

Approved: 1/18/94
Date

MINUTES OF THE SENATE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION (Meeting jointly with the Senate Commerce Committee)

The meeting was called to order by Chairpersons Dave Kerr and Alicia Salisbury at 8:00 a.m. on January 13, 1994 in Room 123-S of the Capitol.

All members were present except: Senator Anthony Hensley (Excused)
Senator Doug Walker (Excused)

Committee staff present: Ben Barrett, Legislative Research Department
Carolyn Rampey, Legislative Research Department
Avis Swartzman, Revisor of Statutes
LaVonne Mumert, Committee Secretary

Conferees appearing before the committee: Bill Hood, Acting Regional Administrator, Employment and Training Administration, Region VII, U. S. Department of Labor

Others attending: See attached list

Bill Hood, Acting Regional Administrator, Employment and Training Administration, Region VII, U. S. Department of Labor, provided an overview of the federal School-to-Work Opportunities Act and supplied a packet of materials related to the subject matter (Attachment No. 1). Mr. Hood described the explosion in technology advances which has occurred during the past two decades and the resulting need for work skills which were formerly unknown. He talked about the expectation that individuals now completing school will be required to change careers five to seven times, requiring the necessity of life-long learning. Mr. Hood noted that automation of low-skill, low-paying jobs and decreased earning power have also affected the workplace. He said that employers complain they have difficulty in finding good workers, in part because the workplace requires different skills than it did 20 years ago. He mentioned that an increasing number of employers attempt to recruit individuals who have received a General Education Diploma rather than recruiting those individuals who have received high school diplomas because a GED is verification of meeting certain standards and is evidence of individual initiative.

Mr. Hood discussed the particulars of the federal legislation, which he expects to be in place by March. The bill encompasses two groups of skills standards, one related to academic achievement and the other a type of employment competency standards. The act will be jointly administered by the Department of Labor and the Department of Education with grant funds being divided between the budgets of the two agencies. Mr. Hood stated that the same kinds of partnerships between education, labor, business and government at the national level must be formed at the state and local levels in order to achieve the goals of school-to-work. He said the act is designed to measure outcomes and whether students achieve reasonable levels of academic competencies and occupational competencies. He referred to the challenges of making school relevant to life for students, integrating work-based and school-based learning opportunities and creating a link between learning and earning.

Mr. Hood said the federal funding is in the nature of seed money or venture capital to be used to effect systemic changes. The act includes four types of grants:

1) Planning grants of nine-months duration, which vary in amounts based on the size of the state. He noted that states which do not receive implementation grants in the early years will be eligible for additional planning grants.

2) Implementation grants, which become effective July 1, 1994 and are multi-year grants. He noted that, eventually, all states should receive these grants in the amounts of \$5 million or more.

3) Local partnership grants.

CONTINUATION SHEET

MINUTES OF THE SENATE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATION, Room 123-S Statehouse, at 8:00 a.m. on January 13, 1994.

4) High poverty area grants. Mr. Hood noted that Kansas is unlikely to qualify for these grants.

Mr. Hood advised that the act includes provisions allowing the granting of waivers of some federal regulations.

Responding to questions from Committee members, Mr. Hood said that the act is to be jointly administered by the two federal agencies but there is a single solicitation with identical criteria. He advised that the Kansas proposal was submitted by the Governor's office and represents the efforts of a number of state agencies.

The meeting was adjourned at 9:00 a.m. The next meeting is scheduled for January 18, 1994.

GUEST LIST

COMMITTEE: SENATE COMMERCE COMMITTEE

DATE: 1/12/94

[illegible]



UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR



CONTACT: Kathryn Kahler 401-3026
Mary Meagher 219-7316

USDL: 93-319
FOR RELEASE: Immediate
Thursday, Aug. 5, 1993

SCHOOL-TO-WORK OPPORTUNITIES ACT OF 1993 INTRODUCED

Labor Secretary Robert B. Reich and Education Secretary Richard Riley today welcomed introduction of the School-to-Work Opportunities Act of 1993. The bill, which has bipartisan support, is sponsored in the Senate by Paul Simon (Ill.) and in the House by William D. Ford (Mich.). As of noon today, there were 10 other Senators and 31 other Representatives sponsoring the bill.

"We are enormously pleased at the wide bipartisan support in both the House and Senate for the School-to-Work Opportunities Act. This solid consensus should help propel the bill toward enactment," Reich and Reilly said in a joint statement. "It sends an early signal that we must begin building a national school-to work system."

"Our nation's lack of a national school-to-work assistance program creates tremendous expense for business and long-term negative consequences for our economy," Reich said. "We must equip our youth with the basic academic and occupational skills they need to get jobs in careers that allow financial security and independence."

Riley stressed the important link between school and work. "Building a world class American workforce first starts with building a world class American education system," he said. "A new generation of workers prepared for high-skill, high-wage jobs primarily will come from a restructured American education system that produces students with a firm grounding in core academic subjects and skills that have currency in the labor market."

The initiative, developed in consultation with states, businesses, community groups, educators and labor organizations, will establish a national framework in which states create comprehensive and effective school-to-work systems. These systems would offer all young Americans an opportunity to participate in a high quality, performance-based program resulting in a high school diploma, typically a degree or diploma certifying successful completion of at least one year of postsecondary education, and an industry-recognized skill certificate.

Sen. Ed.
1/13/94
Attachment 1

"A school-to-work transition system is critical to improving the economic opportunities of our young people," said Reich. "This initiative will help put us all on the road to better jobs and greater economic security."

"We are the only major industrialized nation with no formal system for helping our young people -- particularly the 75 percent of high school youth who don't go on to finish a four-year college -- make the transition from the classroom to the workplace," said Riley. "That translates to lost productivity and wasted human potential. This bill will change that."

A list of co-sponsors as of noon today follows:

HOUSE

SENATE

William D. Ford D-Mich.
Robert Andrews D-N.J.
Xavier Becerra D-Calif.
Ron de Lugo D-Virgin Islands
Rosa DeLauro D-Conn.
Richard Gephardt D-Mo.
Dale Kildee D-Mich.
Pat Williams D-Mont.
William F. Goodling R-Pa.
Austin Murphy D-Pa.
Major Owens D-N.Y.
Matthew Martinez D-Calif.
Steve Gunderson R-Wisc.
Eliot Engel D-N.Y.
Eni Faleomavaega D-Am. Samoa
Gene Green D-Texas
Ron Klink D-Pa.
Nita Lowey D-N.Y.
Dave McCurdy D-Okla.
George Miller D-Calif.
Patsy Mink D-Hawaii
Susan Molinari R-N.Y.
Donald Payne D-N.J.
Nancy Pelosi D-Calif.
Charlie Rangel D-N.Y.
Jack Reed D-R.I.
Tim Roemer D-Ind.
Carlos Romero-Barcelo D-Puerto Rico
Thomas Sawyer D-Ohio
Ted Strickland D-Ohio
Jolene Unsoeld D-Wash.
Lynn Woolsey D-Calif.

Paul Simon D-Ill.
Edward Kennedy D-Mass.
Dave Durenberger R-Minn.
Patty Murray D-Wash.
Howard Metzenbaum D-Ohio
Claiborne Pell D-R.I.
Harris Wofford D-Pa.
Mark Hatfield R-Ore.
Carol Moseley-Braun D-Il.
John Breaux D-La.
Christopher Dodd D-Conn.

EQW



WORKING PAPERS

**Youth Apprenticeships and School-to-Work Transition:
Current Knowledge and Legislative Strategy**

by

Paul Osterman

Professor of Human Resources and Management

Sloan School of Management

Massachusetts Institute of Technology

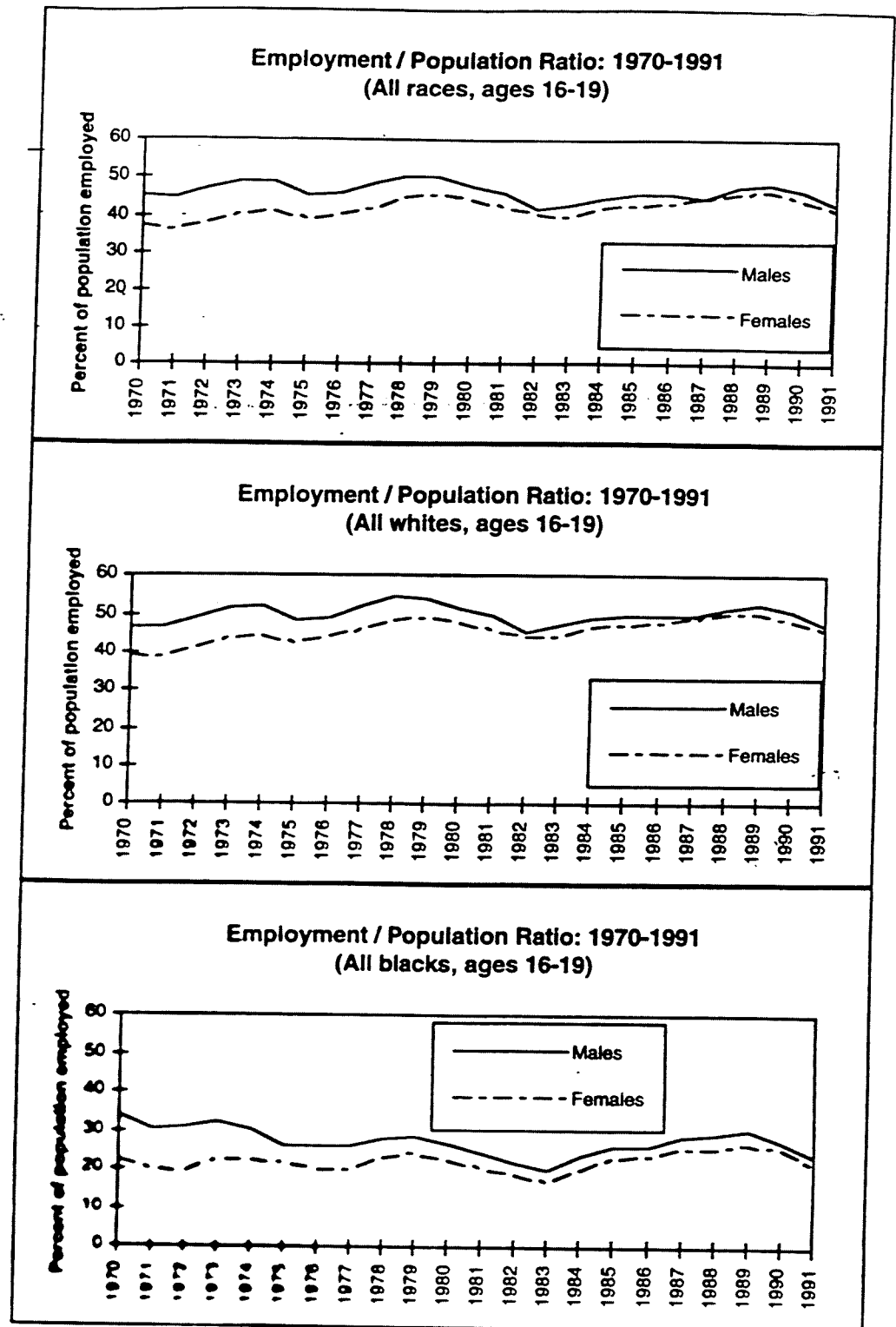
and

Maria Iannozzi

Staff Writer

National Center on the Educational Quality of the Workforce

Figure 1
Employment Population
Ratio, Ages 16-19



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics 1992.

Table 1
Activity Patterns for Men and Women Aged 16-31

	16-19	20-24	25-28	29-31
Men				
Working	21.9%	53.9%	81.2%	85.7%
Unemployed	4.7%	11.1%	4.4%	3.5%
In School	68.5%	23.4%	5.4%	5.0%
Armed Forces	0.4%	6.5%	4.0%	2.2%
Other	4.5%	5.2%	5.0%	3.6%
Women				
Working	18.9%	49.3%	67.9%	66.1%
Unemployed	5.8%	8.6%	4.6%	4.0%
In School	65.6%	21.4%	4.9%	4.8%
Armed Forces	0.1%	0.7%	0.6%	0.1%
Other	9.6%	20.0%	22.0%	25.0%

Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Youth and Osterman (forthcoming [a])

Note: The first three columns follow a cohort aged 16-19 in 1979 until they were 25-28 in 1988. The final column represents a different cohort, those aged 29-31 in 1988.

The early years in the labor market for many graduating students are characterized not by an absence of jobs but rather by a "churning" process. High turnover and frequent job change are evident during this period when youth sample different jobs or simply move from one low-skill job to another. The phenomenon of churning represents a characteristic of the youth labor market that has important implications for program design. For example, in their research on achievement tests, Richard Murnane, John Willett, and Frank Levy (1993) found that the economic payoff to performing well on an algebra test appeared six years after graduation—there was no return apparent as early as two years afterwards. This delay in receiving a premium may be attributed to the turbulence in the youth labor market caused by churning; these young workers may have experienced high turnover in a series of low-skill, low-wage jobs with no application for eighth-grade algebra. Among other things, churning explains why transcripts and scholastic

information are rarely used by employers, since these low-skill jobs would not necessitate their use. If most youth jobs share these characteristics, it is not helpful to propose improvements in the transfer of information; as long as youth are employed in these jobs, the availability of academic information becomes a moot point.

The problem facing youth who experience this churning process is more subtle than the simple absence of jobs. What happens when the period of churning has concluded? Evidence suggests that a substantial fraction of this cohort has been unable to "settle down" into quality jobs. In the past, most youth in their late twenties—even if they did not attend college—could expect eventually to obtain stable employment; this is no longer true. This particular difficulty is illustrated in Table 2, which shows that as many as 50 percent of high school youth had not found a steady job by the time they reached their late twenties.

The difficulty that youth face in successfully settling down is exacerbated by changes in the adult or career labor market, in which the most pervasive change has been the rising demand for skills. Increasing premiums for skill are best demonstrated by the growing inequality in wages received by high school and college graduates. However, skill-driven inequality also occurs among people with the same education. When Murnane, Willett, and Levy (1993) compared wage rates for 1972 and 1980 high school graduates six years after graduation with the scores they received on the previously mentioned algebra test, they observed that the premium for having greater math ability increased over time—an indication that the labor market had changed the way in which it rewarded this skill. For example, for male

1972 graduates, scoring six points above average on the test yielded a premium of 46 cents more per hour than the wage received by a student who scored six points below the average; for 1980 graduates, that differential increased to \$1.15 per hour.

In the adult labor market, the emergence of high-performance work systems accounts for much of the increase in demand for higher levels of skill. High-performance work systems are now being adopted across industries, including the service sector, as work organization undergoes significant change. The Commission on the Skills in the American Workforce (1990) found a relatively low rate of use of these work systems, but more recent evidence suggests that approximately 30 percent of firms have now altered their orga-

Table 2
Job Tenure Ages 29-31 in 1988

	All	High School Grad (No College)	High School Drop-out
Men			
In Current Job More Than 2 Years	42.8%	54.8%	27.7%
In Current Job 1-2 Years	15.8%	12.8%	23.0%
In Current Job Less Than 1 Year	37.0%	32.4%	49.3%
Women			
In Current Job More Than 2 Years	31.7 %	30.7%	19.4%
In Current Job 1-2 Years	16.6%	14.4%	20.6%
In Current Job Less Than 1 Year	51.7%	54.9%	60.0%

Source: National Longitudinal Survey of Youth and Chiswick (1993)

nizations to include these systems (Osterman forthcoming [b]). This trend contributes to the demand and reward for higher levels of skill, primarily because higher-performance work—which utilizes strategies such as teams, quality circles, and job rotation—requires flexible employees with transferable skills.

Since youth labor market churning as well as changes in the adult labor market impact youth apprenticeship design, the location of placements (in either the youth or adult markets) becomes another important consideration. Will youth apprenticeship slots be created in positions in the youth labor market that have no return for skill? Or, will programs place apprentices in the upper-end or adult labor market, which has always had an aversion to hiring youth? If apprentices are placed in an adult labor market on a large scale, employers must overcome their dislike or distrust of young employees.

In summary, for the bulk of youth not bound for college, the problem that public policy must address is not the simple absence of jobs but rather the difficulties these youth face in settling down into quality jobs in the adult labor market—a problem that has been exacerbated by rising skill requirements. If we accept a period of churning as part of the process, many of the ideas regarding improved information systems between schools and employers seem less compelling. In addition, if—in the first few years after high school—most youth find relatively unskilled jobs in the youth labor market, policy makers must ask whether this market can indeed provide quality apprenticeship placements. A great deal of consideration is necessary to ensure that these placements do not simply increase the number of unskilled youth jobs. Alternatively, if the program seeks to bypass the churning period and place youth directly into adult settings, then it is important to help employers overcome their reluctance to hire youth and the reluctance of the youth themselves to “settle down” at such an early age.

Finally, it may be that apprenticeship proposals are best considered as school reform strategies, in which case these labor market issues become somewhat less compelling.

Program Design and Structure

New program initiatives must be considered in an existing context that is characterized by rather weak efforts to link school and work. For example, according to Thomas Bailey's presentation (see “The School-to-Work Transition Process” on page 14), only 10 percent of students who found employment after high school used school resources to locate those jobs; other survey data show that less than 50 percent of students have even seen a high school counselor—much less have used the resources that schools provide. There currently are no broad-based institutions linking school and work.

To provide the infrastructure necessary for a successful system of youth apprenticeships, policy must clearly delineate program objectives. Apprenticeship programs can be envisioned as having three potential goals:

1. **Youth apprenticeships as a strategy for school reform.** One way to reform schooling is by linking it to work. Making the high school experience more meaningful and compelling encourages students to continue their education. Most importantly, by initiating curricular changes that integrate academic and vocational learning and teach academic subjects in the context of work, schools can provide job-relevant abilities to students and motivation for traditional academic learning. Additional components include encouraging youth to continue their education beyond high school and using work experience to encourage students to make the extra investment.
2. **Youth apprenticeships as a labor market program.** This perspective views youth apprenticeships

as a "jobs program." The focus is to hasten the transition from school to work and to avoid whatever costs are incurred as part of the churning process.

3. Youth apprenticeships as creating institutional structures that link employers and schools.

In this view, the central objective is to establish a community structure that can react effectively to changing needs in the schools and the youth labor market. Apprenticeships provide a forum within which labor market actors (businesses and unions) can work with schools to improve the curriculum and provide jobs. From this perspective, the apprenticeship initiative may be viewed as beginning a process and not simply as establishing a program. This point becomes particularly important because we currently lack information on what constitutes "best practice" or what makes an apprenticeship model effective, and we need to establish a flexible structure that will adjust as each community's experience emerges.

In thinking through these visions, it is clear that—depending on the relative weight given to each—there are different implications for program design. For example, if the primary objective is to motivate academic learning by providing a work-related context, then options such as school-based enterprises are viable and finding job placements to teach usable skills becomes less central. If the initiative is seen primarily as a jobs program, then elements such as a school-based employment service are important and the quality of the job placements becomes central.

