

## Appendix 1: Glossary of Terms

**Alternative education** A “with” and “without” measure of the percent of students who would still be able to avail themselves of education if the college under analysis did not exist. An estimate of 10%, for example, means that 10% of students do not depend directly on the existence of the college in order to obtain their education.

**Alternative use of funds** A measure of how monies that are currently used to fund the college might otherwise have been used if the college did not exist.

**Asset value** Capitalized value of a stream of future returns. Asset value measures what someone would have to pay today for an instrument that provides the same stream of future revenues.

**Attrition rate** Rate at which students leave the workforce due to out-migration, unemployment, retirement, or death.

**Benefit-cost ratio** Present value of benefits divided by present value of costs. If the benefit-cost ratio is greater than 1, then benefits exceed costs, and the investment is feasible.

**Credit hour equivalent** Credit hour equivalent, or CHE, is defined as 15 contact hours of education if on a semester system, and 10 contact hours if on a quarter system. In general, it requires 450 contact hours to complete one full-time equivalent, or FTE.

**Demand** Relationship between the market price of education and the volume of education demanded (expressed in terms of enrollment). The law of the downward-sloping demand curve is related to the fact that enrollment increases only if the price (tuition and fees) is lowered, or conversely, enrollment decreases if price increases.

**Discounting** Expressing future revenues and costs in present value terms.

**Economics** Study of the allocation of scarce resources among alternative and competing ends. Economics is not normative (what ought to be done), but positive (describes what is, or how people are likely to behave in response to economic changes).

**Elasticity of demand** Degree of responsiveness of the quantity of education demanded (enrollment) to changes in market prices (tuition and fees). If a decrease in fees increases total revenues, demand is elastic. If it decreases total revenues, demand is inelastic. If total revenues remain the same, elasticity of demand is unitary.

**Externalities** Impacts (positive and negative) for which there is no compensation. Positive externalities of education include improved social behaviors such as lower crime, reduced welfare and unemployment, and improved health. Educational institutions do not receive compensation for these benefits, but benefits still occur because education is statistically proven to lead to improved social behaviors.

**Gross regional product** Measure of the final value of all goods and services produced in a region after netting out the cost of goods used in production. Alternatively, gross regional product (GRP) equals the combined incomes of all factors of production; i.e., labor, land and capital. These include wages, salaries, proprietors’ incomes, profits, rents, and other. Gross regional product is also sometimes called value added or added income.

**Initial effect** Income generated by the initial injection of monies into the economy through the payroll of the college and the higher earnings of its students.

**Input-output analysis** Relationship between a given set of demands for final goods and services and the implied amounts of manufactured inputs, raw materials, and labor that this requires. When educational institutions pay wages and salaries and spend money for supplies in the region, they also generate earnings in all sectors of the economy, thereby increasing the demand for goods and services and jobs. Moreover, as students enter or rejoin the workforce with higher skills, they earn higher salaries and wages. In turn, this generates more consumption and spending in other sectors of the economy.

**Internal rate of return** Rate of interest that, when used to discount cash flows associated with investing in education, reduces its net present value to zero (i.e., where the present

value of revenues accruing from the investment are just equal to the present value of costs incurred). This, in effect, is the breakeven rate of return on investment since it shows the highest rate of interest at which the investment makes neither a profit nor a loss.

**Earnings (labor income)** Income that is received as a result of labor; i.e., wages.

**Multiplier effect** Additional income created in the economy as the college and its students spend money in the region. It consists of the income created by the supply chain of the industries initially affected by the spending of the college and its students (i.e., the direct effect), income created by the supply chain of the initial supply chain (i.e., the indirect effect), and the income created by the increased spending of the household sector (i.e., the induced effect).

**NAICS** The North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) classifies North American business establishment in order to better collect, analyze, and publish statistical data related to the business economy.

**Net cash flow** Benefits minus costs, i.e., the sum of revenues accruing from an investment minus costs incurred.

**Net present value** Net cash flow discounted to the present. All future cash flows are collapsed into one number, which, if positive, indicates feasibility. The result is expressed as a monetary measure.

**Non-labor income** Income received from investments, such as rent, interest, and dividends.

**Opportunity cost** Benefits foregone from alternative B once a decision is made to allocate resources to alternative A. Or, if individuals choose to attend college, they forego earnings that they would have received had they chose instead to work full-time. Foregone earnings, therefore, are the “price tag” of choosing to attend college.

**Payback period** Length of time required to recover an investment. The shorter the period, the more attractive the investment. The formula for computing payback period is:

$$\text{Payback period} = \frac{\text{cost of investment}}{\text{net return per period}}$$



## Appendix 2: Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs)

This appendix provides answers to some frequently asked questions about the results.

### **What is economic impact analysis?**

Economic impact analysis quantifies the impact from a given economic event – in this case, the presence of a college – on the economy of a specified region.

### **What is investment analysis?**

Investment analysis is a standard method for determining whether or not an existing or proposed investment is economically viable. This methodology is appropriate in situations where a stakeholder puts up a certain amount of money with the expectation of receiving benefits in return, where the benefits that the stakeholder receives are distributed over time, and where a discount rate must be applied in order to account for the time value of money.

### **Do the results differ by region, and if so, why?**

Yes. Regional economic data are drawn from Emsi's proprietary MR-SAM model, the Census Bureau, and other sources to reflect the specific earnings levels, jobs numbers, unemployment rates, population demographics, and other key characteristics of the region served by the college. Therefore, model results for the college are specific to the given region.

### **Are the funds transferred to the college increasing in value, or simply being re-directed?**

Emsi's approach is not a simple "rearranging of the furniture" where the impact of operations spending is essentially a restatement of the level of funding received by the college. Rather, it is an impact assessment of the additional income created in the region as a result of the college spending on payroll and other non-pay expenditures, net of any impacts that would have occurred anyway if the college did not exist.

