

# Section 6

## *Societal Support for Learning*





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This List of Indicators includes all the indicators in Section 6 that appear on *The Condition of Education* web site (<http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe>), drawn from the 2000, 2001, 2002, and 2003 print volumes. The list is organized by subject area. The indicator numbers and the years in which the indicators were published are not necessarily sequential.

## Introduction: Societal Support for Learning

This section looks at the contributions, both financial and otherwise, that society and its members—individuals, families, employers, and other organizations outside of school—make to support education. Thus, this section explores traditional issues about financial support for education as well as issues about the amount of time and attention parents devote to their children's learning; the degree of support that exists in the community, workplace, and other settings for learning; and the consistency of cultural messages about the value of knowledge and learning.

Traditional issues about financial support focus on the amount of funding for education and use school finance data (in particular school expenditures) as one measure of social support for education. Debate exists among education researchers as to the effect of differences in funding on school performance or student outcomes. There is no debate, however, that there are marked differences in funding—in “how,” “to whom,” “from whom,” and “how many” dollars are distributed among public and private educational institutions. The finance indicators in this section measure these types of differences and look at the relationships between these differences and certain aspects of communities (e.g., region, poverty rates, and types of families residing in the community) as well as certain student populations (e.g., children in certain categories of concern, such as minority status, poverty status, and other at-risk factors).

One consideration in the section is how revenues from public and private sources are

distributed among public and private institutions in the education system at the elementary/secondary and postsecondary levels. For example, the tuition paid by college students to attend a public college or university is a private investment being made by the student, or the student's family, in education that is delivered by a public institution. The sum of this and many other allocation mechanisms determines the extent to which postsecondary education is publicly or privately funded and delivered by public or private institutions.

The resources and support that children receive outside of school from individuals, families, and other organizations can complement, reinforce, and add to their school or college learning experiences. Unfavorable conditions at home, school, or in the community may hamper children's ability to learn in school. Comparisons by family characteristics, such as the level of family income or parental education, help illustrate the relationship between family background and support for their child's learning.

In addition to the indicators on student effort and educational progress presented in the following pages, indicators from previous editions of *The Condition of Education* are available at <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/list/i6.asp>. These include indicators on parental involvement in schools, parental attitudes toward schools, trends in the public and private funding of education, and parental saving for the postsecondary education of their children. A full list of indicators in this section available online can be found on the previous page.

# Family Support

## Home Literacy Environment and Kindergartners' Reading Achievement

*Children with richer home literacy environments demonstrate higher levels of reading skills and knowledge when they enter kindergarten than do children with less rich literacy environments.*

Children learn through interacting with others, and activities such as reading to children can enhance their reading skills and knowledge (Snow, Burns, and Griffin 1998; Burgess, Hecht, and Lonigan 2002). This indicator explores the relationship of home educational activities and literacy resources to children's reading skills and knowledge at kindergarten entry. The data are from the base-year (kindergarten) collection of the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 1998–99 (ECLS–K).

Children's home educational activities and literacy environment are measured by an index that counts whether parents reported that children are read to (1 point), sung to (1 point), and told stories to (1 point) *three or more times a week*; whether they have the average number of children's books or more (1 point); and whether they have the average number of children's records/audiotapes/CDs or more (1 point).<sup>1</sup> Therefore, children's scores on the home literacy index can range from 0 to 5 points. The higher the value of the index, the "richer" the home environment is in terms of

educational activities and literary resources. Children's home literacy environment varied by certain family characteristics in 1998–99. For example, the measure of home literacy environment varied by poverty level, with poor children scoring lower than nonpoor children on the home literacy index (see supplemental table 36-1).

The ECLS–K provides reading scale scores to measure children's reading knowledge and skills as they enter kindergarten. In 1998–99, children with higher values on the home literacy index scored higher on the reading scale than did children with lower values on the literacy index. The positive relationship between home literacy environment and children's reading knowledge and skills existed for both poor and nonpoor children, with a stronger relationship for nonpoor children. As a consequence, regardless of poverty status, children with richer home literacy environments displayed higher levels of reading knowledge and skills than did their counterparts with less rich home literacy environments.

<sup>1</sup>On average, children have 73 children's books in the home and 15 children's records/audiotapes/CDs.

NOTE: The home literacy index is based on parental reports of home educational activities and literacy resources. Children's reading skills and knowledge are measured through a one-on-one, two-stage adaptive direct assessment that includes items on basic skills (such as letter recognition and print familiarity), beginning and ending sounds, rhyming words, word recognition, and vocabulary and comprehension.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 1998–99 (ECLS–K), Base Year Public-Use Data File, 1998–99, February 2001.

FOR MORE INFORMATION:

Supplemental Notes 1, 3

Supplemental Table 36-1

Indicator 37

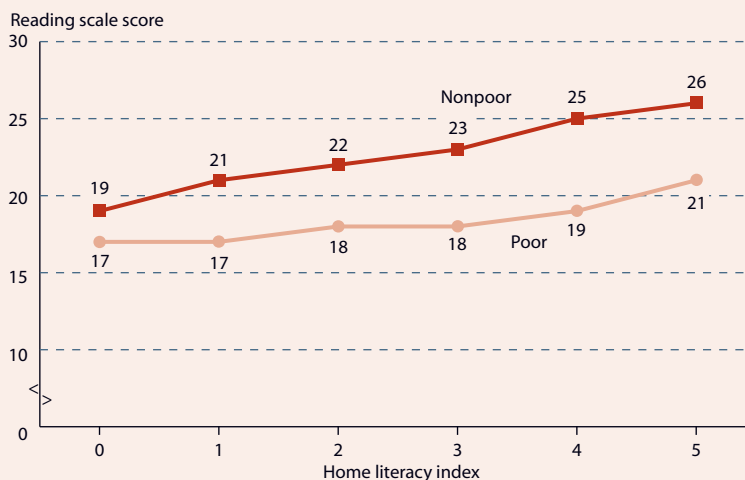
NCES 2000–026; NCES 2000–070

Burgess, Hecht, and Lonigan 2002

Snow, Burns, and Griffin 1998



**KINDERGARTNERS' READING ACHIEVEMENT:** Mean fall kindergarten reading scale score according to home literacy index, by children's poverty status: 1998–99



# Family Support

## Early Literacy Activities

*The percentage of poor and nonpoor children who participated in literacy activities with a family member increased between 1993 and 2001.*

Children whose parents read to them become better readers and perform better in school (Snow, Burns, and Griffin 1998). Other family activities such as telling stories and singing songs also encourage children's acquisition of literacy skills (Moss and Fawcett 1995). This indicator, drawn from data collected by the National Household Education Surveys Program, examines the frequency at which parents reported engaging in various literacy-building activities with children ages 3–5 who were not yet enrolled in kindergarten in 1993 and 2001.

