

Improving Child Care Access to Promote Postsecondary Success Among Low-Income Parents



About This Report

This report examines the role of child care as a crucial support for parents who pursue postsecondary education. Literature review, analyses of public data, original surveys, and interviews were used to examine the population of student parents in the United States, the challenges they face, and the ways in which access to child care can be improved in order to facilitate student parent success in postsecondary settings. This report is a product of IWPR's Student Parent Success Initiative. Coauthor Abby Thorman is President of Thorman Strategy Group.

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Executive Summary

Parents of dependent children make up nearly a quarter (3.9 million) of the undergraduate students in the United States, and half of those parents are single parents (1.9 million). Many are pursuing postsecondary education with the hope of improving their families' lives. Research has shown that their strategy is a good one: postsecondary courses and credentials can increase individual earnings, and the children of parents who earn postsecondary credentials are more likely to themselves pursue postsecondary education.

Student parents, however, face many challenges to accessing and completing postsecondary education programs. Nearly half of student parents work full-time while enrolled, in addition to caregiving responsibilities, which are heavier for enrolled mothers than for their male counterparts. Single student parents in particular are likely to come from disadvantaged backgrounds or situations: they are less likely to have parents who have earned postsecondary degrees and more likely to be low-income and to qualify for need-based financial aid.

One of the greatest challenges faced by parents pursuing postsecondary education is obtaining affordable, high-quality child care. With so many parents attempting to balance work, school, studying, and family demands, child care is an absolute requirement for many to be able to pursue postsecondary education. Unfortunately, the need for child care is much greater than the supply of on-campus child care.

This report uses information obtained through a literature view, interviews with campus child care experts, interviews with child care center and program administrators, and analyses of postsecondary education data to assess the adequacy and demand for existing campus child care and to explore the characteristics of successful campus child care programs. Using data from Department of Education and other government sources as well as a survey of members of the National Coalition for Campus Children's Centers, IWPR estimates that only 5 percent of the child care needed by student parents is supplied at on-campus child care centers. Placements can require months or years on waiting lists, especially for infants or toddlers, and centers that are able to provide care during evening or weekend hours are scarce. Between 2003 and 2009, the number of two- and four-year institutions providing care has decreased, with a large drop between 2007 and 2009 in the number of community colleges providing care.

On-campus children's centers provide student parents with the peace of mind to focus on succeeding in classes, while also providing high-quality early care, education, and socialization for their children. Centers can also support parents through contact with other parents, academic and financial aid counseling, parenting courses, and a variety of other resources. Even campuses without children's centers sometimes organize services and supports for student parents in other ways, including helping them obtain referrals or subsidies for child care off-campus. However, campuses may face legal questions and unmet need for facilities, making support from top administrators crucial to establishing and maintaining child care supports for low-income students.

Specific federal funding for campus child care for low-income parents exists—the Child Care Access Means Parents in School (CCAMPIS) program—but funding is limited (\$16 million in 2010) and is applied unevenly. Increasing the funding levels of CCAMPIS and improving its funding formulae would be one step toward helping student parents pursue postsecondary education. In addition, advocates, administrators, researchers, and federal and state policymakers need to work together to share best practices and increase the investment that student parents receive from the federal government, state programs, community organizations, postsecondary institutions, and communities.

Forty percent of our student families are single parents. When these single parents can go to college, they get jobs they can keep, and become productive members of society. I think of a mom that came to us at 18. She'd had her baby the August after she graduated high school. That little baby grew up with us for five years as his mother earned her engineering degree. Mom already had a job thanks to an internship between her junior and senior year, but she said, "I need to have that degree under my belt." She would have never been able to do what she did if we hadn't been here. For every family that can attend the center, it matters. They graduate, and that's the bottom line.

— Debra Carlson, Director, Lindgren Child Care Center, St. Cloud State University, Minnesota

Introduction: The Role of Education in Family Economic Stability

Expanding educational opportunities available to low-income parents—especially single parents, whose children’s outcomes are particularly dependent on the resources and education of their only parent—can dramatically improve children’s chances of escaping poverty. Nearly two in five children in the U.S. live in low-income families that earn less than 200 percent of the federal poverty level, and youths from low-income families are substantially less likely to graduate with a four-year college degree by the age of 24 (10 percent) than are those from middle-income (25 percent) or high-income families (50 percent; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2009). Education levels are strongly associated with earnings. People with associates degrees earn, on average, 22 percent more than those with only high school degrees, while bachelor’s degree holders earn 64 percent more annually than those with only a high school degree. Those with some college classes but no degree earn 12 percent more than those with a high school degree and no college (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2010).

Figure 1. Median Weekly Earnings by Education Level, 2009



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics (2010).

Parents’ education strongly predicts children’s educational outcomes. In *Passing the Torch*, Attewell and Lavin (2007) studied a year 2000 sample of 2,000 women who pursued education at the City University of New York (CUNY) after that institution began offering open admission to all graduates of New York City high schools in 1970, while also examining national longitudinal datasets. They found that attending and graduating from college make it much more likely that the children of the women in the 1970-2000 sample from CUNY would themselves seek out postsecondary education. This relationship remains statistically significant across racial groups when controlling for background, IQ, and other variables.

Intergenerational benefits of education occur not just because of the improvement in college graduates' earnings and thus their families' access to certain resources or opportunities; Attewell and Lavin's findings also indicate that attending college significantly changes parenting behaviors and orientation toward education. Parents who have obtained at least some postsecondary education are more involved in the schooling of their children, explaining part of the increased likelihood that their children fulfill their educational potential (Attewell and Lavin 2007; also see Jones-DeWeever and Gault 2006).

Though postsecondary education represents an opportunity for parents without college degrees to improve their family's economic security, student parents face many challenges to successfully completing postsecondary credentials or degrees. These challenges include financial difficulties, balancing work, school, and family, and navigating complicated aid systems. The most significant challenge for many student parents, however, is locating, obtaining, and paying for child care.

This report presents findings on the child care needs of student parents and the degree to which resources provided by four-year institutions and two-year institutions are meeting those needs. IWPR investigates the current supply of child care relative to demand, reports on the strengths of several programs that serve student parents, reviews public policies affecting child care for student parents, and discusses factors predicting institutional commitment to student parents and child care.

Methodology

IWPR utilized several methods to explore challenges facing student parents, with a primary focus on the supply of and demand for child care supports provided by postsecondary institutions. Given the disproportionate number of parents who attend community colleges and the ease of access to community colleges for low-income individuals, attempts were made to gather information specific to community colleges when possible.

Literature Review. IWPR reviewed research on student parents, postsecondary education, and child care from a variety of sources. Academic journals, the U.S. Department of Education, and nonprofit organizations were prominent sources for relevant information.

Data Analysis. IWPR analyzed data from both publicly available and proprietary data sets, including two Department of Education Databases, the National Postsecondary Aid Survey (NPSAS), a survey drawing on a nationally representative sample of all types of postsecondary institutions and their students, the student aid they receive, and related factors, and the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), which records data annually from every American postsecondary institution open to the general public, including information on whether institutions provide child care and a wide range of other variables. The National Center for Education Statistics was the source of enrollment figures.

In addition to analysis of the publicly available NPSAS and IPEDS data sets, IWPR also obtained access to a large data set of results from the 2008 Community College Survey of Student Engagement (CCSSE), which contains student-level data on a wide array of topics including student performance, student activities, student services, and demographic information. These data were analyzed to estimate the current state and adequacy of child care supports on community college campuses.

Interviews with Child Care Experts and Program Directors. IWPR used the literature review and previous contacts in the world of child care to locate individuals who are knowledgeable about child care issues related to college campuses and student parents. Interviews were conducted by telephone over several months in 2009. For a list of the seven interviewed experts, please see Appendix C.

Program and center administrators from nineteen two year and four year colleges were interviewed in-depth. Most interviewees were campus child care center staff or directors, though several interviews were conducted with staff of parent support centers. Interviewees were identified through initial interviews, through web and online surveys (see below), or through personal contact at the National Coalition of Children's Centers. These included programs that showed innovative or comprehensive attempts to serve student parents, such as low cost of care, co-op programs, or extended hours and days of service. Most of these colleges had been mentioned previously during the expert interviews. Interviews were conducted with a focus on how the centers served student parents, numbers and ages of children served, their funding mechanisms, challenges faced, and the ways that they interfaced with other services and personnel at the college. See Appendix C for a full list of interviewees.

National Coalition for Campus Children’s Centers Member Survey. During and after attending the 2009 national conference of the NCCCC, IWPR researchers conducted a survey of NCCCC members about the state of campus child care across the United States. The survey included questions regarding program characteristics, populations served, and funding streams. The survey was administered via paper and pencil while at the conference and electronically via SurveyMonkey both during and after the conference. Eighty-four individuals participated in the survey, representing centers in over 30 states and the District of Columbia.

Survey of Additional Campus Child Care Centers. To gather data on program characteristics of community college child care centers, specifically, and to fill in program information for centers contacted through the initial center director and parent support staff interviews, IWPR conducted an additional survey of 52 targeted community college child care centers. These were selected through interviews with experts and college and child care center staff from their recommendations for promising practices or model programs. In addition, a list of campuses that reported high persistence and/or graduation rates in reports to the Child Care Access Means Parents in School Program (CCAMPIS) was also used as a source of schools to investigate. This survey of 52 campus children’s centers was conducted by phone, by email questionnaire, and by gathering information provided on center websites. See Appendix C for a full list of colleges surveyed.

Notes on Terminology

Students. The enrollment numbers used as the basis for several of our calculations are taken from the U.S. Department of Education’s estimates of the number of undergraduate students enrolled *for credit* at degree-granting institutions, not including non-credit students. This decision was made due to the focus on obtaining credentials and degrees; while some non-credit students may be completing remedial coursework or otherwise working toward a credential or degree, some are not, so a conservative decision was made to use students enrolled for credit as the base group for determining numbers of students (e.g. in Table 1). Some datasets, however, may include non-credit students among survey respondents or in summary statistics.

Single Parents and Student Parents. “Parent” is used to refer to the parent of a dependent child. The U.S. Department of Education identifies both parent status and marital status for the purposes of financial aid and statistics are reported in the National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey. Some other U.S. Department of Education publications and data also look at parent or single parent status, as do some independent surveys, such as the Community College Survey of Student Engagement. For the purposes of this report, the marital status “separated” is, along with widowed and divorced, considered part of the category of “single” parents.

Student Parents in Postsecondary Education

Many College Students Are Low-Income and Many Are Parents

American colleges and universities serve a diverse population of students. In 2008, 57 percent of undergraduate students were women, 38 percent of undergraduate students were non-white, and 40 percent of students were from low-income families, defined as having household income less than or equal to 200 percent of the federal poverty level (U.S. Department of Education 2009a). In 2008, of the 16.8 million undergraduate students enrolled for credit at American colleges and universities, 6.7 million students (39.8 percent) were considered low-income students (U.S. Department of Education 2009a).

Nearly a quarter of the postsecondary students in the United States, or 3.9 million students, are parents (Figure 2). Of these 3.9 million student parents, 2.2 million (57 percent) are low-income; one third of low-income students are also parents. Half of student parents are married, and half are unmarried (Figure 3). Twelve percent of undergraduate students, or 1.9 million, are single parents, of whom 1.5 million (78 percent) are low-income (see Table 1 below; U.S. Department of Education 2009a).

Figure 2. U.S. Undergraduate Enrollment by Household Income and Parent Status

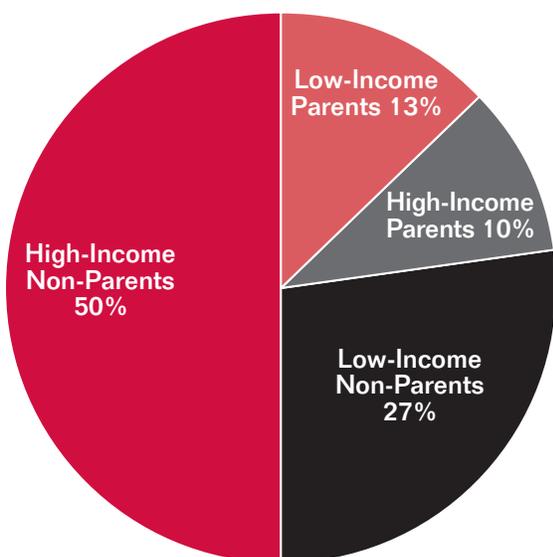
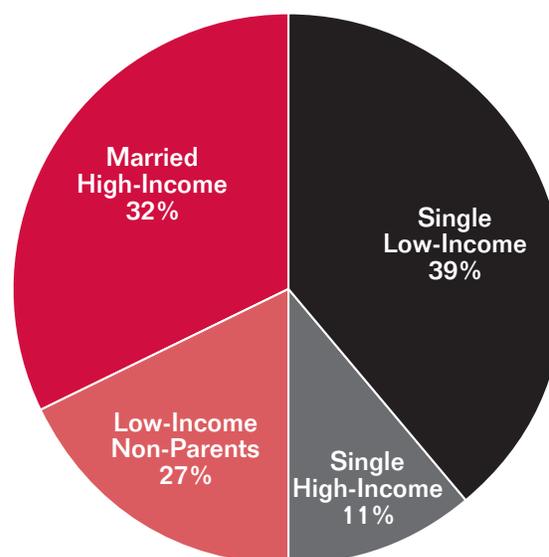


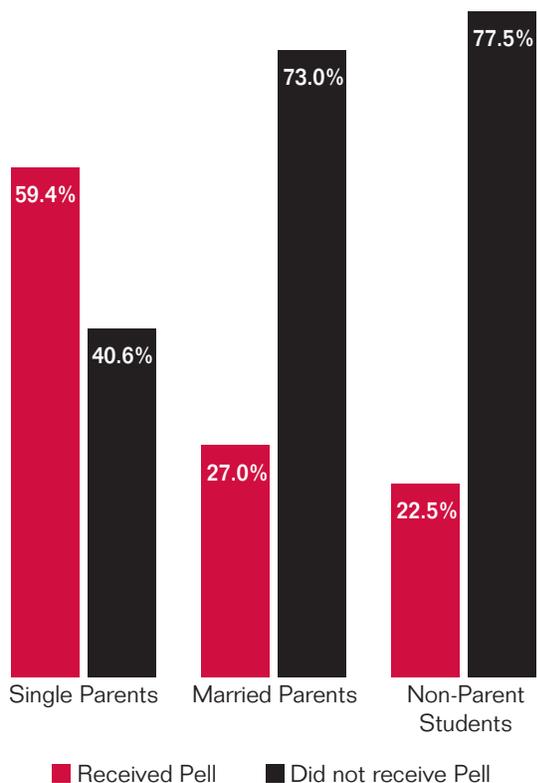
Figure 3. Student Parent Enrollment by Marital Status and Household Income



Source: IWPR calculations, 2008 National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey data.