In deciding which of these objectives is most plausible it is helpful to draw upon the experience of existing programs. Four current models, which differ in the balance of school and work tasks, inform the design of future programs. The first is cooperative education, which offers part-time jobs in the latter-half of the school day. At present, approx-

mately 8 percent of high school juniors and seniors (450,000) are enrolled in these programs. Career academies, schools-within-schools organized around specific occupations, reach a smaller cohort: 9,000 students through 150 programs. Tech prep, which links schools and community colleges, enrolls 80,000 to 90,000 students. The last example, apprenticeship demonstration models, is the most recent. Roughly 30 demonstration models, involving 5 to 115 students each, have been attempted. (For a more detailed description of these programs, see "School-Based Policies" on page 16.)

Although evaluation results are in short supply, several broad conclusions emerge from the available information:

1. Low-quality work experience does not seem to have employment, wage, or school retention payoffs. This issue is important for "scaling up" apprenticeship programs.
2. Students who find their own after-school jobs through the normal operation of the youth labor market seem to experience positive short-run, post-high school payoffs. However, long-term impacts are unknown and impacts on in-school academic performance are mixed, with some evidence that "excessive" work experience can degrade school performance.
3. While there is no evidence of economic gains from co-op education, career academies, and tech prep, results do indicate that there are positive effects on attitudes, attendance, and drop-out rates for some models. However, it is unknown which program components actually contribute to the positive effects.

Although there is little available data to measure outcomes of the new apprenticeship demonstration programs, the existing evidence does suggest caution. For example, Boston's Project Pro-Tech has experienced mixed results. Only a surprisingly small fraction of high school students

met the relatively low entry standards, which suggests that this model would be difficult to implement on a large scale. Furthermore, subsequent termination rates among those who did enter the program were very high. On the other hand, those who continued in the program were more likely than others to remain in grade-level math and science. The program also has experienced difficulty inducing curriculum change in its three participating high schools.

Program Principles

Regardless of the philosophy chosen as a framework for design, certain principles should be considered during the construction of any program. The following questions provide a gauge to test the components of any proposition:

- **Does the program permit mind-changing and avoid tracking?** The current American system, for all its weaknesses, has one major virtue relative to foreign models: young people are able to change their minds, since they are not "locked in" at an early age to a particular school or career path. It is very important to preserve this characteristic, and it is as essential to ensure that new programs are of high quality—particularly to avoid the perception that they serve as "dumping grounds" for "less able" students.
- **Does it link work and schooling in a substantive way?** As already indicated, the choice among the broad program goals will influence the content of program activities. Nonetheless, at the core of all program models should be the linking of school and work. This involves using work experience to motivate academic activities and to transform how academic subjects are taught; using work to motivate continued school attendance; developing more effective bridging mechanisms, such as school-based employment services, between schools and the labor market, and transforming job placements into learning environments.

- **Does it encourage continued schooling beyond high school?** Not all young people should be expected to continue into post-secondary education, and it would be incorrect to make this an absolute criteria for program design. This is particularly true if the apprenticeship effort is seen primarily as a youth jobs effort. However, the earning situation of youth with only a high school degree is deteriorating: every possible effort should be made to encourage young people to seek additional schooling. At the minimum, therefore, these programs should encourage and facilitate further education. This involves assuring that participation in the program does not preclude the option of additional schooling. In a more proactive sense, it involves encouraging post-secondary education by involving four-year and community colleges in actual program activities and by creating mechanisms that ease the transition between different levels of schooling for students.
- **Does it avoid gender discrimination?** Foreign models, which have served as the basis for the U.S. discussion, too often make gender-based distinctions. This dynamic certainly must be avoided.
- **Does it avoid adult displacement?** This issue emerges when youth apprenticeships are discussed in terms of scale and when the location of the apprenticeship position—in the youth or adult labor market—is considered. Publicly sponsored jobs for youth should not result in unemployment for adults.
- **Does it avoid narrow or highly specific training?** Programs should not create systems that subsidize employers to train people in narrowly focused skills.
- **Does it provide quality work placements, not just work experience?** As already noted, work experience programs have not had much success. Although the intensity of the job placements may vary, depending on which of the program objectives is chosen, it is important that the placement be seen as something other than "make-work."

Obtaining Placements

Obtaining an adequate number of quality job placements will be among the most difficult aspects of program design.

A "quality" placement incorporates these two characteristics:

1. Youth engage in work that is worthwhile in the sense of producing meaningful output. Put simply, students are not expected to simply do "make-work," and hence a respect for work is deepened, not diminished.
2. The work is structured so that it provides learning experience, adequate supervision, and instruction.

Most jobs will fall short on one of these two dimensions.

The second criteria—work-based learning—is particularly troublesome. While youth labor market employers are unlikely to offer youth assignments that teach anything beyond the relatively simple skills required for the job, adult labor market employers will be reluctant to divert resources to teaching activities. We know very little about how to successfully attract employers and gain broad private sector participation. Indeed, this is probably the most difficult obstacle facing the expansion of these programs on a large scale.

There appear to be three strategies worth pursuing. The first is simply to build programs that appeal to one of the several motives which have proved successful in past, smaller-scale efforts. These motives include labor shortages in selected industries (such as health care or machine tools) as well as appealing to community citizenship. The second potential strategy would attempt to transform youth labor market jobs—the kind of placements that youth normally procure—into more of a learning experience. Current experiments at some McDonald's franchises offer one example: employees become involved in all aspects of the franchise's functioning, and the result is an increase in quality jobs and a reduction in turnover.

The final strategy considers the problem of obtaining placements in a broad, community-based context rather

than approaching it on an employer-by-employer basis.

This strategy involves developing an ongoing organization among employers and public officials—a partnership that would encompass the objective of school reform as well as job placement. Efforts along these lines, such as the Boston Compact, have had partial success but may experience difficulty when confronted with the twin challenges of entrenched school bureaucracies and economic downturn. Nonetheless, given the difficulty of implementing apprenticeship programs on a large scale, this is an approach worth pursuing.

Certification Credentials and Youth Apprenticeship

Along with youth apprenticeships, there is a great deal of interest in creating skill and training standards for several reasons:

1. Standards may provide the infrastructure for expanding youth and adult training. They can perform this function by ensuring that quality requirements are met and that the skills that are taught are sufficiently general.
2. Standards also can help coordinate training providers and employers by initiating and maintaining their interaction around the creation of standards.
3. Standards provide a forum for schools and providers to interact on curriculum and workplace issues. Through institution building, they create processes within communities for school reform and establish dialogue about curriculum.

While the case for standards is strong, there are dangers inherent in certification that should be considered at the outset

1. Standards must not simply reify outdated practices and institutionalize yesterday's jobs.
2. It is important to avoid developing occupational barriers in the workplace.

3. It is important to be sure that standards do not lead to exclusionary certification and licensing programs.
4. Finally, since standards are likely to be developed at local levels and by various industry groups, it is important to avoid creating a confusing patchwork of distinct standards.

As with other program elements, we simply lack the experience to be confident that the actual implementation of standards will meet our theoretical expectations. We do not know whether it will be possible to develop standards that meet the objectives outlined above—or whether they will be accepted in the market. Indeed, there is considerable room for skepticism that such an approach can succeed in our large, decentralized labor market. Nonetheless, this is a strategy that offers some promise and may be worth pursuing. One useful approach is to organize standards development around a cluster of occupations and create national, industry, and community boards to maintain consistency.

Research and Development

Given the numerous uncertainties associated with large-scale expansion of the kind of school-to-work transition programs described here, it is important that considerable care be taken to learn lessons as they emerge. This means that resources should be dedicated to documenting experience, evaluating outcomes, and learning from “best practice.” Policy makers need to be sure that considerable care is taken to design an effective strategy for learning the les-

sons which will emerge from the expanded effort. It is also important to provide a mix of formal evaluations and field-based “best practice” research.

Legislative Strategy

Designers of legislation face a choice between two broad strategies. In one model, the new apprenticeship program is loosely defined so that many of the existing efforts—including vocational education, co-op education, tech prep, and career academies—would “fit” with only slight modification. The alternative is to be more prescriptive about the core elements of a program. The former approach has the advantage of building upon programs that are already in place and providing maximum local flexibility. Since we do not have any hard evidence that a “real” apprenticeship model would work, why preclude support for ongoing efforts?

The counter argument is that if the new program initiative simply provides additional support for existing models, we will never know whether undertaking more fundamental efforts makes a greater difference. To make this strategy work, legislation would have to define the new model with precision, clearly indicating which elements are eligible and which are not. Such a strategy would require making hard choices about central program elements. However, under this strategy, drafters would avoid providing a long list of possible program elements, since most existing programs contain enough of these elements to justify funding.

Part II: Youth Employment Policy Seminar Presentations

The preceding recommendations for a national youth apprenticeship program were informed by the "Youth Employment Policy Seminar," sponsored by the National Center on the Educational Quality of the Workforce (EQW) through research Project 25: Youth Employment as a Determinant of Attitudes Toward Work, Education, and Comportment. Project 25 posed several questions on youth employment issues and set out to answer them through this symposium, which brought together policy makers and researchers from a wide range of disciplines. Held on March 3 and 4, 1993, the "Youth Employment Policy Seminar" explored what is currently known and unknown about youth employment and about policies aimed at improving school-to-work transition. These questions served as a foundation for the discussion:

- To what extent do the entry-level jobs that young people obtain serve to expand or constrain their chance of advancement and success?
- How can the links between employers, workers, and schools be improved to provide students with a better understanding of the knowledge, skills, and behavioral standards required in the workplace?
- In what ways might an expanded system of youth apprenticeships, co-ops, and other experiential learning programs contribute to a stronger, more productive, and competitive American workforce?

The conference was designed to address these rather broad questions through five discussion sessions focusing on distinct topics: the demand for youth labor, gains from

working while in school; the transition process; school-based policies; and programs for out-of-school youth. Several of the participants were asked to prepare presentations reviewing the existing body of knowledge on each topic. After each individual presentation, the group collectively identified directions for future policy initiatives and research.

Because youth apprenticeships are at the forefront of current policy discussion, this paper opened with a detailed account of a presentation on youth apprenticeships given by Paul Osterman at an EQW Washington Public Policy Seminar, which drew heavily on information provided by the conference. This section of the paper summarizes each of the five presentations delivered at the seminar: "The Demand for Youth Labor"; "The Payoff to Working While in School"; "School-to-Work Transition"; "School-Based Policies"; and "Programs for Out-of-School Youth."

The Demand for Youth Labor

The first session, "The Demand for Youth Labor," was led by Frank Levy of the Department of Urban Studies at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Richard Murnane of Harvard's School of Education. Their presentation assessed the nature of the demand for young workers in the 1980s, attempting to ascertain whether there is evidence that cognitive skills make a difference in wage levels. Two trends characterized the earnings of young males during this decade: a decline in the earnings of those who lacked a college education and the steady increase in inequality

among workers with the same amount of formal education and labor force experience. In the decade from 1979 to 1989, the earnings of 25- to 34-year-old males who graduated from high school but did not go to college declined 15 percent. When compared to the relatively stable earnings of young male college graduates during this decade, the college/high school wage differential grew from 16 percent to 43 percent.

Murnane and Levy hypothesized that income inequality among high school graduates increased because employers screened applicants for employment more selectively by paying greater attention to skill levels. This explanation would hold only if widespread changes in the nature of jobs in the economy had changed. In order to test this hypothesis, Murnane and Levy analyzed data on the importance of elementary math skills to explain the subsequent wages of 23- and 24-year old workers. The data came from two longitudinal surveys of large, nationally representative samples of high school seniors. Each group took a battery of cognitive tests as high school seniors; from these tests, Murnane and Levy explored whether math scores were more important in explaining the 1986 wages of workers who graduated from high school in 1980 than they were in predicting the 1978 wages for 1972 graduates.

Table 3 displays the predicted impacts that differences in math scores had on wages in 1978 and 1986 for males and females with the same background characteristics who did not go to college. In 1978, the difference between a weaker and a stronger understanding of basic mathematics skills is associated with a modest 46 cents-per-hour difference in hourly wages for 24-year-old males. In 1986, however, the same test score differential is associated with a \$1.15-per-hour wage differential. For young women, the pattern is also striking; in 1978, the test score differential correlates with a 74 cents-per-hour wage differential, while in 1986, the wage differential is \$1.42 per hour. For Levy and Murnane, these

figures signal a shift in firms toward rewarding higher skills and perhaps point to a greater number of firms engaging in restructuring than the previously cited 5 percent.

The ramifications of this finding for youth in the labor market go beyond the necessity to take high school math classes—it signifies trends in demand for skill. It also identifies where the rewards are found: the loss of low-skill, relatively high-wage jobs in the 1980s has resulted in competition in the service sector, where skills matter more. Clearly, there has been a shift in demand away from occupations that have traditionally employed students with high school diplomas; a more indirect conclusion is that workplace organization may be changing at a quicker pace than was assumed, and that these changes will affect the nature of demands for skill. Murnane and Levy offered pragmatic recommendations that send a clear message to high school students, whether or not they intend to pursue post-secondary education: (1) graduation from high school and attainment of post-secondary education are extremely important; and (2) while in high school, students should take academic courses that serve as gateways to the technical fields or to post-secondary education.

Can policy intervene during difficult school-to-work transitions to facilitate the match between applicant and occupation? Murnane and Levy found that although cognitive skills of high school graduates do not impact their earnings as early as two years after graduation, they eventually matter—four years later. Also, these skills mattered more during the 1980s than they did only eight years earlier. Murnane and Levy developed two hypotheses from these findings that could affect policy-making decisions: (1) young students who see that the skills of older siblings do not impact their wages may perceive a disincentive to learn cognitive skills while in school; (2) to remedy this situation, it may be desirable to develop initiatives that attempt to connect more closely school and work experience, thereby

Table 3

Hourly Wage Rates (in 1988 Dollars) 6 Years after High School Graduation Compared to Scores from a Basic Mathematics Test

Math Score	Males			Females		
	Average	6 points below average	6 points above average	Average	6 points below average	6 points above average
Year of High School Graduation/Year Wages Measured						
1972/1978	\$9.49	\$9.26	\$9.72	\$6.82	\$6.46	\$7.20
1980/1986	\$7.92	\$7.37	\$8.52	\$6.55	\$5.88	\$7.30

Source: Murnane, Willett, and Levy 1993.

increasing the links between cognitive skills and early wages and potentially increasing incentives for students to work hard while in school.

The Gains from Working While in School

David Stern of the University of California at Berkeley and the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, OECD, examined the benefits and costs of working while in school. He was asked to determine the gains to working while in school—both after school and during the summer—and whether different types of work experience have differential returns. Stern reported that the proportion of high school students who hold paying jobs during the school year has been increasing since the late 1940s, particularly for females. Work experience may add to students' knowledge and skill, but it also may interfere with educational attainment, detracting from long-term earnings and occupational status. If this trade-off does exist, Stern asked whether it may be possible to mitigate it through programs such as cooperative education and youth apprenticeships.

Stern indicated that all studies investigating this issue find a positive association between the amount of high school work experience and employment or earnings a few years later. However, most studies also show that students who spend many hours per week working show inferior school performance. They put less time into homework, get lower grades or test scores, are more likely to drop out, and express less positive attitudes and aspirations about school. He quoted Greenberger and Steinberg, who say: "Working in high school may make students economically richer, but psychologically poorer" (1986). On the other hand, most studies find a positive association between school performance and working a moderate amount of hours while in school, including better grades and lower drop-out rates.

Stern finished his presentation by exploring the role of public policy in mitigating the trade-offs of working while in school: the positive economic consequences versus the negative effects on school performance. The terms of this trade-off, according to Stern, might be improved by relating students' jobs to their course work, so that work and school

reinforce each other instead of competing with or undermining one another. Several programs that attempt to connect work and school already exist, but evaluation of these programs has not been extensive. Youth apprenticeships, which at the moment represent the most direct attempt to link work and the classroom, are too recent to offer compelling results. Career academies also make the link, but related work constitutes only one element of these programs, which also include school-within-school formats and combined academic/vocational curricula. School-based enterprises exist in 19 percent of U.S. high schools and usually provide unpaid work related to students' courses, but they have never been systematically assessed.

Cooperative education, which relates wage-earning, off-campus jobs to students' courses, has undergone some evaluation. Although the reviews are mixed, co-op programs offer a unique opportunity for linking work with the classroom. They provide supervised training in the workplace and a collaboration between employers and schools in evaluating student performance. In a classic co-op program, teachers place students in jobs directly related to what is taught in the classroom. Yet despite this obvious linking, co-op programs have not consistently been found to give their students advantages in the labor market.

A study by Herrmstadt, Horowitz, and Sum (1979) compared male high school seniors in various programs and found that co-op students had more positive perceptions of their senior-year jobs and the relationship between school and work. However, 17 to 21 months after graduation they did not show higher rates of labor force participation, employment, or wages. Stern mentioned that cooperative education may not have a labor market payoff because the knowledge and skill obtained from one employer through these programs may not be recognized by another. Stern and Stevens (1992), using Colorado UI data, found that co-

op students who continued working for their co-op employer did obtain higher earnings, but other co-op students did not.

The School-to-Work Transition Process

Thomas Bailey, a professor at Columbia University's Teacher's College, followed Dr. Stern with a presentation on school-to-work transition, reviewing both its concept and its present implementation. He first identified three problematic assumptions about the school-to-work concept:

1. The term implies a one-time transition, while many students and workers experience alternate spells of work and learning.
2. The term also suggests a separation between school and work, rather than stressing increasing the integration of the two.
3. Current thinking focuses attention on moving people from one set of institutions (schools) to another (workplaces), rather than on the problems within those institutions.

The term "school-to-work" also has taken on a much broader meaning and includes programs whose strategies are not strictly "school-to-work": tech prep programs, which move students from school to school; integrated academic and vocational education programs, which require pedagogical reform; apprenticeship programs, which represent a broad educational reform strategy but which also are designed to lead to further education in some cases; and work-to-work transition employment boards, which include a strong element of retraining.

Given the range of definitions for school-to-work transition programs and their applications, Bailey provided guidelines for conceptualizing the transition more narrowly. He suggested defining the school-to-work problem for students not bound for college as the "wasted time" between the end of school and long-term, stable employment. Many analysts

have suggested that employers perceive youth to be irresponsible and immature; as a result, many employers make it their policy not to hire anyone below the age of 25 (Lester 1954; Osterman 1980; Rosenbaum 1989). Due to the lapse in time between school and permanent employment, it is harder to assess employees' academic skills; in this scenario, academic achievement becomes less important and further exacerbates the lack of incentive for increasing academic employment.

Bailey also stressed the importance of access to information and signaling in the school-to-work transition process. Much discussion centers around information about student abilities, employer needs, and skill requirements. But would the problem be solved simply by providing new and different types of information to students, schools, and employers? Bailey feels that this is not the only solution, but that generating new types of information could be an effective part of a broader strategy that includes education and work reform. In terms of signaling, on the other hand, there is a variety of information suggesting that youth not bound for college have little incentive to work hard or get good grades in school. Even the effect of cognitive skills is ambiguous for young workers, and grades do not lead to higher earnings. There is no strong relationship between employment outcomes and behavior information from schools; employers don't believe that behavior in school predicts behavior at work, and they do not trust grades or credentials from some vocational programs.

Bailey followed this discussion with an exploration of the communication between schools and businesses. Although many argue that there is a significant lack of communication, the question that should be addressed is whether improved communication would confront the school-to-work problem. Bailey does not believe that improvement in this area will solve the problem for the following reasons:

- There is a risk that schools will be blamed and that employers will be tempted to dictate school reform (Timpane 1984; Philippi 1989).
- It is not clear whether employers are able to articulate which skills they seek in employees—they give lip service to academic skills, say they hire based on comportment, and then fail to utilize information about comportment in the decision-making process.