### **How does my college's rates of return compare to that of other institutions?**

In general, Emsi discourages comparisons between institutions since many factors, such as regional economic conditions, institutional differences, and student demographics are outside of the college's control. It is best to compare the rate of return to the discount rates of 4.3% (for students) and 0.7% (for society and taxpayers), which can also be seen as the opportunity cost of the investment (since these stakeholder groups could be spending their time and money in other investment schemes besides education). If the rate of return is higher than the discount rate, the stakeholder groups can expect to receive a positive return on their educational investment.

Emsi recognizes that some institutions may want to make comparisons. As a word of caution, if comparing to an institution that had a study commissioned by a firm other than Emsi, then differences in methodology will create an "apples to oranges" comparison and will therefore be difficult. The study results should be seen as unique to each institution.

### **Emsi conducted an economic impact study for my college a few years ago. Why have results changed?**

Emsi, a CareerBuilder company, is a leading provider of economic impact studies and labor market data to educational institutions, workforce planners, and regional developers in the U.S. and internationally. Since 2000, Emsi has completed over 1,700 economic impact studies for educational institutions in four countries. Along the way we have worked to continuously update and improve our methodologies to ensure that they conform to best practices and stay relevant in today's economy. The present study reflects

the latest version of our model, representing the most up-to-date theory, practices, and data for conducting economic impact and investment analyses. Many of our former assumptions have been replaced with observed data, and we have researched the latest sources in order to update the background data used in our model. Additionally, changes in the data the college provides to Emsi can influence the results of the study.

### **Net Present Value (NPV): How do I communicate this in laymen's terms?**

Which would you rather have: a dollar right now or a dollar 30 years from now? That most people will choose a dollar now is the crux of net present value. The preference for a dollar today means today's dollar is therefore worth more than it would be in the future (in most people's opinion). Because the dollar today is worth more than a dollar in 30 years, the dollar 30 years from now needs to be adjusted to express its worth today. Adjusting the values for this "time value of money" is called discounting and the result of adding them all up after discounting each value is called net present value.

### **Internal Rate of Return (IRR): How do I communicate this in laymen's terms?**

Using the bank as an example, an individual needs to decide between spending all of their paycheck today and putting it into savings. If they spend it today, they know what it is worth: \$1 = \$1. If they put it into savings, they need to know that there will be some sort of return to them for spending those dollars in the future rather than now. This is why banks offer interest rates and deposit interest earnings. This makes it so an individual can expect, for example, a 3% return in the future for money that they put into savings now.

### **Total Economic Impact: How do I communicate this in laymen's terms?**

Big numbers are great, but putting it into perspective can be a challenge. To add perspective, find an industry with roughly the same "% of GRP" as your college (Table 1.5). This percentage represents its portion of the total gross regional product in the region (similar to the nationally recognized gross domestic product but at a regional level). This allows the college to say that their single brick and mortar campus does just as much for the Northeast Service Area as the entire Utilities industry, for example. This powerful statement can help put the large total impact number into perspective.

## Appendix 3: Example of Sales versus Income

Emsi's economic impact study differs from many other studies because we prefer to report the impacts in terms of income rather than sales (or output). Income is synonymous with value added or gross regional product (GRP). Sales include all the intermediary costs associated with producing goods and services. Income is a net measure that excludes these intermediary costs:

### **Income = Sales – Intermediary Costs**

For this reason, income is a more meaningful measure of new economic activity than reporting sales. This is evidenced by the use of gross domestic product (GDP) – a measure of income – by economists when considering the economic growth or size of a country. The difference is GRP reflects a region and GDP a country.

To demonstrate the difference between income and sales,

let us consider an example of a baker's production of a loaf of bread. The baker buys the ingredients such as eggs, flour, and yeast for \$2.00. He uses capital such as a mixer to combine the ingredients and an oven to bake the bread and convert it into a final product. Overhead costs for these steps are \$1.00. Total intermediary costs are \$3.00. The baker then sells the loaf of bread for \$5.00.

The sales amount of the loaf of bread is \$5.00. The income from the loaf of bread is equal to the sales amount less the intermediary costs:

$$\text{Income} = \$5.00 - \$3.00 = \$2.00$$

In our analysis, we provide context behind the income figures by also reporting the associated number of jobs. The impacts are also reported in sales and earnings terms for reference.

## Appendix 4: Emsi MR-SAM

Emsi's MR-SAM represents the flow of all economic transactions in a given region. It replaces Emsi's previous input-output (IO) model, which operated with some 1,000 industries, four layers of government, a single household consumption sector, and an investment sector. The old IO model was used to simulate the ripple effects (i.e., multipliers) in the regional economy as a result of industries entering or exiting the region. The MR-SAM model performs the same tasks as the old IO model, but it also does much more. Along with the same 1,000 industries, government, household and investment sectors embedded in the old IO tool, the MR-SAM exhibits much more functionality, a greater amount of data, and a higher level of detail on the demographic and occupational components of jobs (16 demographic cohorts and about 750 occupations are characterized).

This appendix presents a high-level overview of the MR-SAM. Additional documentation on the technical aspects of the model is available upon request.

### DATA SOURCES FOR THE MODEL

The Emsi MR-SAM model relies on a number of internal and external data sources, mostly compiled by the federal government. What follows is a listing and short explanation of our sources. The use of these data will be covered in more detail later in this appendix.

**Emsi Data** are produced from many data sources to produce detailed industry, occupation, and demographic jobs and earnings data at the local level. This information (especially sales-to-jobs ratios derived from jobs and earnings-to-sales ratios) is used to help regionalize the national matrices as well as to disaggregate them into more detailed industries than are normally available.

**BEA Make and Use Tables (MUT)** are the basis for input-output models in the U.S. The make table is a matrix that describes the amount of each commodity made by each industry in a given year. Industries are placed in the rows

and commodities in the columns. The use table is a matrix that describes the amount of each commodity used by each industry in a given year. In the use table, commodities are placed in the rows and industries in the columns. The BEA produces two different sets of MUTs, the benchmark and the summary. The benchmark set contains about 500 sectors and is released every five years, with a five-year lag time (e.g., 2002 benchmark MUTs were released in 2007). The summary set contains about 80 sectors and is released every year, with a two-year lag (e.g., 2010 summary MUTs were released in late 2011/early 2012). The MUTs are used in the Emsi MR-SAM model to produce an industry-by-industry matrix describing all industry purchases from all industries.

