

No. 06-1505

IN THE
Supreme Court of the United States

CLIFFORD B. MEACHAM, *ET AL.*,
Petitioners,
v.

KNOLLS ATOMIC POWER LABORATORY, *ET AL.*,
Respondents.

On Writ of Certiorari to the
United States Court of Appeals for the
Second Circuit

BRIEF OF AMICUS CURIAE NATIONAL SCHOOL
BOARDS ASSOCIATION IN SUPPORT OF
RESPONDENTS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
TABLE OF AUTHORITIES.....	iii
STATEMENT OF INTEREST OF AMICUS CURIAE.....	1
SUMMARY OF ARGUMENT.....	2
ARGUMENT	3
I. AMERICAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS FACE UNPRECEDENTED CHAL- LENGES IN REACHING IMPOR- TANT EDUCATIONAL GOALS.	3
II. THE SUCCESS OF OUR NATION'S PUBLIC SCHOOLS DEPENDS ON FLEXIBLE POLICIES AND PRAC- TICES FOR HIRING AND RETAIN- ING SUPERIOR TEACHERS, AD- MINISTRATORS, AND STAFF, AND SOME OF THESE, WHILE CLEAR- LY NECESSARY, REASONABLE, AND UNEXCEPTIONABLE, MAY DISPROPORTIONATELY IMPACT OLDER EMPLOYEES.	6
A. Policies Requiring the Training and Skills Required of Highly Effective Teachers and Administrators Today Are Likely to Have Incidental Ad- verse Effects on Older Employees. ...	7
B. School Districts Undergoing Reor- ganizations Require Flexibility to Adopt Policies that May Dispropor- tionately Affect Older Employees.	14
C. Incentive Pay Systems May Be Needed to Recruit and Retain Effec- tive Teachers.	18

TABLE OF CONTENTS—Continued

	<u>Page</u>
D. Early Retirement Programs Help School Districts Ensure a Highly-Qualified Teaching Staff.	23
E. Districts Facing Budgetary Constraints May Require Reductions in Force.	25
III. CHANGING THE BURDEN OF PROOF FOR EMPLOYERS IN DISPARATE IMPACT CASES WILL MAKE IT MORE DIFFICULT FOR SCHOOL DISTRICTS TO MEET TODAY'S EDUCATIONAL CHALLENGES.	28
CONCLUSION	31

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES

	<u>Page</u>
CASES:	
<i>EEOC v. Dist. of Columbia Pub. Schs.</i> , 217 F.R.D. 12 (D.D.C. 2003).....	27
<i>EEOC v. Dist. of Columbia Pub. Schs.</i> , 277 F. Supp. 2d 44 (D.D.C. 2003).....	27
<i>EEOC v. Hickman Mills Consol. Sch.</i> <i>Dist. No. 1</i> , 99 F. Supp. 2d 1070 (W.D. Mo. 2000)	24
<i>Galabya</i>	

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES

	<u>Page</u>
20 U.S.C. § 1400 <i>et seq.</i>	4
20 U.S.C. § 6301 <i>et seq.</i>	4
20 U.S.C. § 6311(b)(8)(c)	12
20 U.S.C. § 6316(b)(7)(C)	16
20 U.S.C. § 6316(b)(8)(B)	16
20 U.S.C. § 6319(a)(2)	10
20 U.S.C. § 6319(a)(2)(A)	9
20 U.S.C. § 6613(c)(12).....	20
20 U.S.C. § 7801(23)	9
20 U.S.C. § 7801(23)(B).....	27
29 U.S.C. § 623	1
Dep'ts of Labor, Health and Hum. Svcs., and Educ. and Related Agencies Ap- propriations Act 2006, Title V, Part D, Pub. L. No. 109-149, 119 Stat. 2833	20
Pension Protection Act of 2006, Pub. L. 109-280, 120 Stat. 780 (codi- fied at 29 U.S.C. § 623 <i>et seq.</i>)	24

