

CHAPTER 13

Preparing for Work

THINGS TO REMEMBER

- The many options open to American workers to attain the education and training they need prior to employment
- The magnitude of the high school dropout problem and sources of assistance and training for dropouts
- The major sources of financial aid for postsecondary education and how it can be located

It is common knowledge that there is a positive relationship between the educational level attained and lifetime earnings. To be sure, a tackle in the National Football League makes more than the orthopedic surgeon that reconstructed his broken arm, and rock stars make more money than almost everyone else. It is also the case that educational attainment is not accompanied by a written guarantee that the completion of a bachelor's degree comes with a written guarantee of employment or, if graduates are able to land a job, a salary that guarantees a comfortable lifestyle. College graduates are very often underemployed, which in plain English means that they make less money than their educational attainment would lead them to expect. What is more, many college graduates cannot find jobs at all. The fact is that many people who graduate from college make poor occupational choices that offer little opportunity after graduation.

Preparing for work begins with choosing a job that suits the individual's talents, followed by getting the best possible education or training for that job. Phase two of the path to employment requires the development of job acquisition skills: locating, contacting, interviewing for, and negotiating for the best offer. Occupational choice is the beginning. Accepting a job is a midpoint. Continuing to improve one's skills and continuing in a lifelong search completes the process.

Education is often touted as the road out of poverty, but there is increasing doubt that our schools are up to setting poor people on the right path. Some believe that our educational institutions, particularly our public K to 12 schools, are rapidly becoming second-class institutions that

serve our society poorly. They point to National Educational Assessment Program data that compares U.S. students with those in other developed countries via standardized test results to support their case. The bottom line is that typical American students do less well than students in other countries, but that is not the entire story. Jerry Trusty and I (Brown & Trusty, 2005) reviewed the data and came to a different conclusion: Our schools are failing poor white and minority students to the greatest degree. If that conclusion is correct, our goal of helping marginalized groups attain economic equity is, at best, difficult.

As a career counselor, you have two tasks to perform. First, familiarize yourself with the educational opportunities that are available to your clients and teach them how to negotiate the system to prepare themselves for a high-quality occupation. Second, advocate for better schools, colleges, and training programs for the adolescents and adults in this country. The information in this chapter will set you on the path to the knowledge you need to perform these tasks.

TRAINING TIME

Training time can be divided into two broad types: general education and specific vocational preparation. The first includes all the general academic preparation that develops reasoning and adaptability, decision-making skills, the ability to understand and follow directions, and the ability to work cooperatively with others. It also includes the development of basic educational skills, such as mathematics, language usage, reading, and writing. Acquisition of these skills starts no later than an individual's first day of kindergarten and, in most cases, many months earlier. To the general education requirements, I would add foreign language skills. The global job market requires workers to have the ability to read, write, and speak the language of the country in which they are employed. It is already the case that many jobs in this country require the ability to speak Spanish, because many of the workers and the clients of the businesses are of Hispanic origin and have limited ability to speak English. Although much general education is acquired outside of the classroom and supplements the school curriculum, most is learned in school.

Specific vocational preparation is training directed toward learning techniques, knowledge, and skills needed for a specific job and situation. In general, an individual becomes concerned with obtaining specific vocational preparation after a tentative career decision has been made and the person recognizes (usually in the planning period) that she or he must acquire certain skills and knowledge to implement the decision.

Every occupation requires some combination of these two types of preparation. Continued attendance in public or private secondary school typically enhances the development of a student's general educational development. However, specific vocational preparation is often gained outside of K to 12 schools, although there are exceptions for students who choose to pursue a vocational curriculum. For these students, preparation for work is included in the high school program. Other students may leave school prior to graduation and enter a training program in a community college, vocational technical school, or as an OJT trainee. On-the-job training is typically the route followed by high school dropouts and graduates who choose not to pursue some form of postsecondary education. Many high school graduates do elect a postsecondary educational route that may or may not include a college degree, a graduate program, or some form of professional education.

It is important to note that students who do decide not to complete high school increase the likelihood of sustained periods of unemployment and lower wages when they are employed. Statistics indicate that 857 students drop out of school every hour of every school day. About one

quarter of all students and four in ten minority students do not graduate from high school. (Krache, 2012). Although the factors that lead students to leave school before they graduate are many, a well-developed career development program that begins as early as sixth grade can reduce the dropout rate. Well-designed programs can answer the question, "Why do I have to learn this stuff?"—a question that has to be answered for many students if they are to be kept in school.

HIGH SCHOOL AND PREPARATION FOR WORK

Preparing high school students to enter the labor market has been a longstanding concern in this country. In contrast to some European countries, students in the United States are not tracked into college and noncollege options based on test scores and grades. The U.S. approach has the advantage of not foreclosing educational and career options prematurely. The disadvantage of the system is that when students complete their secondary schooling many have difficulty making the transition to work. One legislative effort, the School-to-Work Opportunities Act (STWOA) of 1994, was developed to address this concern. This legislation provides money to schools to develop instructional programs based on both academic and occupational standards; to provide opportunities to all students to engage in work-based learning, including work experience, mentoring, and apprenticeships; and to provide what are termed *connecting activities*, which develop links between the workplace and schools. The STWOA has been reinforced by several other pieces of legislation, including the amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004, the Goals 2000: Educate America Act, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, and the National Skills Standards Act of 1994. There are several implications related to these acts:

1. School-to-work (STW) activities may begin as early as kindergarten.
2. Students with disabilities must have STW transition plans as a part of their individualized education programs (IEPs).
3. Coordination of school activities with other agencies is required.
4. Work-based learning should be a part of the program.
5. Employers should be involved in the design and implementation of the program.
6. Career exploration and counseling are an integral part of the program, and students involved in the program must choose a career major no later than grade 11.

In North Carolina, middle school students complete a plan for their four-year course of study that is intended to lead to one of four options: college or university, postsecondary education to include technical careers or college (tech-prep), occupational education, or non-diploma. Although vocational education programs may not be included in every high school, such programs may be offered at specialized schools in the district. In addition to vocational education, some schools offer a variety of work experience programs that directly address the need to prepare high school graduates for the workforce. The school-to-work initiative was not intended to supplant these approaches, which are discussed in next section in some detail. However, STW was intended to address a concern that schools often ignore, the transition from school to work.

