Vocational and Career Tech Education in American High Schools: Curriculum Choice and Labor Market Outcomes

Daniel Kreisman
Department of Economics
Georgia State University

Kevin Stange Ford School of Public Policy University of Michigan

September, 2015

Draft - please do not circulate or cite.

Abstract

We develop a framework for high school curriculum choice in which students learn about ability and subsequently allocate time between vocational, core and elective courses. We then observe how these decisions impact college attendance, completion and subsequent earnings in the NLSY97, with a particular focus on vocational, or career tech, education. In doing so, we depart from the traditional treatment of vocational coursework as a "track" and treat each additional course as a marginal decision. We find that while vocational courses marginally deter four-year college attendance, they have no impact on graduation. Moreover, we estimate a two percent wage premium from each additional year of advanced vocational coursework, but no benefit (or harm) comes from basic vocational courses. We conclude that while vocational education plays an important role for non-college graduates, policy should focus on encouraging depth rather than breadth in vocational course-taking.

Keywords: Vocational education; Career and Technical Education; Curriculum; High School; Wages; NLSY97.

JEL Classification Numbers: J24, I21.

^{*}We owe thanks to the Institute for Research on Poverty's Emerging Scholars Grants program and the Smith Richardson Foundation for funding and support, and to Daniela Morar and Julian Hsu for excellent research assistance. We also thank seminar participants at the University of Michigan and the University of Tennessee for helpful comments. Contact authors at: dkreisman@gsu.edu (corresponding author) and kstange@umich.edu. The usual caveat applies.

1 Introduction

Since the publication of A Nation At Risk in 1983, policy-makers and politicians have turned attention to a perceived educational decline of American youth. Stagnant high school graduation rates, declining test scores, and signs that many college entrants are ill prepared for college and the workforce have all contributed to this perception. Many states have responded to this alarm by increasing high school graduation requirements, typically specifying a minimum number of years spent studying academic subjects such as English, mathematics, science, and social studies.

These reforms have had the intended effects on curriculum: American high school graduates are completing more courses in these academic subjects, and more advanced academic coursework than they were three decades ago. However, much of these gains have come at the expense of vocational oriented, or career and technical, education (CTE). In fact, between 1990 and 2009 the number of CTE credits earned by high school graduates dropped by 14%, or roughly two-thirds of a year of vocational education, continuing a trend from the previous decade (Hudson, 2013). This drop, shown in Figure 1, coincides with a 32% decline in real federal funding under the Perkins Act since 1985 (the largest funding source for CTE programs), despite large increases in federal funding for secondary school more generally (US DOE, 2014). This trend toward academic coursework has been praised by many who argue that vocational education in high school prepares students for "dead end" jobs and leaves them ill-prepared for college. An opposing camp points to (perceived) shortages in skilled professions, noting that not all students are college-bound and that for these students vocational training may be the difference between high and low paying jobs. While evidence exists on the relationship between high school CTE and later outcomes in the international context (Eichhorts et al., 2015), very little evidence exists in the U.S. context. In the fol-

¹The field has moved towards the use of the term "career and technical education", including in the title of the 2006 Perkins Act reauthorization, to differentiate current career-focused education from past vocational education. Throughout we use the terms "vocational education," "career-tech," and "CTE" interchangeably.

lowing we evaluate these claims by assessing the relationship between vocational education in high school, postsecondary attainment and labor market outcomes using a nationally representative sample of U.S. high school students.

In our analysis we draw particular attention to factors that predict vocational course-taking (choices) and the ensuing impacts (outcomes) on college-going and earnings. While the few existing studies have found largely positive impacts of vocational course-taking on earnings (Mane, 1999; Bishop & Mane, 2005; Meer, 2007), and mixed evidence on college attendance (Cellini, 2006; Neumark & Rothstein, 2005, 2006), these and others frame vocational course-taking as a "track" rather than as a marginal curriculum choice as is traditionally done for other subjects, particularly mathematics. Our analysis thus departs from previous work in several regards. First, we develop a framework for curriculum choice in which students make curriculum and college decisions dynamically in response to new information about ability and preferences for vocational or academic (course)work. Second, we treat vocational course-taking as marginal decision, rather than a choice of "track", which our empirical evidence suggests is appropriate. Third, we observe students in the labor market to evaluate the impact of additional vocational courses on earnings, allowing for differential returns to general vs. specialized vocational coursework. Lastly, we observe how returns vary across vocational fields, and by local labor market characteristics.

We use detailed longitudinal transcript and labor market information for students in the NSLY97 to examine these questions, exploiting a rich set of background and ability measures available to us. Like prior work, we find that students with more disadvantaged backgrounds and lower ability are more likely to take vocational courses (and fewer academic courses) and that these courses are taken primarily in 11th and 12th grade when students have more control over their curriculum. However, we also find modest evidence of dynamic selection: controlling for a host of baseline student characteristics, students that perform worse in freshman year English and math are more likely to take vocational courses later in high school.

We ultimately find that more vocational courses are associated with higher wages, on the order of 1.5 to 2 log points for each vocational course-year, but that these returns are not uniformly distributed across all vocational course-takers. Separating vocational coursework into "higher" and "lower" levels, corresponding to introductory courses and specialized coursework within a vocational discipline, we find that wage gains are driven entirely by upper-level courses. We estimate no return to an additional introductory level vocational course. Moreover, we find that these wage gains are largest for students that do not graduate with a four-year degree, particularly males, those specializing in technical fields and those living in (high skill density) urban areas. Interestingly, controlling for the number of credits earned in other subjects and postsecondary attainment has little impact on estimates, suggesting that displacement of academic coursework by vocational courses is minimal. The policy implications from these findings are two-fold: first, that vocational education plays an important role in the early careers of young, non-college graduates; and second, that those who specialize (in technical fields) reap larger rewards. Recent trends towards more specialized CTE concentrations (away from general, non-specialized coursework) may thus be beneficial.

The remainder of the paper proceeds as follows. The next section sketches a Roy-type model of curriculum choice and effects and also describes previous research in order situate our analysis in a broader body of work. Section III introduces our data, describes the sample, and provides descriptive evidence on vocational and non-vocational course-taking. We then estimate the determinants of course-taking behavior in Section IV and its effects on labor market and educational attainment in Section V. Section VI concludes with a discussion of the policy implications of our analysis.

2 Background and Framing

2.1 Prior work

Compared with an expansive literature on the returns to additional years of schooling, there is relatively little evidence on the labor market consequences of high school curriculum in the U.S., and even less work on effects of vocational course-taking in particular.² Those studies that evaluate the impact of vocational course-work largely treat vocational curriculum as a binary choice - students are either on the "academic" or "vocational" track - as opposed to evaluating the impact of an additional course as one might in, say, mathematics or English. Most relevant to this paper, Meer (2007) examines the relationship between "track" (academic, general, business vocational, technical vocational) and earnings later in life. He finds evidence of comparative advantage: students currently on a "technical" vocational track would not gain from switching to an "academic" track, nor would those currently on the academic track benefit from more vocational education.

This is not the only study to find benefits to vocational coursework. Pooling data across several cohorts, Mane (1999) finds positive labor market payoffs to vocational coursework and demonstrates that these were increasing through the 1980s, particularly for non-college bound students. Analyses using older cohorts have generally supported the same conclusions (Gustman & Steinmeier, 1982; Kang & Bishop, 1989; Bishop & Mane, 2005). Yet, selection is an issue in evaluating vocational programs and none of these studies use exogenous variation. Using the same data we do, Zietz & Joshi (2005) point out that participation in the vocational track is much more common among disadvantaged students. Recent studies commissioned by the US Department of Education as part of the national assessment of CTE required by Perkins reauthorization used various quasi-experimental methods applied to longitudinal

²The value of vocational education has also been subject to debate in both developing and transitional economies, with prior research finding minimal to positive effects on education and labor market outcomes (Malamud & Pop-Eleches, 2010; Attanasio, et al., 2011; Eichhorst, et al. 2015).

student-level data from two locales (Philadelphia and San Diego), one state (Florida), and one nationally-representative high school cohort (ELS 2002). These studies found mixed evidence of the effects of CTE on secondary, postsecondary, and labor market outcomes (US DOE, 2014). Taken as a whole, evidence on the effects of vocational coursework is mixed.

A related body of work explores the effect of participation in "School-to-Work" (STW) programs on education and labor market outcomes using early waves of the NLSY97. This literature has evolved mostly in parallel to the above mentioned literature on high school curriculum and vocational education, which is surprising since School-to-Work programs can be seen as a close substitute, in purpose if not structure, to traditional vocational coursework. The results, again, are mixed. Neumark & Joyce (2001) find little effect of STW participation on "behavior associated with future college attendance", but find an effect on students' beliefs that they will complete high school and in beliefs about future labor market participation. Neumark & Rothstein (2005, 2006) find some positive benefits on college attendance and the likelihood of later employment, but that these accrue largely for males and for programs with direct links to the labor market (internships and cooperative education); they in fact find some negative effects from tech-prep. Cellini (2006) uses a sibling fixed effects model and focuses only on tech-prep, finding that participants are more likely to complete high school and attend a two-year college, resulting in a higher overall attainment, but that this comes at a cost of a decline in 4-year college attendance.

A separate literature has evolved which estimates the consequences of high school curriculum choice, much of which is summarized in Altonji, Blom, & Meghir (2012). In the U.S. much of this work focuses specifically on mathematics course-taking (Altonji 1995; Levine & Zimmerman, 1995; Rose & Betts, 2004; Goodman, 2012), generally finding that more math has a positive association with earnings. Importantly, unlike the literature on returns to taking a particular "track", this literature treats each course as a decision on a continuum, allowing for marginal as opposed to discrete changes in curriculum choice. We build on this work by explicitly examining both high school curriculum choice and outcomes, with a focus

on the number of vocational courses students choose to take.