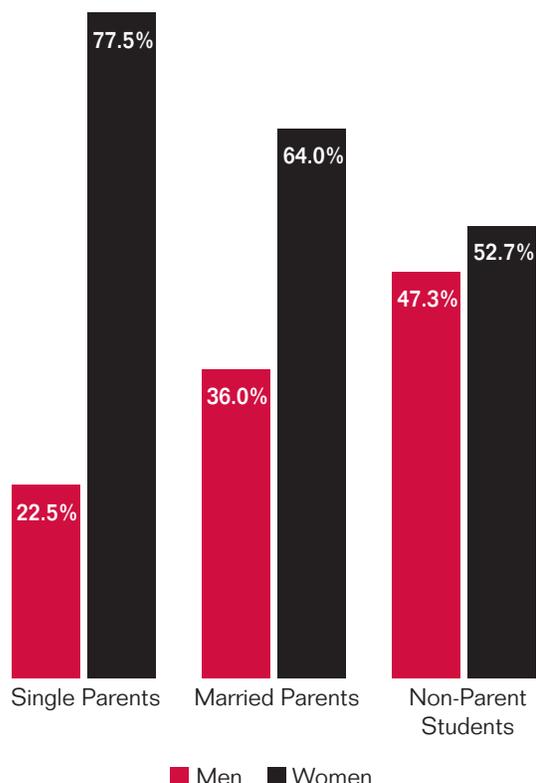
One measure of financial well-being—student eligibility for a federal Pell grant—shows a stark difference between single parents and other students. Fifty-nine percent of single student parents received Pell grants, compared to 27 percent of married parents and only 23 percent of students without children (Figure 4; U.S. Department of Education 2009a).

Figure 4. Receipt of Pell Grants by Student Parent Status



Source: IWPR calculations, 2008 National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey data.

Figure 5. Student Gender Distribution by Parent Status

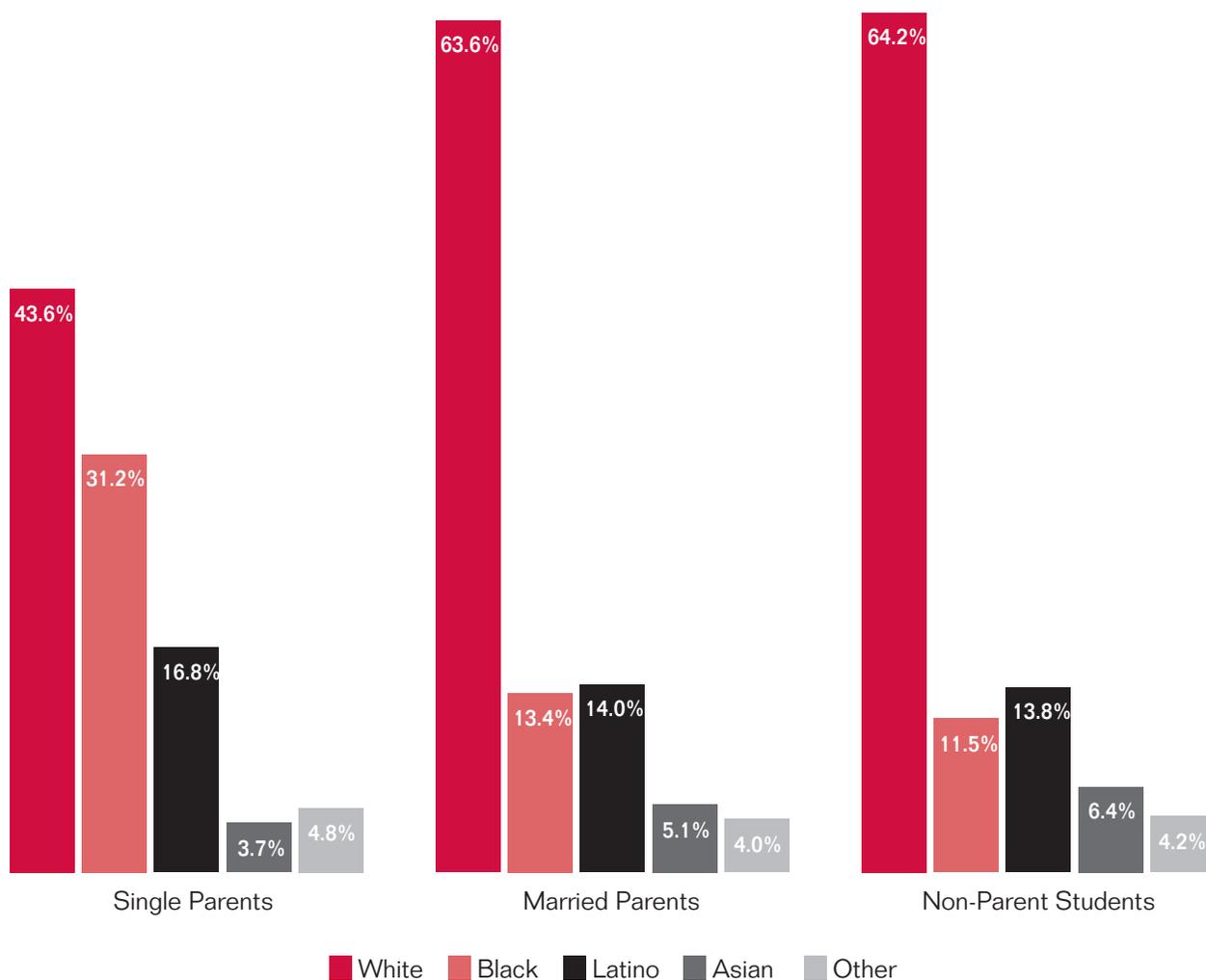


Source: IWPR calculations, 2008 National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey data.

Gender and Race. Though women are the majority of students in postsecondary settings, they are an even larger proportion of student parents, especially low-income student parents. In 2008, women made up 57 percent of the 16.8 million undergraduate students in the United States, 71 percent of the 3.9 million undergraduate student parents, 78 percent of the 1.9 million single student parents, and 81 percent of the 1.5 million low-income single student parents (Figure 5). In addition to being disproportionately represented among low-income students and student parents, women face other challenges in education and in their careers. When pursuing job training and postsecondary education, women often prepare for lower-paying, traditionally female occupations (Negrey, Golin, Lee, Mead, and Gault 2001), and earn less than men when employed (Hegewisch and Luryi 2010).

Although a majority of married student parents and a plurality of single student parents identify as white, African-American and Latino student parents are disproportionately represented, especially among single parents (Figure 6).

Figure 6. Student Race Distribution by Parent Status



Note: Other includes American Indian, Native Alaskan, Native Hawaiian, other, and more than one race.
 Source: IWPR calculations, 2008 National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey data.

Enrollment by Institution Level. Community colleges have a much higher proportion of students who are parents than do four-year institutions. At four-year institutions, only 13 percent of students are parents and six percent are single parents; at community colleges, 29 percent of students are parents, and 14 percent are single parents (see Table 1; U.S. Department of Education 2009a).

Table 1. Parents Enrolled in Postsecondary Institutions by Institution Type, Gender, and Parent Status, 2008

	Community Colleges	Four-Year Institutions	All Postsecondary Institutions [†]
All Students	6,640,000	9,395,000	16,789,000
All Student Parents	1,939,000 29.2%	1,231,000 13.1%	3,912,000 23.3%
All Student Mothers	1,334,000 20.1%	827,000 8.8%	2,766,000 16.5%
All Student Fathers	605,000 9.1%	404,000 4.3%	1,146,000 6.8%
Single Student Parents	923,000 13.9%	544,000 5.8%	1,948,000 11.6%
Single Student Mothers	667,000 10.0%	430,000 4.6%	1,510,000 9.0%
Single Student Fathers	256,000 3.9%	114,000 1.2%	438,000 2.6%
Married Student Parents	1,016,000 15.3%	687,000 7.3%	1,964,000 11.7%
Married Student Mothers	667,000 10.0%	397,000 4.2%	1,256,000 7.5%
Married Student Fathers	349,000 5.3%	290,000 3.1%	708,000 4.2%

Note: Totals may not sum due to rounding.

Note: Percentages are drawn from U.S. Department of Education (2009a) data from undergraduate postsecondary students in 2008. Numbers of students are calculated from percentages and total undergraduate enrollment (Fall 2007) from the U.S. Department of Education (2009b, 2009c).

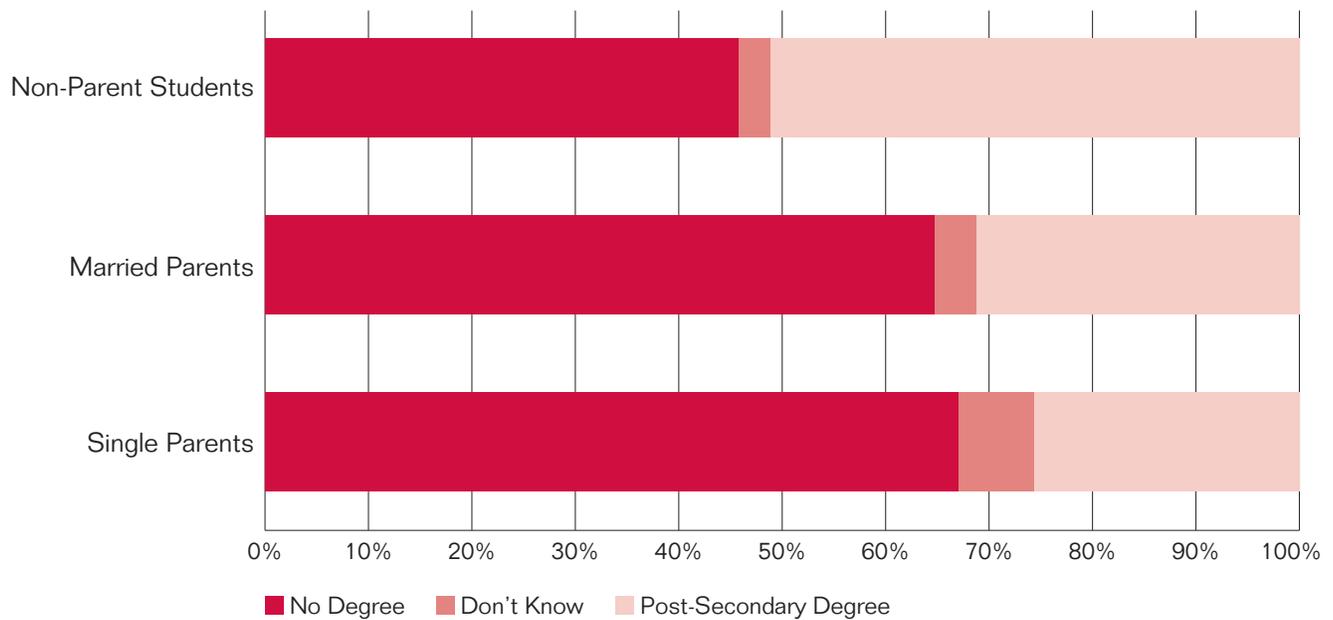
† Includes degree-granting four year and two-year institutions as well as for-profit, less than two year, and non-degree-granting institutions.

Source: IWPR calculations, data from the 2008 National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey and Department of Education enrollment figures.

