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ABSTRACT

Noting that the quality, continuity, and stability of out-of-school time programs depend, in part, on the presence of a well-trained and fairly compensated staff, this paper examines the unique characteristics of the out-of-school time workforce that contribute to inadequate compensation and explores workforce compensation from an economic perspective. Part 1 of the paper focuses on the need for qualified out-of-school time staff and the need to consider the following factors in workforce development: no unified worker identity, irregular hours, lack of professional recognition, and the need for diversity in leadership. Part 2 describes the compensation problem from a variety of economic perspectives and considers: (1) supply and demand; (2) quality of after-school child care; (3) labor supply; (4) altruism among providers; (5) return on investment in education; (6) pressure to increase productivity; (7) joining forces with a new social movement; (8) educating the consumer to stimulate demand; (9) marketing to diversity; (10) the "flexibility" factor; (11) "systems" thinking; (12) out-of-school time programs as a public good; and (13) finance reform. Part 3 profiles promising compensation strategies and initiatives from the out-of-school and early childhood education fields to provide practical examples of how, in the absence of a national system, compensation is being handled on the state and local levels. Six approaches are detailed: (1) career development; (2) greater investments per child in portable subsidies; (3) direct investments in programs, staff, and quality; (4) better information for consumers; (5) upgrading standards used in licensing and funding; and (6) organizing the workforce and/or the community. (Contains 53 references and 43 endnotes.) (KB)

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and
Brooke Harvey

REPORT, 2002

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Abstract

The quality, continuity, and stability of out-of-school time programs depend, in part, on the presence of a well-trained and fairly compensated staff. Without a skilled and stable workforce, programs cannot focus on providing high-quality, developmentally appropriate programs for school-age children. In this paper we touch briefly upon the unique characteristics of the out-of-school time workforce that contribute to inadequate compensation and we explore workforce compensation more deeply from the perspective of economics. We also profile promising compensation strategies and initiatives with an aim to provide practical examples of how in the absence of a national system, compensation is being tackled on the state and local levels.

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I. Introduction

To improve out-of-school time¹ policy and enhance program quality, it is essential to address the compensation of the workforce. The quality, continuity, and stability of out-of-school time (OST) programs depend on a well-trained and fairly compensated staff. Without a skilled and stable workforce, OST programs cannot focus on providing high-quality, holistic programs for school-age children. They cannot partner with employers to alleviate work and family stresses. And they will not have the resources to prevent or ameliorate the many problems that beset today's youth, nor help families, communities, and society at large realize the cost savings from such crucial intervention.

This paper was written to stimulate fresh thinking and fuel discussions about how to increase compensation for out-of-school time staff. In it, we explore economic concepts as they relate to the field and describe compensation strategies and initiatives. We also profile out-of-school time compensation models and others from the early childhood education (ECE) field that could be adapted by out-of-school time advocates.

In this paper, we examine the compensation problem in detail and suggest some possible approaches to resolving it. In Section II, we describe the compensation problem from a variety of economic perspectives. In Section III, we propose ways to broaden the range of strategies we can use to craft solutions and we highlight promising initiatives that are under way to improve compensation.

We hope this paper will lay the groundwork for leaders in the out-of-school time field to engage in

meaningful conversations with economists about solutions to the compensation problem. We encourage researchers to gather data that will enable us to identify the full range of forces that impact OST compensation and turnover. And we urge all those engaged in providing services for children to join forces and work together for improved pay and working conditions.

Background: The Out-of-School Time Workforce

The growing public interest in after-school programming in the past decade has spurred an increase in support from federal, state, and local governments and schools. At least 26 states are increasing funding for OST programs and opportunities. In at least 30 states, schools are increasingly involved in extended learning programs during after-school hours (National Governors Association, 1999). A 2001 survey of 800 elementary school principals reports that 67 percent of elementary schools offer optional programs for children after regular school hours, compared to 22 percent in 1988 (National Association of Elementary School Principals, 2001). In 2001, OST programs received \$846 million dollars of targeted federal funding to operate school-based after-school programs through 21st Century Community Learning Centers (21stCCLC), representing a nearly 100 percent increase in funding from the previous fiscal year. In addition, 525,000 school-age children across the country were subsidized in OST settings under Child Care Development Fund Block Grants.

As the demand for more OST programs grows, the need for qualified staff is escalating. As reported in the National Institute on Out-of-School Time's (NIOST) March 2001 *Afterschool Issues: Focus on Staffing* brief, OST programs are

simultaneously experiencing an accelerated rate of growth and grappling with high staff turnover as a result of low compensation and other factors: "For many initiatives, staying fully staffed has become a frustrating exercise of laboriously finding and developing the skills of staff members, only to see them leave for higher paying, full-time work shortly thereafter." Elementary school principals also reported that finding and retaining qualified staff was one of the biggest challenges facing their after-school programs (NAESP 2001).

In the midst of this steady expansion, as the out-of-school time field struggles to evolve toward becoming a more cohesive system for children, youth, families, and communities, there is still very little information about the element widely regarded as the critical link to program quality and outcomes: the workforce. What we do know is that the workforce is in a state of crisis plagued by chronic staff turnover, which can often cripple a program's capacity to deliver services. We also know that the after-school workforce, which is composed primarily of part-time staff, receives very low compensation and lacks a professional development system unified by a core body of knowledge, a career matrix, a system of training, or a registry of providers.

Although OST programs share many of the same workforce development concerns that ECE programs are battling, they also have some unique workforce characteristics. As after-school advocates explore strategies to improve compensation, including modifying successful ECE compensation strategies, they will need to consider the following factors.

No Unified Worker Identity

Part of the difficulty in trying to develop an accurate profile of the OST workforce is that there is no categorical way to account for or describe staff. There are many paths that lead workers to a job or career in this field, but because there is no specific preparatory or career ladder, workers do not share a common knowledge base, are equipped with a variety of skills, and enter the workforce with a broad range of educational levels and training. Recently, the Department of Labor has created a new category called youth worker, which is intended to provide opportunities for better training, access to jobs, and higher pay (Children and Youth Funding Report, 2001). Although the new category holds promise, it is exclusive to workers in full-time positions, which eliminates a substantial portion of the OST workforce.

In order to accurately inform policy, OST advocates need more information about staff at all levels: who they are; their skills and credentials; how they are compensated for their work; how their work is organized; how they experience their day-to-day responsibilities; and what kind of support they need to develop professionally, stay in the field, and make a career out of the work. Several states do collect such data; however, methods vary and survey response rates tend to be low.

The issue of worker identity could also be addressed by those in the field itself, as they address the extent to which OST might continue its narrow self-identification or might be considered part of a broader field, such as youth work, early childhood care, or education.

Irregular Hours

Out-of-school time programs operate during the hours when school is not in session—before school, after school, during vacations and holidays, and in the summer months. As Anne Noonan reported in *Contrast to Concrete: Issues in Building a Skilled and Stable Workforce* (2001), the part-time nature of much work in the OST field is frequently cited as a specific cause of staff turnover and a more general barrier to building a skilled and stable workforce. Yet there is increasing recognition of both “good part-time” and “bad part-time” arrangements in the field. There is clearly some room for part-time work, especially in programs with stable infrastructures and full-time leadership. Many OST staff—for example, college students and enrichment specialists—truly prefer part-time work and can bring special energy to programs at lower cost than full-time staff.

Conversely, for staff who need full-time work and associated benefits, the realities of part-time work can be a major struggle. There is also the stigma that in the public eye, part-time work is often perceived as less important. One solution to the part-time problem is to create full-time options by packaging or “patchworking” together two or more part-time positions. Staff could work within the same agency, in schools, or elsewhere in the community—for example, in child development centers, youth programs, or programs with a more traditional social work or child welfare focus—allowing for a greater number of working hours and a more invested role in children and their families. Creative arrangement of hours is another possibility; before-school and after-school shifts can be combined to create full-time positions. Another option is to make part-time jobs more

attractive: providing benefits for fewer hours of work, building in more professional development time, offering connections to college courses and other resources in higher education, and facilitating the purchasing of benefits as a group (Noonan, 2001).

Lack of Professional Recognition

Among out-of-school time advocates, there is philosophical consensus on the need to professionalize the field, standardize staff qualifications, and provide much more support for career mobility. Yet there is less agreement on exactly what should be required of a diverse workforce located in a variety of settings and program types. How much college work should be required and for what levels of employees? How much training should be required, on what schedule, and for whom? What are the appropriate roles of certification, apprenticeship, and other models of professional development?

There is also concurrence that the field needs a shared knowledge base unique to the school-age population, sometimes referred to as core competencies. Core areas include knowledge of child and youth development, familiarity with health and safety issues, knowledge of program development, and the ability to work with culturally diverse groups. Additional areas have been outlined in the NSACA Standards for Quality School-Age Care (Roman, 1998).

The Center for the Child Care Workforce in 2001 published *Creating Better School-Age Care Jobs: Model Work Standards*. These standards lend credibility to the field by acknowledging “the complexity of school-age care jobs which demand

education and training, physical and emotional strength, intense human interaction every day, and a high level of self-esteem and self-confidence in order to instill the same in children and youth.” (Center for the Child Care Workforce, 2001)

With regard to a career lattice or matrix, many in the field agree that there is a link—or at least should be a link—between qualifications and compensation, yet the link is not evident in all programs or for all levels of staff. There is recognition that the field cannot raise the bar on staff qualifications without also increasing compensation, but there is also anxiety that increasing qualifications and compensation may be too expensive for staff and for programs. A related issue is that compensation should not be linked to just one qualification, such as education. Rather, compensation should be driven by more of a “portfolio” approach that factors in experience, training, and merit in addition to education.

Need for Diversity in Leadership

Children in the United States today are far more ethnically and culturally diverse than ever before. For children of all ages, it is important that OST practitioners be representative of their communities, acting as role models and relating to the culture of the children. For school-age children, these role models are especially critical as they form their individual identities and develop their future aspirations. They need to see people like themselves in positions of leadership. The existing systems of outreach and recruitment into the OST field have not kept pace with the need for diverse staff, and the most critically needed staff are not being recruited into training and employment simply because the traditional channels of communication do not reach them.

Reliance on traditional credentialing routes through pre-service education in colleges does not result in the needed diversity. Workers of color are primarily employed in assisting roles but may lack pathways for advancement to leadership roles (National Black Child Development Institute, 1993). Many outstanding OST programs are taking place in inner-city, faith-based organizations, the Urban League, or other local youth organizations that are attractive to children and families of color. The credentialing system may serve as a barrier for the very people most needed in the field, unless the field clarifies its goals to include recruiting diverse staff as it defines its qualifications.

Viewing Out-of-School Time Compensation through a New Lens

Many members of the OST field view the compensation problem primarily from a moral or psychological perspective. But this is an especially good time to look at the compensation issue from a variety of viewpoints. The perspectives of economists, political scientists, and labor and business experts might bring new insights on strategies that can be applied to the problem.

As a nation, we experienced an unprecedented period of continuous full employment in the 1990s. Wages and family incomes increased, even for the groups that have traditionally been at the bottom of the wage scale—people of color and single mothers. The increasing workforce participation of mothers with young children provided a source of labor that contributed to the economic expansion. Yet wages in the field of child care as well as after-school programming—so critical in providing support to these working families—rose little if at all.

OST and ECE programs have experienced severe labor shortages in recent years. Newspapers have reported that numerous ECE centers have closed because they were unable to find adequate staff (Lewis, 2000). In areas with especially competitive labor markets, the level of education of professionals in the field dropped dramatically, as those with college degrees entered better-paying jobs outside the field (Boston Equip Project, 1999).