The percentage of children read to by a family member frequently (i.e., three or more times per week) increased from 78 percent in 1993 to 84 percent in 2001. There were also increases in the percentage of children whose family members frequently told them a story (from 43 to 54 percent), taught them letters, words, or numbers (from 58 to 74 percent), and taught them songs or music (from 41 to 54 percent) (see supplemental table 37-1).

Increases in the percentage of children who were read to or who participated in other literacy activities were evident regardless of the poverty status of the child. Poor children and nonpoor

children were each more likely to participate in literacy activities in 2001 than they were in 1993.

Despite the increase in participation in literacy activities by all children regardless of their poverty levels, nonpoor children were more likely than poor children to engage frequently in certain literacy activities in 2001. For instance, 87 percent of nonpoor children were frequently read to by a family member, compared with 74 percent of poor children. However, in 2001, no relationship was found between poverty status and engaging in the two other literacy activities—teaching letters, words, or numbers or teaching songs or music.

The percentage of children who engaged in certain literacy activities in 2001 also varied by the child's race/ethnicity. White children were more likely than Black or Hispanic children to be read to or told a story frequently. They were also more likely than Hispanic children to be taught letters, words, or numbers. However, no differences were found in the percentage of Black, Hispanic, or White children who were taught songs or music (see supplemental table 37-1).

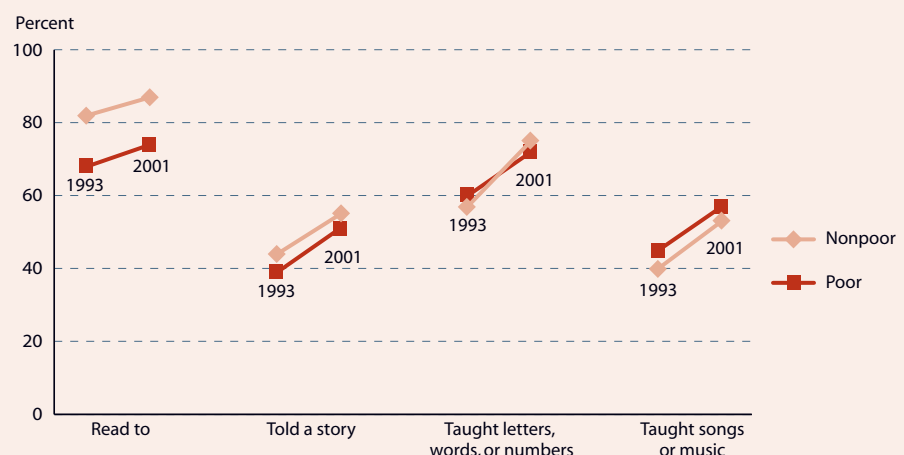
NOTE: See *supplemental note 1* for information on poverty status.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, School Readiness and Early Childhood Education Program Participation Surveys of the National Household Education Surveys Program (SR-NHES:1993 and ECPP-NHES:2001).



FOR MORE INFORMATION:  
Supplemental Notes 1, 3  
Supplemental Table 37-1  
Indicator 36  
NCES 2000–026  
Moss and Fawcett 1995  
Snow, Burns, and Griffin 1998

**EARLY LITERACY ACTIVITIES: Percentage of children ages 3–5 not yet enrolled in kindergarten who participated in home literacy activities with a family member three or more times in the week before the survey, by poverty status: 1993 and 2001**



# Family Support

## Care Arrangements for Children After School

*In 2001, 50 percent of children in kindergarten through 8th grade were enrolled in a variety of nonparental care arrangements after school. Black children were more likely than White and Hispanic children to participate in nonparental care.*

Many parents can take care of their children after school, while other parents with school-aged children rely on nonparental care to do so. Generally, parents who do not supervise their children find an adult to watch them, find a formal after-school program, or allow the children to care for themselves. This indicator examines five types of nonparental care after school: relative care, nonrelative care, center- or school-based programs, extracurricular activities<sup>1</sup> (for purposes of supervision), and self-care (i.e., children care for themselves).

In 2001, about half of the children in kindergarten through 8th grade were under their parents' care, while the other half were placed in a nonparental care arrangement after school. Among all children, the most common nonparental care arrangements were center- or school-based programs (19 percent), followed by relative care (17 percent) and self-care (13 percent). Compared with these three care arrangements, fewer children were in the care of a nonrelative (6 percent) or in extracurricular activities (7 percent) after school (see supplemental table 38-1).

Younger children (kindergarten through 2nd grade) were more likely than older ones (6th through 8th grade) to be in the care of a relative, nonrelative, or in a center- or school-based program and were less likely than the older children to care for themselves or to be in extracurricular activities during out-of-school time. Differences were found across racial/ethnic groups as well: Black children were more likely than White and Hispanic children to participate in nonparental care and to be in three of the five types of nonparental care: center- or school-based programs, self-care, and relative care.

Children engage in a variety of activities while in after-school care. Homework or school-related activities were the most commonly reported group of activities for children in each type of nonparental care arrangement with the exception of nonrelative care. For children under nonrelative care, three other activities (outdoor play or sports, indoor play, and watching television, playing video games, or listening to music) joined homework or school-related activities as the most frequently reported activities (see supplemental table 38-2).

<sup>1</sup>There are two types of extracurricular activities: those selected for the purpose of providing children with adult supervision and those that children join because of personal interest and enjoyment. The activities selected for supervisory purposes are considered to be a nonparental care arrangement. About 7 percent of children participated in activities selected by their parents for supervisory purposes, and 31 percent participated for personal interest and enjoyment.