**BEA Gross Domestic Product by State (GSP)** describes gross domestic product from the value added (also known as added income) perspective. Value added is equal to employee compensation, gross operating surplus, and taxes on production and imports, less subsidies. Each of these components is reported for each state and an aggregate group of industries. This dataset is updated once per year, with a one-year lag. The Emsi MR-SAM model makes use of this data as a control and pegs certain pieces of the model to values from this dataset.

**BEA National Income and Product Accounts (NIPA)** cover a wide variety of economic measures for the nation, including gross domestic product (GDP), sources of output, and distribution of income. This dataset is updated periodically throughout the year and can be between a month and several years old depending on the specific account. NIPA data are used in many of the Emsi MR-SAM processes as both controls and seeds.

**BEA Local Area Income (LPI)** encapsulates multiple tables with geographies down to the county level. The following two tables are specifically used: CA05 (Personal income and earnings by industry) and CA91 (Gross flow of earnings). CA91 is used when creating the commuting submodel and CA05 is used in several processes to help with place-of-work and place-of-residence differences, as well as to

calculate personal income, transfers, dividends, interest, and rent.

**Bureau of Labor Statistics Consumer Expenditure Survey** (CEX) reports on the buying habits of consumers along with some information as to their income, consumer unit, and demographics. Emsi utilizes this data heavily in the creation of the national demographic by income type consumption on industries.

**Census of Government's** (CoG) state and local government finance dataset is used specifically to aid breaking out state and local data that is reported in the MUTs. This allows Emsi to have unique production functions for each of its state and local government sectors.

**Census' OnTheMap** (OTM) is a collection of three datasets for the census block level for multiple years. **Origin-Destination** (OD) offers job totals associated with both home census blocks and a work census block. **Residence Area Characteristics** (RAC) offers jobs totaled by home census block. **Workplace Area Characteristics** (WAC) offers jobs totaled by work census block. All three of these are used in the commuting submodel to gain better estimates of earnings by industry that may be counted as commuting. This dataset has holes for specific years and regions. These holes are filled with Census' Journey-to-Work described later.

**Census' Current Population Survey** (CPS) is used as the basis for the demographic breakout data of the MR-SAM model. This set is used to estimate the ratios of demographic cohorts and their income for the three different income categories (i.e., wages, property income, and transfers).

**Census' Journey-to-Work** (JtW) is part of the 2000 Census and describes the amount of commuting jobs between counties. This set is used to fill in the areas where OTM does not have data.

**Census' American Community Survey (ACS) Public Use Microdata Sample** (PUMS) is the replacement for Census' long form and is used by Emsi to fill the holes in the CPS data.

**Oak Ridge National Lab (ORNL) County-to-County Distance Matrix** (Skim Tree) contains a matrix of distances and network impedances between each county via vari-

ous modes of transportation such as highway, railroad, water, and combined highway-rail. Also included in this set are minimum impedances utilizing the best combination of paths. The ORNL distance matrix is used in Emsi's gravitational flows model that estimates the amount of trade between counties in the country.

## OVERVIEW OF THE MR-SAM MODEL

Emsi's MR-SAM modeling system is a comparative static model in the same general class as RIMS II (Bureau of Economic Analysis) and IMPLAN (Minnesota Implan Group). The MR-SAM model is thus not an econometric model, the primary example of which is PolicyInsight by REMI. It relies on a matrix representation of industry-to-industry purchasing patterns originally based on national data which are regionalized with the use of local data and mathematical manipulation (i.e., non-survey methods). Models of this type estimate the ripple effects of changes in jobs, earnings, or sales in one or more industries upon other industries in a region.

The Emsi MR-SAM model shows final equilibrium impacts – that is, the user enters a change that perturbs the economy and the model shows the changes required to establish a new equilibrium. As such, it is not a dynamic model that shows year-by-year changes over time (as REMI's does).

### National SAM

Following standard practice, the SAM model appears as a square matrix, with each row sum exactly equaling the corresponding column sum. Reflecting its kinship with the standard Leontief input-output framework, individual SAM elements show accounting flows between row and column sectors during a chosen base year. Read across rows, SAM entries show the flow of funds into column accounts (also known as receipts or the appropriation of funds by those column accounts). Read down columns, SAM entries show the flow of funds into row accounts (also known as expenditures or the dispersal of funds to those row accounts).

The SAM may be broken into three different aggregation layers: broad accounts, sub-accounts, and detailed accounts. The broad layer is the most aggregate and will be

covered first. Broad accounts cover between one and four sub-accounts, which in turn cover many detailed accounts. This appendix will not discuss detailed accounts directly because of their number. For example, in the industry broad account, there are two sub-accounts and over 1,000 detailed accounts.

### **Multi-regional aspect of the MR-SAM**

Multi-regional (MR) describes a non-survey model that has the ability to analyze the transactions and ripple effects (i.e., multipliers) of not just a single region, but multiple regions interacting with each other. Regions in this case are made up of a collection of counties.

Emsi's multi-regional model is built off of gravitational flows, assuming that the larger a county's economy, the more influence it will have on the surrounding counties' purchases and sales. The equation behind this model is essentially the same that Isaac Newton used to calculate the gravitational pull between planets and stars. In Newton's equation, the masses of both objects are multiplied, then divided by the distance separating them and multiplied by a constant. In Emsi's model, the masses are replaced with the supply of a sector for one county and the demand for that same sector from another county. The distance is replaced with an impedance value that takes into account the distance, type of roads, rail lines, and other modes of transportation. Once this is calculated for every county-to-county pair, a set of mathematical operations is performed to make sure all counties absorb the correct amount of supply from every county and the correct amount of demand from every county. These operations produce more than 200 million data points.

### **COMPONENTS OF THE EMSI MR-SAM MODEL**

The Emsi MR-SAM is built from a number of different components that are gathered together to display information whenever a user selects a region. What follows is a description of each of these components and how each is created. Emsi's internally created data are used to a great extent throughout the processes described below, but its creation is not described in this appendix.