Vocational Education

Vocational education programs were formally established in the United States during World War I and have received continuing support since then. Such programs offer specific vocational

preparation in a variety of occupations ranging from cosmetology and the building trades to printing and auto repair. Many vocational education programs require the completion of rigorous educational programs and thus are open primarily to students with relatively high academic ability. However, some schools offer vocational education programs such as shoe repair that accommodate students with relatively low academic ability. Often, the admission to vocational education programs that require high levels of academic aptitude is highly competitive. The result is that many students who wish to enter them are precluded from doing so.

Work Experience Programs

Many secondary schools include in their curricula some opportunities for students to combine study in the classroom with experience in an employment situation. These opportunities vary slightly from school to school and are known by a range of titles: cooperative work experience, distributive education, office practice, job experience, and diversified training. These programs are usually incorporated into the school's vocational curriculum. The general purpose of these programs is to prepare selected students for employment while they complete their high school education. Successful participation in a work experience program results in high school graduation, a sound, basic, general education, and preparation for full-time employment in a chosen occupation.

Operationally, work study programs depart from traditional high school instructional procedures. Often, the students in the group are involved in widely varied occupations; in fact, one of the titles used for this type of program—diversified cooperative education—stresses variety of job experience. The programs require cooperation between high school coordinators and local employers, who divide instructional and supervisory responsibilities to assist the student in gaining occupational competence. In general, then, this is a school-community program of vocational instruction that uses the training and educational resources, facilities, and personnel of both the local school and the community. The program is expected to accomplish the following objectives:

1. The student establishes an occupational objective consistent with abilities and interests.
2. The student develops skills necessary for full-time employment as a worker or as an apprentice in a chosen occupation.
3. The student acquires related and technical information necessary for occupational performance.
4. The student develops appropriate attitudes and personal characteristics that enhance adjustment, success, and progress in the occupational field.
5. The student becomes increasingly mature in his or her relationship to school and to economic, social, and home life.

The specific objectives can be thought of in terms of (1) the job skills that the student needs to master, (2) the knowledge that must be gained to perform the work with intelligence and judgment, and (3) the personal and social traits that must be developed to get along well on the job and in the community. The instruction in job skills is provided by the employer under actual employment conditions. Students usually work a minimum of 15 hours a week, most of which is scheduled during the regular school day.

The typical program permits a student, usually in the junior or senior year, to attend classes half-time and to work in an assigned employment position the remainder of the school hours. In a few large city systems, the student spends one week in school and the following week at work,

alternating with a fellow student on a reverse schedule. The most common situation, however, has the student in school in the morning and on the job in the afternoon. The student is supervised by the employer in the work assignment, but a school staff member serves as a liaison between the school and the employer and maintains close contact with both the student and the employer. The student earns academic credit for the work assignment as part of the school's vocational education curriculum.

All participants are enrolled in a related study class or classes that meet for at least one regular class period each school day. The classes are taught by the school staff members who are responsible for the program. Most of the instruction is technical and has a direct relationship to the student's work assignment. The courses provide trainees with information that helps them in their work. Because the students are usually involved in a wide range of occupational assignments, they have a similar variety of individual training plans, so the class work is provided necessarily on an individual basis, using special instructional materials.

General information for beginning workers is included in the program of classes. Topics covered usually include units on employer-employee relations, Social Security provisions, money management, income tax problems, personality and work, and labor organizations. Some schools arrange the program so that each day includes one period of general related instruction and another period of specialized or individualized instruction based on placement.

Work experience in these programs is completely realistic, because it has every characteristic of a regular job, including pay. The student has an opportunity to face the same situation that every worker encounters, with the added advantage of having a coordinator to assist in making adjustments or solving the problems encountered in the position.

The placement of students may not be completely aligned with their career goals, but even in these situations the students are advantaged in several ways. They are provided an opportunity to gain insight into the work situation and their responsibility in it. They learn to adjust to the employer, fellow workers, the public served, and to the overall demands of the work situation. They also learn the importance of punctuality, cooperation, responsibility, paths for advancement, and similar factors that are beyond simple vocational skill. It is not unusual for participants, on completing their schooling, to accept full-time employment with the companies in which they were placed for work experience, although employment after school is not necessarily an expectation. Participants gain an additional advantage later because they can list actual experience on their resumes when seeking full-time employment.

Inevitably, work experience programs also have some disadvantages. It is not always possible to acquire placement sites that serve the best interests of the students. Some employers are primarily concerned with obtaining inexpensive workers when they should be interested in training each student. Similarly, students may enter the programs principally for the financial benefits rather than for vocational preparation. Some programs have such strict admission requirements that the students who most need assistance are ineligible to participate. Because of the time consumed in field supervision, in consultation with employers, and in observation of student workers on the job, program coordinators can effectively handle only a limited number of students; consequently, the program is rarely as extensive as it should be to meet the needs of most non-college-bound students in a particular high school.

Though rarely used to the fullest extent, the work experience program offers an opportunity for most secondary schools to render a service to both students and community by helping students prepare themselves realistically for post-high school employment. Close cooperation between the coordinator and the school counselor brings more effective selection and placement in the program and more satisfying results to the student, school, and community.

Advocates for career development programs point to the work experience program as illustrative of the close school-community cooperation considered essential for effective career education. They suggest that all students should have work experience placements, beginning in grade 9 with exploratory programs and culminating in grade 12 with work skills development. Early placements would not involve pay. Placements extending over several school years and incorporating a variety of work assignments would provide students with a better understanding of the workplace as well as a set of marketable skills. It also seems likely that schools and the business community would be drawn together into cooperative relationships that would be mutually beneficial. The Crowley Independent School District of Crowley, Texas (www.crowley.k12.tx.us), offers a number of career and cooperative education programs, including horticulture, science and technology, business education, computer/technology education, family and consumer sciences, and cosmetology.

Academies

One of the newest approaches to preparing students for the labor market is the academy, which was developed in response to initiatives from business and industry. An academy, much like many vocational education programs, is a program designed to prepare students to work in a specific occupation. One of the best-known academies was developed by Cisco Systems, the major manufacturer of devices called routers that link together computer and telephone systems. This highly successful corporation found that there was a substantial shortage of technicians who could repair their equipment. In response to this shortage, executives from Cisco Systems designed a high school curriculum for training technicians and a certification examination that would ensure that graduates of the program were sufficiently trained to perform the tasks required.