<sup>2</sup>Black includes African American and Hispanic includes Latino. Race categories exclude Hispanic unless specified.

NOTE: Includes children participating in regularly scheduled care arrangements after school that occur at least once monthly, with the exception of extracurricular activities, which are scheduled at least once weekly. Home-schooled children have been excluded. The sum of the percentage of children in different types of nonparental arrangements exceeds the total percentage of children in any nonparental arrangement because children can participate in more than one type of nonparental care arrangement after school.

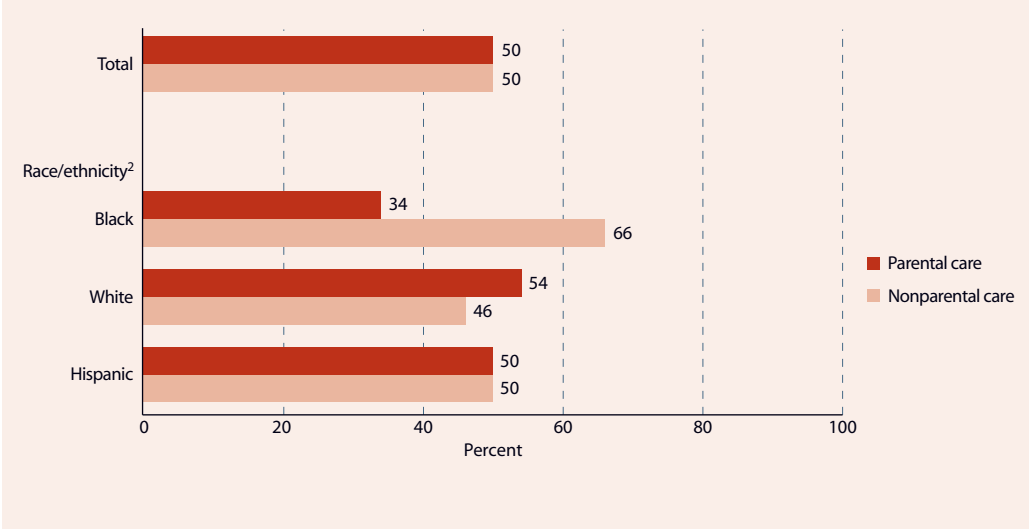
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, Before- and After-School Programs and Activities Survey of the National Household Education Surveys Program (ASPA-NHES:2001).

FOR MORE INFORMATION:  
Supplemental Notes 1, 3  
Supplemental Tables 38-1,  
38-2



NCES 2001-072, indicator  
53; NCES 2003-063

**CARE ARRANGEMENTS FOR CHILDREN AFTER SCHOOL: Percentage of children in kindergarten through 8th grade who participated in parental and nonparental care arrangements after school, by race/ethnicity: 2001**





# Financing for Elementary and Secondary Education

## Public Elementary and Secondary Expenditures

*Total expenditures per student adjusted for inflation increased between 1991–92 and 1999–2000, with the largest increases in central cities of midsize metropolitan statistical areas and rural locations.*

This indicator examines total expenditures per student adjusted for inflation (which include current expenditures, interest on school debt, and capital outlay) across seven location types between 1991–92 and 1999–2000.

In 1999–2000, the average total expenditure per student in public school districts was \$8,105, but expenditures varied by the location of the school districts. The highest total expenditures were in districts located in central cities of large metropolitan statistical areas (MSAs) (\$8,578) and in the urban fringes of large MSAs (\$8,537). Expenditures per student in central cities of midsize MSAs (\$8,028) and in rural areas (\$7,898) were slightly below the average, while those in urban fringes of midsize MSAs (\$7,409), small towns (\$7,320), and large towns (\$7,019) were the lowest (see supplemental table 39-1). These variations may be partly attributable to variations in costs of living across different locations.

Between 1991–92 and 1999–2000, total expenditures per student increased by 20 percent, although the magnitude of the increases varied by location.

Expenditures per student increased the most in central cities of midsize MSAs and rural areas (26 percent), while they increased the least in urban fringes of midsize MSAs (7 percent). There was a shift in the profile of expenditures per student by location. For example, in 1991–92, expenditures per student in urban fringes of midsize MSAs were larger than expenditures in central cities of midsize MSAs and rural areas. In contrast, expenditures per student in central cities of midsize MSAs and rural areas in 1999–2000 surpassed those in urban fringes of midsize MSAs.

Current expenditures per student reflect the shift observed for total expenditures by location. Overall, current expenditures per student rose 17 percent between 1991–92 and 1999–2000, with the largest increases occurring in central cities of midsize MSAs (26 percent) and rural areas (21 percent) and the smallest increase for urban fringes of midsize MSAs (4 percent) (see supplemental table 39-2). As a result, current expenditures per student in central cities of midsize MSAs and rural areas surpassed those of urban fringes of midsize MSAs by 1999–2000.

<sup>1</sup>Includes rural, within MSA, and rural, outside an MSA.

NOTE: Total expenditures per student in fall enrollment include all expenditures allocable to per student costs divided by fall enrollment. These allocable expenditures include current expenditures for elementary-secondary programs, interest on school debt, and capital outlay. Expenditures for nonelementary-secondary programs that include community services, adult education, and other are excluded.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public School District Universe Survey," 1991–92, 1992–93, and 1994–95 to 1999–2000, "Public School District Financial Survey," 1991–92, 1992–93, and 1994–95 to 1999–2000.