Blending these two literatures, we treat curriculum as a continuum, a decision informed by Figure 2, which depicts cumulative distribution functions for the total number of vocational credits and the share of credits that are vocational for respondents in the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (1997). Figure 2 suggests (i) that vocational courses account for a non-trivial share of high school coursework, (ii) that an overwhelming majority of students take at least one vocational course in high school, and (iii) that the distribution is smooth, rather than bimodal, as strong "tracking" would imply. We frame the decision to take vocational course as the result of students learning about their comparative advantage and preferences for vocational or academic (course-)work. In response to baseline expectations and received signals about "fit", students rationally decide whether to pursue a more vocational or academic focused curriculum as high school progresses. Students consider both human capital and informational consequences of their choices, as curriculum also provides information about labor market prospects. While several studies of college persistence and major choice have this dynamic flavor (e.g., Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2011; Stange, 2012), this has been mostly absent from studies of high school curricula. Related, Malamud (2011) finds that exposure to a broader curriculum reduces job switches later in life (interpreted as "mistakes") by improving match quality at the expense of greater specialization.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

To frame our empirical analysis, we consider a stylized dynamic model of high school curriculum choice, college enrollment, college completion and labor market entry in which students are forward-looking but face uncertainty about their ability.

We assume students are endowed with ability along two dimensions: academic ability α_a and vocational ability α_v . These endowed abilities are augmented by investments in human capital through curriculum choices manifested in the number of academic and vocational courses students take, A and V respectively. We then define human capital stock K at time

t as a function of ability and curriculum choice, including college:

$$K_t = k_{a,t}(\alpha_a, A), k_{v,t}(\alpha_v, V) \tag{1}$$

We assume academic ability (α_a) influences performance in academic subjects in high school and in college, and the likelihood of college graduation, while vocational ability (α_v) influences performance in vocational subjects in high school. Neither component of ability is known at the start of high school, though students have prior beliefs, which depend on fixed characteristics (X) we assume are observed by the econometrician. Students learn about α_a and α_v via performance in academic and vocational subjects respectively manifested in grades conditional on covariates - i.e. grades relative to what would be expected. For instance, students that perform better in academic courses than their baseline characteristics would predict will revise their belief about α_a upward. These posterior beliefs then influence students' subsequent decisions about high school curriculum, graduation and college enrollment. Four-year college graduation then depends on academic capital, $pr(college) = g(k_a, X)$, including high school curriculum and ability, and covariates observable to the econometrician. We assume graduation from a two-year institution can depend on k_v as well.

We define the labor market as having multiple sectors, delineated by highest degree completed, which define the distribution from which workers draw wages. Both ability components impact productivity in the labor market, though the importance of each may vary by sector; that is, k_a may be more valuable in the college-educated labor market while k_v may be more valuable in the non-four-year college educated sector. Thus, (log) wage at time t in sector j depends on accumulated skills that are a function of ability and education – $k_{a,t}(\alpha_a, A)$ and $k_{v,t}(\alpha_v, V)$ – plus covariates such as work experience, year and local labor

market conditions.

$$w_t^j = f(k_{a,t}, k_{v,t}, X)$$
for $j = \{\text{drop out, H.S., college}\}.$

$$(2)$$

During high school students receive utility which depends on curriculum (i.e. mix of academic and vocational coursework) and expected performance in the chosen curriculum. Utility during college depends on expected performance in college, covariates, and high school curriculum. Utility in the labor market depends only on log wages here, but might also include a hedonic preference for job type. Students sequentially choose high school curriculum (or dropout) and then whether or not to enroll in two- or four-year college to maximize the present discounted value of lifetime utility. Before each of these decisions, students update their beliefs about own academic and vocational ability.

The model delineates several tradeoffs in the choice of curriculum. First, high school vocational courses could have lower psychic costs than academic ones for students with high α_v (low α_a). Second, they could be productivity-enhancing for students that enter the non-(four-year) college job sector. Third, they could provide students with the opportunity to acquire more information about α_v , which should enable better decisions about college enrollment. Productivity in the non-college sector is an important factor in college enrollment decisions, yet many students may lack individual-specific information about this parameter. Exposure to vocational curriculum may be one way to acquire it.

However, vocational coursework could have drawbacks. If the vocational track is less rigorous, it may leave students ill-prepared for college and reduce the likelihood of graduating college among those that enroll. Additionally, vocational concentrators may experience reduced productivity in the college job sector if academic coursework is more productivity-enhancing than vocational among college graduates. Similarly, reduced collegiate performance may also mean that vocational students have a greater psychic cost of going to college than those

on the academic track. Lastly, students on the vocational track will necessarily have less information about α_a than those that pursue the academic track. This may cause some to forego college (and the subsequent returns) who would benefit from enrolling.

One implication of the model is that providing the option of studying a vocational curriculum has ambiguous effects on many outcomes overall since the effects are likely to be quite heterogeneous. For students with diffuse priors about their abilities, exposure to vocational coursework could either increase or decrease college enrollment depending on whether estimates of α_a and α_v are revised upwards or downward. Regardless, the additional option should improve welfare even among those who reduce college enrollment rates because it reduces dropout (i.e. bad matches between students and college).

3 Data Sources and Sample

3.1 The NLSY97 and Transcripts

We examine schooling and labor market activity for respondents in the National Longitudinal Study of Youth 1997 cohort (NLSY97). This data includes 8,984 individuals who were ages 12 to 18 when they were first interviewed in 1997. The survey is representative of all American youth at that time period and respondents have been followed annually with information on educational attainment, labor market experience and family formation. High school transcripts were collected from respondents' high schools in two waves by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC), who administers the NLSY. The first was conducted in 1999-2000 for 1,391 respondents who were no longer enrolled in high school at that time. Transcripts for 4,618 additional respondents were collected in 2004. In total, transcript data were collected for 6,009 respondents.

NORC used course catalogs to categorize all transcript course titles to a common scheme according to the Secondary School Taxonomy (SST-R). To create uniformity in credit taking, courses are converted into "Carnegie credits" where one Carnegie credit is defined as a course

that meets every day for one period for an entire school year. Similarly, grades for each course were converted by NORC into a common (0-4) metric.³

Importantly, this careful course coding allows us to disaggregate courses into "low" and "high" level courses. For vocational courses, lower level courses are those classified as "1st course" on transcripts. Upper level courses include courses beyond the introductory level, including: "2nd or later courses", "Specialty course", or "Co-op/Work Experience" in the transcripts. This disaggregation allows us to analyze the benefits of breadth – taking many courses in different fields – and depth – specializing in a particular vocational field. We conduct an analogous disaggregation for core courses (English, math, science and social studies) with the purpose of separating more and less difficult versions of a particular course within a subject. In this case, transcripts identify courses as either "basic", "regular", "Advanced and Honors", "Specialized" and "AP/IB". In this case, lower courses are "basic" or "regular" and higher courses are the remainder.

3.2 Sample definition

We restrict our sample to exclude those lacking transcripts in all years of high school, those who never completed 9th grade (for whom high school curriculum is not relevant), and respondents with extreme or illogical totals in their transcripts. Specifically, we exclude high school graduates who either (i) had fewer than four years of high school transcripts; (ii) had taken fewer than two courses in each of math, English, science and social studies; or (iii) had more than 36 or fewer than 20 total credits. For high school dropouts, the limiting conditions are necessarily more relaxed as any small number of credits can be consistent with dropout. Thus, for dropouts we restrict to those who (i) completed at least 9th grade; (ii) had taken at least one-half course in math, English, science and social studies; and (iii) had taken more

³For the wage analysis we construct earned credits as those for which students either received a passing (non-F) or satisfactory mark in the course. For the course-taking analysis credits attempted are the credits a student would have earned had she passed the course. In cases where the number of Carnegie credits is not reported, we impute Carnegie credits as the modal number of credits that a particular student earned in courses in the same field. When a student lacks a comparable course, we then impute to the modal value of all students taking the same exact course title in the same grade in the full sample.

than four total credits ever. The resulting "Analysis sample" used to study curriculum choice and postsecondary outcomes includes 4,414 respondents. Lastly, we restrict wage analysis to a "Wage sample" of 3,796 students whom we determined entered the labor market with a valid wage record (non-self employed) after and including age 23. To determine labor market entry we use monthly enrollment arrays from the NLSY97 and determine enrollment in each semester (fall, spring). We then define labor market entry as the first of four consecutive non-enrolled semesters that are followed by no more than one enrolled semester thereafter.⁴

Table 1 compares the Analysis and Wage samples to the full NLSY among a broad set of demographic characteristics. Comparing columns 1 and 2 shows that the Analysis sample is slightly more advantaged than the full NLSY, but that on average is reasonably representative of the NLSY in whole. Importantly, differences between the two are largely determined by whether NORC could retrieve transcripts, rather than any behavior of the respondent herself. A comparison of columns 2 and 3 shows that the Wage and Analysis samples are nearly identical with few respondents lost between the two. Our empirical exercises focusing on wages pool multiple observations for each individual over time, resulting in 20,572 personyear observations.

Approximately one-third of our Analysis sample obtain a four-year college degree, one-third attend college without earning a degree, 8 percent earn a two-year degree, 17 percent obtain a high school diploma but no post-secondary education, and 6 percent do not graduate from high school.

3.3 The distribution of course-taking

Table 2 shows student characteristics, credits taken, and outcomes separately by tercile of vocational course-taking. We find that average course-taking patterns mask considerable variation; some students pursue a very academic curriculum while others take many vocational courses, even among high school graduates. Students in the highest tercile take more

 $^{^4}$ We do not restrict wage observations by the number of hours worked, but in a robustness check we restrict to 30+ hour per week jobs and find nearly identical results.

vocational courses than either high-level core courses or electives. Furthermore, students with a more vocational curriculum have worse postsecondary outcomes; 43 percent of students in the lowest CTE tercile complete a four-year degree compared with only 23 percent of those in the highest tercile. However, curriculum is clearly related to other factors likely to influence these outcomes; specifically, vocational concentrators are more likely to come from disadvantaged backgrounds and have lower AFQT scores (an aggregation of math and English components of Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery, or ASVAB, exam), a proxy for ability.

Figure 3 shows the distribution of credits taken by field. It is clear from this figure that not only is there a considerable amount of variation in vocational course taking compared with other core and non-core coursework, but also that the modal value is greater than zero. The extent of vocational coursework taken by U.S. high school students relative to traditional academic subjects, even among the most academically-oriented, has not been previously appreciated. Importantly, we interpret the smoothness of the distribution of vocational course-taking in Figures 2 and 3 as confirmatory evidence of our treatment of vocational education as a marginal decision as opposed to a discrete choice of "track".