Health science academies have been developed that provide specific vocational preparation and introduce students to the broad array of health science occupations typically under the auspices of vocational education. At the conclusion of one such academy, students are eligible to sit for the Emergency Medical Technician examination, which many successfully pass. However, many others decide to pursue postsecondary training that leads to other careers in health science. Both Cisco academies and the health science academies bridge academic and vocational programs and provide students with the options of electing to continue their educations at the postsecondary level or going directly to work.

OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM—NO DIPLOMA REQUIRED

As noted in the introduction, U.S. schools have difficulty retaining all of their students until they graduate. About 20 percent fail to graduate, according to the U.S. Department of Education (2013), which relied on governmental statistics for its report. The group usually referred to as (2013), which relied on governmental statistics for its report. The group usually referred to as high school dropouts includes many who might more appropriately be labeled "pushouts" or "lostouts." Some individuals decide that the school program has nothing to offer them and voluntarily leave when they reach the legal age or shortly thereafter. Others, confronting difficult problems—poverty, parental discouragement, lack of family, pregnancy, personal adjustment or behavioral problems, addiction, and so forth—do not receive sufficient help from the school to overcome the difficulties they face. With some obvious exceptions, most of those who leave before graduation are likely to face the greatest problems in finding, obtaining, and keeping jobs. Dropouts rarely leave school with a carefully developed career plan. The result is that they have

no specific vocational preparation and only a marginal general education. Unfamiliarity with work makes them ignorant of how to seek work, what kinds of jobs might fit their qualifications, and where those jobs are. Those who find their way to state employment security agencies are helped by referral to other local agencies that may be able to provide some of the needed services or by referral to employers who are seeking unskilled, entry-level workers. In general, two possibilities are available for this group unless they complete their high school work: on-the-job training (OJT) or skill acquisition through programs such as the Job Training Partnership Act.

On-the-Job Training

Some employment situations require neither specialized educational preparation nor specific vocational experience as a prerequisite. The absence of such requirements usually means that the work either can be learned readily during a brief demonstration period or is such that only a minimal general education is necessary to prepare the worker. The employer may prefer, for a variety of reasons, to hire inexperienced workers who can be trained as desired, paid little or nothing in fringe benefits, and let go without fear of legal retribution.

For the most part, employers offer on-the-job training when the essentials of job performance can be learned in a relatively brief period of time. However, there are exceptions. When the job is performed by a team or crew of skilled workers, new employees may be assigned to a team as helpers, in which role they learn the complexities of the job by observing and assisting skilled practitioners for a specified period. Some employers may rotate beginners' assignments so that they serve a period with several teams involved in different aspects of the work, thus becoming familiar with several phases before assignment to a specific job.

Job Training Partnership Act as Amended by STWOA of 1994

Since World War II, the United States has attempted to develop a system for training or retraining workers needed in certain parts of the economy. The Manpower Defense Training Act served this purpose during the war years, training workers to fill positions in rapidly expanding defense and war-related industries. This was followed by the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), which provided workers with skills needed in new and expanding industries. Training was aimed especially at unemployed or underemployed individuals. Next, the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) was developed to provide a decentralized program in which state and local units of government could develop training programs to meet local conditions and the needs of prospective employers as well as those of unemployed or underemployed workers. CETA was replaced by the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA) in 1982. More than 1 million people receive training under the auspices of JTPA each year.

JTPA authorizes state-level officials to designate "service delivery areas"—that is, geographic regions consisting of contiguous counties or other political units that constitute a "labor market." Within each service delivery area, a Private Industry Council is created, consisting primarily of representatives of businesses or industries in the area and with responsibility for policy guidance and administrative oversight of job training in the area. The Private Industry Council and local government officials must concur on the local plan and its administration; this local plan then must be approved by the state governor's office. The law requires that 70 percent of the funds available to a service delivery area be spent on training. Each state, through the governor's office, is required to monitor programs in service delivery areas.

The legislation that established JTPA authorizes a wide range of training activities aimed at economically disadvantaged youth and adults to prepare them for unsubsidized employment.

Programs may include on-the-job training, classroom training, remedial education, basic skills training, and job search assistance. At least 40 percent of the funds must be spent for disadvantaged youth between the ages of 16 and 21. Ninety percent of the participants must be economically disadvantaged. The other 10 percent must have identifiable labor market disadvantages, and might include individuals with disabilities, prior offenders, displaced homemakers, older workers, teenage parents, and others.

JTPA legislation also authorized state-administered programs to assist dislocated workers and homemakers, including workers from permanently closed plants, offenders, veterans of the Vietnam War, disabled veterans, and the long-term unemployed who have little prospect of obtaining local employment. Services provided may include job search assistance, retraining, prelayoff assistance, and relocation. Currently, many of these services are offered through One-Stop Career Centers.

The 1994 School-to-Work Opportunities Act (STWOA) was initiated to facilitate partnerships between public schools and business organizations. It is typically operated by a board or council comprised primarily of representatives from businesses and schools and strives to integrate academic and vocational education. Hollenbeck (1997) reports that the intent of STWOA was to stimulate educational reform and to enhance the career preparation of high school students. He also suggests that the program has fallen far short of its primary goals, an observation echoed by Kash (2009). Kash suggests that much of the problem with school-to-work programs stems from the hesitancy of businesses to work with high school students. She also affirms that these programs can be effective and presents anecdotal support for her affirmation.

The Job Corps

The Job Corps (<http://jobcorps.doleta.gov>), which is a no-cost, residential program with more than 120 centers throughout the United States, was first established in 1964 as a result of the passage of the Equal Opportunity Act. Originally intended to serve high school dropouts, The Job Corps currently serves individuals ranging from ages 16 to 24, unless they have disabilities, whereupon no age restriction applies. Job Corps Centers provide the following services:

- Intensive counseling designed to increase students' self-esteem
- Medical services
- Remedial education
- Specific, realistic vocational education
- Social skills development aimed at helping enrollees obtain and keep jobs
- Educational experiences intended to lead to high school diplomas or GED certificates
- Citizenship training

Eligibility to enroll in Job Corps, in addition to the age parameters noted previously, is based on the following criteria:

- Being a U.S. citizen or a legally admitted alien
- Having a low income
- Being a school dropout or an individual who requires additional academic or vocational education, intensive career counseling, or is homeless or a runaway
- Having parental consent if a minor
- Being drug free and agreeing to a no-tolerance drug-use policy
- Having a childcare plan if applicant is a parent
- Not having face-to-face court supervision or court-imposed fines

Job Corps Centers vary in the types of services they offer. Some offer English as a second language programs to help legal immigrants and others develop the language skills they need to succeed in school and at work, others offer family living support skills, and still others offer specific vocational preparations, such as the Cisco Academy, mentioned previously.