During the economic boom, many individuals from groups with previously high unemployment rates found jobs. Labor shortages generally benefit low earners, as demand for their services bids their wages up. Yet even in 2000, a year of historically low unemployment, there was little evidence that wages for directors or lead teachers of ECE programs were responding to the tight labor market. Now that the US economy is in recession, this problem is likely to worsen.

Advocates sought to take advantage of the labor shortage, asking for more money to recruit and train workers, offer hiring bonuses, provide retention awards, and implement other short-term incentives for recruitment and retention. In a strong economy characterized by budget surpluses at all levels of government, it was relatively easy to build political support for more public investment. In a weak economy, with looming budget deficits on the state level, in particular, such support will be more difficult to mobilize and sustain. But the logic behind it remains the same: the long-run benefits of public investments in high-quality care far exceed the costs (Bergmann & Helburn, 2001).

Fundamentally, we need to understand the underlying conditions in the field's labor market that kept real wages low even in a period of

relatively high labor demand. We need answers to questions like these:

- Why was there relatively little adjustment to new economic conditions in the late 1990s? What are the implications of the current recession for labor supply in the field?
- In what ways is the field's labor market unique or different from other service or professional labor markets?
- What is the most sustainable strategy for raising wages and reducing turnover in this labor market in the long run?

II. Compensation as an Economic Issue

How people define and view the problem of low compensation, and the strategies they might adopt to solve it, may differ depending on perspectives and disciplines. We might find new allies and identify fresh strategies by looking at this problem from different angles.

Those in the OST field often see the problem as one of public awareness. We tend to view low compensation as a moral issue, and we want the public to share our understanding of the moral aspects of working with children/youths and the unfairness of our wages. Many of us believe that the field's compensation issues would be solved if the public understood the true value of our work with children. But it is critical for us to recognize that compensation is an economic issue that will not be solved by public awareness alone.

The issue of compensation is also a complex one, not easily remedied with any single approach. Although our parlance may be different from that

Table 1.

Some Economists' View of the Field

Workforce

- ⇒ Low (or even negative) return on individual investment in training or job tenure.
- ⇒ A high level of intrinsic motivation, contributing to a tendency for those who can afford it to accept low wages.
- ⇒ A large supply of workers willing to accept temporary and part-time employment in part because of their own responsibilities for the care of family members.

Consumers

- ⇒ Extremely sensitive to price.
- ⇒ Consider quality, but find it difficult to assess and measure; uncertain of the relationship between quality and price.

Suppliers (employers)

- ⇒ Price competition among suppliers creates pressure to keep wages low.
- ⇒ Combination of low wages, high turnover, and low-skilled workforce creates pressure to standardize and bureaucratize the work process.
- ⇒ High turnover discourages employers' investment in worker training (beyond orientation and regulatory requirements).

Supply and Demand

of other disciplines, we need to engage economists in a continuing dialogue about compensation. We can broaden our repertoire of strategies by increasing our awareness of the ways that other disciplines look at similar issues.

Most economists would classify economic problems in out-of-school time as problems of demand, rather than supply. Families with children represent the demand side of the market:

they make decisions to purchase care that are based primarily on what they can afford, taking quality into account. Effective demand is not based on what families want in some ideal world, but on what they are willing and able to pay for. As the price of child care and OST services goes up, all else being equal, the demand for these services goes down. Parents lack both the information they need to assess care, and the money to pay for it. This implies that efforts to increase effective demand for high-quality care could substantially improve conditions for child care and OST workers, by bidding up their wages. A demand for higher quality, in other words, would translate into pressure for better wages and working conditions.

Potential strategies to increase effective demand include:

- ⇒ More efforts to inform families of the quality of the services available.
- ⇒ More extensive subsidy programs that would lower the "sticker price" of quality care.
- ⇒ More generous tax credits for out-of-school time expenses that would lower the overall cost to families.

Child care and out-of-school time providers represent the supply side of the market, and in such a labor-intensive industry, the supply of workers willing to provide services is the most important factor determining costs. In business generally, the supply of workers is primarily determined by pay. But in care services, intrinsic motivation alone can increase labor supply. Care workers often feel that their work is morally worthwhile, socially productive, and personally satisfying. Thus, if they are financially able, they may be willing to accept lower wages than in other types of work, at least for some period of

time. In the longer run, however, workers require a wage that allows them to support themselves and their own family members.

The organization of paid care work is significantly affected by the organization of unpaid care work in the family. Mothers tend to take far more responsibility than other family members for the care of children and other dependents. Precisely because it is difficult to find and pay for high-quality care, many mothers opt for part-time and temporary paid work arrangements that are compatible with priorities for their care of their own children. This factor increases the supply of workers willing to accept part-time or temporary employment while their own children are young.

Quality

All consumers care about the quality of the goods and services they purchase. For most products, quality is relatively easy to measure. In some cases, such as buying fruit, consumers can physically inspect or even taste the product. In other cases, such as purchase of a major consumer durable like a new car, they can find extensive product ratings that measure performance along many dimensions, such as reliability and safety. The quality of child care, however, is quite difficult to assess.

The same problem applies to many other care services. For instance, measures of the quality of education, health care, and nursing home care are hard to come by. But even in these services, some indicators are easily obtained. For instance, parents can ask how many students from a certain high school go on to college. Individuals buying health services can ask where a physician was trained, or how many procedures of a certain type he or she has performed. Families can find

published data on the extent to which individual nursing homes meet federal standards. But because child care and OST programs are much less regulated and standardized than these other services, quality is more difficult to ascertain.

Parents often try to get a “feel” for quality. But relatively few high-quality OST programs exist, so that few consumers have ever seen or experienced high quality and many parents may not even be able to imagine it. The many poor or mediocre programs that exist convey the impression that “this is as good as it gets.”

Furthermore, the quality of ECE and OST programs is strongly affected by the emotional, as well as cognitive, skills of practitioners. That is, parents seek caregivers who are kind and empathetic, who love children and want them to thrive. These emotional qualities do not necessarily go hand in hand with educational credentials or other metrics of cognitive skill, which may be equally important. It is difficult for parents to assess these trade-offs.

The role that intrinsic motives play in the supply of care services creates another complication. In most labor markets, higher pay signals higher quality. But in a labor market characterized by strong intrinsic motives, some of those willing to work for low wages are highly motivated and extremely competent. Unfortunately, they are indistinguishable from others who are willing to work for low wages only because they are economically desperate. In other words, parents face conflicting signals about the relationship between wages and care quality.

Finally, and perhaps most importantly, most

families simply can't afford the level of quality care they really desire for their children, so they resign themselves to what is easily available. The OST field needs to address this problem by exploring affordability formulas such as sliding-scale fees. Universal subsidies to improve affordability might seem expensive, but they would help build widespread public support for higher quality.

Currently, public policy subsidizes OST and ECE costs primarily for families with incomes below the poverty line. For families with income close to the median, most of which participate in OST programs only because both parents work for pay, there is no subsidy beyond modest tax credits. Studies reveal that the families that pay the most as a proportion of their income and receive the lowest quality are the working families—both two-parent and single-parent—whose incomes are around the median (National Institute of Child Health and Development, 1998). In 2001, Congress made modest improvements in tax policies for working parents, but these fell short of solving the problem.

Additionally, and crucially, there is an important difference in demand between OST programs and ECE programs. Parents can enroll infants and very young children in programs, and the children have no choice but to attend. For many school-age children beyond the second grade, however, the program must attract the child or the child will not attend. Parents can seldom force children at third grade or beyond to attend a program that they don't like. School-age children are consumers who can vote with their feet. This point is critical in the context of public policy. We may debate where the programs should be placed, or who is eligible for public funds to offer such programs, but our public funds will not be well

spent in programs that do not attract children. We need to consider what children themselves want.

The Supply of Labor

The supply of labor to education and care work differs in a number of ways from the supply of labor to other fields. Individuals often enter the field because they believe the work is intrinsically important and socially valuable. Not incidentally, they often have commitments to the unpaid care of family members that constrain their ability to seek full-time employment. A circular causality comes into play: the lack of high-quality affordable care makes it difficult for many mothers to find full-time jobs that offer opportunities for advancement. They move, instead, into part-time or temporary jobs providing care services, where they do not earn the wages they need to make a long-term career commitment.

Economist Suzanne Helburn (2000) argues that stagnant wage levels result from the availability of a large supply of workers with low skills willing to work for the going wage, moving in and out of employment. These workers view the jobs as temporary, low-skill employment. Helburn identifies two streams of workers in the field's labor force:

- workers with low skills and education
- educated workers who have the financial resources to accept lower wages than they would receive in other jobs

The heterogeneity of this workforce has major implications for strategy. First is the need to set basic standards for education and training.

Increased reliance on educational credentials might help, but could also exclude workers who, through no fault of their own, have lacked access to college-level training. A more attractive possibility would include opportunities for in-service training and the gradual acquisition of educational credentials, with internal "job ladders" that provide incentives for workers to improve their skills.

Several states (including Massachusetts and Washington) and some cities (Boston, Chicago, Seattle, and Philadelphia) have developed core competencies for OST staff. For school-age children, it may be more difficult than for preschool children to predict what kind of skills and knowledge make for the successful group leader. We know that a practitioner who has traveled widely, for example, or is into teenage music and dance, or has been a sailor, or a clown in a circus, might have a lot to offer children; but how do we assure that kind of life-experience contribution, when its sources are so unique? We might want to require practitioners to have some particular skill (such as dancing) with variety in the options for individuals. Or we might invent a special credential for these specialists—one that can be met more easily with multiple paths but that includes an emphasis on special skills and experience.

Altruism among Providers

Intrinsic motivation, including altruistic concern for the welfare of children and their families, affects the organization of the care industry as a whole, as well as the supply of labor. Many providers are nonprofits, enjoying subsidies from local churches or community centers. This not-for-profit orientation complicates economic dynamics in the field, making providers reluctant to raise

prices even when it may be necessary to improve quality.

During the 1980s, a heated debate over federal funding standards for ECE programs was in full swing. A newly installed Legal Counsel for the federal Department of Health and Human Services discovered that one state was paying centers an amount that would not even cover the cost of meeting the state's child care licensing rules. This finding, so startling to the Legal Counsel, was not at all uncommon among the states. Amazed, the Legal Counsel asked, "Then why do the programs do it?" That is, why do they provide the care?³ The obvious answer is, they do it because they believe that it is morally necessary and socially important.

We should celebrate and value such commitments. However, we should also recognize that altruism can take many forms and can sometimes lead to unintended and undesirable results.

For instance, many providers are reluctant to increase fees because they know some families will be unable to pay. Assuming that the overall budget for care services is fixed, they make the implicit decision that it is better to provide low-quality care for a larger number of families than higher-quality care for a smaller number of families.

Given that assumption, they may be right. But the overall budget for care services is not fixed. It could be increased through more public subsidy and support. By keeping prices low, providers may help create the illusion that all is well with OST and ECE programs. After all, it is easy for parents to assess price, but difficult for them to assess quality.

Furthermore, providers have an incentive to deny that there is a significant trade-off between price and quality; after all, most of them are doing the best they can, and it is painful for them to concede that quality could be higher if they paid higher salaries. They know from experience that many workers are motivated by altruism. But even altruistic workers have to pay their bills.

Rather than calling for more sacrifices from themselves and their employees, managers and administrators need to engage in a more public and heroic altruism: collective action and political organization to demand higher standards and more public support for high-quality care.

Return on Investment in Education

Several studies report a negative return on investment⁴, at most only a 5 percent rate of return, for child care center teachers, and no return on increased experience or level of education for aides and assistants. We are not aware of any studies that have measured the return on investment for the OST workforce; it would be useful to have this information as ammunition to stimulate policy change (Folbre, 2001).

