

RESEARCH REPORT

Balancing Work with School and Training while Raising Young Children

A National Portrait of Young Parents, Their Schedules, and Children's Care Arrangements

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October 2019



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Acknowledgments

This report was funded by the Annie E. Casey Foundation. We are grateful to them and to all our funders, who make it possible for Urban to advance its mission.

The views expressed are those of the authors and should not be attributed to the Urban Institute, its trustees, or its funders. Funders do not determine research findings or the insights and recommendations of Urban experts. Further information on the Urban Institute’s funding principles is available at urban.org/fundingprinciples.

Executive Summary

Parents who have children at a young age often face an interruption in their education, their plans for career training, and overall life trajectory. Their children are more likely to grow up in a single-parent household and experience poverty (Livingston 2018). These effects are exacerbated if mothers continue to have a low level of education (Pogarsky, Thornberry, and Lizotte 2006) and face limited job options in a skills-based economy.

Recent research has examined the growing trend of parents who seek education and training opportunities to achieve higher earnings, greater employee benefits such as health care, and more financial stability (Adams, Spaulding, and Heller 2015; National Women’s Law Center 2015). In the past 20 years, the number of student parents has grown by over 1 million (IWPR 2018). Additional research suggests a growing and significant number of parents both work and attend school (Spaulding, Derrick-Mills, and Callan 2016). Many of them are young parents who face unique challenges as they raise children while still developing themselves and do so with insufficient resources, supports, and life experience (Sick, Spaulding, and Park 2018).

This report adds to that literature by focusing on young parents who are both working and going to school (Eyster, Callan, and Adams 2014; Spaulding, Derrick-Mills, and Callan 2016). We aim to understand the prevalence of children born to young parents (ages 16 to 24), the characteristics of these children and their families, and the implications for child care when parents both work and advance their skills and education to get ahead in the labor market.

Data Source

We use the 2012 National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE) to examine the characteristics of children under age 13 with one or more parents who had their first child before age 25 (“young parents”) and are currently working while in education or training.¹ The NSECE provides nationally representative data on the household characteristics; parental work, education and training schedules; and child care schedules of all children under age 13.²

Findings

We find that in 2012 approximately 22.5 million children, or 43 percent of those under age 13, were born to a parent who was younger than 25 when his or her first child was born. About half (53.2 percent) of these children have parents who are only working, about 5 percent have parents only in education or training, and 10 percent have parents who are working while in education or training. Most of the remaining 32 percent of children have young parents not engaged in any work, education, or training.³ This study focuses on the 10 percent of children whose young parents are working while in education or training and compares them with two groups: all children younger than 13 and children younger than 13 with young parents who are only working. We find the following:

- **Children of young parents are more disadvantaged than all children under age 13.** Though children who have young parents balancing work with education or training constitute a small share of the child population, they may be at a greater disadvantage than other children, at least in the short term, and need additional supports. We find that these children are more likely than all children under age 13 to live in low-income households and have single parents. Their young parents have lower levels of education, with about 20 percent lacking a high school credential and 40 percent having some college education but no degree. This suggests these parents will need to persist in obtaining credentials demanded in the labor market to stay on pace with parents who delayed having children. Finally, compared with all children under age 13, a higher share of children born to young parents balancing work with education or training are black. Black children may be more susceptible to health disparities (Pachter and Garcia Coll 2009) and other injustices caused by structural racism (Kijakazi et al. 2019).
- **Their parents spend long hours at work, education, or training including nontraditional hours.** Their parents average 46.5 total hours a week in work, education, or training activities combined. This is significantly more time than the work hours of young parents who only work (42.1 hours on average), though young parents who balance work with education or training are significantly less likely to work full time (more than 30 hours a week). Further, almost 90 percent had a young parent engaged in work, education, or training activities outside standard work hours (before 7 a.m. or after 6 p.m. on weekdays, and anytime on weekends). Their parents spend a large amount of time (14.5 hours a week on average) working or participating in education or training activities during nontraditional hours, and this has implications for their ability to find child care because options are less plentiful during these times (Henly and Adams 2018; Sandstrom et al. 2019).

- **They are more likely to be in nonparental care, especially the care of unpaid relatives, and for more hours than children whose parents only work.** Sixty-two percent experience some form of nonparental care (excluding time in K–8 school), compared with 45 percent of all children under age 13 and 57 percent of children under 13 whose parents are only working. Unpaid care from relatives is the most common care type. Compared with children with young parents who only work, they are significantly more likely to use unpaid relative care, particularly during nontraditional hours when more formal providers are typically unavailable. Relatives may be providing critical support to parents as they juggle school and work. As is true for all children, the types of care these children experience vary by age, but we observe important differences based on family characteristics.
 - » Children with young single parents balancing work with education or training spend almost twice as much time on average in nonparental care than children in two-parent families with at least one young parent combining these activities.
 - » Young parents balancing work with education or training who have no more than a high school education are significantly more likely to rely on unpaid relative care than parents with more education. Parents with more education are more likely to use center-based care and for more hours on average, which may be because parents with more education can seek out, access, and afford care in centers.
 - » Young parents balancing work with education or training use unpaid relative child care for more time during nontraditional hours than young parents who only work.

- **Many young parents balancing work with education or training must pay out-of-pocket child care costs, and the burden is especially high for single parents.** For almost half of their children, young parents who use nonparental care report no out-of-pocket costs; they often rely on unpaid relatives or fully subsidized or publicly funded arrangements. But young parents balancing work with education or training who do pay report median spending of \$69.80 a week, similar to the \$69.00 a week reported by young parents who only work. Across children in a household, the median child care burden for these families (i.e., the share of the household income spent on child care) is 14 percent—twice the federal government recommendation that child care cost no more than 7 percent of household income. The burden on young single parents balancing work with school or training is much higher (18 percent) than on two-parent households with a young parent also balancing these activities (8 percent).

Implications

The findings highlight the experiences of a unique population. The study raises four main points:

1. **Young parents of young children may need greater support and resources to access child care at times they are working and in education or training.** Families may need help locating child care arrangements that meet their scheduling needs, particularly for infants, toddlers, and school-age children for whom parents rely on relative care and irregular care arrangements.
2. **Young parents are often working to help pay for their education, and they further bear high costs of child care.** Young parents need (a) expanded access to financial assistance for those balancing work with education or training and (b) expanded access and eligibility for child care subsidies to cover the cost of care for more parents and during any time they spend in work, education, and training activities.
3. **Young parents balancing work with education or training are most commonly low-income single mothers with some college education but no degree.** Schools and workforce development programs should consider the unique needs of employed parents pursuing education or training, especially young, single parents with fewer supports and resources. Education and training programs aiming to increase graduation rates need to build in supports for child care for students who work and have children. A companion report demonstrates that parents who were more disadvantaged when having their first child (i.e., those who are teenagers, have low incomes, or are black) have worse outcomes at age 30 (Sick, Spaulding, and Vilter 2019).
4. **Relative caregivers play an important supporting role for young parents broadly, especially those balancing work with education or training.** Many young parents rely on relatives to provide child care, especially when they have limited access to affordable, regulated options (such as infant care and care during nontraditional hours). However, relative caregivers are more likely to be disconnected from the broader child care system, meaning fewer programs and policy levers are available to support them and the children in their care. This suggests that concerted efforts to support relative caregivers, through strategies such as home visiting and free training workshops to support child development knowledge and home safety, could be particularly important. Seeking ways to better include relative caregivers in the child care subsidy system may also be beneficial. With additional supports, young parents can have the means to complete their education and advance their career opportunities while providing their children with safe and healthy care arrangements.

Introduction

Although the teen birth rate has declined in recent years, in 2016, 5.4 percent of the nearly 4 million births in the United States were to teen mothers, and another 20.4 percent were to young women in their early twenties (Martin et al. 2018). Younger parents are more likely to have a child outside marriage and, if married, their marriages are less stable (Card and Wise 1978; Sick, Spaulding, and Park 2018). The consequences of having children early are long lasting. A companion report to this study shows that people who become parents as teenagers have less education, spend more time disconnected from the workforce, and have lower earnings at age 30 than those who delay having children (Sick, Spaulding, and Vilter 2019).

A changing labor market is placing demands on the workforce to be highly skilled and degreed, and young parents are at a disadvantage. Yet in recent years, the prevalence of young adults under age 30 pursuing postsecondary education while working has grown, with one out of five having a dependent child (Carnevale et al. 2015). Education and training opportunities give parents a more stable life because they can lead to higher earnings, greater employee benefits such as health care, and more opportunity (National Women’s Law Center 2015). But young parents face many challenges trying to balance working a job, attending school or training, and parenting young children.

This study is motivated by existing research on the adverse impacts of early childbearing and observed trends in young parents (those ages 16 to 24) balancing work with education or training. Using data from the National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE), a set of nationally representative surveys that provide a portrait of the child care experiences of US households, we aimed to address the following research questions:

1. How many children growing up in the US have young parents who are balancing work with education or training?
2. What are the characteristics of these children and their families, and how do they compare with children with young parents who are only working or only in education or training?
3. What are the most common child care arrangements for children with young parents balancing work with education or training, and how do they compare with the care arrangements of other children?

This report is organized into four sections. First, we review the literature on this issue and the need for the current study. Next, we briefly discuss our research methodology, including details on the data

source and analytic approach. Then we present the study findings that address each research question. We conclude with a discussion of policy implications.

BOX 1

Broader Perspective on Young Parents Balancing Work and Education or Training

The goal of this project is to better understand the characteristics, circumstances, and outcomes of young parents who combine work with education or training and the implications that balancing work with education or training has for parents and their children. This report focuses on a snapshot of these families while parents are combining work with education or training and uses the child as the unit of analysis. We examine parents' and children's schedules across a full week, concentrating on the amount of time parents spend in work, education, or training activities and that children concurrently spend in various child care arrangements. The companion report, *Young Parents Making Their Way: Combining Education and Work while Parenting* (Sick, Vilter, and Spaulding 2019), investigates the trajectories of these parents over time to identify how combining work with education or training is related to their outcomes at age 30. Both reports seek to better understand the prevalence of young parents balancing work with education or training, determine their characteristics, and analyze implications of those findings, but the reports approach these questions from different time spans and units of analysis.

Background

This study builds on existing literature identifying the challenges faced by young parents, especially young parents who balance work with education or training. The long-term benefits that pursuing and obtaining additional education can bring to young parents and their families are well evidenced. However, the ability to find affordable and high-quality child care is a well-documented challenge for these families, and it can affect their ability to balance competing priorities and finish and reap the rewards of education and training. This report furthers prior research by examining the topic from the child level, focusing on parents who were young when having their first child, and depicting how parental and child care schedules fit together.

Young Parents Balancing Work with Education or Training

An increasing number of parents are pursuing education despite the potential challenge of balancing academic and family responsibilities. Many student parents also work to help finance their education while supporting their children, though this additional responsibility can impede their progress in school. For young adults who can strike a balance and persist through these challenges, accruing work experience and additional education or training can have future economic payoffs (Sick, Spaulding, and Vilter 2019).

Recent research shows that more young parents are pursuing higher education even while their children are still young. More than one-fifth (22 percent) of all undergraduate students are parents (Cruse et al. 2019), and nearly one-third of undergraduate women are mothers, 60 percent of whom are single (Gault, Reichlin, and Román 2014). Half of student parents have children under age 6, and 25 percent have children ages 6 to 10 (Cruse et al. 2019). Focusing on the experiences and well-being of these young parents is important: research on the transition to adulthood cites educational attainment as an important marker of success. Experiences in this developmental period are related to later adult outcomes (Ross and Svajlenka 2016; Wald and Martinez 2003).

Many student parents work while in school to help pay for their education and to make ends meet for their families. Studies show that the primary reason students work is to pay for their education (IWPR 2016b), especially given how dramatically the cost of education has risen in the past two decades (Carnevale et al. 2015). The need to work while in school is even greater when raising a family. A study of postsecondary education enrollment compared student parents to dependent students without

children and found a significant difference in the likelihood of having a job: 66 percent versus 58 percent, respectively (IWPR 2016b). Student parents were also more likely to work 30 or more hours a week (46 percent versus 21 percent, respectively; IWPR 2016b), but an estimated 90 percent of student parents earn less than \$42,000 a year (Carnevale et al. 2015). A series of focus groups with young parents in Texas uncovered a common dilemma: young parents need a sufficient income to support a family but lack the job skills and work experience to get a job that can sustain a family (Child and Family Research Partnership 2019).

For parents of young children, the challenge of balancing work and school while parenting can delay successful completion of coursework and graduation. Notably, this population of students has a lower rate of degree attainment (Noll, Reichlin, and Gault 2017). Studying part time can hinder students' ability to acquire financial aid, which heightens the need for a job, creating a circular problem (Noll, Reichlin, and Gault 2017).

But accruing work experience while in school offers benefits even if students ultimately do not obtain a degree. Working students acquire technical and soft skills valued by employers, build an employment history that signals promise to potential employers, and develop professional social networks that help connect them to future jobs (Douglas and Attewell 2019). Working while in school in both community and four-year colleges has also been found to be associated with higher earnings afterward regardless of whether students complete a degree (Douglas and Attewell 2019). Further, a companion study on the life trajectories of young parents shows that combining work with education or training is associated with increased earnings by age 30; disconnection from work, education, and training is associated with decreased earnings (Sick, Spaulding, and Vilter 2019).

Even with this growing body of research, less is known about how young parents balance work with education and training schedules and arrange child care and how their circumstances might differ from those of other parents.

Arranging Child Care

As young parents work to make ends meet while pursuing education to achieve upward mobility, supporting the immediate well-being of young children and quality of their early learning experiences is critical. Finding affordable, reliable child care is a common challenge among working parents, but it may be an even greater issue for young parents who work and attend school or training (Child and Family Research Partnership 2019).

Arranging care schedules can become more complex when parents are both working and in school, because the hours when they need child care may extend beyond the times regulated child care programs are traditionally open (Dobbins et al. 2016; NSECE Project Team 2015). In two-parent households, parents can stagger their work hours, or one parent may be home full time to care for children. But when both parents are working or in school, or when the primary parent is single, needs for reliable and affordable child care are often unmet (Eckerson et al. 2016). Single parents more often rely on informal caregivers, such as older siblings and grandparents, and depend on older children to care for themselves (Laughlin 2013). Arranging and coordinating care across several providers can add further complexity to families' schedules and logistics and have implications for child behavior outcomes and school readiness (Ros Pilarz 2018; Ros Pilarz and Hill 2014). In focus groups with young parents, mothers were more likely to work if they were single or if their parents helped substantially with the children (Child and Family Research Partnership 2019). Young parents often still live with their parents and rely on them for financial support and child care. When grandparents are not involved, young single parents experience even greater financial and emotional stress (Child and Family Research Partnership 2019).

Several studies suggest that many more parents would have avoided a break in their education or not dropped out if child care had been accessible (Hess et al. 2014; Johnson et al. 2009). Concerns about child care may negatively influence parents' academic and work performance. In a national survey of registered voters, 59 percent of parents ages 18 to 29 reported that child care considerations have had negative career impacts on their family, such as leading to the parent passing up promotions, working less, and not pursuing new skills (Halpin, Agne, and Omero 2018). Yet few colleges offer child care on site, and the overwhelming majority of existing child care centers on college campuses have waiting lists of 80 children or more (IWPR 2016a). Furthermore, campus child care may not meet the needs of many parents, especially those who work jobs off campus and during hours when campus child care programs are closed (Adams, Spaulding, and Heller 2015).

Though high child care costs burden many American families (Child Care Aware 2018), student parents often struggle financially because of the high costs of child care on top of college tuition and fees (Gault, Reichlin, and Román 2014). To reduce child care costs, low-income working parents may be eligible for child care subsidies through the Child Care and Development Fund, but the program only serves 15 percent of eligible children (Chien 2019). In a constrained funding environment, states often prioritize eligibility for working parents and not those in education or training (Minton, Tran, and Dwyer 2019). Children may also qualify for public prekindergarten or the Head Start program, but these public

programs have limited schedules and do not always meet the needs of full-time working parents (Chaudry et al. 2011; Schochet 2019).

Although parents' success in school can lead to long-term gains, long hours spent working and studying can reduce the time parents spend with their children. Limited time with parents is associated with fewer positive child outcomes and could mean more time spent in nonparental child care arrangements as well as a greater likelihood of experiencing lower quality, less enriching, and more adverse care environments (Heinrich 2014; Moore, Bandy, and Kinghorn 2011; Sani and Treas 2016).

Research Gaps Addressed by Current Study

The current study builds on previous research on working student-parents but adds to existing literature by studying these issues at the child level. The study focuses specifically on parents who had their first child before age 25 based on evidence that early childbearing may impinge parents' education and career trajectory. Given little existing evidence on how young parents balance their work and education/training schedules with child care, we examine the types of nonparental care children experience, the amount of time children spend in care, and families' out-of-pocket costs.

Methods

To answer our key research questions, we use data from the NSECE household survey, which includes a nationally representative sample of US households with children under age 13.⁴ Other NSECE data, not used for this analysis, include samples of center-based child care providers, home-based providers, and the center-based provider workforce. Data were collected in late 2011 to early 2012.

We draw from the NSECE household survey data file and calendar data file. The calendar data provide a unique snapshot on the activities of each adult and child in the household for every 15-minute block of time in the previous week. When linked with the household survey data file, the calendar data allow us to explore the child care arrangements used on different days of the week and times of day.

Our primary analytic sample consists of children under age 13 who had at least one young parent in the household combining work with education or training at the time of the survey. We define “young parents” as parents who were ages of 16 to 24 when their oldest child in the household was born.⁵ This restriction yielded a sample size of approximately 960 representing a population of approximately 2.26 million children. Parents’ age at the time of survey administration ranged from 16 to 36, with an average age of 28.⁶

We provide summary statistics including the average amount of time these children and their parents spend in different care settings and in work, education, and training activities, respectively. Work activities capture unpaid work for a family business as well as any paid work, including for an employer, for the military, and self-employment such as freelance work and work at one’s own business. Education or school activities for adults comprise classes in high school, colleges, and universities. Training activities are defined as courses or training programs to help find employment, improve skills, or learn a new occupation. Commuting time is counted as part of the time spent working or in educational or training activities. The four categories of regular, nonparental care arrangements we use are

1. center-based care and other organizational care (e.g., after-school programs, Head Start, preschool, nursery school, and other early childhood education programs);
2. paid home-based care by a nonrelative outside the child’s home (e.g., family child care program);
3. paid care by a relative in any location or by a nonrelative in the child’s home (e.g., babysitter or nanny); and

4. unpaid relative care in the child's or relative's home.

Providers that care for a child less than five hours a week are classified under a separate irregular care category. Transportation time is included in care and activity time.⁷ Time when the child is unsupervised (i.e., self-care) and time in school starting in kindergarten are not counted as nonparental care but are reported in separate categories.⁸

All analyses are at the child level, and data are weighted so results can be interpreted as nationally representative of children under age 13. We highlight significant differences between subgroups within this population of children:

- When examining characteristics of children and their families, we compare children in the analytic sample to all children under 13 (sample size of approximately 21,260, representing 52.1 million children) to identify differences between this special population and the broader population of children in the US.
- In analyses of parents' schedules and child care use, we compare children in our analytic sample to children of the same age with at least one young parent who is working but not in education or training (sample size of approximately 5,620 representing 12.0 million children). With these analyses, we apply an assumption that most working parents need child care, so comparing parents who are only in work with parents who are working while enrolled school or training will identify differences that may be attributed to participating in education or training.
- When examining parents' education and training schedules, we compare children with at least one young parent balancing work with education or training to children with at least one young parent in education or training but not working (sample size of approximately 510 representing 1.07 million children).⁹ The goal with these comparisons is to identify differences that may be attributed to the addition of working while in school or training.