OUTSIDE OF THE CLASSROOM—HIGH SCHOOL DIPLOMA PREFERRED OR REQUIRED

As noted earlier, high school graduates may have had access to work experience programs in some situations. They may also be eligible for certain government training programs already discussed depending on the socioeconomic background and the presence of disabling conditions. In addition, there are at least two other types of training situations available that are more likely to be an option for high school graduates than for early school leavers. Apprenticeship programs and military services offer training in a vast array of occupations.

Apprenticeship Programs

The use of apprenticeships for transmitting knowledge and skills to new workers dates back at least to the Middle Ages. The various guilds of skilled artisans developed the regular practice of indenturing young workers to master crafters. During the period of indenture, often seven years, the young worker served or worked for the master; in return, the master provided food and lodging for the trainees, usually in the master's own home, and taught them the skills and secrets of the craft. On successful completion of the indenture, each worker was accepted by the guild as a journeyman or independent craftsman. As the practice of his craft grew and expanded, he in turn became a master and took in apprentices who were taught job skills (see www.doleta.gov/atels_bat). Apprenticeship programs were initially offered primarily to white men, and this history has resulted in no small amount of discrimination aimed at minorities and women.

The National Apprenticeship Program was established by Congress in 1937 with the support of both labor and management organizations. The Fitzgerald Act authorized the Secretary of Labor to set up standards to guide industry in employing and training apprentices; to bring management and labor together to work out plans for training apprentices; to appoint such national committees as needed; and to promote general acceptance of the standards and procedures agreed on. The agency, now known as the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT), was created to put the program into effect. A committee, the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, representing management, labor, and government was appointed to develop standards and policies.

A basic tenet of the BAT has been that employers and employees should jointly develop programs for employment and training of apprentices to their mutual satisfaction. Because apprenticeship programs exist in a wide range of trades, the standards recommended by the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship are quite general, thus permitting the employer and employee groups in various trades to work out in concert the details for the training programs. Under the provisions of the BAT, an apprentice is a person at least 16 years of age (most programs require 18 years of age) who works under a written agreement registered with the state apprenticeship council (or with the BAT if there is no state council). The regulation provides for a specified period of reasonably continuous employment for the person and for participation in an approved schedule of work experiences supplemented by at least 144 hours per year of related classroom

instruction. The bureau has established certain basic standards by which an apprenticeship program functions:

1. An apprenticeable occupation usually requires from one to six years of employment to learn. Most last about four years.
2. The employment must be organized into a schedule of work processes to be learned so that the apprentice gains experience in all phases of the work. This prevents assignment to only one or a few specific tasks during the period of training and is intended to ensure the development of skill and knowledge in all aspects of the work.
3. A progressively increasing wage scale should be set for the apprentice, starting at about half the regular worker's rate.
4. Related classroom instruction should amount to at least 144 hours per year.
5. A written agreement, including the terms and conditions of employment and training of each apprentice, is registered with the State Apprenticeship Council.
6. The State Apprenticeship Council provides reviews of local apprenticeships.
7. Programs are established jointly by employer and employees.
8. Adequate supervision and records are required for all programs.
9. Full and fair opportunity to apply for apprenticeship is provided, with selection made on the basis of qualifications alone without discrimination.
10. Periodic evaluation of the apprentice's progress is made, both in job performance and in related instruction.
11. Recognition of successful completion is provided.

Apprenticeship programs have a number of easily identified advantages:

1. They provide the most efficient way to train all-around craftspeople to meet present and future needs.
2. They ensure an adequate supply of skilled craftspeople for employment opportunities.
3. They ensure a supply of competent craftspeople in the community, skilled in all aspects of their trades.
4. They offer the consuming public a supply of high-quality products and services that only trained hands and minds can produce.
5. They increase the individual worker's productivity.
6. They give the individual worker a greater sense of security.
7. They improve employer-employee relations.
8. They eliminate close supervision, because the craftsman is trained to use initiative, imagination, and ability in planning and performing work.
9. They provide a source of future supervision.
10. They provide the versatility necessary to meet changing conditions.
11. They attract capable young people to the industry.
12. They generally raise skill levels in the industry.

State departments of labor have been asked to establish apprenticeship councils at the state level. These councils are intended to serve as liaison agencies between federal and local levels and to encourage cooperation between state agencies and employers and employee groups. Where formed, these groups include an equal number of representatives of employers and employees as well as representatives from appropriate state agencies. The state organization, using standards recommended by the federal committee as guides, sets up state standards and procedures to be followed by industries in employing and training apprentices. Once

established and recognized by the bureau, the state council becomes part of the national apprenticeship program.

In some industries, national employer groups and national trade unions appoint apprenticeship committees. These committees meet as joint management-labor groups to develop national apprenticeship standards and to encourage the establishment of training programs in accordance with the adopted standards. These organizations grow out of specific industries and are concerned with programs within the specific industry; they are therefore independent of the BAT. The usual practice has been for a close relationship to develop between the national committees and the federal bureau, with each assisting the other through sharing information and consultation.

Both the federal and the state organizations are primarily concerned with the establishment and development of standards. The actual employment and training of apprentices occur at the local level. Employers who are members of the local groups and other employers who subscribe to the program establish local joint apprenticeship committees to organize the development of standards for employment and training for all apprentices in the specific trade.

Qualifications for employment, such as age, education, aptitude, wages, hours of work, the term of the apprenticeship, the schedule of job processes, and the amount of class time required, are usually spelled out in detail in the local standards. Also included are procedures for executing and registering the agreement and methods of supervising apprentices at work and at school. The classroom instruction is provided by local and state vocational schools. The local committee often serves as an advisory group in developing an appropriate program of instruction.

Admission requirements are set by the local apprenticeship council in compliance with general standards set at the state and national level. Considerable variation can be found from trade to trade and even within a particular trade among geographic regions. The number of applicants usually far exceeds the number of vacancies. For example, in the construction trades, applicants usually exceed openings about eight to one.