Even in public education, where teachers are relatively better paid, averaging \$37,300 per year, their pay averages \$7,894 per year less than they could earn in another field with their college degrees (*Education Week*, 2000). These findings suggest that the impact of public investments in scholarship assistance, loan forgiveness programs, and other incentives for training to overcome the workforce's negative return on investment in professional education could be profound. To

raise compensation, investments in training must be coupled with career ladders or lattices that link wages to qualifications.

Pressure to Increase Productivity

Usually, the combination of low wages, high turnover, and low-skilled workers leads employers to push for increases in productivity through adaptation of the work itself. However, programs in this field are highly labor-intensive; OST programs cannot be made substantially more efficient by technology or other methods that have been successfully applied to increase productivity in other fields, such as manufacturing. Improved business practices, phone lines, computerized accounting, and the like do make a difference, but most of the costs of the service lie in the salaries of the staff who work directly with school-age children.

In New Rules for a New Economy: Employment and Opportunity in Postindustrial America, Herzenberg, Alic, and Wial (1998) offer an analysis of how to apply concepts of productivity appropriately to service industries, recognizing that services are more complex than manufacturing processes. In OST programs, improved performance (greater productivity) requires staff to use judgment about how to satisfy the unique needs of individual children and youths. While there is some usefulness to standardized rules and routines, effective services are not just a matter of standardizing when and how to prepare snacks, organize activities, manage schedules, and the like. Workers must develop skills in understanding growing children's continually changing wants and needs, and this requires

constant adjustment to new situations.

Herzenberg and his colleagues posit that enhanced job performance results from a worker's improving his or her ability to elicit information, to understand and respond appropriately to a situation, to select and follow work practices from an available repertoire, and perhaps to learn or invent new practices. Investments in training create both quality improvements and cost savings by producing "economies of depth," and "economies of coordination" (Herzenberg, Alic, & Wial, 1998).

Examples of cost savings from this approach to productivity are

- Practitioners with more skills do not spend their time unproductively bossing and directing children. They are able to create a climate of engagement and attention in which discipline in the top-down sense is seldom needed. They can engage children in planning the activities they want and in developing the rules for their time together.
- Practitioners with training and knowledge of child development are better able to "read" school-age children and assess their needs. A group leader who knows how to avert a school-age child's rage saves time and improves the experience for everyone in the program.
- Routine tasks are of great importance to the health and safety of school-age children. Well-trained practitioners can structure such tasks for efficiency, thus maximizing time for learning activities and time for responsive individual attention.

- Skilled practitioners create a sense of order, in which school-age children have access to materials and equipment they need, and understand how to put them away. When school-age children take greater initiative and share in the order of a program, the practitioners are much better able to be productive in relationships rather than in busy work.

If reliance on an undifferentiated and highly variable workforce with little training is keeping wages in the field low and services low in quality, and productivity can be increased with skilled staff, then one strategy is to adopt practices that engage and retain workers in ongoing learning. Placing entry-level practitioners on a career path with built-in wage increases tied to qualifications will reduce reliance on labor of variable quality. For this purpose, we need a system that will require aides and assistants to participate in training that will enable them over time to move into more demanding roles. In this sense, the career development policies that are being implemented across the country are important as wage initiatives. In the much admired United States Army child care system, wages increase with more training at regular intervals, but an aide does not have the option of remaining untrained with stagnant wages. Individuals must move "up or out."

At least 44 states require some training every year for all staff in their licensing requirements, but the licensing rules for OST staff are usually far less detailed than rules for other age groups. Training policies for out-of-school time programs could be further improved by

- making sure the number of hours of required annual training is significant enough to have a long-range effect, no less than 24 hours every year;
- assuring that training is well-designed and effective at transforming beliefs and changing behavior;
- encouraging the option of college credit to be available both for any required preservice qualifications and also for the required annual training;
- making sure that the training enables aides and assistants to see the career options ahead and know that they are on a path to become practitioners or fill other better-paying roles in the field; and
- developing a special certificate for the short-term staff members with special skills who are not on a career path in the out-of-school time field

Joining Forces with a New Social Movement

In addition to their emphasis on education, out-of-school time programs offer school-age children the caring relationships so important to growth and learning, and so undervalued in some schools. A new social movement is the growing emphasis among social activists and young feminists to recognize the importance and value of all forms of care. Society has devalued and underpaid those who care, whether it is health care workers, youth care workers, elder care workers, or those employed in any other form of care. The OST field may consider allying efforts to improve compensation with the caring movement by creating linkages between campaigns for OST,

child care, and elder care. The ECE and OST fields combine both education and caring. Internally, the field values its caring equally with its educating, but society as a whole currently values education but not care (Stone, 2000).

The roots of undervaluing caring can be traced back to the nineteenth and early twentieth century when professions were male dominated and still reflected the assumption that rational thought (which was primarily associated with males) is superior, whereas emotions (which were primarily associated with women) undermine rational thought and are symptoms of an inferior character. The caring movement now recognizes the necessity of caring supports for people and families in society and the need to value caretaking done by both men and women.

The caring movement is attracting younger feminists in a variety of disciplines and may become integral to new initiatives in the union movement. A number of feminist economists have integrated concepts of caring into their analyses (Folbre, 2001). The idea that it is essential for the health of our economy to value and reward those who care is inherent in this approach to economics. This caring perspective will attract new participants to our organizing efforts. It suggests that we should enlist the help of younger feminists who are not yet involved in advocacy for the field.

Educating the Consumer to Stimulate Demand

Wage policies in a particular program or

community result from the interaction of supply and demand, in the context of the values and customs of society. One factor that clearly affects that interaction is information. To date, much of the policy focus in compensation work has been on the supply side. However, a new focus on providing better information to OST consumers might affect the demand side significantly.

Families have consumer ratings, expert advisors, and any number of helps to turn to when buying a meal in a restaurant, purchasing a car or a house, or selecting a health provider. To date, however, parents have little access to explicit information about specific out-of-school time services. In the OST field, we have delivery systems for such information: NSACA's network of state affiliates and a national network of child care resource and referral agencies (R&Rs). For over 25 years, R&Rs—like Cooperative Extension and many other childhood advisors—have attempted to inform parents to be "expert choosers," rather than giving parents what they want: the basic information they need to make a choice. The approach has had some success in educating parents about the need for quality, but progress has been very slow.

The approach to consumer information in the OST field is changing, as it is in medicine and other fields. The state of North Carolina, for example, is rating all its centers and displaying the rating on their licenses. Oklahoma has a similar system called Reaching for the Stars. Rating allows all parents to obtain information on quality and makes it possible to structure public subsidies to reward higher quality. A growing number of states (now 27) pay a higher rate for accredited centers and homes (Children's Defense Fund,

2001). In the past few years, the general public's awareness that accreditation is a way to identify higher quality has increased dramatically. The OST accreditation is so new that states may not yet have included it in their policies of paying more for higher quality.

During the next decade, if R&Rs shift toward providing objective, factual information to parents about specific features of programs (e.g., licensing records, accreditation status, percent of staff with credentials and college degrees), they may have a stronger effect on demand than they have had with their "expert choosers" approach by itself. More detailed consumer information could result in higher demand for quality programs and qualified staff. If R&Rs make that shift, it will be a compensation strategy as well as a quality strategy.

Additionally, recognition of school-age children as consumers could stimulate R&Rs to develop new approaches to helping families with school-age children to determine their child's special interests and talents, and to identify community resources and activities available for those purposes, rather than only referring to organized after-school programs.

Marketing to Diversity

For demand to be effective, OST programs and other services for children and families must be affordable, flexible, high in quality, and attractive to consumers. All programs need to inspire consumer trust. Since the needs of children and families are becoming increasingly diverse, programs must adjust by offering programming that is aligned with the communities they serve. It is not clear that the field has been marketing itself

as having these values, even to those who can afford the service independently or to those who have access through subsidy. We have assumed that the only problem is affordability, but it is likely that OST programs need to become more attractive and responsive to diverse families to convince the public of the value of out-of-school time programs as a public investment.

The "Flexibility" Factor

Another aspect of consumer demand has been identified by Art Emlen at the University of Oregon in his studies of ECE: the "flexibility" factor. Emlen's surveys have found that working families need some flexibility in their lives in order to manage the demands of both work and family. There are three types of flexibility that families may have in varying degrees: (1) flexibility within the family, (2) flexibility at the workplace, and (3) flexibility in the care-giving program. (Emlen, et al., 2000)

Emlen discovered that parents who are dissatisfied and view the ECE service they use as low in quality low flexibility on all three of these factors. Parents who have chosen center care and view it positively have high flexibility both in their family and in their jobs. This fact implies that otherwise they would not have been able to choose center care, which is generally less flexible than other forms of care. Home-based care has been better able than most centers to provide flexibility for families. Families that view home-based care as "perfect" are likely to have flexibility on one of the three factors.

For many families, there is a need for some supportive flexibility in services for children, particularly in centers, as well as flexibility in the

other two factors. Flexibility can be viewed as an aspect of quality. Those centers that do have flexibility receive very high approval from parents. Emlen concludes that the degree of flexibility a family has determines whether parents are able to choose quality, which will affect overall demand. This concept suggests that the training for OST providers and practitioners include concepts of family-friendly service. Directors in particular need to learn how to offer flexible service and inspire their staff to family friendliness.

“Systems” Thinking

The wage issue has long been known to be a complex one. The National Child Care Study (Ruopp et al., 1979) discovered that salaries, fees, and ratios are so interrelated that to attempt to fix one of them is to make the others worse. In the field, we have been calling this particular set of budget issues a “trilemma.” It is recognizably a systems issue, and we know that a narrower, problem-solving approach for any one of these three factors will exacerbate the problems of the others. Systems thinking means correcting problems in the system as a whole, rather than believing that a simple solution to the problem immediately at hand will solve that problem.

One of the leaders in identifying systems thinking, J. W. Forrester, discovered a generation ago that the nature of social systems is counterintuitive. Our experience with simple systems, he wrote, causes us to look for solutions near the symptoms of trouble. But solving subsystem problems will make other issues worse, and we will fail to correct the systemic problem we thought we were addressing. All social systems seem to have a few sensitive influence points through which the behavior of

the system can be changed. But these points are not where most people expect them to be. “A series of actions all aimed at short-run improvement can eventually burden a system with long-run depressants so severe that even heroic short-run measures no longer suffice” (Forrester, 1975).

One example of the systems approach is the efforts to build career development systems in states and communities. These initiatives attempt to address the compensation/ quality/cost issues by modifying the system that is creating low wages. Systems thinking suggests that we have been wise to include major systemic change among our strategies for compensation, and that we should redouble those efforts to speed up the changes, as well as link these efforts to other strategies that will affect the whole system.

Out-of-School Time Programs as a Public Good

In a free market economy, firms will only provide goods and services if they can ensure that they will receive payment. Providers of goods and services will produce whatever quantity is the most profitable, and they will only take into account their own costs and benefits. They do not account for external costs or benefits that extend beyond providers and consumers.

Public goods have external costs of benefits or spillover effects that are difficult to quantify in an individual transaction. Clean air, clean water, a stable climate—these are all examples of public goods. We cannot individually go to the supermarket and buy the quantities of these we need. We must act together to obtain them. Most

economists consider education a public good because the benefits that individuals enjoy from education are amplified by the social benefits of greater economic productivity. Some economists argue that care should also be considered a public good (Folbre, 2001). Care can also be considered a *merit good*, something that we think is morally and culturally valuable, whether or not it is economically productive.