Findings

The study results cover four main topics: the characteristics of children with young parents balancing work with education or training; parents' work and education or training schedules; child care arrangements used when parents are in work, education, or training; and the cost of care. We present findings in this order with accompanying figures and tables and then discuss their policy implications.

Characteristics of Children with Young Parents Balancing Work and Education or Training

In 2012, 22.5 million children under age 13 (43 percent) had at least one young parent. Among them, 2.26 million were living with at least one young parent who was both working and enrolled in school or training (table 1). This figure equates to 4.3 percent of all children under 13 and 10 percent of children with at least one young parent. Children with young parents combining work with education or training make up a relatively small share of all children under age 13 compared to children with at least one young parent who was only working or engaged in no work, education, or training activities. (See appendix figure A.1 for the share of children in two-parent households in which both parents participate in work, education, or training activities.)

TABLE 1

Prevalence of Children under 13 with Young Parents

By parents' participation in work and education or training activities

	Number in population	Share under age 13	Share with at least one young parent
<i>Has at least one young parent</i>	22,500,000	43.2%	100%
In work and education or training	2,260,000	4.3%	10.0%
In work activity only	12,000,000	23.0%	53.2%
In education or training only	1,070,000	2.1%	4.8%
In no activities	7,190,000	13.8%	31.9%
<i>No young parents</i>	29,600,000	56.8%	NA
Total	52,100,000	100.0%	

Source: Authors' analysis of National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Note: NA = not applicable.

The average age of young parents balancing work with education or training was 28 (standard deviation = 4.3) at the time of the survey. Children were an average of 5.8 years old (standard deviation = 3.5). Almost half of children with at least one young parent balancing work with education or training

were school age (ages 6 to 12), while about one-quarter were infants and toddlers (from birth to age 2) and one-quarter were preschool age (ages 3 to 5). Overall, these children were slightly younger than children under age 13 overall, but not by much.

Children Are More Likely to Live in Low-Income Households

Children with at least one young parent balancing work with education or training face several potential disadvantages that relate to family need. About two-thirds live in households with income below 200 percent of the federal poverty level, or FPL (i.e., low-income households), and nearly one-third lives in households with income below 100 percent of FPL. By contrast, only about half of all children under age 13 are in low-income households, and less than 30 percent are in poor households. Yet we find similar income patterns for children with a young parent who only works, highlighting the fact that children with young parents are generally in more precarious economic situations. Although parents might be forgoing earnings to enroll in education or training, this does not diminish—and it may actually increase—their need for resources to pay for child care during this time.

Children Are More Likely to Live in Single-Parent Households

About 43 percent of these children live with a single parent, almost all of whom (95.3 percent) are single mothers.¹⁰ By contrast, only about 22 percent of all children below age 13 live with a single parent. Single-parent families may have to rely more on nonparental care because they do not have a second parent in the household to help cover caregiving responsibilities. Single parents also bear the burden of arranging and coordinating child care logistics without a partner. When they have to use multiple child care providers to meet their care needs, they may experience additional logistical challenges and complications for continuity of care.

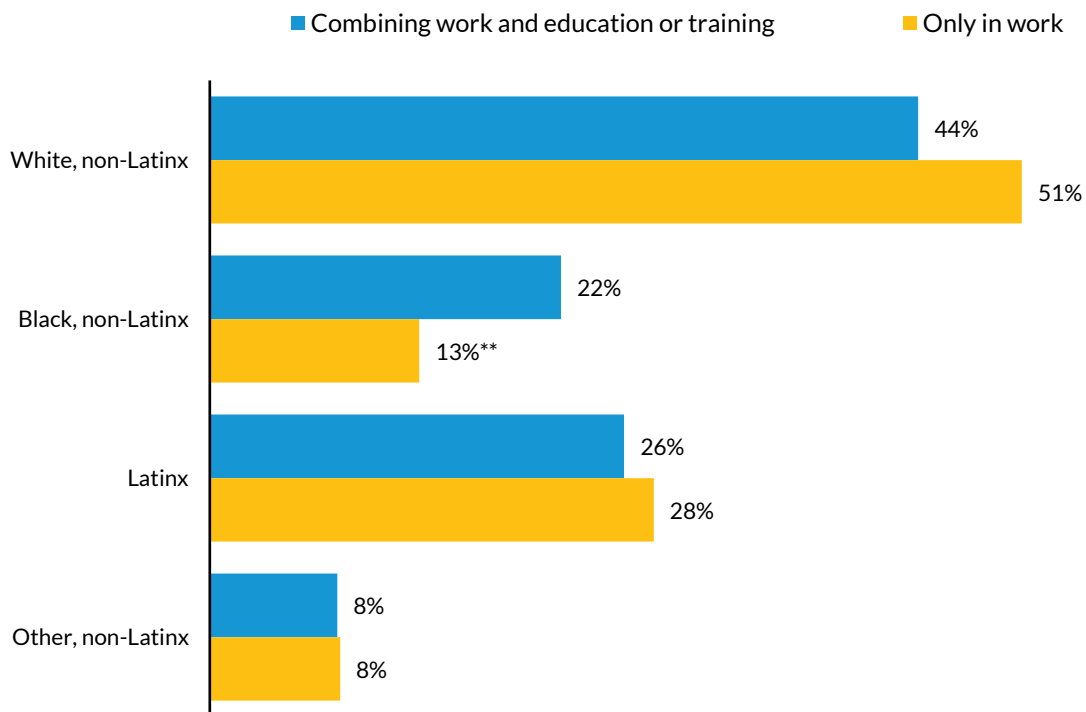
We find a similar share of single-parent households among children with a young parent who only works. This suggests single parenthood is not a unique challenge for children with a young parent balancing work with education or training, but it is a broader issue that affects children of young parents generally.

Children Are More Likely to be Black

Children with at least one young parent balancing work with education or training are racially and ethnically diverse: over one-half identify as children of color. Twenty-two percent are black, non-Latinx compared with 13 percent of children with a young parent who only works (figure 1).

We find that black children are more likely to be living with a single parent, and children living with a single parent are more likely to live in low-income households. Children with any single disadvantage are, in turn, more likely to face other, compounding challenges. These different aspects of disadvantage are interrelated. For example, a recent study found that among student parents who are single mothers, 89 percent are low income (IWPR 2016b). This means children that fall into any one of these categories may also face multifaceted, multilayered challenges through these correlated aspects of disadvantage.

FIGURE 1
Share of Children Under 13 with at Least One Young Parent, by Child Race and Ethnicity
By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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Source: Authors' analysis of National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: In the survey, 0.4 percent of children with at least one young parent in work only did not have their race or ethnicity reported.

** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training at the $p < 0.01$ level.

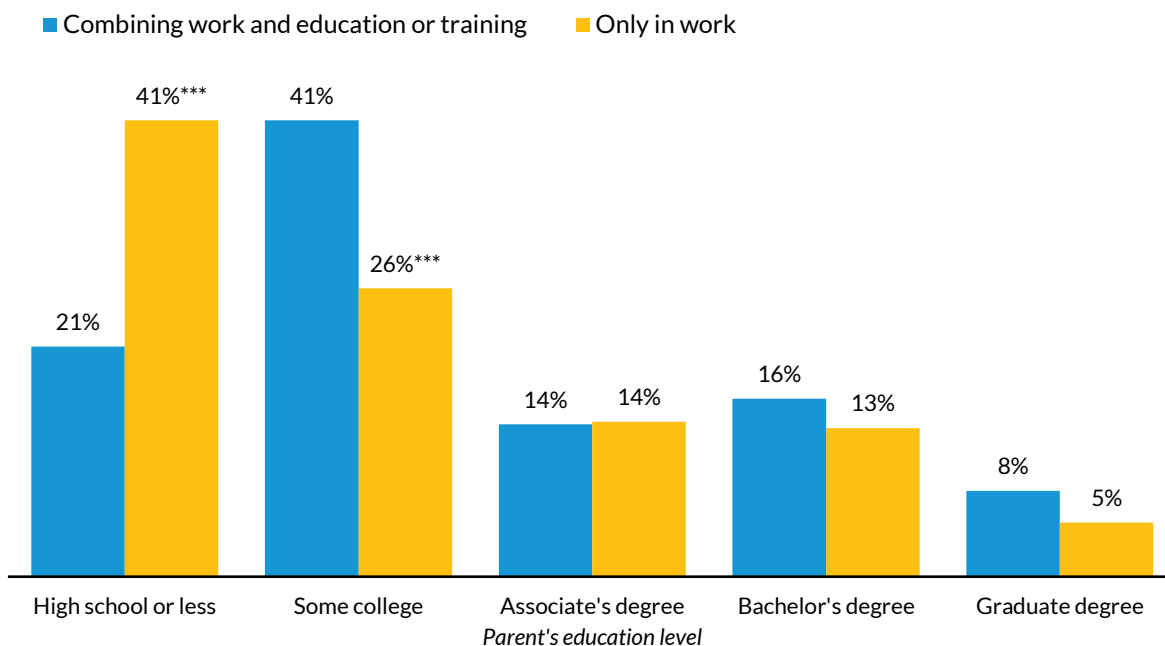
Most Young Parents Have Only a High School Diploma or Some College Education

More than 60 percent of children with a young parent balancing work with education and training, parents have no postsecondary degree (figure 2). Yet for nearly 25 percent of children, their young parent had already attained a bachelor's or more advanced degree by the time of survey administration,

when parents were an average of 28 years old. The largest group of children, about 41 percent, have young parents with some college education but no degree, meaning the parents are early in their education program or have not yet completed graduation requirements.

FIGURE 2

Highest Educational Attainment of Parents of Children under 13 with at Least One Young Parent
By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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Source: Authors' analysis of National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: For two-parent households, the highest education level of the two parents is used.

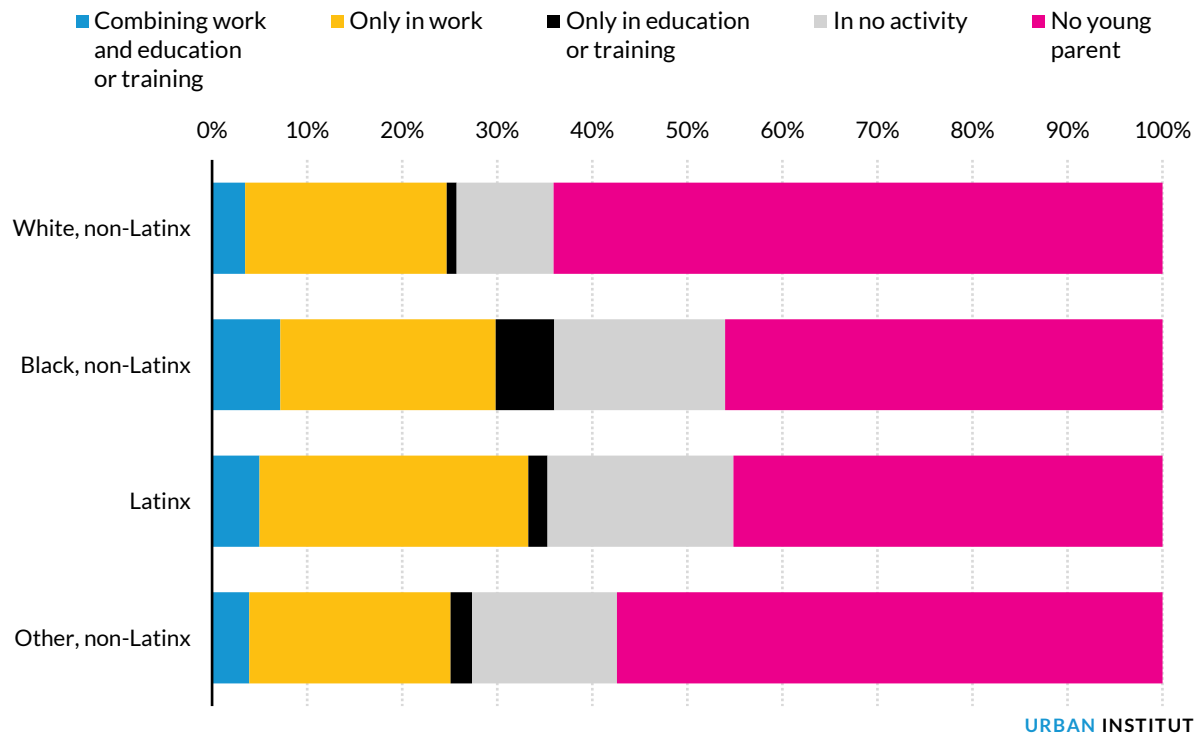
*** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training at the $p < 0.001$ level.

Children with young parents who are both working and in school or training have more educated parents than children with a young parent engaged in work only. Most notable is the difference among parents in the lowest educational category who lack education beyond high school: of children with a young parent balancing work with education or training, 21 percent had a parent with no more than a high school education; of children with a young parent engaged only in work, 41 percent had a parent with no more than a high school education. The lower levels of education among parents who only work reflects both young parents who work while still completing high school and the large number of high school graduates and dropouts who turn to working and do not pursue further education. For the large numbers of young parents who have engaged in or are engaged in postsecondary education, a high school diploma or secondary school credential is often required.

Latinx Children are More Likely to Have a Young Parent Engaged Only in Work and Not in School or Training

We also observe racial and ethnic disparities in the activities young parents are engaged in. Figure 3 shows the distribution of white, black, and Latinx children under age 13 by whether they have a young parent or not, and among those with young parents, whether the parent was engaged in both work and education or training, only work, only education or training, or no activity. Latinx and black children are more likely to have a young parent (55 and 54 percent, respectively) than white children (36 percent). Further, larger shares of black and Latinx children than white children have a young parent in no activity (18, 20, and 10 percent, respectively). This includes parents choosing to stay home, unemployed parents, and others disconnected from the workforce and education system. Being disconnected from work and education has been shown to be a risk for young parents' future educational and career success (Sick, Spaulding, and Vilter 2019). Latinx children are significantly more likely to have a young parent who only works than white, non-Latinx children (28 percent versus 21 percent). Meanwhile, black children are more likely than other groups to have young parents enrolled in school or training and parents combining school or training and work.

FIGURE 3
Share of All Children under 13 by Child Race and Ethnicity
Distribution across young parents' activities, accounting for children with no young parent

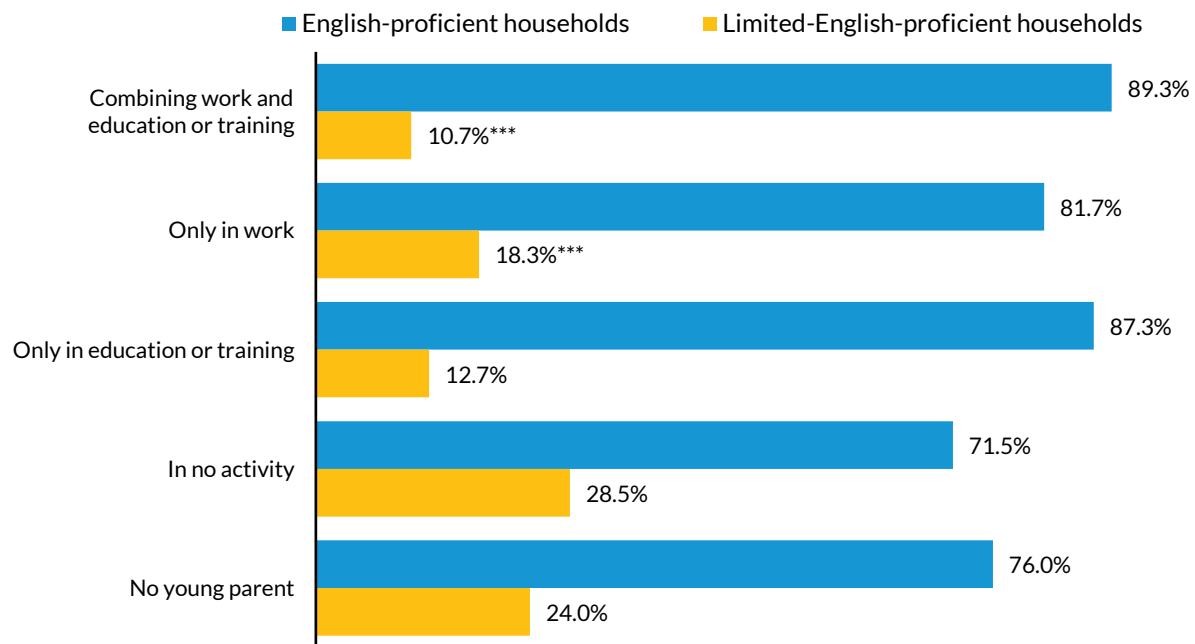


Source: Authors' analysis of National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: A small share of children did not have their race or ethnicity reported and are excluded from this figure.

One potential barrier to pursuing education or training could be language. Latinx children with parents who only work are significantly more likely to live in a household with limited English proficiency¹¹ than children whose parents are combining work and education or training (18.3 percent versus 10.7 percent of all Latinx children under age 13; figure 4). Moreover, a greater share of children in households with limited English proficiency have young parents engaged in no activity at all than children with parents engaged in work, education, or both.

FIGURE 4
Comparison of Latinx Children under 13 Living in Households with English Proficiency versus Households with Limited English Proficiency
By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities, accounting for children with no young parent



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Source: Authors' analysis of National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Note:

*** Estimate differs significantly at the $p < 0.001$ level.

Parents' Work, Education, and Training Schedules

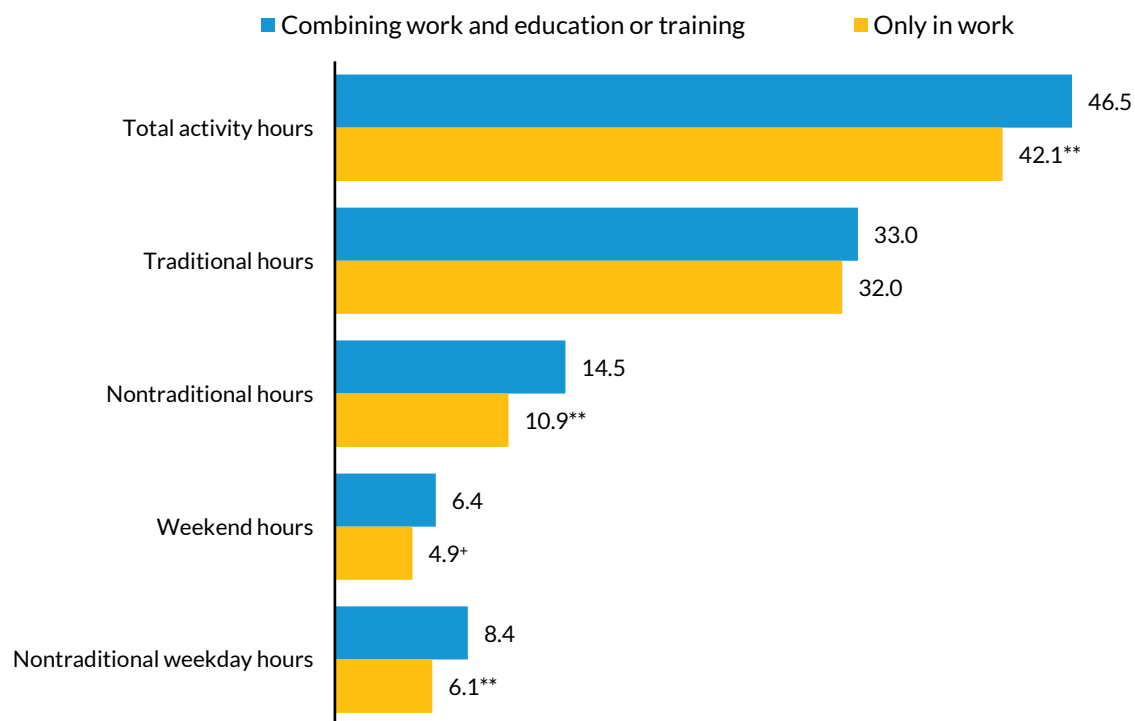
One of the biggest challenges of young parents who work and attend school or training is balancing their complex schedules while parenting. Parents not only have to find time for work and courses; they must also coordinate child care, find time to study, and complete other household responsibilities while still having time and energy to engage with their children. Policymakers, program staff, and other

stakeholders must first understand parents' schedules and how they balance these competing responsibilities to design effective supports for these parents.