Student Parents Face Challenges to Completing a Degree or Certificate

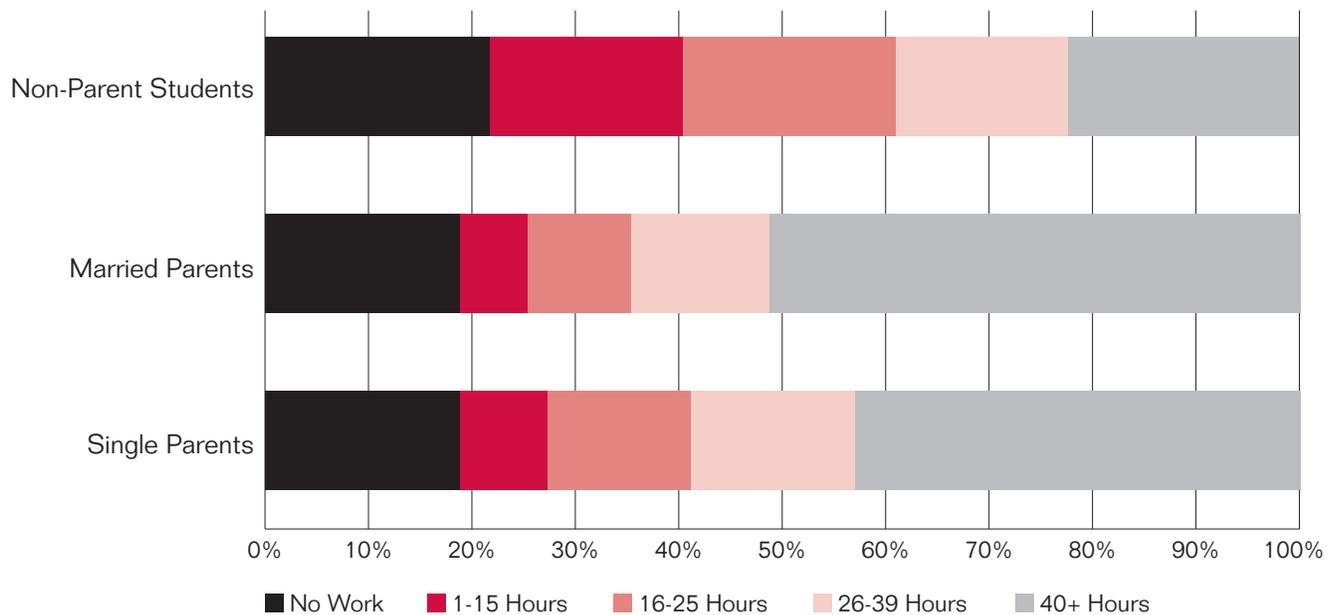
The 3.9 million student parents pursuing postsecondary education in the U.S. face a number of challenges to success. They are less likely to have a parent who graduated from college (Figure 7), enter college with lower standardized test scores, are more likely to work full-time (Figure 8), and are more likely to take remedial classes (U.S. Department of Education 2009a).

Figure 7. Highest Educational Attainment of Student's Parents by Parent Status



Source: IWPR calculations, 2008 National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey data.

Figure 8. Weekly Work Hours by Student Parent Status

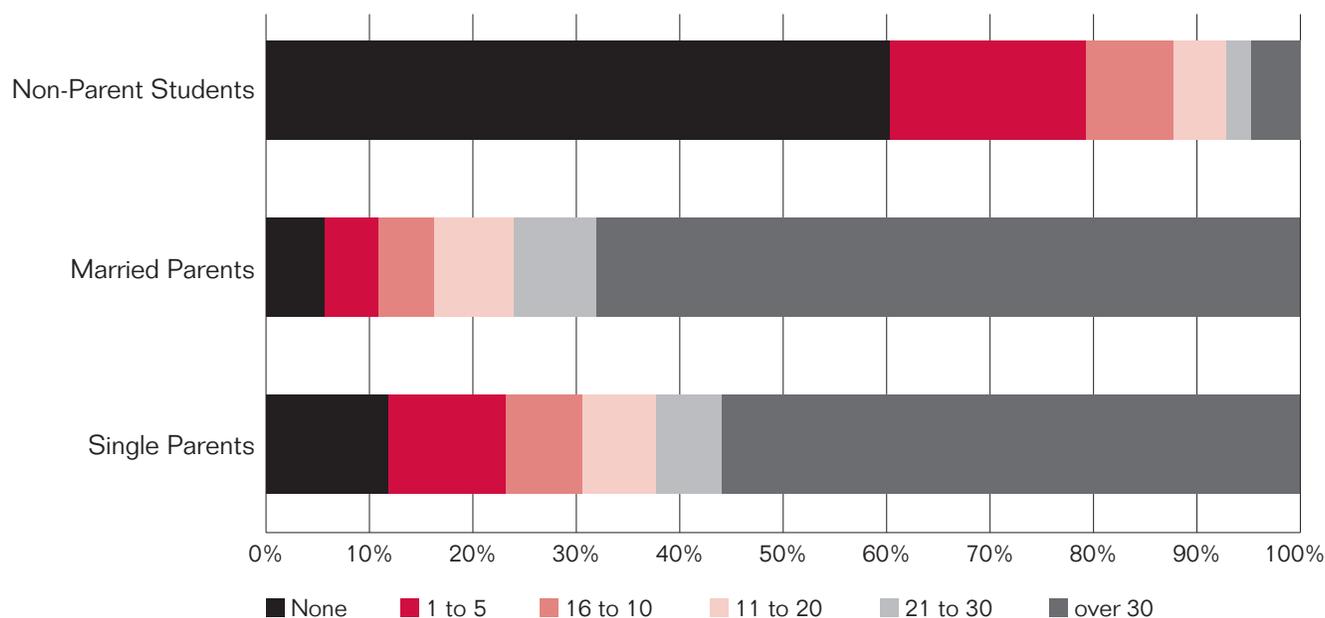


Source: IWPR calculations, 2008 National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey data.

Though all parents pursuing postsecondary education must balance the competing demands of work, school, and child care, the financial situation and time demands on single parents are especially harsh. Single parents are much more likely than married parents to have low-incomes, meaning that they must rely on a combination of institutional, government, and personal assistance in order to pay tuition and arrange child care, despite spending almost as much time working for pay as do married parents (Figure 8; U.S. Department of Education 2009a).

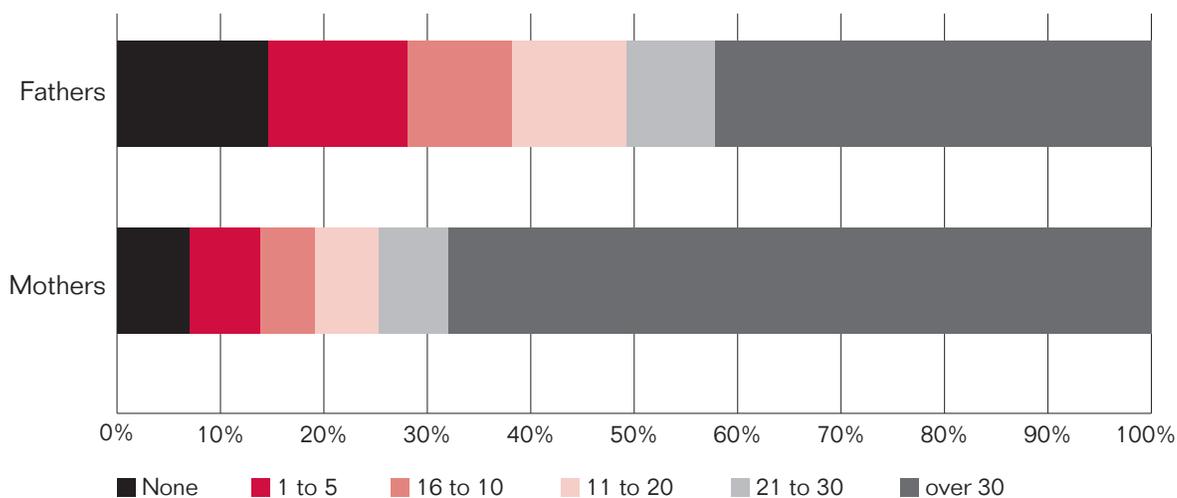
Both single and married parents say they spend a great deal of time caring for dependents. Sixty-eight percent of married parents report spending 30 hours a week or more on dependent care, as do 56 percent of single parents (Figure 9). Among students who are not parents, 60 percent report that they never care for dependents, and only five percent report spending 30 hours or more a week on caretaking. Child care as a resource for student parents is particularly important for student mothers. Analysis of the CCSSE shows that among parents attending community colleges, mothers spend more time than fathers caring for dependents. Sixty-eight percent of mothers reported spending 30 hours a week or more caring for dependents, compared to 42 percent of fathers. Fathers are twice as likely (15 percent) as mothers (seven percent) to say they spend none of their time caring for dependents (Figure 10; IWPR 2009b).

Figure 9. Hours per Week Spent on Care, by Student Parent Status



Source: IWPR calculations, 2008 Community College Survey of Student Engagement data.

Figure 10. Hours per Week Spent on Care, by Gender of Student Parent



Source: IWPR calculations, 2008 Community College Survey of Student Engagement data.

Data from the Community College Survey of Student Engagement corroborate statistics derived from NPSAS data, with some additional insight into the challenges faced by student parents at community colleges. Student parents are more likely to take night or weekend classes than are non-parents. Twelve percent of single parents and 15 percent of married parents in the CCSSE sample reported that English is not their first language; 48 percent of student parents whose first language is not English report taking or planning to take an English as a Second Language course (IWPR 2009b).

The CCSSE also provides insight into the challenges that might cause students to withdraw from community colleges. Among single student parents, 42 percent say that it’s likely or very likely that they might need to withdraw due to responsibilities for dependent care compared to 40 percent of married parents and 23 percent among non-parents. Fifty-five percent of single parents say that a lack of finances are likely or very likely to cause them to withdraw, compared to 49 percent among non-parents (IWPR 2009b).

Consistent with the challenges that student parents face, U.S. Department of Education (2003) data show that student parents—across institution types—are more likely to have left postsecondary education (49.7 percent without degree and no longer attending) after six years than are non-parents (31.1 percent without degree and no longer attending). Overall completion rates among those receiving bachelor’s degrees, associate’s degrees, and certificates show a similar pattern, with 54 percent of non-parents completing a degree or certificate within six years (34.2 percent with a bachelor’s degree) compared to 40 percent of parents (3.8 percent with a bachelor’s degree).

Interestingly, single parents are somewhat *more* likely to complete a degree or certificate within six years (46 percent completion rate) than are married parents. Among students beginning their postsecondary education at a community college, single parents are also more likely than both other parents and non-parents to complete a certificate or associate's degree within six years (40 percent compared to 22 percent and 24 percent respectively), but are *less* likely than others to have transferred to another institution (e.g. to pursue a bachelor's degree at a four-year institution). This remains true even when comparing only among students who began their postsecondary education with a goal of pursuing an associate's degree or certificate (U.S. Department of Education 2003). A picture emerges of student parents—especially single parents—that are more likely to quit postsecondary education, less likely to obtain a bachelor's degree, but also likely to work successfully to complete shorter programs, earning associate's degrees or certificates.

In contrast to six-year completion rates, Attewell and Lavin's 2007 longitudinal study found that of the women in their study who began postsecondary education at CUNY between 1970 and 1972, 16 percent received an associate's degree, 30 percent received a bachelor's degree, 23 percent received a master's degree, and three percent received an advanced degree, for a total completion rate of 71 percent. Of the women who originally entered CUNY at the community college level, fully 31 percent eventually completed a bachelors degree or higher. These rates are higher than most recorded four or six year graduation rates because many women completed degrees more than 10 years after they first entered college at CUNY (Attewell and Lavin 2007).

Child Care Is a Critical Resource for Student Parents

Nontraditional college students such as student parents often have clear ideas about their educational goals and bring seriousness and focus to their college studies, but they also have other competing obligations that need to be balanced with their academic pursuits (Andres and Carpenter 1997). Student parents must balance many priorities—their finances, their children's health and education, their relationships and friendships, their performance in their job or jobs, and their schooling. And at every point in the day during which their children are not with them, someone must watch over their children. For the large portion of student parents who also work, this means care during their work hours, during their class hours, and if they are lucky, during time to study, complete assignments, and take care of other daily necessities.

Research has found that child care is crucial to parents' ability to pursue postsecondary education. A study of student parents attending community college found that over 80 percent of respondents reported that the availability of child care was very important in the decision to attend college and 46 percent reported that campus child care was the most important factor when enrolling in college. Nearly 60 percent of respondents reported they could not have continued college without child care services and 95 percent of parents who increased their class load reported that child care was crucial in making that decision (Keyes and Boulten 1995). In another study, focus group participants at community colleges identified stable child care; personal support from family members, peers, and college faculty and staff; and accommodating employers as leading factors influencing their ability to enroll in college (Matus-Grossman et al. 2002).

Once in college, student parents make up a diverse group with a wide array of child care needs. A 2002 study of 479 student parents at Eastern Michigan University—which has a diverse population that includes a significant proportion of female single heads of households living at or below the poverty line—showed that child care problems had a significant negative impact on student success. Among the respondents, 45 percent were single parents, 48 percent had two or more children, 85 percent worked, and 43 percent had a monthly income of less than \$1,100. Three-fourths of the parents had trouble finding affordable, satisfactory child care. Parents reported a need for a diverse range of child care services:

- 44 percent needed infant and toddler child care;
- 74 percent needed care for children 5 and under;
- 31 percent needed care for children over 5;
- 38 percent needed care for school age children during school breaks; and,
- 63 percent needed late afternoon/evening care (Polakow and Ziefert 2002).

In a survey of parents utilizing child care services at the Borough of Manhattan Community College, over 70 percent of respondents said that child care services are necessary for them to remain enrolled (Scott-Croff 2009).

“The phrase that I hear most frequently is ‘I have the peace of mind to absolutely dedicate myself to my studies because I know that my child is right there. My family is five minutes away.’ There’s something about that proximity that really lends itself to parents’ peace of mind and ability to do the work that they’re expected to do.”

— Debra Carlson, St. Cloud State University

Child care is not only necessary for many parents to enroll in college classes; it is also a critical support in helping them succeed once they are there. One study of 501 community college students found that 89 percent of student parents utilizing child care benefits also cited indirect benefits of that care as important to their school success. These included the opportunity to meet other student parents and the availability of support related to the challenges of parenting. Notably, the success rate of student parents who had access to campus child care was higher than the general student population (Fadale and Winter 1991).