Quality OST programs are public goods. If OST programs had no public support, private programs would still exist for families that could afford them. Further, some new private programs might open in response to this demand. There would not, however, be nearly enough programs provided for everyone to benefit, because the market only takes account of the private costs and benefits, not of the external benefits that accrue to society as a result of public access to services. These programs are also merit goods that increase the well-being and happiness of children and parents.

Vocal proponents—from foundations, think tanks, and the community—have begun to raise public consciousness and garner support for OST programs. Brain research has underscored the vital role quality ECE can play in the healthy development of our youngest citizens. In a survey of police chiefs, 86 percent said that expanding after-school and ECE programs would greatly reduce crime and violence. Ninety-one percent of police chiefs said America will pay later in crime, welfare, and other costs if greater investments in after-school and educational child care aren't made now (Fight Crime: Invest in Kids, 1999). Sixty-seven percent of Americans were ready to forgo a tax cut to provide children with good

early childhood development programs and quality after-school programs (Fight Crime: Invest in Kids, 2000).

The current influx of funds into out-of-school time programs is a clear sign that progress is being made in increasing awareness of the value of the field. The existence of nonprofit child care centers demonstrates that many think child care is a public good and therefore donate money and volunteer their services to support such programs. The fact that the federal government spends several billion dollars a year on Head Start demonstrates that we recognize the external benefits of providing services to at-risk children.

Although public awareness of the need for quality out-of-school time services is slowly growing, programs are not widely viewed by policymakers or by the general public as a public good equivalent to, for example, higher education. Certainly, a strong factor working against widespread acceptance of these programs is the entrenched US view that families should be self-supporting and independent. With this view comes the belief that any problems families have are the result of their own inadequacies and need to be solved by families rather than any reliance on a supportive community. Many parents themselves hold the view that their arrangements for their children are a private solution to a personal problem and not a public one. The essential challenge is getting the public to recognize OST care and other programs for children as public goods that provide significant external benefits to justify spending a greater share of public resources on them.

Table 2.

Why Are Quality Out-of-School Time Programs a Public Good?

1. Quality OST produces social benefits that exceed its private benefits:
 - enhanced child development
 - increased achievement in school
 - higher productivity in later life
2. The current labor market relies on after-school care to enable families with children to work.
3. The cost of providing quality out-of-school time programs is greater than most families can afford.

The public considers higher education to be a public good because it enables citizens to reach their maximum potential and advance their lives through their own efforts. Additionally, college tuition is generally acknowledged to cost more than most families can afford. The affordability issue for OST field's services is also well established. However, before the public fully accepts OST as a public good, there must be a strong perception that it is linked to healthy development and education, and that it is safe, trustworthy, enjoyed by children, and supportive of families. The benefits of out-of-school time programs must be recognized in terms of quality, dependability, responsiveness, flexibility, supportiveness, accountability, and outcomes. Possibly, public awareness campaigns need to market these aspects of the service.

But how much of the available OST services at present can claim to have those qualities? Our field tends to assume that we would have those qualities if we had the resources and support. Perhaps it is the other way around;

programs must begin to develop and market those qualities in order to garner public resources and support to solidify the field's status as a merit good.

Finance Reform

The problems of underinvestment and inadequate financing in the field are linked, and the root of the problem may be structural. In other fields—e.g., housing, higher education, transportation, and health care—public financial support is available in some measure to all families. In public transportation, fares are “subsidized” for all riders. Tax credits and other means are available to build low-income housing, and homeowners can access federal mortgage tax deductions. In institutions of higher education, the same tuition is charged for all students, plus financial aid grants and loans are available for needy students.

can access federal mortgage tax deductions. In institutions of higher education, the same tuition is charged for all students, plus financial aid grants and loans are available for needy students.

Further, support is provided through both direct financial assistance to a program and as portable financial assistance to consumers. In transportation, direct capital aid is used to build the system, *and* public investment assures low fares for riders. In housing, there is public investment in equity for building construction *and* for rent subsidies for families. In higher education, public budgets make direct appropriations to colleges *and* provide financial aid for students (Stoney, 1998).

The significance of direct financial support for out-of-school time programs is clear when we compare direct and portable assistance to child care centers and private non-profit institutions of higher education. The average child care center has few sources of direct support and must support almost 90 percent of its revenue needs with tuition. In contrast, the average private college receives direct support in various forms and needs to support only about half of its total costs through tuition. (Vast, 2001)

Perversely, in programs for children, only a small percentage of all families (including low-income families) get any help. This is because there is very little direct public or private sector support for programs, and the portable financial support for low-income families is capped at levels determined by what average-income families are believed to be willing to pay (so-called market rates). Because the majority of funds are for the poor, we assume that any public support is charity. Further, portable financial assistance

(usually in the form of "child care subsidies") substitutes for, rather than supplements, any direct support programs may receive. It is usually misunderstood as "double-dipping."

Our country needs to dramatically increase direct support for all types of children's programs. One approach is to increase the amount invested per child, drawing on sources other than parents. It is essential that we invest in ways that don't increase the price families have to pay, or that reduce it to an affordable level. One example would be subsidy payments set well above the "market" rate. Direct support can pay for current costs of programs, such as health benefits, and for current costs incurred by individuals, such as for training and continuing education.

In the United States Army, the ECE program budget now uses a unit cost (per child space) that includes all these elements of quality. Scholarships that directly link education to compensation, such as Teacher Education and Compensation Helps (T.E.A.C.H.) Early Childhood® Project, are an example of compensation strategies that promote career advancement through higher education. In these ways, direct support can target compensation by rewarding staff for qualifications achieved and longevity as San Francisco's CARES (Compensation and Retention Encourage Stability) and North Carolina's WAGE\$ programs do (Mitchell, 2001). Employers who fund programs for their own employees are clear about the link between compensation and retention and are directly supporting the costs. (They also recognize the link between the provision of affordable child care and employee satisfaction and retention.) Many of these employers are investing between \$40,000 and \$100,000 per center per year to increase teacher salaries and reduce turnover (Brown, 2000).

III. New Strategies for Solutions

Key Principles of Compensation Solutions

Several key principles guide effective compensation solutions. These principles are derived from research conducted over several decades and studies of finance in other fields

1. Increased compensation must be directly linked to increased qualifications. These qualifications define what the staff person must be, do, and know to merit the increase in compensation. There must be a way to determine whether the person has these qualifications.
2. Regulations should include pre-employment qualifications for specific positions and substantial ongoing continuing education requirements for continuing growth.
3. Market rates (prices currently charged for after-school care) do not reflect the actual cost of providing quality out-of-school time programs.
4. Increased compensation cannot depend solely on parent fees or on portable subsidies that replace parent fees.
5. Direct subsidies and portable subsidies are both necessary. They are not substitutes for one another, but must be combined.
6. Compensation is a systems problem and requires multiple interactive solutions.
7. The cost of the program must include infrastructure support, such as public support for training and quality recognition (Mitchell & Morgan, 2000).

Compensation is certainly a systems problem that requires systems solutions. Clearly, any solution must at least address all three factors of the quality-compensation-affordability trilemma. To

be effective, solutions must deal simultaneously with several contributing factors, as illustrated in figure 1. These factors correspond to the underlying causes of poor compensation discussed above. An effective overall solution to improve compensation will employ strategies to address each of these factors and link strategies to one another.

Across the nation, states and communities are implementing promising initiatives that represent strategies toward a solution. These initiatives can be grouped into six different approaches (which are described in more detail in the numbered sections that follow):

1. Career development
2. Greater investments per child in portable subsidies
3. Direct investments in programs, staff, and quality
4. Better information for consumers
5. Upgrading standards used in licensing and funding
6. Organizing the workforce and/or the community

The challenge is not to make a choice among these approaches, but rather to move to implement some aspects of all of them. The following pages describe some different examples of these compensation strategies from both the OST and ECE fields. The ECE models should be viewed as potential strategies for the OST field to consider. Information was drawn from telephone interviews conducted in 2001.

1. CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Profound concern about compensation is one of

the factors that propel the work of more than 40 groups in states and communities that call themselves "career development" or "professional development" planning groups and many of the policymakers who are instituting changes in response to this work. In many states, OST advocates and practitioners are participating in this planning; for the professional development initiative to have a broad-based and long-range effect, OST advocates would need to be active in such planning groups in every US state.

Career development work is a set of organized systemic changes that are designed and expected to bring more diversity to the field; provide greater access to higher paying jobs for those who enter without extensive pre-service education, including members of underrepresented groups; gain higher status and compensation for the field as a whole; and secure greater commitment within the higher education community to meeting the needs of the various sectors of the field.

a) Career Development in Contrast to Traditional Credentialism

The modern career development approach, with the goals described above, is geared to retain and professionalize the already employed in addition to those preparing themselves for future employment. There are several benefits of today's approach as compared with traditional credentialism.

- "Intentionality"—or the expressed desire to get a college degree—may unfold gradually for many individuals. They may not see themselves taking out a loan and committing to a four-year degree program. A career development system permits practitioners/providers

to take smaller steps. It ensures that when they participate in training programs and other growth-enhancing life experiences, their knowledge can count toward a degree if they choose later to seek one.

- A career development system provides greater access to credit-bearing training for the already employed.
- Career development puts strong emphasis on greater diversity in the workforce and in the leadership of the field.
- Career development is characterized by lifelong career progression, rather than drawing a clear and relatively permanent line between professionals and those who are not professionals.

Compensation strategies have emerged from the widespread interest in the modern career development approach. In the pages that follow, we describe four of these strategies—mentoring, apprenticeship programs, scholarship programs, and merit pay awards—and also briefly discuss other career development approaches.

b) Mentoring

Mentoring programs have sprouted up all over the United States. Below we describe two: The Minnesota School-Age Mentoring Project and the Trainer Apprenticeship Program led by School's Out Washington.

- ◆ *The Minnesota School-Age Mentoring Project*¹ matches recipients of Child Development Fund planning and start-up grants with an experienced OST mentor. A portion of each grant is earmarked for use in the Project, and participation is a condition of the grant. The program is designed to