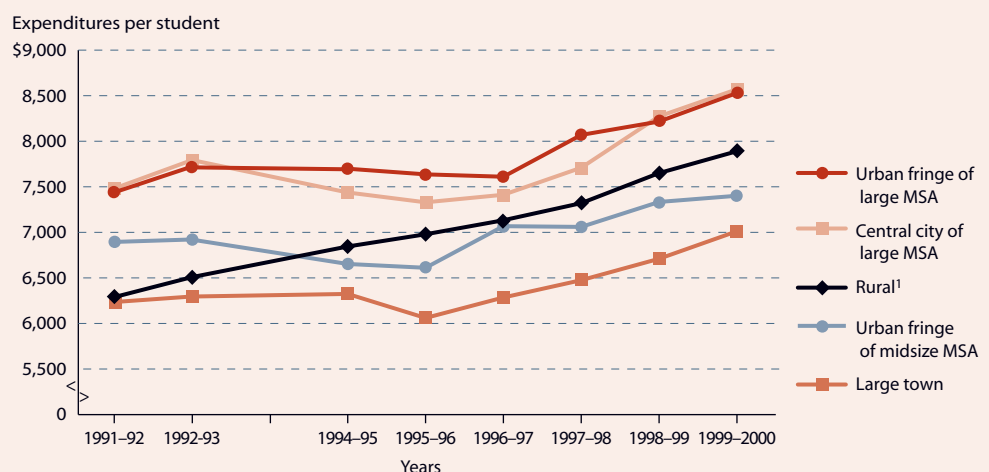


FOR MORE INFORMATION:  
Supplemental Notes 1, 3, 10  
Supplemental Tables 39-1,  
39-2

NCES 98–04

NCES 2002–367

**TOTAL EXPENDITURES PER STUDENT: Public school district expenditures per student (in constant 1999–2000 dollars), by selected locations: 1991–92, 1992–93 and 1994–95 to 1999–2000**





# Financing for Elementary and Secondary Education

## International Comparisons of Expenditures for Education

*Wealthy nations spend more per student on education, but typically do not spend a higher percentage of their wealth on education than do less wealthy nations.*

Two measures used to compare countries' investment in education are expenditures per student (expressed in absolute terms) from both public and private sources and total expenditures as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP). The latter measure allows a comparison of countries' expenditures relative to their ability to finance education.

In 1999, expenditures per student for the member countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) averaged \$4,850 at the combined elementary and secondary level and \$9,210 at the postsecondary level. However, expenditures per student varied widely across these countries, ranging from \$1,240 (Mexico) to \$8,194 (Switzerland) at the combined elementary and secondary level and from \$3,912 (Poland) to \$19,220 (United States) at the postsecondary level (see supplemental table 40-1).

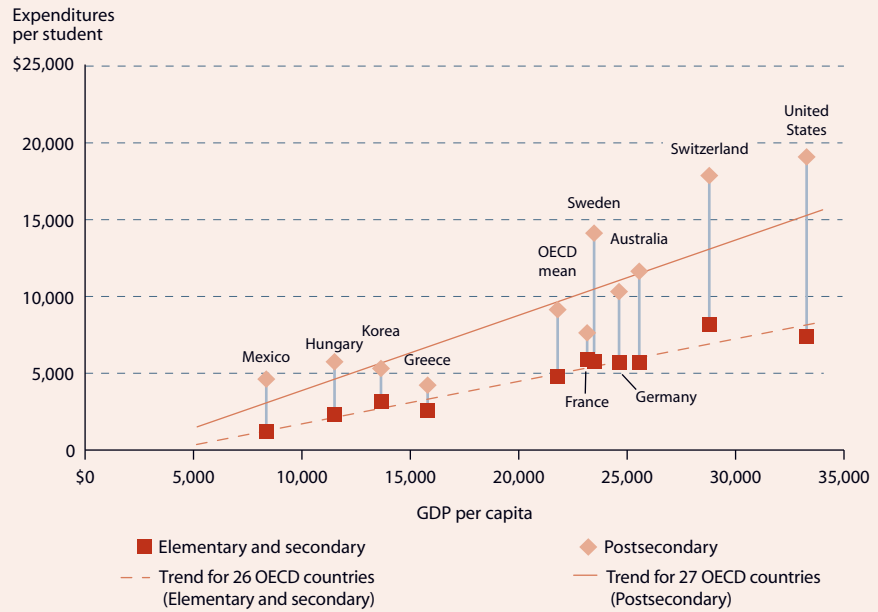
A positive pattern was detected between countries' wealth (defined as GDP per capita) and per student expenditures on education at the elementary/secondary and postsecondary levels. For example, Switzerland and the United States, two of the wealthiest countries reporting data, also ranked the highest in amounts

spent per student on elementary/secondary education in 1999. The same two countries also maintained the largest per student expenditure for postsecondary education in 1999 (\$19,220 in the United States and \$17,997 in Switzerland).

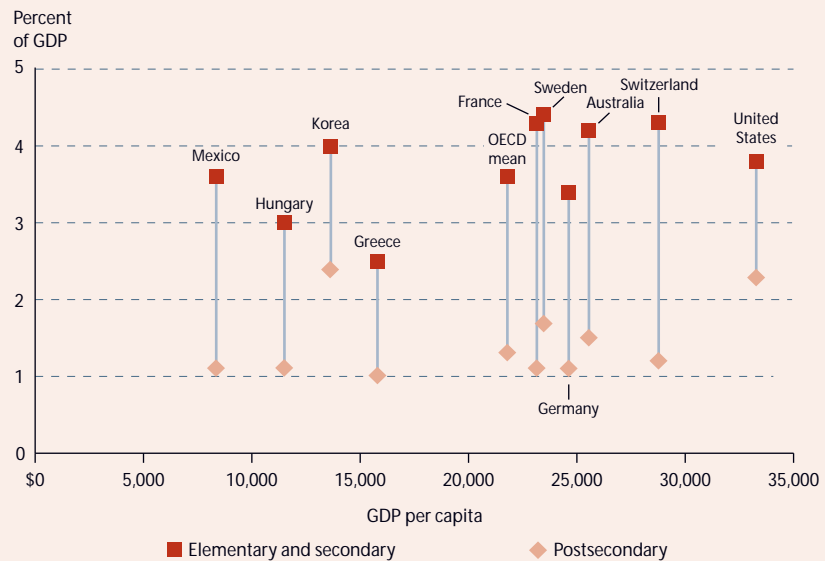
In contrast to the positive relationship observed between OECD countries' wealth and per student expenditures, no significant relationship was detected between wealth and the share of total GDP devoted to education. This pattern was found at both the elementary/secondary and postsecondary levels. This implies that on average, while wealthy countries spend more per student than less wealthy countries, the former do not devote a higher percentage of their GDP to the cost of education than do less wealthy countries, or vice versa.