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES—Continued

	<u>Page</u>
RULES:	
S. Ct. Rule 37.3(a)	1
S. Ct. Rule 37.6	1
OTHER AUTHORITIES:	
Agreement Between Montgomery County Educ. Assoc. & Bd. of Educ. of Mont- gomery County (2005–2007)	11
Agreement Between the Bd. of Educ. of City of Chi. & Chi. Tchrs. Union (1999– 2003).....	11
Agreement Between the Balt. Tchrs. Un- ion & Balt. City Bd. of Sch. Comm'rs (2005–2007).....	11
Amer. Fed'n of Tchrs., <i>Professional Com- pensation</i>	20
<i>Average Length of School Year and Aver- age Length of School Day, by Selected Characteristics: United States, 2001– 02</i>	11
California Dep't of Educ., <i>Connect, Compute, and Compete: The Report of the California Education Technology Task Force</i> (1996)	8
Coronado Unified Sch. Dist., <i>Staff Devel- opment Training: Teacher Proficiency Using Technology</i>	8
C.T. Clotfelter <i>et al.</i> , <i>Teacher Credentials and Student Achievement in High</i>	

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES

	<u>Page</u>
<i>School: A Cross-Subject Analysis with Student Fixed Effects</i> (Urban Inst., Working Paper No. 11, 2007)	19
CTAC, <i>Catalyst for Change: Pay for Performance in Denver, Final Report</i> (Jan. 2004)	21
Charlotte Danielson,	

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES

	<u>Page</u>
<i>as a Signal of Effective Teaching</i> , 81 Rev. Econ. & Stat. 134 (2007)	19
Dan Goldhaber, Center for Amer. Progress, <i>Teacher Pay Reforms: the Political Implications of Recent Research</i> (2006)	18
Abby Goodnough, <i>Vision for the Schools: Overview; Mayor Sets Plan for Tight Control Over City Schools</i> , N.Y. Times, Jan. 16, 2003.....	15
Eric A. Hanushek <i>et al.</i> , <i>The Market for Teacher Quality</i> 19 (Nat'l Bureau of Econ. Res., Working Paper No. 11154, Feb. 2005)	19
Eric A. Hanushek <i>et al.</i> , <i>Why Public Schools Lose Teachers</i> , 39 J. Hum. Res. 326 (2004)	13, 18
Eric A. Hanushek and Steven G. Rivkin, <i>Pay, Working Conditions, and Teacher Quality</i>	

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES

	<u>Page</u>
IEL, <i>Leadership for Student Learning: Reinventing the Principalship</i> (Oct. 2000)	9
Institute of Educ. Sciences, U.S. Dep't of Educ., <i>Highlights from PISA 2006: Performance of U.S. 15-Year-Old Students in Science and Mathematics Literacy in an International Context</i> (Dec. 2007)	5
Diane M. Juffras, <i>Early Retirement Incentive Programs: Are they Legal for North Carolina Public Employers?</i> , 33 Pub. Emp. Law Bull. 1 (2006)	23
Marie Leech, <i>Classrooms Hit Hardest by Employee Cuts</i> , Birmingham News, May 5, 2007.....	26
Steve Lyttle, <i>Effort to Improve Student Academics</i> , Char. Observer, May 13, 2007	15
<i>Merit Pay's Unintended Lesson</i> , St. Petersburg Times, Mar. 13, 2008	20

TABLE OF AUTHORITIES

	<u>Page</u>
NCTAF, <i>Reducing the Achievement Gap Through District/Union Collaboration: The Tale of Two School Districts</i> , National Comm'n on Teaching and America's Future	16, 17
NEA, <i>NEA Handbook</i>	20
NGA Center for Best Practices, <i>Improving Teaching and Learning by Improving School Leadership</i> (Sept. 12, 2003)	9
Russell W. Rumberger & Katherine A. Larson, <i>Student Mobility and the Increased Risk of High School Dropout</i> , 107 Am. J. Educ. 1 (Nov., 1998)	r.oand L1.7tmger & Kather.(

STATEMENT OF INTEREST OF AMICUS CURIAE

The National School Boards Association (“NSBA”) is a not-for-profit federation of state school board associations from throughout the United States, the Hawaii State Board of Education and the Board of Education of the U.S. Virgin Islands. NSBA and the members of its federation together currently represent the over 95,000 school-board members who govern some 14,000 local school districts employing almost 6.4 million people.¹

NSBA’s mission is to foster excellence and equity in public education through school-board leadership. As part of its mission, NSBA supports the reasonable application of anti-discrimination laws that balance the rights of public school employees with the educational and fiscal challenges facing public schools.