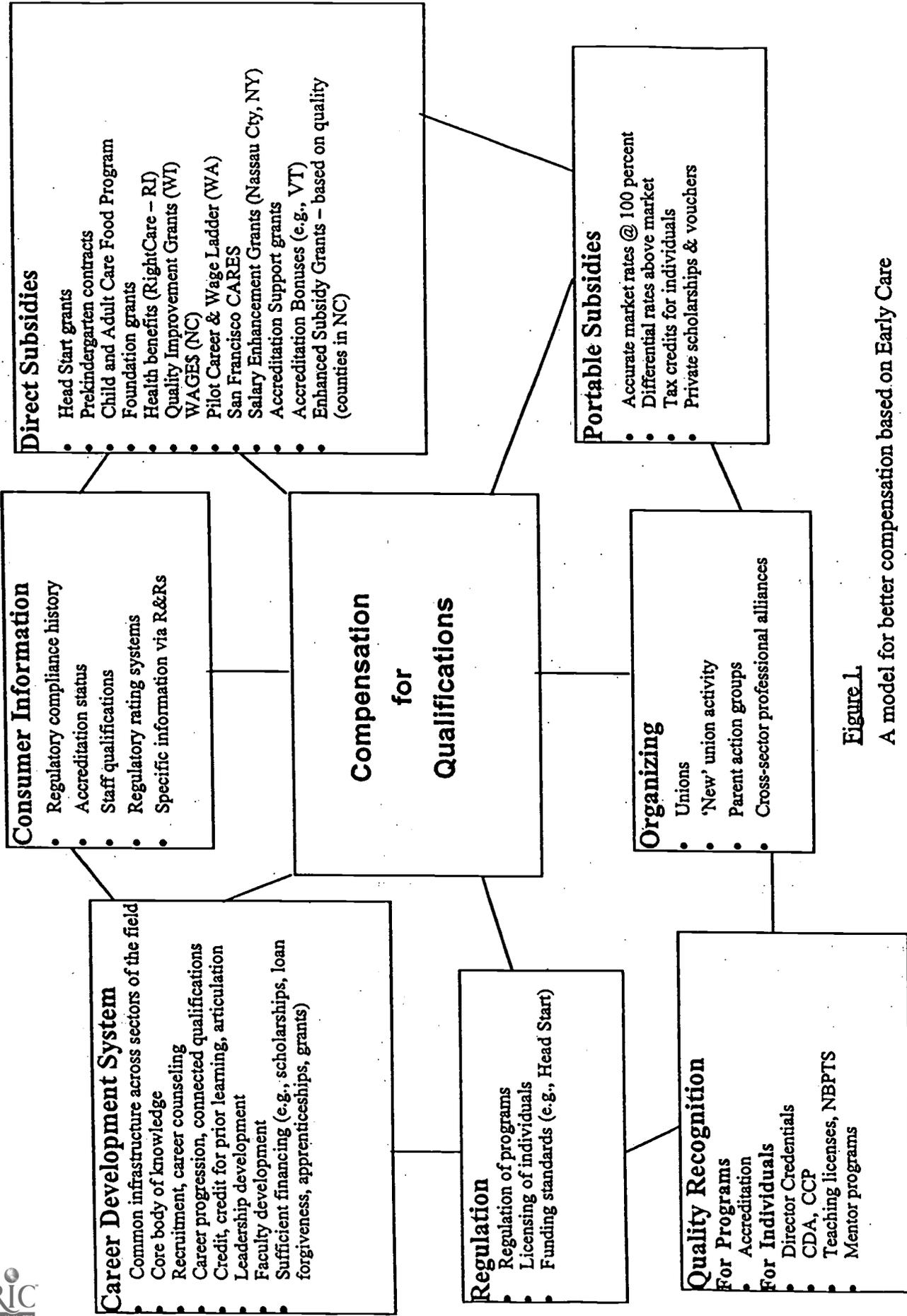


Figure 1
 A model for better compensation based on Early Care and Education

connect new grantees to the larger OST community by introducing them to local, state, and national resources and to ultimately improve the quality of programs. Because providers enter the field with various levels of experience and education along the school age care continuum, mentors use a tiered support approach to meet the developmental needs of each grantee. The one-on-one relationship lasts for 12 to 16 months and pairs communicate monthly through e-mail, site visit, or the program's chat room.

Mentors and mentees receive a one-day training and participate in monthly content-specific trainings. Mentors are compensated at \$20.00 per hour including preparation, travel, and meeting times.

◆ *The Trainer Apprenticeship Project*² led by School's Out Washington is designed to develop a pool of trainers who have the necessary skills and experience to conduct training for school-age/youth programs. Each apprentice is matched with an experienced training mentor and works one-on-one for nine months to develop and carry out an individual professional development plan. Mentors provide technical assistance in a variety of ways such as helping the apprentice to develop a "tool box" of training resources, teaching the apprentice a host of training and business management techniques, and encouraging professional growth. Each apprentice is paid at a rate of \$16.80 an hour up to 40 hours, and each professional trainer receives a \$400.00 stipend.

c) Department of Labor Apprenticeship Programs

Over the last decade, early childhood apprenticeship programs in West Virginia, Maine,

and Minnesota demonstrated that rigorous Department of Labor (DOL) standards, emphasis on college education, and a career approach with the potential of matriculation to higher levels of college can attract and retain people for the OST field and give them urgently needed skills.

Compensation is an essential component of any apprentice program, since the assumption of the DOL is that a person who has become qualified must receive higher pay. In the past two years the US DOL issued contracts with 20 states for new apprentice programs across the country and plans to fund another round of ten states next year. Although only a few states are exploring ways to include OST staff in their apprenticeship programs, the apprenticeship model may hold promise for OST programs. We describe two such programs below:

◆ *The Vermont Child Care Apprenticeship Program*³ received an initial grant from the US DOL, Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training to implement a child care apprentice program. As with all apprentice programs, the program in Vermont ties college level classes to substantial on-the-job training with increased wages. Sponsoring agencies are the programs that employ the apprentices. Vermont is the first state to welcome school-age programs to enroll.

Apprentices work full time, in accredited programs, under the daily supervision of a qualified child care professional. They must work a minimum of 2,000 hours per year and be assessed by their supervisor for advancement in the process. Apprentices receive a minimum of 144 hours per year of classroom instruction, receiving credit for these classes from Champlain College. The curricula were developed by qualified instructors in collaboration with representatives of the child care industry. The

structure and timing of the classes allows apprentices to apply for their Child Development Associate credential (CDA) after one year in the apprenticeship program. Upon completion of each course, apprentices receive a supplemental wage increase of \$0.25 per hour at a maximum increase of \$2.00 per hour. At the end of the two-year program, apprentices receive a Certificate of Completion.

Supervisors are required to take a course to enhance their leadership and supervision skills and are rewarded with \$2.00 per hour supplemental stipends to enhance their child care salaries. This combination of education and compensation supports the retention of these highly trained professionals during the program. The hourly stipends received by apprentices and supervisors continue for the length of their stay in the field of child care in Vermont.

◆ *The Nevada Child Care Apprenticeship Program*⁴ was implemented with a grant from the US DOL. The program is implemented through a collaboration of the Nevada Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), Nevada community colleges and universities, Department of Human Resources/Welfare Division, the Child Care and Development Fund, the Department of Labor and Nevada Apprenticeship Council, and the Washoe County School District.

Apprentices are required to complete 4,000 hours of on-the-job training, focused on identified skill areas and supervised by a mentor, over a two-year period. Course work, totaling 20 college credits, is offered at four community colleges throughout Nevada. Distance learning methods, such as interactive video, are being used to deliver some courses.

The Nevada Apprenticeship Program has built-in supports and benefits that improve compensation, such as tuition scholarships, stipends, and bonuses. Apprentices in the program receive scholarships to cover the tuition costs for the course work. In addition to the required salary increase paid by their employer, the Apprenticeship Program provides a \$100 bonus for each school semester completed with a C or better, totaling \$400 over two years. Participants also receive membership in NAEYC

Mentors must have at least two years of experience in the field of early childhood and have completed at least 15 credits in early childhood education courses. Mentors attend regularly scheduled trainings, and scholarships are available to them for college course work. Stipends are provided—\$100 each year per apprentice—as well as comprehensive membership to NAEYC.

Child care centers that agree to contract with the Apprenticeship Program as a sponsor must agree to raise salaries, based on their current wage scale. Sponsoring programs receive a \$500 yearly stipend, as well as training and support for center quality improvement.

d) Scholarships with Visible Links to Compensation

Below we list some scholarship initiatives that are directly targeted to OST program staff. We also describe two child care initiatives that may be adapted and used for OST staff.

◆ The US Congress is considering a national bill, Focus on Committed and Underpaid Staff for Children's Sake Act (FOCUS)⁵, that will authorize

the provision of federal funds to states to make grants and scholarships for education and training for child care and after-school providers and their staff. It also provides for wage bonuses. This proposed legislation is designed to encourage the recruitment of providers and staff who are new to the field and the retention of those who have demonstrated a commitment to the field.

◆ Established by the California Commission of Teacher Credentialing⁶, the Child Development Permit with a School-Age Emphasis is intended to stimulate increased course offerings by community colleges, professional associations, and other educational institutions. With its emphasis on early childhood education, the previous Child Development Permit did not address the training needs of providers who work with children and youth from the ages of six to 18. The new permit allows individuals to create a school-age "emphasis" within the Child Development Permit by taking up to half of the total coursework on school-age care. The permit also provides a mechanism for establishing a career ladder, identifies course work for school-age care, defines a process for approval of training, and links into an established registry of credentialed child care professionals.

Providers seeking a new permit or maintaining an existing permit may have their college tuition, fees, and textbook costs reimbursed by the Child Development Training Consortium, a statewide program supported by quality improvement block-grant funding.

◆ **Achieving Program Excellence: Linking Professional Development and Practice (APEX)** is a professional development program designed to train Massachusetts practitioners working in OST

programs. For the past several years, Parents United for Child Care⁷, in Boston, has worked with Bunker Hill Community College and the Child Care Careers Institute to develop and offer credit coursework for OST professionals. Funded by a Massachusetts Department of Education "Advancing the Field" grant, this college-level certificate introduces students to issues in the areas of child and youth development, activity planning, supervision, administration, and family/community relations. Designed as a model scholarship program that offers comprehensive student support, APEX provides tuition, books, academic assessment, advice, tutoring, and career counseling. Students earn credit toward an associate's degree.

◆ In addition to North Carolina, where the program originated, the Teacher Education and Compensation Helps (T.E.A.C.H.) Early Childhood® Project is currently being offered in Colorado, Georgia, Florida, Illinois, Idaho, Indiana, Oklahoma, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin. Typically T.E.A.C.H. has begun with a substantial employee contribution and rapidly grows with additional funds from the state, foundations, and/or other employers. T.E.A.C.H. is a scholarship fund that can combine public and private support to pay for college education for staff currently employed in child care programs. The scholarship program is highly flexible and can be used for many purposes: family child care, director credential, infant-toddler credential, or school-age, at the decision of the entity in the state that administers the program. T.E.A.C.H. Early Childhood New York, described here as one example, is a program that provides educational scholarship opportunities for people working in regulated child care centers (and/or prekindergarten programs). Participants receive scholarships to earn a certificate, an associate's degree, or a bachelor's degree in the field of ECE.

The program requires child care programs (in centers or homes) and participants to make the following commitments. Individuals who wish to participate in the program must be working full-time (30 hours per week) and must be willing to take nine to 15 hours of college credits, pay 15 percent of the cost of tuition and books, and remain in the child care center that sponsors them for one year after completion of T.E.A.C.H. participation. Child care centers must agree to sponsor one or more of their employees, contribute 15 percent of the cost of tuition and books, and provide 10 hours of release time for each employee they sponsor (up to a maximum of 60 hours) during the quarter. Additionally, the center must agree to raise the T.E.A.C.H. participant's salary when he or she has completed the following "milestones": 2 percent salary increase upon completion of a CDA or 30 credits in early childhood; 4 percent salary increase upon completion of an associate's degree in early childhood; and 8 percent salary increase upon completion of a bachelor's degree in early childhood. T.E.A.C.H. Early Childhood New York is currently administered by the New York State Child Care Coordinating Council, with funding from the American Business Collaboration for Quality Dependent Care and the New York State Education Department.

◆ The State of Montana⁸ established Merit Pay Awards to assist providers in accessing training opportunities. Individuals who work at least 20 hours a week in a center or home-based child care setting are eligible to apply for an award if they have completed at least 30 clock hours of training. Each applicant must submit a training plan in the fall, which is reviewed and approved by a committee. Training must be completed by September of the following year in order to receive the award. Awards are quite small—only \$250 for 30 hours of training and \$400 for 60 hours

of training—but have made a significant difference in Montana. The program is currently administered by the State with Child Care Development Block Grant funds. At present, individuals who work in Head Start, school-age programs, and the public schools are not eligible, although this is currently being evaluated and the program may be amended to include more staff.

e) Other Career Development Approaches

The following are examples of other professional development initiatives.

◆ In recognition of the need for a coordinated and comprehensive professional development system in Massachusetts, a collaboration of organizations led by the Massachusetts School Age Coalition (MSAC)⁹, convened to launch the Professional Advancement for School-Age Staff Initiative (PASS). The goal of PASS is to build a system that links professional development for OST providers with quality programs for children. Proposed activities include the development of core competencies and a career ladder with compensation levels for the OST field. PASS includes four committees working on the development of key components of the system: core competencies, career ladder, program improvement and accreditation, and recruitment and retention.