Difficulties in obtaining child care can be a serious barrier to success in and completion of postsecondary programs. The University of Cincinnati conducted focus groups and gathered survey results from 539 student parents to identify barriers to educational success. These barriers included: the high cost and inaccessibility of child care; lack of study time; difficulty in balancing curricular and parental demands; other financial concerns (including housing); and a widespread sense of isolation from faculty, administrators, and services that were either unaware of or inattentive to their needs as parents. Further, 71 percent of respondents stated they had postponed their educations because of parenting responsibilities (University of Cincinnati Women’s Center 2006). This is of note because low-income students who drop out of postsecondary education for 4 months or more before returning or transferring between institutions take considerably longer to complete degrees (Wei and Horn 2009).

Issues in Campus Child Care

The Supply of Campus Child Care Available to Student Parents

Despite the greater representation of both married and single student parents at community colleges, community colleges are actually less likely to have an on-campus child care center than are four-year institutions. According to data from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), in 2009 about 57 percent of public four-year institutions reported having a campus-based children's center while just under half (49 percent) of public two-year institutions report having on-site children's centers. Sixteen percent of public institutions that do not award two- or four-year degrees provide on-campus care. Private institutions lag behind public colleges and universities. Between seven and nine percent of privately administered, not-for-profit institutions provide on-campus child care, with four-year institutions more likely to provide care. For-profit institutions are by far the least likely to provide on-campus care, with fewer than one percent of for-profit institutions providing on-campus care (see Table 2; Institute for Women's Policy Research 2009a).

Table 2. Availability of On-Campus Care by Institution Control and Level, 2009

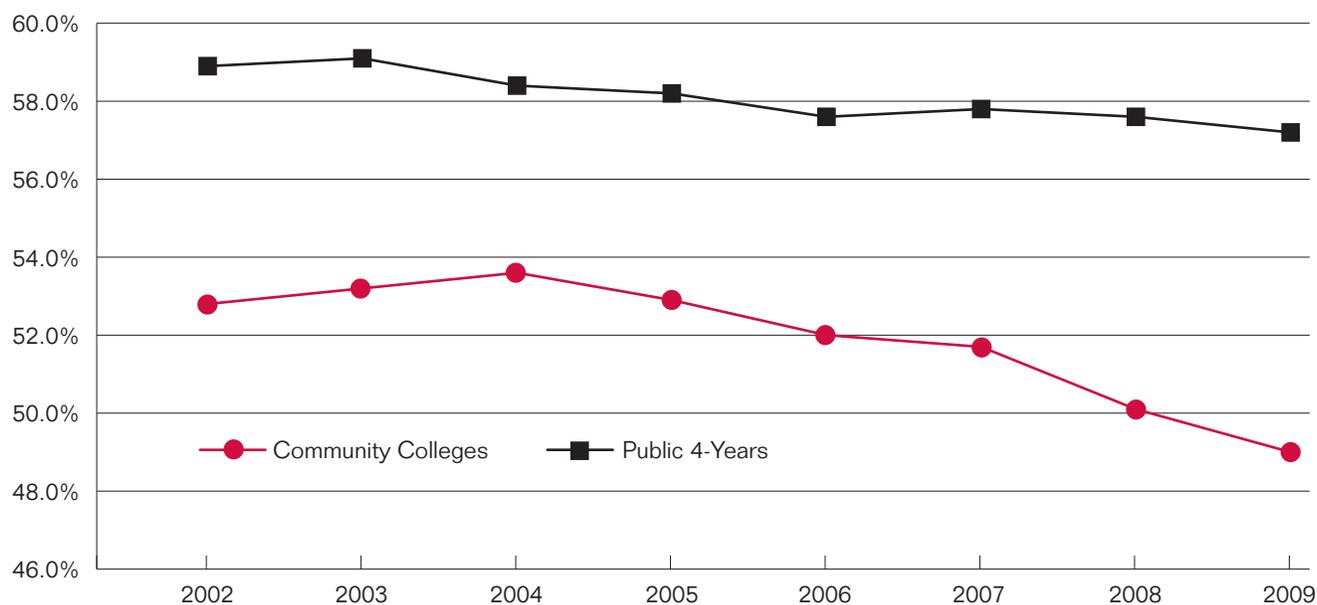
Institution Control		Four-Year	Two-Year	Less Than Two-Year	All Levels
Public	On-Campus Care	386	540	39	965
	No Care on Campus	289	563	200	1,052
	Total	675	1,103	239	2,017
	Percent of Institutions With Care	57.2%	49.0%	16.3%	47.8%
Private Not For-Profit	On-Campus Care	146	14	6	166
	No Care on Campus	1,447	167	79	1,693
	Total	1,593	181	85	1,859
	Percent of Institutions With Care	9.2%	7.7%	7.1%	8.9%
Private For-Profit	On-Campus Care	7	11	4	22
	No Care on Campus	562	964	1,459	2,985
	Total	569	975	1,463	3,007
	Percent of Institutions With Care	1.2%	1.1%	0.3%	0.7%
Total	On-Campus Care	539	565	49	1,153
	No Care on Campus	2,298	1,694	1,738	5,730
	Total	2,837	2,259	1,787	6,883
	Percent of Institutions With Care	19.0%	25.0%	2.7%	16.8%

Source: IWPR calculations, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, 2009 data. Responses coded as "not applicable" or "no response" were few in number and not included.

The proportion of institutions providing on-campus child care has been decreasing. Due in part to large increase in the number of for-profit institutions (from around 2,000 institutions in 2001 to around 3,000 in 2009), which are the least likely of institutions to provide on-campus care, the overall proportion of postsecondary institutions providing on-campus child care has decreased substantially in the past eight years. In addition, the proportion of institutions report-

ing that they have on-campus child care available to students has decreased at both two- and four-year institutions. Between 2007 and 2009, 32 of 572 community colleges that previously provided on-campus child care for students stopped offering the service (IWPR 2009a). Between 2003 and 2009, the proportion of community colleges offering child care to students' children has decreased from 53 percent to 49 percent, and at public four-year institutions, from 59 percent to 57 percent. Because the IPEDS campus child care variable is binary—campuses are recorded as either providing the service or not providing the service—there is no statistical information available about service cuts or price increases. However, experts and center staff interviewed by IWPR have suggested that budget cuts resulting from the economic recession that began in 2007 are impacting child care services at many institutions.

Figure 11. Proportion of Public Two- and Four-Year Institutions with On-Campus Child Care, 2002-2009



Source: IWPR calculations, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System.

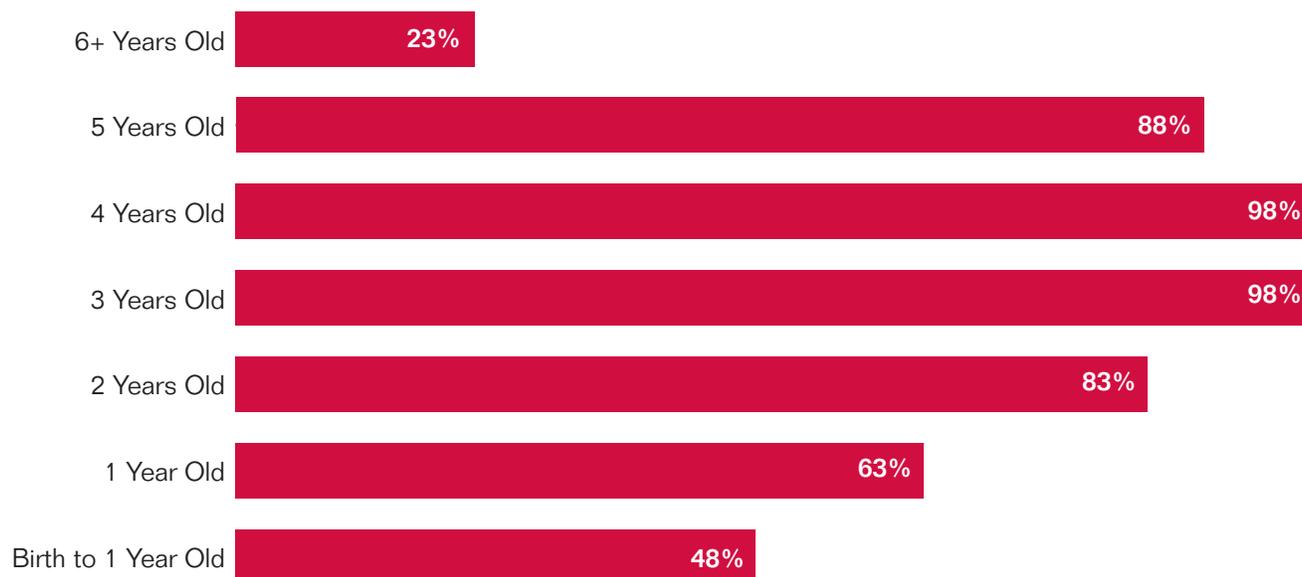
Characteristics of Campus Children's Centers

Center Objectives. A substantial proportion of college and university child care centers operate as laboratory schools with the objective of training adult students in early education careers, whereas some centers provide child care without a focus on training teachers or others working in early care and education. The National Coalition for Campus Children's Centers conducted a survey of their membership in 1995 and found that fully half (52 percent) of their members combined the functions of a laboratory school with that of a child care center, while 11 percent maintained only a laboratory school and 37 percent maintain only a child care center (Thomas 1995).

Number of Children Served and Waiting Lists. IWPR’s survey of over 80 members of the National Coalition for Campus Children’s Centers revealed that on average, centers and programs (some of which encompassed multiple physical centers) served about 110 children per week (see Appendix A for additional survey results). Existing campus child care centers frequently cannot meet the demand for their services. Among respondents to IWPR’s survey of NCCCC members, 89 percent of centers maintain waiting lists, and the average waiting list was approximately 85 percent the size of the enrollment of a center, or 90 names of children who need care but for whom there is no space. Waiting list size varies greatly among centers, between waiting lists with no names and those with hundreds of names. In practice, these waiting lists frequently mean a wait of between six months and a year, though waits of up to two years are also seen in a number of centers.

Populations Served. Campus children’s centers serve children of all ages, though the most commonly-served age bracket is children between three and five years of age, or approximately pre-kindergarten age. Children who are two years of age or younger are less likely to be served by campus centers, and few centers provide after-school care for school-aged children (Figure 12).

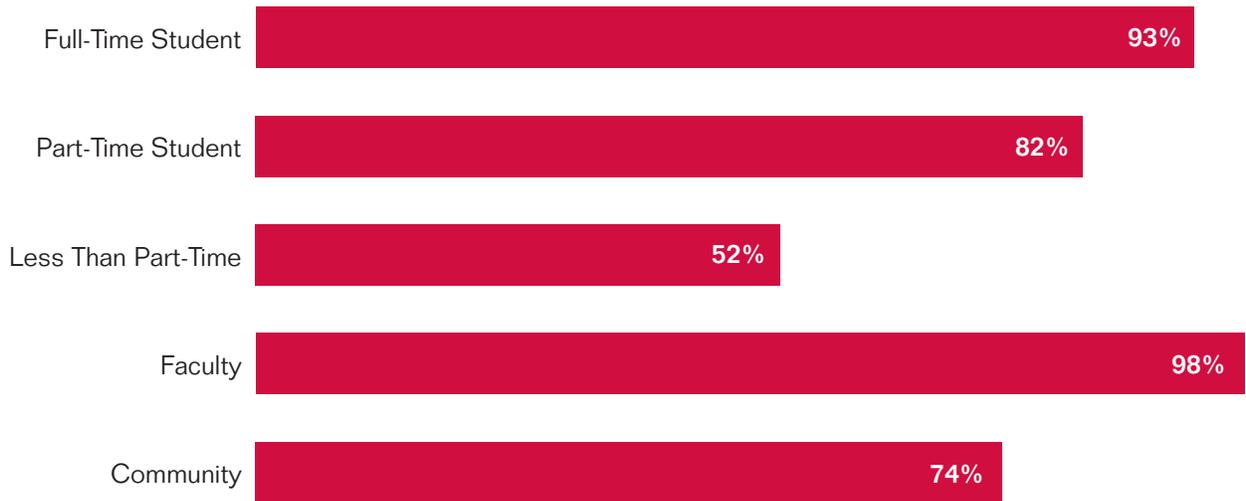
Figure 12. Proportion of NCCCC Centers Serving Population, by Age of Child



Source: IWPR calculations of data from NCCCC Member Survey.

Most campus centers offer care for the children of faculty and staff (98 percent), full-time students (93 percent), and part-time students (82 percent), while many also offer care for the children of community members (74 percent) and students who are attending less-than-part-time (52 percent; Figure 13).

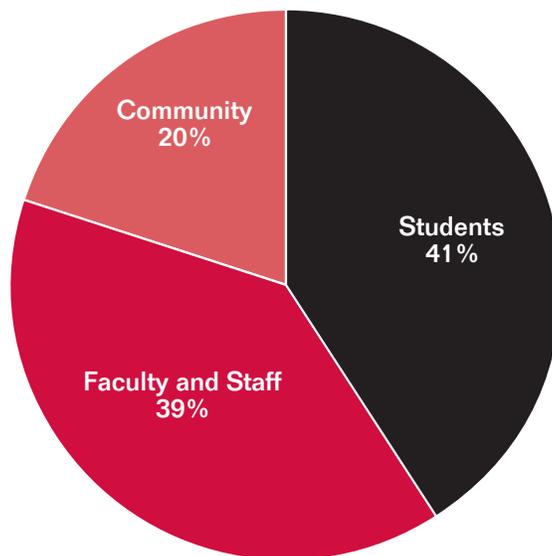
Figure 13. Proportion of NCCCC Centers Serving Population, by Parent Affiliation with Institution



Source: IWPR calculations of data from NCCCC Member Survey.