Parents Spend Long Hours in Work, Education, and Training, Including Nontraditional Hours

On average, children with a young parent balancing work with education or training find their parents spending more time in work, school, and training than a typical full-time work schedule. They had at least one parent averaging 46.5 total hours a week in work, education, and training activities combined (figure 5). That totals significantly more time than the work hours of parents of children with at least one young parent who only works.

FIGURE 5
Average Hours in Work, Education, or Training Activities for Parents of Children under 13 with at Least One Young Parent
By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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Source: Authors' analysis of National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nontraditional hours are any time outside of Monday to Friday, 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. In two-parent households, the parent who spends more time in work, education, or training activities is the only one reflected.

+/**/** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.1/0.05/0.01$ levels.

Children with a young parent balancing work with education or training had at least one parent spending a substantial amount of time (14.5 hours a week) in these activities during nontraditional hours, when options for formal child care are more limited. Almost 90 percent of children in this group had a parent engaged in these activities during nontraditional hours compared with 66 percent of children with a young parent only engaged in work.

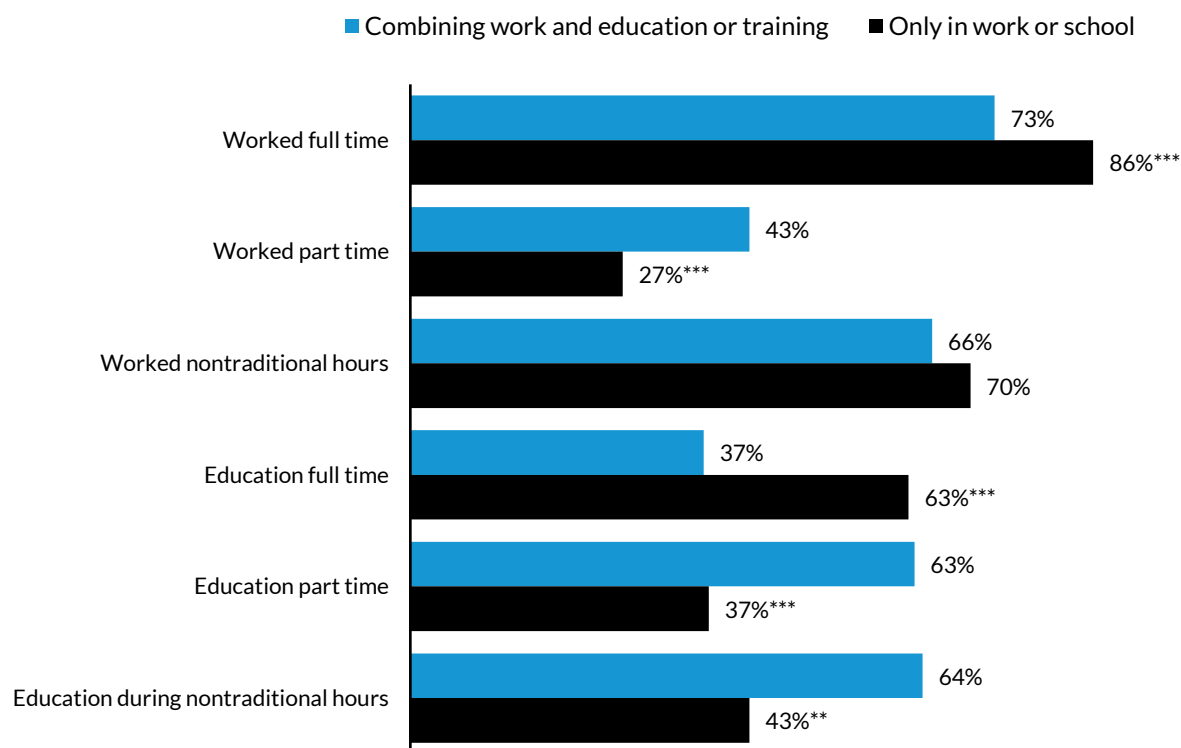
Having two parents in a household may allow a young parent to spend more time working or in school or training because they can coordinate their schedules and share child care responsibilities, or one parent may stay home or otherwise have the primary child care responsibilities. In fact, we find that young parents in two-parent households spend more time in work, education, or training activities than young, single parents (49.1 hours versus 43 hours a week on average; data not shown). Further, among two-parent households with at least one young parent, both parents commonly engage in both work and educational activities (figure A.1). However, having all resident parents engaged in work, education, or training may leave less time for parenting and family engagement with children.

Parents Are More Likely to Work Part Time, Attend Education or Training Part Time, and Participate in Any of These Activities During Nontraditional Hours

Young parents combining work with education or training are engaged in activities for more hours than those who only work, though they are significantly less likely to work full time, or more than 30 hours a week (figure 6). They are also less likely to be in education or training full time (12 hours or more a week) than other young parents only in education or training. Sixty-four percent of children with young parents balancing work with education or training are spending some time in school or training during nontraditional hours in the evenings and on weekends—a significantly higher share than children whose parents are only in education or training.

FIGURE 6

Share of Children under 13 Who Had at Least One Young Parent with Each Type of Schedule
By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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Source: Authors' analysis of National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: We define nontraditional hours as anytime on Saturday or Sunday and any hours outside 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. on weekdays. Full-time work is at least 30 hours a week. Full-time education is at least 12 hours in education or training in a week. Full-time and part-time work are not mutually exclusive; a child could have two young parents, one working full-time and one part-time, so the child is captured in both bars.

/ Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.01/0.001$ levels.

Child Care Use, Hours, and Cost Burden

Although parental employment and educational attainment benefit children in both the short and long term, examining how young parents balance these competing demands with child care is important for understanding potential unwanted consequences for children. Specifically, it is important to understand the types of child care parents are using, how long children are in different care settings, and how young families are paying for care. We explore care use and time spent in care for children under age 13 with at least one young parent combining work with education or training as well as for children with a young parent who only works. We note any differences by child age.

Children Commonly Use Unpaid Relative Care

Most young parents balancing work with education or training (62 percent) use some form of nonparental care, but these arrangements vary widely (figure 7). On average, their children spend 22 hours a week in nonparental care (figure 8). Among children in this group in at least one nonparental care arrangement, the average is 33 hours a week (table A.2). The most commonly used type is unpaid relative care. One-third of children with at least one young parent balancing work with education or training used unpaid relative care at some point during the week, for an average of nine hours total, which accounts for around 40 percent of their total time in nonparental care. The quality, stability, and reliability of such informal care arrangements can vary because caregivers are generally disconnected from the child care regulatory system, although many parents have a preference for informal care because it can be more convenient, flexible, and trusted, especially when provided by relatives (Sandstrom and Chaudry 2012).

Overall patterns are similar for children with a young parent who is only working, with 57 percent spending at least some time in nonparental care (figure 7). However, young parents who are only working are significantly less likely to use unpaid relative care or irregular care, such as a one-time babysitting arrangement. The amount of time children of parents who are only working spend in nonparental care is significantly less than that of children who have a parent balancing work with education or training (18.7 versus 22.2 hours a week on average).

Other commonly used types of nonparental care include center-based and paid, nonrelative home-based care outside the child's home (i.e., family child care). Center-based care includes regular child care centers and other organizational early care and education, such as after-school care for school-age children. About one-fifth of children with a young parent combining work with education or training was in center care at some point during the week, for an average of 5.7 hours. Another one-fifth were in paid care in a nonrelative's home for an average of 4.3 hours a week. We did not find any significant differences in the share of children using these two care types by whether they had at least one young parent combining work with education or training versus only working.

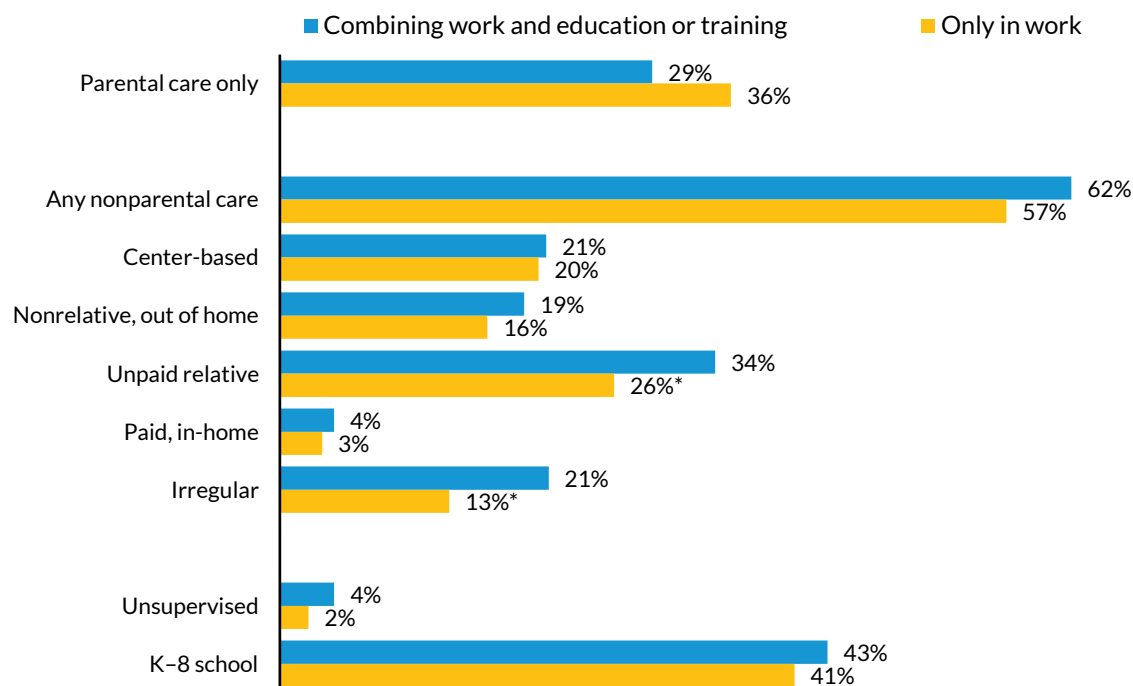
Children with Young Parents Combining Work with School or Training Have More Regular Care Arrangements than Children with Parents Who Only Work

We also examined the number and share of children with multiple care arrangements. Sixty-two percent of children with young parents combining work with education or training versus 57 percent of children with young parents only working had more than one regular arrangement, though this

difference is not statistically significant. But among those with multiple arrangements, children with parents combining work and education or training had significantly more arrangements on average than children with parents only working (2.78 versus 2.51 arrangements).

Overall, children in these two groups appear to be accessing center care and family child care (i.e., more formal care arrangements) at similar rates, but when parents are balancing work and school/training, children have more care arrangements, spend more time in nonparental care overall, and are more likely to use unpaid relative care. We find no group differences in terms of children using only relative care (though sample sizes are too small to report), which suggests that relatives are providing extra care hours to supplement other arrangements children may have (such as center-based preschool).

FIGURE 7
Types of Care Used by Children under Age 13 with at Least One Young Parent
By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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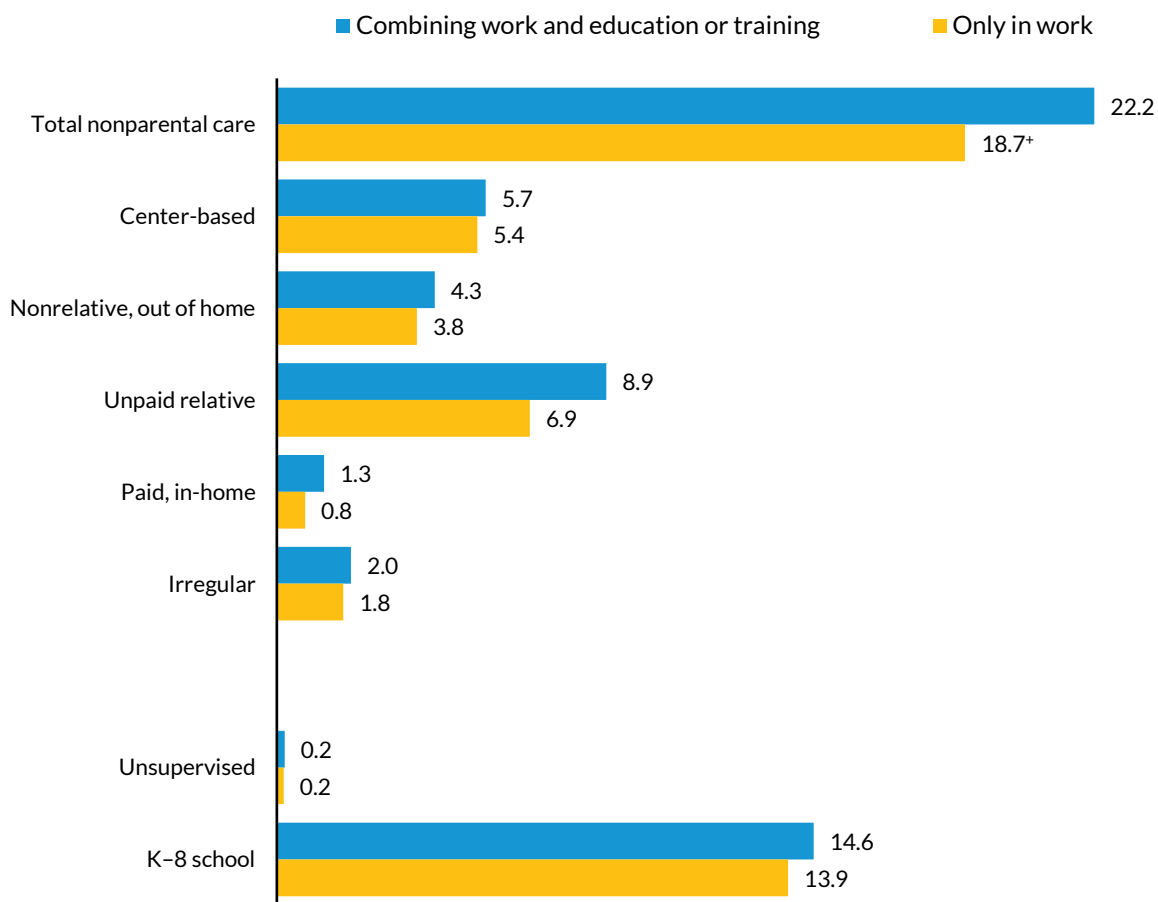
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. An additional 8.4 percent of children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 7.3 percent of children with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded.

* Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.05$ level.

FIGURE 8

Average Hours a Week Spent in Each Care Type by Children under 13 with at Least One Young Parent
By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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Source: Authors' analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. An additional 8.4 percent of children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 7.3 percent of children with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded.

* Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.1$ level.

Time Spent in Nonparental Care and Care Setting Vary by Child Age

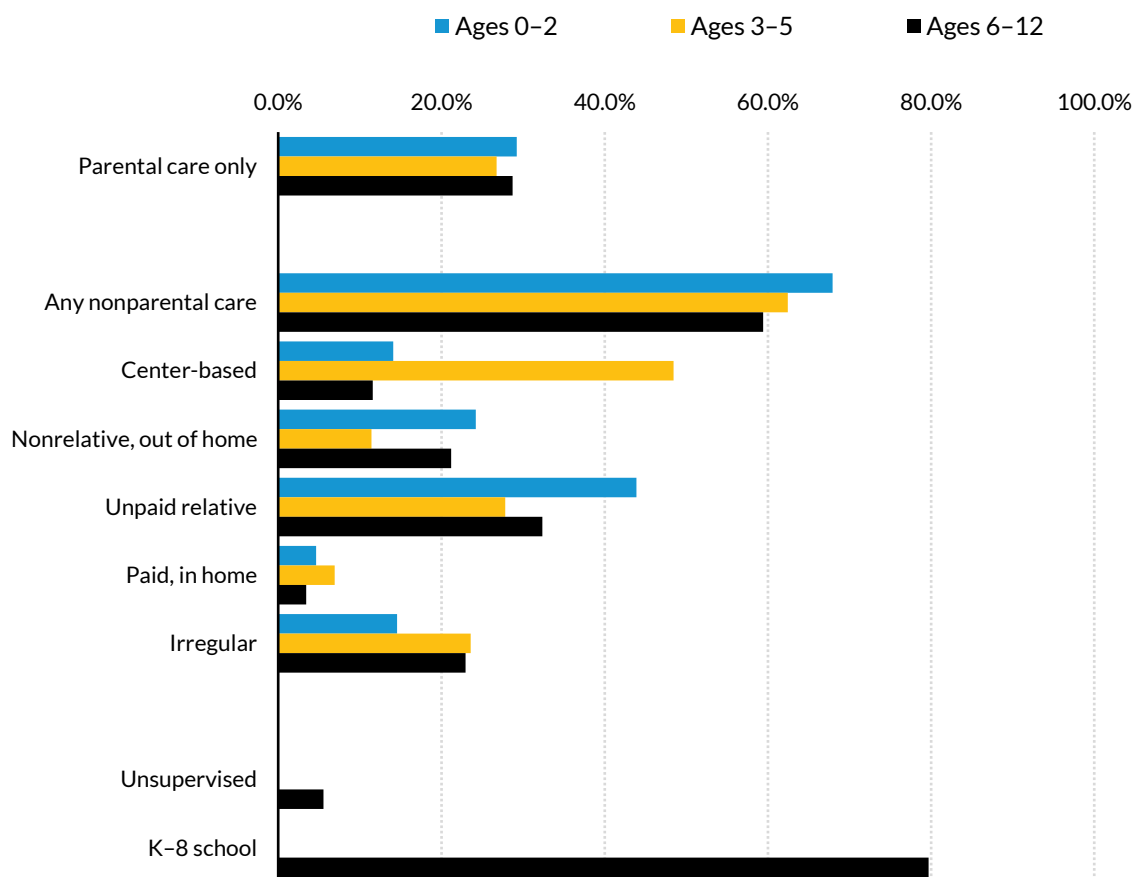
Examining care use by child age is essential because each age group has different care needs and unequal access to different care settings. Not surprisingly, we find that most children ages 6 to 12 are enrolled in school and spend most of their time in school (about 28 hours a week on average; figures 9 and 10). They spend about 16 hours on average on top of that in other nonparental care arrangements.