In this case, NSBA seeks to provide the Court with concrete examples of employment decisions faced by public school districts in which a rule that placed the burden on employers to prove a reasonable factor other than age (“RFOA”) in a suit brought under the Age Discrimination in Employment Act, 29 U.S.C. § 623 (“ADEA”), would hamper school districts’ ability to accomplish their educational mission. School districts employ a variety of sensible employment criteria that are designed to improve educational achievement. When such a RFOA may have a disproportionate impact on workers over 40 years of

age, school districts should not be required to create a record that they have eliminated every possibility of age discrimination.

SUMMARY OF ARGUMENT

The Second Circuit correctly concluded that the “business necessity” test is irrelevant to ADEA analysis, and that the ADEA does not place on employers the burden of demonstrating that common and necessary employment criteria are reasonable. For our nation’s public school districts it is particularly important that employers not bear these burdens. To shift the burden to school districts would undermine a variety of employment practices critical to the success of America’s schools.

teacher training programs today than was true in the past. Other policies that seek to place the best teachers in the schools where they are most needed may disproportionately affect older employees because of the expertise that they have gained through experience. School districts today that are undertaking reorganizations to improve academic achievement at a particular school, or district-wide; are experimenting with incentive pay programs to attract and retain the best personnel where they are most needed; or are required by shrinking budgets to employ a reduction-in-force, all require flexibility in being able to adopt reasonable employment practices to attract and retain the best educators.

Placing the burden of proof in disparate impact cases under the ADEA on school districts to prove that every employment criteria they use is reasonable would impose significant additional costs on school districts and deter necessary, appropriate and sometimes legally mandated reforms and innovations. For these reasons, NSBA urges the Court to affirm the decision below.

ARGUMENT

I. AMERICAN PUBH9day thacsc rG[]0 5hese reD-0.0xibilityOOI

linguistic needs of their students to the rapidly

American schools and school districts, therefore, must retain the ability to hire and retain teachers and administrators who have the complex mix of skills necessary to cope with this unprecedented combination of challenges. They should not be hamstrung by a requirement that they be prepared to defend the business necessity or reasonableness of routine employment decisions that for a variety of reasons might have a disparate impact on older workers.

II. THE SUCCESS OF OUR NATION'S PUBLIC

include reorganizations, either educationally driven or legally mandated; teacher reassignments; incen-

For example, today school districts need to hire more teachers trained to deal with the rapid increases in the number of ELL students in American classrooms. Currently, although 41 percent of teachers in the United States have had ELL students in their classrooms, only 13 percent of those teachers reported receiving any instruction or professional development on the education of ELLs. Sandy Watson *et al.*, *English Language Learner Representation in Teacher Education Textbooks: A Null Curriculum?*, 126 Educ. 148, 148 (Fall 2005). For teachers to be prepared to teach ELL students, they must receive systematic training on practical issues concerning ELLs. *See id.* at 148–49. While experienced teachers have opportunities to undergo such training, many elect not to do so.

Second, recent graduates may be more likely to have the necessary skills to teach technology and to teach with technology. It is vital that schools incorporate computer-based and computer-related learning into their curriculum. *See* California Dep't of Educ., *Connect, Compute, and Compete: The Report of the California Education Technology Task Force* 12 (1996). As a result, several states have begun to require school districts to introduce standards that measure and ensure certain technological proficiencies for teachers. *See, e.g.*, South Carolina Dep't of Educ., *Teacher Technology Proficiency (Proviso 1.25)*, <http://ed.sc.gov/agency/offices/tech/teachprofprov/index.html>; Coronado Unified School District, *Staff Development Training: Teacher Proficiency Using Technology*, <http://www.coronado.k12.ca.us/technol>

teaching and learning. See NGA Center for Best Practices, *Improving Teaching and Learning by Improving School Leadership* 1 (Sept. 12, 2003), <http://www.nga.org/cda/files/091203LEADERSHIP.pdf> (“*Improving Teaching and Learning*”). Superintendents are increasingly aware, however, that many principals today are not adequately trained to handle the “changing nature of the principalship.” *Id.*; see also IEL, *Leadership for Student Learning: Reinventing the Principalship* 2 (October 2000), available at <http://www.iel.org/programs/21st/reports/principal.pdf>. Specifically, school principals, who were traditionally expected to perform primarily managerial and political roles, are now being called upon to serve as entrepreneurs, organizers, and instructional leaders, as well. *Improving Teaching and Learning* at 2.