◆ The Child Care Careers Program at Wheelock College (CCCP)¹⁰ had 10 years of success in supporting low-income and welfare participants in a college-based program that provided substantial training and support services and a job placement so that individuals were prepared for roles beyond those of aides and assistants. This program had a high rate of employment for

graduates, at better-than-average salaries. As a model, it provides evidence in favor of substantial entry-level training.

◆ Director credentialing¹¹ is a fast-growing approach to improving quality that is also an important compensation strategy. Many states are creating, or are planning to create, OST credentials. For example, the state of Florida now requires that as of January 1, 2003, directors and administrators of child care and education programs must have an administrator credential as part of the minimum licensing standard. The credentialing program consists of educational and experiential requirements, including status as a child-development associate (CDA), an approved equivalent, or an exemption earned by education or employment history (Gannett, Nee, and Smith, 2001). In Wisconsin, the OST field is represented on the governing board of the Registry, which is responsible for credentialing. Six courses have been developed for this voluntary credential for directors of any type of children's program, and the content includes salary policy and administration. There has also been an exploration into the creation of a national OST credential. The Taking the Lead Initiative at Wheelock College Institute for Leadership and Career Initiatives has created a "hub" of information and materials on director credentialing. Some of this information is available on the Institute's Web site: <http://institute.wheelock.edu/>.

2. GREATER INVESTMENTS PER CHILD

Increasing the investment per child is a key approach to raising compensation. OST is a labor-intensive service. Typically, at least half of a program's budget goes for compensation for staff who work directly with children. Public subsidy

programs use reimbursement rates to invest in programs on behalf of low-income families. If rates are too low, programs cannot increase compensation. To protect parents from tuition increases and to assure a rate that is large enough to include pay increases for staff, approaches that pay above the market rate are preferable to approaches that raise the market rate.

Paying more for higher quality is a strategy for states to bring more money to programs that are making an effort to become accredited or to meet other standards of quality. If the additional amount is large enough, centers are able to raise wages. The practice of paying more for higher quality has the potential to affect wages in the market as a whole.

There are several examples of efforts to raise reimbursement rates. For example, the FY2000 budget in Massachusetts included \$39 million for rate increases. Rhode Island has committed to raising rates over three years. On the federal level, USA Child Care has launched the KIDSRATE Campaign and works to introduce federal legislation to raise rates.

a) Higher Reimbursement Rates

◆ The Reach for the Stars program in Oklahoma¹² offers financial incentives for child care centers and home-based child care to improve their quality. One-star programs meet licensing requirements and receive the base reimbursement rate for children eligible for subsidy. Two-star programs meet additional quality criteria, such as teacher qualifications, training, staff compensation, parent involvement, and program evaluation, and receive a higher reimbursement rate. Three-star programs meet the two-star

criteria and are also nationally accredited. To promote equity within the system, when states establish rating scales they should also provide the programs that are subject to rating with the support and resources necessary to upgrade to achieve accreditation or otherwise improve to meet the new rating classifications.

◆ OST programs that have received NSACA¹³ accreditation have demonstrated their ability and commitment to deliver high-quality programming to children and youth. Programs in over 40 states have received NSACA accreditation and some states, including Florida, Missouri, New Jersey, New Mexico, and Oklahoma, as well as the District of Columbia, have begun to tie NSACA accreditation to higher reimbursement rates.

◆ The Child Care Quality Incentive Act¹⁴ is a proposed federal bill that will authorize the provision of financial incentives to states to increase the rates of reimbursement to providers of subsidized child care and OST programs under the Child Care and Development Block Grant. Higher reimbursement rates can lead to greater quality in programs as providers have more money to hire and retain better staff, provide training, and maintain a safe, developmentally appropriate, and stimulating environment.

b) Full Cost of Quality Initiatives

A number of groups at the national and state level have been working on financing issues for the field as a whole. A financing plan requires understanding the full cost of the service, including the contribution of staff in accepting wages below what they could earn elsewhere. This thinking is highly relevant to OST programs that are free-standing, or operated by organizations such as the YMCA/YWCA, the

Urban League, and faith-based organizations. Because public school financing is so different, the full-cost formulas developed to date are difficult to apply to school budgets.

◆ Kansas City's Metropolitan Council on Child Care¹⁵ developed figures for what child care would cost if salaries were adequate. A similar study on how much high-quality OST care really costs, including the cost of fair salaries, training, and supports, may be an important strategy in garnering support for outside sources of revenue. In terms of child care programs, for example, if the public subsidy represents only 50 percent of the true cost, programs are in a better position to seek other sources of revenue than they are if the reimbursement rate is thought to be the same as the true cost.

A similar effort was undertaken in York County, Pennsylvania¹⁶. To determine the cost of providing high quality programs to all children whose families needed child care, the local Child Care Finance Commission examined budgets from accredited programs. To calculate "true cost," they increased salaries and qualifications to be comparable with those of local public schools.

c) Maximizing Subsidy Dollars

The training of directors, except in public school settings, is just as important in OST programs as it is for other subsidized programs.

Two organizations, one in Illinois and another in Alabama, have developed training designed to increase the ability of child care center directors to maximize revenue from the state child care reimbursement system. Cheryl Gwin, of the Gulf Regional Childcare Management Agency¹⁷ in

Mobile, Alabama, has developed a training curriculum to achieve three simple goals: helping child care center directors and home-based child care operators to understand that they need to establish rates based on a cost-based budget; explaining the process for establishing market rates and why centers should provide accurate information when a survey is conducted; and making sure that center directors and home-based child care providers know where to go for help if they are unable to prepare a budget and establish a rate. Cheryl feels that many of the child care center directors and home-based child care providers in Alabama don't have any understanding of cost-based budgeting. She notes that they often "just pull rates out of the air because that's what everyone else seems to charge or what they think parents can afford" rather than determining actual costs and establishing rates on this basis.

Tom Layman, Executive Director of Chicago Metro AEYC¹⁸ and former director of the North Avenue Day Nursery in Chicago, Illinois, worked with the Day Care Action Council to create a training curriculum to help child care centers in Illinois to establish rates that reflect true market costs. Tom conducted a few one-hour workshops for directors prior to the last Illinois market rate survey and followed up with more intensive training.

3. DIRECT INVESTMENTS IN PROGRAMS, STAFF AND QUALITY

There are myriad ways to make direct investments in programs and staff to support ongoing costs and improve quality. Some address compensation directly by providing funds for wages and benefits as a quality improvement

strategy. Others provide resources more generally for quality improvement, and still others fund the costs of preparing for and maintaining accreditation. More direct support in larger amounts is essential.

a) Managing for Staff Retention

The following three programs illustrate potential strategies for addressing the issue of staff retention.

◆ The Massachusetts Recruitment and Retention Project¹⁹ was a two-year project that supported eleven OST programs in taking a closer look at how staff turnover affect a program's ability to provide high-quality programming. Participants received technical assistance, training, materials, and a \$1,000 project implementation grant. The project was supported by a collaboration between the National Institute on Out-of-School Time, Parents United for Childcare, Child Care Careers Institute, Child Care Circuit, Massachusetts School-Age Care Alliance, Lesley College, and local child care providers, with additional funding from the Center for Workforce Development.

◆ In response to the recruitment and retention crisis, the YMCA of the USA²⁰, one of the nation's largest child care providers with more than 40,000 staff, has recently developed a paper entitled: "Recruiting and Retaining YMCA Staff in Today's Challenging Environment." The paper identifies issues that contribute to the workforce crisis and offers suggestions, strategies, and tools based on the experiences of YMCA staff nationally.

◆ The Center for the Child Care Work-force (CCW)²¹ has conducted trainings for directors and teaching staff in the San Francisco Bay area (initially, and eventually throughout California) to

assist centers in managing staff turnover. Curriculum development was based on an analysis of how other industries assess turnover costs and their impact on service quality, and how employers intervene to reduce employee departures. (This approach typically involves a three-part strategy addressing compensation, work relationships, and hiring practices.) The goal of this training is to help centers achieve cost savings that can be reinvested in staff needs. CCW has prepared a publication on best practices for managing turnover, called *Taking on Turnover*, and is providing train-the-trainer workshops. Another useful tool for programs that strive to create better jobs are the Model Work Standards for family child care and centers. These are also available from CCW.

b) Using Salary Scales to Reward and Retain Staff

Adopting a salary scale that rewards both increased qualifications and longevity on the job can reduce turnover. Some examples from child care that might be adapted for OST use follow.

◆ A salary scale that rewards increased qualifications and longevity on the job has been included in all union contracts between the child care union in Massachusetts (District 65)²² and employers. This two-factor salary scale is also an important part of the course curriculum included in the Advanced Seminars for Administrators—intensive, weeklong summer courses for directors, held at Wheelock College²³.

◆ The Washington State Child Care Career and Wage Ladder²⁴ is a new state project funded with Transitional Assistance to Needy Families (TANF) funds at \$3.5 million. Employees of participating

centers will be paid depending on their job responsibilities, education, and years of experience. Centers must adopt the state's career and wage ladder that specifies a base salary and wage increments for the two factors of level of education and experience. The state will share with the center the cost of wage increments for employees with more education and experience.

c) Recruitment and Retention Bonus

The following ECE compensation programs might serve as models for OST recruitment and retention initiatives.

◆ The Child Care Professional Retention Program²⁵ is a new compensation effort in New York State designed to reduce staff turnover and reward increased professional development within the field. Providers applying for acceptance into the program must meet the following criteria: be employed by a licensed or registered child care program; be a direct care or support worker; and have been employed in their current position for at least 12 months prior to application and make a commitment to stay in their current position for the subsequent six months after the application is filed. At the end of the six-month period, providers receive a grant based on their level of education. Those with an associate's degree or higher are eligible for a \$750 grant; a CDA or an equivalent entitles a provider to a \$500 grant; and for those meeting neither criteria, a \$300 grant is available.

◆ San Francisco CARES (Compensation and Retention Encourage Stability) is a program designed to reward child care professionals for pursuing education to increase their skills, knowledge, and qualifications and promote

retention of skilled staff in regulated child care settings (in both centers and home-based child care). CARES was established by the San Francisco Board of Supervisors in July 1999, with an initial annual appropriation of \$1.15 million.

Stipends for individuals are offered at two levels. Level One stipends of \$500 per year are available for any child care worker who has at least six units of early childhood education and/or child development training and who works continuously in one program for at least one year. Level Two stipends are available to any child care worker who has training equivalent to the Child Development Permit Matrix requirements for either Teacher, Master Teacher, Site Supervisor, or Program Director; remains working in one child care program for at least one year; and participates in at least 21 hours of approved professional growth activities per year as defined by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing²⁶. Level Two annual stipends begin at \$1,500 for Teachers and \$2,500 for those holding higher credentials. For those qualified at the level of Master Teacher and above and who hold a bachelor's degree in child development or a related field, the annual stipend is \$5,000. Those with a graduate degree in child development or a related field are eligible for an additional \$500 annual stipend. Similarly, a teacher who is fluent in English and another language (including American Sign Language) is eligible for an additional \$500 annual stipend. The maximum stipend is \$6,000. Priority is given to teachers earning less than \$15 per hour, master teachers earning less than \$18 per hour, site supervisors earning less than \$21 per hour, and directors earning less than \$24 per hour. Part-time staff receives prorated stipends.

The CARES program also offers quality

improvement, or Resources for Retention, grants to public and private programs to improve staff retention. Grantee programs develop and implement staff retention plans that may include benefits such as retirement programs and other compensation improvements. Grantees must agree to participate in Corps meetings and participate in either management training or director mentoring. The maximum for a Resources for Retention grant is \$15,000.