A smaller share of children ages 3 to 5 are in school (i.e., 4- and 5-year-olds in kindergarten); they spend about 26 hours a week on average in nonparental child care arrangements. Meanwhile, children under age 3 spend about 28 hours a week on average in nonparental care. (See figures A.2 to A.6 for estimates of child care use among children in at least one regular arrangement.)

FIGURE 9

Share of Children under 13 Who Use Each Care Type

Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities, by child's age



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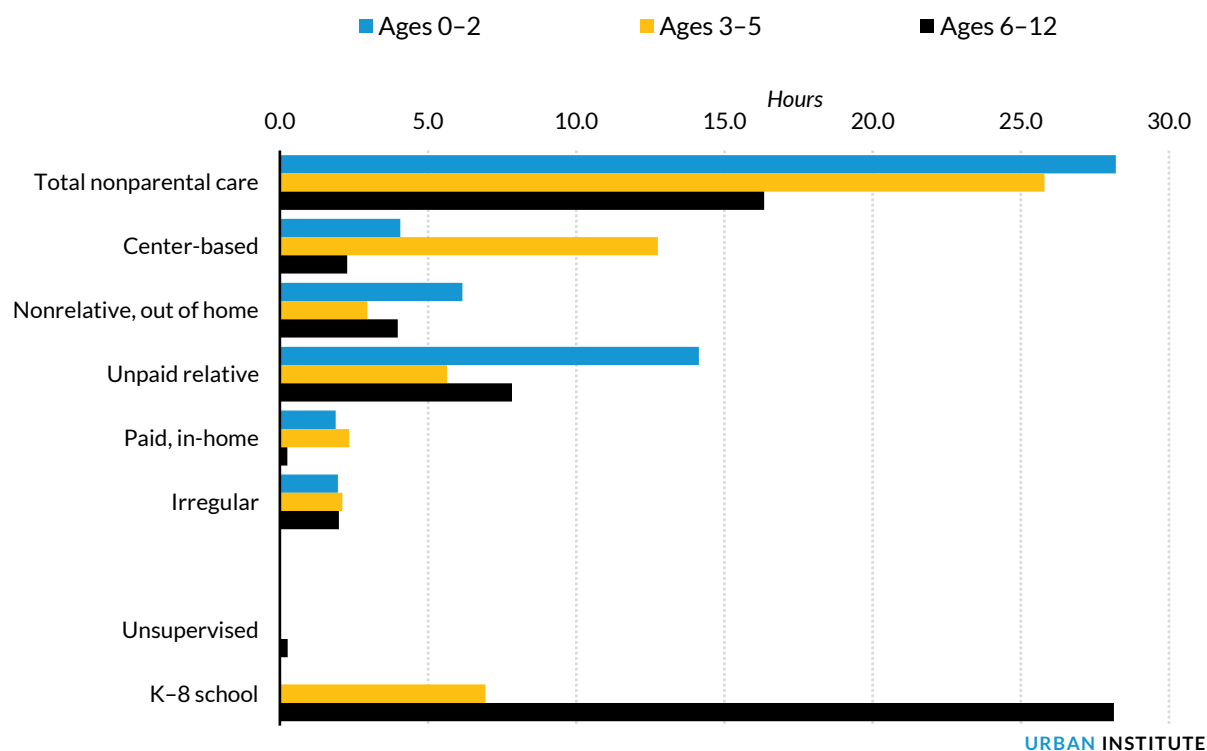
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Some additional values (less than 5 percent of children age 2 and under, less than 10 percent of children ages 3 to 5, and 11.9 percent of children ages 6 to 12 with at least one young parent combining work with education or training) had missing calendar data and were excluded.

FIGURE 10

Average Number of Hours Children under 13 Spend in Each Care Type

Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities, by child's age



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Some additional values (less than 5 percent of children age 2 and under, less than 10 percent of children ages 3 to 5, and 11.9 percent of children ages 6 to 12 with at least one young parent combining work with education or training) had missing calendar data and were excluded.

The type of nonparental care providers also varies by child age given their distinct needs and the availability and willingness of providers to provide care to different ages. Although unpaid relative care is the most common type of nonparental care overall, preschool-age children mainly use center-based care. Young parents of school-age children commonly rely on unpaid relatives and irregular or back-up care arrangements to supplement care needs when their children are not in school. Meanwhile, infants and toddlers are primarily in unpaid relative care and paid nonrelative care outside their home, and they are least likely to be in center-based or paid in-home care, such as a nanny or babysitter (figure 10). The limited use of centers and paid in-home care for infants and toddlers is likely because of a combination of cost and, for centers, limited supply and access to care options that meet their scheduling needs. Parents may also prefer infant and toddler care from relatives they trust who can be more flexible (Sandstrom and Chaudry 2012). These patterns by care type and age are similar for children whose young parents only work, though they have several significant differences we discuss next.

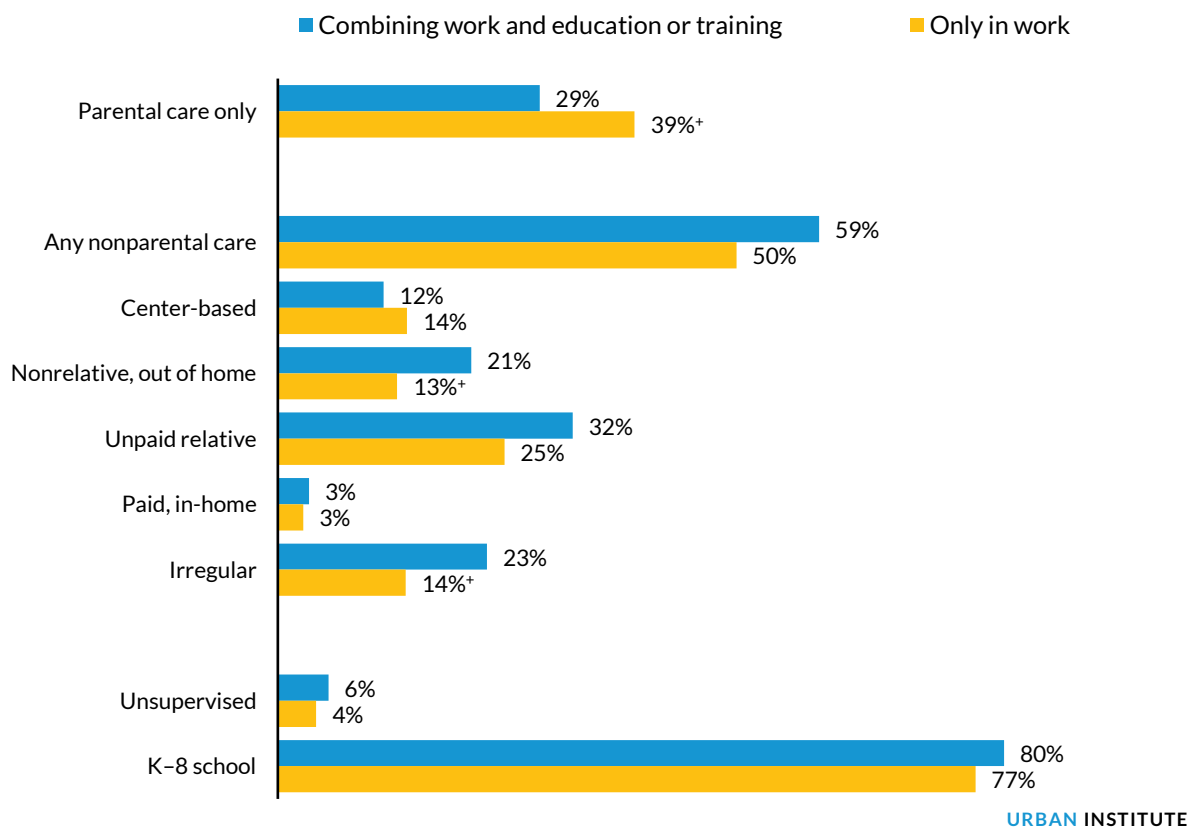
School-Age Children Experience High Rates of Irregular Care Arrangements and Commonly Use Home-Based Care outside School Hours

Compared with school-age children with a young parent only engaged in work, those with parents working and in school or training are more likely to have irregular care arrangements (14 percent versus 23 percent, respectively) and be in the care of paid, nonrelatives outside their home, such as a home-based neighbor or family child care provider (13 percent versus 21 percent, respectively; figure 11). This pattern could reflect parents' greater needs for before- and after-school care for their school-age children because of their extended hours in work, education, and training.

FIGURE 11

Types of Care Used by School-Age Children with at Least One Young Parent

By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. An additional 11.9 percent of children ages 6 to 12 with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 10.5 percent of children ages 6 to 12 with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded.

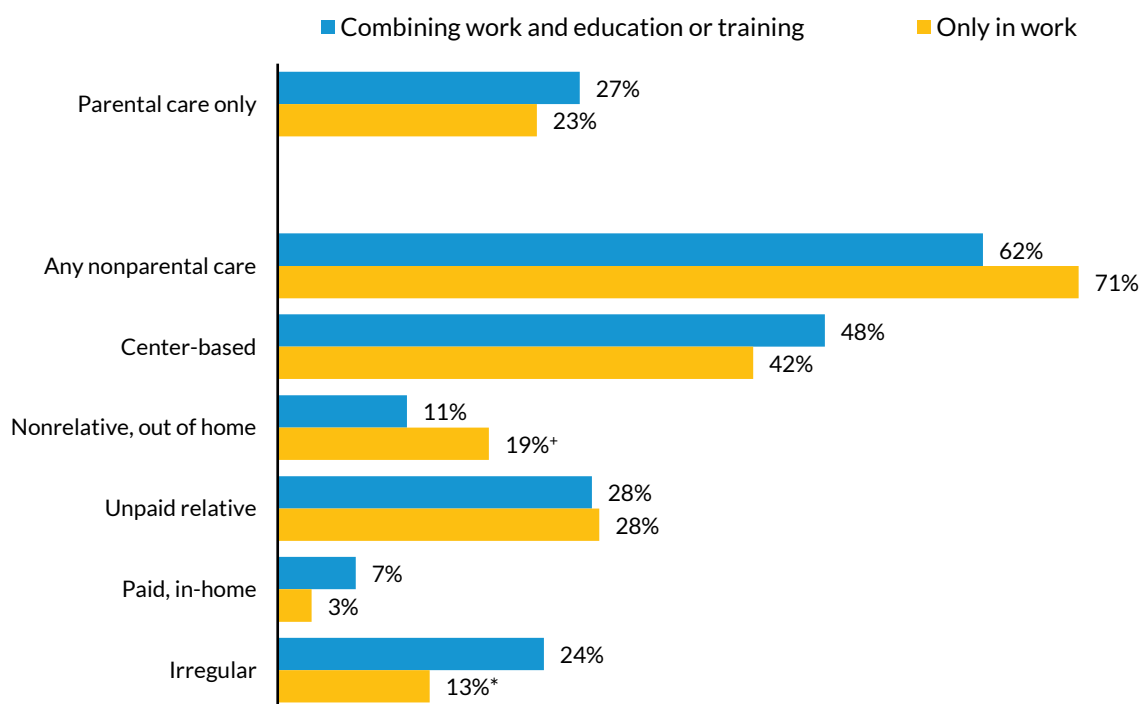
+ Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.1$ level.

Preschoolers Use Center-Based Care More than Other Care Types

About 48 percent of children ages 3 to 5 (not yet in kindergarten) with young parents combining work with education or training are enrolled in center-based care. This share is slightly higher (but not significantly different) than the 42 percent of children whose young parents only work (figure 12). These care arrangements include preschool and early learning programs that help prepare children for school regardless of a need for child care to support parental work, education, or training. Estimates show that about 45 percent of all children ages 3 to 5 not yet in kindergarten are in some form of center-based early care and education program (data not shown), suggesting children of young parents have similar enrollment levels as other children their age.

FIGURE 12

Types of Care Used by Children Ages 3 to 5 Not Yet in Kindergarten with at Least One Young Parent
By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Some additional values (less than 10 percent of children ages 3 to 5 with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 6.2 percent of children ages 3 to 5 with at least one young parent in work only) had missing calendar data and were excluded.

/ Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.1/0.05$ levels.

Similar to school-age children, about 24 percent of children of young parents balancing work and school/training experienced an irregular care arrangement in the past week compared with 13 percent of children with young parents who only work.

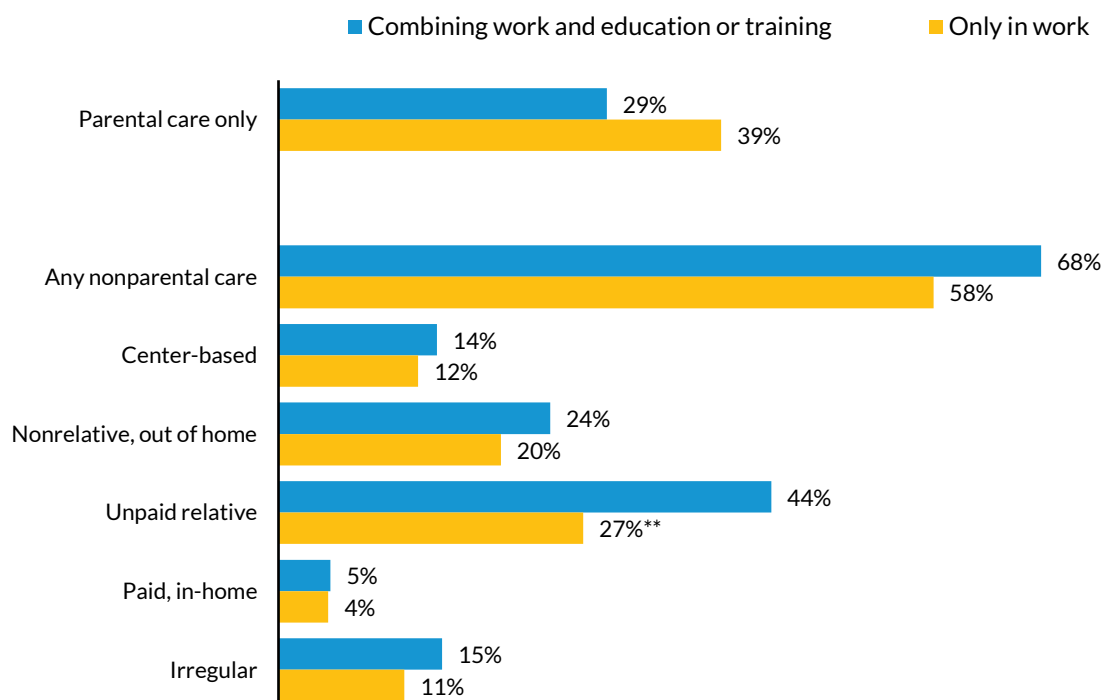
Infants and Toddlers Whose Young Parents Combine Work with Education or Training Experience More Hours of Nonparental Care and Rely More on Relatives

The biggest group difference observed is among infants and toddlers. We find a significant difference in the total hours infants and toddlers spend in nonparental care a week (28.2 hours when parents combine work and education or training versus 20.4 hours when parents only work). During those care hours, infants and toddlers are more likely to be in unpaid relative care when parents are combining work and education/training versus only working (44 percent versus 27 percent; figure 13).

FIGURE 13

Types of Care Used by Children Age 0-2 with At Least One Young Parent

By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. Some additional values (less than 5 percent of children age 2 and under with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and less than 5 percent of children age 2 and under with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded.

** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.01$ level.

However, these two groups access other types of care arrangements at relatively similar rates. The combination of findings suggests parents are relying on relatives more often and for more hours for very young children on top of more formal child care providers. This may be related to the additional time parents spend in activities, which often fall during nontraditional hours, when fewer formal providers are available but relatives can provide care.

Child Care Use Varies by Family Demographics and Nontraditional Hours

We analyze the patterns of child care use by several key demographic characteristics. A better understanding of these subgroup differences in care use among young parents balancing work with education or training, as well as the reasons behind them, can help target policies to support these groups.¹²

FAMILY STRUCTURE

Single parents balancing work with education or training rely heavily on nonparental care because they do not have another parent with whom to share child care responsibilities. We find that children with single parents spent almost twice as much time on average in nonparental care than children in two-parent households that have at least one parent combining work with education or training (figures A.7 and A.8). This difference is largely driven by their use of unpaid relative care, potentially substituting for care that a second parent might have otherwise provided.

HOUSEHOLD INCOME

Most of the difference in care use by income is in low-income households' lower use of center-based care and greater use of unpaid relative care, although these differences are not statistically significant (figures A.9 and A.10). Children's length of time in different care types also does not significantly differ by income (except for paid, in-home care such as babysitting, which is higher for low-income families).

PARENT'S HIGHEST EDUCATION LEVEL

Among children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training, those with less educated parents spend less time in nonparental care (figures A.11 and A.12). This difference is driven by children with more highly educated parents using significantly more center-based care, which may reflect the ability of parents with more education to seek out, access, and afford center-based care. Parents balancing work with education or training with no more than a high school education are significantly more likely to rely on unpaid relative care than parents with more education. Their children spend an average of three to four more hours in unpaid relative care than children with parents balancing work with education or training who have at least some college credit.

CHILD RACE AND ETHNICITY

Among children with a young parent balancing work with education or training, black, non-Latinx children are more likely to use nonparental care, particularly center-based and unpaid relative care, than white, non-Latinx children (figures A.13 and A.14). Black, non-Latinx children also spend significantly more hours in nonparental care than white, non-Latinx children with young parents in similar activities, potentially because of their higher incidence of living in single-parent families. Most of this difference is driven by black children's use of center-based and unpaid relative care: they spend almost twice as much time in each of these care types as white, non-Latinx children. Latinx children have similar patterns of care use as white, non-Latinx children, except they are significantly less likely to have an irregular care arrangement.

CHILD CARE DURING NONTRADITIONAL HOURS

Because they are more likely to be at work, school, or in training during nontraditional hours, parents combining work with education or training rely more heavily on nonparental care during nontraditional hours than parents who only work (figures A.15 and A.16). The most commonly used nonparental care type during nontraditional hours, just as during traditional hours, is unpaid relative care. Unpaid relative care accounts for over two-thirds of the time children spent in nonparental care during nontraditional hours. The reliance on unpaid relative care reflects the limited availability of more formal care options or parental preference.

Children with a young parent combining work with education or training are also significantly more likely to be in center-based and irregular care during nontraditional hours than children with a parent who only works. However, these care types account for a small amount of children's time in part because of the relatively low availability of these more formal child care arrangements during these times.