Intermediary organizations, which could facilitate information exchange between schools and businesses, are designed to help students or high school graduates move into the workforce. They usually serve four functions:

- to provide information and guidance to the students about what occupations are available and what skills and competencies they would need for those occupations;
- to provide information about job openings;
- to develop contacts with local employers, thus establishing (at least theoretically) a link to the workplace;
- to substitute for the social networks that previously provided information about jobs and skills.

School guidance counselors, however, play a very small role in this mediation; some researchers argue that counselors often do not provide information about available jobs, job searching, or how to interact with employers (Rosenbaum 1976; Dunham 1980). They have little contact with firms and rarely know the outcomes of student job searches. If schools are ineffective in this area, other institutions designed to ease the transition have not had great success either. Bailey mentioned three programs that attempt to do this. Two have had little success—the U.S. Employment Service and New York Working—and one, Jobs for America's Graduates, has performed slightly better.

Bailey also addressed certification systems and their role in school-to-work transition. The development of standards

and certification is one of the central issues in the current discussion of educational reform. In a general sense, certification is designed to give incentives to students to work hard; give incentives for schools to innovate and improve; give students a portable credential recognized throughout the country; and help reassure employers that young employees possess mature skills. Representing outcome-based systems, assessments and certification would be reliable indicators of what a student knows or can do, rather than a guarantee that a student has taken a particular set of courses or has spent a set amount of time in an educational institution. Considerations include: covering the breadth of skills and the scope of the occupations for which skills are certified; establishing a set of exams or assessments for general academic education before students enter specific technical programs or post-secondary institutions; relating credentialing to broader educational reform; changing the way production is carried out; and establishing new relationships between schools and workplaces.

Although information alone would not solve the problem, Bailey sees the development of stronger relationships between employers and schools as the primary answer. Such networking is difficult in the United States because an institutional infrastructure that would link employers and schools does not already exist. In addition, voluntary employer participation would be tenuous. However, producing new standards, helping students find work, and improving available information are all possible within the framework of establishing institutional relationships between schools and employers.

School-Based Policies

Richard Kazis of Jobs for the Future contributed a review of school-based policies that create links between schools and employers. Using a range of programs as examples — cooperative education, tech prep, "High Schools That

Work," career academies, school-to-apprenticeship demonstrations, and youth apprenticeship — Kazis focused on the following:

- descriptions of these emerging models, with particular emphasis on the points of commonality and difference;
- review of research on the effectiveness and outcomes of the models;
- key issues about school involvement in these efforts; and
- key issues about employer involvement in these efforts.

Kazis began by expressing the importance of school-and-work programs that involve three types of integration: academic and vocational learning in school; school-based and work-based learning experiences; and secondary and post-secondary learning opportunities. Programs that move in this direction, Kazis said, have a better chance of raising skill levels, connecting young people to jobs, and opening doors to post-secondary education. In general, Kazis found little research on all the models and reported finding limited evidence of economic impacts. Most programs were too young to assess fully; those with more experience had no data; and other programs experienced mixed impacts on wages, employment, and labor force participation.

However, Kazis did mention three areas in which these programs could point to clear, positive impacts: improvement in behavior, in performance and persistence issues (as gateways to post-secondary education), and in connections to jobs. Similarly, students involved in some of the programs that have been evaluated showed an improvement in attitudes toward work and school, had better attendance rates, and perceived a greater connection between school and work.

Cooperative education programs represent the largest of the school-based efforts, reaching over 450,000 juniors and seniors annually. These programs place vocational educa-

tion students primarily in business and marketing industries. Key elements of the program include little change in the curriculum, although some programs provide a class to reflect on work experiences for schools, and job placement (10-15 hours) in the field of occupational choice for work. Cooperative education creates the following linkages: support and quality control; a co-op coordinator who visits sites; written agreements between employers, students, and schools; and employer evaluation of students. Based on a consensus of several longitudinal surveys (a one-city 1979 study; a 1976 federal study; National Longitudinal Survey of Youth; National Longitudinal Survey, Class of 1972; and High School and Beyond), Kazis reported the following research findings on cooperative education:

- Co-op students tend to be more positive about school—attendance and satisfaction with school are higher for these students.
- Co-op students perceive a stronger connection between school and work.
- There is no evidence of economic outcomes in terms of labor force participation, employment, and wages.
- The quality of jobs procured by co-op students tend to be higher than those taken by non-co-op students—they tend to be placed in positions in which they learn new things, use reading and writing on the job, have contact with adults, perform meaningful work, and have a job related to their desired career.

A 1990 survey of tech prep efforts in the United States identified 122 programs in 33 states; proponents claim there are approximately 80,000 to 90,000 participants. In these programs, vocational education students seek training for technician-level occupations in which A.A. or post-secondary certificates are needed or preferred. Career areas usually include health, auto repair, electronics, business, and engineering technicians. In most cases, tech prep represents a "school-to-school" transition program, which incor-

porates applied academics (math, physics, and communications) at the secondary level and promotes articulation agreements between secondary schools and post-secondary institutions to avoid redundancy in curriculum. Although there is generally no real work component in this model, there have been efforts to include it in some local programs such as Boston's Project Pro-Tech. Tech prep does create linkages with employers because it asks them to serve an advisory function. Very little is available on tech prep in terms of research findings.

Sponsored by the Southern Regional Education Board, "High Schools That Work" differs from most programs in that it incorporates the ideas of tech prep with an emphasis on changes in high school curriculum. In 1992, "High Schools That Work" operated in 19 states at 100 sites, targeting non-college track vocational and general education students. The program aims to affect significant change in high school curricula: setting higher expectations in academic and vocational classes; offering new and revised courses with an emphasis on communications, math, and science competencies; and having an applied academic focus. For staff development, materials and time are set aside to encourage academic and vocational teacher interaction. There are also efforts to orient the student as a worker and to provide guidance, counseling, and academic support. There are no work components in this program. Research findings are derived from a study of eight sites with the greatest gains in achievement on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) for 1988 through 1990. The study reported an increase in the percentage of vocational completers at these high schools who:

- improved on NAEP reading (89 percent closure in the gap), math (36 percent closure), and science (75 percent closure) scores;
- completed at least three years of math or science;
- enrolled in math courses during their senior year;

- felt there was less course content repetition;
- felt vocational teachers stressed reading and writing;
- received help from a math teacher.

There was no evidence of economic outcomes. The difficulty, however, is that this evidence is based upon the best performing sites and may not accurately reflect the program as a whole.

School-based enterprises offer students jobs, but they do so within the schools. They involve students in a broad range of community-oriented products and services, including home construction, child care, and retail goods. These programs tend to be run by vocational students and are more common in rural communities. Schools sponsor activities during which students produce goods and services for the community. Curricular integration and an "all aspects of the industry" focus constitute the academic component of the program, which also provides students with active learning and entrepreneurial training. There is no linkage with outside employers, except in advisory capacities. Although systematic, objective studies of outcomes are unavailable, some comparisons have been made between students who participate in school-based enterprises and those who hold youth labor market jobs outside of school. The comparison shows that school-based enterprise students are highly motivated to learn and report having better overall experiences relative to students who hold jobs outside of school.

There are three distinct networks of career academies, which are schools-within-schools covering a broad range of more than 20 career fields. Some of these fields are: finance, travel and tourism, health, public service, transportation, electronics, construction, education, graphic arts, and communications. The Philadelphia High School Academies Project runs 25 academies in 16 high schools, with a total of 2000 enrolled students. There are approximately 50 California Academies statewide. The National Academy Foundation, which operates in many states, coordinates 75

programs and 4100 students. All of these programs target at-risk youth in grades 10 through 12. Since career academies are schools-within-schools, they are able to determine their own curricular strategies—which include block scheduling, team teaching, an integration of academic and vocational learning, and organization by occupational themes. Students experience job shadowing in their early years, mentoring in the junior year, and paid summer work in the summer after junior year that often continues as part-time employment during the senior year. No explicit linkages exist between jobs and classes. Employers do serve, however, on steering committees, act as mentors, and provide teachers with summer jobs in industry. Studies have been performed of the California, Philadelphia, and New York City career academies, but they did not determine which program components make a positive difference in student performance. The study of California's career academies (Stern, Raby, and Dayton 1992) did find, however, that career academies graduated a larger percentage of students, that a greater percentage of students found jobs through school and felt the jobs were related to the school program, and that career academy students were just as likely to continue into post-secondary programs as a comparison group. After 15 months, a follow-up study of California's two original academies found that 62 percent of one class and 47 percent of the other class were enrolled in post-secondary institutions. Fifty-one percent and 34 percent, respectively, were employed. The academies provide drop-out prevention without a watered-down curriculum.

School-to-apprenticeship demonstration programs consisted of eight federally funded projects operating in the late 1970s. Four programs—in Cleveland, Nashville, Houston, and New Orleans—were funded by the Bureau of Apprenticeship Training (BAT) and targeted vocational education students. The remaining four—in Iowa, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Illinois—were funded by the Office of Youth

Programs and targeted minorities, females, and the economically disadvantaged. Apprenticeship demonstration programs covered industries that were both traditional and non-traditional apprenticeable trades: building and construction, electronics, machine trades, auto repair, drafting, sheet metal, and floral design. Twelfth-graders in cooperative education programs were eligible and spent half-days in school and half-days in work. No change in school curriculum occurred, and students were paid for their work based on a progressive pay scale. These programs formed the following linkages: students formally registered as apprentices with employers, schools, and government; and a career placement coordinator or co-op instructor served as a personal link. Six of eight demonstration programs were discontinued after federal money disappeared because there was no local investment in the programs; the employers were given wage subsidies with federal dollars and lost interest when the subsidies ended; and there were conflicts with other vocational education programs over students, resources, and job placements. A 1980 CSR Incorporated study of post-high school interviews with former student apprentices found higher levels of job satisfaction in current or most recent employment, more "occupational stability," a higher performance level (as rated by employers), and no significant wage impacts.

The concept of youth apprenticeships is a fairly new effort to improve the school-to-work transition for youth. These programs differ from the others because they include school, job, and system reform—and in that sense represent an ideal model. More than 30 demonstration projects have been initiated in industries such as allied health, manufacturing (particularly metalworking), electronics, printing, and finance. Programs usually target technician-level jobs in industries where training requirements dictate more than a high school degree. The programs are designed to serve general and vocational track students, but many of these

demonstrations have not developed access strategies for students with special needs. Programs begin in the eleventh grade and usually include an integration of academic and vocational learning, team teaching, block scheduling, a post-secondary program linkage (usually an articulation with community colleges), and academic courses which incorporate and use lessons from work. Students engage in paid work based on a progressive wage schedule and in employer-guided learning and mentoring at work. The best of these programs forge the following linkages: teachers and employer supervisors meet to design curriculum; teachers spend time at the worksite both during the school year and summer; and all abide by a training agreement specifying roles and responsibilities. No extensive research has been performed on the outcomes of these programs. However, Jobs for the Future evaluated the first year of Project Pro-Tech in Boston. They found:

- a higher percentage of students continued in grade-level math (85 percent, compared to the non-Pro-Tech group's 61 percent);
- a higher percentage continued to study science (94 percent versus 52 percent);
- the average GPA dropped slightly, due to the increased difficulty of courses;
- 40 percent quit or were terminated in the first year, due largely to enrolling many students who did not meet the entry requirements;
- the quality of the job assigned to a student accounted for the significant variation in profiles of those who were terminated and those who continued.

Little rigorous research has been done on these models, and it is too early to determine whether they will have significant economic impacts on wages, employment, and labor force participation rates. They do appear to have had general impact, however, in non-economic areas:

- attitudes toward work and school improve;

attendance usually rises;

- there is usually an increase in the perception of a connection between school and work;
- persistence in college-track math and science courses rises; and
- the quality of job placements tend to be better than those of non-program youth.

These general results cut across programs that are school-only, offer primarily work experience, and try to integrate and reform the two institutions.

For apprenticeships to work, both schools and employers need to be genuinely involved. Kazis gave the following recommendations to expand school interactions and involvement with employers:

- require staff to have specific assignments (e.g., co-op coordinator, job developer);
- ensure that there is a sufficient number of students involved in the program to make curricular reform worthwhile;
- provide teachers with summer jobs in industry;
- give teachers development time to plan and to practice integrating academic and vocational as well as school and work learning; and
- foster more than just an articulation between secondary and post-secondary institutions.

To encourage the involvement of employers with schools (beyond business education partnerships), it may be useful to stress the benefits that will accrue to them beyond simply fulfilling their community responsibilities:

- satisfying the short-term need for workers;
- decreasing turnover in entry-level positions;
- signaling, through economic development strategies, that local employers care about skill levels; and
- providing training for front-line workers and supervisors in the skills that employers want most—

teamwork, mentoring, clarity of expectations and instructions, motivation, and productivity.

Programs for Out-of-School and Disadvantaged Youth

Fred Doolittle and Robert Ivry of the Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (MDRC) were asked to focus on programs for disadvantaged youth who are no longer enrolled in school. The goals of this presentation were to provide background on the research findings for disadvantaged youth and out-of-school youth and to extract from the research possible implications for future inquiry and policy. They began by mentioning that overall results from past studies are generally discouraging, although new information is now available from MDRC's JOBSTART demonstration (a test of education, training, job placement assistance, and support services), which offers insights into program improvement. While education and training programs for at-risk youth often lead to improvement in "in-program" outcomes and educational attainment, they have rarely led to long-term improvements in employment and earnings for all youth served. However, behind the aggregate results, there are differences among subgroups and sites. The next step is to investigate why those differences occur and identify the program elements that foster them.

Discussing programs for at-risk or out-of-school youth, Ivry and Doolittle provided a framework in which to consider program impacts. Figure 2 illustrates the type of investment implicit in many youth programs, particularly second-chance programs for out-of-school youth. They called attention to the following assumptions which serve as foundations for the paradigm: the earnings of similar youth not in the program (represented by the control group) do rise over time to reflect growing work experience; the initial period of participation in program services implies an opportunity cost of foregone earnings for youth; there is a peri-

od during which people in the program are expected to catch up to their counterparts; and there is a period of payoff, when enhanced skills are expected to produce gains. In a program successful from the participant's perspective, the initial opportunity cost is smaller than the later payoff. In a

program successful from a social perspective, the costs of resources to provide added services are less than the benefits it produces—or the distribution goals of the program outweigh any loss.

Figure 2
A Theoretical View of the Payoff of a Personal Investment in Education and Training

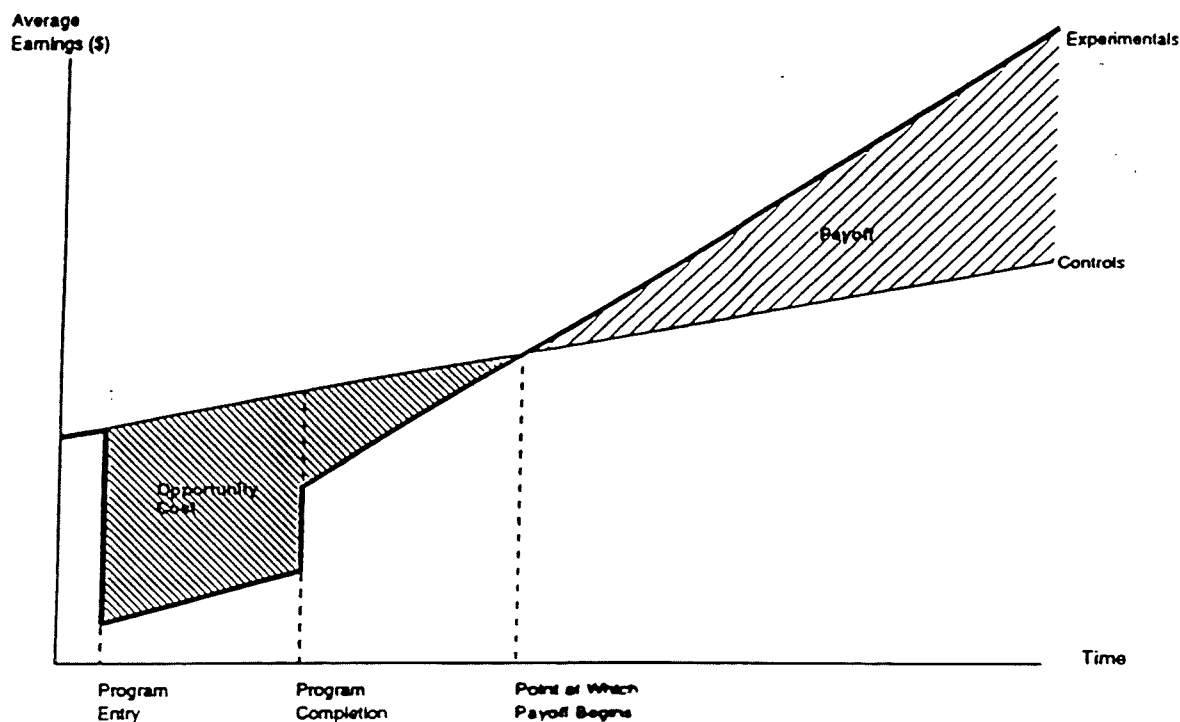


Table 4 (in-school programs for disadvantaged youth) and Table 5 (programs for out-of-school youth) both contain summaries of studies on respective programs. Overall, the results have been discouraging, since few programs have marked and enduring effects. With the exception of Job Corps, second-chance education and training programs have not been effective over the long term, although the results are slightly more encouraging for young women than young men.

Doolittle and Ivry continued by saying that it may appear as though "nothing works," but that is not the case. Instead, they explained that the problems are caused by large initial

losses and smaller-than-expected subsequent gains for some groups. The findings do indicate three strategies that may help to improve youth employment programs:

- target outreach to ensure that those youth who would benefit most from the impacts of the program are included;
- lessen the initial opportunity costs of participation; and
- attempt to boost the long-term payoffs.

Table 6 lists suggestions to these three approaches for improving program impacts.

Table 4
Summary of Studies of In-School Programs for Disadvantaged Youth

Program	Target Group	Program Services	Evaluation Findings
Summer Training and Education Program (STEP)	14- to 15-year-olds, low-achievement students who are JTPA eligible.	Spans two summers and offers work experience, remediation, and life skills training.	In-program impacts on basic knowledge of contraception, but not longer-term impacts on educational attainment, earnings, parenting, or welfare receipt.
Youth Incentive Entitlement Pilot Projects (YIEPP)	16- to 19-year olds, low-income youth without a high school diploma.	Guaranteed minimum wage job part-time in school year and full-time in summer, if in school and meet job and school standards.	Generally successful implementation of job guarantee; elimination of black/white differences in employment and significant increases in earnings during program operations; and evidence of continued earnings gains in short post-program follow-up.