Any person working in a licensed child care program in San Francisco who meets minimum qualifications and pursues additional professional training is eligible for the Corps and stipends. Any licensed program is eligible for Resources for Retention grants.

d) Quality Improvement

The public is concerned about the quality of services for children but uncertain about the quality of available programs. On the one hand, many parents start out assuming that any licensed care in the United States must be safe and healthy, and then slowly become aware that this is not the case. On the other hand, many other families assume that any services for children outside the family are of low quality, but some are forced to use extra-familial care because they do not have access to child care help from extended family members.

Ensuring high-quality programs for all families is a public concern, albeit a complex and somewhat ambiguous one, and strategies to improve quality are bound to receive a degree of public support. Strategies might include the development and application of outcome measures associated with high-quality care and the dissemination of these measures in particular areas. But to increase

public support of fair compensation and professional development, the outcomes need to be clearly associated with the skills of the caregiving/teaching personnel and with the issue of staff turnover.

◆ Administered by the Wisconsin Department of Workforce Development²⁷ using state and federal child care funds, the Wisconsin Quality Improvement Grants Program supports child care programs that seek to improve quality by undergoing accreditation, promoting teacher training, and raising compensation. Programs may receive an initial quality improvement grant for up to four years as long as they comply with the state's "high quality" standards within that time period. (If programs fail to meet the standards within four years, they may be required to return the funds.) To meet the high quality standards programs must be accredited by a national organization; ensure that all Lead Teachers have obtained, at a minimum, a CDA credential; ensure that the program director has obtained at least a bachelor's degree in early childhood education; maintain an annual turnover rate of no more than 20 percent or have a plan for reducing turnover to 20 percent or less; have an annual program evaluation; make funds available for employee benefits; and have a plan for improving staff compensation.

First year quality improvement grants are \$9,000 for a large child care center, \$4,500 for a small child care center, \$30,000 for a multi-site organization, and \$1,400 for a home-based child care program. Slightly smaller grants are available in years two, three, and four. Once programs have met the high quality standards, they are eligible to apply for a continuing quality improvement grant for staff retention. These grants, which are based on the number of publicly subsidized children served in the program, may be used for wages,

benefits, training, and other staff costs but not for supplies, facility costs, or lowering fees. Large child care centers receive \$3,000 per subsidized child, small child care centers receive \$1,500 per subsidized child, and home-based child care programs receive \$400 per subsidized child. All programs—whether or not they serve subsidized children—are eligible for a minimum staff retention grant of \$3,000, \$1,500, or \$400, depending upon their size.

e) Supporting and Rewarding Accreditation and the CDA Credential

ECE accreditation has the longest history among the accreditations available to different segments of the field. The newer accreditations available for home-based child care and for school-age programs are too recent to have accrued much data. For centers, however, we know that there are varying percentages of accredited programs in different states, ranging from less than 2 percent in Louisiana to almost 28 percent in Massachusetts (Surr, 2000). Now that so many states pay more for higher quality care, efforts to help programs pay accreditation fees and meet the standards for accreditation become even more important as community strategies.

◆ The Program Improvement and Accreditation Project (PIA) is funded by a two-year grant from the State Department of Children, Families and Learning in Saint Paul, MN²⁸. The main goal of the project is to develop a statewide system of resources and training for OST program improvement and NSACA accreditation that reaches programs serving low income families and communities of color. PIA uses a three-tiered readiness system to place individual programs along the continuum of accreditation. Once programs are ranked, they automatically become

members of MNSACA, receive specialized monthly training, have access to all MNSACA events, and work with an advisor throughout the process.

◆ 4C of Southwestern Ohio²⁹ and Northern Kentucky offers accreditation assistance to programs that seek accreditation from NSACA, NAEYC and NAFCC. 4C receives funding from a variety of state, local, and private sources. Informal assistance is available to all programs and providers in the community and ranges from general accreditation process orientation sessions to monthly networking sessions designed for program representatives to share challenges and successes. Eligibility for participating in formal assistance projects is based on program readiness and funder requirements. If a program does not qualify for a formal project, 4C supports further development by encouraging the program to participate in the "informal" activities. Eligible programs work together in groups of eight to 15 over the course of one to two years and receive ongoing, individualized technical assistance, attend workshops and monthly accreditation meetings, and receive monthly on-site visits. A coordinator who provides support and resources facilitates the project but is not an active participant in the self-study process.

◆ The American Business Collaboration³⁰ has supported facilitated accreditation projects in a number of cities during the past decade. These efforts paid all accreditation fees and provided other supports. Groups of directors meet for a year or more with a facilitator, as they pursue accreditation together. Funds for consultation and small grants are used to enable the programs to improve. Studies indicated that programs some

times took much longer than a year to become accredited, but that all the programs significantly improved their quality in less than a year. Other companies, such as DuPont's Flying Colors project, have supported accreditation by paying fees and offering a bonus upon successful completion.

◆ The primary goal of the Chicago Accreditation Partnership (the Partnership)³¹ is to improve the quality of OST and ECE programs in Chicago's low-income communities through assisting 400 urban child care programs to pursue and maintain accreditation. Accreditation is encouraged for centers, home-based child care, and school-age programs. The Partnership emphasizes consultation and technical assistance on an individualized basis at the programs as well as information materials for staff, professional staff development, and resources for families. Based on the experience of the pilot phase, the Partnership increased the funds it dedicates for consultation and technical assistance. Consultation and technical assistance are available both pre- and post-accreditation. Program improvement is also supported through a grant program providing facilities and equipment. Funds may be used for renovation, remodeling, furniture, and equipment in the classroom.

f) Funding Health Care Benefits

◆ In 1997, the Rhode Island Department of Human Services³² established policies that make fully paid health insurance available to home-based child care providers and extended the program to offer partially paid (50 percent) health insurance for staff in centers beginning in 1999. Providers who care for children as part of the state's child care program and who are not covered by other health insurance are eligible for

RiteCare, the state health insurance program for the uninsured. Staff in licensed centers serving 40 percent or more children who receive a state child care subsidy are eligible for RiteCare or private health plans at 50 percent of the premium cost. The state pays about \$900,000 per year in general revenues. However, the plan results in cost savings from Medicaid and public assistance.

◆ In North Carolina, the T.E.A.C.H. Early Childhood® Health Insurance Program³³ is an initiative to help fund the cost of health insurance for individuals working in child care programs that have made a commitment to supporting the education and compensation of their staff. Eligible child care staff may have up to one third of the cost of individual health insurance coverage reimbursed through a special fund. State funds support up to one third of the cost of individual (not family) health insurance coverage for staff in eligible child care programs. Participating programs must agree to cover at least one third of the cost of the health insurance, and employees may be charged the remaining one third. Participating programs may elect to cover both the employer and employee costs of insurance. Child care centers and home-based programs that have staff who participate in the T.E.A.C.H. Early Childhood® associate's or bachelor's degree scholarship programs are eligible. The program took effect in April 1999.

◆ The Wayne County Health Choice program in Michigan³⁴ offers baseline HMO-type health care coverage to low-wage employees of child care centers as well as restaurants, beauty salons, and other employers that traditionally do not offer medical benefits. The initiative was designed to help hospitals cut costs by reducing the number of uninsured individuals who are treated at

emergency rooms and are unable to pay their bills. Health Choice is available only to businesses in the county that have not offered health care benefits during the preceding 12 months and have at least three employees, at least half of whom earn an average wage of less than \$10 per hour. Employees, employers, and the county each pay one third of the insurance cost, which for a single person is \$126 monthly or \$42 per party, and \$360 per month or \$120 per party for an employee with three or more dependents. The program costs nearly \$3 million per year. Of the county's share, \$800,000 comes from state and federal Medicaid funds and contributions from hospitals; the county itself contributes \$150,000 per year. In 2000, this program received the Honor Roll Award for Exemplary Models of Health Coverage for the Uninsured from the Healthcare Leadership Council. Patient Care Management System administers Wayne County Health Choice.

4. Better Information for Consumers

Many school-age children have a say in selecting the OST program or activity suits them best. However, parents still want and need objective information to help them choose the best available programs. In addition to information about which programs are accredited, there are other kinds of factual information that could be collected and distributed: for example, the percentage of educators employed by a program who have certificates and/or degrees in early education or child development; the director's and/or group leader's qualifications; the racial/cultural makeup of the staff; the regulatory compliance history of a program using standard definitions for poor, medium, or high compliance rating; and staffing ratios.

◆ The Oklahoma Department of Health and Human Services Division of Child Care³⁵, in cooperation with the Oklahoma Cooperative Extension Service, maintains the Parenting Made Easier Web site. This comprehensive site offers parents information on paying for OST and ECE services and a database that allows a parent to conduct an individualized search for a program based on specified criteria such as the age of the child or whether transportation is available. Parents can easily identify quality programs by searching for programs that participate in Oklahoma's quality rating program, "Reach for the Stars." In order to receive a Star rating, the Department of Human Services requires licensed programs to offer developmentally appropriate learning environments that promote cognitive, social, and emotional development for each individual.

◆ For many years, Florida child care resource and referral agencies have advertised the accreditation status of programs, printing the names of accredited programs in bold in directories. The Florida legislature has now created a "Gold Seal" system for identifying higher quality. Since the early 1970s, the 4C of Central Florida³⁶ has used a "gold star" system of higher quality standards for programs to meet. This concept of identifying high-quality programs is now a part of Florida's quality improvement strategies statewide.

5. Upgrading Licensing and Funding Standards

This section discusses some licensing improvements that are strategies for ECE compensation, and whether they can be used for OST programs. Fifteen states have a set of requirements and a separate license for OST programs: California, Colorado, Hawaii,

Massachusetts, North Dakota, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, and Washington. Other states either have a brief section on OST programs as part of their child care facility license (Arizona, Alaska, Arkansas, Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Kansas, Maryland, Michigan, Mississippi, Montana, New Hampshire, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Virginia) or have a written set of requirements for centers that include both school-age children and younger children. A few states do not license OST programs.

States can raise licensing standards incrementally when there are individuals and programs able to meet them; otherwise the standards will be widely waived. When it is not feasible to raise a requirement at once, its effective date can be postponed and *grandfathering* (which specifies that existing personnel are exempt) or *grandmothering* (allowing existing personnel to be exempt for a period of time) can be used. For example, the Texas licensing office added a new rule requiring credentials for directors but gave the rule an effective date three years later. When it is not politically possible to raise licensing standards, it is often possible for the funding agency to raise funding specifications. Below we discuss some licensing improvements that are strategies for compensation:

- adding required coursework in administration to required coursework in child development for directors and/or adding a director credential (that includes administration/management training) to the requirements for directors
- establishing levels of roles that correspond to specific levels of training
- increasing and improving annual ongoing training requirements

(including encouraging the use of college-credit courses to meet the requirements)

- tightening the definition of "experience"

a) Adding Required Coursework in Administration

It is rare for states to require that directors or administrators have training in management and administration. For ECE centers generally, only a handful of states specify administrative training along with child development. Texas was the first state to add a director credential to its licensing rules.

Among the 14 states that have a school-age care license, administrative training is seldom mentioned. Massachusetts, which does have an administrative training requirement for child care centers, will permit OST programs to substitute a year of experience. The state mentions some administrative content in one of the eight topic areas for annual ongoing training that it requires administrators to have. New Mexico permits administrators to count administrative training in its requirement for 16 ongoing hours of training. Oklahoma does not require management training in its licensing, but it is exploring requiring a director credential as part of its "Reach for the Stars" tiered reimbursement system.

b) Levels of Roles Corresponding to Levels of Required Training

There is no well-charted career path in OST licensing rules. Requirements for OST staff are relatively new and not very rigorous. There is probably a career path from aides and assistants

to teachers/practitioners, from there to teacher/director, and then to administrative roles that do not include direct work with children. It appears that in this field, career movement may require taking on administrative duties.