Most Children Are in Arrangements Requiring Out-of-Pocket Care Costs, and the Financial Burden is High for Single Parents Who Must Pay

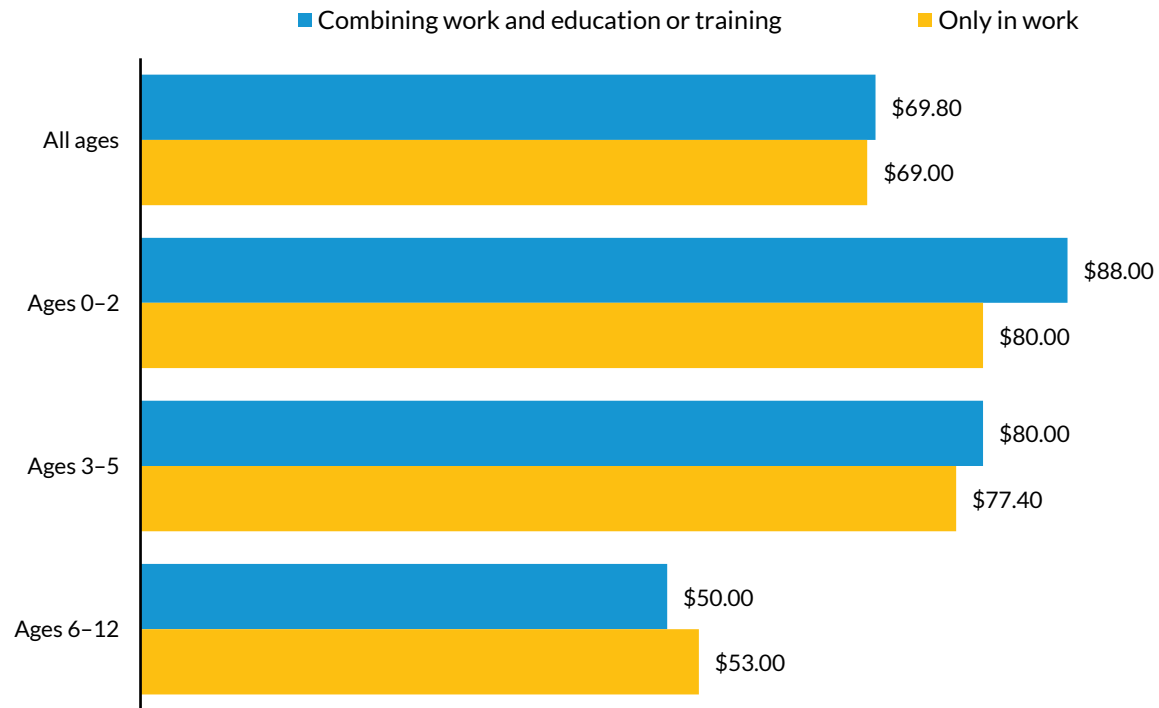
Here, we examine how much young parents are paying out of pocket for child care, recognizing that some children are in the care of unpaid relatives, but the majority have some type of paid arrangement (meaning the care is not free but is paid for by some entity, such as the parent, a family member, an employer, or a government agency). We know costs vary by child age and care type. For this analysis, we are most interested in identifying the child care burden on young parents and how much more parents may need to pay when participating in education or training in addition to working.

Typical weekly payments for child care vary widely. Just under half of children (46.1 percent) with a young parent combining work with education or training who use a paid care arrangement incur no out-of-pocket costs themselves. For example, some children receive a full child care subsidy or scholarship, and some are enrolled in a publicly funded program such as prekindergarten or Head Start.

For the half who pay, the median reported weekly payment per child is \$69.80 (figure 14). This amount is slightly higher than the weekly payments for children with a young parent in work only (\$69.00), but the difference is not statistically different. Figure 14 reflects median weekly payments regardless of the number of hours in care. Families paying full-time care rates in a regulated facility or a high hourly rate to a regular babysitter may spend much more than the median, which includes children spending only a few hours a week in a paid care arrangement.

FIGURE 14
Median Weekly Out-of-Pocket Costs Per Child Below Age 13 With a Young Parent among Children in a Paid Arrangement

By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities and child's age



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Figures are the weekly median per child payment for children with at least one paid nonparental care arrangement that required some out-of-pocket costs.

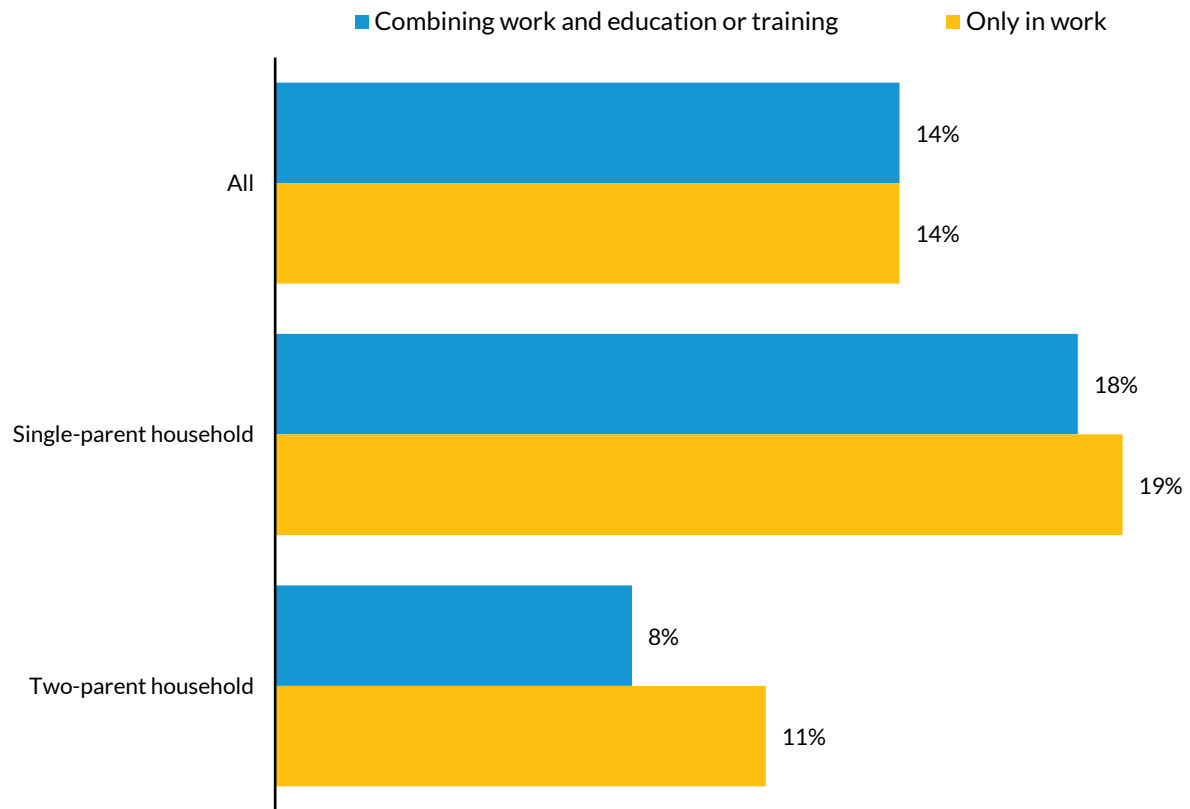
The reported out-of-pocket costs account for any child care assistance the family receives. NSECE survey respondents report the types of assistance they receive from government agencies, employers, local community programs, family and friends, and other sources. Among young parents combining work with school or training, the share with children in paid types of care receiving any assistance is quite small, ultimately subsidizing care for less than 9 percent of their children.

Among young parents combining work with education or training, those with an infant are the most likely to have any out-of-pockets costs, and their median weekly payment is the highest among the three age groups at \$88.00.

FIGURE 15

Share of Household Income Spent on Total Child Care Costs by Family Structure

By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities and family structure



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Estimates are the median child care burden (i.e., the share of the household income spent on care for all children) for children that had any paid nonparental care and any out-of-pocket costs. The difference between two-parent and single-parent households is statistically significant at the $p < 0.05$ level.

We estimate that the median child care burden (i.e., the share of the household income spent on care for all children) for families with a young parent balancing work with education or training was 14.0 percent; the federal government recommends that a family spend no more than 7 percent of their income on child care. Overall, 54 percent of these families exceed this recommendation, and nearly two-fifths (42 percent) spend 20 percent or more of their income on child care. Although these families are not paying more out of pocket than all families with a child under age 13 (median weekly payment of \$69.80 per child versus \$80.00), their median child care burden is higher (14 percent versus 11 percent). The median burden is also much higher in single-parent households (18 percent) and lower in two-parent households (8 percent). National estimates show that most families have a high child-care burden, especially when they have a single parent, an infant, or multiple children, and when they use center care, which is generally more expensive than home-based care (Child Care Aware 2018).

Discussion and Implications

Children with young parents balancing work with education or training are a unique population that faces some potential challenges as well as possible long-term gains. Children born to young parents are more likely to face disadvantages because of their single-parent family structure, low income, and low parental education level. If their parents are successful in completing high school and obtaining a postsecondary degree or career training, those parents will have more opportunity, and their children can ultimately benefit from increased financial security. But the challenge of juggling complex work, education, and training schedules and the pressures of parenting a young child can lead parents to delay or discontinue their schooling or training. Although not examined in this study, parental stress and burnout can also contribute negatively to their interactions with their children. These potential barriers could produce short-term detriments for young children as their parents work to further their education and training.

This study examines two aspects of this balancing act: (1) how much time parents who are both working and in education or training spend engaged in these activities, and (2) how they care for their children during this time. We find that parents balancing work with education or training contribute long hours to these activities, typically more than a 40-hour full-time schedule. Nearly all spend some time on these activities during nontraditional hours (beyond 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. on weekdays) by either working or taking classes during evenings and weekends.

About two-thirds rely on nonparental care arrangements while they are working and in education or training, and rates are higher among single parents. Their children are most commonly cared for by unpaid relatives, especially among infants, during nontraditional hours, and among children in single-parent households where another parent is not available to share daily caregiving responsibilities. Preschoolers, however, are commonly enrolled in center-based care, which likely reflects parental preferences as well as greater availability of early childhood programs for three- to five-year-old children in most communities. Compared to children with young parents who only work, infants and toddlers with parents who combine work and education or training spend longer hours in nonparental care, and a greater share of older children with such parents experience irregular care.

The findings point to the important role of relative caregivers who appear to be supplementing more formal care arrangements and serving as primary providers for very young children. Previous research shows that parents often choose home-based care because of trust and shared culture, language, and values (Porter et al. 2010) but also out of convenience and to best meet parents'

schedules (Sandstrom and Chaudry 2012). Limited supply and high cost of child care centers is another main reason low-income parents turn to home-based care (Chaudry et al. 2011). Nationally, almost twice as many children age 5 and under receive care in home-based settings than receive it in centers (Tonyan, Paulsell, and Shivers 2017). Less than one-third of home-based caregivers are paid for their services (Tonyan, Paulsell, and Shivers 2017). Almost half of the unpaid home-based providers (e.g., relatives and neighbors) have another job, which limits their ability as caretakers (NSECE Project Team 2016). Though these unpaid providers offer significant support to parents, fewer resources are available for home-based providers to support their training and quality of care (Tonyan, Paulsell, and Shivers 2017). Many face challenges from isolation, physical exhaustion, and job stress (Porter et al. 2010).

We also found that more than one in five children with parents combining work and education or training had an irregular care arrangement in the past week—a caregiver that the parent used for fewer than five hours across the week. Although the data do not provide information on the reason for this care (e.g., whether it is inconsistent, sporadic, or experienced because of another arrangement falling through), it could disrupt a child’s routine and lead to stress for parents and children. We need to learn more the nature of these arrangements and their potential effects. Having a back-up care option is important in case of emergencies. Moreover, a recurring, stable care arrangement, such as a neighbor caring for a child after school every Monday, could be classified as irregular because of its short duration (we find an average of two hours a week), but it could be beneficial and supportive to the family.

Although some families reported not paying out of pocket for care (using free arrangements or qualifying for 100 percent assistance from a government agency or scholarship program), the child care burden is high for some families, totaling more than 14 percent of family income. The burden is even higher for single-parent families.

The results suggest that young parents juggling work with education or training have complex child care needs. This implies that taking steps to ensure that their child care needs are addressed is not only important to support their ability to engage in these activities and to support their children’s development, but that the solutions may be multifaceted. We find several implications for this:

1. **Children of young parents juggling work with education or training are in nonparental care for more hours than children whose young parents are working.** This suggests that ensuring that children have access to care that meets their developmental needs is particularly important for supporting their healthy growth.

2. **These parents are likely to be engaged in these activities during at least some nontraditional hours when traditional child care programs are not available.** Finding quality care during nontraditional hours is challenging for many parents, because few regulated child care programs are available during nontraditional hours (Sandstrom et al. 2019). This likely contributes to parents' high use of informal care arrangements and may contribute to their greater use of irregular arrangements (those used for less than five hours a week).

Although these parents clearly need child care options during hours that regulated programs are not open, understanding what this means for these parents as well as useful policy strategies involves exploring the following questions:

- » **What hours are parents most likely to need care?** Recent research shows that exploring the actual hours that parents are working or participating in education or training is important because this has implications for the kinds of child care options likely available (Sandstrom et al. 2019).
- » **What kinds of care do parents want for their children during these times?** We need to learn more about the options that these parents want and need during these hours. Clearly, many parents balancing work with education or training are relying on relative care and irregular care options as part of their strategy to make up these additional hours, but we do not know enough to determine whether these options work well for parents and children or for which parents and children they work well.

2. **Young parents juggling work with education or training are more likely to use irregular care arrangements.** The extent to which these families rely upon caregiving arrangements that are less than five hours a week is also an area that is somewhat different than other families. Again, this is an area worth further exploration because these data do not provide enough information to determine what needs to be done. To the extent that these are regular and reliable arrangements (for example, a relative or friend picking up the child every day at child care or school and dropping them off at home), this may not be a concern. However, if these are irregular or unreliable arrangements, they are likely causing problems for both the parent and the child. The answer is probably a mixture, suggesting that program staff working to support parents in this area should help identify the arrangements parents are using and whether those arrangements are stable and parents are happy with them. That way, parents can seek help accessing the child care that supports their work, education, and training activities, and their children's healthy development.

3. **Relative caregivers play an important supporting role for young parents broadly, especially parents balancing work with education or training.** Having relatives available to provide child care may be a key support for parents looking to pursue education or training while also working. Parents who do not have these supports may find it harder to pursue multiple work, education, and training activities at once because of child care obligations. In some cases, a family may not have relatives nearby or any trusted relatives available and willing to care for children.

The high use of relatives as a main source of care suggests a need to better understand families' circumstances and care choices and whether they are based on preference, convenience, cost, limited alternatives, or other factors. Are families able to access formal early care and education programs but rely on relatives to cover hours when formal programs are closed? Or do families feel they have no better alternatives? Ultimately, all parents should have the right to access the care they feel best meets their families' needs. Relatives may not have the availability and reliability parents need, and the quality of relative care can vary greatly. If used full time or as the only arrangement, children may be missing out on early learning opportunities. Because relative caregivers are generally not part of the child care regulatory system, relatively less is known about them. They may be burdened by care responsibilities and could benefit from local community supports, such as free trainings through child care resource and referral agencies on child health, home safety, and child development and nutrition. Adapting early childhood home visiting program curricula to relative caregivers could also offer benefits by promoting positive adult-child interactions and knowledge of child development and by helping to eliminate home-safety hazards and risks of child maltreatment.

4. **Young parents are often working to help pay for their education and bear high costs of child care, but they may face challenges getting child care assistance.** Many of the young families we examined had low incomes. Even though most relied on unpaid relatives for at least part of the time, some still incurred a significant financial burden associated with child care (i.e., spending 20 percent or more of their income on care across all children). This suggests that many young parents would benefit from being able to access child care assistance. Although some of these families may already get assistance, however, such assistance may not be available to them for several reasons:
 - » **They may not be eligible for child care assistance under state rules.** States have the authority in the Child Care and Development Fund (the nation's main child care assistance

program) to set their eligibility rules within federal parameters. Several elements of state rules may affect whether working parents who are in education or training are eligible:

a) Requirements for working a minimum number of hours: Working part time or having varied hours may affect eligibility for child care subsidies in states with a high requirement for minimum work hours. Twenty states, four US territories, and the District of Columbia require a minimum number of work hours (ranging from 15 to 30) for subsidy eligibility (CCDF Policies Database 2019).

b) Requirements applying to education and training: States have a variety of rules affecting whether parents who are in education and training can get assistance. A recent analysis of Child Care and Development Fund eligibility rules found that although almost every state allows at least some workforce development activities when determining Child Care and Development Fund eligibility, most states have additional requirements for eligibility, such as on degrees, vocation, time, performance, or qualifying institutions (Minton, Tran, and Dwyer 2019).

- » **Even if eligible, they may not get assistance.** Child care subsidies reach only 15 percent of eligible families (Chien 2019), which means that parents who are eligible may apply but not be able to get assistance because of inadequate funding.
- » **Other funding sources are also inadequate.** Although other programs can help this population, they also have limited availability. Programs such as Head Start and state prekindergarten programs are usually open only during the school day (sometimes not even a full school day) and school year, and they are primarily available to children ages 3 to 4. School-age child care investments are inadequate to meet the need for school-age care (Afterschool Alliance 2014).

These issues point to the need to (a) expand access to financial assistance for parents balancing work with education or training and (b) expand access and eligibility for child care subsidies to cover the cost of care for more parents and during any time parents spend in work, school, or training activities.

5. **Education and training programs can take steps to help meet the child care needs of the young families they serve.** The scope of the child care needs facing these young families suggests that education and training providers may consider actively working to support these families' needs. Previous research has shown how few college campuses have on-site child care facilities, and most have extensive waiting lists (IWPR 2016a). Further, campus child care might not meet the needs of families who combine work with education or training and need to secure

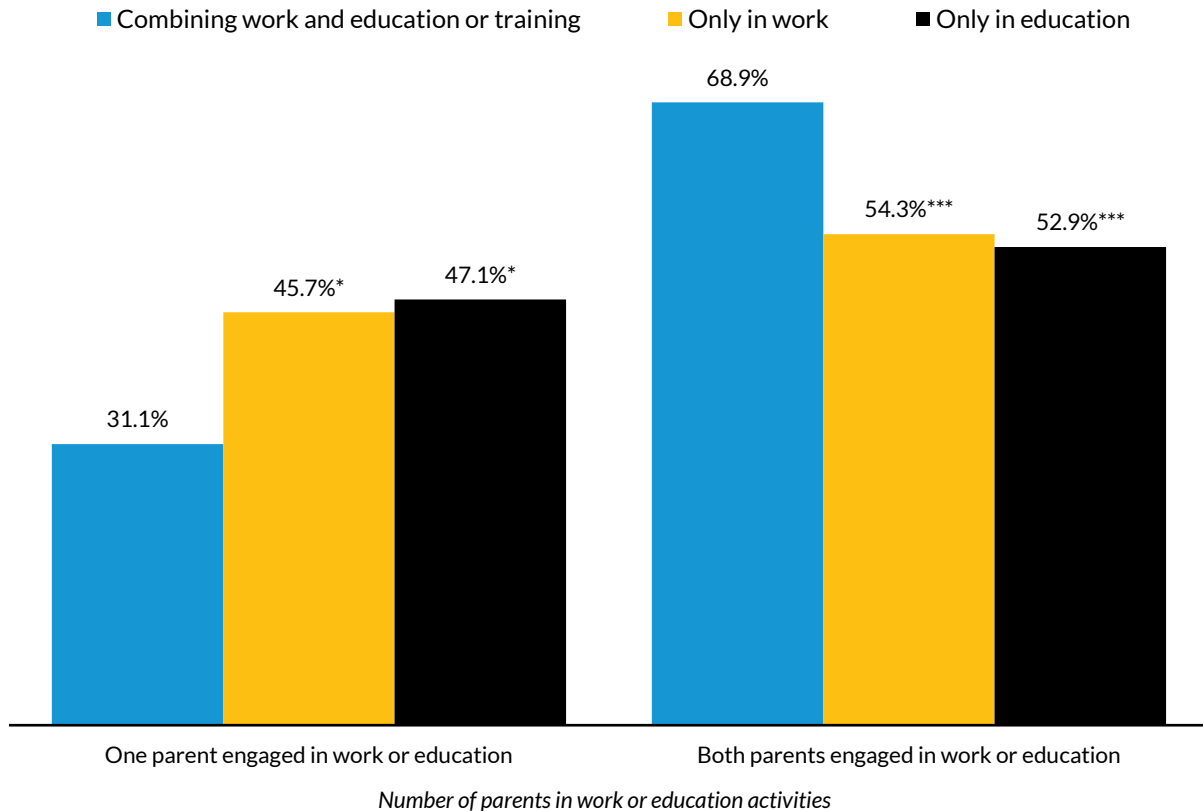
care during work hours and ensure continuous care for their children (Adams, Spaulding, and Heller 2015). A review of 17 programs that work to help parents who need child care for education and training finds some common strategies: (a) assess the child care needs of the target population and identify partners to help address those needs; (b) structure and schedule education and training activities to facilitate access to child care; (c) assess client child care needs as part of intake and training, and provide ongoing support; (d) help parents understand and find child care options in their community; (e) help parents access subsidies to offset the cost of care; and (f) facilitate access to a supply of affordable care (Adams, Spaulding, and Heller 2015).

