.40 | 1,254.0 |
| Tenth Decile | 168 | $ 21,312 | $ 70,267 | $28,367.60 | 8,598.5 |

**Not AFDC: Working All 4 Quarters**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| First Decile | 549 | $ 110 | $ 4,366 | $ 2,799.80 | 1,068.2 |
| Second Decile | 549 | $ 4,367 | $ 6,746 | $ 5,602.70 | 686.2 |
| Third Decile | 549 | $ 6,749 | $ 8,910 | $ 7,842.50 | 626.8 |
| Fourth Decile | 550 | $ 8,912 | $ 11,094 | $10,020.70 | 612.7 |
| Fifth Decile | 548 | $ 11,105 | $ 13,327 | $12,188.50 | 623.0 |
| Sixth Decile | 550 | $ 13,329 | $ 16,046 | $14,687.60 | 771.8 |
| Seventh Decile | 550 | $ 16,052 | $ 19,353 | $17,614.10 | 944.3 |
| Eighth Decile | 549 | $ 19,364 | $ 23,796 | $21,416.20 | 1,267.9 |
| Ninth Decile | 549 | $ 23,840 | $ 31,905 | $27,299.10 | 2,373.1 |
| Tenth Decile | 549 | $ 31,912 | $ 199,694 | $46,654.80 | 19,394.2 |

Table 26
Unemployed Female Students 17-57 Years Old
Educational Attainment and CSU Continuation Status

| | AFDC | | NonAFDC | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Percent | N | Percent |
| **Not Vocational** | | | | |
| Noncredit (NC) | 7,080 | 45.1% | 23,255 | 31.0% |
| NC .1-11.9 Units | 4,653 | 29.6 | 28,504 | 38.0 |
| 12-23.9 Units | 1,556 | 9.9 | 8,184 | 10.9 |
| 24+ Units | 2,197 | 14.0 | 13,598 | 18.1 |
| Certificates | 6 | 0.0 | 38 | 0.1 |
| AA/AS Degree | 205 | 1.3 | 1,391 | 1.9 |
| ALL | 15,697 | 100.0% | 74,970 | 100.0% |
| **Vocational** | | | | |
| Noncredit (NC) | 44 | 3.3% | 86 | 1.8% |
| NC .1-11.9 Units | 30 | 2.2 | 93 | 1.9 |
| 12-23.9 Units | 207 | 15.4 | 820 | 17.1 |
| 24+ Units | 544 | 40.4 | 1,707 | 35.5 |
| Certificates | 231 | 17.1 | 805 | 16.8 |
| AA/AS Degree | 291 | 21.6 | 1,293 | 26.9 |
| ALL | 1,347 | 100.0% | 4,804 | 100.0% |
| **Continuing at CSU** | | | | |
| **Not Vocational** | | | | |
| Noncredit (NC) | 33 | 0.5% | 459 | 2.0% |
| NC .1-11.9 Units | 102 | 2.2 | 1,599 | 5.6 |
| 12-23.9 Units | 35 | 2.2 | 490 | 6.0 |
| 24+ Units | 278 | 12.7 | 2,360 | 17.4 |
| Certificates | 1 | 16.7 | 7 | 18.4 |
| AA/AS Degree | 97 | 47.3 | 583 | 41.9 |
| ALL | 546 | 3.5 | 5,498 | 7.3 |
| **Vocational** | | | | |
| Noncredit (NC) | 0 | 0% | 2 | 2.3% |
| NC .1-11.9 Units | 2 | 6.7 | 6 | 6.5 |
| 12-23.9 Units | 0 | 0 | 21 | 2.6 |
| 24+ Units | 21 | 3.9 | 161 | 9.4 |
| Certificates | 4 | 1.7 | 29 | 3.6 |
| AA/AS Degree | 43 | 14.8 | 234 | 18.1 |
| ALL | 70 | 5.2 | 453 | 9.4 |
| **Overall Continuation** | 616 | 3.6% | 5,951 | 7.5% |

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