Figure 4 depicts the average number of courses taken by our sample in each vocational category. The most common types of vocational courses taken are technology/industry, business and management, computer technology and keyboarding, and general (general labor market preparation). (Table A1 in the Appendix describes the full list of vocational courses in the NLSY97.) Advanced vocational courses are offered and taken in each of these categories except for general labor market preparation and keyboarding. Given this substantial heterogeneity in high school curriculum, it is natural to investigate the sources and consequences of this variation.

4 Choices: Explaining Course-taking Behavior

4.1 Descriptive evidence: Course-taking

We now turn our attention to the predictors and temporal pattern of vocational course taking in high school. Figure 5 presents the average number of courses taken by subject, separately by grade. Though English and foreign language are taken with the same frequency at all grades – students take about one English credit and 0.5 language credits per year, on average – others exhibit strong time trends. For instance, vocational courses are taken with much greater frequency in 11th and 12th grades, as students approach graduation and ostensibly have more control over their schedules. Social studies courses exhibit a similar, though weaker, trend. On the other hand, math and science course-taking drops considerably in 12th grade. This suggests that there exist opportunities for students' experiences early in high school to inform later curriculum choices, and that students specialization in vocational coursework has a distinct temporal aspect. This temporal pattern is an important feature of our conceptual model, where early course outcomes inform beliefs about ability and subsequent decisions.

Figure 6 plots the number of credits taken by subject area separately by AFQT quartile. Though total credits are comparable across AFQT scores, there exists substantial variation in subject mix. Vocational courses and foreign language courses exhibit the most noticeable relationship with AFQT. High AFQT students take about two-thirds as many vocational courses as low AFQT students and about three times as many foreign language courses. Higher AFQT students also tend to take more science courses. It is important to note that for most students the AFQT is administered during their high school careers – the mean and median respondent took the AFQT approximately at age 14.5 and nearly all had take the test by age 16 – thus we cannot rule out the impact of course-taking on the AFQT itself.

4.2 Empirical specification: Course-taking

To examine the correlates of vocational course taking more rigorously, we estimate reducedform linear regression models using the number of credits taken in each subject, j, as the dependent variable. In each specification we focus on vocational courses taken in 10-12th grade, as there are greater opportunities for students to choose vocational courses after freshman year and this allows us to model choice in grades 10-12 as a function of revealed ability (grades) in 9th grade.⁵ Guided by the theoretical framework outlined earlier, we are interested in three classes of explanatory variables, which we enter into the model sequentially. First, the vector X_i includes observed characteristics of the student, such as gender, race, family background and 9th grade cohort as described in the summary statistics tables. Second, we include the AFQT score. Since we expect curriculum decisions to be influenced by new information about students' "fit" with academic or vocational heavy curricula, we also include measures of academic performance in math and English in 9th grade, $GPA_i^{core9th}$, and a control for whether the math or English courses were high (difficult) or low level, $High/Low_i^{core9^{th}}$. Though students have prior beliefs about their fit with different curriculums, performance early in high school provides additional information with which expectations can be revised. Students that perform well in early core academic subjects might then pursue a more academic (or less vocational) curriculum. Our baseline specification is:

$$VocCredits_{i} = \gamma_{0} + \gamma_{1}X_{i} + \gamma_{2}AFQT_{i} + \gamma_{3}GPA_{i}^{core9^{th}} + \gamma_{4}High/Low_{i}^{core9^{th}} + \varepsilon_{i}$$
 (3)

The estimated parameters combine several of the structural parameters described in the dynamic model. In particular, the relationship between AFQT and number of vocational credits taken (γ_2) combines the effect of ability on expected performance in high school and college (which influences the flow utility from curriculum), on the likelihood of college

⁵Results are similar if we include 9th grade course-taking in columns 1-2.

⁶Including math and English GPA's separately yielded empirically equivalent results.

graduation, and on labor market outcomes. Thus, the fact that high ability students are less likely to take vocational courses may be explained by any of these mechanisms.

We interpret γ_3 as the importance of new information revealed about "fit" with an academic curriculum in the form of 9th grade GPA. However, if GPA_i , conditional on other covariates, is known to individuals but not the econometrician, then this parameter may instead capture unobserved heterogeneity rather than learning about uncertain ability. Though our covariates are rich, we cannot entirely rule this explanation out with a reduced-form approach.

4.3 Results: Course-taking

Table 3 presents results for vocational course taking. As prior work has documented, we find that male students and those from disadvantaged backgrounds (mother has high school degree or less, low income, received public assistance) are more likely to take vocational courses. Vocational course-taking also decreases sharply with measured ability (AFQT). This is true even when high school dropouts are excluded in specification 4. As noted above, vocational course-taking has a strong temporal dimension: it is taken largely in 10th and 12th grade. Thus, information revealed during high school could potentially influence coursetaking decisions over time. We test this in specification (3), which includes 9th-grade GPA in math and English as a covariate plus controls for whether these courses were upper or lower level. We find that students performing poorly in these academic subjects, conditional on our rich set of covariates, are more likely to take vocational courses later in high school, even controlling for AFQT. That is, a one-point increase in 9th-grade math and English GPA decreases total vocational course taking by 0.14 of a one-year course. This represents a roughly 5 percent decrease in vocational course-taking off of a base of approximately 3 total vocational courses on average. This result is consistent with a key aspect of our theoretical framework, where students use early course performance to update their beliefs about their fit with the academic/college sector or vocational/non-college tracks, and these beliefs in turn influence course-taking.

The final two columns present estimates separately for low and high vocational course-work respectively. Results in these final two specifications reveal a subtle yet important distinction – that ability and freshman year GPA, in addition to many of the fixed demographic characteristics we observe concerning childhood circumstances, are far more predictive of taking low-level vocational courses than they are of upper-level or specialized vocational courses. In particular, we find that a negative signal of ability manifested in low grades in core courses in 9th grade, conditional on course level and AFQT, increases the number of low-level vocational courses in grades 10-12, but has no impact on taking upper level, or specialized, vocational courses. Put differently, low ability, or learning about low ability, leads students to take a broader array of vocational courses rather than to specialize in a particular type of vocational training. The importance of this result is underscored in subsequent analyses below demonstrating that (i) while lower level vocational courses deter students from college, upper level courses at worst do no harm, and (ii) that while upper level vocational courses benefit students in the labor market, low-level vocational courses have no impact. We interpret this in terms of gains to specialization.

The implications of this analysis for analyzing the impacts of vocational curriculum on outcomes are thus three-fold. First, high-school curriculum is clearly not randomly assigned. Students that take more vocational courses are very different in observed characteristics than those that take fewer. Second, course heterogeneity is extremely important. Vocational courses are quite different, ranging from keyboarding courses to industrial technology courses (e.g. drafting, metal working, machine repair) to general labor market preparation courses; these different types of vocational courses have different opportunities for specialization. Thus, accounting for this heterogeneity within the broad category of vocational coursework and across students is thus likely to be important. Third, high school curriculum may not be pre-determined when students enter, as students' choice of curriculum appears to respond to new information obtained during 9th grade, and likely at other times. Thus, controlling for

factors that influence curriculum choice over time, rather than fixed student characteristics, may be important.

5 Outcomes: College and the Labor Market

5.1 Empirical specification: College attendance and completion

We begin our analysis of the consequences of high school vocational coursework by observing the relationship between high school curriculum choice and both college attendance and completion. To do so, we first estimate three linear reduced form equations where the dependent variable, *College*, is a binary indicator of college attendance in a two-year college, a four-year college and then any college. We then repeat this exercise for college completion conditional on college enrollment. In both cases we condition on having completed high school.

$$College_{i} = \beta_{0} + \beta_{1} VocLow_{i} + \beta_{2} VocHigh_{i} + \beta_{4} CoreLow_{i} + \beta_{5} CoreHigh_{i} + \beta_{6} Elect_{i}$$

$$+ \beta_{7} X_{i} + \beta_{8} AFQT_{i} + \beta_{9} GPA_{9} + \epsilon_{i}$$

$$(4)$$

As in Equation 3 above, AFQT is a proxy for skill and GPA_9 measures GPA in math and English in 9th grade, including controls for whether math and English courses were upper or lower level. Each of the course indicators counts the total number of courses respondent i took of each type. The vector X_i contains our full set of covariates.

5.2 Empirical specification: Wages

To examine labor market consequences of vocational course taking we stack wage observations and estimate reduced-form linear regression models that exploit cross-sectional variation in high school curricula. Our primary labor market outcome is the log of (real) hourly wage, which is observed at multiple ages and thus pooled across all observations for individuals in our wage sample. Our main explanatory variables, $VocHigh_i$ and $VocLow_i$, measure the number of high and low vocational credits earned during high school. To address the selection problems highlighted in the previous section, we control for an increasingly rich set of student background and ability characteristics that may influence high school curriculum and also be correlated with outcomes.

Since number of vocational credits is likely correlated with credits earned in other subjects, in final specifications we control for a vector of credits earned in core (high and low) and elective subjects (language, art/music, PE, and "other" courses). Similarly, some specifications control for years of postsecondary schooling and degrees earned. The inclusion of either of these types of controls (non-vocational courses and postsecondary outcomes) alters the interpretation of the estimated parameters and thus is an important modeling choice, a subject we discuss more thoroughly in the next subsection. Our preferred specification is:

$$ln(wage)_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 VocLow_i + \beta_2 VocHigh_i + \beta_4 CoreLow_i + \beta_5 CoreHigh_i + \beta_6 Elect_i$$

$$+ \beta_7 X_i + \beta_8 AFQT_i + \beta_9 GPA_9 + \beta_{10} Age_{it} + \psi Postsec_i + \tau_t + \omega_m + \epsilon_{it}$$

$$(5)$$

Our controls include all the demographic and high school characteristics listed in Table 2, as well as age when the wage is reported and secular year effects (η_t). Some specifications include characteristics of the geographic region (ω_m), including state or MSA fixed effects. All specifications account for the within-individual correlation across observations by clustering standard errors by individual.