### **County earnings distribution matrix**

The county earnings distribution matrices describe the earnings spent by every industry on every occupation for a year – i.e., earnings by occupation. The matrices are built utilizing Emsi's industry earnings, occupational average earnings, and staffing patterns.

Each matrix starts with a region's staffing pattern matrix which is multiplied by the industry jobs vector. This produces the number of occupational jobs in each industry for the region. Next, the occupational average hourly earnings per job are multiplied by 2,080 hours, which converts the average hourly earnings into a yearly estimate. Then the matrix of occupational jobs is multiplied by the occupational annual earnings per job, converting it into earnings values. Last, all earnings are adjusted to match the known industry totals. This is a fairly simple process, but one that is very important. These matrices describe the place-of-work earnings used by the MR-SAM.

### **Commuting model**

The commuting sub-model is an integral part of Emsi's MR-SAM model. It allows the regional and multi-regional models to know what amount of the earnings can be attributed to place-of-residence vs. place-of-work. The commuting data describe the flow of earnings from any county to any other county (including within the counties themselves). For this situation, the commuted earnings are not just a single value describing total earnings flows over a complete year, but are broken out by occupation and demographic. Breaking out the earnings allows for analysis of place-of-residence and place-of-work earnings. These data are created using Bureau of Labor Statistics' OnTheMap dataset, Census' Journey-to-Work, BEA's LPI CA91 and CA05 tables, and some of Emsi's data. The process incorporates the cleanup and disaggregation of the OnTheMap data, the estimation of a closed system of county inflows and outflows of earnings, and the creation of finalized commuting data.

### **National SAM**

The national SAM as described above is made up of several different components. Many of the elements discussed are filled in with values from the national Z matrix – or industry-to-industry transaction matrix. This matrix is built from BEA



data that describe which industries make and use what commodities at the national level. These data are manipulated with some industry standard equations to produce the national Z matrix. The data in the Z matrix act as the basis for the majority of the data in the national SAM. The rest of the values are filled in with data from the county earnings distribution matrices, the commuting data, and the BEA's National Income and Product Accounts.

One of the major issues that affect any SAM project is the combination of data from multiple sources that may not be consistent with one another. Matrix balancing is the broad name for the techniques used to correct this problem. Emsi uses a modification of the "diagonal similarity scaling" algorithm to balance the national SAM.

### **Gravitational flows model**

The most important piece of the Emsi MR-SAM model is the gravitational flows model that produces county-by-county regional purchasing coefficients (RPCs). RPCs estimate

how much an industry purchases from other industries inside and outside of the defined region. This information is critical for calculating all IO models.

Gravity modeling starts with the creation of an impedance matrix that values the difficulty of moving a product from county to county. For each sector, an impedance matrix is created based on a set of distance impedance methods for that sector. A distance impedance method is one of the measurements reported in the Oak Ridge National Laboratory's County-to-County Distance Matrix. In this matrix, every county-to-county relationship is accounted for in six measures: great-circle distance, highway impedance, rail miles, rail impedance, water impedance, and highway-rail-highway impedance. Next, using the impedance information, the trade flows for each industry in every county are solved for. The result is an estimate of multi-regional flows from every county to every county. These flows are divided by each respective county's demand to produce multi-regional RPCs.

## Appendix 5: Value per Credit Hour Equivalent and the Mincer Function

Two key components in the analysis are 1) the value of the students' educational achievements, and 2) the change in that value over the students' working careers. Both of these components are described in detail in this appendix.

### VALUE PER CHE

Typically, the educational achievements of students are marked by the credentials they earn. However, not all students who attended MCC in the 2015-16 analysis year obtained a degree or certificate. Some returned the following year to complete their education goals, while others took a few courses and entered the workforce without graduating. As such, the only way to measure the value of the students' achievement is through their credit hour equivalents, or CHEs. This approach allows us to see the benefits to all students who attended the college, not just those who earned a credential.

To calculate the value per CHE, we first determine how many CHEs are required to complete each education level. For example, assuming that there are 30 CHEs in an academic year, a student generally completes 60 CHEs in order to move from a high school diploma to an associate degree, another 60 CHEs to move from an associate degree to a bachelor's degree, and so on. This progression of CHEs generates an education ladder beginning at the less than high school level and ending with the completion of a doctoral degree, with each level of education representing a separate stage in the progression.

The second step is to assign a unique value to the CHEs in the education ladder based on the wage differentials presented in Table 1.7.<sup>42</sup> For example, the difference in regional

earnings between a high school diploma and an associate degree is \$9,900. We spread this \$9,900 wage differential across the 60 CHEs that occur between a high school diploma and an associate degree, applying a ceremonial "boost" to the last CHE in the stage to mark the achievement of the degree.<sup>43</sup> We repeat this process for each education level in the ladder.

Next we map the CHE production of the FY 2015-16 student population to the education ladder. Table 1.4 provides information on the CHE production of students attending MCC, broken out by educational achievement. In total, students completed 444,213 CHEs during the analysis year, excluding personal enrichment students. We map each of these CHEs to the education ladder depending on the students' education level and the average number of CHEs they completed during the year. For example, bachelor's degree graduates are allocated to the stage between the associate degree and the bachelor's degree, and the average number of CHEs they completed informs the shape of the distribution curve used to spread out their total CHE production within that stage of the progression.

The sum product of the CHEs earned at each step within the education ladder and their corresponding value yields the students' aggregate annual increase in income ( $\Delta E$ ), as shown in the following equation:

$$\Delta E = \sum_{i=1}^n e_i h_i \quad \text{where } i \in 1, 2, \dots, n$$

and  $n$  is the number of steps in the education ladder,  $e_i$  is the marginal earnings gain at step  $i$ , and  $h_i$  is the number of CHEs completed at step  $i$ .

outlined in this appendix will use regional earnings; however, the same methodology is followed for the investment analysis when state earnings are used.