In 1999, the United States spent 3.8 percent of its GDP on elementary/secondary education, while the average for all OECD countries reporting data was 3.6 percent. The United States spent 2.3 percent of its GDP on postsecondary education. The corresponding OECD average was 1.3 percent.

**EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION: Annual expenditures per student in relation to GDP per capita, by level of education for selected OECD countries: 1999**



**EXPENDITURES FOR EDUCATION: Annual expenditures as a percentage of GDP, by GDP per capita and level of education for selected OECD countries: 1999**



NOTE: Per student expenditures are calculated based on public and private full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment figures and current expenditures and capital outlay from both public and private sources where data are available. Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) indices are used to convert other currencies to U.S. dollars. Within-country consumer price indices are used to adjust the PPP indices to account for inflation because the fiscal year has a different starting date in different countries.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Center for Educational Research and Innovation. (2002). *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators 2002*, tables B1.1, B2.1c, B6.2, and X2.1. Data from OECD Education Database, unpublished data (December 2002).



FOR MORE INFORMATION:  
 Supplemental Note 7  
 Supplemental Table 40-1

# Financing for Elementary and Secondary Education

## General and Categorical Funding in Elementary and Secondary Education

*Districts with the highest levels of poverty received less local general revenues per student than districts with the lowest levels of poverty in 1999–2000. State general revenues and categorical revenues tend to compensate for these lower amounts.*

Funds for school expenditures come from various local, state, and federal sources. For accounting purposes, these funds are grouped as either “general revenue” (revenues for any educational purpose) or “categorical revenue” (revenues for specific educational purposes, including for compensatory programs where resources to school districts are targeted for the needs of economically and educationally disadvantaged students). This indicator examines the extent to which state general revenues and categorical funds supplement local general funding as the percentage of poor children in the school district increases.

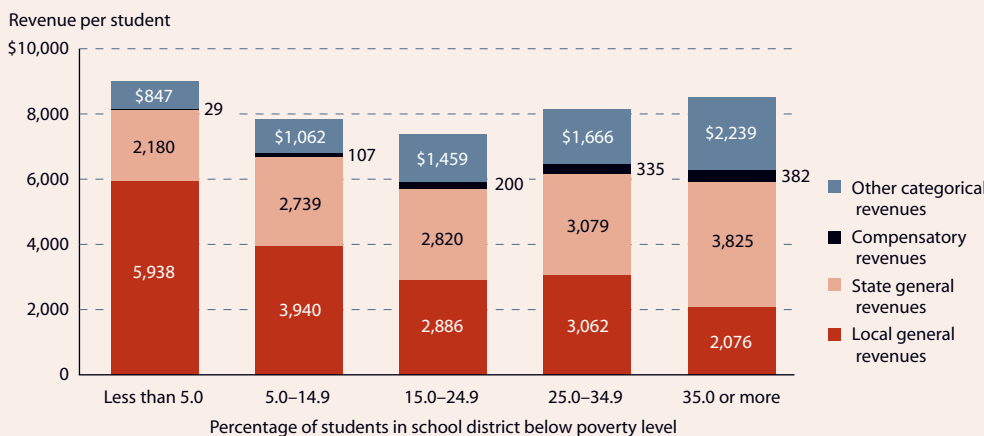
In 1999–2000, 81 percent of total school district funds came from general revenues, and 19 percent came from categorical revenues. Compensatory revenues accounted for 12 percent of categorical funding (see supplemental table 41-1).

Generally, local general revenue per student was lower for school districts with higher levels of poverty. For example, school districts with the lowest level of poverty (less than 5 percent of students) received three times more in local general revenue per student than districts with the highest level of poverty (35 percent or more of students).

In contrast, state general funds per student were generally higher for districts with higher levels of poverty. For example, school districts with the lowest level of poverty received almost two times less in state general revenue per student than districts with the highest level of poverty. Also, categorical funding per student from both noncompensatory and compensatory sources was higher in districts with higher levels of poverty. School districts with the highest level of students in poverty received three times more in categorical revenue per student than districts with the lowest level of students in poverty. About 15 percent of total categorical funding for districts with the highest level of poverty was compensatory.

State general revenues and categorical funds offset much, but not all, of the differential in local general funding across school districts. Total revenue per student in school districts with the lowest level of poverty was 6 percent lower than in districts with the highest level of poverty, while total revenue per student in districts with intermediate levels of poverty was up to 18 percent less.

**REVENUE PER STUDENT: Revenues per student for public school districts according to the percentage of students in the school district below poverty level, by source of revenues: 1999–2000**



NOTE: Only regular school districts are included, while vocational, special education, nonoperating districts, and educational service agencies are excluded.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, Common Core of Data (CCD), “Local Education Agency (School District) Universe Survey,” 1999–2000, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, “Elementary and Secondary School District Finance Data Files,” 1999–2000, and U.S. Department of Education, NCES, “Cost of Educational Inputs Data Set,” 1993–94.

FOR MORE INFORMATION:

Supplemental Notes 1, 3  
Supplemental Tables 41-1, 41-2

NCES 95–300

NCES 98–210



# Financing for Postsecondary Education

## Federal Grants and Loans

*The percentage of full-time undergraduates with federal loans increased between 1992–93 and 1999–2000, but no change was observed in the percentage with federal grants.*

Grants and loans are the major forms of federal financial support to postsecondary students. Federal grants are typically available only to undergraduates from low-income families, whereas loans are available to all undergraduates and to graduate students as well. Federal loan programs were expanded in 1992 by extending eligibility for subsidized loans to more middle- and high-income students, introducing unsubsidized loans for students regardless of income, and allowing students to borrow larger amounts. Between 1992–93 (the last financial aid year before the changes took effect) and 1999–2000, the annual amounts borrowed by undergraduate and graduate students through federal loan programs grew (in constant 1999 dollars), from about \$18 billion to \$33 billion, while federal grant aid to undergraduates remained relatively stable at about \$8 billion (The College Board 2002).