Table 5
Summary of Studies of Programs for Out-of-School Youth

Strategy	Example	Services	Evaluation Findings
Job Placement Assistance	70001	Job prep workshops, job search assistance, stress GED completion.	Initial impacts on employment and earnings which soon disappear.
Work Experience	Supported Work	Work experience with peer support, graduated stress, and close supervision.	In-program impacts on employment, earnings, and welfare, but no long-term impacts.
"Brokered" Programs for Young Mothers	Project Redirection	Mentoring and support services; education, work readiness, and life skills for 14 - to 17-year-old mothers.	In-program effects on participation in education and employment, which disappear by the two-year mark; at five years, small impacts on earnings, and larger impacts on welfare receipt and child outcomes.
Education Plus Training	Job Corps	Residential program with education, training, work experience, financial support, support services, and job placement assistance.	Impacts through four years of follow-up on employment, earnings, GED receipt, and crime and positive benefit-cost ratio.
	JOBSTART	Non-residential program with education, training, limited support services, and job placement assistance.	Modest impacts; leads to increased participation in education and training; large impact on GED receipt; largest impacts from CET program (largest and among the least inexpensive).
Broad Array of Services	JTPA	Training, education, job search assistance, on-the-job training, work readiness, and many variations.	Results moderately positive for adults, but short-term results for youth not yet positive in terms of earnings impacts; for OJT and other services, negative impacts confined to males with a prior arrest.

Suggested Approaches to Improve Program Impacts

Targeting Outreach	Lessening Opportunity Costs of Participation	Providing More Long-Term Payoffs
<p>Include within outreach efforts those for whom impacts are likely to be greatest.</p> <p>Work to include youth with many barriers to employment, but monitor closely the morale and motivation of participants and staff to get the right balance of easy winners and tougher cases; exclusive focus on youth with many barriers to employment will complicate program operations.</p>	<p>Low-intensity, short-duration services are not promising, based on job search studies.</p> <p>To improve participation: offer paid work experience, which is promising in combination with other services; and offer stipends, which currently are not permitted in JTPA programs.</p> <p>Concentrate program participation in an intense period; this makes for full days and calls for serious investment of time and effort and may increase the need for support services.</p> <p>Encourage youth to combine work and program participation, which calls for flexibility in scheduling.</p>	<p>Strengthen the link between education, training, and the labor market through careful selection of training options and efforts to gain exposure to work.</p> <p>Provide real opportunities for growth in life skills by recognizing young people's need to make contributions and chances for recognition; opportunities for leadership in the program design; and encouragement to improve interpersonal skills.</p> <p>Increase completion of program activities.</p> <p>Emphasize the GED as a vehicle for earnings impacts, particularly since it opens doors for further education and training.</p> <p>Strengthen job placements.</p> <p>Initiate continuing services after initial placement to help youth make later transitions into stable employment and better jobs.</p>



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WORKING PAPERS

**SIDE BY SIDE OF MAJOR PROVISIONS IN HOUSE AND SENATE
VERSIONS OF
GOALS 2000: EDUCATE AMERICA ACT (S. 846 & H.R. 1804)**

6/28/93

S. 846

(as of 5/26/93)

Title I: National Education Goals

Codifies six national education goals.

**Title II: Goals Panel & National
Education Standards & Improvement
Council (NESIC)**

Establishes a bipartisan Goals Panel composed of 18 members. Goals Panel members select their own chair.

The Panel would (1) report on the progress nation is making towards achieving the goals; (2) submit to the President nominations for NESIC members; (3) review and approve criteria for standards, assessments, and opportunity-to-learn standards and review and approve certification of such standards by the NESIC.

Establishes a NESIC composed of 19 members, including 4 business representatives, to develop criteria for certifying voluntary content standards, assessments and OTL standards. The Goals Panel

H.R. 1804

(as of 6/23/93)

Title I: National Education Goals

Codifies seven national education goals. The seventh goal focuses on teacher education and professional development by the year 2000.

Also adds "civics and government" to goal 3.

**Title II: Goals Panel & National
Education Standards & Improvement
Council (NESIC)**

Establishes a bipartisan Goals Panel composed of 18 members with the chair selected by the President.

The Goals Panel is only permitted to make 4 appointments to the NESIC, and the Panel would only be permitted to review and comment on the criteria for content standards, assessments, and opportunity-to-learn standards, as well as only review and comment on the certification of such standards by the NESIC.

Establishes a NESIC composed of 20 members, including 5 business representatives, to develop criteria for certifying voluntary content standards, assessments, and OTL standards. 8 members are appointed by the President; 4 by the House; 4 by the Senate; and

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nominates all members to the NESIC.

NESIC would perform its duties pursuant to recommendations from two separate working groups that focus on (1) content and performance standards and (2) OTL standards.

The three types of standards would be submitted to the Goals Panel for their approval.

NESIC would certify OTL standards submitted to it voluntarily that describe the conditions of teaching and learning necessary for all students to have an opportunity to learn.

NESIC could certify an assessment of one subject area or a system of assessments involving several subject areas as long as the assessment is aligned with and support the state plan.

OTL standards must address such factors as (1) curricula, (2) capability of teachers, (3) professional development, (4) extent to which curriculum and assessments are aligned with content standards, (5) other appropriate factors.

No comparable provision.

No comparable provision.

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4 by the Goals Panel.

No comparable provision.

The three types of standards would be submitted to the Secretary of Education for review and comment.

NESIC would only certify OTL standards submitted to it voluntarily which are consistent with the voluntary, national OTL standards.

NESIC could only certify systems of assessments submitted by states on a voluntary basis.

OTL standards must also address a 6th factor: the extent to which school facilities provide a safe and secure environment for learning and instruction and have the requisite libraries, laboratories, and other resources necessary to provide an opportunity to learn.

Specifies that NESIC is to develop criteria for certifying both national and state OTL standards; not just national criteria.

Specifies that the NESIC shall only certify a system of assessment if the state has established or adopted OTL standards.

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Prohibits the NESIC from certifying assessments that will be used for high stakes purposes (graduation, promotion, retention) for 3 years.

Clarifies that states plans must establish strategies for achieving the states's OTL standards in every school.

Authorizes the Secretary to award a grant or grants to consortia of various stakeholders to develop model OTL standards.

Removed separate authorization for assessment development and evaluation grants and folded it into the 4% Secretary's grant reserve.

Authorizes \$1 million for OTL grant.

Assessment grants must come from the Secretary's 4% grant reserve.

Title III: State and Local Education Systemic Improvement

Adds early childhood to the list of comprehensive services to which state and LEAs should try to coordinate access.

Authorizes \$400 million in state grants for systemic improvement.

Reserves 4% of the funds for the Secretary for national leadership

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Prohibits the NESIC from certifying systems of assessments that will be used for high stakes purposes for 5 years from the date of enactment.

Specifies that state plans must ensure that schools actually achieve the OTL standards.

Authorizes the Secretary to award only one OTL grant to a consortia of wide ranging stakeholders.

Authorizes the Secretary to make grants to states and local education agencies (LEAs) to help defray the cost developing assessments.

Authorizes \$3 million for OTL grant.

Authorizes a separate \$5 million for the Secretary to award assessment and evaluation development grants to states and LEAs.

Title III: State and Local Education Systemic Improvement

No comparable provision.

Authorizes \$393 million in state grants for systemic improvement.

Reserves 6% of the funds for the Secretary for national leadership activities. Specifies that

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activities.

that such activities must be administered through the Office of Educational Research and Improvement.

Added a paperwork prevention clause to ensure that state and local improvement plans do not result in an increase of paperwork for teachers.

No comparable provision.

Requires State Educational Agency (SEA) to submit a state plan by no later than the end of the 2nd year of the grant.

No comparable provision.

Each state plan must establish a strategy and timetable for (1) adopting or establishing OTL standards; (2) achieving the State's OTL standards; and (3) reporting to the public on OTL.

Each state plan must establish a strategy and timetable for (1) adopting or establishing OTL standards prior to or simultaneous with the establishment or adoption of challenging content and student performance standards; (2) ensuring that every school is making demonstrable progress toward meeting the state's OTL standards; (3) reporting to the public on OTL.

No comparable provision.

Requires states to include corrective action plans for meeting OTL standard in their state plans to ensure they make demonstrable progress toward implementing OTL standards.

Permits the Secretary to approve preexisting state plans as long as they meet the intent and purpose of the legislation.

Permits the Secretary to approve preexisting state plans which meet the specific requirements of Title III.

In the first year 75% of funds must be passed on to LEAs and in succeeding years it rises to 85%.

In the first year 75% must be passed on to LEAs and in succeeding years it rises to 90%.

Authorizes the waiver of most regulations under several major education programs in any state or LEA participating in reform grant program.

Extends waiver authority to all LEAs in the nation whether or not they received a systemic reform grant.

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Increases the period a waiver may be granted from 3 to 5 years.

Title IV: Miscellaneous

Specifies that funds may only be used for the benefit of public schools.

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Authorizes waivers for 3 years.

Specifies that funds under this bill shall only be used for the benefit of public schools.

Title V: National Skill Standards Board Title IV: National Skill Standards Board

Establishes a national board to serve as a catalyst in stimulating the development and adoption of a voluntary national system of skill standards and of assessment and certification.

Essentially same as Senate.

The Board is composed of 28 members: 8 each from business, organized labor, and other stakeholders, including education, CBOs, civil rights experts, and state and local government. In addition, the Board includes the Secretaries of Commerce, Education, and Labor and the Chair of the NESIC.

Same composition as Senate except business and industry representatives must include representatives of both small and large businesses.

The Board bienally elects a Chair from among its members. The Chair appoints the Executive Director and staff to the Board.

Same as Senate.

The Board's duties would include identifying broad clusters of major occupations that involve one, or more than one, industry in the U.S.

Before the Board identifies clusters, it must engage in extensive public review and comment, as well as a study of the national labor market. Procedures for identifying the clusters must be published in the Federal Register.

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With respect to each cluster identified, the Board must encourage the development of voluntary partnerships, which include the full and balanced participation of business, labor, and education and training providers and other stakeholders.

Essentially the same as Senate.

The voluntary partnership will be encouraged to develop a system of skill standards for their occupational cluster which will include 5 components: (1) skill standards; (2) a system of assessment and certification of the attainment of skill standards; (3) a system to promote the use of and disseminate information relating to standards, assessment and certification; (4) a system to evaluate and implement the standards, assessment and certification; and (5) a system to periodically revise and update the skill standards, assessment and certification system.

Includes a list of criteria in order to meet the minimum skill standard system requirement: (i) meet or exceed standards in other countries; (ii) accounts for content and performance standards certified pursuant to Title II; (iii) accounts for the requirements of high performance work organizations; (iiii) are in a form that allow for regular updating; (v) promotes portability of credentials; (vi) are not discriminatory with respect to race, color, gender, age, religion, ethnicity, disability, or national origin.

The Board is authorized to endorse the components of each skill standards system that is voluntarily submitted to it.

Endorsement criteria must be published in the Federal Register.

The endorsement by the Board of a skill standard system may not be used in any action or proceeding to establish that it conforms to civil rights laws.

Specifies that the endorsement or absence of an endorsement by the Board shall not be used in any action or proceeding to establish that it does or does not conform to civil rights laws.

The Board will also conduct research and maintain a catalogue and clearinghouse on skill standards.

Establishes research, dissemination and coordination as a primary function of the Board.

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Prohibits the National Board from developing any skill standards with

respect to any occupation or trade within the construction industry for which recognized apprenticeship standards have been developed.

There is \$15 million authorized for the development of skill standards.

By 12/31/95, the Board must identify the occupational clusters representing a substantial portion of the workforce; and have facilitated the voluntary development of a set of voluntary skill standards for such occupations/industries.

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Expands the prohibition to any trade or industry for which there are registered

national apprenticeship standards that are being actively used on a national basis. Effectively exempts 216 occupations.

Title V: Miscellaneous

Contains definitions and 5 year prohibition against high stakes assessments.

Title VI:

Authorizes grants for training and information to assist parents to work more effectively with schools in meeting the educational needs of their children.

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Goal: To increase the skill level of America's workforce, and prepare students for rewarding careers and economic security.

Means:

Allocation:

- Provide grants to states to establish school-to-work programs and coordinate funding with other federal programs.
- Assist states in develop work-based learning, allowing students to work in chosen fields while receiving instruction in the last two years of high school.
- Under work-based learning, provide students with job training, paid work experience, workplace mentoring and instruction in skills and in a variety of elements of an industry.
- Provide for coordinating activities to involve employers, schools and students, and to match students and work opportunities.
- Provide the opportunity, through counselors, for students to explore career opportunities and receive instruction in a career major, selected no later than the eleventh grade.

Implementation: States and localities.

Cost: \$300 million authorized for FY 1995.

Status: The School-to-Work Transition Act was introduced by Rep. William D. Ford (D-Mich.) in August.

Point of View: "The bill would help states develop work-based learning, allowing students to work in chosen fields while receiving instruction in the last two years of high school. Upon completion, students would receive a high school diploma; a certificate from a post-secondary institution, if appropriate, and a portable, industry recognized, credential certifying mastery of certain occupational skills."

Contact: Rep. William Ford (D-Mich.), 2371 Rayburn House Office Building, Washington, DC 20515-2215; (202) 225-6261.

Source: Congressional Record, September 8, 1993.



Rep. Ford

The bill would help states develop work-based learning, allowing students to work in chosen fields while receiving instruction in the last two years of high school. Upon completion, students would receive a high school diploma; a certificate from a post secondary institution, if appropriate; and a portable, industry recognized, credential certifying mastery of certain occupational skills.

Under the bill, which the Committee on Education and Labor developed with Secretary Reich's Department of Labor and Secretary Riley's Department of Education, the federal government would provide grants to states to establish school-to-work programs and coordinate funding with other federal programs. The bill would promote collaboration among local leaders to establish and maintain successful school-to-work systems.

The basic components, developed by states, include work based and school based learning and coordination of the two.

Under work-based learning, students would receive job training, paid work experience, workplace mentoring and instruction in skills and in a variety of elements of an industry. At school, students would explore career opportunities with counselors. They would receive instruction in a career major, selected no later than eleventh grade. The study program's academic and skill standards would be those contained in the administration's school reform bill, HR 1804, the Goals 2000: Educate America Act. Typically, their coursework would include at least one year of postsecondary education and periodic evaluations to identify strengths and weaknesses.

To bring the two together, the bill would provide for coordinating activities, that is, involving employers, schools, and students, and matching students and work opportunities. It also would involve training teachers, mentors, and counselors for the school-to-work program.

States' school-to-work plans, submitted for federal implementation grants, would have to detail how the State would meet program requirements. They also would explain how the plans would extend the opportunity to participate to poor, low-achieving and disabled students and dropouts.

This bill is an important blueprint to help

The School-to-Work Transition Act Of 1993

By Hon. William D. Ford of Michigan in the House of Representatives,
September 8, 1993

Just before the August recess, I introduced the School-to-Work Transition Act of 1993, President Clinton's legislation to help noncollege-bound students prepare for careers in high-skill, high-wage jobs.

Our challenge is to connect the three-out-of-four high school students who do

not complete college to a skill that will get them a good paying job. We must establish close ties between schools, businesses, and labor to assure that graduating students get their fair shot at the American dream—a good wage in return for skilled work that employers need.

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us build a high-skilled workforce for the twenty-first century. In line with other proposals developed by the Clinton administration, it does not establish new federal bureaucracies but make states and

localities partners with the federal governments in achieving goals crucial to improving the lives of our citizens.

This program, which is scheduled to be funded beginning in fiscal 1994, will help

States and localities deliver on their obligations to young people: to train them for good jobs in tomorrow's labor market. My committee looks forward to hearings and ultimately to enactment of this landmark legislation.

Contacts

- Antrey, George. Manpower Development Corporation, 1717 Legion Road, P.O. Box 2226, Chapel Hill, NC 27514; (919) 929-8557.
- Bailin, Michael. Public/Private Ventures, 99 Market Street, Philadelphia, PA 19106; (215) 592-9099.
- Brown, Lawrence Jr. Work, Achievement, Values & Education (WAVE), 501 School Street, SW, Suite 600, Washington, DC 20024; (202) 484-0103.
- Cameron, Don. Executive Director, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 822-7008.
- Carter, Gene. Executive Director, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1250 North Pitt Street, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 549-3891.
- Clark, Donald. President and CEO, National Association for Industry-Education Cooperation, 235 Hendricks Blvd., Buffalo, NY 14226; (716) 834-7047.
- Crigger, Joan. Director, Employment and Training, United Conference of Mayors, 1620 Eye Street, NW, Washington, DC 20006; (202) 293-2352.
- Dyer, Timothy. Executive Director, National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1904 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091; (703) 860-0200.
- Ganzglass, Evelyn. Policy Studies Director, National Governors Association, 444 North Capitol Street, NW, Washington, DC 20001; (202) 624-5300.
- Gueron, Judith. Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation, Three Park Avenue, New York, NY 10016; (212) 532-3200.
- Halperin, Samuel. American Youth Policy Forum, 1001 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 301, Washington, DC 20006; (202) 775-9731.
- Harris, David. Jobs for Youth, Inc., 105 West 7th Street, New York, NY 10018; (212) 768-4001.
- Henry, Pat. President, National Parent Teachers Association, 700 North Rush Street, Chicago, IL 60611; (312) 787-0977.
- Imig, David. Executive Director, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, One Dupont Circle, NW, Room 610, Washington, DC 20036; (202) 293-2450.
- Johnson, Dick. Project Director, Employment and Training, National Association of Counties, 440 First Street NW, Washington, DC 20001; (202) 393-6226.
- Leviton, Sar. Director, The George Washington Center for Social Policy Research, 1717 K Street, NW, Suite 1200, Washington, DC 20006; (202) 833-2530.
- Miller, Richard D. Executive Director, American Association of School Administrators, 1801 North Moore Street, Arlington, VA 22209; (703) 528-0700.
- Newman, Frank. President, Education Commission of the States, 707 17th Street, Suite 2700, Denver, CO 80202; (303) 299-3604.
- Pemington, Hilary. President, Jobs For The Future, 1815 Massachusetts Avenue, Cambridge, MA 02140; (617) 661-3411.
- Plott, Curtis. American Society for Training and Development, 1640 King Street, P.O. Box 144, Alexandria, VA 22313; (202) 683-8100.
- Rosow, Jerome. Work in America Institute Inc., 700 White Plains Road, Scarsdale, NY 10583; (914) 472-9600.
- Ryan, Ray. National Center for Research in Vocational Education, 1960 Kenny Road, Columbus OH 43210; (614) 292-1260.
- Ruzzi, Betsy. National Center on Education and the Economy, 39 State Street, Suite 500, Rochester, NY 14614; (716) 546-3145.
- Sava, Samuel. Executive Director, National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1615 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 548-6021.
- Shanker, Albert. President, American Federation of Teachers, 555 New Jersey Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20001; (202) 879-4400.
- Shannon, Thomas A. Executive Director, National School Boards Association, 1680 Duke Street, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 838-6722.
- Stoneman, Dorothy. YouthBuild U.S.A., 58 Day Street, P.O. Box 4402, 2nd Floor, West Somerville, MA 02144; (617) 623-9900.
- Taylor, Herman. Opportunities Industrialization Centers of America, 1415 N. Broad Street, Philadelphia, PA 19122; (800) 621-4642.
- Tucker, Allyson. The Heritage Foundation, 214 Massachusetts Avenue, NE, Washington, DC 20002-4999; (202) 546-4400.
- Welburn, Brenda. Interim Executive Director, National Association of State Boards of Education, 1012 Cameron Street, Alexandria, VA 22314; (703) 684-4000.
- Zuckerman, Alan J. National Youth Employment Coalition, 1001 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 719, Washington, DC 20006; (202) 659-1064.