Though faculty, staff, and full-time students are served by over 90 percent of campus children’s centers surveyed, there are a limited number of slots available for the children of students. Respondents to IWPR’s survey reported that on average, 41 percent of their slots were occupied by the children of students, 39 percent by faculty and staff, and 20 percent by other community members (Figure 14). Notably, the proportion of slots utilized by students was reportedly higher at community colleges (54 percent) than at four-year institutions (34 percent), where the children of faculty and staff were more likely to be served.

Figure 14. Average Proportion of Children Served, by Parent Affiliation with Institution



Source: IWPR calculations of data from NCCCC Member Survey.

Comparisons between centers at two-year and four-year institutions suggest that those serving four-year institutions are somewhat more likely to accept children under the age of 2, but that those at community colleges are somewhat more likely to offer care for the children of part-time and less-than-part-time students.

Current Need for and Supply of Campus Child Care

Utilizing data on the number of student parents, their marital status, the characteristics of child care centers, and the number of campus child care centers in the U.S., we are able for the first time to make a reasonable estimate of both the number of children of student parents who need care in the U.S. as well as the supply of campus child care that is available. For a description of the methodology, see Appendix B.

In total, IWPR estimates that about 1,124,000 slots would be needed to provide child care for every postsecondary student parent with children under the age of 14 in the United States. Of these slots, 633,000 (56 percent) are needed for the children of single parents, and 491,000 (44 percent) for the children of married student parents (see Table 3). Nearly a million slots, 939,000, or 84 percent, are needed for the children of student mothers with the remainder needed for the children of student fathers.

IWPR estimates that there are currently about 54,400 slots available for the children of student parents at campus children’s centers around the United States. About 20,100 of these are located at four-year institutions and 30,000 at community colleges (see Table 3). A much smaller number of slots, about 3,800, are located at other institutions (non-degree-granting institutions and for-profit institutions).

A comparison between the amount of care needed and the estimated number of existing slots shows that the campus child care that currently exists is providing a very small portion of the care needed by parents pursuing postsecondary education in the U.S.—about five percent. The remaining children may be cared for in private centers off-campus or in family child care homes, cared for by family, friends, neighbors, or in-home caregivers, or may be left on their own. IWPR’s estimates suggest that community colleges meet a larger portion of their student parents’ child care needs (6.6 percent) than do four-year institutions (5.4 percent), largely because more of the children cared for by centers at community colleges are the children of students, rather than faculty or staff—54 percent of campus child care slots are utilized by students at community colleges, compared to 34 percent at four-year schools.

Table 3. Parents' Need for Child Care and Supply of Campus Child Care, 2008

	Community Colleges	Four-Year Institutions	All Postsecondary Institutions
Number of Single Parents	923,000	544,000	1,948,000
Children of Single Parents Needing Care			
Needing Full-Time Care	393,000	273,000	931,000
Needing Part-Time Care	102,000	109,000	336,000
Needing Part-Time Care	291,000	164,000	595,000
Slots to Fully Serve Children of Single Parents	247,000	191,000	633,000
Number of Married Parents	1,016,000	687,000	1,964,000
Children of Married Parents Needing Care			
Needing Full-Time Care	353,000	279,000	767,000
Needing Full-Time Care	66,000	86,000	215,000
Needing Part-Time Care	287,000	193,000	551,000
Slots to Fully Serve Children of Married Parents	210,000	183,000	491,000
Slots Needed to Fully Serve All Student Parents	457,000	374,000	1,124,000
Current Available Campus Slots for Children of Students	30,000	20,100	54,400
Percent of Children of Student Parents Currently Served in Campus Centers	6.6%	5.4%	4.8%

Note: Parents with part-time child care needs are calculated as needing half as much child care as those with full-time child care needs.

Note: Totals may not sum due to rounding.

Source: IWPR calculations utilizing data from the National Postsecondary Student Aid Survey, Department of Education enrollment figures, IWPR NCCCC Member Survey, and the 2010 Current Population Survey.

Supplying Adequate Child Care for Parents Is a Challenge for Campuses

Student parents' need for child care goes beyond their time in school-related activities. A large portion of student parents work in addition to attending college, meaning that many student parents may need to utilize multiple sources of child care including campus care. Among student parents, 47 percent work full-time—including 34 percent of those also enrolled full-time—compared to 22 percent of students who do not have dependent children (U.S. Department of Education 2009a).

Weekend and Evening Care. Given the large number of student parents who work and who take classes in the evening, many student parents need care after hours and on weekends. Of respondents to the NCCCC survey, only 13 percent provided evening care and only three percent provided care on weekends; likewise, in IWPR's survey of community college centers, 17 percent provided evening care and only four percent provided weekend care. When asked about the avail-

ability of weekend or evening care, many interviewees noted that attempts to offer such services were often unsuccessful due to lack of take-up. Contributing factors to lack of take-up include the relative newness of many evening or weekend care programs, resulting in low awareness; greater availability of friend, family, or neighbor care options during evenings and weekends; the desire to have children at or near home in the evening; and difficulty paying for extended hours of care among some parents.

Infant and Toddler Care. Care for infants and toddlers is particularly difficult for student parents to obtain at campus-based centers. While virtually all (98 percent) of centers in IWPR’s survey of NCCCC members reported providing care for three- and four-year-olds, just under half (48 percent) reported offering care for children under the age of one year. Similar results were found in NCCCC’s 1995 survey of its members, when almost all centers reported providing care for preschool-aged children but only 38 percent reported offering infant care (Thomas 1995). When asked about areas where more capacity is needed or there is difficulty maintaining access, many interviewees volunteered infant and toddler care as a problem area. Respondents to the NCCCC survey also noted that they maintain fewer slots or a longer waiting list for infants, toddlers, and younger children, in line with continued concerns about meeting demand for high-quality care for these age groups in off-campus settings (Ackerman and Barnett 2009).

The fundamental challenge to providing adequate amounts of infant and toddler care is the high cost connected to lower child to staff ratios required in infant care. While children of pre-kindergarten or school ages can be supervised in larger groups, most states have laws governing how many infants or toddlers can be supervised by a staff member. For example, in Florida children aged 4 years old can be supervised in a ratio of 20 children to one staff member, but children under one year of age must be cared for in a ratio of four children to one staff member and children between one year and two years of age require one staff member per six children (Florida State Legislature 2009). Facilities, administration, and other costs are similarly impacted by the higher staff to child ratio required to serve infants and toddlers.

Center staff interviewed by IWPR noted in many cases that infant and toddler slots are simply too expensive to provide without substantial subsidies from the college and/or aid programs. While hiring and retaining qualified staff and maintaining a high-quality facility can make providing quality care expensive across all age ranges, the problem is exacerbated when providing care for infants and toddlers.

“We’d need more resources [to meet demand]; the big thing is infant and toddler care. We simply can’t afford it.” — Beth Hogeland, Linn-Benton Community College

Making the Child Care Supply Affordable

The National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies (NACCRRA) estimates that a year of full-day center-based care for an infant costs on average between \$4,560 and \$15,895 (averaging \$8,910) a year and that a year of full-day center-based care for a four-year-old costs on average between \$4,055 and \$11,680 (averaging \$7,150; National Association of Child Care Resource & Referral Agencies 2010).

Student parents—especially single parents—often must pay child care costs at a point in their lives when they have limited resources. Child care can cost as much as college tuition, but parents of traditional college-aged children have had much longer to save for college costs and are more likely to be at or near the peak of their earning potential. In contrast, student parents of young children must find a way to pay for child care while also paying for tuition and other educational expenses.

In families where all parents work full-time, such as many single parent families, child care can consume a large part of the family budget, even at subsidized rates. If a single parent working full-time and making \$8 per hour were to pay for half the average cost for full-day center-based care for her four-year-old—50 percent of \$7,150 a year, or about \$3,575 a year (NACCRRA 2010)—this would represent 21 percent of household income before taxes. Access to free or very low cost child care is thus critical for low-income families with parents attending postsecondary education; those who work long hours may have some income but will need access to extended child care hours, while those who do not work may have little or no income aside from scholarships, loans, and public assistance.

The Cost of Creating or Expanding On-Campus Child Care

Child Care Operational Expenses. In the report, *Meaningful Investments in Pre-K: Estimating the Per-Child Costs of Quality Programs*, the Institute for Women's Policy Research estimates that the per-child costs of quality pre-kindergarten settings for three- and four-year-olds range from between \$5,700 and \$9,000 per child per school year (Gault, Mitchell, and Williams 2008). At the higher quality and cost level, settings are assumed to include teachers with bachelor's degrees paid at the same rate as kindergarten teachers and smaller class sizes (15), while the lower cost represents teachers with CDA credentials and a class size of 20. If these numbers are inflated to represent year-long care, costs would range between \$8,100 and \$12,800 a year—substantially higher than the range of costs of care for a four-year-old calculated by NACCRRA (though NACCRRA also notes that higher-quality settings cost more than average; NACCRRA 2010). Campus care settings are likely to adhere to above-average quality standards, probably placing per-child costs somewhere between the national average parent cost of child care and IWPR's estimates the operational costs of high-quality pre-K settings.

High-quality settings for infants and toddlers will be more costly than those for pre-kindergarten age children (NACCRRA 2010). Children between three and five years of age can be supervised and cared for in classroom-sized groups, but infants and toddler require more supervision, with other overhead and space costs shared across fewer children as well. Plans to create or expand comprehensive campus care systems must be created with the higher costs of care for infants and

toddlers in mind. Especially for programs designed to serve low-income parents, the cost of providing these slots at low or no cost to parents means that institutions must be prepared for and committed to strongly subsidizing the cost of providing these services.

Constructing, Acquiring, or Updating Facilities. Child care centers run by postsecondary institutions are located in a variety of settings—within general-use campus buildings, in specially built spaces, or in rented space on or near campus. According to center staff interviewed by IWPR, acquiring space represents a major obstacle to creating or expanding child care supply. Space is at a premium on many campuses, and children’s centers may compete with classrooms or other facilities for existing space.

Several center directors surveyed by IWPR noted that in order to expand the supply of child care on their campus, they would need resources to expand their facilities. Even in cases where on-campus space may be available, ensuring that such spaces are safe, inviting, and meet legal requirements for use as child care facilities may require an initial investment of time and money to upgrade infrastructure. On campuses without currently available space, the construction of new facilities may be the only way to expand the amount of child care—a major investment that many institutions, especially community colleges, may find difficult to make.

Sources of Funding for Campus Child Care

Campus child care programs rely on a variety of sources of funding. NCCCC member centers reported the following sources of income when surveyed by IWPR: parent fees (97 percent), university/college general funds (71 percent), state and local government funds, including child care subsidies (52 percent), funding from student body fees (36 percent), charitable donations from individuals (35 percent), CCAMPIS¹ funds (32 percent), charitable donations from foundations (23 percent), and higher education subsidies (16 percent).

Parent fees, student fees, and general college funds are the most common sources of funding, and make up the majority of funding received by many centers whose staff was interviewed by IWPR. Nonetheless, the diversity of funding sources indicates that many campus children’s centers integrate a variety of public and private sources of funding to provide care.

The majority of centers surveyed received funds from institutions and/or directly from state or local governments, which suggests that campus child care at public universities and community colleges may be vulnerable to budget cuts. The recent recession has resulted in large cuts to the higher education budget in many states, and interviews and data from the IPEDS (see Figure 11) suggest that child care centers are among the campus services in danger of being downsized or eliminated. The surveys IWPR conducted of children’s centers at community colleges and members of the NCCCC revealed that many colleges have cut funding to campus child care services, resulting in service reductions or outright closures of centers.

¹ Child Care Access Means Parents in Schools, the federal program to subsidize child care for low-income postsecondary students; see Federal, State, and Local Policies Affecting Campus Child Care, below.

Extending Supply and Expanding Parental Choices through Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies (CCR&Rs), Family Care Networks, and Flexible Subsidies

To expand child care options available to students, some colleges refer students to sources of child care off-campus. Some colleges even serve as the child care resource and referral agency, or CCR&R, for the surrounding community. These agencies function as a directory of local child care services, including off-campus centers and family child care homes. These off-campus providers collectively may have greater total capacity than an on-campus center, though community programs may be less able to meet the needs of college students: breaks in the annual schedule, students dropping out and returning the following semester, students' need for non-class time for studying or homework, and other activities. Of the approximately 700 child care resource and referral agencies in the nation, 10 percent are located at higher education institutions, primarily community colleges (Perry-Manning 2009).

Challenge: Many universities and colleges have been reluctant to create or maintain any kind of network or referral service due to concerns about legal liability. One workaround used on some campuses is to house a resource and referral agency on campus—allowing it to benefit from campus services—but maintain it as a legally separate entity.

Some campuses have found that operating a CCR&R on campus yields benefits for the college. In addition to helping students find sources of care near campus or near their homes, the CCR&R helps to integrate the institution with the broader early care and education community. Individuals who seek child care information from the CCR&R also learn about the college and the other services, programs, and degrees it offers. CCR&Rs can be engaged to offer classes for student parents; facilitate support groups; sponsor resource fairs; arrange emergency or sick child care; or provide feedback to the college or university on policies or practices to ensure they are meeting the needs of student parents and their children. Operating a CCR&R as a community service from campus raises the profile of the institution in the community and may help recruit students.