5.3 An aside: Course substitution, postsecondary outcomes and the interpretation of parameter estimates

Since students' time is fixed, one substantive modeling choice is whether and how to control for the number of credits earned in other subjects. Without controls for other courses – i.e. core courses and electives – the parameters β_1 and β_2 in Equation 5 should be interpreted as the change in log wage associated with an additional (high or low) vocational credit, controlling for selection on observables. Since each additional vocational course could be taken

at the expense of another course (math, language, science, etc.), or what would otherwise be non-course time, the nature of the treatment likely varies across the population. The three panels in Figure 7 depict the implicit nature of the tradeoff between vocational and other types of courses. Vocational courses are most clearly traded off with electives (art/music, for-eign language, physical education, and "other" courses). The correlation between vocational and core academic courses (English, math, science, and social studies) is also negative, but much weaker. Thus, the "average treatment" in the model without controls for other courses can be thought of as taking one vocational course but fewer electives.

Controlling for number of credits taken in other subjects alters this interpretation. As a thought experiment, imagine that we divided courses into three types: core, vocational and electives, and then for each respondent determined what share of total coursework each constituted. Including all three measures in our empirical specification would violate the full rank assumption (perfect collinearity) and one term would have to be omitted in the regression equation. Thus, holding course-taking in all other subjects constant, the parameters β_1 and β_2 should be interpreted as the outcome change associated with taking one more high or low vocational credit at the expense of what would otherwise be non-course time, controlling for selection on observables. That is, the full rank assumption relies empirically on variation in the total number of courses taken across students. In this case, the opportunity cost of an additional course depends on how students potentially use this marginal hour among available activities, such as study hall, paid or volunteer work, homework, or leisure. Furthermore, controls for course taking in other subjects may also account for additional forms of selection if course-taking in other subjects is a marker for traits influencing outcomes that also correlate with vocational course-taking.

Surprisingly, prior literature on the effects of course taking is mostly silent on this important conceptual issue, with the exception of Altonji (1995). His models include number of credits taken in eight subjects (English, social studies, math, science, foreign language, fine arts, industrial arts, and commercial), omitting time devoted to study halls, certain

vocational courses, PE, and home economics. He concludes that "one would expect all the elements of [the coefficient vector] to be greater than or equal to 0," since the specification controls for any displacement effects on other course-taking. In examining the labor market effects of math courses, Rose and Betts (2004) do not mention non-math course taking (in vocational, other academic, or elective courses) as the primary opportunity cost of taking an additional math course. Their main empirical model includes the number of math courses in six different levels and thus each coefficient should be interpreted as the effect of taking more courses in one level of rigor holding constant the number of math courses in the other levels. In these models students are explicitly trading off math course-taking with time allocated to other subjects or non-school time – which of these, though, remains unclear. Subsequent specifications include number of courses in English, science, and foreign language, also using detailed curriculum categories. Interpreting the coefficients in these models is difficult because an additional year spent in upper-level English, for instance, may have a different opportunity cost (against which the effect is measured) than one spent in basic Biology. Goodman (2012) shows that curricular reforms have a moderate and significant impact on math course-taking, but also a modest (insignificant) impact on other course-taking. His two-sample instrumental variables estimates of the wage effects of math courses implicitly assumes that reforms cannot impact wages through these non-math courses either because reforms do not affect non-math course-taking or because such courses have no labor market impact. In our preferred model we follow in the spirit of Altonji (1995) and include a vector containing number of credits earned in all other subjects, but show similar specifications with only vocational credits included. In an ancillary set of regressions we model the share of courses taken in each subject, leaving electives as the omitted category. While directionality in each of these specifications is similar, leading to similar policy conclusions, for reasons mentioned above interpretation differs.

A separate concern is the treatment of college attendance and completion in wage specifications. The prior literature has paid closer attention to the question of whether to control for postsecondary outcomes, such as college enrollment and degree completion. One channel that high school curriculum could impact labor market outcomes is by altering postsecondary attainment by, for instance, increasing collegiate aspirations or readiness. Most prior studies control for postsecondary attainment, interpreting any change in coefficient as evidence of whether curriculum's effect is direct (independent of attainment) or whether it works primarily via altering educational attainment. Rose & Betts (2004) estimate that almost two-thirds of the impact of math courses appears to work through educational attainment. We follow in this tradition but show outcomes both without accounting for ultimate degree attainment and then by highest degree attained for completeness.

5.4 Results: College attendance and completion

Before examining labor market outcomes, Panel A of Table 4 presents estimates of effects on postsecondary attendance and completion among high school graduates as described in Equation 4. We find that each additional year of introductory (low) vocational coursework decreases the likelihood of attending any postsecondary institution by approximately 1 percentage point conditional on attending high school. While none of the other coefficients concerning vocational course-taking in columns 1-3 of Panel A are statistically significant at conventional levels, their direction and magnitude suggest that more introductory level vocational coursework decreases college attendance across the board. Yet, the sign of upper level vocational coursework on the likelihood of attending a two-year college is positive, but indistinguishable from zero. Repeating the same exercise in columns 4-6 for respondents who attended a two-year, four-year or any college as their highest grade attended, suggests that there is no evidence that vocational courses decrease graduation rates for those enrolled. Taken together, these results suggest that vocational courses may deter the marginal student from college, but that there is no aggregate impact on graduation rates. Put differently, vocational courses appear to pull those students out of college who are less likely to graduate. Though noisy, this is suggestive of a learning process where vocational coursework provides students with possibly valuable labor market skills and additional information about their comparative advantage in the vocational or college labor market.

In Panel B of Table 4 we replicate our model using the *share* of credits accumulated in each field and include an additional control for the total number of credits accumulated (estimating the same model without *TotalCredits* yields empirically similar results). In this case, as an actualization of the thought experiment described above, we omit the share of courses that were electives to satisfy the full rank requirement. Results are similar to Panel A, at least in direction. We find that while increasing the share of low vocational courses decreases college attendance for four-year schools, increasing the share of courses dedicated to specialized, or upper level, vocational course-work increases enrollment to two-year schools, but decreases four-year enrollment. Concerning college completion conditional on enrollment, we again find that upper level vocational courses improve two-year graduation, but not four-year. It is important to note here that attendance and completion are defined as by highest degree, therefore any students who attended a two year school and subsequently attended a four institution would be counted as four-year attenders and/or graduates, though the final columns (3) and (6) account for this in aggregate.

5.5 Results: Wage regressions

We know that that the intensity of vocational courses in high school is negatively correlated with wages later in life; Panel C of Table 2 demonstrates this. This is not surprising as high school graduates that take more vocational courses tend to be lower-achieving and more disadvantaged, attributes that have independent effects on labor market outcomes. Thus, most factors influencing selection tend to create a negative bias. Table 5 presents our main findings on labor market outcomes, which control for many of these factors. While unconditional means show a negative association between low vocational credits and wages, controlling for background characteristics entirely accounts for this as we move from columns (1) to (2). Yet, the positive gains associated with an additional upper level vocational course

remain positive, suggesting a nearly 2% increase with each additional course. Specification (3) includes AFQT and GPA in 9th grade core courses with no impact on results. Column (4) then controls for the number of credits earned in other subjects, separating elective and core academic subjects (math, English, science and social studies). This specification also distinguishes high- and low-level academic subjects (e.g. advanced algebra vs. basic math). Consistent with results in Rose and Betts (2004), advanced coursework is much more advantageous than basic coursework.

Comparing columns (2) and (4), the coefficient on advanced vocational work does not change, suggesting that vocational course-taking does not crowd out other courses, which also have impacts on wages. Alternatively, credits earned in other subjects may be a marker for academic ability which further controls for the negative selection bias. Since these factors may offset, we are not able to distinguish these two distinct channels. Controlling for all factors in column (5) has little impact of results other than reducing the gain to upper-level core courses by one-third.

High school dropouts have fewer vocational courses and lower wages, causing us to overstate the direct effect of vocational courses on wages if high school graduation is not controlled for. However, Table 3 suggested that the "indirect" effect of vocational course-taking via postsecondary attainment is likely to be negative since vocational coursework is associated with lower postsecondary participation. Specification (6) addresses both of these issues by controlling for secondary and postsecondary attainment. Consequently, the estimated impact of advanced vocational coursework decreases slightly to 1.6%. Interestingly, it appears that the benefits of advanced academic coursework operate primarily through postsecondary outcomes since the positive wage effect is eliminated once attainment is accounted for. In column (7) we restrict the sample to jobs for which respondents reported working at least 30 hours per week to restrict observations to "full time" employment. We find that this restriction has virtually no impact on results.

In Table 6 we repeat our preferred specification from Table 5 using an alternative spec-

ification modeling the share of courses taken rather than the count as we did in Panel B of Table 4. Again results largely confirm our preferred specification, but with a different interpretation. In Table 6 we estimate that a one percentage-point increase in the share of upper level vocational courses increases wages by one-half percent, even after controlling for a full set of controls. To put these results in comparable terms, we estimate the change in share associated with a one course increase by regressing the share of upper level vocational courses on the number of vocational courses taken, finding that one extra course is equivalent to a nearly four percent increase in the share of courses taken. Adding a full set of covariates to the regression has no impact on this estimate, suggesting that variation in total credits is not strongly correlated with the distribution of where credits are allocated. Since students in the wage sample take roughly 25 courses on average, where a one course increase is equivalent to a four percentage-point change, this confirms our intuition of a tradeoff with elective courses. Multiplying this four percentage-point increase by the 0.005 coefficient estimate suggests a two percent increase in wages - only marginally larger than the 1.6 percent increase estimated in the credit count model in Table 5, suggesting that these results do not rely entirely on functional form assumptions. For the remainder of the paper we rely on our preferred specification using counts of all courses taken by type, rather than shares.

5.6 Heterogeneity of Wage Effects

In Table 7 we address one potential source of omitted variable bias: characteristics of the local labor market students would experience after high school. To do so, we re-estimate Equation 5 above including either State or MSA fixed effects, or a measure of the fraction of occupational employment requiring different levels of education. This measure of occupational employment is determined by the fraction of MSA employment that is in occupations requiring a BA, AA, high school diploma, or no high school diploma, obtained from the 2000 Occupational Employment Statistics program from the Bureau of Labor Statistics. For each NLSY respondent, this measure is taken from the MSA that respondent lived in during 12th

grade (to avoid endogenously chosen post-schooling labor markets), provided in confidential NLSY geocode data obtained by special license. We find that in each case our estimates presented in Tables 5 and 6 are a lower bounds and that curriculum effects are quite robust to controls for the characteristics of the local labor market.