As these families work hard to get ahead, systems are needed to ensure they have sufficient supports to promote their children's development and well-being. Findings suggest the child care and workforce development systems can do more to meet their needs, but more information is needed to figure out how to best target supports and resources.

Appendix: Additional Figures

FIGURE A.1

Share of Children with One Parent versus Two Parents Engaged in Work, Education, or Training Activities for Children under 13 Living in Two-Parent Households with at Least One Young Parent
By young parent(s) participation in work and education or training activities



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Source: Authors' analysis of National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

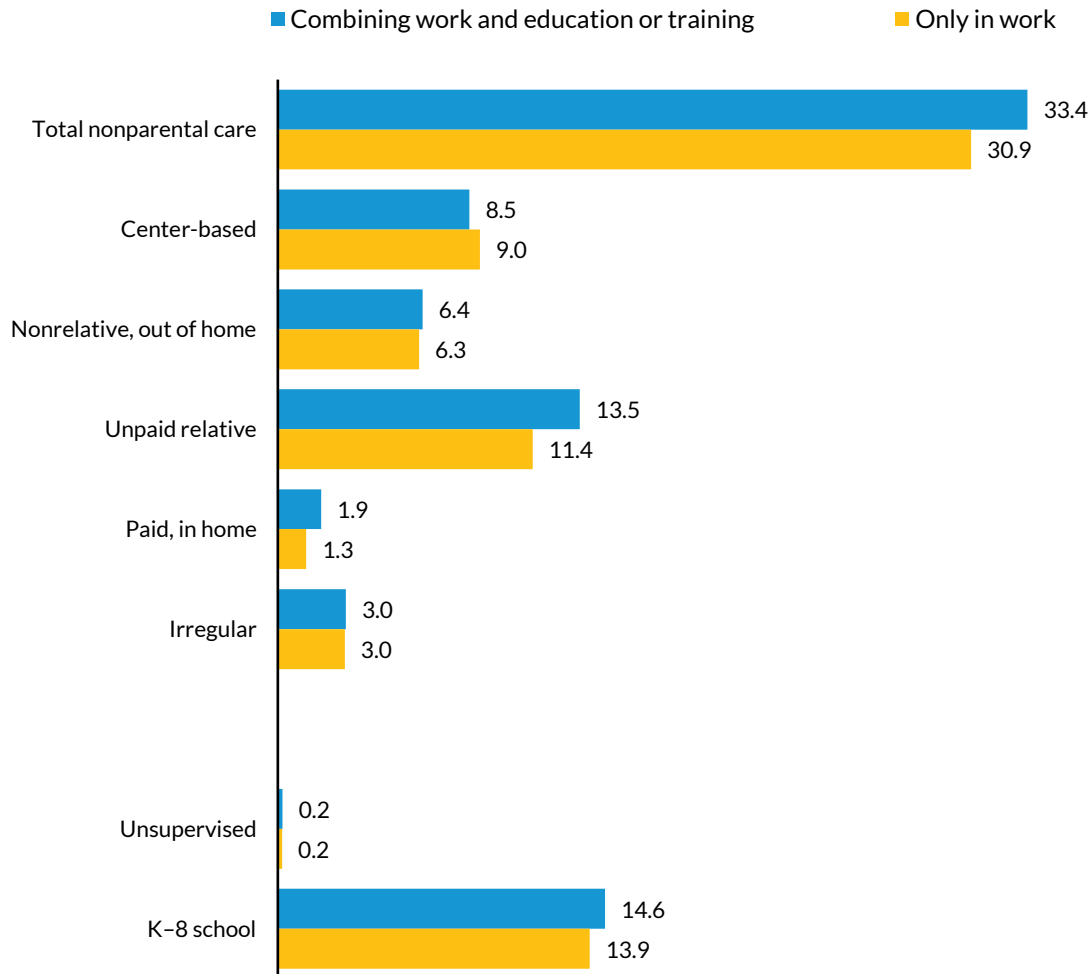
Notes: */**/** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.05/0.01/0.001$ levels.

Figures A.2 through A.6 show the share of children in different care types and the average number of hours children spent in different care types among children who use any nonparental care.

FIGURE A.2

Average Hours a Week Spent in Each Care Type for Children under 13 with at Least One Young Parent, among Those Spending at Least Some Time in Nonparental Care

By young parent(s) participation in work and education or training activities



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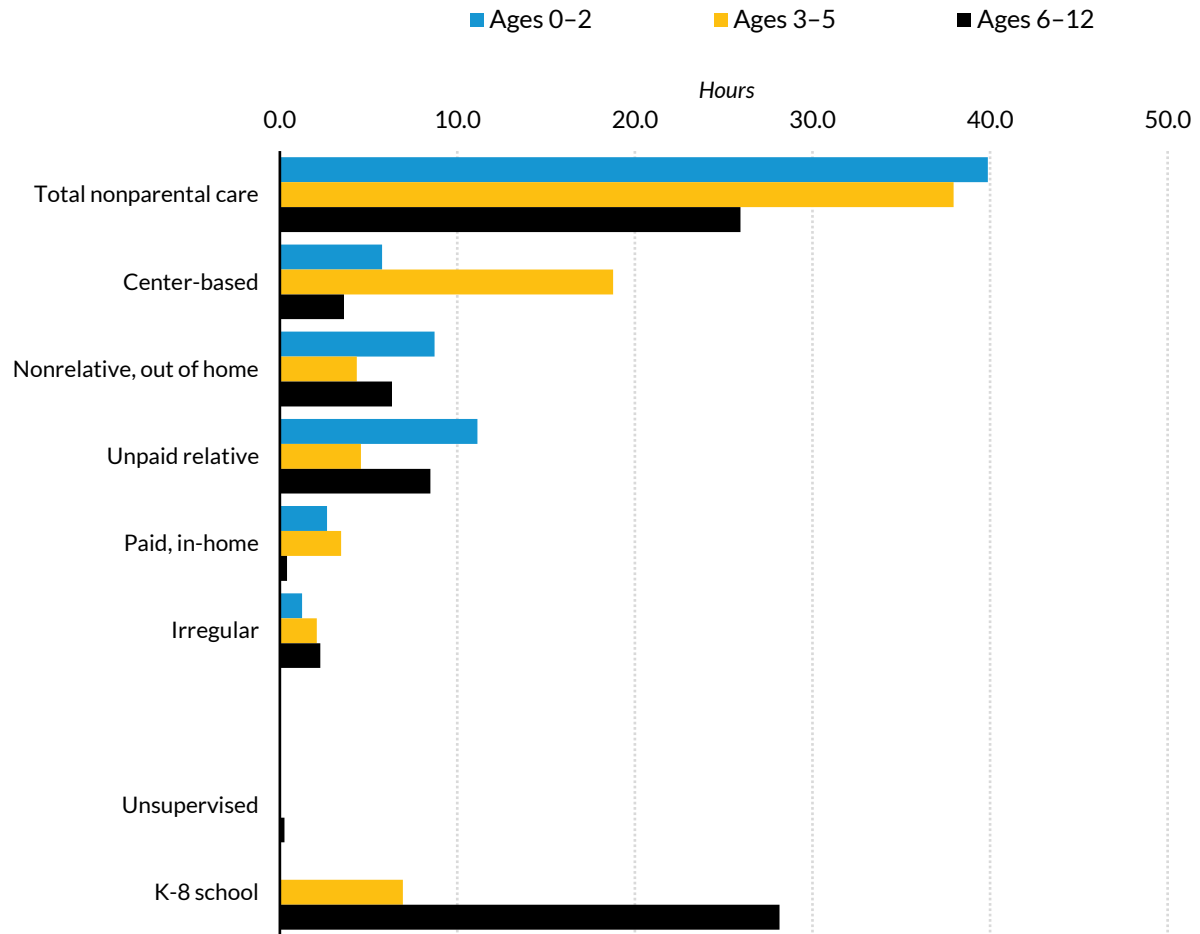
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. An additional 8.4 percent of children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 7.3 percent of children with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded.

FIGURE A.3

Average Number of Hours Children under 13 Spend in Each Care Type, among Children in Nonparental Care

Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities, by child's age



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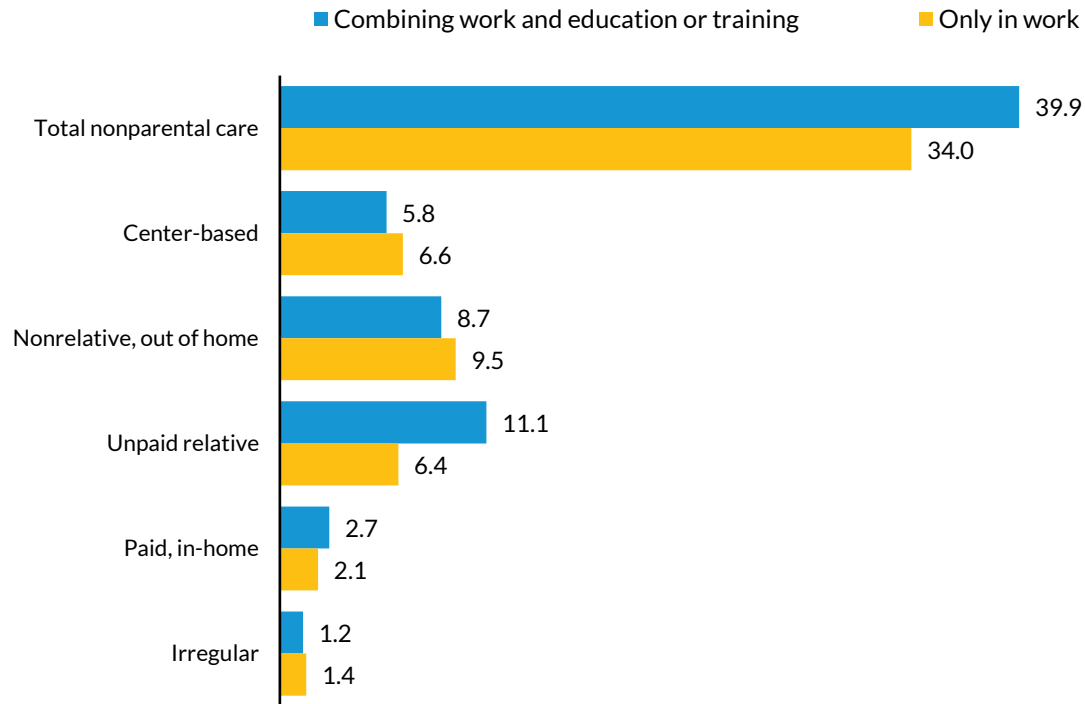
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Some additional values (less than 5 percent of children age 2 and under, less than 10 percent of children ages 3 to 5, and 11.9 percent of children ages 6 to 12 with at least one young parent combining work with education or training) had missing calendar data and were excluded.

FIGURE A.4

Average Number of Hours Children Age 2 and under Spend in Each Care Type, among Children in Nonparental Care

By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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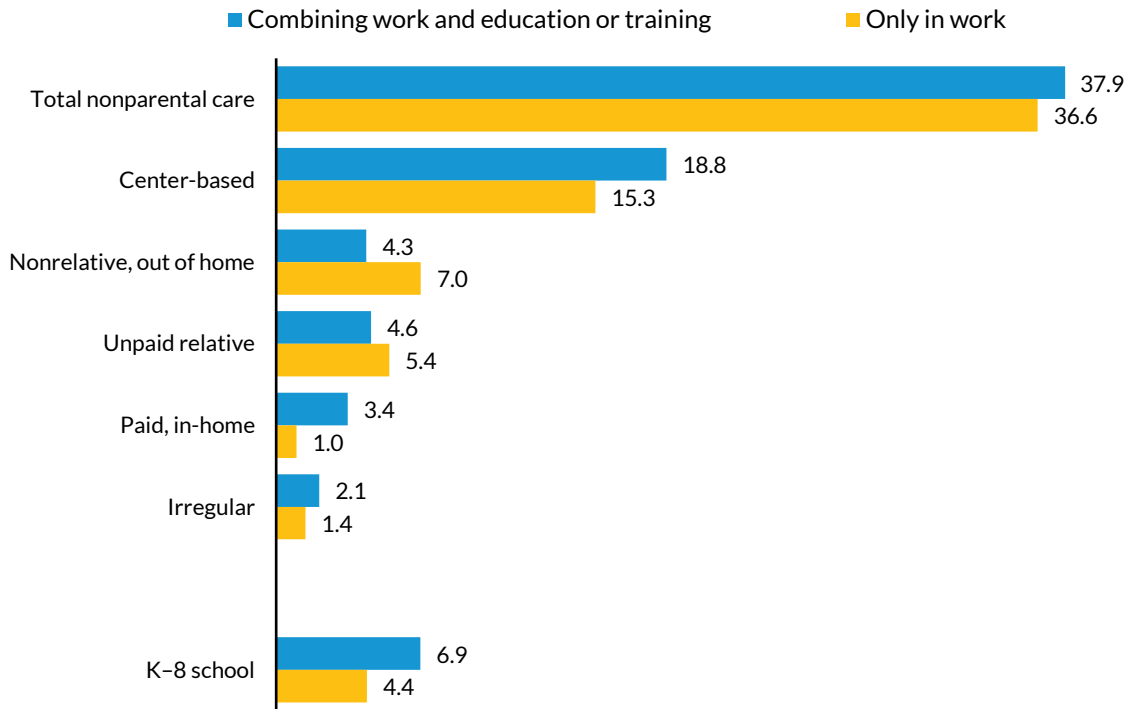
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Children age 0-2 did not spend time unsupervised or in K-8 school. Some additional values (less than 5 percent of children age 2 and under with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and less than 5 percent of children age 2 and under with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded.

FIGURE A.5

Average Number of Hours Children Ages 3 to 5 Spend in Each Care Type, among Children in Nonparental Care

By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



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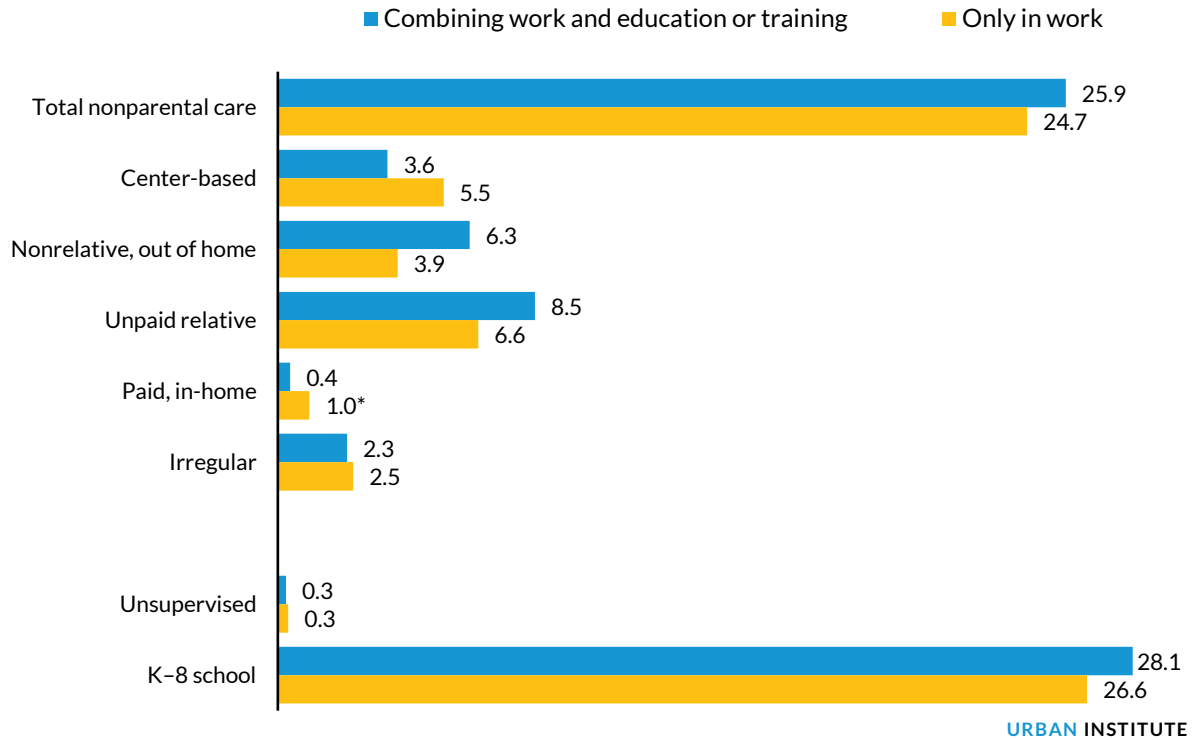
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Some additional values (less than 10 percent of children ages 3 to 5 with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 6.2 percent of children ages 3 to 5 with at least one young parent in work only) had missing calendar data and were excluded.

FIGURE A.6

Average Number of Hours Children Ages 6 to 12 Spend in Each Care Type, among Children in Nonparental Care

By young parents' participation in work and education or training activities



Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. An additional 11.9 percent of children ages 6 to 12 with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 10.5 percent of children ages 6 to 12 with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded.