During this same period, the percentage of undergraduates enrolled full time for the full academic year who had federal student loans increased from 31 to 44 percent, and the average amount they borrowed per year grew (in constant 1999 dollars) from \$4,000 to \$4,800 (see

supplemental table 42-1). About 30 percent of undergraduates received federal grants in both 1992–93 and 1999–2000, but the average amount of these grants grew from \$2,400 to \$2,500. The average percentage of federal aid received as loans increased from 54 to 64 percent.

The percentage with federal loans increased for full-time dependent undergraduates from middle-income families (from 31 to 47 percent) and high-income families (from 13 to 32 percent), and for full-time independent undergraduates (from 43 to 48 percent). For each of these groups, the average amount borrowed and the average percentage of federal aid received as loans also increased. For their low-income dependent counterparts, the percentage with federal loans was about 48 percent in both years, but the average loan amount increased from \$3,500 to \$4,300. The percentage receiving grants increased from 68 to 72 percent, and the average grant amount increased from \$2,600 to \$2,800. In both years, loans represented about 38 percent of federal financial aid and about 27 percent of all financial aid (from any source) received by low-income dependent students (see supplemental tables 42-1 and 42-2).

NOTE: Federal loans include Perkins, Stafford subsidized and unsubsidized, and Supplemental Loans to Students (SLS); federal grants are primarily Pell Grants and Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants (SEOG) but also include Byrd scholarships. Total federal aid includes federal work-study aid as well as grants and loans. PLUS loans to parents, veteran's benefits, and tax credits are not included in any of the totals. Income for dependent students is based on parents' annual income in the prior year.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, 1992–93 and 1999–2000 National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS:1993 and NPSAS:2000).

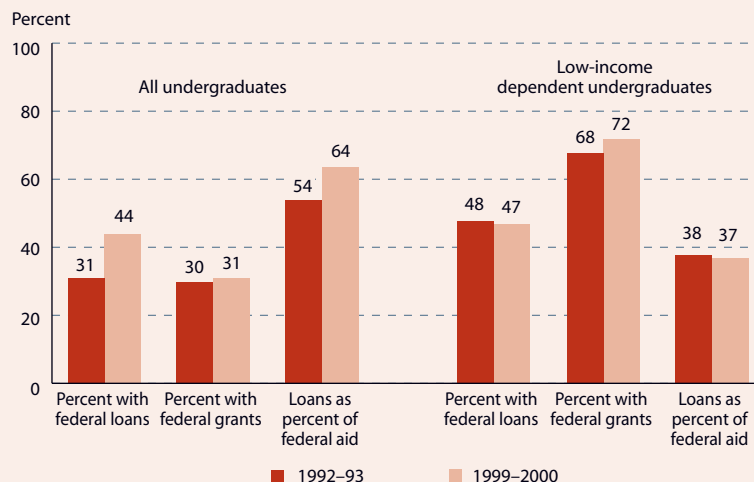


FOR MORE INFORMATION:  
Supplemental Notes 3, 8, 9, 10  
Supplemental Tables 42-1,  
42-2

NCES 2000–151

The College Board 2002

**FEDERAL AID: Among full-time, full-year undergraduates, percentage of all undergraduates and low-income dependent undergraduates who received federal loans and grants, and the average percentage of federal aid received as loans: 1992–93 and 1999–2000**



# Financing for Postsecondary Education

## Changes in the Net Price of College Attendance

Although the total price of attending college has increased after adjusting for inflation, the net price (total price minus grants) has not changed for students in the lowest income quartile.

The amounts that colleges and universities charge for tuition and fees and their estimated total price of attending (tuition and fees plus nontuition expenses such as books, supplies, and living expenses) do not represent what the average student actually pays. Many students have their price reduced by grant aid from federal, state, institutional, or private sources. The amount that students pay after subtracting all grants from the total price is the “net price.” By taking grants into account, changes in net price represent more accurately changes in the price of attending college than do changes in total price.

Between 1992–93 and 1999–2000, after adjusting for inflation, both average tuition and fees and average total price of attendance increased for full-time, full-year undergraduates at 4-year institutions (both public and private not-for-profit) and at public 2-year institutions (see supplemental table 43-1). During the same period, grant aid increased as well (NCES 2002–174).

The changes in net price during this period show how the increases in price and grant aid affected

what students paid. Between 1992–93 and 1999–2000, full-time undergraduates faced an increase in the average net price at research and doctoral institutions (both public and private not-for-profit) and at public 2-year colleges. That is, increases in grant aid did not cover the increases in the price of attending these types of institutions. In contrast, at comprehensive and baccalaureate institutions (either public or private not-for-profit), no changes were observed in the average net price. At these institutions, the increase in grant aid offset the increase in price (see supplemental table 43-1).

Changes in net price were not the same for all students. Students in the lowest income quartile did not experience a significant change in net price at any type of institution. For them, increased grant aid appeared to be sufficient to offset the increases in total price. In contrast, students in the middle income quartiles faced an increase in net price at all types of institutions, as did students in the highest income quartile except for those at private not-for-profit comprehensive and baccalaureate institutions.

\*The 1999–2000 amount is significantly different from the 1992–93 amount ( $p < .05$ ).