We extend this analysis in Table 8 by examining wage premiums by the type and characteristics of the metro area in which students attended high school. In columns (2)-(4) we repeat our main specification by MSA type, finding that returns are higher in urban areas. The final three columns (6)-(8) interact vocational course taking with the share of MSA employment that is in occupations requiring a BA degree. We interpret this as a general index of the skill content of occupational employment. Though estimates are very imprecise, the point estimates are directionally consistent with the notion that advanced vocational coursework is more useful in areas that have more skilled employment, even when attributes of MSA's are accounted for via fixed effects. That is, the within-MSA wage difference between students with one vs. no advanced vocational courses is larger in MSA's that have more skilled occupational employment than those with less-skilled employment. Interestingly, the opposite is true for introductory (low) vocational courses: these courses are less useful in MSA's with more skilled occupational employment.

We may also expect that vocational education is particularly useful for students that do not obtain a four-year college degree. Table 9 re-estimates our main outcome model separately by post-secondary attendance and completion, and for high school dropouts, separately by gender. We in fact find that the positive return to advanced vocational education is primarily driven by students that do not ultimately earn a four-year degree, particularly males. Estimated wage benefits of advanced vocational course work are greatest for students with some college or a two-year degree (though estimates for high school dropouts are also large, but imprecise).

Lastly, we decompose these observed wage gains by vocational field of study, though sam-

⁷The share of employment in occupations requiring a BA degree comes from the 2000 OES.

ple size constraints prohibit us from a full set of interactions between occupational field and high/low denomination. These results are shown in Table 10 where coefficients are ordered from the most to least frequented vocational courses. We find in the full specification(column 2) that gains are largest for credits earned in Health Care and Technology & Industry, and we find earnings are negatively associated with credits accumulated in the most general labor market prep courses (GLMP Industrial Arts and GLMP Other). It is important to note that these two courses are the least frequented by students, averaging less than 0.02 credits in total. Alternately, Tech & Industry, which is associated with the largest gain along with Health Care, is also the most commonly frequented course, followed by Keyboarding, which has no labor market return - a non-trivial finding considering that computer access was far from universal in the late 1990's and early 2000's when NLSY respondents were in high school.

6 Conclusion and Policy Implications

Using detailed information on high school curriculum, postsecondary choices and attainment, and labor market outcomes from the NLSY97, we find that one additional year of advanced vocational coursework during high school is associated with a 1.6 percent increase in wages. This result is robust to an extensive set of individual controls for student background and ability, for any displacement effects on the completion of other courses, for effects on postsecondary attainment, and for controls for the occupational demands of the local labor market. The benefit of vocational education is particularly large for high school graduates with some college but no bachelor's degree, men, and for students residing in metro areas and areas with a greater skill content of the local workforce. Thus, the criticism that vocational education is "preparing students for jobs that don't exist" is not supported by our analysis. Rather, we find that advanced vocational work is equipping students who likely will not earn a BA with valuable labor market skills.

⁸GLMP is General Labor Market Preparation.

How secondary schools should prepare students for post-graduation – college, the work-force, citizenry – remains a timely policy question. Many states are still altering their curriculum requirements, with most implementing higher academic standards often at the expense of vocational offerings. The promotion of national Common Core standards by many states continues this trend. Given the labor market benefits of vocational coursework for students that do not obtain a four-year college degree, a shift towards more rigorous academic standards may adversely affect some students that would be better served by vocational coursework.

Beyond direct labor market effects, exposure to a vocational curriculum may also have informational value, enabling students to make more informed choices about their likely fit with college. Since taking more advanced vocational coursework is associated with lower four-year college enrollment rates but no reduction in college completion, this implies that students induced out of four-year college by a vocational secondary curriculum would likely not have completed a degree. Early exposure to vocational curriculum may thus facilitate better college enrollment decisions and fewer ex-post mistakes. Our analysis also reveals that students dynamically select into high school curriculum: early performance in academic subjects are predictive of more intensive vocational education later in high school. This implies that important information about students' best fit with either the academic or vocational track is only revealed as high school unfolds. High schools that expose students to diverse offerings early may thus facilitate better matches between students and sectors.

The primary limitation of the current study is that our labor market analysis relies on a selection-on-observables assumption in order have a causal interpretation. While the NLSY is uniquely rich in student-level covariates, remaining unobserved factors that influence both curriculum choice and labor market success may bias our estimates. Future work should better address this selection problem by either explicitly modeling the selection process dynamically or by exploiting quasi-experimental variation in curriculum. Recent studies that exploit oversubscribed vocational programs (Dougherty, 2014) are a fruitful direction. Future work should also examine a number of different outcomes that our model suggests may

be important, such as employment and employment volatility, and the likelihood of ex-post "mistakes", such as enrolling in college and dropping out. Finally, we necessarily study the labor market consequences of CTE coursework as it existed more than a decade ago. While this is still more current than much prior research, the nature of CTE education is continuously evolving. CTE is shifting towards fields such as health sciences (away from manufacturing) and into structured "Programs of Study" that better connect secondary and postsecondary curriculum and with industry-recognized credentials (US Department of Education, 2014). The evaluation of these new forms of CTE should remain an active area of inquiry.

References

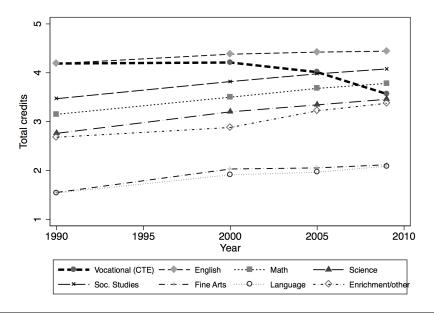
- Agodini, R. and Deke, J. (2004). The relationship between high school vocational education and dropping out. Technical report.
- Altonji, J. G. (1995). The effects of high school curriculum on education and labor market outcomes. The Journal of Human Resources, 30(3):409–438.
- Altonji, J. G., Blom, E., and Meghir, C. (2012). Heterogeneity in human capital investments: High school curriculum, college major, and careers. *Annual Review of Economics*, 4(1):185–223.
- Arcidiacono, P. (2004). Ability sorting and the returns to college major. *Journal of Econometrics*, 121(1):343–375.
- Attanasio, O., Kugler, A., and Meghir, C. (2011). Subsidizing vocational training for disadvantaged youth in colombia: Evidence from a randomized trial. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, pages 188–220.
- Bishop, J. H. and Mane, F. (2004). The impacts of career-technical education on high school labor market success. *Economics of Education Review*, 23(4):381–402.
- Bishop, J. H. and Mane, F. (2005). Raising academic standards and vocational concentrators: Are they better off or worse off? *Education Economics*, 13(2):171–187.
- Cellini, S. R. (2006). Smoothing the transition to college? the effect of tech-prep programs on educational attainment. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(4):394–411.
- Dougherty, S. (2015). The effect of career and technical education on human capital formation: Evidence from massachusetts. *Working paper*.
- Eichhorst, W., Rodríguez-Planas, N., Schmidl, R., and Zimmermann, K. F. (2015). A road map to vocational education and training in industrialized countries. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*.
- Furstenberg Jr, F. F. and Neumark, D. (2005). School-to-career and post-secondary education: evidence from the philadelphia educational longitudinal study. *NBER working paper* w11260.
- Goodman, J. S. (2012). The labor of division: Returns to compulsory math coursework. John F. Kennedy School of Government working paper, Harvard University.
- Gustman, A. L. and Steinmeier, T. L. (1982). The relation between vocational training in high school and economic outcomes. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 36(1):73–87.
- Hudson, L. (2013). Trends in cte coursetaking. data point. *National Center for Education Statistics*, NCES 2014-901.

- Joensen, J. S. and Nielsen, H. S. (2009). Is there a causal effect of high school math on labor market outcomes? *Journal of Human Resources*, 44(1):171–198.
- Kang, S. and Bishop, J. (1989). Vocational and academic education in high school: complements or substitutes? *Economics of Education Review*, 8(2):133–148.
- Levine, P. B. and Zimmerman, D. J. (1995). The benefit of additional high-school math and science classes for young men and women. *Journal of Business & Economic Statistics*, 13(2):137–149.
- Malamud, O. (2011). Discovering one's talent: learning from academic specialization. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review*, 64(2):375–405.
- Malamud, O. and Pop-Eleches, C. (2010). General education versus vocational training: Evidence from an economy in transition. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 92(1):43–60.
- Mane, F. (1999). Trends in the payoff to academic and occupation-specific skills: the short and medium run returns to academic and vocational high school courses for non-college-bound students. *Economics of education review*, 18(4):417–437.
- Maxwell, N. L. and Rubin, V. (2002). High school career academies and post-secondary outcomes. *Economics of Education Review*, 21(2):137–152.
- Meer, J. (2007). Evidence on the returns to secondary vocational education. *Economics of education review*, 26(5):559–573.
- Neumark, D. and Joyce, M. (2000). An introduction to school-to-work programs in the nlsy97: How prevalent are they, and which youths do they serve? *NBER WP w7733*.
- Neumark, D. and Joyce, M. (2001). Evaluating school-to-work programs using the new nlsy. *Journal of Human Resources*, pages 666–702.
- Neumark, D. and Rothstein, D. (2005). Do school-to-work programs help the 'forgotten half'? *NBER working paper w11636*.
- Neumark, D. and Rothstein, D. (2006). School-to-career programs and transitions to employment and higher education. *Economics of Education Review*, 25(4):374–393.
- Rose, H. and Betts, J. R. (2004). The effect of high school courses on earnings. *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 86(2):497–513.
- Rothstein, D. S. (2007). High school employment and youths' academic achievement. *The Journal of Human Resources*, pages 194–213.
- Stange, K. M. (2012). An empirical investigation of the option value of college enrollment. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 4(1):49–84.
- Stinebrickner, T. R. and Stinebrickner, R. (2011). Math or science? using longitudinal expectations data to examine the process of choosing a college major. NBER WP w16869.