2. NCLB required school districts, by the 2005–06 school year, to have “highly qualified teachers,” as defined by the Act, teaching all core academic subjects in each public elementary school and secondary school. 20 U.S.C. § 6319(a)(2)(A). NCLB itself set out certain criteria by which states were to define “highly qualified” teachers. Although there are slightly different requirements for new and experienced teachers, in general NCLB requires a teacher’s qualifications to be assessed under three essential criteria: whether a teacher has obtained a bachelor’s degree or better in the subject taught; whether the teacher has obtained full state teacher certification; and whether the teacher has otherwise demonstrated knowledge in the subjects taught. 20 U.S.C. § 7801(23).

Under NCLB, most new teachers coming out of teacher education programs should be deemed

adopt standards below those established in NCLB. 20 U.S.C. § 6319(a)(2). Some states have benefited from this flexibility. Recent research has shown that, to be effective, teachers must understand the information they are expected to teach (which NCLB emphasizes) and must also be comfortable with a range of pedagogical techniques for conveying that information to students. Linda Darling-Hammond, *Access to Quality Teaching: An Analysis of Inequalities in California's Public Schools*, 43 Santa Clara L. Rev. 1045, 1054 (2003). Additionally, teachers must be able to adapt to the changing needs of public school populations, including developing populations of immigrant, special needs and ELL students. *Id.* at 1059. States like California, Nevada, and Illinois have adopted teacher-qualification standards that incorporate these critical skills. *See, e.g.*, Cal. Educ. Code § 44259; Ill. Admin. Code tit. 25 § 25.25; Nev. Admin. Code § 391 *et seq.*

While school administrators have always sought to ensure that the teachers in their district had the necessary skills to meet students' needs, these new NCLB standards for highly-qualified teachers give the task a particular urgency. Since 2001, school administrators have had to take a hard look at their workforces to determine whether those teachers already in the classroom satisfy the new requirements. Inevitably, some teachers do not have the necessary background or experience to meet the NCLB-based standards. When that occurs, administrators face two options. They can either replace the current teacher with another teacher, who may well be newly-credentialed and thus already-trained, or they can provide additional training to the current teacher. The choice may turn on the dual pressures of time and budget.

Time pressure comes in two main forms. First, students' needs are immediate and cannot go unmet

while teachers are being brought up to speed with training. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics at the Department of Education, at the 2000 census, the average school year, nationwide, was only 180 days, and the average school day lasted less than seven hours. *Average Length of School Year and Average Length of School Day, by Selected Characteristics: United States, 2001–02*, http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/pss/tables/table_15.asp (last visited Mar. 20, 2008). For the average American student, high school has only 720 days of instruction. Second, out of the 180 days in a given school year, typically only three to five days will be allocated for teacher training.⁵ School administrators recognize that there are limits to the training that can be provided in such a restricted timeframe.

While additional training can be completed, it often can only be completed at the expense of already-

⁵ In 33 states, public school districts and their employees establish the contours of the employment relationship through collective bargaining agreements. See Educ. Comm'n of the States, *State Collective Bargaining Policies for Teachers*, StateNotes (Jun. 2002), <http://www.ecs.org/clearinhouse/37/48/3748.pdf>. Teachers in Montgomery County, Maryland have only three scheduled training days per school year; in Chicago, Illinois the collective bargaining agreement in place when NCLB was enacted provided for five days of training; Baltimore, Maryland requires teachers to attend 10 days of training annually, but this includes both summer training and training that occurs during the school year. See Agreement Between Montgomery County Educ. Assoc. & Bd. of Educ. of

limited classroom time or at an additional financial cost to the district. School administrators, however, hesitate to cut into instructional time, and, depending on a school district's budget, it may not be financially feasible to provide unqualified teachers with additional training. Increased training would require increased funding at a time when school districts are already planning to cut back in all areas of spending because of the economic slump. Nancy Zuckerbrod, *School Officials Expecting Cuts Due to Downturn in Economy*, San Diego Union Trib., Feb. 11, 2008.