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Goal: To increase the skill level of America's workforce, and prepare students for rewarding careers and economic security.

Means:

Allocation:

- Provide seed capital for states and localities to establish comprehensive school-to-work systems.
- Establish basic program components. These include provisions for work-based learning, school-based learning like career exploration, and connecting activities to bridge school-based and work-based learning. Also, each program must result in a nationally recognized skills certificate to those students who complete the requirements successfully.
- Target high poverty areas by making available additional resources to these communities to be awarded in a separate competitive process.
- Help states and localities learn from each other by collecting, analyzing and distributing data on the implementation and effectiveness of new transition efforts.

Implementation: The Department of Education, The Department of Labor, community consortiums.

Cost: \$300 million authorized for FY 1995.

Status: The Department of Education and Department of Labor collaborated on the design of the School-to-Work Initiative, and will collaborate in its implementation.

Point of View: "The old dividing line between vocational and academic education is fast becoming blurred and will become more and more meaningless as time goes on, which gives heightened importance to this discussion."

Contact: United States Department of Education, 400 Maryland Ave., SW, Washington DC 20202-7100. Fax: (202) 205-8748.

Source: "Overview of School-to-Work Initiative," Draft, June 11, 1993.



President Clinton

school students enter the workforce without college degrees. Many of them do not possess the basic academic and occupational skills necessary for the changing workplace or further education. And many cannot find stable, career track jobs for a good five to ten years after graduating from high school.

To address this situation, the departments of Education and Labor are developing a legislative proposal that contains the blueprint for the institutions, partnerships, and standards that would be necessary to build a coherent, effective, and responsive school-to-work transition system. The departments are actively seeking the input of interested parties in the design of this initiative.

To turn this initiative into reality will require significant changes in the relationships between school and work, between "academic" and "technical" learning, and between educators and employers. This task is an ambitious one. Moreover, coherence and consistency cannot be created with piecemeal solutions; we need a system, not another federal categorical program.

This initiative does not try to build this system by means of a top-down, one-size fits-all federal solution. Rather, through the use of "venture capital," state and local creativity will be stimulated in the context of national goals. Statewide systemic reform will be promoted by building on and enriching current promising school-to-work transition programs. Communities, through a consortium of secondary and postsecondary educators, employers, workers, parents, local elected officials and other key actors will take ownership and responsibility for giving American youth access to skills and employment opportunities that will launch them on paths leading to high skills, high wage careers. Together, states and localities will take the lead in determining goals and priorities, developing new strategies and measuring progress. The federal role is critical, but limited to:

- investing in state and local initiatives by providing seed capital;
- helping states and localities learn from each other and from the experience of our

Overview of School-to-Work Initiative

Clinton Administration Draft, June 11, 1993

The school-to-work initiative is the result of a broad-based and growing interest in creating a school-to-work transition system in which young Americans choose and navigate a path to productive and progressively more rewarding roles in the workplace. Currently, the United States

lacks a comprehensive and coherent system to help most young Americans acquire the knowledge, skills, abilities, and information about the labor market necessary to make an effective transition from high school to career-oriented work or further education. Three-fourths of America's high

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international competitors; and

- building a knowledge base on effective school-to-work models.

This school-to-work initiative builds on earlier work of the Departments of Education and Labor, including a joint conference on school-to-work transition in 1990, and numerous school-to-work and skill standards development demonstration projects that have been developed cooperatively. In addition, this initiative builds on the work of states and local communities and several national reports that have begun to lay out a design for a comprehensive school-to-work system. Finally, we know that work-based learning—modeled after registered apprenticeships which integrate theoretical instruction with structured on-the-job training—can be very effective in encouraging student interest and enhancing skill acquisition.

From these demonstrations and recent innovations in vocational education, we know there are promising models that can be expanded and enriched. The committed involvement of a wide range of parties in planning, program development, and curricula is essential. The employer role in providing work-based learning opportunities is particularly important. Finally, a targeted marketing campaign is necessary to effectively overcome misgivings and misconceptions among parents, teachers, students and employers.

In order to start the school-to-work initiative this year, we are proceeding on two fronts: starting the initiative under current legislative authority; and developing a new legislative proposal. Both efforts would challenge states and localities to:

- Accelerate the creation of a comprehensive school-to-work system in the United States;
- Transform American workplaces into learning components of the education and youth training system by encouraging employers to provide structured work-based learning experiences to high school students;
- Enable students to attain high academic standards and meet rigorous industry recognized occupational standards;
- Increase access to jobs and training

opportunities for young people, including at-risk populations.

- Catalyze the formation of local community learning systems—dedicated to bridging the worlds of school and work—among secondary and postsecondary schools, private and public businesses, labor organizations, community groups, parents, local elected officials, teachers and students;
- Strengthen and enrich the promising school-to-work programs that currently exist—for example youth apprenticeship, tech prep education, career academies, cooperative education, school-to-registered apprenticeship and business-education compacts—that can be developed into school-to-work programs; and
- Improve the knowledge and skills of youth, and motivate them to stay in school and work hard, by integrating academic and occupational learning, integrating school-based and work-based learning, and building linkages between secondary and postsecondary education.

Laying the Groundwork in 1994 Under Current Law

We will use FY 1994 funds, under the current legislative authority in the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) and the Carl D. Perkins Vocational Education Act, to lay the groundwork for a new school-to-work system by assisting states in designing a comprehensive plan and allowing for a period of experimentation among a handful of states and communities poised to implement systemic reform. The funds would be spent under a joint plan designed and administered by the two departments.

School-to-Work Transition Legislation in 1995

Second, we are developing legislation that provides for nationwide systemic reform beginning in FY 1995. The legislation would establish the basic program components of a national school-to-work system and authorize the two departments to jointly administer a program of grants to accelerate the creation of a comprehensive school-to-work program in all states.

The proposed legislation will define the broad guidelines and basic elements of a new school-to-work system. Although state

and local plans will be reviewed against these basic elements, innovation, experimentation and local diversity are encouraged. In this manner, states and local communities themselves will determine how to best use limited school-to-work funds and solve the complexities of creating a new system of learning that enriches and benefits all students. Since these funds are considered "venture capital," the federal funding will decline as the program matures and other sources of funding will need to increase in order to maintain the school-to-work initiative. Finally, this effort is not designed to compete with or replace efforts financed through the Perkins Act or JTPA. Rather it is designed to complement and enhance such programs.

Federal Grants to States and Localities

Both the efforts that take place under current authority and the proposed legislation envision a phased-in approach that allows for states to "come-on-line" at different points in time depending on their readiness to undertake broad-scale change that cuts across categorical approaches. This approach involves the use of Planning and Development Grants and Implementation Grants.

- Planning and development grants will be provided in October, 1993 to all states to commence activities that precede actual implementation. The purpose of these grants is to provide start-up funds for states to plan and begin efforts leading to comprehensive statewide school-to-work systems. These grants will be extended and funding added until such time as implementation begins so long as progress toward developing a comprehensive plan is being made.

- Implementation grants are envisioned for States that are ready to begin operation of a new school-to-work system. Modeled after the successful National Science Foundation Statewide Systems Initiative (SSI), these grants are to be awarded on a competitive basis. Individual state implementation will be staggered (starting in 1994 under current legislative authority) in multiple waves over several years. Although program start-up is staggered, each state is expected to receive a

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five-year implementation grant, state applications, developed as a result of the planning and development grants, and will go through an intensive review and approval process, conducted by teams of government and independent experts. In addition, the federal government would launch an aggressive technical assistance effort to help all states plan and implement comprehensive reform efforts.

- **Local Program Grants** are for communities that are prepared to undertake a school-to-work transition program, but are in states not yet ready for implementation. Funds will be available to finance a limited number of local programs on a competitive basis until their states begin implementation.

- **High Poverty Grants.** The challenges and costs of building an effective system in urban and rural areas characterized by unemployment and poverty are substantial. Activities in these areas will be crucial to

promoting an equitable and universal system. Therefore, additional resources will be targeted to these high poverty communities and awarded in a separate competitive process.

- **National Programs.** While it is inappropriate for the federal government to build a school-to-work system through a top-down federally mandated solution, there is, nevertheless, a need for a strong federal presence and partnership through a national program of research and development, evaluation, and technical assistance.

Draft Specifications for School-to-Work Transition Legislation

Basic Program Components

The grant program provides for a substantial degree of state and local discretion and diversity, and does not require adherence to a single model. Successful completion of the school-to-work program should, how-

ever, lead to a high school diploma, a skill certificate, and either a first job on a career track, college admission or further training such as entry into a registered apprenticeship program. At the core of the school-to-work program are (1) the integration of school-based and work-based learning, (2) the integration of academic and vocational learning, and (3) the linking of secondary and postsecondary education. In addition, a state or local school-to-work program that is applying for federal funds must incorporate (or show a specific timetable for incorporating) the following basic program components:

work-based learning component including:

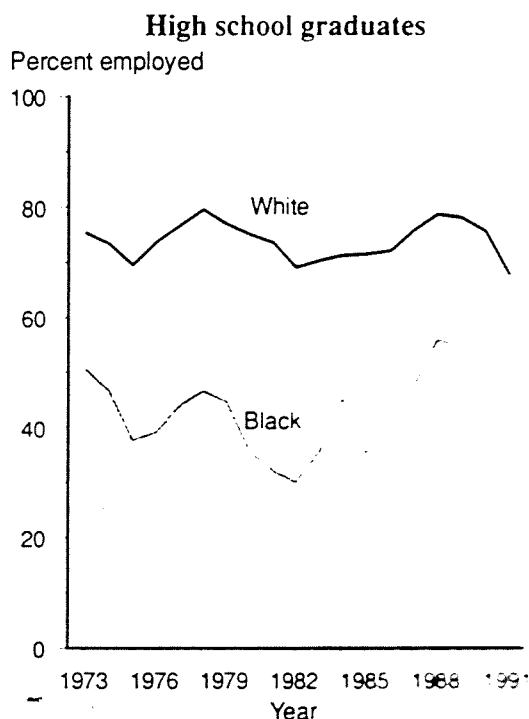
- paid work experience;
- a planned program of job training, including tasks to be mastered at increasingly higher skill levels, which are relevant to the student's career major;
- workplace mentoring; and
- instruction in general workplace competencies, including where appropriate, the abilities to manage resources, work productively with others, acquire and use information, understand and master systems, and work with technologies.

A school-to-work program is also expected to include development of sound work habits and behaviors; exposure to all aspects of an industry and feedback on the performance of the student.

school-based learning component including:

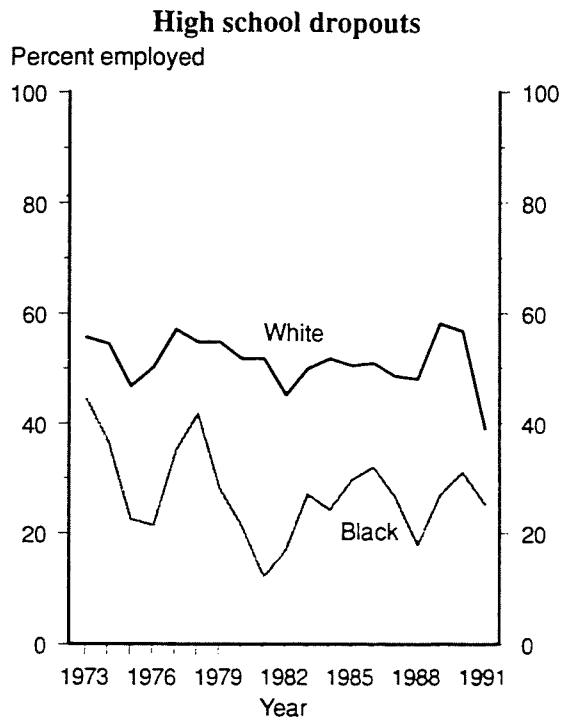
- career exploration and counseling in order to help students identify career interests and goals;
- opportunity to select a career major, to the extent practicable, not later than the beginning of the 11th grade (note: it is expected that students would have the flexibility to transfer between career majors);
- a program of study designed to meet high academic content standards, and to enable admission to post-secondary education; and
- periodic diagnostic assessments to identify academic strengths and weaknesses of students, and to identify the need for additional learning opportunities to master core academic skills.

Employment Rate of Recent High School Graduates Not Enrolling In College By Race



Source: The Condition of Education, 1993, U.S. Department of Education

Employment Rate of Recent High School Dropouts By Race



Source: The Condition of Education, 1993, U.S. Department of Education.

A school-based program is also expected to include instruction in all aspects of the career major the students is preparing to enter.

connecting activities to bridge school-based and work-based learning, including:

- matching students with employers' work-based learning opportunities;
- serving as a liaison between the employer, school, parent and student;
- providing technical assistance and services in designing work-based learning components, case managing participating students; and training teachers, mentors, and counselors;
- collecting and analyzing information regarding post-program experiences of all students who participated in the school-to-work program.

Federal Administration

The Secretaries of Education and Labor will issue joint regulations for reviewing

approving state and local programs, and awarding grants. Other joint responsibilities include

- carrying out research, demonstration, evaluation, technical assistance, training, and dissemination activities;
- monitoring state and local programs
- disseminating labor market data to assist local consortia in developing programs;
- establishing, in concert with the states, a system for developing and reporting performance outcomes, and
- collecting and analyzing data on the implementation and effectiveness of new school-to-work systems

Grants to States and Localities

Initially, states may apply either for a planning and developing grant or an implementation grant. The planning/development grants are for those states which need to develop their plans for implementing a comprehensive, statewide system. The implementation grants are for states that

have built a sound planning and development base and are ready to implement a statewide system, including funding communities to create local school-to-work programs. Unsuccessful state applicants for implementation grants will be given the opportunity to apply for a planning and development grant. In the final years of the legislation, planning grants would be phased out and all states would have implementation grants.

Planning and Development Grants

In the applications, states must address the following:

- the timetable it expects to follow for producing a comprehensive state plan for school-to-work programs;
- how the active and continued involvement of representatives of secondary and postsecondary education, employers, labor organizations, parents, local elected officials, community-based organizations, and registered apprenticeship agencies among others will be obtained in the planning and development of school-to-work programs;
- how the state plans to serve low-achieving students and former students who have dropped out of school;
- how the federal, state and local resources will be used to build and sustain the school-to-work system;
- how the state will coordinate its planning activities with any local school-to-work program that has received a federal grant; and
- how the state is making satisfactory progress toward developing the statewide school-to-work plan if a state is applying for a follow-up Planning and Development Grant.

Planning and development funds may be used to support any activities that would further the purposes of the program. Examples include:

- creating broad-based partnerships;
- developing a marketing plan to build consensus and support for school-to-work programs;
- designing enabling state legislation, marketing and building support for the program; and
- developing a system for labor market

analysis.

Implementation Grants

State applications need to meet criteria specified by the Departments of Education and Labor, and grants will be awarded on a competitive basis.

A state's application for these funds must address different aspects of how a school-to-work system will be implemented including:

- the procedures for determining whether local school-to-work transition programs meet the basic program components and the safeguards identified in the legislation;
- how the active and continued involvement of employers, labor organizations, secondary and postsecondary institutions, teachers, parents, local elected officials and community-based organizations will be obtained and maintained in the implementation of a school-to-work program.
- the strategies and timetable it will use to implement a statewide school-to-work system available for all high school students, including those with special needs, the economically disadvantaged and low achieving students;
- the strategies and timetable it will use to implement a statewide school-to-work system available for former students who have dropped out of school;
- the state's plan for ensuring that young women and minorities will have opportunity to participate in school-to-work programs that will lead to employment in non-traditional occupations;
- the process for establishing statewide skill standards, consistent with national standards including procedures for assessing competencies and issuing skill certificates; and
- the designation of geographical areas to be served by local consortia.

States are authorized to spend implementation funds on any activities that would further the purposes of the program. Examples include:

- providing training for teachers, mentors, counselors;
- establishing statewide skill standards and certification systems based on national skill standards, when available;
- developing incentives to employers to provide work-based learning for students; and
- providing labor market information to local consortia that is useful in determining the high-skill, high-wage occupations that are in demand.

State Grants to Local Consortia

States are required to devote a substantial portion of their funds to local consortia who apply for grants. States will determine the application procedures and contents.

Local programs would be authorized to use federal funds for any activities that would further the purposes of the program. Examples include:

- integrating work-site learning into existing vocational educational programs, such as tech prep.
- assisting local employers to add structured work-based learning, industry certification, and postsecondary connections into existing part-time jobs;
- establishing or expanding school-to-apprenticeship programs.
- supporting community based organizations to develop school-to-work programs for at risk youth.
- establishing intermediaries between schools and employers to organize access to jobs and further education and training; and
- providing for release time for teachers, mentors and other school-to-work program staff to engage in staff and curriculum development.

Federal Grants to Local Programs

Localities which are prepared to imple-

ment a school-to-work program, but are in states still in the planning phase, may also apply for federal funds through a separate competition. Consortia are required to submit these grants to the state first for review and comment. This review is for state information purposes and is not a clearance process. Grants will be awarded on a competitive basis according to criteria established by the Departments of Education and Labor. Applications would provide information similar to the state applications for implementation grants. When the state has reached an implementation phase, these federally funded local programs would be incorporated into the state's school-to-work program.

Local programs that receive funds directly from the Departments of Education and Labor would be able to use federal funds on a wide range of activities. Suggested activities would be the same as those that are identified for local programs that receive funds from the state.

High Poverty Neighborhoods

The departments are authorized to award school-to-work grants to high poverty areas in urban and rural communities. These funds would be combined with funds from the Youth Fair Chance program, the Job Training Partnership Act, and other existing laws to provide support for a wide range of education, training, and support services for youth who reside in designated high poverty areas.

Relationship to Other Laws

State and local school-to-work programs are expected to utilize other appropriate Federal programs such as the Job Training Partnership Act, Perkins Vocational and Applied Technology Education Act, and Elementary and Secondary Education Act, and Targeted Jobs Tax Credit and determine how these programs will be used to support and sustain a comprehensive school-to-work system. The Departments of Education and Labor are authorized to consider limited waivers to provisions in one or more of these laws in order to enhance the relationship with the school-to-work program.

Limited Partnership

Safeguards

A wide range of safeguards to protect students and existing workers shall apply to school-to-work programs receiving funds under this Act. Among other stipulations, these safeguards will prohibit the displacement of any currently employed worker or reduction in the hours of nonovertime work, wages or employment benefits, ensure the integrity of existing contract for services or collective bargaining agreements and the applicability of health, safety and civil rights laws.

Key definitions include the following:

- "Career Majors" is one of the primary features of the new school-to-work curriculum and refers to a coherent set of courses or field of study which is directly related to the preparation of students for employment in broad occupational clusters or industry sectors.
- "Consortium" is a local entity that is responsible for the administration of local school-to-work programs and consists of representatives of secondary and postsecondary education, employers, labor organizations, parents, local elected officials, community-based organizations and registered apprenticeship officials, among others.

• "Skills certificate" means portable, industry recognized credentials that certify competency and mastery. These credentials would mean that a student has attained standards that are consistent with state standards issued in accord with national skill standards. If national skill standards have not yet been developed, the term may mean a certificate developed or approved by the state.

Authorization

\$500 million is authorized for FY 1995, and such sums as necessary is authorized for the subsequent fiscal years.