- U.S. Department of Education (2014). National assessment of career and technical education: Final report to congress. Technical report, Washington, DC.
- Zietz, J. and Joshi, P. (2005). Academic choice behavior of high school students: economic rationale and empirical evidence. *Economics of Education Review*, 24(3):297–308.

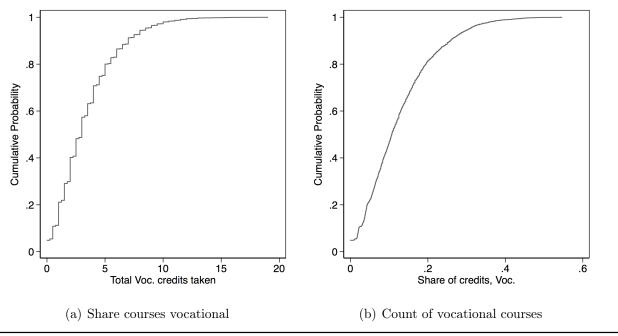
Figures and Tables

Figure 1: Course-taking by American high school students.



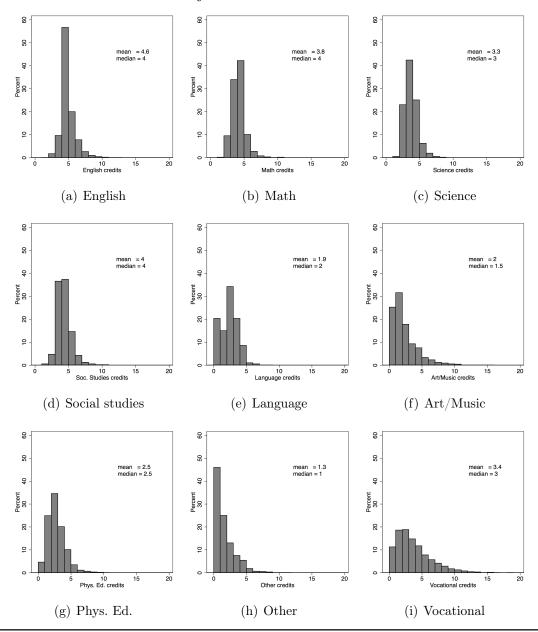
Source: Statistics taken by NCES from High School Transcript Study (HSTS), 1990, 2000, 2005, and 2009. Original table available at http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/ctes/tables/h125.asp. One credit is equal to a daily year-long course.

Figure 2: CDF of Vocational course-taking.



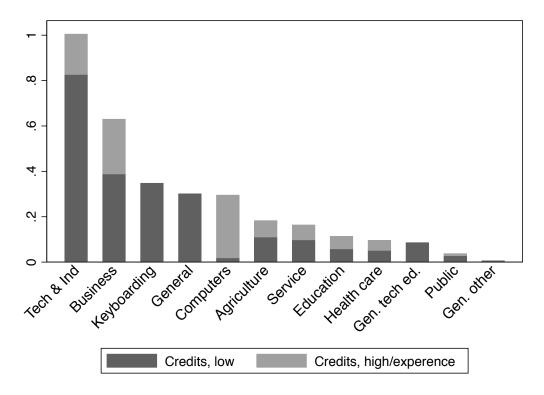
Notes: Figures show cumulative distributions of total and share (Voc/Total) courses taken. One credit is equal to one hour per day for a full academic year. N=4,414.

Figure 3: Credits taken in each subject.



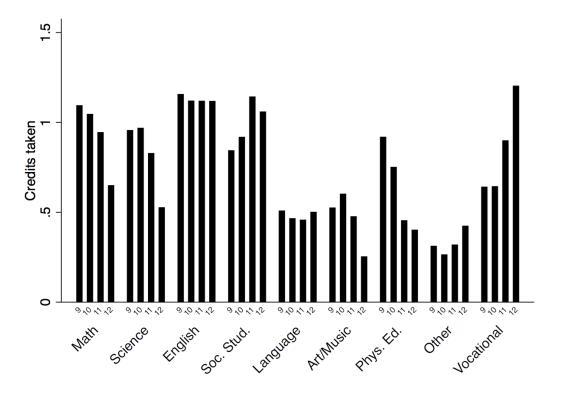
Notes: Figures show histograms of credits taken, defined as courses completed, even if it is an F or course that does not accumulate credit hours. One credit is equal to one hour per day for a full academic year. N=4,414.

Figure 4: Number of courses by low/high-experience, by type.



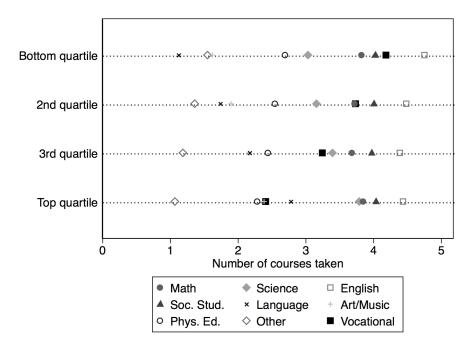
Notes: Figure shows number of carnegie credits earned in each type of vocational course. "Low" courses are entry level. "High/experience" are upper-level or internship/work-based experience courses. One credit is equal to one hour per day for a full academic year. N=4,414.

Figure 5: Number of credits taken by subject and grade.



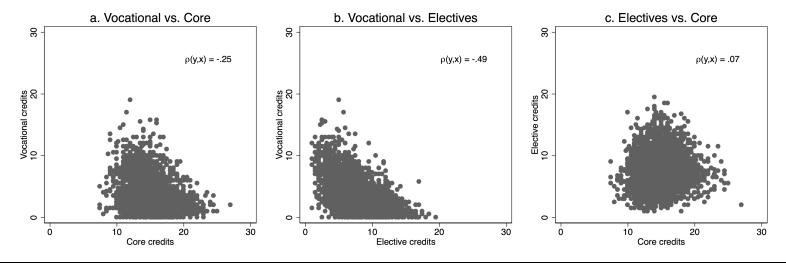
Notes: Students who dropout are only counted above in grades they attempted. One credit is equal to one hour per day for a full academic year. N=4,414.

Figure 6: Number of credits taken by subject and AFQT quartile.



Notes: Shapes mark average total number of credits taken in each subject, by AFQT quartile. One credit is equal to one hour per day for a full academic year. N=3,703 with non-missing AFQT.

Figure 7: Pairwise joint distributions of Core, Elective and Vocational credits accumulated for high school graduates.



Notes: Figures show scatterplots of total credits accumulated for high school graduates. Core courses include English, math, science and social studies. Electives include art/music, foreign languages, physical education and "other" courses. One credit is equal to a one hour per day full year course. N=4,414.

Table 1: Sample comparison.

	Full 1	NLSY	Analys	is sample	Wage	sample
	mean	(sd)	mean	(sd)	mean	(sd)
Demographics						
Male	0.50	(0.50)	0.48	(0.50)	0.49	(0.50)
Black	0.25	(0.43)	0.22	(0.42)	0.23	(0.42)
Hispanic	0.20	(0.40)	0.17	(0.37)	0.17	(0.38)
Other	0.04	(0.19)	0.04	(0.20)	0.04	(0.19)
$\mathrm{Mom} < \mathrm{HS}$	0.25	(0.43)	0.36	(0.48)	0.36	(0.48)
$\mathrm{Mom}>\mathrm{HS}$	0.10	(0.30)	0.17	(0.38)	0.17	(0.37)
Ever aid	0.28	(0.45)	0.37	(0.48)	0.39	(0.49)
South age 12	0.32	(0.47)	0.31	(0.46)	0.32	(0.47)
Pov. Ratio	1.49	(2.46)	2.49	(2.89)	2.42	(2.79)
Public HS	0.93	(0.26)	0.92	(0.28)	0.92	(0.27)
Gifted class	0.17	(0.37)	0.21	(0.41)	0.19	(0.40)
Bilingual	0.03	(0.18)	0.03	(0.17)	0.03	(0.17)
AFQT (Z)	0.00	(1.00)	0.00	(1.00)	-0.04	(1.00)
AFQT missing	0.45	(0.49)	0.16	(0.37)	0.16	(0.37)
Course-taking						
Voc low	1.41	(2.00)	2.28	(1.92)	2.32	(1.93)
Voc high	0.54	(1.14)	0.89	(1.29)	0.91	(1.31)
Core low	5.86	(5.03)	9.88	(2.65)	9.94	(2.61)
Core high	2.67	(3.27)	4.87	(3.20)	4.73	(3.13)
Electives	4.39	(4.08)	7.50	(2.69)	7.43	(2.69)
Attainment						
$< \mathrm{HS}$	0.16	(0.37)	0.06	(0.23)	0.05	(0.22)
HS	0.18	(0.39)	0.17	(0.38)	0.19	(0.39)
Some college	0.30	(0.46)	0.34	(0.47)	0.33	(0.47)
2-year degree	0.07	(0.26)	0.08	(0.28)	0.08	(0.27)
4-year degree	0.28	(0.45)	0.35	(0.48)	0.34	(0.47)
Obs. (n)	8,9	984	4	,414	3,	796

Notes: Analysis sample restricts to respondents with transcripts in all years of HS. Also restricts to those who attended 9th grade. Coursetaking restrictions are: took at least 2 of each core course for hs grads; took 1 of each core course if 10th grade+ dropout; took between 20 and 36 credits for grads; took at least 4 credits for dropouts. Wage sample consists of respondents who have a reported wage > \$1.00/hr after labor market entry. Ever aid indicates if respondent's family ever received government aid. Public HS indicates if primary high school was public. Gifted indicates if respondent ever took a "gifted" class. Attainment is degree ever completed. Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning.

Table 2: Sample means by tercile of CTE course taking.