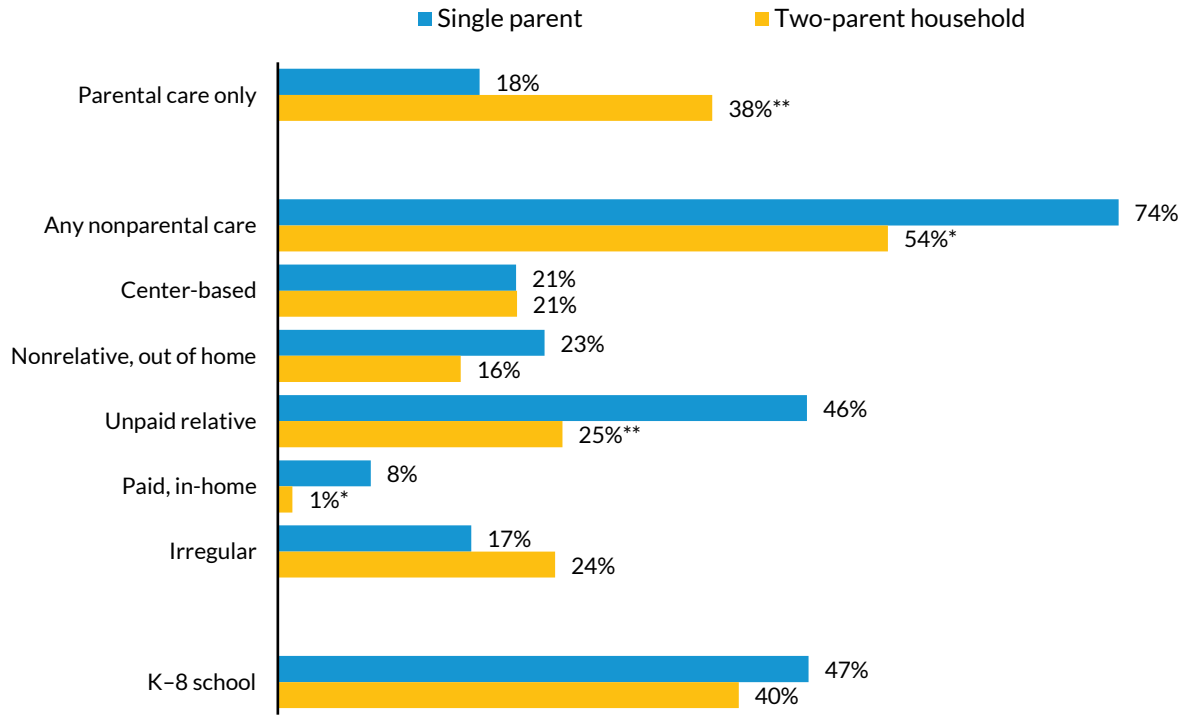
* Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.05$ level.

Figures A.7 through A.16 show the share of children using different care types and the number of hours in care by select family and child characteristics: family structure, family income, parental educational attainment, child race and ethnicity, and parents' nontraditional hours.

FIGURE A.7

Share of Children under 13 Who Use Each Care Type, by Family Structure

Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities



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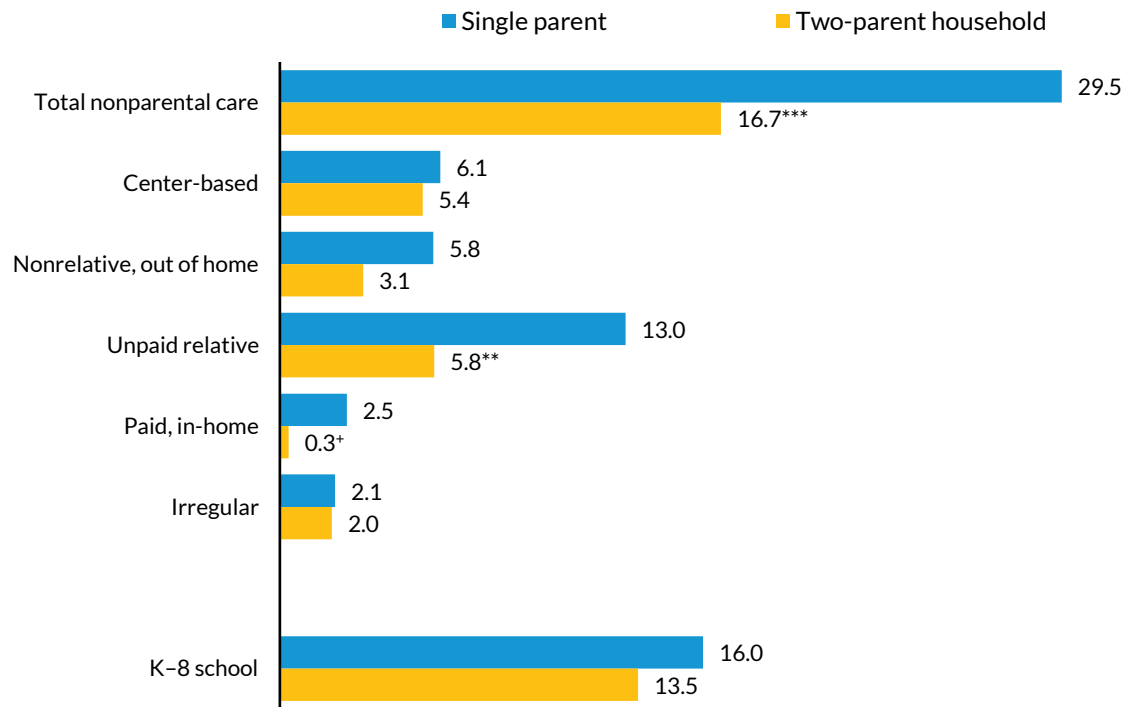
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Parents include both the child's biological and stepparents. Some additional values (less than 10 percent of children with a young single parent combining work with education or training and 8.3 percent of children living in a two-parent household with at least one young parent combining work with education or training) had missing calendar data and were excluded.

*/** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young single parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.05/0.01$ levels.

FIGURE A.8

Average Number of Hours Children under 13 Spend in Each Type of Care, by Family Structure
Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

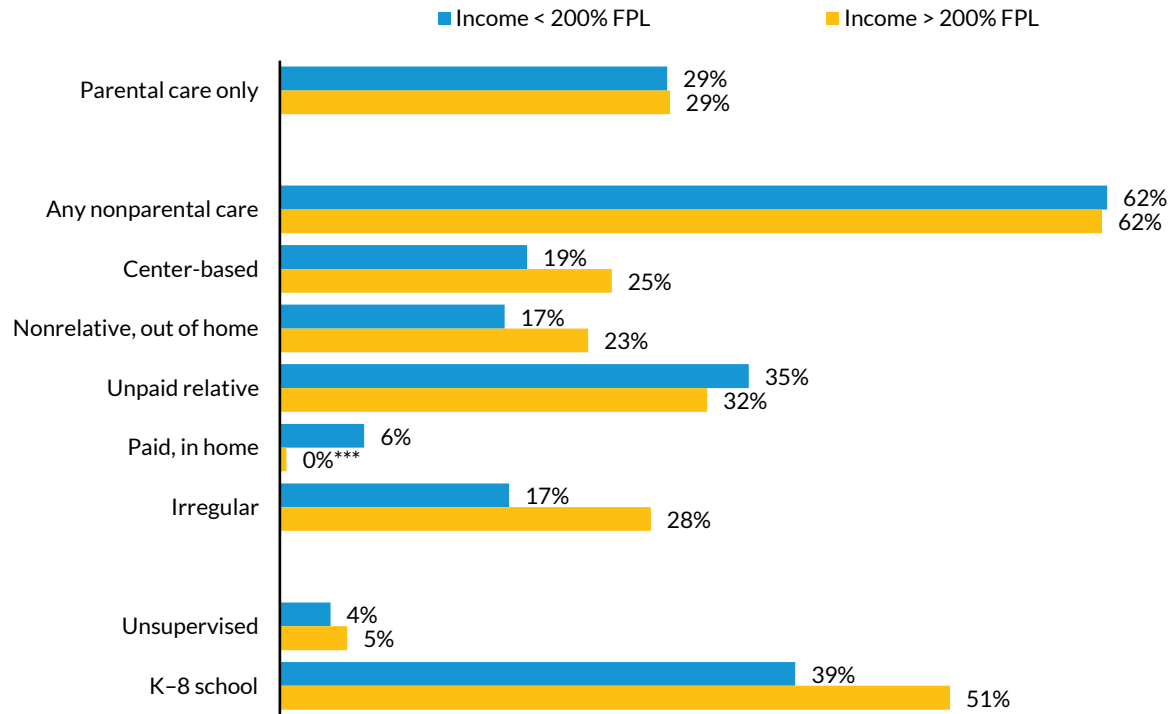
Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Parents include both the child's biological and stepparents. Some additional values (less than 10 percent of children with a young single parent combining work with education or training and 8.3 percent of children living in a two-parent household with at least one young parent combining work with education or training) had missing calendar data and were excluded.

+/**/**** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young single parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.1/0.05/0.01/0.001$ levels.

FIGURE A.9

Share of Children under 13 Who Use Each Care Type, by Household Income

Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities



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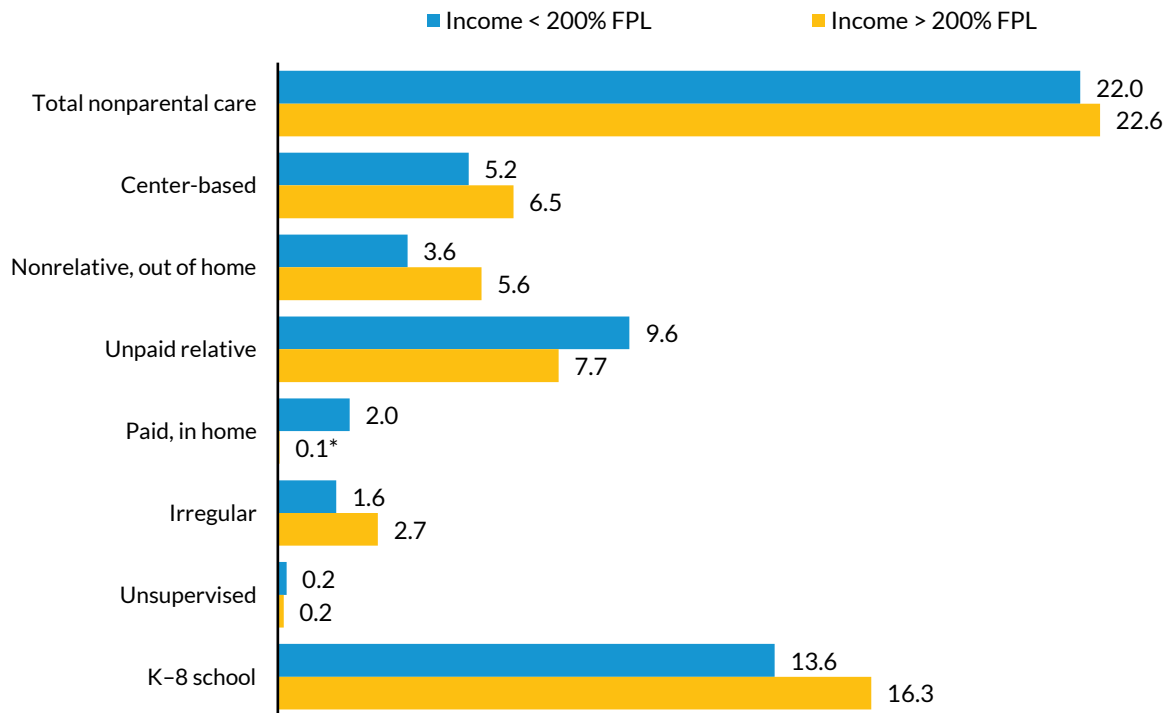
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. An additional 8.3 percent of children in households with income less than 200 percent of FPL with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 8.5 percent of children in households with income greater than 200 percent of FPL with at least one young parent combining work with education or training had missing calendar data and were excluded.

*** Estimate differs significantly from children with household income below 200 percent of FPL at the p < 0.001 level.

FIGURE A.10

Average Number of Hours Children Under 13 Spend in Each Type of Care, by Household Income
Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

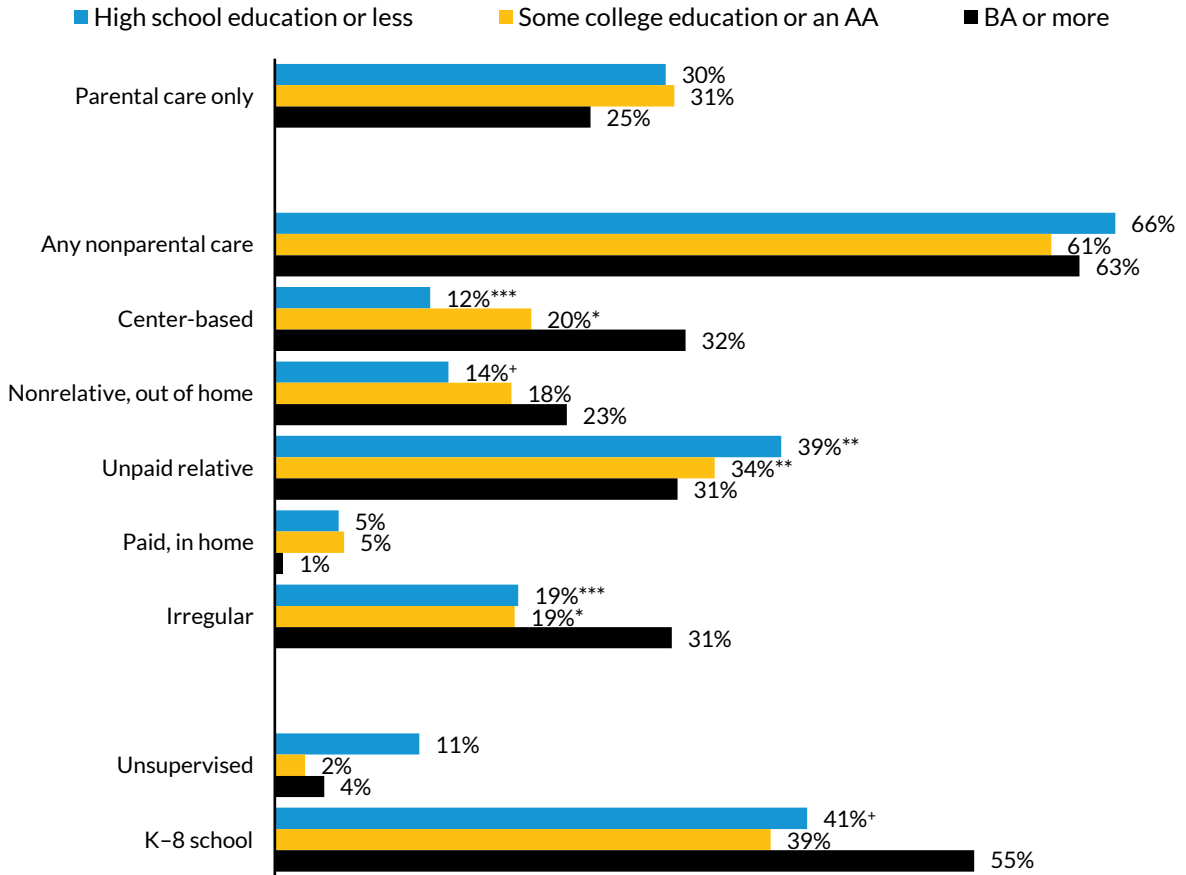
Notes: FPL = the federal poverty level. Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. An additional 8.3 percent of children in households with income less than 200 percent of FPL with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 8.5 percent of children in households with income greater than 200 percent of FPL with at least one young parent combining work with education or training had missing calendar data and were excluded.

* Estimate differs significantly from children with household income below 200 percent of FPL at the $p < 0.05$ level.

FIGURE A.11

Share of Children under 13 who Use Each Care Type, by Parents' Educational Attainment

Children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training activities



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

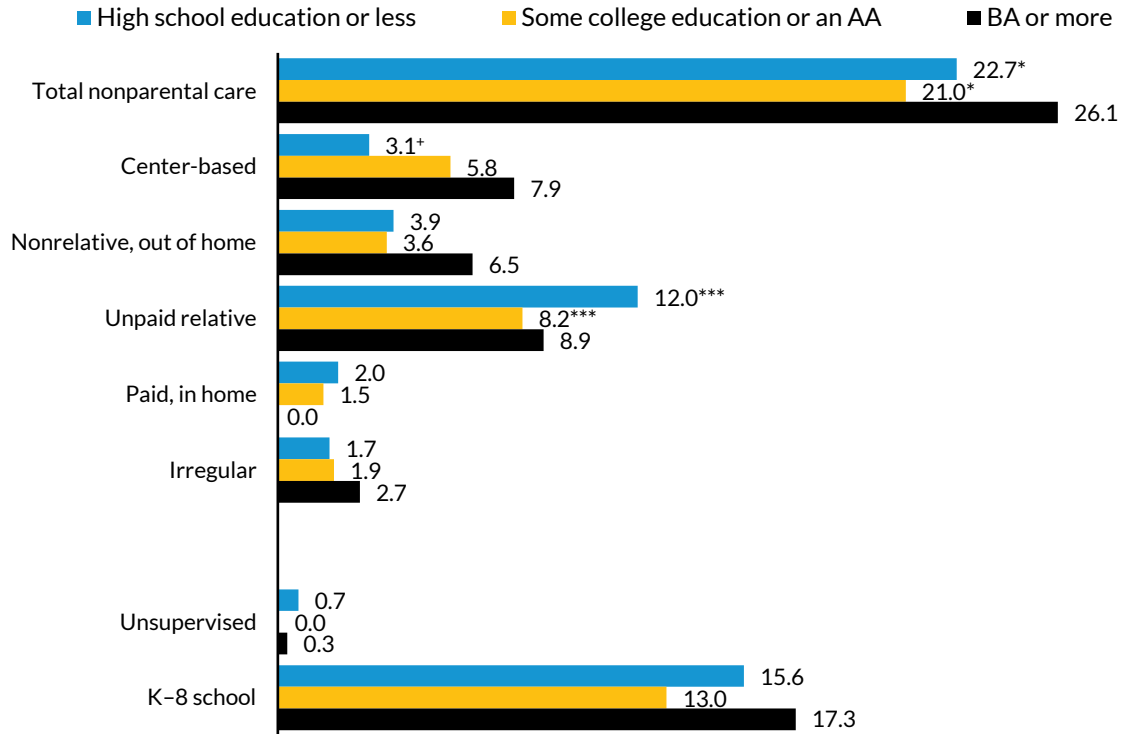
Notes: AA = associate's degree; BA = bachelor's degree. Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in non-parental care. In two-parent households, the education level of the parent with the most education is used. An additional 4.0 percent of children of parents with a high school education or less, 8.3 percent of children of parents with some college or an AA, and 12.6 percent of children of parents with a BA or more with at least one young parent combining work with education or training had missing calendar data and were excluded.

+/**/**** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training who has attained a BA or more at the p < 0.1/0.05/0.01/0.001 levels.