Nearly 35,000 programs are registered for apprenticeships in more than 1,000 occupations (U.S. Department of Labor, 2013). Table 13.1 provides a partial list of apprenticeable occupations. Although not comprehensive, the list does show the range of programs that can be included. Currently, nearly one million people are involved in registered and nonregistered apprenticeship programs, according to an estimate by Lerman (2009). He recommends the expansion of the number of apprenticeship programs through a collaborative effort by labor unions, businesses, and community colleges, focusing on those occupations that are predicted to have high growth rates during the next decade (e.g., licensed practical nurses). Lerman admits that implementing such an expansion will take a higher level of collaboration than is generally the case but points to bright spots, such as South Carolina.

Information about apprenticeships can be obtained from several sources. Perhaps the easiest way to find information is to go to the One-Stop Career Center website and click on the Education + Training button, which will yield a variety of educational options, including registered apprenticeship programs. Students and workers interested in apprenticeships may also consult local unions and One-Stop Career Centers and/or the website of the Employment and Training Administration (ETA) of the U.S. Department of Labor or the department of labor within their states.

Military Training

Although a number of specialized occupations actually exist only within the military—infantryman is a prime example—many more military occupations have civilian counterparts to which

TABLE 13.1 Examples of Apprenticeable Occupations

1. Airframe and Power Plant Mechanic	39. Insulation Worker
2. Automobile Body Repairer	40. Legal Secretary
3. Automobile Mechanic	41. Line Erector
4. Baker	42. Line Maintainer
5. Biomedical Equipment Technician	43. Machine Repairer, Maintenance
6. Boatbuilder, Wood	44. Machinist
7. Boilermaker I	45. Maintenance Machinist
8. Boiler Operator	46. Maintenance Mechanic
9. Butcher, Meat	47. Medical Laboratory Technician
10. Bricklayer	48. Millwright
11. Cabinetmaker	49. Mine-Car Repairer
12. Car Repairer (Railroad)	50. Miner I
13. Carpenter	51. Model Maker
14. Cement Mason	52. Mold Maker Die Casting and Plastic Molding
15. Compositor	53. Office Machine Servicer
16. Computer Peripheral Equipment Operator (Clerical)	54. Offset Press Operator I
17. Construction Equipment Mechanic	55. Ornamental Ironworker
18. Cook	56. Painter
19. Coremaker	57. Patternmaker, All Around
20. Cosmetologist	58. Patternmaker, Wood
21. Dairy Equipment Mechanic	59. Pipefitter
22. Dental Laboratory Technician	60. Plumber
23. Drafter, Architectural	61. Powerhouse Mechanic
24. Drafter, Mechanical	62. Precision Lens Grinder
25. Drilling Machine Operator	63. Programmer, Business
26. Electrician	64. Programmer, Engineering and Scientific
27. Electrical Repairer	65. Refrigeration Mechanic
28. Electronics Mechanic	66. Sheet Metal Worker
29. Electronics Technician	67. Shipfitter
30. Emergency Medical Technician	68. Shoemaker, Custom
31. Environmental-Control System Installer-Servicer	69. Stationary Engineer
32. Farm Equipment Mechanic I	70. Structural Steel Worker
33. Firefighter	71. Television and Radio Repairer
34. Fire Medic	72. Tool Maker
35. Furniture Finisher	73. Tool and Die Maker
36. Glazier	74. Water Treatment Plant Operator
37. Heavy Forger	75. Welder, Combination
38. Instrument Mechanic	76. Welding Machine Operator, Arc

Source: From the U.S. Department of Labor.

military training and experience are directly transferable. Of the approximately 4,100 occupational specialties in the military services, 2,600 have civilian equivalents. Those without civilian counterparts are primarily combat specialties.

One of two military programs may be especially important to interested individuals. One is college-level training, either in one of the service academies, where a four-year program leads to both a commission and a degree, or in a civilian college or university, where a four-year Reserve Officers' Training Corps (ROTC) program can produce the same results. A second option is a matched savings program in which enlisted personnel can designate pay set asides that are supplemented by additional two-for-one grants from the military to pay for college education after completing the military enlistment.

Enlistment periods can be as brief as two years in the Army, three years in the Navy, and four years in all other branches. Six years is the maximum commitment in all branches except the Coast Guard, for which the ceiling is four years. Pay and allowances are uniform through the branches. High school graduation is highly preferred for all recruits and is required for all Coast Guard recruits and for some training programs in other branches of the service. Some high school seniors who want to acquire specialized occupational training in a specific occupation can assure themselves of this by participating in the delayed-entry program, whereby they enlist for a specific training program in which reporting to active duty is delayed until high school graduation is completed.

Typically, new enlistees complete a basic training program that ranges from 6 to 10 weeks and consists of rigorous physical training along with classroom study and fieldwork on weapons, military law, drill, and so on. After completing basic training, the recruit enters the specific training program for the selected occupation. This is usually a classroom-based program, but it may combine classwork with field experience or may even be primarily practical training. For information about military apprenticeships, see the United States Military Apprenticeship Program at <http://militarycareers.about.com/od/Educational-Opportunities/p/United-Services-Military-Apprenticeship-Program-Usmap.htm>. Most military occupations, with the exception of those involved in combat, have apprenticeship options.

In addition to job-oriented training, the military services provide several other educational advantages. These include tuition assistance (up to 90 percent) for off-duty study at accredited schools; payment of fees for tests that establish college credit, such as CLEP or SAT; independent study courses; and similar programs. Information regarding the branches of the military and the military academies is easily obtained from recruiting offices that exist throughout the country, from toll-free telephone numbers, and on the Internet (see Chapter 11).

POSTSECONDARY SCHOOLS: ASSOCIATE'S DEGREES OR CERTIFICATES

As we look at the current labor force, it is apparent that the complexity of jobs has increased and the preparation time for jobs is longer. Only about one-quarter of the jobs in the labor force require a college education to perform, but the need for advanced, postsecondary education is clear. Community colleges and private and public vocational-technical schools are providing the training needed to perform many twenty-first century jobs. Some of these programs are as short as eight weeks, whereas others stretch beyond two academic years. At the end of these programs, graduates typically receive either a certificate attesting to the completion of a program of studies or an associate's degree typically signifying the completion of a two-year program of studies.