	No	CTE	Lowest	tercile	Middle	Tercile	Top 7	Гercile	A	L ll
	mean	(sd)	mean	(sd)	mean	(sd)	mean	(sd)	mean	(sd)
A. Demographics										
Male	0.33	(0.47)	0.42	(0.49)	0.49	(0.50)	0.59	(0.49)	0.48	(0.50)
Black	0.17	(0.37)	0.20	(0.40)	0.24	(0.42)	0.25	(0.43)	0.22	(0.42)
Hispanic	0.12	(0.33)	0.18	(0.38)	0.18	(0.39)	0.15	(0.35)	0.17	(0.37)
Other	0.08	(0.27)	0.05	(0.21)	0.04	(0.20)	0.02	(0.15)	0.04	(0.20)
AFQT-Z	0.65	(0.93)	0.29	(0.97)	0.06	(0.93)	-0.15	(0.91)	0.11	(0.97)
AFQT, missing	0.14	(0.35)	0.16	(0.37)	0.17	(0.37)	0.16	(0.37)	0.16	(0.37)
Mom, < HS	0.30	(0.46)	0.33	(0.47)	0.36	(0.48)	0.40	(0.49)	0.36	(0.48)
Mom, HS	0.41	(0.49)	0.47	(0.50)	0.48	(0.50)	0.48	(0.50)	0.47	(0.50)
Mom, > HS	0.29	(0.45)	0.20	(0.40)	0.16	(0.37)	0.12	(0.33)	0.17	(0.38)
Poverty ratio (1997)	4.82	(3.98)	3.64	(3.10)	3.29	(2.72)	2.80	(2.34)	3.36	(2.88)
Ever public aid	0.33	(0.47)	0.36	(0.48)	0.40	(0.49)	0.51	(0.50)	0.41	(0.49)
South, age 12	0.27	(0.45)	0.28	(0.45)	0.31	(0.46)	0.37	(0.48)	0.31	(0.46)
Rural, age 12	0.09	(0.28)	0.10	(0.31)	0.12	(0.33)	0.17	(0.38)	0.13	(0.33)
B. HS characteristics										
Main HS public	0.84	(0.37)	0.87	(0.34)	0.94	(0.24)	0.97	(0.16)	0.92	(0.28)
Spec. Ed.	0.06	(0.23)	0.04	(0.19)	0.04	(0.20)	0.07	(0.25)	0.05	(0.21)
Bilingual Ed.	0.03	(0.17)	0.03	(0.18)	0.03	(0.18)	0.02	(0.15)	0.03	(0.17)
Any gifted courses	0.30	(0.46)	0.27	(0.44)	0.20	(0.40)	0.12	(0.33)	0.21	(0.41)
Ever private HS	0.15	(0.36)	0.13	(0.33)	0.05	(0.22)	0.02	(0.13)	0.07	(0.26)
C. Outcomes										
< HS	0.07	(0.26)	0.06	(0.24)	0.06	(0.23)	0.05	(0.21)	0.06	(0.23)
HS	0.08	(0.27)	0.11	(0.32)	0.17	(0.38)	0.26	(0.44)	0.17	(0.38)
Some college	0.26	(0.44)	0.31	(0.46)	0.36	(0.48)	0.36	(0.48)	0.34	(0.47)
2-yr degree	0.05	(0.22)	0.08	(0.27)	0.08	(0.27)	0.10	(0.30)	0.08	(0.28)
4-yr+ degree	0.54	(0.50)	0.43	(0.50)	0.34	(0.47)	0.23	(0.42)	0.35	(0.48)
Last (log) wage	2.85	(0.55)	2.79	(0.48)	2.76	(0.49)	2.75	(0.49)	2.77	(0.49)
D. Course taking										
Core courses, low	8.83	(2.97)	9.81	(2.88)	10.06	(2.58)	9.97	(2.27)	9.88	(2.65)
Core courses, high	6.41	(3.58)	5.41	(3.42)	4.69	(3.06)	4.08	(2.70)	4.87	(3.20)
Electives	9.69	(3.00)	8.49	(2.55)	7.42	(2.29)	5.87	(2.28)	7.50	(2.69)
Vocational low	0.00	(0.00)	1.01	(0.58)	2.26	(0.91)	4.41	(2.09)	2.28	(1.92)
Vocational, high	0.00	(0.00)	0.27	(0.42)	0.78	(0.81)	2.00	(1.78)	0.89	(1.29)
N	2	34	1.6	604	1.:	356	1.5	220	4.4	414

Notes: Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning.

Table 3: Vocational courses taken, grades 10-12.

	(1)	(2) All Voc	(3) courses	(4)	(5) Voc Low	(6) Voc High
3.6.1	0.500***			0 505***		
Male	0.599***	0.599***	0.559***	0.567***	0.349***	0.258***
D1 1	(0.065)	(0.064)	(0.065)	(0.066)	(0.051)	(0.037)
Black	-0.200**	-0.421***	-0.451***	-0.457***	-0.324***	-0.089
	(0.093)	(0.095)	(0.096)	(0.099)	(0.076)	(0.057)
Hispanic	-0.482***	-0.626***	-0.635***	-0.631***	-0.426***	-0.205***
0.1	(0.094)	(0.098)	(0.097)	(0.101)	(0.080)	(0.055)
Other race	-0.705***	-0.743***	-0.728***	-0.718***	-0.399***	-0.332***
	(0.124)	(0.124)	(0.125)	(0.129)	(0.099)	(0.065)
Mom < HS	0.115	0.093	0.090	0.083	0.055	0.039
	(0.083)	(0.083)	(0.082)	(0.085)	(0.065)	(0.047)
Mom > HS	-0.463***	-0.399***	-0.398***	-0.420***	-0.273***	-0.148***
	(0.085)	(0.084)	(0.083)	(0.085)	(0.063)	(0.047)
Ever aid	0.354***	0.276***	0.255***	0.319***	0.288***	0.011
	(0.078)	(0.078)	(0.078)	(0.081)	(0.061)	(0.045)
South, age 12	0.342***	0.307***	0.325***	0.366***	0.330***	0.005
	(0.078)	(0.077)	(0.078)	(0.080)	(0.062)	(0.043)
Rural, age 12	0.241**	0.222**	0.217**	0.184*	0.201**	0.042
	(0.108)	(0.106)	(0.106)	(0.108)	(0.084)	(0.058)
Pov. ratio	-0.001***	-0.000***	-0.000***	-0.001***	-0.000***	-0.000*
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Main HS Public	1.118***	1.066***	1.058***	1.082***	0.725***	0.298***
	(0.086)	(0.086)	(0.086)	(0.087)	(0.064)	(0.048)
Gifted	-0.715***	-0.461***	-0.340***	-0.357***	-0.246***	-0.103**
	(0.068)	(0.072)	(0.079)	(0.081)	(0.058)	(0.046)
Bilingual	$0.023^{'}$	-0.036	-0.023	-0.036	0.184	-0.243***
<u> </u>	(0.174)	(0.171)	(0.171)	(0.175)	(0.142)	(0.067)
AFQT-Z	,	-0.384***	-0.326***	-0.347***	-0.245***	-0.072***
·		(0.042)	(0.044)	(0.046)	(0.035)	(0.027)
Core GPA ₉		,	-0.139***	-0.154***	-0.122***	-0.016
3			(0.038)	(0.039)	(0.031)	(0.021)
Math 9th, hi			-0.093	-0.084	-0.103	0.002
			(0.116)	(0.118)	(0.089)	(0.068)
Eng 9th, hi			-0.170*	-0.205**	-0.227***	0.028
zng oui, m			(0.087)	(0.088)	(0.063)	(0.050)
H.S. Grads only			(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.009)	(0.090)
Year 9th	✓	✓	✓	↓	√	↓
$\frac{1}{R^2}$	0.101	0.118	0.122	0.136	0.128	0.039
Obs. (n)			4,414	4,165	4,165	4, d165
Obs. (II)	4,414	4,414	4,414	4,100	4,100	4, 0105

Notes: One course (dep. var) is one full year. Math/Eng. high are indicators = 1 if respondent was in upper level Eng./Math courses in 9th grade. Cols 4-6 are restricted to HS grads only. Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning. (*p < 0.10, *p < 0.05, *p < 0.01.)

Table 4: Dep. vars. indicate 2 or 4 year college attendance or completion - conditional on completing high school.

Panal	Δ٠	Nur	nhar	α f	credits
гапег	A:	1 1 1 1 1 1	шег	()	CLECILS

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Attend 2yr	Attend 4yr	Attend any	Earn 2yr	Earn 4yr	Earn any
Voc., low	-0.004	-0.006	-0.010**	-0.003	0.001	0.001
	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.008)	(0.006)	(0.005)
Voc., high	0.007	-0.009*	-0.002	0.011	0.011	0.009
	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.010)	(0.008)	(0.007)
Core credits, low	-0.013***	0.024***	0.011***	0.001	$0.005^{'}$	0.010**
	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.008)	(0.006)	(0.005)
Core credits, high	-0.022***	0.040***	0.018***	0.026***	0.026***	0.034***
	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.009)	(0.005)	(0.004)
Elective credits	-0.005*	0.018***	0.013***	-0.006	0.010***	0.010***
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.006)	(0.004)	(0.003)
AFQT-Z	-0.032***	0.116***	0.085***	0.028	0.035**	0.053***
	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.019)	(0.014)	(0.011)
R^2	0.095	0.306	0.159	0.083	0.143	0.176

Panel B: Share of credits

	(1) Attend 2yr	(2) Attend 4yr	(3) Attend any	(4) Earn 2yr	(5) Earn 4yr	(6) Earn any
Share Voc. low*100	0.000	-0.006***	-0.006***	0.001	-0.002	-0.002
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Share Voc. high*100	0.003**	-0.007***	-0.004***	0.005*	-0.000	-0.000
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.002)
Share core low*100	-0.002*	0.001	-0.001	0.002	-0.001	-0.000
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.001)
Share core high*100	-0.005***	0.006***	0.001	0.008***	0.004***	0.007***
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.001)
AFQT-Z	-0.031***	0.115***	0.084***	0.029	0.034**	0.052***
	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.008)	(0.019)	(0.014)	(0.011)
Total credits	-0.011***	0.021***	0.010***	0.002	0.011***	0.014***
	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.005)	(0.003)	(0.003)
R^2	0.096	0.307	0.159	0.083	0.144	0.177

Controls and observations apply to both tables.

If attended college				\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
GPA9	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
Controls	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
Obs. (n)	4165	4165	4165	917	2491	3408

Notes: Sample is limited to HS graduates. Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning. Controls include: gender, race, mother's education, rural or South at age 12, family poverty ratio in 1997, public primary high school, any gifted courses, bilingual education, and year entered 9th grade.