“More and more, in the state of Oregon, the resource and referrals are linking up to community colleges whose very mission is to serve the community. So it's more than just providing classes. ... We're so tightly connected; the instructors in the college program meet right off the bat with the child care providers. And we try from day one to get [child care providers] thinking about college and going on to college.” – Beth Hogeland, Linn-Benton Community College

Resource and referral agencies can also offer *enhanced* child care referrals to parents. Enhanced referrals include greater consideration of the specific needs of the student parent; calls to the potential programs to see if there are openings at sites that would meet the student parent needs; and ongoing communication with the family until care is secured (as opposed to a referral where general questions are asked, a list is provided, and the parent is responsible for next steps). While standard CCR&R referrals are typically free, enhanced CCR&R referrals may be available for a fee for families unaffiliated with the college or university; for

students, staff, and faculty, this fee is typically paid for by the higher education institution. These enhanced referrals may pose a greater exposure to legal risk than the services provided by a typical CCR&R, however, a concern that higher education institutions must consider.

Other campuses have created more formalized networks of off-campus child care providers. The University of Michigan, responding to concerns about long waiting lists and the lack of available care in the community for both students and faculty, created the Campus Child Care Homes Network (University of Michigan 2001). The Network is a group of child care providers who care for children in their houses and prioritize caring for the children of students, faculty, and staff at the University of Michigan. The home care centers work toward accreditation, and the University of Michigan provides teachers with training, resources, and support (University of Michigan 2009a). In addition, the Kids Kare at Home program provides a caregiver for the family on days when their normal care falls through, when their child care center is closed, or when their child is sick and cannot go to their usual child care (University of Michigan 2009b).

Program Focus: Community organizations can coordinate child care for student parents when colleges and universities lack on-campus care options. Family Care Solutions, located in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, has helped locate and provide care for student parents for 12 years. Family Care Solutions has utilized a combination of private scholarships donated from community, foundation, and corporate sources to pay for the care for some student parents. In addition, FCS formed a consortium of colleges and universities, most of which did not have on-campus child care centers. They applied for and received funds from the CCAMPIS program to enable student parents at those institutions to acquire off-campus child care, which is a creative use of CCAMPIS funds that is distinct from the typical use to subsidize care at campus child care facilities.

Campuses that are unable or unwilling to provide referral services or to create family care networks can help expand the range of options available to student parents by making child care subsidy and support arrangements as flexible as possible. Institutions attempting to provide a wide range of options and uninterrupted access to child care for student parents can do so partly by designing financial aid, subsidy, and scholarship supports in a flexible fashion. Allowing student parents to receive child care subsidies for care in a variety of settings—whether on campus or off campus—can help student parents select care that meets their individual needs.

It is important to note that, while offering referrals to student parents may help meet some unmet needs, community child care services are likely to lack many of the resources that campus centers often possess. In addition, community providers are less likely than staff at campus centers to be familiar with the challenges faced by student parents and to be able to provide the same supports for academic success. Thus, referral programs and family care networks should not be seen as replacements for campus center care for campuses seeking to create or expand services for student parents, but as a service that operates in tandem with campus-based care.

Child Care Centers as Sources of Parent Supports

In addition to providing child care, campus children's centers serve other very important functions for parents. Experts and center staff repeatedly cited the importance of campus centers as a source for advice and counseling, a clearing-house for other resources and information, and a site for building supportive connections and a sense of community with other student parents.

Counseling Services

Both single and married parents at community colleges report being more likely than non-parent students to utilize a variety of services such as academic counseling, peer tutoring, financial aid advising, career counseling, and skill labs (such as math or writing labs), with single parents more likely than married parents to say they utilize such services (IWPR 2009b).

One key service offered by some campus children's centers is counseling for parents—academic, financial, parenting, and personal. In many centers these services are offered by the university in an official capacity—through the presence of an academic advisor assigned part- or full-time to the facility or through the presence of a counselor assigned specifically to the center to discuss academic, personal, or parenting issues. Placing counselors or other services within the child care center makes the services readily accessible to parents in a familiar and comfortable location.

In other centers, staff and other parents serve informally as sources of information and advice and are often the first to know if a student is facing challenges to their academic success. The long experience of center staff and other parents who may have more history navigating college, community, and state or federal services can be an invaluable resource for parents. These informal advisers can offer information about how to apply for child care assistance or other public supports, how to balance parenting and classroom responsibilities, or where to find community resources. For a young student parent just starting a college career, interacting with these individuals may be a key ingredient in successfully integrating school, parenting, and work demands.

“If the community college mission is to recruit and graduate non-traditional students, the director and teachers at the children's center are hired with that mission in mind: to help the student parent succeed. When the parent comes in to pick up her child, the child's teacher hears before anybody else that the student parent had trouble in math class. A well-trained classroom teacher is going to say to that parent, ‘Here is the name, room, and phone number of the campus math lab. Go down the hall, make an appointment, and then come back and tell me if you need overtime for your child on that day.’”

— Todd Boressoff, Early Childhood Consultancies

Supplementary Resources

Children’s centers may also provide in-house connections to services other than counseling, advice, and information. In addition to providing zero-cost child care to low-income student parents, the center at Grossmont College in California maintains a food bank stocked with donations from the community. The center also provides gift cards to retailers such as Target and Wal-Mart to help parents obtain necessary supplies, such as diapers.

Child care centers can also interact and partner with campus resource centers or campus women’s centers. Women on the Way, a women’s resource center at St. Petersburg College in Florida, provides an array of services designed to help women persist and succeed at the college. Women who attend classes on life skills, study skills, and other topics are eligible to receive scholarships and free textbooks. The center also maintains a boutique with quality used clothing, a library, offers access to mentors, and offers emergency loans to students. These services are provided in addition to encouragement, information, and advice, which the center’s Instructor-in-Charge identifies as the most important initial service the center provides.

“I spend 15, 20, 30 minutes on the phone with a woman, getting her started. So, information is the first priority; by telling them how to get started in college and letting them know that it can be done.” — Sharon Coil, St. Petersburg College

Mutual Support and Parent Engagement

Some children’s centers extend their mission to building supportive communities among student parents and/or promoting engagement in their children’s education. Some centers provide formal or informal community-building and support groups, which can promote information-sharing, mutual assistance facing logistical and child care challenges, and opportunities to build the social support and self-efficacy so valuable for student parents struggling to balance work, school, and parenting obligations (Quimby and O’Brien 2006). Single parents face extraordinary daily challenges, and interaction with their peers, both structured and informal, provides an outlet for stress and an opportunity to share coping strategies. For student parents beginning a course of study, the mere presence of other student parents who have persisted in the pursuit of an education may be a critical motivator from the outset.

Program Focus: At Linn-Benton Community College, a co-op model of providing care is used. Parents contribute several hours a week to assisting in the center’s classrooms. The goal is not only to control costs, but also to integrate parents into the center community to provide exposure to early education practices as well as skills in promoting children’s socio-emotional development. Parents who assist with caretaking and teaching receive class credit that they can apply toward college requirements. The program also provides a two-fold financial benefit for both the students and the center. Because participation with and placement in the center with the co-op program is considered a class, financial aid for tuition frequently covers the co-op fee for parents, resulting in a zero out-of-pocket cost. In addition, the presence of parents as assistants in the classroom allows the center to serve more children than it otherwise could.

Sociologist Mario Luis Small (2009) found that having a child enrolled in a child care center significantly expanded mothers' networks. Approximately 60 percent of mothers made one friend or more, while 40 percent made three or more friends. Small further argued that these networks had positive and quantifiable impacts on the well-being of these women. For example, mothers of five-year-old children enrolled in a child care center who had made friends in the center had a four percent chance of experiencing a housing-related hardship (e.g., being unable to pay rent) and a 26.8 percent chance of having a utilities-related hardship (e.g., being unable to pay for electricity). On the other hand, mothers of five-year-old children who did not make use of child care centers for care were more likely to experience housing-related hardships (8.8 percent) or utilities-related hardships (33.3 percent) (Small 2009).

Quality of Care and Education for Children

Because of the relatively high quality of campus child care, it is likely to yield a number of lasting benefits for the children of low-income student parents, beyond the family benefits associated with parents' educational attainment. IWPR's interviews with child care experts and center directors indicate that campus child care centers are often seen as leaders in providing high-quality care. The placement within institutions of learning and the substantial proportion of campus children's centers that function as laboratory schools for education students result in highly educated staff and access to resources that many child care centers lack. Approximately 39 percent of campus child care centers are part of an academic unit, such as an early childhood development program (Thomas 1995). This can yield substantial quality benefits for child care centers, their staff, and the families they serve. Affiliation with academic units frequently occurs when a children's center is a lab school, in which education students receive hands-on experience in early care and education.

“[Campus centers] are more likely than not to be of a quality that's higher than what's available in that community generally.... I think we do have access to more resources ... we can make use of practicum students, we can make use of all of the pedagogy that happens on college campuses, we can make use of the work study program.” — Debra Carlson, St. Cloud State University

The role of campus children's centers in improving economic outcomes for low-income families is two-fold. Child care allows student parents to focus on their studies while fulfilling the other duties of parenthood, resulting in an increased likelihood of success and completion in postsecondary settings. This has inter-generational benefits. In addition, exposure to high quality early learning settings is likely to have lasting benefits for children. Evidence for the connection between the quality of care and short- and long-term child outcomes is substantial (see Vandell and Wolfe 2000; Schweinhart et al. 2005).

The relationship between characteristics of campus children’s centers and the persistence and graduation rate of student parents is unknown. Little if any research has addressed whether indicators of the quality of early care and education (e.g. credential level of teachers, group size, evaluations of teacher-child interactions) are related to the success of children’s parents in completing postsecondary degrees. Similarly, it is not established whether there is a connection between the administrative unit within which a campus child care center is located (e.g. within an academic department such as an early childhood development program, within student services, or another administrative arrangement) and the rate at which its parents graduate. This report does not examine the relationship between indicators of quality or other differences among centers with the graduation rate of student parents; this remains an open question to be addressed by future research.

Federal, State, and Local Policies Affecting Campus Child Care

Several federal, state, and local programs provide resources that help meet the needs of student parents. These include the Child Care Access Means Parents in Schools program, the Child Care and Development Fund, Head Start and Early Head Start, the Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act, a variety of state programs, and some local programs.

Child Care Access Means Parents in Schools (CCAMPIS)

The sole federal program to provide direct aid to student parents for the purpose of child care is the Child Care Access Means Parents in School (CCAMPIS) program, created by the 1998 amendments to the Higher Education Act. The goal of the program is to increase the access of low-income parents to postsecondary education by providing campus-based child care services. Its funding has fluctuated from an appropriation of \$25 million in 2001 to an estimated \$16 million appropriation in 2010. The number of programs receiving funding has also fluctuated between 341 in 2002 and 2003 to about 160 awards made in 2010 (U.S. Department of Education 2010a).

CCAMPIS grant funds may be used to support or establish campus-based child care programs that support low-income students; to establish before or after-school services for older children; to subsidize the costs of child care services for low-income students; and to support other services for parents and the community. In practice, CCAMPIS funds are used by most centers to offset the cost of on-campus center-based care to allow centers to offer free or reduced-cost access to existing services for low-income student parents.

[On the effectiveness of CCAMPIS] “More parents who could otherwise not go to school were able to go to school. They stayed in school longer. They had better grades compared to the general cohorts of their respective colleges. There was a better integration of the parent into college life by having their child there with them, cared for and safe, providing peace of mind and the ability to focus and concentrate knowing that their children were in a safe environment near to them.” — Todd Boressoff, Early Childhood Consultancies

The CCAMPIS budget is not sufficient to meet the demand for child care among student parents. CCAMPIS funds are shared between community colleges, where 1.9 million parents attend school, and four-year institutions, where another 1.2 million parents attend. CCAMPIS funds have been distributed among as many as 10,000 families—colleges and universities frequently subsidize the cost of care, and part-day or intermittent care is provided to many parents. However, with the average cost of full-time care for a pre-kindergarten aged child over \$7,000 per year (NACCRRA 2010)—costs are higher for younger children—the 2010 CCAMPIS appropriation of \$16 million equates to fully funded, full-time care for about 2,300 children, or care for one-tenth of one percent of low-income student parent families.

Moreover, CCAMPIS funds are not allocated based on the number of parents at an institution who need assistance. Rather, CCAMPIS grant amounts are determined partially by the amount of Pell funding the students receive at the applying institution. The maximum grant available to an institution is equal to one percent of Pell Grant funds received by students at that institution, and CCAMPIS funds are only available to postsecondary institutions whose students receive a total of at least \$350,000 per year in Pell Grant funds.²

The decision to use Pell funding as part of the funding formula for CCAMPIS has had unintended consequences. Because students at community colleges pay substantially less in tuition and fees than do students at four-year institutions, per-student Pell grant funding is less at community colleges. As a result, community colleges receive only 38 percent as much CCAMPIS funding per parent (\$1,460) as do four-year institutions (\$3,793 per parent). Community colleges receive only about half as much per grant as do four-year institutions, despite serving more students on average (U.S. Department of Education 2007). These disparities place child care services provided or coordinated by community colleges at a competitive disadvantage. Despite having a higher proportion of student parents than four-year institutions, community colleges are eligible for less CCAMPIS funding. The cost of operating a child care center, however, should not vary between educational settings. The need of student parents to feel secure in the knowledge that their children are nearby and in a safe environment does not vary between two-year and four-year institutions.

Some interviewees noted that, much like any federal grant program, the application process to obtain CCAMPIS support is complicated and time-consuming and could be highly intimidating to center directors who lack experience applying for government grants. Other center directors may be unaware of the CCAMPIS program or may consider their odds of receiving a grant too small to be worth the investment of time in the application process. Campus development offices may be unaware of the program or may consider other federal grants to be more worth their limited time.