42 The value per CHE is different between the economic impact analysis and the investment analysis. The economic impact analysis uses the region as its background and, therefore, uses regional earnings to calculate value per CHE while the investment analysis uses the state as its backdrop and, therefore, uses state earnings. The methodology

43 Economic theory holds that workers that acquire education credentials send a signal to employers about their ability level. This phenomenon is commonly known as the sheepskin effect or signaling effect. The ceremonial boosts applied to the achievement of degrees in the Emsi impact model are derived from Jaeger and Page (1996).

Table A5.1 displays the result for the students' aggregate annual increase in income ( $\Delta E$ ), a total of \$46.1 million. By dividing this value by the students' total production of 444,213 CHEs during the analysis year, we derive an overall value of \$104 per CHE.

**TABLE A5.1:** Aggregate annual increase in income of students and value per CHE

Aggregate annual increase in income	\$46,146,172
Total credit hour equivalents (CHEs) in FY 2015-16*	444,213
<b>Value per CHE</b>	<b>\$104</b>

\* Excludes the CHE production of personal enrichment students.  
Source: Emsi impact model.

## MINCER FUNCTION

The \$104 value per CHE in Table A5.1 only tells part of the story, however. Human capital theory holds that earnings levels do not remain constant; rather, they start relatively low and gradually increase as the worker gains more experience. Research also shows that the earnings increment between educated and non-educated workers grows through time. These basic patterns in earnings over time were originally identified by Jacob Mincer, who viewed the lifecycle earnings distribution as a function with the key elements being earnings, years of education, and work experience, with age serving as a proxy for experience.<sup>44</sup> While some have criticized Mincer's earnings function, it is still upheld in recent data and has served as the foundation for a variety of research pertaining to labor economics. Those critical of the Mincer function point to several unobserved factors such as ability, socioeconomic status, and family background that also help explain higher earnings. Failure to account for these factors results in what is known as an "ability bias." Research by Card (1999 and 2001) suggests that the benefits estimated using Mincer's function are biased upwards by 10% or less. As such, we reduce the estimated benefits by 10%. We use state-specific and education level-specific Mincer coefficients.

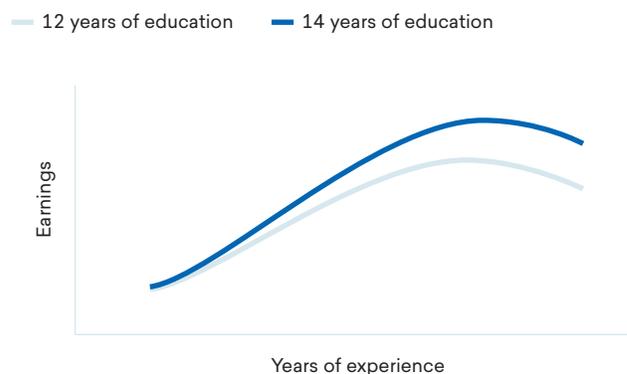
44 See Mincer (1958 and 1974).

Figure A5.1 illustrates several important points about the Mincer function. First, as demonstrated by the shape of the curves, an individual's earnings initially increase at an increasing rate, then increase at a decreasing rate, reach a maximum somewhere well after the midpoint of the working career, and then decline in later years. Second, individuals with higher levels of education reach their maximum earnings at an older age compared to individuals with lower levels of education (recall that age serves as a proxy for years of experience). And third, the benefits of education, as measured by the difference in earnings between education levels, increase with age.

In calculating the alumni impact in Section 2, we use the slope of the curve in Mincer's earnings function to condition the \$104 value per CHE to the students' age and work experience. To the students just starting their career during the analysis year, we apply a lower value per CHE; to the students in the latter half or approaching the end of their careers we apply a higher value per CHE. The original \$104 value per CHE applies only to the CHE production of students precisely at the midpoint of their careers during the analysis year.

In Section 3 we again apply the Mincer function, this time to project the benefits stream of the FY 2015-16 student population into the future. Here too the value per CHE is lower for students at the start of their career and higher near the end of it, in accordance with the scalars derived from the slope of the Mincer curve illustrated in Figure A5.1.

**FIGURE A5.1:** Lifecycle change in earnings, 12 years versus 14 years of education



## Appendix 6: Alternative Education Variable

In a scenario where the college did not exist, some of its students would still be able to avail themselves of an alternative comparable education. These students create benefits in the region even in the absence of the college. The alternative education variable accounts for these students and is used to discount the benefits we attribute to the college.

Recall this analysis considers only relevant economic information regarding the college. Considering the existence of various other academic institutions surrounding the college, we have to assume that a portion of the students could find alternative educations and either remain in or return to the region. For example, some students may participate in online programs while remaining in the region. Others may attend an out-of-region institution and return to the region upon completing their studies. For these students – who would have found an alternative education and produced benefits in the region regardless of the presence

of the college – we discount the benefits attributed to the college. An important distinction must be made here: the benefits from students who would find alternative educations outside the region and not return to the region are not discounted. Because these benefits would not occur in the region without the presence of the college, they must be included.

In the absence of the college, we assume 15% of the college's students would find alternative education opportunities and remain in or return to the region. We account for this by discounting the alumni impact, the benefits to taxpayers, and the benefits to society in the region in sections 2 and 3 by 15%. In other words, we assume 15% of the benefits created by the college's students would have occurred anyways in the counterfactual scenario where the college did not exist. A sensitivity analysis of this adjustment is presented in chapter 4.

## Appendix 7: Overview of Investment Analysis Measures

The appendix provides context to the investment analysis results using the simple hypothetical example summarized in Table A7.1 below. The table shows the projected benefits and costs for a single student over time and associated investment analysis results.<sup>45</sup>

Assumptions are as follows:

- Benefits and costs are projected out 10 years into the future (Column 1).
- The student attends the college for one year, and the cost of tuition is \$1,500 (Column 2).
- Earnings foregone while attending the college for one year (opportunity cost) come to \$20,000 (Column 3).
- Together, tuition and earnings foregone cost sum to

\$21,500. This represents the out-of-pocket investment made by the student (Column 4).