3. At the same time, school districts increasingly

school district to the school of their choice.⁷ Experienced teachers, however, tend to transfer away from schools with higher proportions of low-achieving students. Eric A. Hanushek *et al.*, *Why Public Schools Lose Teachers*, 39 J. Hum. Res. 326, 337 (2004). While districts are starting to implement incentive pay programs that sometimes seek to keep experienced teachers in schools with low-achieving students, *see infra*, some districts have found that such programs are not sufficient, in and of themselves, to maintain an experienced teaching staff at their most challenged schools. Eric A. Hanushek & Steven G. Rivkin,

B. School Districts Undergoing Reorganizations Require Flexibility to Adopt Policies that May Disproportionately Affect Older Employees.

School districts across the country are commonly reorganizing to meet today's educational challenges. A district's ability to implement reasonable methods of reorganization requires sufficient flexibility in hiring and retention policies for administrators and teachers. Such flexibility allows districts to pursue their educational goals, while also ensuring compliance with the accountability standards embedded in state and federal law, including NCLB. In these situations, school districts should not be forced to make personnel decisions that are driven by a fear of litigation under the ADEA.

1. The need for flexibility in personnel policies is particularly acute when a new superintendent enters a school district. In 2007, mean tenure for superintendents was 5.5 years. *See Amy Vogt, AASA Releases Study of the American School Superintendency* (Sept. 24, 2007), <http://www.aasa.org/newsroom/pressdetail.cfm?ItemNumber=9401>, (citing Thomas E. Glass and Louis A. Franceschini, Amer. Assoc. of Sch. Administrators, *The State of American School Superintendency: A Mid-Decade Study* (Rowman & Littlefield Education 2007)). School boards often choose to replace a superintendent in hopes of stimulating academic improvement. Typically, new superintendents develop and implement their own plans for improvement, which can (and often do) include restructuring the entire administration of a school district. In the course of this restructuring, an entire level of management in the school district may even be removed—a type of change that may be expected to disproportionately affect older workers.

An example of this type of reorganization can be

seen in the public schools of New York City, where Mayor Michael Bloomberg assumed control of the public schools in 2003, and launched an initiative known as Children First. As part of the initiative, Mayor Bloomberg hired a new Chancellor, reorganized the city's 32 community school districts into 10 instructional divisions and replaced 40 district superintendents with 10 regional superintendents. *See* David M. Herszenhorn, *Education Dept. Hires 108 Local Supervisors*, N.Y. Times, Apr. 29, 2003; Abby Goodnough, *Vision for the Schools: Overview; Mayor Sets Plan for Tight Control Over City Schools*, N.Y. Times, Jan. 16, 2003. Other examples of recent reorganizations include the District of Columbia and Charlotte, North Carolina. In the District of Columbia, Mayor Adrian Fenty appointed Michelle Rhee as the Chancellor in 2007, and in January of 2008, the D.C. Council granted Ms. Rhee more power to fire underperforming employees. *See* Gary Emerling, *Rhee Fires 98 School Administrative Workers*, Wash. Times, Mar. 8, 2008. In Charlotte-Mecklenburg, a new superintendent reorganized the district in 2007, moving many district administrators from a single central office to new regional offices closer to the individual schools. *See* Steve Lyttle, *Effort to Improve Student Academics*, Char. Observer, May 13, 2007. While all of these reorganizations have been designed to improve student achievement, the steps necessary to achieve them may adversely affect older employees.

2. Even absent a full scale, district-wide reorganization, school administrators seeking to address below-satisfactory student performance need the flexibility to make reasonable personnel decisions and to hire and retain the best teachers without assuming the burden of proof in a lawsuit. Districts may require experienced teachers to act as mentors for new teachers, or as discussed above, may seek to transfer experienced teachers to a particular school

or class with low-achieving students. School districts pursuing such policies to improve student achievement should not be stifled by having to make a record that will support their necessary and reasonable decisionmaking if the district later faces a discrimination claim that older teachers were disproportionately impacted.

In fact, federal law underscores the need for flexibility in hiring and retention decisions related to school-level reorganizations. NCLB, for example,

and America's Future 11–21. In 1996, in an effort to improve a failing school system highlighted by some of the lowest achieving schools in the state, the Chattanooga school district merged with the school district in the surrounding county (Hamilton County). *See id.* at 11. A new superintendent was hired in 1997 to oversee the merger, and he faced countless organizational issues, one of which was hiring and retention of effective teachers. *See id.* at 11–12.