²The decision to make one percent of Pell the maximum funding level per institution was intended to accompany an appropriation of \$60 million nationally (based on one percent of the then \$6 billion Pell appropriation). However, the highest annual appropriation reached was only \$25 million. In 2010, Pell aid totaled \$32.3 billion (including funds from the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act; U.S. Department of Education 2010b). If one percent of that amount were appropriated today this would fund CCAMPIS at \$323 million, over twenty times the CCAMPIS appropriations in 2009 and 2010.

The Child Care and Development Fund

The federal government's primary contribution to child care costs nationwide occurs via distribution of funds in the Child Care and Development Fund. The CCDF originated in 1990 after the passage of the Child Care and Development Block Grant Act, which created the Child Care and Development Block Grant to help low-income parents and parents receiving public assistance afford quality child care services. In 2008, the federal government made \$5 billion available to states and territories. Including state matching funds, total FY 2008 expenditures from the Child Care and Development Fund were \$8.9 billion as of September 2009. At an average monthly subsidy of \$402 per child, the families of approximately 1.8 million children receive subsidies each month (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2010).

As the primary source of child care subsidies available to families, CCDF and matching state funds play an important role in helping student parents afford child care services on or off campus. Nationally in 2009, 11 percent of CCDF funds were used by parents pursuing education or training and seven percent were used by parents pursuing both employment and education or training, for a total of at least 18 percent of CCDF subsidies provided to families pursuing education and training³ (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services 2010). Many campuses rely on subsidy payments to provide child care to low-income student parents who would otherwise be unable to afford care. Since states may prioritize the distribution of CCDF funding to employed recipients, however, and the amount appropriated does not fully meet the need, some states run out of funding before allowing eligibility for students (Matthews 2009). Even if a campus center reduces the cost of care for student parents by utilizing the funding sources noted above, the cost can still be prohibitive for some parents.

The use of CCDF funds by higher education institutions is further complicated by geography and other considerations. A low-income student who lives in and attends school in different jurisdictions may experience eligibility difficulties in one or both jurisdictions. In addition, the schedule peculiarities of campus life may make it difficult for eligible students to maintain funding, as students may be dropped from child care (and thus eligibility) at the end of term and then be required to reapply the next term.

Carl D. Perkins Career and Technical Education Act

The Perkins program, administered by the U.S. Department of Education, allots a little less than \$1.2 billion to states annually for the purpose of supporting vocational and technical education primarily at community and technical colleges. While most of the funding is intended to support programs rather than students, per se, the Act also contains provisions for funding support services, such as child care, for designated special populations, including single parents.

³Six states report only a primary reason for receiving aid and do not report a combined employment and education or training figure; as such the summary figure of 18 percent of subsidy being provided to families pursuing education or training is probably a slight underestimate, since some families pursuing both employment and education or training are counted as receiving aid for employment reasons only.

Head Start

Some campus children's centers meet the requirements to serve as Head Start centers and receive federal and state funding via Head Start or Early Head Start. This enables centers to serve both student parents and community members who meet the income eligibility requirements. Given the amount of federal funds in the Head Start program (\$7.2 billion in 2010; National Head Start Association 2010) along with matching state funds, Head Start represents one of the largest sources of funding available to campus child care providers. At \$689 million, Early Head Start funding is only about one-tenth of Head Start funding, but given the difficulties of providing infant and toddler care, this income may still be crucial for the ability of campus centers that receive it to offer free or low cost care for the young children of student parents.

Head Start centers may be more likely to involve parents as volunteers than other child care centers, in line with Head Start's mission and rules that encourage parent involvement. Employed parents are less likely to be involved in volunteering at a center, but any parent involvement may enrich the quality of the care experience for children (Castro et al. 2004).

State Child Care Policies

Pre-Kindergarten Programs. In addition to the distribution of federal and state funding for child care subsidies or Head Start classrooms, many states have pre-kindergarten systems at varying stages of development. Some states—notably Oklahoma—have state pre-kindergarten systems that reach a large portion of the pre-K aged population. In others, state pre-K programs consist of pilot programs or programs designed to serve at-risk or low-income populations (Barnett et al. 2009). Postsecondary institutions may be able to work with state pre-K programs to coordinate access to pre-K classes for low-income student parents. For instance, campuses could provide space for a pre-K classroom where for the children of student parents receive priority placement, increasing high-quality care options for parents while sharing the full cost of establishing and operating an additional child care center between the institution and the state pre-K program.

California. The state of California manages several programs to help low-income student parents and their families, one of which is Cooperative Agencies Resources for Education (CARE). CARE funding is used to assist single parents receiving assistance through the CalWORKs program who are attending any of the 72 community college districts in the state of California. CARE funds supplemental educational support services, including allowances that can be applied to child care costs. Funding for the CARE program reached \$15.5 million annually in 2007 and 2008. In 2009 funding was cut by 40 percent to \$9.3 million annually, resulting in a decrease in students served from 11,181 to 8,851, a 20 percent decrease. Funding for 2010 remained at \$9.3 million (California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office 2011).

New York. The state of New York allocates funding from the Child Care Block Grant to subsidize the cost of campus child care for low-income student parents attending the State University of New York (SUNY) and City University of New York (CUNY). In 2011, \$4 million was allocated for this purpose, a reduction of \$1.6 million compared to 2010 (Child Development Council 2011).

North Carolina. The North Carolina Community College Child Care Grant directly provides child care funding for student parents attending community colleges. Established in 1993, the program is estimated to have assisted over 9,000 students over the course of its existence. Annual funding is currently about \$2 million (North Carolina Community College System 2009).

Examples of Local Policies Affecting Campus Child Care

The city of Portland, Oregon invests approximately \$12.5 million per year in programs that help children and young adults from birth to age 24 via the Children’s Levy, which was passed by voters in 2002. The Levy is a tax of around 40 cents on every \$1,000 in assessed property value. The initial vote committed the city to 5 years worth of funding, and the voters decided to renew the funding for another 5 years in November 2008. The fund awards grants to programs for early childhood, after school and mentoring, and child abuse prevention and intervention programs. Early childhood programming received \$5.2 million of that funding in 2010-2011, which was split among 18 different programs including Head Start and Early Head Start classrooms as well as subsidized pre-school for low-income families (Portland Children’s Levy 2010).

Portland Community College has received a grant from the Children’s Levy to extend its services to include care during the evening and on Saturdays. Though take-up has been light, increased college enrollment and Saturday class offerings may increase the number of parents utilizing these services. Center staff are also considering working with the Children’s Investment Fund to extend eligibility for the evening and Saturday care to community members (Sipe 2009).

Another example of how local communities can interface with campus child care is by making campus centers or classrooms part of the local public schools. Linn-Benton Community College runs the only full-day kindergarten classroom in the city of Albany, Oregon, and that classroom is part of the Albany public schools. Because the center is run as a kindergarten in the public school system, student parents do not pay for the care.

“Albany does not have a full-day kindergarten option. And so our kindergarten is the only full-day option in the city. And it is part of the Albany School District; they pay for it, which is a big help to student families.”

— Beth Hogeland, Linn-Benton Community College

Building Support for Child Care

Campus Administrative Initiative and Support

A recurring theme raised by center directors and experts interviewed by IWPR is the key role played by campus administrators in supporting the creation and funding of child care programs and other supports for student parents. For example, top university leadership was involved in the creation of the comprehensive system of child care supports at the University of Michigan (University of Michigan 2001).

“I think the institution has given me full commitment. They have recognized what we have done in the community. I’ve always enjoyed that wonderful support and encouragement from administrators; from the President, right on down.”

— Sharon Coil, St. Petersburg College

In one example of commitment from administrators, Dr. Richard E. Wylie, the president of Endicott College, along with the staff of Keys to Degrees, a residential program for student parents at Endicott, spoke with IWPR about Endicott’s commitment to student parents. Keys to Degrees provides on-campus housing to student parents and their children, with a focus on integrating student parents into the broader campus community and ensuring their success. Though the program is expensive on a per-student basis, Dr. Wylie noted that he was very committed to the program after seeing first-hand the success of the participating student parents.

Just as administrative champions are essential to the formation and sustenance of child care supports for student parents, a lack of support from the top can create an uphill battle for those seeking to provide child care services. Evidence establishing the relationship between child care and student parent retention is crucial for building administrative support for expanded services.

Outreach and Relationships with College Staff

One of the critical elements in serving student parents effectively is the coordination of services and programs, such as child care, financial aid, women’s centers, student life, and counseling services, across the campus and broader community. Centers that form relationships with other campus units and staff benefit from their knowledge and experience, as do children and parents. Faculty and staff that are familiar with a children’s center and recognize its importance to educational success may also be more likely to speak out in support of the center when questions of resources or funding arise.

Community Support

Many centers rely on community support—for direct funding of services, for scholarships that fund child care, for food, clothing, or other donations, for center facilities, and for staff volunteers. While some campus centers function largely independent of community support because they rely primarily on institutional funding, grants, or student fees, there is room for many children’s centers to reach out to the community to create mutually beneficial relationships.

“Much of what we provide to students we have gone out into the community to raise: textbook money, scholarship money, clothing, and toiletry donations. We have a small emergency fund that women in the community have donated, so that if a woman needs help with [her] electric [bill] or her car has broken down, they can come in and get a loan from our organization and they have four months to pay us back.” — Sharon Coil, St. Petersburg College

Strong relationships among student parent support programs and businesses, individuals, religious organizations, and other nonprofit organizations and educational institutions may benefit the community as a whole. When individuals and organizations interested in the success of student parents work to share knowledge and expertise, these relationships can create benefits for student parents, their children, their employers, and others connected to them.

Research and Data Needs Related to Campus Child Care

The support of diverse stakeholders—administrators, faculty and staff, community members, and policymakers—is vital to supporting student parents. Success stories and personal interactions are effective ways to reach out, but many individuals and organizations in a position to make a difference to student parents are looking for convincing research on the impact of supports for student parents. Additional data on campus child care would improve understanding of the role of child care in student parent recruitment, retention, and completion; the range of child care services used and desired by student parents; and the demand for and costs of existing services, to help estimate the costs and scope of possible expansions.

Anecdotal evidence and small studies on the importance of child care for student parent success have been reviewed in this report, but little hard data exists that is able to demonstrate child care’s role in recruiting and retaining students or in improving their educational outcomes. Such data might take the form of GPA’s, school persistence and graduation rates among student parents receiving child care services, compared with comparable student parents not receiving such services. Ideally, however, a controlled study would randomly assign parents to a child-care treatment group or no child-care control group, and the two sets of parents could be compared on their academic outcomes.

A survey of student parents’ child care arrangements and preferences would be very valuable in assessing how parents are currently meeting their child care needs, the sources of financial or other support available to them, and their views on the types, hours, and location of care that would help them succeed in work and school. Such a survey would be useful both for strategic system-building analysis of the mix of services that best serve low-income parents, if administered across a large sample of students, and for individual campuses to understand the need for services at their own college. Individual campuses could conduct independent needs assessments, perhaps with a common instrument across campuses so that data might be compiled and analyzed at the state and/or national levels.

At the most basic level, many campuses do not even collect data on whether their students are parents, and as such cannot take parents into account when designing student services and supports such as child care. While waiting lists and the IWPR analysis of campus child care supply and need provide a general idea of the unmet need for child care, accurate estimates of the need for campus-based child care for the students of a particular institution may require data that are rarely collected or difficult to obtain. Though some campus children's centers maintain statistics on the number of parents they serve and their persistence and degree completion—particularly those who submit such data to funding agencies or programs, such as those receiving CCAMPIS funds—these data don't reflect all student parents on campus. To adequately serve the student parent population, institutions need data on the number of incoming, persisting, and graduating students who are parents, whether those parents are sole caretakers, and the number and age of student parents' children

Conclusions and Recommendations

High-quality, affordable child care is a necessity for student parents to succeed in pursuing postsecondary education, especially for low-income single parents. While many campuses provide child care, often in innovative ways, many other campuses fail to provide either on-campus care or supports to help students obtain child care elsewhere. Existing programs and policies that help parents obtain child care are frequently underfunded and/or insufficient for existing demand. Expanding access to free or low cost child care in supportive settings that meet the needs of single parents is critical to increasing enrollment in and graduation from postsecondary credential and degree programs for low-income student parents.

Supply of Child Care for Student Parents

Surveys and available data suggest that on-campus child care provides student parents in the U.S. with only about five percent of the care needed for their children. This indicates that the vast majority of student parents use off-campus child care arrangements at least some of the time. Given the lack of affordable, high quality child care in communities across the U.S., these outside arrangements are unlikely to be meeting students' needs and supporting them in their efforts to complete college. Greater access to campus-based care, and campus-initiated subsidies and referrals, would constitute a significant new element in the existing, piecemeal array of child care choices available to student parents. Informal off-campus arrangements, while often essential to student parents, especially during nonstandard hours, may be less convenient or less reliable on a regular basis, impeding student parents' ability to focus on classes and homework when they already face other financial and family challenges. Greater access to consistent, high quality campus-centered early care and education would yield tremendous benefits to student parents, children, and communities.

Advocates, funders, researchers, and administrators can take a number of steps to move toward increasing the supply of high-quality campus-centered child care for student parents.

- Create a source of funding for infrastructure investments to expand child care facilities on campus. This funding could be in the form of grants and/or low-interest loans to improve or expand existing facilities or to build new facilities.
- In targeted locations, philanthropic organizations could fund expansion of child care services to fully meet the needs of student parents as a demonstration project, tracking student parent performance before and after provision of services. Needs assessments and program development could be coordinated through a small task force.
- Create educational and legal resources to assist colleges in overcoming legal obstacles to providing external child care referrals.