In their general ECE licensing rules, 15 states have set requirements in licensing for two levels of classroom teachers, one with higher academic qualifications than the other. As the labor market tightens, the higher level of teacher becomes harder to find and employ. As a result, it is more likely that salaries for this desirable employee will have to be competitive, unlike the salaries for the aides and assistants who may constitute a secondary labor force moving in and out of employment. Further, the two levels sets up an incentive for teachers to get more training to qualify as lead teachers.

In Massachusetts' ECE rules, a lead teacher must have taken at least three more courses than a teacher. Lead teachers are not required in each classroom in this state, but every center program must have at least one, with the number increasing by size of center. The fact of the two levels has resulted in a strong interest in further college coursework among teachers, and some evidence that salaries for lead teachers are higher.

There are very few examples in OST rules of two levels of teacher. Oklahoma has both a lead teacher and a teacher. Tennessee requires that every program have one staff member with a GED or high school diploma, who is not "new" to the field. Vermont defines both a head teacher and a teacher. Head teacher requirements as well as director requirements are more rigorous in programs with more than 60 children than they are in programs with 13–59 children. For

programs with 12 or fewer children, the requirements for head teacher and director are still less demanding.

Levels can also be created by identifying both aides and assistants. Most states have one or the other but not both in their child care center rules. When a state identifies both aides and assistants, aides would be hired provisionally, as is current practice. After a specified number of ongoing training hours they could be promoted to assistant and paid more. Assistants would be expected to pursue training to become teachers. Among the 15 states that regulate OST separately, Hawaii identifies and sets qualifications for program assistants, aides, temporary employees, and substitutes. Pennsylvania defines assistant group supervisors and also aides. Vermont requirements define a head teacher, teacher, assistant, and a recreational aide. Vermont comes closer to creating a career path than most of the other states. Levels can be created for directors by size of center.

c) Increasing Preservice Qualifications for Practitioners

There is general agreement that the states have set their requirements for teachers and caregivers too low. Raising the bar for academic preparation and providing assistance to meet the new requirement might attract public support in some states. This strategy may not be feasible in states where an anti-regulatory climate surrounds the issue. Making this change through licensing is the most difficult of the strategies based on improved licensing, because there is not currently a supply of qualified individuals to meet the requirement. This strategy will be possible only after other strategies, such as accreditation, scholarships, training, or loan forgiveness, have raised the level of quality in the field of practice. In some states,

the change might be made concurrently with other strategies.

There has been little improvement in preservice qualifications over the past few decades. In 2001, some states improved their required qualifications for teachers in preschool centers. In the OST rules, qualifications are still quite low. In most cases, they can be met by experience, without any training/education. Some exceptions follow:

- California requires six training units, or 120 hours of training, for teachers in OST programs.
- Oklahoma requires an approved OST training program.
- Vermont requires that a head teacher or director in a middle-sized center have a CDA or an associate's degree in early childhood education, elementary education, human development, or recreation. A head teacher or director in a large center must have an associate's degree with four courses completed within the first year.

It is common for states to specify alternative qualifications, such as a bachelor's degree OR an associate's degree with two years of experience OR a CDA credential and three years of experience. Of course, the lowest alternative is the bottom line that must be met. However, this specification of alternatives has some advantages. It avoids the assumption that there is only one level of education that is appropriate and encourages continued learning and more advanced degrees. It values retention. The different academic ways of qualifying can become the guidelines for salary policies.

d) Increasing and Improving Annual Ongoing Training Requirements

States have found it easier to gain public support to add ongoing training requirements than to increase preservice qualifications. In the past, this requirement was most often met by in-house training. More recently, however, training is provided at the community level by colleges, conferences, and R&Rs.

Forty-four of the 50 states now require annual hours of ongoing training for center teachers, and 43 require it for center directors. As states have increased the number of hours they require, it is apparent that

- It is easier to add to ongoing training requirements than to increase preservice requirements.
- States can require enough hours so that an individual takes as much as the equivalent of a course every year.
- This ongoing training, when substantial, could add up over time to preservice qualifications for a career move to another role.

No state has fully exploited the potential of ongoing training requirements as a strategy for career development.

For OST programs that are separately licensed, the number of hours of training required every year varies greatly among the 11 that have an annual requirement. For directors it varies from nine hours per year in Vermont to 40 hours in

Oklahoma. For practitioners it varies from six hours in Vermont to 20 hours in Rhode Island.

Minnesota requires that ECE teachers' annual training equal 2 percent of hours worked in a year. The number works out to be fairly high, equivalent to the contact hours for a course at many colleges. Most states, however, do not require that many hours of training a year. The addition of training requirements presents a problem in implementation. A licensor on a licensing visit cannot easily check the qualifications of all staff. A portable license for the individual and a corresponding registry are solutions that make it feasible to require higher qualifications for staff.

If the number of hours is increased to a substantial amount of training, and if scholarship aid is available, many will meet the requirement by taking a college-level course. Others who decide later to get a degree will want to transfer their annual training to credit for prior learning. Knowing this, states can encourage the use of training programs that carry Continuing Education Units (CEUs) or are otherwise more easily transferable to credit.

e) Tightening the Definition of "Experience"

States have tried to trade off experience with academic qualifications, substituting a year of work experience for a year of college. For OST programs, most states have rules that count years of experience to qualify their practitioners. Research, however, does not back up the assumption that experience alone leads to skilled teaching. One strategy that would preserve the flexibility of the current policies but strengthen

the emphasis on academic qualifications would be to tighten up the definitions and policies for experience that could be substituted for academic work.

For example, states could require that experience be acceptable only if

- in accredited centers
- supervised by a teacher qualified by no less than a college degree in child development or a related discipline
- accumulated in blocks of time no shorter than three months

Most of the 14 states with school-age licenses do require that experience be full-time and with the age group to be served. No state has placed any of the other limitations listed above on their experience requirements.

6. Organizing the Workforce

Currently, only a small minority of workers in the field is unionized, principally in large urban areas. In New York City, the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees – (AFSCME) represents child care workers. In Massachusetts, the Child Care Employees Union of the United Auto Workers³⁸ has organized the staff of many centers.

The structure of the OST field presents many challenges to unionization. Both providers and workers are spread out among small enterprises and work sites, unorganized and isolated, struggling to meet the challenge to provide high quality jobs and care in the face of inadequate public funding and support. Any successful effort to unionize child care workers must include a

campaign to win increased public funding and support at the regional, state, and national levels.

An industrywide approach to unionizing has been launched by District 925 of the Service Employees International Union (SEIU) in Seattle and by the United Child Care Union (UCCU) in Philadelphia. Both of these union campaigns recognize that to be successful, organizing cannot be done on a center-by-center basis. Rather, these campaigns use a communitywide view of organizing that supports the creation of multi-employer associations, master contracts, and worker centers. These campaigns seek to bring employers and the union together in partnership to identify common needs and to develop resources and a strategic plan to meet them.

The United Child Care Union represents over 600 workers in Southeastern Philadelphia and Detroit. Working through Childspace Cooperative Development, Inc, UCCU is a founder and cosponsor of the Delaware Valley Child Care Partnership, which is a nonprofit association of child care employers and unions dedicated to the transformation of the industry in the Philadelphia metro area. The partnership develops resources and services to improve the business operations of child care providers, the qualification and compensation of their employees, and the continuity and quality of care for children.

Both AFSCME and SEIU are active and powerful voices on the state and federal levels. This strategy brings the community together and directs the collective efforts of staff and management to changing public policy as well as improving working conditions in individual child care programs.

In many people's minds, unions are associated primarily with government and business rather than private sector human service enterprises. A new approach to unionism takes a communitywide view of organizing as opposed to a center-by-center approach. This approach holds promise for greater acceptance in the OST field and is under way in several sites around the country. The traditional unions have been using cooperative approaches for some years and could serve as a model for organizing such activities in the OST field.

◆ In Seattle, the Child Care Union Project through District 925 of the Service Employees International Union (SEIU)³⁸ has organized teachers at 12 centers. The management of the 12 centers has formed an association, and a master contract is being negotiated. In Philadelphia, center teachers and home-based child care providers have created a new citywide United Child Care Union³⁹ with two sections, United Child Care Professionals for center-based staff and United Child Care Providers for the home-based providers. Both are part of AFSCME's Union of Hospital and Health Care Employees. The UCCU is working on organizing a management association of center directors and owners to negotiate communitywide master agreements. Both AFSCME and SEIU are active and powerful voices on the federal and state levels. This "new unionism" strategy brings the community together and directs the collective efforts of staff and management to changing public policy as well as improving working conditions in individual child care programs.

IV. Conclusion

Out-of-school time programs need practitioners and administrators who are committed to the children they serve, good at what they do, representative of the communities served, and able to make a commitment to their jobs in good economic times and bad. Providers must be able to develop their skills and advance in the field, and to have their training rewarded and recognized. And the OST field's talented corps of part-time and/or short-term employed experts—artists, musicians, actors, students, and coaches—must be fairly rewarded for the vital contributions they make to children's lives.

In this paper, we have taken a broader perspective of the systems issue of compensation in the OST field, rather than a "treat the symptoms" method, to identify some innovative approaches to this complex and critically important issue. We have also profiled some promising initiatives that represent strategies toward a solution.

To sum up the major points:

1. Increase in the public's demand for high-quality services could help the out-of-school time field garner more public support such as more extensive subsidy programs and more generous tax credits for OST expenses.

2. Public investments in scholarship assistance, loan forgiveness programs, and other incentives for recruitment and retention can overcome the field's negative return on human capital investment.

3. Practices that retain and engage assisting staff and practitioners in ongoing learning can encourage workers to embark on a career path and reduce reliance on a fluid secondary labor force. Out-of-school time programs will need to apply these practices in such a way that they do not undermine attracting young staff with special skills whose career path will be in some other field.

4. Unions that are experimenting with collaborative organizing at the community level have great potential to improve compensation in those communities and more broadly in the field.

5. Resource and referral agencies and NSACA affiliates can have a stronger effect on demand if they offer parents specific consumer information to rate

OST program quality. If agencies and affiliates make that move, it will constitute a compensation strategy as well as a quality strategy.

6. More discussion and advocacy is needed from the emerging out-of-school time field to help policymakers understand what qualifications should be set for practitioners, directors, and site coordinators in licensing and what credentials need to be developed.

7. More research is needed on compensation and turnover in the field.

8. To have lasting effects on quality and compensation while keeping programs affordable to families, we must increase direct support for all out-of-school time programs and increase the amount invested per child.

Any one strategy is not, in itself, the "answer." We need a range of strategies, and must ensure that the combined effect of our strategies assures access and equity to all the current and potential members of the out-of-school time field.

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Notes

- ¹ Throughout this paper, we use the term *out-of-school time (OST)* to refer to any program or individual serving children ages six to 18 before or after school, during vacations, or in the summer. Such programs may be offered through community organizations, schools, religious organizations, or arts and cultural institutions. OST embraces the terms after-school and school-age care.
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- ³ Telephone conversation between General Counsel for U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and Gwen Morgan. (1977) Wheelock College.
- ⁴ Economists view the rate of return a worker receives on the funds he or she invests in preparing for a career as one measure of the economic fitness of a job category. *Return on human capital investment* compares the amount spent on education to the increase in earnings received as a result of the education. If the cost of education is higher than the overall increase in earnings, appropriately summed and discounted over the worker's career, the return on investment is negative.
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