In 2000, the teachers' union and the newly merged district agreed on a plan to reconstitute the faculties at many of the district's lowest achieving schools. *See id.* at 14. Rather than firing teachers, the agreement mandated that any teacher who was asked to leave a failing school would be assured a place at another school within the district. There is a strong possibility that a larger proportion of older teachers may have been affected by these transfers, however, especially as the district looked to place the most effective teachers at its lowest performing schools. *See id.*

As a result of the reorganization, the Hamilton County school district's overall achievement has improved markedly. *See id.* at 22–23. Despite this tremendous improvement, a change in the burden on proof on RFOA may make another superintendent think twice about this same decision in the future.⁹

⁹ Unwanted teacher transfers have been the basis of ADEA claims in the past. *See, e.g., Kodl v. Bd. of Educ. Sch. Dist. 45, Villa Park*, 490 F.3d 558 (7th Cir. 2007); *Galabya v. New York City Bd. of Educ.*, 202 F.3d 636 (2d Cir. 2000); *Sanchez v. Denver Pub. Schs.*, 164 F.3d 527 (10th Cir. 1998).

C. Incentive Pay Systems May Be Needed to Recruit and Retain Effective Teachers.

In their attempts to recruit, retain, and develop the best teachers, several states and districts are changing the way teacher compensation is calculated to reward effective teachers and practices. While many new compensation policies offer promising results for students,¹⁰ they may also have a disparate impact on older teachers. *See Hanushek et al., Why Public Schools Lose Teachers*, 39 J. Hum. Res. at 343 (finding greatest positive retention effect of salary increases on less-experienced teachers).

Under a traditional pay scale, teachers earn more based on years of teaching experience accumulated and graduate credits earned. There are two principal shortcomings of this system. First, these factors are not accurate predictors of successful teachers. Studies have generally failed to identify a positive link between advanced degrees unconnected to the

¹⁰ *See* Dan Goldhaber, Center for Amer. Progress, *Teacher Pay Reforms: The Political Implications of Recent Research* (2006), *available at* http://www.americanprogress.org/issues/2006/12/pdf/teacher_pay_report.pdf; Lewis C. Solomon *et al.*, NIET, *The Effectiveness of the Teacher Advancement Program* 2 (Revised Apr. 2007), *available at* http://www.talentedteachers.org/pubterms.taf?file=http://www.talentedteachers.org/pubs/effective_tap07_full.pdf; Matthew G. Springer & Michael J. Podgursky, NCPI, *Teacher Performance Pay: A Review* 35 (2006), *available at* http://www.performanceincentives.org/data/files/news/PapersNews/Podgursky_and_Springer_2006_Revised.pdf; David N. Figlio & Lawrence W. Kenny, *Individual Teacher Incentives and Student Performance* 3 (Nat'l Bureau of Econ. Res., Working Paper No. W12627, 2006), *available at* <http://ssrn.com/abstract=938953>.

subject matter taught and teacher effectiveness.¹¹ And while teachers tend to make significant improvements in their first several years of teaching, the benefits of additional years of experience taper off thereafter.¹² Second, the traditional pay scale fails to exploit the market incentives that operate in other professions to provide a premium to people who fill positions in high demand, possess skills in short supply, or perform exceptionally well. *See, e.g.*, U.S. Dep't of Educ., *Teacher Shortage Areas Nationwide Listing 1990–91 through 2007–08* (Mar. 2008), *available at*

opposed merit pay, the urgent need to improve student outcomes in the face of increasing challenges has brought unions and districts to the bargaining table with a renewed focus on student achievement.¹³ Although plans that rely solely on test scores or subjective evaluations and those that force teachers to compete for bonuses remain controversial and largely unpopular, *see* Terrence Stutz, *Many Texas School Districts Reject Merit Pay for Teachers*, Dallas Morning News, Mar. 10, 2008 (noting teacher opposition to such plans); *Merit Pay's Unintended Lesson*, St. Petersburg Times, Mar. 13, 2008 (same), some unions and school districts are successfully negotiating agreements that reward student gains, meaningful professional development and leadership, and teaching in hard-to-staff positions.