Integrating Services with and through Campus Children's Centers

Interviews with children's center staff, student parent advocates, and experts from the fields of child care and student support revealed that children's centers served as more than simply a place where student parents leave their children while attending class. They facilitate the growth of communities of student parents, provide easy access to information about other available supports, and sometimes provide in-center services such as benefits counseling, academic tutoring, classes, and parenting workshops.

Campus children's centers are central to the experiences of those student parents who utilize their services. Daily drop-offs and pick-ups mean that parents interact more with center staff than with their academic advisors or professors. Prepared, committed center staff can provide invaluable support and information for student parents.

- Make child care a central component of existing efforts to coordinate services for student parents.
- Consider the use of child care centers as hubs of student parent support services.
- Develop and disseminate trainings and toolkits for student advisers, child care center staff, and campus administrators to share promising practices for meeting the needs of student parents.

Government Policies Affecting Student Parents

The U.S. government provides a large amount of funding to low-income adults to pursue postsecondary education through the Pell Grant program, and some funding to low-income parents who need child care in the form of subsidies, grants, and aid through CCDF and TANF. These programs do contribute, directly and indirectly, to providing child care for single parents pursuing postsecondary education. The only government program specifically designed to provide child care for low-income parents pursuing postsecondary education, the CCAMPIS program, however, suffers from inadequate funding to meet demand and flaws in its funding formula.

- Increase CCAMPIS funding. In addition, statutory changes to the CCAMPIS authorization in the Higher Education Opportunity Act may be useful or necessary.
- Increase awareness of the CCAMPIS program, streamline and provide assistance with the application process, and build a broader exchange of information on promising practices among CCAMPIS grantees.
- Change the CCAMPIS grant formula to provide funding proportionate to the number of low-income student parents served.
- Ensure that campus children's centers are integrally involved in state and local early childhood system development efforts.

Building Investment and Commitment

Interviewees who spoke with IWPR frequently mentioned the important role played by leaders and stakeholders in a position to champion and maintain institutional investment in student parents at postsecondary institutions. Elected officials and college administrators can play important roles both in creating or expanding programs and in preventing existing programs from being downsized or ended during periods of low political support or economic downturn. Both data and personal testimony on child care's importance in supporting persistence and completion can help motivate investment in services and resources that support student parents.

- Increase capacity among campus child care center leaders and higher education institutions more generally to advocate on behalf of the needs of student parents at the state and local levels.
- Create materials that present the evidence for the effectiveness of child care in recruiting, retaining, and graduating students and the impact of postsecondary education on low-income parents. Use these materials in efforts to build community and administration commitment to expanding student parent supports
- Convene a task force of higher education partners to identify practices for collecting data on student parents, their child care and other support needs, as well as the effects of child care services on student parent success, and recommend consistent methods of using data to inform policy and practice.

Considering the child care needs of student parents is a part of a broader strategy to build family economic security through multi-generational solutions, and represents an acknowledgement that effective service delivery to individuals must consider the total family system. Embracing the family responsibilities of student parents as a part of a diverse and rich college experience would reframe and modernize the way we envision colleges and universities, recognizing the vital role played by postsecondary institutions in helping American families achieve their dreams.

Appendix A: Selected Results of IWPR Survey of NCCCC Members

Which of the following age populations do you serve at your center?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Birth to 1 year old	47.6%	39
1 year old	63.4%	52
2 years old	82.9%	68
3 years old	97.6%	80
4 years old	97.6%	80
5 years old	83.8%	72
6+ years old	23.2%	19

What parent populations are served by your center?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Full-time students	92.7%	76
Part-time students	81.7%	67
Less than part-time students	52.4%	43
Faculty members	97.6%	80
Members of community (unaffiliated with university)	74.4%	61
Families receiving child care subsidies	80.5%	66

Among the student parents served by your center, approximately what percent are sole caretakers?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
0-10%	21.1%	15
11-20%	16.9%	12
21-30%	8.5%	6
31-40%	18.3%	13
41-50%	11.3%	8
51-60%	7%	5
61-70%	7%	5
71-80%	1.4%	1
81-90%	0%	0
91-100%	8.5%	6

Does your college or university maintain statistics on the number of student parents enrolled at your institution?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Yes	18%	13
No	38%	27
Don't know	43.7%	31

Is there a limit placed by your center on how long a parent can receive child care at your center? In other words, is it possible for a student parent to “use up” the child care they receive at your center?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Yes	12.7%	9
No	84.5%	60
Don't know	2.8%	2

At which of the following times does your center provide care?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Early day care (before 8am)	80.3%	57
Daytime care (M-F, 8-6:30)	97.2%	69
Evenings (after 6:30pm)	12.7%	9
Weekends	2.7%	2
Sporadic	9.9%	7
Emergency or sick care	2.8%	2

How are the services at your center publicized?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Information is sent to incoming students	40.8%	29
Centers participates in “fairs” or other incoming student events	47.9%	34
Faculty and or staff refer students	84.5%	60
Center has a website or section of college university website	95.8%	68
Student advisers refer students	60.6%	43
Advertisements	43.7%	31

Does your center provide services when your college/university is not in session?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Yes, provide full services year-round	60.6%	43
Yes, but with limited services or hours	21.1%	15
No, closed when college university is not in session	18.3%	13

Does your center maintain a waiting list for services/care?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Yes	88.7%	63
No	11.3%	8

Which of the following sources of funding does your center utilize?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
University college general funds	71%	49
Student fees	36.2%	25
State local funds	52.2%	36
Higher education subsidies	15.9%	11
Charitable donations from foundations	23.2%	16
Charitable donations from individuals	34.8%	24
Fees charged to parents	97.1%	67
Federal CCAMPIS funds	31.9%	22

Does your center take steps to help participating parents afford child care?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Yes	87%	60
No	8.7%	6
Don't know	4.3%	3

Does your center work with other child care or early education services in the community? For example: coordinating with other on-campus care options, offering referrals to other child care services, or assisting students with obtaining care off-campus.

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Yes	68.1%	47
No	31.9%	22

Does your center coordinate your child care services for student parents with other departments, administrators, or services on campus? For instance: by working with career or academic advisers, the registrar or financial aid offices, with academic departments, or with a staff member or administrative unit devoted specifically to student parents.

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Yes	34.8%	24
No	65.2%	45

In which state is your college or university located?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Alabama	1.6%	1
Alaska	1.6%	1
Arizona	1.6%	1
California	12.5%	8
Colorado	3.1%	2
Connecticut	1.6%	1

In which state is your college or university located? (continued)

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
District of Columbia	4.6%	3
Florida	1.6%	1
Georgia	3.1%	2
Idaho	1.6%	1
Illinois	3.1%	2
Indiana	9.4%	6
Iowa	1.6%	1
Kansas	1.6%	1
Maine	1.6%	1
Massachusetts	3.1%	2
Michigan	1.6%	1
Minnesota	3.1%	2
Missouri	6.3%	4
Nevada	1.6%	1
New Jersey	1.6%	1
New Mexico	1.6%	1
New York	3.1%	2
North Carolina	1.6%	1
Ohio	3.1%	2
Oklahoma	3.1%	2
Oregon	1.6%	1
Pennsylvania	6.3%	4
Texas	6.3%	4
Washington	7.8%	5
West Virginia	1.6%	1
Wisconsin	1.6%	1

How would you classify your college/university's setting?

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Urban	56.1%	37
Rural	21.2%	14
Suburban	27.3%	18
"College town"	16.7%	11

Type of institution

	Percent of Respondents	Number of Respondents
Private 2-year	0%	0
Private 4-year	20.6%	13
Private vocational	0%	0
Public 2-year	34.9%	22
Public 4-year	41.3%	26
Public vocational	3.2%	2

Appendix B: Child Care Needs Assessment Methodology

To determine the number of children who need care, IWPR began with calculations of the number of student parents, both single and married, who are pursuing postsecondary education in the U.S. Data from the National Center for Economic Statistics were used to determine the proportion of parents enrolled part-time and full-time. Utilizing data from the Census Bureau's Current Population Survey, IWPR calculated the proportion of parents of dependent children who currently have children younger than age 6 (pre-school age), children age six to 13 (school age), or children 14 to 17 (school age, able to care for self). The data available did not allow for a calculation of the *number* of children in each category, and thus these estimates probably slightly underestimate the number of children in need of care, as the number of children in an age range is considered to be one in all cases.

A number of assumptions must be made about the need for care. Not all dependent children require child care, of course. Though such arrangements may be less than ideal for many reasons, some school-age may be capable of looking after themselves for part of the day. Children of school age who are too young to care for themselves are nonetheless overwhelmingly likely to be in school for six hours a day or more, during which time they do not require care. Children age birth to five with parent enrolled full-time were considered as needing full-time care (with adjustments for marital status— see below). Children age six to 13 with a parent enrolled full-time and children birth to five with a parent enrolled part-time were considered as needing part-time care. Children age six to 13 with parent enrolled part-time were considered as not needing child care, as they may be in school during the times when their enrolled parent is on campus. For the purposes of calculating the number of child care slots needed, children needing part-time care were counted as needing half-time care.

This same procedure was used for both single and married student parents, with one adjustment for married student parents. IWPR utilized the CPS to calculate the labor force participation rate of married Americans within one standard deviation of the mean age of student parents (between 26 and 43 years old) as an approximate estimate for the labor force participation rate of spouses of student parents. Married individuals not participating in the labor force—those neither employed nor unemployed and looking for work—are considered to be available for child care. This rate was calculated separately for married men (5.4 percent not in the workforce) and married women (28.5 percent not in the workforce). The number of children needing care was adjusted downward for the estimated number who have a parent not in the workforce.

IWPR estimated the current supply of child care utilizing two data sources: the Institutional Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) and IWPR's survey of NCCCC members and selected community colleges. The IPEDS was utilized to find the number of campuses providing child care, while the IWPR survey was utilized to estimate the average size of campus children's centers (in number of children served per week) and the proportion of children served who are the children of students (rather than faculty, staff, or unaffiliated community members).

Appendix C: Interviewees

Expert interviews (7)

Todd Boressoff, Former Director, Early Childhood Center at the Borough of Manhattan Community College, CUNY

Antoinette Clark, Department of Education, Child Care Access Means Parents in Schools Program

Sherry Cleary, Executive Director, New York City Early Childhood Professional Development Institute at the City University of New York

Linda Smith, President, National Association of Child Care Resource and Referral Agencies

Louise Stoney, Co-Founder, Alliance for Early Childhood Finance; President, Stoney Associates; Co-Principal Investigator, Linking Economic Development and Child Care Project

Sherry Waugh, President, National Coalition of Campus Children's Centers

Bobbie Weber, Oregon State University, Research Associate, Family Policy Program

Parent Support Staff and Center Staff (19)

Debra Carlson of St. Cloud State University

Sharon Coil, Instructor-in-Charge, Women on the Way, St. Petersburg College

Judy Collins of the University of Michigan

Beth Hogeland of Linn-Benton Community College

Jen Dittrich, Parent Resource Specialist, University of Wisconsin, Madison

Stephanie Duckett, Student parent Advocate, Our Little Village, Oregon State University

Suhey Garcia of LaGuardia Community College

Angie Gish of Grossmont College

Suzette Hechst of Southwestern Illinois Community College

Robin Hollingsworth of the University of Alabama

Mary Jo Graham of Marshall University

Barbara King of Sinclair Community College

Traci Lewis, Director, ACCESS Collaborative Program, Ohio State University

Jennie McAlpine of the University of Michigan

Sherrill Mosee, President, Family Care Solutions, Philadelphia, PA

Earline Powell of St. Louis Community College, Meramec

Cecelia Scott-Croff of Borough of Manhattan Community College

Debra Sipe of Portland Community College

Ann Sullivan of the New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology

Survey of Campus Children's Centers (mixed method)

Colleges where surveys were administered over the phone (34)

Chaffey College

Community College of Denver

Community College of Philadelphia

Conta Costa Community College

Edmonds Community College

Erie Community College, City Campus Development Center

Erie Community College, South Campus

GateWay Community College

Greenville Technical College

Survey of Campus Children's Centers (mixed method) (Continued)

Gwinnett Technical College
Hawkeye Community College
Hillsborough Community College
Hostos Community College
Jefferson Community and Technical College
LaGuardia Community College
Lane Community College
Linn-Benton Community College
Mesa Community College
Niagra Community College
Northwestern Florida State University
Phoenix College
Piedmont Community College
Portland Community College
Prairie State College
Rowan-Cabbarus Community College
San Antonio College
Sinclair Community College
South Texas College, Mid Valley Campus
Southwestern Illinois College
St. Charles Community College
St. Louis Community College, Florissant Valley
St. Louis Community College, Meramec
Terra Community College
Tri-County Community College

Colleges responding to surveys via e-mail (3)

Borough of Manhattan Community College
Everett Community College
St. Louis Community College, Forest Park

Colleges whose websites were examined to obtain survey data (15)

Clinton Community College
Diablo Valley College
Green River Community College
Grossmont College
Kirkwood Community College
Los Medanos College
Northwest Shoals Community College
Onandaga Community College
Orange Coast College
Maricopa-Paradise Valley Community College
Parkland Community College
Pennsylvania College of Technology
Salem State College
Texas State University
Yavapai College

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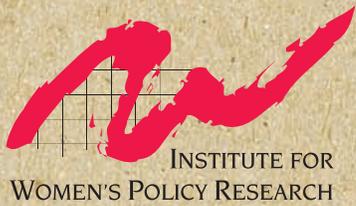
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