Trade, Vocational, and Technical Schools

One by-product of the increasing need for postsecondary education is greater attention on specific vocational preparation. Frequently, during periods of economic downturn—such as the one that began in 2007 and continues to some degree to the present—high unemployment rates, and is a search for assistance that might ensure employment or even an opportunity for employment. In many states, the expansion of the community college program or the establishment of publicly supported technical schools has met the major need for specialized education. Such expansion has not been uniform across the United States, however. Some states have established public area vocational schools; other states have established programs of postsecondary specialized public education through contractual arrangements with local secondary schools, universities, or other agencies equipped to offer vocational training to groups of students. Part of the impetus producing these rapid changes has come from the Vocational Education Amendments enacted by Congress, which have broadened and redefined vocational education.

Obtaining accurate, usable information about a vocational school, particularly private schools, is often much more difficult than finding similar information about degree-granting public institutions. Some of the state information systems mentioned in Chapter 11 include links to private school websites that have eased this problem to some degree. Not every state career information delivery system incorporates current data about private trade and technical institutions, which is unfortunate. However, information about both private and public vocational training programs can also be found online.

Community Colleges and Junior Colleges

Community colleges and junior colleges have existed in this country for many years. Some states—California and Florida, for example—have included community colleges as an integral part of the statewide education program by synchronizing the two-year programs offered by community colleges with those of their four-year institutions so that students who transfer can do so seamlessly and complete their program of studies in two additional years of full-time study.

Originally, two-year institutions were developed as a downward thrust of the college or university and as a means of serving students in geographically remote locations. More recently, community colleges have been developed and their curricula expanded as a means of allowing students with limited finances to complete a part of their education while living at home and usually paying less in tuition than they would to attend a four-year institution. Community colleges also save state governments money because they require neither elaborate facilities nor senior faculty members.

Whether called community college or junior college, these schools offer full- and part-time programs that include the following options:

1. The traditional college-related program for students who plan to transfer to four-year institutions to complete baccalaureate degrees.
2. A technical-terminal program to prepare students to enter employment on completion of the two-year, or shorter, curriculum.
3. Short courses of various sorts needed locally for retraining or further education.
4. An adult basic education program that offers adults the opportunity to increase their literacy and math skills.

Among the four types of programs, the greatest expansion has occurred in the technical-terminal area as the occupations in our labor force have become more complex. This growth in the occupationally oriented part of the curriculum will increase the significance of these institutions in the educational plans of students who are not interested in programs offered in baccalaureate-level institutions.

One of the greatest advantages of community colleges may well be the flexibility that permits them to respond to local needs and interests. The two-year transfer programs and those technical-terminal programs that extend over two academic years often culminate in an associate of arts degree on satisfactory completion. Programs that ordinarily are completed in less than this amount of time recognize successful completion with certificates.

Admission to all community college programs, whether they are college-transfer or occupationally oriented, vary with the demand and the resources available to meet the demand. Admission requirements are usually less stringent in two-year schools than they are in four-year schools. However, schools offering college-transfer programs may establish entrance requirements that parallel those used by the schools to which their graduates transfer. Technical-terminal programs are more likely to have skill-based or experience-based requirements and are unlikely to specify particular academic records as prerequisites for admission. However, they may require certain scores on entrance examinations that measure math and literacy skills. Terminal programs and adult education programs often operate on completely open admission plans within the community served by the school.

The most reliable source of information about any school is the school itself, including visits, websites, and catalogs. Because data in most state career information delivery systems are revised at least annually, these materials may be more current than institutional print publications.

COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Harvard College was the first private college to open its doors in what is now the United States, and the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill was the first public university to admit students. The University of Georgia, which was chartered before the University of North Carolina, opened its doors a few months later. Currently, tens of thousands of colleges and universities that offer a vast array of academic possibilities are open to students who meet entrance requirements. This wealth of options can be bewildering to students who are just graduating from high school and to adults who decide to return to school to earn degrees. Some of these schools are highly competitive and are open only to the most academically talented. Others operate under a policy of open admissions, as is the case in Indiana, where state-supported universities are required by law to admit any student who graduates from an accredited Indiana high school.

The programs range from those that prepare students for specific careers (e.g., engineering) to some that offer more general courses of study (e.g., English, usually under the auspices of a College of Liberal Arts). Because of the variation in institutions as well as the courses of study they offer, choosing a college is one of the major life decisions faced by students and adults. To be sure, many decisions regarding choice of college are made by default; that is, they are made on the basis of geography or financial concerns. Few students can afford the \$45,000-per-year price tag now attached to some of the most prestigious U.S. colleges; others cannot pursue options outside their immediate geographic location because of a variety of personal considerations. However, even students who are faced with financial or geographic constraints need to consider their options carefully as they choose a college or university. In the remainder of this section, some concerns of this decision-making process are addressed.

Admissions Requirements

The restriction of admission by a school, either because of its desire to limit student body size or because of its available facilities, such as number of classrooms or dormitory rooms, often creates competition among applicants. If a school has a generally favorable reputation, the competitiveness is accentuated, and the school's prestige is enhanced. Unfortunately, many prospective applicants and their parents assume that limitation of enrollment automatically reflects the quality of the educational program. This may be true to some extent, but it is often the case that students can find academic opportunities of equal standing at nearby public or private institutions that have less stringent admission policies.

Generalizations based on admission standards are risky. Various institutions are moving in opposite directions on admission policies for different reasons. As mentioned earlier, enrollment ceilings may mean only that the school's philosophy is that small is better or that it has limited space. Other institutions have moved in exactly the opposite direction and adopted a policy of open admissions under which anyone with a high school diploma or other basic qualification may be permitted to enroll. In a few instances, students who left high school before graduation can qualify for admission on the basis of significant employment experience, examination results, or completion of the GED.

For many years, most institutions have asked applicants to support the usual application data—a transcript of high school or preparatory school courses completed, grades, and class rank—with admissions test data. Colleges and universities require test scores for many reasons. Most large schools serve students from wide geographic regions, often nationwide or worldwide. In such a broad area, considerable difference in academic standards of high schools can be anticipated; as a result, high school grades are difficult to compare, and test scores are a valuable source of information about the students' potential. Some schools may seek to serve a particular type of student. For example, they may choose to focus on the development of writing skills and thus would be anxious to identify those students with high verbal skill. These schools are likely to request a sample of the student's writing as well. Often schools with restricted enrollments give priority to only the most able students. These schools often believe that college admission tests provide some of the information they need to select the students they wish to admit. Finally, many schools base their financial aid programs partly on consideration of ability and, therefore, require scholarship applicants to submit test scores for this purpose.