Incentive plans are garnering increasing support—including from unions and the federal government—because of their potential to help schools meet their educational objectives for students. *See, e.g.*, 20 U.S.C. § 6613(c)(12) (NCLB provision allowing funds to be used as bonuses for teachers in high-need academic subjects and high-poverty schools and districts); Dep'ts of Labor, Health and Hum. Svcs., and Educ. and Related Agencies Appropriations Act 2006, Title V, Part D, Pub. L. No. 109-149, 119 Stat.

¹³ Indeed, local affiliates are working with school districts to shape the details of alternative pay systems even while their national leadership remains largely critical. Press Release, UFT, UFT: DOE “Misguided” to Seek to Use Test Scores to Judge Teachers (Jan. 21, 2008), *available at* http://www.uft.org/news/issues/press/testscores_guide_teachers/; NEA, *NEA Handbook* 278, <http://www.nea.org/handbook/images/resolutions.pdf>, accessed Mar. 20, 2008. The American Federation of Teachers has taken a more moderate position. “Professional Compensation,” http://www.aft.org/topics/teacher_quality/comp.htm (last visited Mar. 20, 2008).

2833 (\$100 million Teacher Incentive Fund assisting states and school districts in developing performance-based teacher compensation systems). Some states have even passed legislation funding and regulating alternative compensation plans. *See* Fla. Stat. § 1012.225; Minn. Stat. § 179A.01 *et seq.*; Tex. Educ. Code Ann. § 21.701 *et seq.* These changes will benefit teachers, but not all to the same extent.

For example, in Denver, the Denver Classroom Teachers Association and the Denver Public Schools agreed to supplement the established lock-step salary schedule with a new system that rewards professional development, National Board Certification,¹⁴ satisfactory evaluations, student growth on standardized tests, and working in hard-to-serve schools or hard-to-staff positions. Voters approved a tax increase to fund the program. New teachers are automatically enrolled, while veteran teachers may choose whether to join. Denver Pub. Schs., *Professional Compensation System for Teachers*, [http://denverprocomp.org/stories/storyReader\\$33](http://denverprocomp.org/stories/storyReader$33) (last visited Mar. 20, 2008). The four-year pilot study in 16 Denver schools found a positive correlation between program participation and student achievement, prompting full-scale implementation. *See* CTAC, *Catalyst for Change: Pay for Performance in Denver, Final Report* (Jan. 2004), available at <http://www.ctacusa.com/denver-vol3-final.pdf>.

Another Colorado school district, Eagle County, has dispensed with the lock-step salary schedule altogether and adopted the Teacher Advancement Program (“TAP”) developed by the Milken Family Foun-

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dation. The program rewards mentoring, knowledge and skills, and student growth on standardized tests. An early study concluded that students of TAP teachers and schools made greater gains on standardized tests than students of teachers and schools without the program. *See Solomon et al., The Effec-*

their business necessity or reasonableness in potentially long and expensive litigation.

D. Early Retirement Programs Help School Districts Ensure a Highly-Qualified Teaching Staff.

School districts' early retirement programs typically encourage employees who have attained a certain age or a requisite number of years' service to retire earlier than they otherwise might. School districts offer a variety of financial incentives, including lump sum payments to those who retire early, additional yearly stipends on top of any earned retirement benefits, or bridge health benefits to those who retire before they are eligible for Medicare. *See* Diane M. Juffras, *Early Retirement Incentive Programs: Are they Legal for North Carolina Public Employers?*, 33 Pub. Emp. Law Bull. 1 (2006) <http://ncinfo.iog.unc.edu/pubs/electronicversions/pdfs/pelb33.pdf>.

School districts have traditionally used early retirement programs to help ease budgetary crises. Under typical early retirement programs, employees with enough seniority to benefit from the programs would generally earn salaries near the apex of the district's pay scale. When those employees take advantage of the early retirement programs and exit the workforce, they release district funds for other uses.

In addition, where teachers fail to meet the highly qualified requirements of NCLB, as discussed previously, school administrators may determine that they will be unable to retrain some teachers, because of time or budgetary constraints. Those teachers may have been with the school district for a significant period of time. In those cases, early retirement programs provide a graceful option for exit by employees who would require extensive and expensive

training in order to bring their skills into line with a district's needs. Early retirement programs thus also create space for school districts to hire newly trained and highly qualified teachers into the district's workforce.