- In return, the student earns \$5,000 more per year than he otherwise would have earned without the education (Column 5).
- The net cash flow (NCF) in Column 6 shows higher earnings (Column 5) less the total cost (Column 4).
- The assumed going rate of interest is 4%, the rate of return from alternative investment schemes for the use of the \$21,500.

Results are expressed in standard investment analysis terms, which are as follows: the net present value, the internal rate of return, the benefit-cost ratio, and the payback period. Each of these is briefly explained below in the context of the cash flow numbers presented in Table A7.1.

<sup>45</sup> Note that this is a hypothetical example. The numbers used are not based on data collected from an existing college.

**TABLE A7.1:** Example of the benefits and costs of education for a single student

1	2	3	4	5	6
YEAR	TUITION	OPPORTUNITY COST	TOTAL COST	HIGHER EARNINGS	NET CASH FLOW
1	\$1,500	\$20,000	\$21,500	\$0	-\$21,500
2	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
3	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
4	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
5	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
6	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
7	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
8	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
9	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
10	\$0	\$0	\$0	\$5,000	\$5,000
<b>Net present value</b>			<b>\$21,500</b>	<b>\$35,753</b>	<b>\$14,253</b>
Internal rate of return					18%
Benefit-cost ratio					1.7
Payback period					4.2 years

## NET PRESENT VALUE

The student in Table A7.1 can choose either to attend college or to forego post-secondary education and maintain his present employment. If he decides to enroll, certain economic implications unfold. Tuition and fees must be paid, and earnings will cease for one year. In exchange, the student calculates that with post-secondary education, his earnings will increase by at least the \$5,000 per year, as indicated in the table.

The question is simple: Will the prospective student be economically better off by choosing to enroll? If he adds up higher earnings of \$5,000 per year for the remaining nine years in Table A7.1, the total will be \$45,000. Compared to a total investment of \$21,500, this appears to be a very solid investment. The reality, however, is different. Benefits are far lower than \$45,000 because future money is worth less than present money. Costs (tuition plus earnings foregone) are felt immediately because they are incurred today, in the present. Benefits, on the other hand, occur in the future. They are not yet available. All future benefits must be discounted by the going rate of interest (referred to as the discount rate) to be able to express them in present value terms.<sup>46</sup>

Let us take a brief example. At 4%, the present value of \$5,000 to be received one year from today is \$4,807. If the \$5,000 were to be received in year 10, the present value would reduce to \$3,377. Put another way, \$4,807 deposited in the bank today earning 4% interest will grow to \$5,000 in one year; and \$3,377 deposited today would grow to \$5,000 in 10 years. An “economically rational” person would, therefore, be equally satisfied receiving \$3,377 today or \$5,000 10 years from today given the going rate of interest of 4%. The process of discounting – finding the present value of future higher earnings – allows the model to express values on an equal basis in future or present value terms.

The goal is to express all future higher earnings in present value terms so that they can be compared to investments

<sup>46</sup> Technically, the interest rate is applied to compounding – the process of looking at deposits today and determining how much they will be worth in the future. The same interest rate is called a discount rate when the process is reversed – determining the present value of future earnings.

incurred today (in this example, tuition plus earnings foregone). As indicated in Table A7.1 the cumulative present value of \$5,000 worth of higher earnings between years 2 and 10 is \$35,753 given the 4% interest rate, far lower than the undiscounted \$45,000 discussed above.

The net present value of the investment is \$14,253. This is simply the present value of the benefits less the present value of the costs, or \$35,753 - \$21,500 = \$14,253. In other words, the present value of benefits exceeds the present value of costs by as much as \$14,253. The criterion for an economically worthwhile investment is that the net present value is equal to or greater than zero. Given this result, it can be concluded that, in this case, and given these assumptions, this particular investment in education is very strong.

## INTERNAL RATE OF RETURN

The internal rate of return is another way of measuring the worth of investing in education using the same cash flows shown in Table A7.1. In technical terms, the internal rate of return is a measure of the average earning power of money used over the life of the investment. It is simply the interest rate that makes the net present value equal to zero. In the discussion of the net present value above, the model applies the going rate of interest of 4% and computes a positive net present value of \$14,253. The question now is what the interest rate would have to be in order to reduce the net present value to zero. Obviously it would have to be higher – 18.0% in fact, as indicated in Table A7.1. Or, if a discount rate of 18.0% were applied to the net present value calculations instead of the 4%, then the net present value would reduce to zero.

What does this mean? The internal rate of return of 18.0% defines a breakeven solution – the point where the present value of benefits just equals the present value of costs, or where the net present value equals zero. Or, at 18.0%, higher earnings of \$5,000 per year for the next nine years will earn back all investments of \$21,500 made plus pay 18.0% for the use of that money (\$21,500) in the meantime. Is this a good return? Indeed, it is. If it is compared to the 4% going rate of interest applied to the net present value calculations, 18.0% is far higher than 4%. It may be concluded, therefore, that the

investment in this case is solid. Alternatively, comparing the 18.0% rate of return to the long-term 10% rate or so obtained from investments in stocks and bonds also indicates that the investment in education is strong relative to the stock market returns (on average).

## **BENEFIT-COST RATIO**

The benefit-cost ratio is simply the present value of benefits divided by present value of costs, or  $\$35,753 \div \$21,500 = 1.7$  (based on the 4% discount rate). Of course, any change in the discount rate would also change the benefit-cost ratio. Applying the 18.0% internal rate of return discussed above would reduce the benefit-cost ratio to 1.0, the breakeven solution where benefits just equal costs. Applying a discount rate higher than the 18.0% would reduce the ratio to lower than 1.0, and the investment would not be feasible.

The 1.7 ratio means that a dollar invested today will return a cumulative \$1.70 over the ten-year time period.

## **PAYBACK PERIOD**

This is the length of time from the beginning of the investment (consisting of tuition and earnings foregone) until higher future earnings give a return on the investment made. For the student in Table A7.1, it will take roughly 4.2 years of \$5,000 worth of higher earnings to recapture his investment of \$1,500 in tuition and the \$20,000 in earnings foregone while attending the college. Higher earnings that occur beyond 4.2 years are the returns that make the investment in education in this example economically worthwhile. The payback period is a fairly rough, albeit common, means of choosing between investments. The shorter the payback period, the stronger the investment.