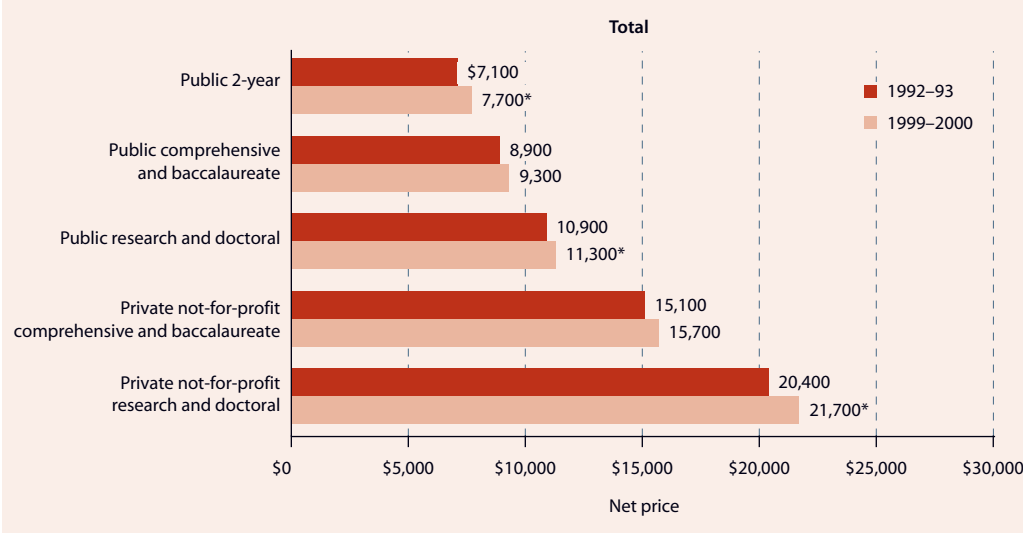
NOTE: The total price of attending is the institutionally determined student budget for tuition and nontuition expenses. Income quartiles are determined using all undergraduates. They are calculated separately for dependent and independent students and then combined into one variable. Parents' income is used for dependent students, and students' own income is used for independent students. See *supplemental note 9* for more detail on price and income quartiles. Estimates for the 1992–93 academic year were converted to 1999 dollars using the average annual Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers (CPI-U). Noncitizens who were not eligible for federal financial aid are excluded. Nineteen percent of undergraduates at public 2-year institutions were enrolled full time, full year in 1999–2000, as were 55 percent at public 4-year institutions and 61 percent at private not-for-profit 4-year institutions.

SOURCE: Horn, L., Wei, C.C., and Berker, A. (2002). *What Students Pay for College: Changes in Net Price of College Attendance Between 1992–93 and 1999–2000* (NCES 2002–174), tables 7–9. Data from U.S. Department of Education, NCES, 1992–93 and 1999–2000 National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS:93 and NPSAS:2000).

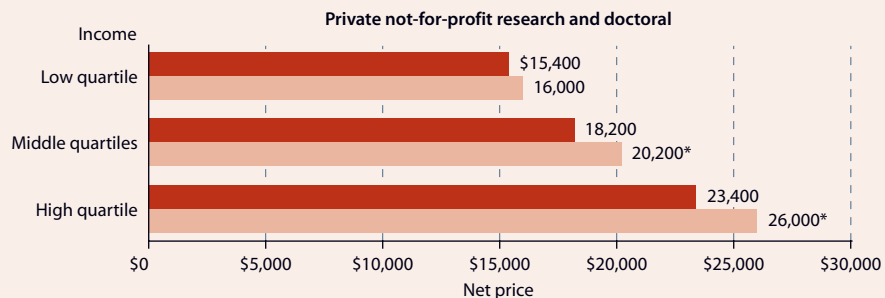
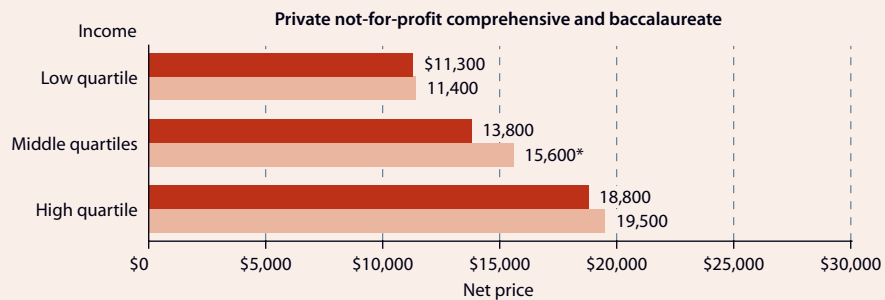
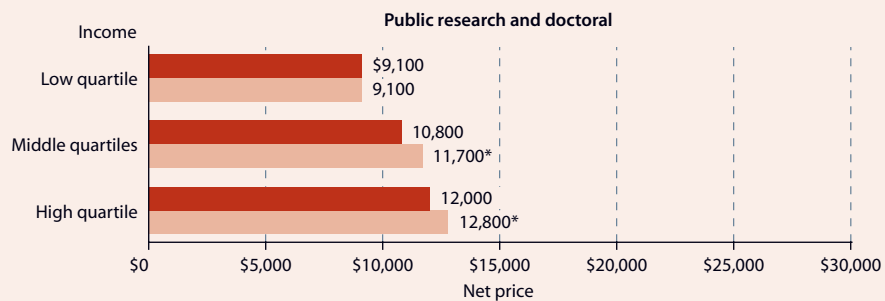
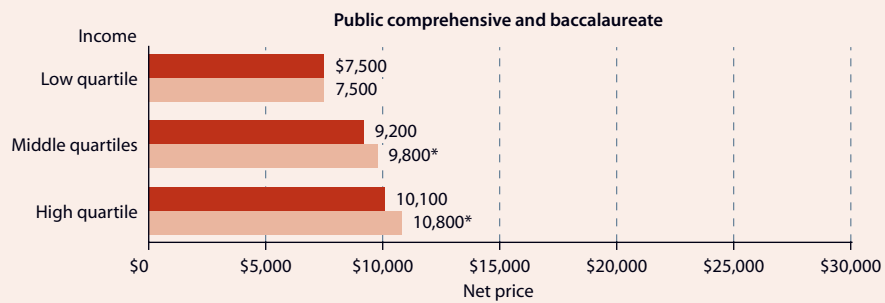
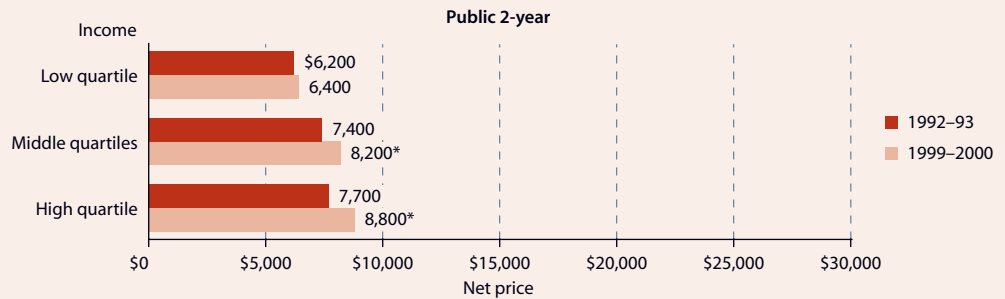
FOR MORE INFORMATION:  
Supplemental Notes 3, 8, 9, 10  
Supplemental Table 43-1



**NET PRICE: Among full-time, full-year undergraduates, average net price, in 1999 constant dollars, by type of institution: 1992–93 and 1999–2000**



**NET PRICE:** Among full-time, full-year undergraduates, average net price, in 1999 constant dollars, by type of institution and income quartile: 1992–93 and 1999–2000



\*The 1999–2000 amount is significantly different from the 1992–93 amount ( $p < .05$ ).