Thoughts On A National School-to-Work Transition Initiative

"Any successful school-to-work transition program is inevitably a shotgun marriage between educators, unions, and employers. The educators need to be involved to assure the academic interests of young people are closely protected, and that the cultural and civic purposes are preserved. Unions and other work representatives need to be involved to provide workers a voice. Business needs to be involved to assure that there is a real demand for the skills learned."

-Anthony Carnevale, American Society for Training and Development, July 28, 1993



Anthony P.
Carnevale

"The degree of cooperation between the Labor and Education Departments is truly historic. They appear to be using an enabling approach, rather than mandating a one-size-fits-all, top down solution. At the same time, their competitive grant process encourages states to build systems based on best experience."

-Hillary Pennington, July 29, 1993



William Kolberg

"Seventy-five percent of the jobs in the United States do not require a four-year college degree. If we are to compete in the 21st century global economy, we must develop a comprehensive school-to-work system that prepares our youth and ensures that our nation's businesses have the skilled workers they need. Although federal leadership is important, youth apprenticeship must be an employer-driven system, and we will continue to develop business/education partnerships to ensure that we build the best possible models."

-William Kolberg, National Alliance of Business, March 26, 1993

"I asked the German industrialist, if you just had to settle for one thing that gave you a competitive edge against the rest of the nations of the world, ...what would it be? He said, 'Our apprenticeship program..'"

-Treasury Secretary Lloyd Bentsen, December 14, 1992

Full Partnership

Goal: To increase the skill level of America's workforce, and prepare students for rewarding careers and economic security.

Means:

Allocation:

Implement *process changes* before *program changes*. These include:

- Motivate pupils to learn and teachers to teach through emphasizing relationships between the subject matter pupils are asked to learn and the needs of today's occupational society.
- Increase educational productivity on the part of both pupils and teachers through applying selected private sector productivity approaches in the education system.
- Ensure that pupils be actively encouraged to acquire positive sets of personally meaningful work values.
- Provide multiple opportunities for youth to experience both career awareness and career exploration through actual exposure to today's occupational society.

Implementation: Industry/Education Councils; A coordinated total community effort.

Cost: \$100 million per year to implement nationwide.

Status: Kenneth Hoyt served as director of the Division of Career Education with the U.S. Department of Education. Hoyt worked with Rupert Evans and Garth Mangum to develop the content of Career Education, compiling a book, *Career Education: What It Is and How To Do It*.

Point of View: "The need for truly collaborative working relationships in reforming American education is equally clear. This is not something the education system can do by itself. 'People change' reform proposals demand the involvement of the private sector."

Contact: Kenneth B. Hoyt, Ph.D., Distinguished Professor of Education, College of Education, Bluemont Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506-5312; (913) 532-5889.

Source: "Collaboration: The Key to Success in Private Sector/Education System Relationships," Kenneth B. Hoyt, Kansas State University

Collaboration: The Key to Success in Private Sector/Education System Relationships

By Kenneth B. Hoyt, University Distinguished Professor of Education, Kansas State University

The decade of the 1980s is certain to be remembered in American education for two things: (1) as a decade of educational reform proposals; and (2) as a decade of calls for private sector/education system joint efforts. The decade has seen limited progress toward tying these two things into a single package. I consider this to be a

serious mistake

The purpose of this presentation is to move toward correcting this mistake through brief discussion of three topics. First, I will present some changes in the nature of private sector/education system relationships. Second I will attempt to highlight the current situation with respect

to private sector/education system relationships and educational reform as it has evolved during the decade of the 1980s. Following this, I will propose four strategies which, if implemented in a coordinated fashion, appear to hold promise of tying educational reform more closely to private sector/education system relationships.

Historical Perspective

There is nothing new about calling for private sector/education system relationships. This was first done nationwide in 1906 with establishment of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education. ¹ At that time, effort was centered on (a) non-college-bound youth; (b) providing such youth with specific vocational skills required for entry level industrial jobs; and (c) using private sector persons in an advisory capacity. The relatively low level vocational skills demanded in the industrial society could be provided at the secondary school level.

The kinds of private sector/education system relationships currently being called for differ dramatically from those of the early 1900s in that they: (a) are aimed at all youth; (b) emphasize general employability skills needed in the emerging service/information/technology-oriented occupational society; and (c) involve private sector persons as participants—not advisors—in equipping youth with such skills. More and more jobs in the emerging occupational society will require specific vocational skills in training at the post-secondary level.

Additional kinds of comparisons may also be useful here. For example, the call for private sector/education system relationships in the early 1900s came at a time when public education in America was in the middle of a massive effort to make the right to a free K-12 education a birthright of all American youth. At that time, there was an obvious need for alternatives to the traditional college prep program offered by traditional secondary schools. Current calls for increases in private sector/education relationships are centered much more on the need to serve what some have called "The Forgotten Half"—i.e., the severely disadvantaged minority youth (including immigrants) who will constitute a growing

portion of tomorrow's work force.²

Still another basic difference can be seen by noting that the primary concerns of American industries in the early 1900s related to their ability to compete on a national scale. At the present time, the need has clearly shifted to concerns relative to the need to compete in the international marketplace.

Thus, while there is nothing new about the concept of education systems and the private sector joining forces to better prepare youth for the occupational society, dramatic differences exist behind the need for such relationships now as opposed to earlier times. The kinds of relationships appropriate in the past cannot be expected to work well today. New models are needed. In too many communities, the old models are still in place.

A Snapshot View of the Current Situation

The current situation in terms of how private sector/education system relationships relate to educational reform can be summarized in four short statements.

First, every educational reform proposal of the 1980s rooted its calls for change around the need to increase America's ability to compete in the international marketplace. Yet, none emphasized a "careers"-oriented approach to reform. Several failed to even consider the need to formulate and implement private sector/education system working relationships. Even worse, very few of these reform proposals have recognized, let alone centered on, the fact that five out of every six new labor market entrants between now and the year 2000 will be women, minority persons, and immigrants—those whose education/work needs are being met least well by the current education system.³

Second, the calls for increased private sector/education relationships during the 1980s have largely avoided explaining (a) why such relationships are needed; (b) what private sector persons, as opposed to educators, are being asked to do and (c) how efforts of multiple private sector firms can best be coordinated with those of local education systems. The uncertainty and confusion created by this lack of clarity have left negative impressions with many private sector persons.⁴

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE CAREER EDUCATION MOVEMENT

Pre-1970:

A "unified system of vocational education" was advocated by Kenneth Hoyt, a counselor educator who directed the Specialty Oriented Student Research Program (SOS) at the Universities of Iowa and Maryland, Rupert Evans, a vocational educator and Dean of the College of Education at the University of Illinois, and Garth Mangum, a Harvard Ph.D. in labor economics. This system would start "in the elementary school with familiarization with the world of work, followed in the junior high with study of the economic system and exposure to the range of occupations involved. The recommendation called for hands-on occupational exploration in high school, even for the college-bound and some post-secondary occupational preparation for all, integrated with on-the-job training as appropriate."

1970:

Sidney P. Marland Jr. became Commissioner of Education in the U.S. Office of Education under President Richard Nixon and coined the phrase, "all education is career education."

1972:

Public Law 92-318 established the foundation of federal support for "occupational education." Federal vocational education funds were used to fund 6 large scale demonstration models and a "mini-model" in every state as well as the District of Columbia and Puerto Rico.

1977:

38 evaluative studies of career education during 1970-1975 were reviewed by Robert Bhaerman. He found the result of 19 of the studies to be statistically significant and generally supportive of career education, 16 studies to be moderately supportive, and 3 to have minimal findings.

1981:

The career education office was deleted from the Department of Education with the repeal of the Career Education Incentive Act, leaving behind a cadre of grassroots level advocates but little lasting reform.

Third, the "partnership" concept in private sector/education system relationships has been largely destroyed during the decade of the 1980s through inappropriate and unwise actions. In the 1970s, the term "partnerships" was introduced as a legitimate term in which the education system and the private sector joined forces in identifying problems, formulating plans for solving such problems, and implementing programs to do so. During the 1980s, the term "partnerships" has placed private sector persons in such roles as "financial supporter," "classroom assistant," and/or "advisor" to the education system. The true meaning of the word "partners" has been largely lost.

Fourth, the private sector has, over the

decade of the 1980s moved through three clearly visible stages of involvement in educational reform. These are: (a) supporting the need for reform (early 1980s); (b) supplying the education system with private sector funds and assistance in implementing ideas proposed by educators (mid 1980s) and (c) insisting on expanding the breadth, depth, and speed of reform (late 1980s). As we approach the decade of the 1990s, the private sector appears even more insistent on making major changes in America's education system.⁵

The Concept of Collaboration

Positive private sector/educator relation-

Full Partnership

ships can best be developed to take advantage of the unique skills and knowledge each has. The knowledge private sector persons have regarding (a) the nature of the emerging occupational society; (b) educational competencies and skills required for success in the emerging society; and (c) the kinds of general employability/adaptability skills needed must be merged with those of educators regarding (a) how to organize materials for effective instruction; (b) how to relate with pupils in positive ways; and (c) how to help students learn. Sharing of expertise is the bedrock for effective relationships. Neither is an "assistant" to the other. Each is properly viewed as "consultant" to the other.

To the extent that educators and private sector persons are to share *responsibility* for helping pupils, then they must also share *authority*. To the extent they share *authority*, then they must also share *accountability*. This three-way sharing is what I have called **COLLABORATION**." (Others are also currently using the term "collaboration" but appear to mean quite different things. I can only hope that the term "collaboration" doesn't suffer the same fate during the 1990s as did the term "partnerships" during the decade of the 1980s!)

Suggested Strategies

Things that are obvious to almost all are often ignored by almost all. Here, an attempt will be made to list several "obvious" things which, in combination, may be helpful in improving private sector/education system relationships as a vehicle for educational reform.

1. Two basic kinds of educational change are possible. These are: (a) *process* change and (b) *structural* change. Process change can be thought of as "people change" and structural change can be thought of as "system change." There are four basic reasons why educational reform efforts should begin with process changes rather than program changes. These reasons are:

a. Process changes are much less expensive (in terms of dollars) than are program changes. Process changes require primarily effort, not money.

b. As a general rule, the least expensive change proposals should be tried and their results measured prior to investing in more costly reform efforts. Private sector persons know this rule well.

c. Unless "people change" creates attitudes of readiness for change, it will be difficult, if not impossible, to make structural changes work. To force structural changes on unwilling educators makes little sense.

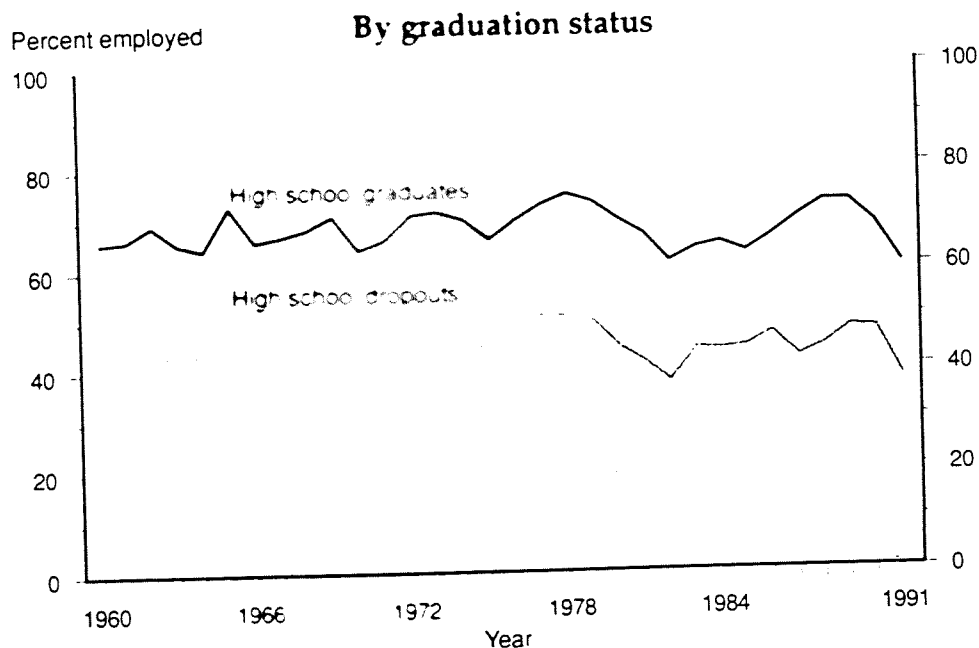
d. Much more is currently known about

how to conduct process change reform efforts than those calling for structural change. When choices are available among various reform proposals, it is usually wise to choose those we know how to carry out over those we don't.

2. It is obvious that the topic of private sector/education system joint efforts is applicable to process change proposals, but not to reform proposals calling for structural change. For example, educators and private sector persons can team up to help change pupil attitudes toward work—a process kind of change. On the other hand, implementing a change from a nine-month school year or a year-round school—a structural kind of change—is something done primarily by educators. While it demands support of the private sector, it is implemented through actions of educators.

3. Much remains to be done to promote trust, respect, and confidence among private sector persons, educators and youth. Typically, when any two of the three get together, they concentrate on criticizing the third. Thus, those process-change proposals most likely to build positive relationships between private sector persons, educators and pupils should be especially valued. Five kinds of process-change reform proposals hold especially high promise for doing so. These include:

Employment Rate Of Recent High School Dropouts And High School Graduates Not Enrolling In College 1960-1991



Source: Condition of Education, 1993, U.S. Department of Education.

a. Motivating pupils to learn and teachers to teach through emphasizing relationships between the subject matter pupils are asked to learn and the needs of today's occupational society. Educational experiences that help prepare pupils for occupational success are highly valued by both parents⁶ and by pupils.⁷

b. Increasing educational productivity on the part of both pupils and teachers through applying selected private sector productivity approaches in the education system. There is no way we can expect graduates of the education system to be productive members of the occupational society, if, during their K-12 schooling, they learn primarily unproductive work habits. The expertise of the private sector could be of great help in increasing productivity of both "pupil as worker" and "teacher as worker." The National Alliance of Business (1987) has recommended that teaching productive work habits should become an integral part of the curriculum.

c. Ensuring that pupils be actively encouraged to acquire positive sets of personally meaningful work values. There still appear to be many more persons looking for "jobs" than there are looking for "work." We know enough about work values to turn this situation around without getting into arguments relative to the "work ethic." This too, would be relatively inexpensive and an almost sure "winner" for a true collaborative effort. There is nothing wrong—and a great deal right—about championing a cause that proclaims we want all persons to *want* to work.

d. Establishing and operating "Industry/Education Councils" as advocated by the National Association for Industry-Education Cooperation (NAIEC). There is no way effective education system/community working relationships can be built and implemented if individual arrangements have to be made between the education system and each community organization. A coordinated total community effort is needed. NAIEC has been the nation's leading advocate of the "I/E/C Council" concept for more than 25 years. It is time its pleas for these councils be heard by educational reformers.

e. Providing multiple opportunities for youth to experience both career aware-

ness and career exploration through actual exposure to today's occupational society. It is obviously inefficient to ask the education system to simulate today's occupational society when, through collaborative arrangements, pupils can actually see and experience it.

During the 1970s, we called this combination of various kinds of "people change" approaches to educational reform "career education." Some of us still do. None of the major educational reform proposals of the 1980s even acknowledges the existence of career education. Much more important, none of these reports acknowledges the necessity for *process* ("people change") reform actions to precede *system* ("program change") reform proposals. Until and unless this situation is corrected, the chances of any "program change" approach to reform being as effective as it could be are slight. Hopefully, the decade of the 1990s will find this situation corrected.

4. From its beginning, the career education movement emphasized that the "people change" approach to reform should be regarded as a necessary, but not as a sufficient way to reform American education. For example, the first USOE policy paper on career education¹ identified 14 "system change" proposals and recommended each be given serious consideration in structural reform. For purposes of illustrating such reforms, a number of them have been grouped here in three categories. They include:

a. *Proposals calling for individualizing the teaching/learning process.* Examples of such proposals include (a) performance evaluation, (b) merit pay for teachers, (c) competency based instruction, (d) ungraded schools, (e) computer-assisted instruction, and (f) open entry/open exit K-12 school systems. These kinds of proposals possess great local appeal. Rudimentary knowledge required for making the kinds of pupil assessments vital to their use now exists. Research knowledge providing data required for nationwide implementation is still lacking. An immediate strong R&D effort aimed at acquiring such knowledge is badly needed. It seems clear that effective reform of American education demands that one or more of these kinds of proposals be implemented nationwide.

b. *Proposals calling for doing more of*

what is currently being done in the existing system. Examples of such proposals include those calling for (a) extending the length of the school day, (b) extending the length of the school year, (c) raising graduation requirements, and (d) raising the number of credit hours required for teacher certification. Such proposals can, to the extent the current system is working, perhaps make it work better. To the extent the current system isn't working, adding more almost guarantees that the result will be it won't work again.

c. *Proposals calling for reorganizing the current system.* Examples include (a) open enrollment options across school district lines; (b) magnet schools, and (c) year-round schools. While procedures for implementing such proposals are now available, knowledge regarding how to solve the many other local problems each creates is not. It seems clear none of these kinds of proposals are ready for nationwide adoption.

Concluding Remarks

It is obvious that relationships between education and work will grow even closer in the years ahead. We have not done all that should have been done to help persons deal with these relationships. Other nations against whom America currently competes in the world marketplace have education systems already superior to ours. If we continue present patterns, the situation will surely get much worse. Thus, the need for educational reform is clear.

The need for truly collaborative working relationships in reforming American education is equally clear. This is not something the education system can do by itself. "People change" reform proposals demand the involvement of the private sector. "System change" reform proposals demand the strong support of the private sector. It is hoped that the perspective presented here will stimulate further actions toward gaining both of these kinds of needed help.

Endnotes

¹ G. Venn, *Man, Education, and Work*, (Washington DC: American Council on Education, 1964), 184.

² William T. Grant Foundation, *The Forgotten Half: Pathways to Success for*

Full Partnership

America's Youth and Young Families, (Washington, DC: The Foundation, 1988), 202.

³W. Johnston, *Workforce 2000: Work and Workers in the Twenty-First Century*, (Indianapolis, IN: The Hudson Institute, 1987), 117.

⁴D. Kearns and D. Doyle, *Winning the Brain Race*, (San Francisco: ICS Press, 1988), 147.

⁵The Business Roundtable, *Business Means Business About Education*, (New York: The Roundtable, 1989), p. 75; L. Lund, *Beyond Business/Education Partnerships: The Business Experience*, (New York: The Conference Board, 1989), 27.

⁶S. Elam and A. Gallup, "The 21st Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 71(1), 41-56, 1989.

⁷R. Hutchinson and C. Reagan, "Problems For Which Seniors Would Ask For Help From School Counselors," *The School Counselor*, 36(4), 1989, 251-280.

⁸K. Hoyt, *An Introduction To Career Education: A Policy Paper of the U.S. Office of Education*, (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing), 40.

Comprehensive Career Education Model

Post High School and Adult: Career Specialization

Includes Programs in:

•Community Colleges •Junior Colleges •Apprenticeship •Vocational-Technical Colleges •Private Vocational-Technical Schools •4-Year Colleges and Universities.

where students will:

1. be involved in developing specific occupational knowledge and preparation in a specialized job area
2. have the opportunity to form meaningful employer-employee type relationships
3. be provided necessary re-training or upgrading skills.