FIGURE A.12

Average Number of Hours Children under 13 Spend in Each Type of Care, by Parents' Educational Attainment

Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities



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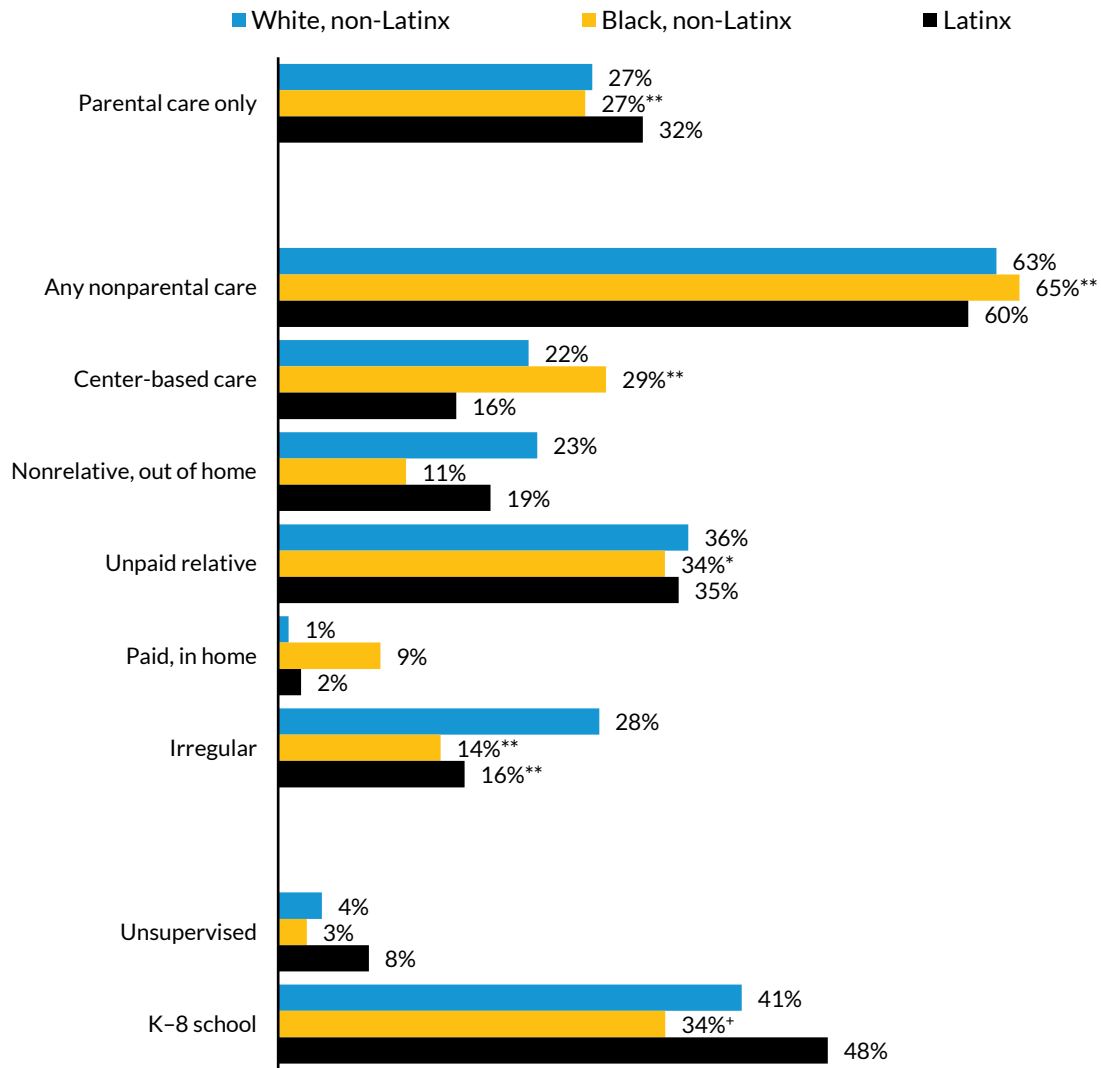
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: AA = associate's degree; BA = bachelor's degree. Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in non-parental care. In two-parent households, the education level of the parent with the most education is used. An additional 4.0 percent of children of parents with a high school education or less, 8.3 percent of children of parents with some college or an AA, and 12.6 percent of children of parents with a BA or more with at least one young parent combining work with education or training had missing calendar data and were excluded.

+/**/*** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training who has attained a BA or more at the p < 0.1/0.05/0.01/0.001 levels.

FIGURE A.13

Share of Children under 13 Who Used Each Care Type, by Child Race and Ethnicity
Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities



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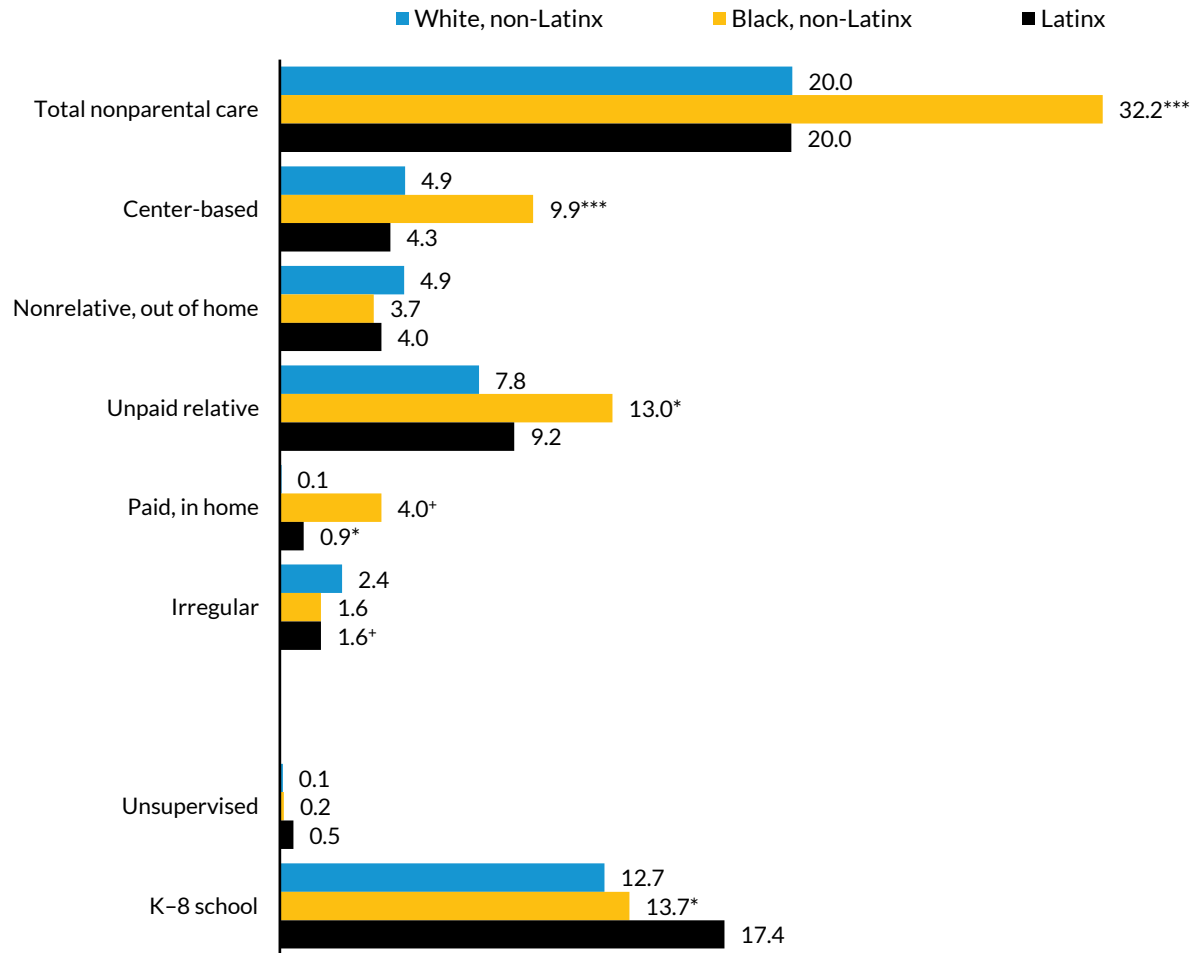
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in non-parental care. An additional 9.7 percent of White, non-Latinx children, 8.3 percent of Black, non-Latinx children, and 7.7 percent of Latinx children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training had missing calendar data and were excluded.

+/**/**** Estimate differs significantly from white, non-Latinx children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.1/0.05/0.01/0.001$ levels.

FIGURE A.14

Average Number of Hours Children under 13 Spend in Each Care Type, by Child Race and Ethnicity
Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

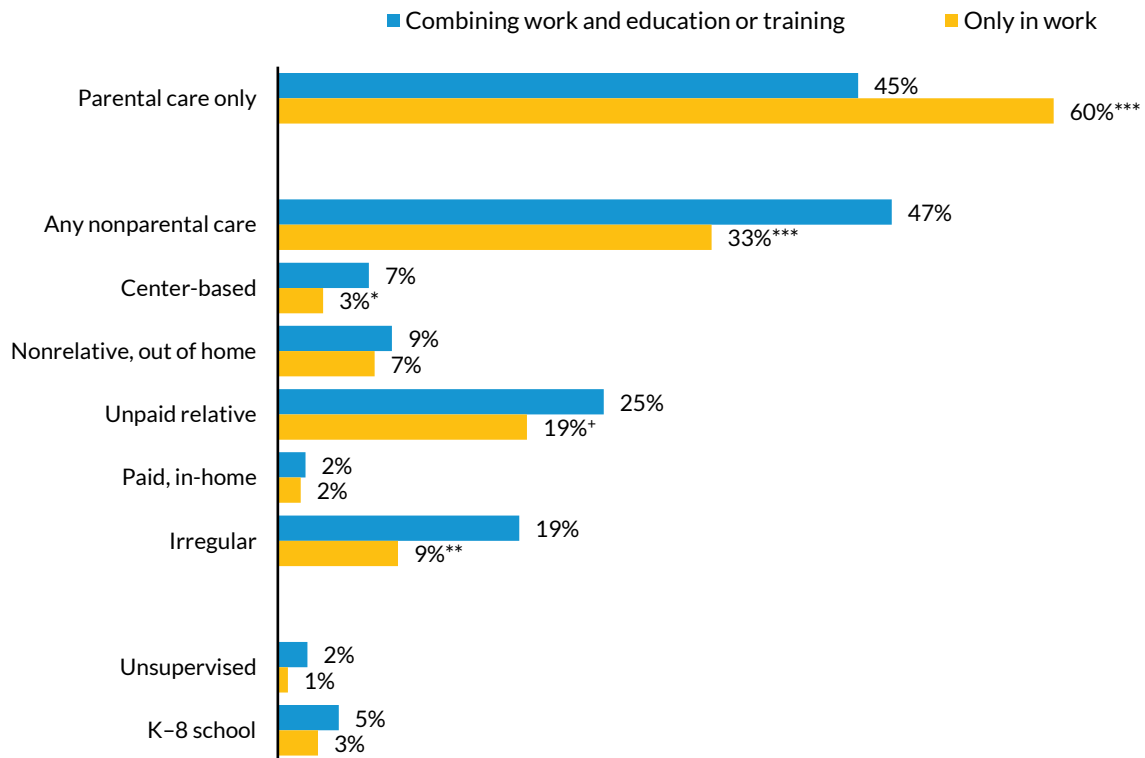
Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, paid nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in non-parental care. An additional 9.7 percent of White, non-Latinx children, 8.3 percent of Black, non-Latinx children, and 7.7 percent of Latinx children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training had missing calendar data and were excluded.

+/**/*** Estimate differs significantly from white, non-Latinx children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the $p < 0.1/0.05/0.01/0.001$ levels.

FIGURE A.15

Share of Children Under 13 who Use Each Care Type during Nontraditional Hours

Children with at least one young parent combining work and education or training activities



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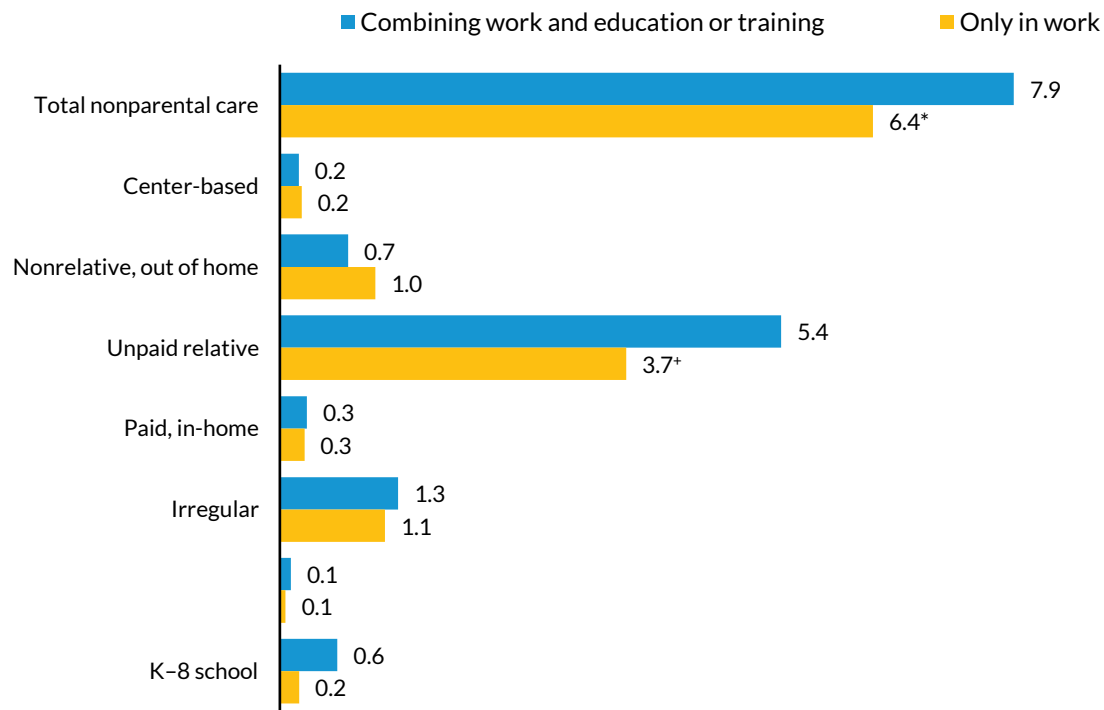
Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Nonparental care includes center-based, nonrelative care outside the child's home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in non-parental care. Nontraditional hours are any time outside of Monday to Friday, 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. An additional 8.4 percent of children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 7.3 percent of children with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded.

+/**/*** Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the 0.1/0.05/0.01/0.001 levels.

FIGURE A.16

Average Number of Hours Children under 13 Spend in Each Care Type during Nontraditional Hours
Children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training



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Source: Author's analysis of the National Survey of Early Care and Education data.

Notes: Non-parental care includes center-based, non-relative out of home, unpaid relative, paid in-home, and irregular care. Center-based care includes center care and other organizational care. Irregular care includes any care that children used for less than five hours in a week. K-8 school is not included in nonparental care. Nontraditional hours are any time outside of Monday to Friday, 7 a.m. to 6 p.m. An additional 8.4 percent of children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training and 7.3 percent of children with at least one young parent in work only had missing calendar data and were excluded. */* Estimate differs significantly from children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training at the 0.1/0.05 levels.

Notes

- ¹ Although we call them “young parents,” their average age was 28 when the survey was conducted.
- ² See “National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE), [United States], 2010-2012,” University of Michigan’s Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR) 35519, version date January 21, 2019, <https://www.childandfamilydataarchive.org/cfda/archives/cfda/studies/35519/versions/V11/summary>.
- ³ We excluded three groups of children from our analysis: children in two-parent households with at least one young parent in which (1) one parent only worked and another parent only participated in education or training activities (0.55 percent), (2) one parent was young and only worked and the other parent was not young (was age 25 or older at the birth of their first child) and was combining work with education or training activities (0.62 percent), and (3) one parent was young and only participated in school or training activities and the other parent was not young and combined work with education or training activities (0.14 percent). We did not include these groups because they could not be neatly classified into either the main analytical group or any of the comparison groups (i.e., children with at least one young parent combining work with education or training activities, children with at least one young parent only working, and children with at least one young parent only in school or training) because of the combinations of ages and work, education, and training activities of the two parents. Together, these groups constitute 1.3 percent of our total sample.
- ⁴ We include children under age 13 in our analysis because most states restrict eligibility for child care subsidies to children under age 13. Children in this age group are more likely to require supervision and nonparental care when parents are unavailable, including school-age children in before- and after-school programs. The inclusion of a wider age range, and not a more limited focus on non-school-age children, allows us to compare care use by age group (infant, toddler, preschool, and school-age). See “National Survey of Early Care and Education (NSECE), [United States], 2010-2012,” University of Michigan’s Inter-University Consortium for Political and Social Research (ICPSR) 35519, version date January 21, 2019, <https://www.childandfamilydataarchive.org/cfda/archives/cfda/studies/35519/versions/V11/summary>.
- ⁵ We use the NSECE calendar data to identify young parents who were working, enrolled in school or training but not working, or both working and enrolled in school or training at the time of the survey. In two-parent households, we examine whether both parents or just one meets our definition of “young” and define whether children had a parent balancing work with education or training based on the activities of only the young parents.
- ⁶ Sample sizes are rounded because of confidentiality requirements.
- ⁷ The NSECE calendar data include the time spent traveling to and from child care and parents’ activities as part of the time spent in the respective care arrangement/activity. A small percentage (0.04 percent) of the 15-minute time blocks for the children’s calendar data included a transition between two providers such as “relative followed by school” or “family followed by parent.” For these instances, we split the 15-minute block between the two types of care.
- ⁸ Following the approach taken by Sandstrom and Gelatt (2017), we define different types of regular nonparental child care arrangements based on setting (in the child’s home, an outside home, or a center), relationship between caregiver and child (related or not), and whether the arrangement was paid or unpaid. The NSECE defines arrangements as regular if the child spends at least five hours a week in that arrangement. Providers that care for a child less than five hours a week are classified under an irregular care category. The four resulting categories of regular care arrangements are (1) center-based care and other organizational care (e.g., after-school programs, Head Start, preschool, nursery school, and other early childhood education programs); (2) paid home-based care by a nonrelative outside the child’s home (e.g., a family child care program); (3) paid care by a

relative in any home or by a nonrelative in the child's home (e.g., a babysitter or nanny); and (4) unpaid relative care in either the child or relative's home. Time when the child was unsupervised and time in school starting in kindergarten are not counted as nonparental care. However, information on time spent in these arrangements is included in some analyses to paint a full portrait of children's schedules. Over the course of the week, children could have received care from multiple providers and therefore be in more than one nonparental care category. However, calendar data are recorded such that a single provider is identified for every 15-minute block of time tracked for an individual child. About 6.4 percent of children in the total sample were missing calendar data and were not included in the analysis of child care use.

⁹ We include children under age 13 with other types of parents as separate subgroups within our overall tabulations for completeness. These subgroups include children under age 13 with at least one young parent where the young parents are neither working nor in school or training, those with one parent who works and one parent who goes to school, those with one young parent who does not combine work with education or training as well as one older parent who does combine both activities, and those with no young parents.

¹⁰ We define a single-parent household as one in which an identified child under age 13 lives with only one parent. The parents do not need to be married; we count cohabiting parents as not single.

¹¹ The NSECE does not collect information about household residents' language proficiency; therefore, we construct a proxy variable for limited English proficiency based on two data points: whether the respondent selected Spanish as the survey administration language and whether the respondent indicated only Spanish was spoken in the home.

¹² Findings and analysis in this section are not disaggregated by child age group, because of sample size limitations.

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