NOTE: The total price of attending is the institutionally determined student budget for tuition and nontuition expenses. Income quartiles are determined using all undergraduates. They are calculated separately for dependent and independent students and then combined into one variable. Parents' income is used for dependent students, and student's own income is used for independent students. See *supplemental note 9* for more detail on price and income quartiles. Estimates for the 1992–93 academic year were converted to 1999 dollars using the average annual Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers (CPI-U). Noncitizens who were not eligible for federal financial aid are excluded. Nineteen percent of undergraduates at public 2-year institutions were enrolled full time, full year in 1999–2000, as were 55 percent at public 4-year institutions and 61 percent at private not-for-profit 4-year institutions.

SOURCE: Horn, L., Wei, C.C., and Berker, A. (2002). *What Students Pay for College: Changes in Net Price of College Attendance Between 1992–93 and 1999–2000* (NCES 2002–174), tables 7–9. Data from U.S. Department of Education, NCES, 1992–93 and 1999–2000 National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS:93 and NPSAS:2000).



FOR MORE INFORMATION:  
Supplemental Notes 3, 8, 9, 10  
Supplemental Table 43-1



# Financing for Adult Learning

## Employer Support for Adult Education

Among employed adults ages 25–64 who participated in adult education in 2001, 87 percent received employer financial support for work-related education.

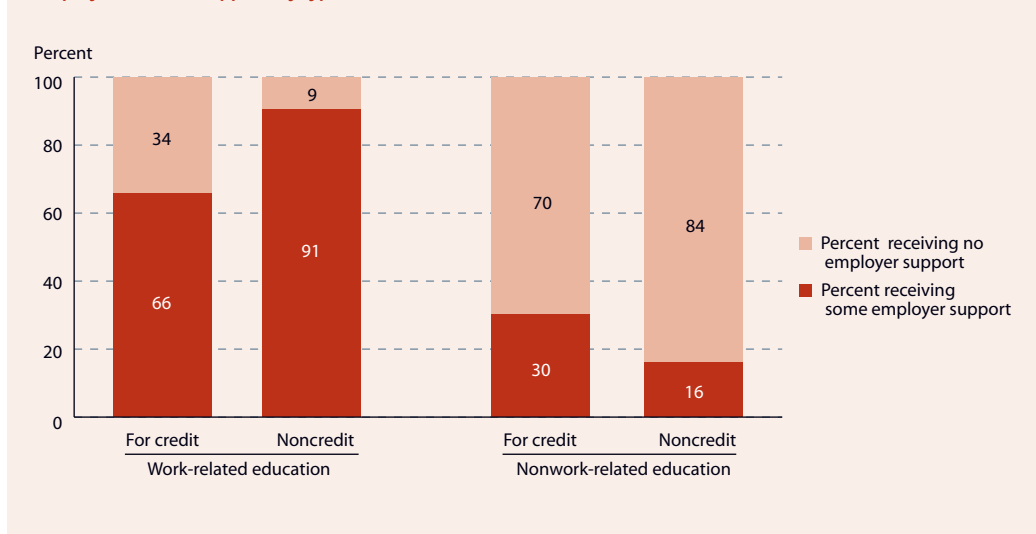
This indicator examines employer financial support for work-related educational activities. Such support includes payment or reimbursement for part or all expenses such as tuition, fees, books, and supplies as well as paid time off to participate in a learning activity.

In 2001, 75 percent of employed adults ages 25–64 who participated in adult education received employer financial support. Sixty-nine percent of participants reported that their employer required their participation (see supplemental table 44-1).

The receipt of financial support varied by the type of learning activity. A higher percentage of employed adults received support for work-related education (87 percent) than for nonwork-related education (18 percent). Also, employer support varied by whether the educational activities were taken for credit. Among employed adults ages 25–64 who took work-related education, 91 percent of those who participated in noncredit activities received employer financial support, while 66 percent of those who took education for credit did so.

Among the employed participants who enrolled in work-related education, 87 percent received employer financial support, 82 percent received employer assistance for tuition, and 74 percent received paid time off from work. The percentage of employed participants who received employer financial support for work-related education varied with certain occupational and demographic characteristics. Adults who had not completed high school were less likely to receive employer financial support than those who had attained higher levels of education. Similarly, adults working for the smallest firms (1–24 employees) were less likely to receive employer support than those employed in larger firms (25–499 or 500 or more employees). While no sex difference was found in reports of employer financial support, adults ages 25–34 were less likely to receive this support than those in all other age groups. A higher percentage of Whites received employer financial support than Hispanics, though no difference was found between Whites and Blacks in the percentages receiving employer financial support (see supplemental table 44-2).

**EMPLOYER SUPPORT:** Percentage of employed adults ages 25–64 participating in adult education according to receipt of employer financial support, by type of adult education: 2001



NOTE: Adult education activities include credit and noncredit coursework, adult basic education, English as a Second Language (ESL) courses, apprenticeship programs, formal courses, work-related courses, and nonwork-related or personal interest/development courses. Informal learning activities are excluded. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, Adult Education and Lifelong Learning Survey of the National Household Education Surveys Program (AELL–NHES:2001).

FOR MORE INFORMATION:

Supplemental Notes 1, 3  
Supplemental tables 44–1, 44–2

Indicator 8

NCES 1999–181

NCES 2003–049