## Appendix 8: Shutdown Point

The investment analysis in Chapter 3 weighs the benefits generated by the college against the state and local taxpayer funding that the college receives to support its operations. An important part of this analysis is factoring out the benefits that the college would have been able to generate anyway, even without state and local taxpayer support. This adjustment is used to establish a direct link between what taxpayers pay and what they receive in return. If the college is able to generate benefits without taxpayer support, then it would not be a true investment.<sup>47</sup>

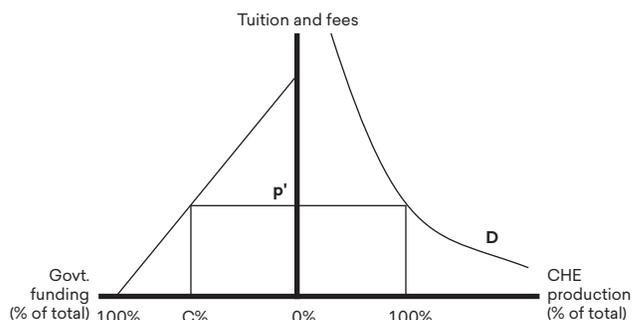
The overall approach includes a sub-model that simulates the effect on student enrollment if the college loses its state and local funding and has to raise student tuition and fees in order to stay open. If the college can still operate without state and local support, then any benefits it generates at that level are discounted from total benefit estimates. If the simulation indicates that the college cannot stay open, however, then benefits are directly linked to costs, and no discounting applies. This appendix documents the underlying theory behind these adjustments.

### STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT SUPPORT VERSUS STUDENT DEMAND FOR EDUCATION

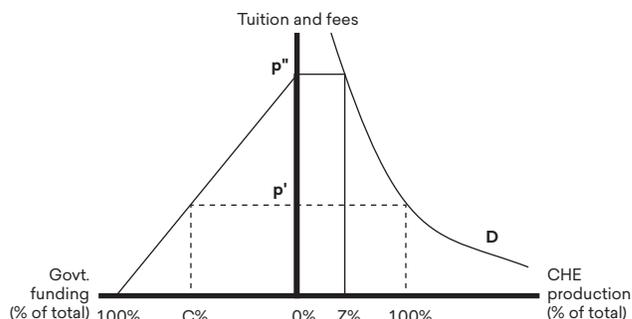
Figure A8.1 presents a simple model of student demand and state and local government support. The right side of the graph is a standard demand curve (D) showing student enrollment as a function of student tuition and fees. Enrollment is measured in terms of total credit hour equivalents (CHEs) and expressed as a percentage of the college's current CHE production. Current student tuition and fees are represented by  $p'$ , and state and local government

<sup>47</sup> Of course, as a public training provider, the college would not be permitted to continue without public funding, so the situation in which it would lose all state support is entirely hypothetical. The purpose of the adjustment factor is to examine the college in standard investment analysis terms by netting out any benefits it may be able to generate that are not directly linked to the costs of supporting it.

**FIGURE A8.1:** Student demand and government funding by tuition and fees



**FIGURE A8.2:** CHE production and government funding by tuition and fees



support covers C% of all costs. At this point in the analysis, it is assumed that the college has only two sources of revenues: 1) student tuition and fees and 2) state and local government support.

Figure A8.2 shows another important reference point in the model – where state and local government support is 0%, student tuition and fees are increased to  $p''$ , and CHE production is at Z% (less than 100%). The reduction in CHEs reflects the price elasticity of the students' demand for education, i.e., the extent to which the students' decision to attend the college is affected by the change in tuition and fees. Ignoring for the moment those issues concerning the college's minimum operating scale (considered below in the section called "Shutdown Point"), the implication for the investment analysis is that benefits to state and local

government must be adjusted to net out the benefits that the college can provide absent state and local government support, represented as Z% of the college's current CHE production in Figure A8.2.

To clarify the argument, it is useful to consider the role of enrollment in the larger benefit-cost model. Let B equal the benefits attributable to state and local government support. The analysis derives all benefits as a function of student enrollment, measured in terms of CHEs produced. For consistency with the graphs in this appendix, B is expressed as a function of the percent of the college's current CHE production. Equation 1 is thus as follows:

$$1) \quad B = B(100\%)$$

This reflects the total benefits generated by enrollments at their current levels.

Consider benefits now with reference to Z. The point at which state and local government support is zero nonetheless provides for Z% (less than 100%) of the current enrollment, and benefits are symbolically indicated by the following equation:

$$2) \quad B = B(Z\%)$$

Inasmuch as the benefits in equation 2 occur with or without state and local government support, the benefits appropriately attributed to state and local government support are given by equation 3 as follows:

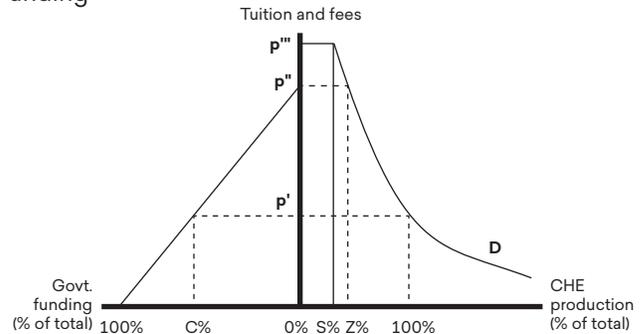
$$3) \quad B = B(100\%) - B(Z\%)$$

## CALCULATING BENEFITS AT THE SHUTDOWN POINT

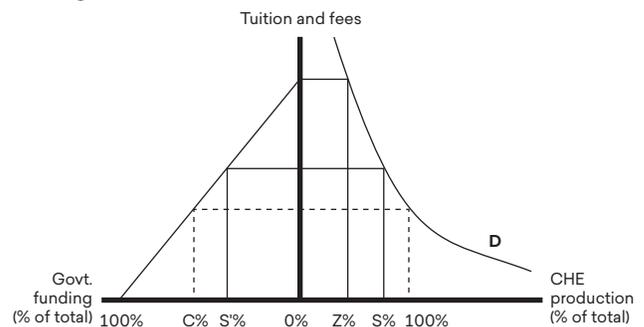
Colleges and universities cease to operate when the revenue they receive from the quantity of education demanded is insufficient to justify their continued operations. This is commonly known in economics as the shutdown point.<sup>48</sup> The shutdown point is introduced graphically in Figure A8.3 as S%. The location of point S% indicates that the college

<sup>48</sup> In the traditional sense, the shutdown point applies to firms seeking to maximize profits and minimize losses. Although profit maximization is not the primary aim of colleges and universities, the principle remains the same, i.e., that there is a minimum scale of operation required in order for colleges and universities to stay open.