Most degree-granting schools now require applicants to submit, with their application materials, scores obtained on either the College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB) Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) or the American College Testing Program (ACT). Most schools specify the test they require, but many institutions now accept either one. These tests are now so widely used and so generally available in U.S. high schools that they require no special discussion here. Some colleges and universities using SAT scores also may ask applicants to submit scores on achievement tests in subject areas relevant to the field they plan to study.

The College Level Examination Program (CLEP) is one method many colleges and universities use to determine whether an applicant qualifies for advance standing and college credit. The program consists of a group of achievement tests more difficult than those just described. The basic assumption of this program is that an applicant might acquire the knowledge or competencies taught in beginning-level college courses in many ways. Many high schools now provide advanced study for highly motivated students; some students undertake self-teaching projects because of interest or other reasons; tutorial assistance may push other students beyond the levels usually accomplished in high school; and some students may acquire these skills through travel, employment, or other out-of-school activity. Assuming that many colleges would

willingly recognize such claims for advance standing as legitimate if properly documented, the CEEB established the CLEP plan. This program enables the student to move ahead to an appropriate level in those areas in which advanced skill has been developed and to obtain credit for the bypassed courses. CEEB reports at least two separate studies demonstrating that students given CLEP advanced standing do as well or better in advanced courses as students who have completed the usual prerequisite courses.

QUOTAS IN THE ADMISSIONS PROCESS. One of the most controversial aspects of the admission process has to do with attaining a diverse student body and racial quotas. Some schools have provided preferential treatment to minorities, men, and women in order to meet this goal, but they place themselves in legal peril when they do. On June 23, 2003, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that subtle policies aimed at increasing the diversity of the student body of the Law School were acceptable (*Grutter v. University of Michigan Law School*). In the same year, it also struck down the University of Michigan affirmative action program, which assigned extra points to minorities in the undergraduate admission process and was therefore too mechanistic (*Gratz v. Bollinger*). The University of Michigan had established an admission system in which a perfect SAT score was awarded 12 points and minority status 20 points. One hundred and fifty points was the maximum any student could attain. Although it is not clear why the court ruled as it did in *Grutter v. University of Michigan Law School*, it appears that the court viewed the undergraduate admission policy as at least similar to a quota system, which the court has banned in a number of settings (e.g., *Bakke v. University California Board of Regents*, 1976). In 1996, Californians passed Proposition 209, which banned the use of race, gender, or ethnicity in the college admissions process.

Financial Aid

As the costs of higher education increase steadily, many students and their families need accurate information about the sources and extent of financial assistance available. Frequent changes in federally funded and state-funded programs not only affect specific programs included in federal and state support but impinge on all other aid programs as well. Consequently, the basic data needed for financial planning are seldom available far enough in advance to permit broad publication of the information. Even the institution's financial aid office often encounters difficulty answering questions about next year's aid.

Information about financial aid for individual states and the entire country are on the websites of most schools and on the Internet. For example, Fastweb (<http://www.fastweb.com>) is a comprehensive database that provides information about scholarships, fellowships, and grants. Using a key word search such as "information about grants and loans subsidized by the federal government" will also return large amounts of useful information.

The Financial Aid Form is a program operated by the CEEB. This service is designed to simplify the process of applicants providing family financial information for financial aid to colleges and universities. It provides a Parents' Confidential Statement form that the applicant's parent completes that describes the family's financial situation. The report is analyzed, and a copy of the form and the analysis are forwarded to the schools specified by the applicant. A comparable form, the Family Financial Statement (FFS), is provided by the American College Testing Program. These forms are used by scholarship program sponsors as well as by financial aid officers in colleges and universities, and they are available online. Students applying for federal loans must complete the Free Application for Federal Student Aid (FAFSA). An online application can be found at <https://fafsa.ed.gov>.

Student Learning Exercise 13.1

Visit the following financial aid websites and rate them on the points that follow.

1. FinAid! <http://www.finaid.org/>
2. Student Aid on the Web <http://studentaid.ed.gov/PORTALSWebApp/students/english/index.jsp>

	Poor	Average	Good
1. Appearance of website	1	2	3
2. Ease of navigation	1	2	3
3. Helpfulness of information on the site	1	2	3

Factors to Consider When Choosing a College

School administrators, teachers, and counselors can anticipate a greater demand for accurate, usable information about college preparation. Inevitably, concerned students and parents expect secondary schools to exert effort to assist their graduates in preparing for college and in gaining admission. Such assistance usually requires planning over an extended period as well as developing extensive information about available institutions and involving staff in the transitional process.

Because institutions of higher education come in an almost limitless variety of size, kind, and purpose, one can find almost as many individual differences among them as among people. One can properly conclude, then, that certain specific schools will better fit the particular needs of certain students than will others. If an appropriate matching process is to occur, accurate information is imperative. Many high school students assume that one perfect college, like one perfect mate, exactly fits their needs and personality. This romantic notion is prevalent among individuals in this age group. In reality, several colleges or universities will suit most individuals equally well.

HELPING STUDENTS DECIDE. Although a particular student's selection of a few schools for final consideration depends on a great many factors, several general characteristics can be used to reduce the number of schools to be studied in detail:

1. **Type and Compatibility of Program** Does the college offer the major that the student intends to study in a package that matches the student's plans and expectations?
2. **School Environment** The geographic location and the size of the community should meet the student's needs.
3. **Admission Requirements** Can the student meet the institution's demands, and do they reflect the level of rigor desired?
4. **Size** Many students have preferences of a general nature, such as small, medium, or large.
5. **Type of School** A school may be tax supported, church supported, or independent; each type may offer particular advantages desired by the student.
6. **Type of Student Body** Factors such as gender, geographic range, cultural homogeneity, and degree of competitiveness need to be considered.
7. **Expenses and Financial Aid** Costs vary extensively, with public schools usually being less expensive than private institutions; however, financial aid may help balance some of these differences.

8. *Student Activities, Social and Cultural Life* If desired by the student, are there other aspects of college life available?
9. *Campus Facilities* Are the facilities adequate to provide the program and educational experience desired?