Table 5: Dependent variable is log (real) hourly wage.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Voc., low	-0.018***	-0.003	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.000	0.002
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Voc., high	0.016***	0.018***	0.019***	0.019***	0.019***	0.016***	0.016***
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)
AFQT-Z			0.061***		0.050***	0.037***	0.039***
			(0.008)		(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)
Core GPA9			0.028***		0.021***	0.010	0.010
			(0.006)		(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.007)
Core credits, low				0.000	-0.002	-0.008***	-0.008**
				(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Core credits, high				0.021***	0.014***	0.002	0.003
				(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Elective credits				0.001	-0.001	-0.005**	-0.006**
				(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.003)
< High school						-0.098***	-0.112***
						(0.025)	(0.026)
Some college						0.004	0.002
-						(0.015)	(0.015)
2-year degree						0.076***	0.095***
•						(0.025)	(0.025)
4-year degree +						0.187***	0.198***
						(0.019)	(0.020)
If hours>30						, ,	✓
Controls		✓	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓
R2	0.007	0.200	0.216	0.212	0.221	0.241	0.274
N	$20,\!572$	$20,\!572$	$20,\!572$	$20,\!572$	$20,\!572$	$20,\!572$	16,829
n	3,796	3,796	3,796	3,796	3,796	3,796	3,594

Notes: Sample is wage sample. Wages are in real \$2010. Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning. Controls include: gender, race, mother's education, rural or South at age 12, family poverty ratio in 1997, public primary high school, any gifted courses, bilingual education, and year entered 9th grade.

Table 6: Dependent variable is log hourly wage, course-taking defined in shares of total.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Share Voc. low*100	-0.004***	-0.000	0.001	0.001	0.001
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Share Voc. high*100	0.004***	0.005***	0.005***	0.005***	0.005***
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Share core low*100	-0.004***	-0.001	-0.001	-0.000	-0.001
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Share core high*100	0.005***	0.005***	0.004***	0.002**	0.002**
_	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Total credits	, ,	, ,	, ,	, ,	-0.004**
					(0.002)
Highest degree				\checkmark	✓
AFQT			\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
GPA9			\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
Controls		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
R2	0.047	0.213	0.223	0.242	0.243
N	20572	20572	20395	20395	20395
n	3796	3796	3767	3767	3767

Notes: Shares are the share of total courses taken in each subject group multiplied by 100. Share of courses that are electives is the omitted category. Sample is wage sample. Wages are in real \$2010. Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning. Controls include: gender, race, mother's education, rural or South at age 12, family poverty ratio in 1997, public primary high school, any gifted courses, bilingual education, and year entered 9th grade.

Table 7: Wage regression with labor market controls.

	Stat	e FE	ED dist	ribution	MSA/S	tate FE
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Voc., low	0.004	0.001	0.005	0.003	0.007**	0.004
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Voc., high	0.021***	0.017***	0.020***	0.017***	0.022***	0.018***
	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Core, low	-0.001	-0.008**	-0.002	-0.009***	0.000	-0.006*
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Core, high	0.017***	0.004	0.013***	0.002	0.016***	0.005
_	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
Electives	0.000	-0.005*	0.000	-0.005*	0.002	-0.003
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.003)
BA share in MSA	, ,	, ,	1.054***	1.085***	, ,	, ,
			(0.263)	(0.257)		
AA share in MSA			-4.007***	-3.539***		
			(0.909)	(0.890)		
HS share in MSA			0.745**	0.892***		
			(0.353)	(0.345)		
Not MSA			$0.373^{'}$	0.485^{*}		
			(0.257)	(0.250)		
Degree indicators		\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark
Fixed effects	State	State			MSA+state	MSA+state
Controls	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
$\overline{R^2}$	0.236	0.255	0.23	0.249	0.259	0.277
N	20,198	20,198	20,172	20,172	20,172	20,172
n	3,726	3,726	3,717	3,717	3,717	3,717

Notes: Wages are in real \$2010. Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning. Controls include: gender, race, mother's education, rural or South at age 12, family poverty ratio in 1997, public primary high school, any gifted courses, bilingual education, and year entered 9th grade.

Table 8: Wage Regressions by Type and Education Needs of Local Labor Market.

		Ву	metro area ty	/pe	В	y labor market	education nee	eds
	All	Not MSA	MSA	P/CMSA	No FE	No FE	State FE	MSA FE
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Voc low	0.002	0.007	0.006	0.000	0.002	0.024	0.036	0.033
	(0.003)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.007)	(0.004)	(0.024)	(0.024)	(0.024)
X BA share in MSA						-0.091	-0.135	-0.116
						(0.098)	(0.100)	(0.097)
Voc high/exper	0.019***	0.006	0.026***	0.022***	0.025***	-0.007	-0.019	-0.017
	(0.005)	(0.007)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.006)	(0.035)	(0.034)	(0.033)
$c_{\rm X}$ BA share in MSA						0.133	0.185	0.177
						(0.145)	(0.142)	(0.139)
BA share in MSA					0.992***	1.069***	1.292***	
					(0.160)	(0.280)	(0.325)	
Fixed effects							State FE	MSA FE
Controls	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
R^2	0.22	0.232	0.227	0.200	0.224	0.225	0.239	0.258
N	20,572	4,470	9,310	6,392	15,702	15,702	15,702	15,702
n	3,796	804	1,686	1,227	2,913	2,913	2,913	2,913

Notes: Wages are in real \$2010. Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning. (*p < 0.10, **p < 0.05, ***p < 0.01.)

Table 9: Dependent variable is log (real) hourly wage; regressions by highest degree completed and gender.

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	No HS	HS	Some coll	2-yr	4-yr $+$
Voc low	-0.011	-0.000	-0.009	-0.035**	-0.003
	(0.017)	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.016)	(0.009)
Voc high/exper.	0.036	0.007	0.014	0.032	0.006
	(0.024)	(0.012)	(0.010)	(0.024)	(0.015)
Core credits, low	-0.000	0.010	-0.011*	-0.019	-0.002
	(0.008)	(0.009)	(0.006)	(0.018)	(0.008)
Core credits, high	-0.011	0.025**	-0.003	-0.014	0.006
	(0.013)	(0.011)	(0.006)	(0.017)	(0.007)
Elective credits	-0.002	-0.001	-0.004	-0.013	-0.012**
	(0.012)	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.013)	(0.006)
AFQT	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
R2	0.194	0.141	0.162	0.240	0.176
N	596	2072	3752	889	3083
n	91	305	622	170	746

Panel B: Male

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	No HS		Some coll	2-yr	4-yr $+$
Voc low	-0.002	-0.005	0.008	0.004	0.031**
	(0.013)	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.021)	(0.013)
Voc high/exper.	0.015	0.012	0.033***	0.052**	0.004
	(0.021)	(0.011)	(0.010)	(0.020)	(0.014)
Core credits, low	-0.001	-0.013	-0.013**	-0.011	-0.008
	(0.013)	(0.009)	(0.006)	(0.017)	(0.011)
Core credits, high	-0.002	-0.009	-0.001	-0.019	0.016
	(0.023)	(0.010)	(0.007)	(0.021)	(0.010)
Elective credits	0.031**	-0.009	0.000	-0.007	-0.013
	(0.015)	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.014)	(0.008)
AFQT	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Controls	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
R2	0.270	0.176	0.168	0.261	0.184
N	705	2901	3653	684	2237
n	111	422	646	140	543

Notes: Wages are in real \$2010. Core credits include Eng., Math, Science, Social Studies. Electives include Language, Art/Music, Phys. Ed. and Other. Low/High core indicates upper or lower level course within subject-grade. Low vocational indicates entry level course. High vocational indicates second course or higher, or an internship/experiential learning.

Table 10: Dependent variable is log (real) hourly wage.

	(1)	(2)	Mean voc. credits earned
Tech. & Industry	0.016***	0.014***	1.03
·	(0.004)	(0.004)	
GLMP Tech. Ed.	-0.019	-0.022	0.90
	(0.014)	(0.014)	
Business/Management	0.011**	0.007	0.64
,	(0.005)	(0.005)	
GLMP Keyboarding	$0.006^{'}$	0.000	0.35
, and the second	(0.012)	(0.012)	
GLMP General	-0.005	-0.007	0.30
	(0.007)	(0.007)	
Computer Tech.	0.004	0.001	0.30
	(0.009)	(0.009)	
Agriculture	$0.012^{'}$	0.011	0.19
	(0.008)	(0.008)	
Service	-0.002	-0.004	0.17
	(0.005)	(0.005)	
Edu. & Child Care	-0.012	-0.014	0.12
	(0.010)	(0.009)	
Health care	0.016	0.015*	0.09
	(0.010)	(0.009)	
Pub. & Protect. Svcs.	-0.013	-0.017	0.04
	(0.011)	(0.011)	
GLMP Ind. Arts	-0.059**	-0.059**	0.02
	(0.024)	(0.024)	
GLMP Other	-0.025*	-0.024**	0.01
	(0.014)	(0.012)	
Core credits, low	-0.003	-0.010***	
	(0.003)	(0.003)	
Core credits, high	0.013***	0.002	
	(0.003)	(0.003)	
Elective credits	-0.002	-0.006**	
	(0.003)	(0.003)	
Highest degree		✓	
AFQT	\checkmark	\checkmark	
All controls	\checkmark	\checkmark	
R2	0.223	0.243	
N	20,495	20,495	
n	3,786	3,786	3,786

Notes: Wages are in real \$2010.

Table A1: Vocational course types in the NLSY97.

- 1. Basic Keyboarding/Typewriting (GLMP).
- 2. Industrial Arts (GLMP).
- 3. Career Preparation/General Work Experience (GLMP).
- 4. Technology Education (GLMP).
- 5. Other (GLMP).
- 6. Agriculture and Renewable Resources.
- 7. Business:

Business Services; Marketing and Distribution; Business Management.

- 8. Health Care.
- 9. Public and Protective Services.
- 10. Transportation and Industry:

Construction trades; Material Moving; Mechanics and repair

Precision Production (Drafting/Graphics/Printing/Metals/Wood/Plastics).

11. Computers and technology:

Computer Technology, Communication Technology; Other technology

12. Service:

Personal and Other Services; Food Service and Hospitality

13. Child Care and Education

Notes: GLMP is General Labor Market Preparation, as opposed to specific "occupational education" courses.