Grades 10-12: Career Preparation/Decision-Making

Centers on Career Cluster programs at 10-12 grades where students will:

1. acquire occupational skills and knowledge for entry level employment and/or advanced occupational training
2. tie a majority of high school experiences into generalized career goals
3. develop acceptable job attitudes
4. be involved in cooperative work experience and have the opportunity to be a member of a vocational youth organization.

Grades 7-9: Career Exploration

Programs at the Junior High School level where students will:

1. explore key occupational areas and assess own interests and abilities
2. become familiar with occupational classifications and clusters
3. develop awareness of relevant factors to be considered in decision making
4. gain experience in meaningful decision making
5. develop tentative occupational plans and arrive at tentative/alternative career choices.

Grades K-6: Career Awareness

Includes programs in the elementary grades, where students will:

1. develop awareness of the many occupational careers available
2. develop awareness of self in relation to occupation in their potential careers
3. develop foundations for wholesome attitudes toward work and society
4. develop attitudes of respect and appreciation toward workers in all fields
5. make tentative choices of career cluster to explore in greater depth during mid-school years.

Proposed Legislation for a
National Voluntary Skill Standards and Certification System

FACT SHEET

- o The legislation would establish a National Skill Standards Board to serve as a catalyst in stimulating the development and adoption of a national system of voluntary skill standards.
- o The Board would be composed of 28 members, representing the major stakeholders in the national economy. This membership includes representatives of business, labor, government, and the education and training community.
- o The primary functions of the National Board would be:
 - Identifying, after extensive public consultation, broad clusters of major occupations which include one or more industries in the U.S.
 - Encouraging and facilitating the establishment of voluntary partnerships to develop skill standards systems for each of the occupational clusters identified.
 - * These voluntary partnerships must have the full and balanced participation of representatives of business, labor, education and training providers, and other stakeholders in the occupational cluster or industry for which standards are being developed.
 - Supporting the development of the voluntary skill standards system through research, maintaining a catalog of standards used in other countries and by leading U.S. firms, serving as a clearinghouse, developing a common nomenclature relating to standards, encouraging the development of appropriate curricula and training materials, providing technical assistance, and facilitating coordination among the voluntary partnerships developing the standards.
 - Endorsing the skill standards systems developed by the voluntary partnerships, so long as these systems meet objective criteria and have the following components:
 - * Skill standards that promote the portability of credentials and mobility of workers within an occupation or industry, are linked to the highest international standards and the requirements of high performance work organizations, and are

consistent with the civil rights laws prohibiting discrimination.

- * A voluntary system of assessment and certification of the attainment of skill standards which utilizes a variety of evaluation techniques to allow individuals an opportunity to demonstrate that they possess the skills.
 - * A system to promote the use of and disseminate information relating to the standards within the occupation or industry.
 - * A system to evaluate the implementation of the skill standards.
 - * A system to periodically revise and update the skill standards to take into account technological and other changes.
- o The Secretary of Labor is authorized to award grants and enter into contracts and cooperative arrangements requested by the National Board to carry out these functions, including grants to the voluntary partnerships developing the standards. The legislation authorizes \$15 million for these activities in Fiscal Year 94 and such sums as are necessary for Fiscal Years 95 through 99.

SKILL STANDARDS TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE AND EVALUATION

CAL, Inc. (with Aguirre International, Inc.) Evaluation

Under a contract awarded in June, 1993, CAL, Inc., working with Aguirre International, is conducting a review of the six DOL skill standards pilot projects. The evaluation is intended to describe and document each project's progress toward the development and implementation of voluntary skill standards and certification. It will also assess the effectiveness and replicability of the various approaches used by the projects to build their coalitions, identify broadly-defined occupations, and set and validate standards. Reports in the form of individual project profiles, due November 1993, will be followed by an analysis of "lessons learned" and any policy implications, due August 1994.

National Alliance for Business (NAB)

On June 30, 1993, NAB was awarded a technical assistance contract estimated at \$394,077 ceiling price to support initiatives toward the creation of a voluntary national system of skill standards. The statement of work envisions that the contractor will perform research in a variety of areas, e.g., integrating standards with existing training systems, identifying financial and other incentives, and exploring quality assurance measures. The first such project will address benchmarking standards to world-class levels of performance. The work consists of three subtasks to: 1) develop definitions for and a technical approach to benchmarking; 2) identify best practices among foreign and international standards relevant to the occupational clusters being addressed through the Departments pilot projects; and 3) develop project specific and generic benchmarking methodology reports.

Institute for Educational Leadership (IEL)

In late June 1993, IEL was awarded a contract estimated at \$374,435 to provide technical assistance to the Department and its six skill standards pilot projects. Under the terms of this contract, IEL will provide primarily on-site assistance on issues such as coalition building, task analysis, assessment, competency-based training and project implementation. The first task will be to assist in the development and distribution of a validation survey for one of the pilots.

SKILL STANDARDS STATUS REPORT SEPTEMBER 1993

SKILL STANDARDS PILOT PROJECTS

American Electronics Association (AEA)

The AEA has developed an impressive organizational framework for skill standards in the electronics industry that will serve as a model for other industries and occupational clusters. This prototype recommends that standards consist of four components: critical functions, competency modules, key elements and performance criteria. AEA is currently validating its first set of standards for three broad occupational clusters: Administrative/Information Services Support, Manufacturing Specialist and Pre/Post Sales Analyst. Validation is expected to be completed by early December at which time they will be compared to world-class levels of performance.

National Retail Federation (NRF)

The NRF is developing skill standards for Professional Retail Sales Associates, particularly for those employed in high performance work organizations. This project has involved defining HPWO within the retail industry as well as identifying the skills necessary for successful employment for a substantial portion of its non-baccalaureate degree workforce. The NRF is also on the forefront of forging linkages between the skill standards and school-to-work transition initiatives. Preliminary standards will be developed by the end of the calendar year.

National Electrical Contractor's Association (NECA)

The NECA has formed a broad-based coalition to review existing national standards used by registered apprentice programs and others for electrical workers (installers of electrical systems).

A job analysis study, funded by the National Joint Apprenticeship and Training Committee, is currently being conducted. Once the final results of this study become available, coalition members will work to draft and validate skill standards. Final standards are expected to be available in July 1994, assuming that DOL extends the award.

The National Tooling and Machining Association (NTMA)

NTMA has convened a Metalworking Industry Skill Standards Board which will oversee the development, maintenance and revision of skill standards for this industry. Setting and validating a comprehensive set of technical, employability and related academic skill standards for the occupation of Machining Technician is its first goal.

NTMA is still solidifying the coalition given its desire for this Board to be permanent and standards will most likely not be finalized until the summer of 1994, assuming that DOL extends the award.

Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education (CHRIE)

This industry has put together a broad coalition of industry leaders under two key umbrella organizations: Convocation of Hospitality and Tourism Industry trade associations and the industry's own skill standards board. The active participation of these groups ensures that the standards developed will be industry driven and ultimately industry accepted. The CHRIE is developing standards for two occupational clusters within the foodservice and lodging industries. The foodservice cluster covers all occupations involving frequent guest contact including non-supervisory restaurant manager, host/hostess, waiter/waitress, bartender, and busboy. The lodging cluster includes all occupations involving reservation, guest reception and front desk functions. CHRIE has now completed the identification of critical job tasks. This information will provide the basis for validation surveys which will be distributed throughout the industry in October. By December, an analysis of the survey responses will result in a preliminary list of skills, knowledge and abilities required in frequent guest contact activities for both the lodging and the foodservice clusters.

Institute of Industrial Launderers (IIL)

The Institute for Industrial Launderers is developing standards for two occupational groups, production worker and maintenance technician. The IIL completed their standards validation studies in September and expects to have several materials drafted Advisory Council/Task Force review in early October. These include: drafted industry standards, knowledge assessment tests, skill performance checks, selection and hiring guides, and definitions of the two occupational groups. The project expects to devote the coming months finalizing these products and promoting the development of standards and certification programs for the industry.

VOLUNTARY SKILL STANDARDS AND CERTIFICATION FACT SHEET

Under the leadership of Secretaries Robert Reich and Richard Riley, the Departments of Labor and Education have intensified their commitment to the development of a national system of voluntary skill standards and certification. Most recently, the Administration introduced the Goals 2000: Educate America Act. This act underscores the need to strengthen the connection between education and employment, specifically through the establishment of a National Skill Standards Board. This Board would ensure a framework for the development and implementation of a national system of voluntary skill standards and certification through voluntary partnerships which have the full and balanced participation of business, industry, labor, educators and other key groups.

WHY SKILL STANDARDS?

SKILL STANDARDS: What Are They? They identify the knowledge, skill and level of ability an individual needs to perform successfully in the workplace. Standards ensure the accurate communication among employers, educators, trainers and workers regarding the skills needed and the skills possessed. Standards can be tailored to any occupational cluster or industry to reflect its particular needs and economic environment. It is a matter of choice, however, whether an employer requires certification or a worker seeks to obtain it.

For decades America has held the competitive advantage in the world marketplace on the basis of superior mass production. Now we find ourselves in a new economic environment where this track record is no longer sufficient to ensure our continued success. Today, there is increased emphasis

on quality, variety, timeliness, customization and convenience. Furthermore, with the increased mobility of capital and technology, it is easy to replicate the factors of production anywhere in the world, with one exception - workforce skills.

The skills, adaptability, creativity and knowledge of American workers must be the foundation for our continued competitiveness. Our problem lies in the lack of connection between the skills needed in the workplace and the skills imparted through education and training. We are further hindered by the limited range of nationally recognized credentials; these are usually reserved for the college-educated with few options for the 75 percent of Americans who do not obtain a four-year degree.

This results in increased hiring and training costs, restricted employment opportunities, lack of quality assurance and a direct challenge to our ability to compete. There is an emerging

consensus in America that a national skill standards and certification system is the natural cornerstone of our workforce development strategy.

SKILL STANDARDS AND CERTIFICATION: BENEFITS FOR ALL

The standards and related certification may be used to inform decision-making in all sectors of the economy. For example,

- ▶ By industry as a vehicle to inform training providers and prospective employees of skills required for employment;
- ▶ By employers to reduce the costs and legal risks associated with the assessment of job candidates and make more objective employment decisions;
- ▶ By unions to increase members' employment security through access to competency-based training and certification;
- ▶ By workers to protect against dislocation, pursue career advancement and enhance their ability to reenter the workforce by having a work portfolio based on training to industry standards;
- ▶ By trainers and educators to determine appropriate training services to offer; and
- ▶ By government to protect the integrity of public expenditures by requiring that employment-related training meet industry standards where they exist.

EXAMPLES OF SKILL STANDARDS

The American Electronics Association, one of six DOL pilot projects, has made considerable progress in the development of voluntary standards for three occupational areas in their industry. While they have not yet been submitted for the validation process, the draft standards consist of three parts: critical functions, competency modules and key elements.

For example, one of the critical functions of an administrative/information services support person is "manage schedules and tasks to achieve objectives". A competency module associated with this function is "plan and coordinate travel arrangements for customers". The key elements are "research travel options" and "book travel arrangements". This standard is not yet complete as the performance criteria have not yet been developed.

News

United States
Department
of Labor



Office of Information

Washington, D.C. 20210

EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING ADMINISTRATION

Media Contact: Mary Meagher
Office: 202/219-8211

USDL: 93-274
FOR RELEASE: IMMEDIATE
Tues., July 13, 1993

LABOR SECRETARY REICH SUPPORTS NATIONAL, VOLUNTARY SKILL STANDARDS SYSTEM

A system of national, voluntary skill standards will provide the framework needed to ensure that workers have the portable skills required by today's fast-changing, global economy, according to Secretary of Labor Robert B. Reich.

"Broadly defined skill standards form the cornerstone of this Administration's workforce development system," Reich said. "When connected to educational standards, they will help create a seamless system of lifelong learning opportunities with certificates of mastery and competency that are accepted and recognized by employers."

Skill standards identify the knowledge, skill and level of ability an individual needs to perform successfully in the workplace. They ensure a common, standardized system for classifying and describing the skills needed for particular occupations and the skills possessed by individual workers. Skill standards can aid communication among employers, educators, trainers and workers regarding specific skill levels and needs.

Reich said the skill standards legislation, Goals 2000: Educate America Act, currently moving through the Senate, incorporates the fundamental requirements for success. The legislation is built around three basic principles:

- Skill standards must be voluntary;
- Skill standards must be industry-led with active participation of business, labor, educators, workers and others; and
- The process must knit together and integrate, but not duplicate, work already carried out by industry, by states, or by the education system.

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To further these goals, the bill establishes a national skill standards board to encourage, promote and assist partnerships representing business, labor, educators and others to develop and adopt a skill standards system that is relevant among industries.

"There is a disconnect between the skills people have and the skills the economy requires," Reich said. "Part of the problem is determining how to move a workforce suited to one sort of economy quickly and smoothly into a world grown suddenly quite different."

Explaining that the U.S. is the only industrialized nation without a formal system for developing and disseminating skill standards, Reich described the benefits of such a system:

- Students entering the labor force will have better information on the skill standards required to compete effectively for high-wage jobs;
- Businesses will have the information they need to hire highly skilled (but not necessarily college-educated) workers;
- There will be accountability among training providers because there will be measurable standards for evaluation.

Additional benefits to a skill standards system are: jobless Americans will be able seek retraining with confidence that the skills they gain will lead to new employment opportunities; unions will be able to better determine what skills and training are vital to their members' employment security; the U.S. will be able set goals for skill achievement, competencies and performance that can drive American economic growth.

"A skill standards system is an idea whose time has come and whose way has been paved in the thinking and organizing already under way both inside and outside of government," Reich said. "Putting together an effective system will provide the foundation for ongoing lifelong learning and enhance America's ability to productively match skills and jobs."

The Labor Department awarded six one-year grants last year to industry trade associations to develop and implement voluntary skill standards. Some of the occupations involved in the demonstrations include production technician, administrative assistant and professional sales associates. The grantees are:

Institute of Industrial Launderers; Council on Hotel, Restaurant and Institutional Education; National Tooling and Machining; American Electronics Association; National Electrical Contractors; and National Retail Federation.

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This information will be made available to sensory impaired individuals upon request. Voice phone: 202-219-6871; TDD Message Referral phone: 1-800-326-2577.

103D CONGRESS
1ST SESSION

Union Calendar No. 93

H. R. 1804

[Report No. 103-168]

To improve learning and teaching by providing a national framework for education reform; to promote the research, consensus building, and systemic changes needed to ensure equitable educational opportunities and high levels of educational achievement for all American students; to provide a framework for reauthorization of all Federal education programs; to promote the development and adoption of a voluntary national system of skill standards and certifications; and for other purposes.

IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

APRIL 22, 1993

Mr. KILDEE (for himself, Mr. FORD of Michigan, Mr. SAWYER, Mr. OWENS, Mrs. UNSOELD, Mr. ROEMER, Mr. ENGEL, Mr. GREEN, Ms. WOOLSEY, Mr. STRICKLAND, Mr. PAYNE of New Jersey, Mr. ROMERO-BARCELÓ, Mr. MURPHY, Mr. MARTINEZ, Mr. BAESLER, and Mr. CLYBURN) introduced the following bill; which was referred to the Committee on Education and Labor

JULY 1, 1993

Additional sponsors: Mr. WILLIAMS, Mr. ANDREWS of New Jersey, Mr. TOWNS, Mr. KLINK, Mrs. CLAYTON, Mr. MAZZOLI, Mr. FROST, Mr. RANGEL, Mr. BLACKWELL, Mr. GORDON, Mr. BARLOW, Ms. ENGLISH of Arizona, Mr. PASTOR, Mr. FURSE, Mr. HUGHES, Mr. PARKER, Mr. MCCURDY, Mr. OLVER, Mr. FALBOMAVAGA, Mr. EVANS, Mr. REYNOLDS, Mr. SCOTT, Mr. STUPAK, and Mr. DE LUCA

JULY 1, 1993

Reported with amendments, committed to the Committee of the Whole House on the State of the Union, and ordered to be printed

[Strike out all after the enacting clause and insert the part printed in italic]

[For text of introduced bill, see copy of bill as introduced on April 22, 1993]

1. (d) SECRETARY OF DEFENSE.—The Secretary shall
 2. consult with the Secretary of Defense to ensure that, to the
 3. extent practicable, the purposes of this title are applied to
 4. the Department of Defense schools.

5. TITLE IV—NATIONAL SKILL 6. STANDARDS BOARD

7. SEC. 401. PURPOSE.

8. It is the purpose of this title to establish a National
 9. Board to serve as a catalyst in stimulating the development
 10. and adoption of a voluntary national system of skill stand-
 11. ards and certification that will serve as a cornerstone of
 12. the national strategy to enhance workforce skills, and that
 13. can be used, consistent with Federal civil rights laws—

14. (1) by the Nation, to ensure the development of
 15. a high skills, high quality, high performance
 16. workforce, including the most skilled front-line
 17. workforce in the world, and that will result in in-
 18. creased productivity, economic growth and American
 19. economic competitiveness;

20. (2) by industries, as a vehicle for informing
 21. training providers and prospective employees of skills
 22. necessary for employment;

23. (3) by employers, to assist in evaluating the skill
 24. levels of prospective employees and to assist in the
 25. training of current employees;

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1 (4) by labor organizations, to enhance the em-
2 ployment security of workers by providing portable
3 credentials and skills;

4 (5) by workers, to obtain certifications of their
5 skills to protect against dislocation, to pursue career
6 advancement, and to enhance their ability to reenter
7 the workforce;

8 (6) by students and entry level workers, to deter-
9 mine the skill levels and competencies needed to be ob-
10 tained in order to compete effectively for high wage
11 jobs;

12 (7) by training providers and educators, to de-
13 termine appropriate training services to offer;

14 (8) by Government, to evaluate whether publicly-
15 funded training assists participants to meet skill
16 standards where they exist and thereby protect the in-
17 tegrity of public expenditures;

18 (9) to facilitate the transition to high perform-
19 ance work organizations;

20 (10) to increase opportunities for minorities and
21 women, including removing barriers to the entry of
22 women in non-traditional employment; and

23 (11) to facilitate linkages between other compo-
24 nents of the workforce investment strategy, including
25 school-to-work transition, secondary and postsecond-

1 *ary vocational-technical education, and job training*
2 *programs.*

3 **SEC. 402. ESTABLISHMENT OF NATIONAL BOARD.**

4 *(a) IN GENERAL.—There is established a National*
5 *Skill Standards Board (in this title referred to as the*
6 *“National Board”).*

7 *(b) COMPOSITION.—*

8 *(1) IN GENERAL.—The National Board shall be*
9 *composed of 28 members, appointed in accordance*
10 *with paragraph (3), of whom—*

11 *(A) one member shall be the Secretary of*
12 *Labor;*

13 *(B) one member shall be the Secretary of*
14 *Education;*

15 *(C) one member shall be the Secretary of*
16 *Commerce;*

17 *(D) one member shall be the Chairperson of*
18 *the National Education Standards and Improve-*
19 *ment Council established pursuant to section*
20 *212(a);*

21 *(E) eight members shall be representatives*
22 *of small and large business and industry selected*
23 *from among individuals recommended by recog-*
24 *nized national business organizations and trade*
25 *associations;*

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1 (F) eight members shall be representatives of
 2 organized labor selected from among individuals
 3 recommended by recognized national labor fed-
 4 erations; and

5 (G) eight members shall be representatives
 6 from the following groups, with at least one
 7 member from each group:

8 (i) Educational institutions.