Gaining Admission to College: An Application Strategy

School counselors and others have devised a number of plans for gaining admission to a preferred institution by developing zones of likelihood of admissions. Zone 1 includes preferred colleges that are typically competitive, but there may be a low probability of the student being admitted even if the student has great credentials. The prospective applicant, with the help of a counselor, carefully compares his or her class rank, SAT or ACT scores, and other characteristics with the admission profile of the school. These may be posted by the college or located in a college directory. Once this comparison has been completed, one or more zone 1 colleges are chosen and applications submitted. Zone 2 schools are colleges that seem likely to admit the candidate, and zone 3 schools are colleges that will admit the student under almost all conditions. The colleges in zone 3 are called "safety schools."

Accreditation

Much of our time is spent in a world in which regulation and control are obvious: speed limits, building permits, Social Security numbers, consumer protection agencies, and so on. We sometimes forget the ancient warning *caveat emptor*. The commitment to a college education, in terms of time, effort, and money, is so great that both student and parent need to be assured that their investment is sound and will yield real value. Accreditation is one means by which the potential purchaser of a college education can have some assurance about the quality of the purchase.

Accreditation of colleges and universities is usually performed by two different types of organizations. In some academic areas, programs are evaluated by established agencies formed by the appropriate professional organization based on the types of graduates. The American Psychological Association accredits programs that train psychologists and the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Programs (CACREP) accredits counselor education programs. The second type of accrediting agency is an association of educational institutions that focuses on accrediting institutions as a whole. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is an example of this type of association.

Many prospective students or their parents raise questions about the ranking of a college or university or of a specific department or section within the school. It is often difficult to convince them that such rankings are not made by the accrediting agencies. Generally, the accrediting groups simply list schools that meet certain minimum standards. Occasionally, this list is arranged into appropriate groups related to the scope of the program, the areas included, or similar factors, but a numerical list in order of quality is seldom made. The variety of programs among schools, even in highly specialized subject areas, precludes the possibility of such ranking in terms of quality.

Public conviction that rankings exist stems primarily from two sources. Many loyal alumni remember their alma mater as "the best in the country," "tops in such and such," or "highly recognized." Such evaluation is, of course, subjective and not based on comparative criteria. Second, many popular magazines, such as *U.S. News and World Report*, newspapers, and Sunday supplements run feature stories based on the judgment of a single person or a panel of so-called experts who often purport to evaluate institutions in various subject fields or by type of school. Again, the published judgments may be made by highly knowledgeable individuals who have a wide

acquaintance with many schools, but these reports are nevertheless subjective in nature and are not based on detailed studies of the type and scope that justify a precise ranking.

Continuing Education Needed

Because of the rapidity with which jobs change in today's dynamic workplace, preparation for work continues throughout most workers' lives. In an older but still illustrative survey, a national sample of employed adults was asked, "Do you think you will need more formal training or education to maintain or increase your earning power during the next few years?" Fifty-six percent answered yes. Not unexpectedly, the percentage of workers who expected to need more training to maintain or improve their earnings was highest in the 18 to 25 age group (83 percent said yes) and lowest in the 66 and over age group (17 percent said yes). Also, more African Americans than whites (66 percent versus 51 percent) indicated they would need additional training in the years ahead if they were to maintain or improve their incomes. When these workers were asked where they expected to go to get the training they needed, more than 30 percent said four-year colleges, 23 percent said courses offered by their employers, 13 percent said community colleges, and the same percentage expected to enroll in business or technical schools. Smaller percentages of employed adults expected to engage in training activities in adult education courses, special courses offered by their professional associations or trade unions, or some form of public job-training program (Hoyt & Lester, 1995; NCDA, 1999).

Perhaps the only thing surprising about the survey results just cited is that the percentages were low. Except for those jobs requiring only minimal skills, continuing education is a fact of life for almost all workers, even if they stay with their current job. Job changes, whether within the current business or changing employers completely, inevitably involve additional training. More than 25 percent of the workers surveyed in the NCDA Gallup polls expect either to change voluntarily or to be forced to change jobs (Hoyt & Lester, 1995; NCDA, 1999). This figure does not account for the number of people who either make lateral changes or are promoted to jobs with greater responsibility within their current workplace. Neither do these figures account for the continuing education required of workers when changes in computer hardware or software packages, new accounting systems, new production strategies, and so on occur. I suspect the percentages would have been much higher if the question posed had been, "Do you expect to be involved in additional training either to maintain your ability to perform your job at a satisfactory level or because of a change in your current job status?"

Many people belong to professional associations that provide continuing education opportunities online, in workshops, and in extended training sessions. Forward-looking businesses also provide continuing education on a regular basis, and some labor unions are also involved in offering educational experiences to their members. On the other hand, workers who do not have regular opportunities to upgrade current skills and learn new skills that will be needed as their job evolves are in jeopardy of becoming obsolete. The only option for this group is to consult regularly with leaders and educators in their field and to consult publications such as the *Occupational Outlook Handbook* for advice and directions.

Summary

Students and adults have a variety of educational options open to them once they make a career choice. Choosing from among these options may in fact be as bewildering as choosing a career itself. The ultimate option chosen depends on a variety of factors, including the career chosen, the wishes of the student, the

ability of the student to finance the education, the academic record of the individual, and so forth. A carelessly chosen preparation program can lead to personal dissatisfaction and even to a change in career plans. Thus, it becomes incumbent on career counselors to be

fully abreast of educational information and to develop the skills necessary to facilitate educational exploration, because career and educational choices are inextricably linked.

Chapter Quiz

- T F 1. If the dropout statistics presented in this chapter are accurate, approximately 300 students drop out of high school each day in the United States.
- T F 2. High schools in large cities seem to be the ones that contribute the most to the dropout problem.
- T F 3. The program that is most oriented to getting high school dropouts into the labor force is School to Work.
- T F 4. Admissions standards for colleges and universities are relatively the same except for a few of the elite institutions.
- T F 5. Community colleges have open-door admissions policies, which means that all students who apply can be admitted and typically get into the program of studies they choose.
- T F 6. High school math and science courses are part of the specific vocational preparation for most scientific careers.
- T F 7. Vocational education in high schools is a relatively new innovation and was prompted by the Great Depression.
- T F 8. Although it is difficult to account for people in apprenticeship programs that are not registered with the government, it seems likely that the number of people in some type of apprenticeship is approximately 1 million.
- T F 9. The U.S. Department of Labor has identified approximately 1,000 apprenticeable jobs.
- T F 10. Regional accrediting agencies, such as the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, rank the overall quality of colleges and universities in their geographic region.

(1) T (2) T (3) F (4) F (5) F (6) F (7) F (8) T (9) T (10) F

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