To encourage employees to retire sooner, rather than later, these plans often offer the best benefits to the youngest eligible employees, with benefits decreasing or ceasing over time or upon attainment of some particular age. Because the benefits provided by early retirement programs typically diminish as employees age, school districts' programs have been subject to numerous ADEA lawsuits, both by the EEOC and by private parties. The cases have been brought both as disparate treatment and disparate impact cases. *Compare*

News reports indicate that at least 50 school districts nationwide have conducted RIFs in the last three years alone. The RIFs cut across employment categories, hitting not only teachers, but also classroom support staff, administrators, and physical plant staff. The number of school district employees subject to RIFs varied depending on the district, ranging from as few as five or 10 employees to as many as hundreds. *Compare* Kris Sherman, *Budget OK for Tacoma Schools*, Tacoma News Trib., Apr. 27, 2007 (reporting six teachers laid off in RIF) *with* Marie Leech, *Classrooms Hit Hardest by Employee Cuts*, Birmingham News, May 5, 2007 (reporting 398 employees, in a variety of positions, laid off in RIF).

a given point in time. Absent drastic changes in a district, those students will move *en masse* through the school system, changing the school system's staffing needs as they go. In the early years, the school district will need more highly-qualified elementary school teachers; in later years the district will need more highly-qualified middle and high school teachers. Under NCLB, those two sets of teachers, and their skills, are not fungible, 20 U.S.C. § 7801(23)(B), and teachers cannot be shifted seamlessly from one level to another. At a certain point, as the particularly large group of students moves into middle and high school, the school district may need to conduct RIFs among elementary school teachers, even while hiring new middle and high school teachers.

2. In districts with traditional collective bargaining agreements in place, RIFs like these fall more heavily on younger workers because traditional collective bargaining agreement seniority rules include a "last

For example, when staff cut backs are required for legitimate non-discriminatory reasons, school district administrators would incur significant inefficiency and delay if they had to weigh each and every alternative to determine which would have the least impact on older employees. The Second Circuit recognized this dilemma when, referring to *Smith v. City of Jackson, Miss.*, 544 U.S. 228 (2005), it observed that “[t]o draw a negative inference from the *ex post* age distribution of laid-off employees would inhibit reliance on reasonable and useful employment criteria that are highly correlated with age.” *Meacham*, 461 F.3d at 145.

The Second Circuit’s rationale is particularly compelling in the context of actions by a school district. The resources of school districts, many of which are relatively small, are far from limitless. While for-profit employers may be able to calculate litigation costs and expenses into yearly budgets, school districts are governmental institutions supported by local tax dollars for which litigation—and especially litigation over reasonable hiring and retention decisions—can be an unexpected, and unbudgeted expense. Any additional costs for public schools necessarily must come out of a school district’s taxpayer-funded budget at the expense of educational services for children.

Congress included the RFOA factor in the ADEA because it realized that there are reasonable policies, including those discussed herein, that may affect older employees disproportionately. These policies are not based on stereotypes about age, but rather serve other important interests. Indeed, in the school context, as noted above, some such policies may be based on the skills obtained by teachers through their years of experience and the need for those unique abilities possessed by particular teachers.

In sum, for school districts, even more than other employers, many “employment criteria that are routinely used may be reasonable despite their adverse impact on older workers as a group.” *Meacham*, 461 F.3d at 145 (*quoting City of Jackson*, 544 U.S. at 240–42). School districts have a compelling interest in providing a quality education for students throughout the United States, and that interest, rather than any stereotypes about age, drives the various employment practices discussed above.¹⁶

¹⁶ Plaintiffs are well able to bear the judicial burden of challenging the reasonableness of a school district’s employment decisions. The relative resources of the parties have nothing to do with the burden of proof—as the Fourth Circuit put it, “[w]e do not automatically assign the burden of proof to the side with the bigger guns.” *Weast v. Schaffer* ex rel. *Schaffer*, 377 F.3d 449, 453 (4th Cir. 2004), *aff’d* 546 U.S. 49 (2005). For example, parties challenging actions of the federal government bear the ordinary burden of proof despite the resources at the government’s disposal. *See* 5 U.S.C. § 556(d).

CONCLUSION

For these reasons, NSBA respectfully suggests that the Court affirm the Second Circuit's decision.

Respectfully submitted,

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