9 (ii) Community-based organizations.

10 (iii) State and local governments.

11 (iv) Nongovernmental organizations
 12 with a demonstrated history of successfully
 13 protecting the rights of racial, ethnic and
 14 religious minorities, women, persons with
 15 disabilities or older persons.

16 (2) DIVERSITY REQUIREMENTS.—The members
 17 described in subparagraph (G) of paragraph (1) shall
 18 have expertise in the area of education and training.
 19 The members described in subparagraphs (E), (F),
 20 and (G) of paragraph (1) shall—

21 (A) in the aggregate, represent a broad
 22 cross-section of occupations and industries; and

23 (B) to the extent feasible, be geographically
 24 representative of the United States and reflect

1 the racial, ethnic and gender diversity of the
2 United States.

3 (3) *APPOINTMENT.*—The membership of the Na-
4 tional Board shall be appointed as follows:

5 (A) Twelve members (four from each class of
6 members described in subparagraphs (E), (F),
7 and (G) of paragraph (1)) shall be appointed by
8 the President.

9 (B) Six members (two from each class of
10 members described in subparagraphs (E), (F),
11 and (G) of paragraph (1)) shall be appointed by
12 the Speaker of the House of Representatives, of
13 whom three members (one from each class of
14 members described in subparagraphs (E), (F),
15 and (G) of paragraph (1)) shall be selected from
16 recommendations made by the Majority Leader
17 of the House of Representatives and three mem-
18 bers (one from each class of members described in
19 subparagraphs (E), (F), and (G) of paragraph
20 (1)) shall be selected from recommendations
21 made by the Minority Leader of the House of
22 Representatives.

23 (C) Six members (two from each class of
24 members described in subparagraphs (E), (F),
25 and (G) of paragraph (1)) shall be appointed by

1 the President pro tempore of the Senate, of whom
 2 three members (one from each class of members
 3 described in subparagraphs (E), (F), and (G) of
 4 paragraph (1)) shall be selected from rec-
 5 ommendations made by the Majority Leader of
 6 the Senate and three members (one from each
 7 class of members described in subparagraphs (E),
 8 (F), and (G) of paragraph (1)) shall be selected
 9 from recommendations made by the Minority
 10 Leader of the Senate.

11 (4) *TERM.*—Each member of the National Board
 12 appointed under subparagraphs (E), (F), and (G) of
 13 paragraph (1) shall be appointed for a term of 4
 14 years, except that of the initial members of the Board
 15 appointed under such paragraph—

16 (A) Twelve members shall be appointed for
 17 a term of 3 years (four from each class of mem-
 18 bers described in subparagraphs (E), (F), and
 19 (G) of paragraph (1)), of whom—

20 (i) two from each class shall be ap-
 21 pointed in accordance with paragraph
 22 (3)(A);

23 (ii) one from each such class shall be
 24 appointed in accordance with paragraph
 25 (3)(B); and

(iii) 1 from each such class shall be appointed in accordance with paragraph (3)(C); and

(B) Twelve members shall be appointed for a term of 4 years (four from each class of members described in subparagraphs (E), (F), and (G) of paragraph (1)), of whom—

(i) two from each such class shall be appointed in accordance with paragraph (3)(A);

(ii) one from each such class shall be appointed in accordance with paragraph (3)(B); and

(iii) one from each such class shall be appointed in accordance with paragraph (3)(C).

(c) CHAIRPERSON AND VICE CHAIRPERSONS.—

(1) CHAIRPERSON.—The National Board shall biennially elect a Chairperson from among the members of the National Board by a majority vote of such members.

(2) VICE CHAIRPERSONS.—The National Board shall annually elect 3 Vice Chairpersons (each representing a different class of the classes of members described in subparagraphs (E), (F), and (G) of sub-

1 section (b)(1)) from among its members appointed
2 under subsection (b)(3) by a majority vote of such
3 members, each of whom shall serve for a term of 1
4 year.

5 (d) *COMPENSATION AND EXPENSES.*—

6 (1) *COMPENSATION.*—Members of the National
7 Board who are not regular full-time employees or offi-
8 cers of the Federal Government shall serve without
9 compensation.

10 (2) *EXPENSES.*—The members of the National
11 Board shall receive travel expenses, including per
12 diem in lieu of subsistence, in accordance with sub-
13 chapter I of chapter 57, title 5, United States Code,
14 while away from their homes or regular places of
15 business in the performance of services for the Na-
16 tional Board.

17 (e) *EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR AND STAFF.*—The Chair-
18 person of the National Board shall appoint an Executive
19 Director, who shall be compensated at a rate determined
20 by the National Board that shall not exceed the rate of pay
21 for level V of the Executive Schedule under section 5316
22 of title 5, United States Code, and who shall appoint such
23 staff as is necessary in accordance with title 5, United
24 States Code. Such staff shall include at least one individual
25 with expertise in measurement and assessment.

1-65

1 (f) GIFTS.—The National Board is authorized, in car-
 2 rying out this title, to accept, purchase, or lease, and em-
 3 ploy or dispose of in furtherance of the purposes of this title,
 4 any money or property, real, personal, or mixed, tangible
 5 or intangible, received by gift, devise, bequest, or otherwise,
 6 and to accept voluntary and uncompensated services not-
 7 withstanding the provisions of section 1342 of title 31,
 8 United States Code.

9 (g) AGENCY SUPPORT.—

10 (1) USE OF FACILITIES.—The National Board
 11 may use the research, equipment, services and facili-
 12 ties of any agency or instrumentality of the United
 13 States with the consent of such agency or instrumen-
 14 tality.

15 (2) STAFF OF FEDERAL AGENCIES.—Upon the
 16 request of the National Board, the head of any de-
 17 partment or agency of the United States may detail
 18 to the National Board, on a reimbursable basis, any
 19 of the personnel of such department or agency to as-
 20 sist the National Board in carrying out this title.

21 (h) CONFLICT OF INTEREST.—An individual who has
 22 served as a member of the National Board may not have
 23 any financial interest in an assessment and certification
 24 system developed or endorsed under this title for a period

1 of three years after the termination of service of such indi-
2 vidual from the National Board.

3 **SEC. 403. FUNCTIONS OF THE NATIONAL BOARD.**

4 (a) **IDENTIFICATION OF OCCUPATIONAL CLUSTERS.—**

5 (1) **IN GENERAL.**—Subject to paragraph (2), the
6 National Board, after extensive public review and
7 comment and study of the national labor market,
8 shall identify broad clusters of major occupations that
9 involve one or more than one industry in the United
10 States.

11 (2) **PROCEDURES FOR IDENTIFICATION.**—Prior
12 to identifying broad clusters of major occupations
13 under paragraph (1), the National Board shall—

14 (A) develop procedures for the identification
15 of such clusters;

16 (B) publish such procedures in the Federal
17 Register; and

18 (C) allow for extensive public review of and
19 comment on such procedures.

20 (b) **VOLUNTARY PARTNERSHIPS TO DEVELOP STAND-**
21 **ARDS.—**

22 (1) **IN GENERAL.**—For each of the occupational
23 clusters identified pursuant to subsection (a), the Na-
24 tional Board shall encourage and facilitate the estab-

1 ~~lishment of voluntary partnerships to develop a skill~~
2 ~~standards system in accordance with subsection (d).~~

3 (2) *REPRESENTATIVES.*—Such voluntary part-
4 nerships shall include the full and balanced partici-
5 pation of—

6 (A) representatives of business and industry
7 who have expertise in the area of workforce skill
8 requirements, including representatives of large
9 and small employers, recommended by national
10 business organizations and trade associations
11 representing employers in the occupation or in-
12 dustry for which a standard is being developed,
13 and representatives of trade associations that
14 have received demonstration grants from the De-
15 partment of Labor or the Department of Edu-
16 cation to establish skill standards prior to the
17 enactment of this title;

18 (B) employee representatives who have ex-
19 pertise in the area of workforce skill require-
20 ments and who shall be—

21 (i) individuals recommended by recog-
22 nized national labor organizations rep-
23 resenting employees in the occupation or in-
24 dustry for which a standard is being devel-
25 oped; and

1 (ii) such other individuals who are
2 nonmanagerial employees with significant
3 experience and tenure in such occupation or
4 industry as are appropriate given the na-
5 ture and structure of employment in the oc-
6 cupation or industry;

7 (C) representatives of—

8 (i) educational institutions;

9 (ii) community-based organizations;

10 (iii) State and local agencies with ad-
11 ministrative control or direction over edu-
12 cation, vocational-technical education, or
13 employment and training;

14 (iv) other policy development organiza-
15 tions with expertise in the area of workforce
16 skill requirements; and

17 (v) non-governmental organizations
18 with a demonstrated history of successfully
19 protecting the rights of racial, ethnic, and
20 religious minorities, women, individuals
21 with disabilities, and older persons; and

22 (D) individuals with expertise in measure-
23 ment and assessment, including relevant experi-
24 ence in designing unbiased assessments and per-
25 formance-based assessments.

1 (3) *EXPERTS.*—The partnerships described in
2 paragraph (1) may also include such other individ-
3 uals who are independent, qualified experts in their
4 fields.

5 (c) *RESEARCH, DISSEMINATION, AND COORDINA-*
6 *TION.*—In order to support the development of a skill stand-
7 ards system in accordance with subsection (d), the National
8 Board shall—

9 (1) conduct workforce research relating to skill
10 standards (including research relating to how to use
11 skill standards in compliance with civil rights laws)
12 and make such research available to the public, in-
13 cluding the partnerships described in subsection (b);

14 (2) identify and maintain a catalog of skill
15 standards used by other countries and by States and
16 leading firms and industries in the United States;

17 (3) serve as a clearinghouse to facilitate the shar-
18 ing of information on the development of skill stand-
19 ards and other relevant information among represent-
20 atives of occupations and industries identified pursu-
21 ant to subsection (a), the voluntary partnerships rec-
22 ognized pursuant to subsection (b), and among edu-
23 cation and training providers through such mecha-
24 nisms as the Capacity Building and Information and

1 *Dissemination Network established under section*
 2 *453(b) of the Job Training Partnership Act;*

3 (4) *develop a common nomenclature relating to*
 4 *skill standards;*

5 (5) *encourage the development and adoption of*
 6 *curricula and training materials for attaining the*
 7 *skill standards developed pursuant to subsection (d)*
 8 *that include structured work experiences and related*
 9 *study programs leading to progressive levels of profes-*
 10 *sional and technical certification and postsecondary*
 11 *education;*

12 (6) *provide appropriate technical assistance; and*

13 (7) *facilitate coordination among voluntary*
 14 *partnerships that meet the requirements of subsection*
 15 *(b) to promote the development of a coherent national*
 16 *system of voluntary skill standards.*

17 (d) **ENDORSEMENT OF SKILL STANDARDS SYSTEMS.—**

18 (1) **DEVELOPMENT OF ENDORSEMENT CRI-**
 19 **TERIA.—**

20 (A) **IN GENERAL.—***The National Board,*
 21 *after extensive public consultation, shall develop*
 22 *objective criteria for endorsing skills standards*
 23 *systems relating to the occupational clusters*
 24 *identified pursuant to subsection (a). Such cri-*
 25 *teria shall, at a minimum, include the compo-*

1 *nents of a skill standards system described in*
 2 *subparagraph (B). The endorsement criteria*
 3 *shall be published in the Federal Register, and*
 4 *updated as appropriate.*

5 (B) COMPONENTS OF SYSTEM.—*The compo-*
 6 *nents of a skill standards systems shall include*
 7 *the following:*

8 (i) *Voluntary skill standards, which at*
 9 *a minimum—*

10 (I) *meet or exceed, to the extent*
 11 *practicable, the highest standards used*
 12 *in other countries and the highest*
 13 *international standards;*

14 (II) *take into account content and*
 15 *performance standards certified pursu-*
 16 *ant to title II;*

17 (III) *take into account the re-*
 18 *quirements of high performance work*
 19 *organizations;*

20 (IV) *are in a form that allows for*
 21 *regular updating to take into account*
 22 *advances in technology or other devel-*
 23 *opments within the occupational clus-*
 24 *ter;*

(V) are formulated in such a manner that promotes the portability of credentials and facilitates worker mobility within an occupational cluster or industry and among industries; and

(VI) are not discriminatory with respect to race, color, gender, age, religion, ethnicity, disability, or national origin, consistent with Federal civil rights laws.

(ii) A voluntary system of assessment and certification of the attainment of skill standards developed pursuant to subparagraph (A), which at a minimum—

(I) takes into account, to the extent practicable, methods of assessment and certification used in other countries;

(II) utilizes a variety of evaluation techniques, including, where appropriate, oral and written evaluations, portfolio assessments and performance tests; and

(III) includes methods for establishing that the assessment and certification system is not discriminatory with respect to race, color, gender, age, religion, ethnicity, disability, or national origin, consistent with Federal civil rights laws.

(iii) A system to promote the use of and to disseminate information relating to skill standards, and assessment and certification systems developed pursuant to this paragraph (including dissemination of information relating to civil rights laws relevant to the use of such standards and systems) to entities such as institutions of post-secondary education offering professional and technical education, labor organizations, trade associations, employers providing formalized training and other organizations likely to benefit from such systems.

(iv) A system to evaluate the implementation of the skill standards, and assessment and certification systems developed pursuant to this paragraph, and the effectiveness of the information disseminated

1 pursuant to subparagraph (C) for inform-
 2 ing the users of such standards and systems
 3 of the requirements of relevant civil rights
 4 laws.

5 (v) A system to periodically revise and
 6 update the skill standards, and assessment
 7 and certification systems developed pursu-
 8 ant to this paragraph, which will take into
 9 account changes in standards in other coun-
 10 tries.

11 (2) *ENDORSEMENT.*—The National Board, after
 12 extensive public review and comment, shall endorse
 13 those skill standards systems relating to the occupa-
 14 tional clusters identified pursuant to subsection (a)
 15 that—

16 (A) meet the objective endorsement criteria
 17 that are developed pursuant to paragraph (1);
 18 and

19 (B) are submitted by partnerships that meet
 20 the representation requirements of subsection
 21 (b)(2).

22 (e) *LIMITATIONS.*—

23 (1) *IN GENERAL.*—The National Board shall not
 24 carry out the requirements of subsections (b) or (d)
 25 with respect to any occupation or trade within any

1 industry for which national apprenticeship
2 standards—

3 (A) have been jointly developed by labor
4 and management representatives,

5 (B) are registered pursuant to the National
6 Apprenticeship Act, and

7 (C) are being actively used on a national
8 basis for training workers in such occupation or
9 trade,

10 unless labor and management representatives of such
11 occupation or trade and representatives of registered
12 apprenticeship programs within such occupation or
13 trade jointly request the assistance of the National
14 Board.

15 (2) RELATIONSHIP WITH ANTIDISCRIMINATION
16 LAWS.—

17 (A) IN GENERAL.—Nothing in this title
18 shall be construed to modify or affect any Fed-
19 eral or State law prohibiting discrimination on
20 the basis of race, religion, color, ethnicity, na-
21 tional origin, gender, age, or disability.

22 (B) EVIDENCE.—The endorsement or ab-
23 sence of an endorsement by the Board of a skill
24 standard or assessment and certification system
25 under subsection (d) shall not be used in any ac-

tion or proceeding to establish that the skill
 standard or assessment and certification system
 conforms or does not conform to the requirements
 of civil rights laws.

(f) COORDINATION WITH EDUCATION STANDARDS.—

The National Board shall establish cooperative arrange-
 ments with the National Education Standards and Im-
 provement Council to promote the coordination of the devel-
 opment of skill standards under this title with the develop-
 ment of content and performance standards under title II.

(g) FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE.—

(1) IN GENERAL.—From funds appropriated
 pursuant to section 406(a), the Secretary of Labor
 may award grants (including grants to the voluntary
 partnerships in accordance with paragraph (2)) and
 enter into contracts and cooperative arrangements
 that are requested by the National Board for the pur-
 poses of carrying out this title.

(2) GRANT PROGRAMS FOR VOLUNTARY PART-
 NERSHIPS.—

(A) ELIGIBILITY AND APPLICATION.—Vol-
 untary partnerships that meet the requirements
 of subsection (b) shall be eligible to apply for a
 grant under this subsection. Each such voluntary
 partnership desiring a grant shall submit an ap-

1 application to the National Board at such time, in
 2 such manner, and accompanied by such informa-
 3 tion as the National Board may reasonably re-
 4 quire.

5 (B) APPROVAL CRITERIA.—Prior to each
 6 fiscal year, the National Board shall publish ob-
 7 jective criteria for the approval of grant applica-
 8 tions submitted pursuant to subparagraph (A).

9 (3) LIMITATION ON THE USE OF FUNDS.—

10 (A) IN GENERAL.—Not more than 20 per-
 11 cent of the funds appropriated under section
 12 406(a) for each fiscal year shall be used by the
 13 National Board for the costs of administration.

14 (B) COSTS OF ADMINISTRATION DEFINED.—

15 For purposes of this paragraph, the term “costs
 16 of administration” means costs relating to staff,
 17 supplies, equipment, space, travel and per diem,
 18 costs of conducting meetings and conferences,
 19 and other related costs.

20 SEC. 404. DEADLINES.

21 Not later than December 31, 1996, the National Board
 22 shall—

23 (1) identify occupational clusters pursuant to
 24 section 403(a) representing a substantial portion of
 25 the workforce; and

(2) promote the development of an initial set of skill standards in accordance with section 403(d) for such clusters.

SEC. 405. REPORTS.

The National Board shall submit to the President and the Congress in each fiscal year a report on the activities conducted under this title, including the extent to which skill standards have been adopted by employers, training providers, and other entities and the effectiveness of such standards in accomplishing the purposes described in section 401.

SEC. 406. AUTHORIZATION OF APPROPRIATIONS.

(a) IN GENERAL.—There are authorized to be appropriated \$15,000,000 for fiscal year 1994 and such sums as may be necessary for each of the fiscal years 1995 through 1998 to carry out this title.

(b) AVAILABILITY.—Amounts appropriated pursuant to subsection (a) shall remain available until expended.

SEC. 407. DEFINITIONS.

For purposes of this title, the following definitions apply:

(1) COMMUNITY-BASED ORGANIZATIONS.—The term “community-based organizations” means such organizations as defined in section 4(5) of the Job Training Partnership Act.

(2) *EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION*.—The term “educational institution” means a high school, a vocational school, and an institution of higher education.

(3) *SKILL STANDARD*.—The term “skill standard” means the level of knowledge and competence required to successfully perform work-related functions within an occupational cluster.

TITLE V—MISCELLANEOUS

SEC. 501. DEFINITIONS.

As used in this Act—

(1) the terms “all students” and “all children” mean students or children from a broad range of backgrounds and circumstances, including disadvantaged students, students with diverse racial, ethnic, and cultural backgrounds, American Indians, Alaska Natives, Native Hawaiians, students with disabilities, students with limited-English proficiency, migrant children, school-aged children who have dropped out, migrant children, and academically talented students;

(2) the terms “community”, “public”, and “advocacy group” are to be interpreted to include representatives of organizations advocating for the education of American Indian, Alaska Native, and Native Hawaiian children and Indian tribes;