**FIGURE A8.3:** Shutdown Point after Zero Government Funding



**FIGURE A8.4:** Shutdown Point before Zero Government Funding



can operate at an even lower enrollment level than Z% (the point at which the college receives zero state and local government funding). State and local government support at point S% is still zero, and student tuition and fees have been raised to p'''. State and local government support is thus credited with the benefits given by equation 3, or  $B = B(100\%) - B(Z\%)$ . With student tuition and fees still higher than p''', the college would no longer be able to attract enough students to keep the doors open, and it would shut down.

Figure A8.4 illustrates yet another scenario. Here the shutdown point occurs at a level of CHE production greater than Z% (the level of zero state and local government support), meaning some minimum level of state and local government support is needed for the college to operate at all. This minimum portion of overall funding is indicated by S% on the left side of the chart, and as before, the shutdown point is indicated by S% on the right side of chart. In this case, state and local government support is appropriately credited with all the benefits generated by the college's CHE production, or  $B = B(100\%)$ .

## Appendix 9: Social Externalities

Education has a predictable and positive effect on a diverse array of social benefits. These, when quantified in dollar terms, represent significant social savings that directly benefit society communities and citizens throughout the region, including taxpayers. In this appendix we discuss the following three main benefit categories: 1) improved health, 2) reductions in crime, and 3) reductions in welfare and unemployment.

It is important to note that the data and estimates presented here should not be viewed as exact, but rather as indicative of the positive impacts of education on an individual's quality of life. The process of quantifying these impacts requires a number of assumptions to be made, creating a level of uncertainty that should be borne in mind when reviewing the results.

### HEALTH

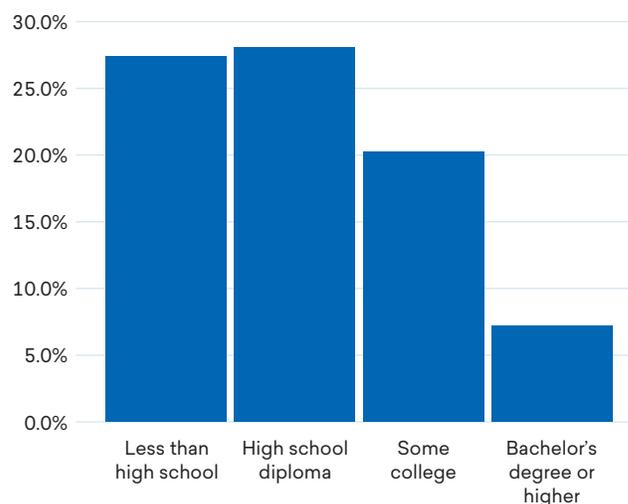
Statistics clearly show the correlation between increases in education and improved health. The manifestations of this are found in five health-related variables: smoking, alcoholism, obesity, mental illness, and drug abuse. There are other health-related areas that link to educational attainment, but these are omitted from the analysis until we can invoke adequate (and mutually exclusive) databases and are able to fully develop the functional relationships between them.

#### Smoking

Despite a marked decline over the last several decades in the percentage of U.S. residents that smoke, a sizeable percentage of the U.S. population still uses tobacco. The negative health effects of smoking are well documented in the literature, which identifies smoking as one of the most serious health issues in the U.S.

Figure A9.1 shows the prevalence of cigarette smoking among adults aged 25 years and over, based on data pro-

**FIGURE A9.1:** Prevalence of smoking among U.S. adults by education level



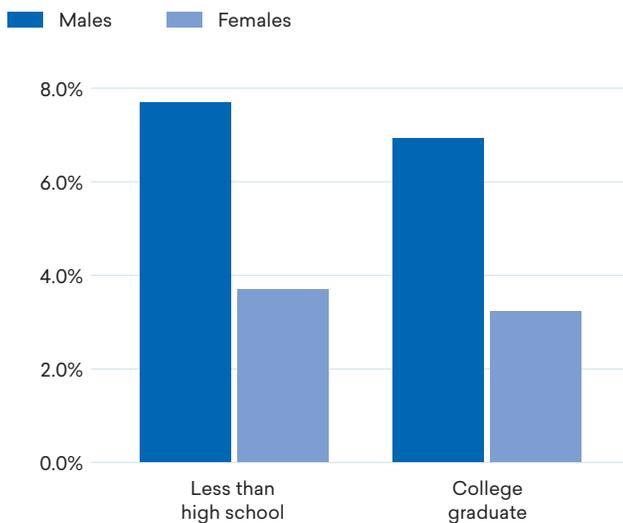
vided by the National Health Interview Survey.<sup>49</sup> As indicated, the percent of persons who smoke begins to decline beyond the level of high school education.

The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) reports the percentage of adults who are current smokers by state.<sup>50</sup> We use this information to create an index value by which we adjust the national prevalence data on smoking to each state. For example, 20.0% of Nebraska' adults were smokers in 2011, relative to 21.2% for the nation. We thus apply a scalar of 0.9 to the national probabilities of smoking in order to adjust them to the state of Nebraska.

49 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, "Table 61. Age-adjusted prevalence of current cigarette smoking among adults aged 25 and over, by sex, race, and education level: United States, selected years 1974-2011," National Health Interview Survey, 2011.

50 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, "Adults who are current smokers" in "Tobacco Use - 2011," Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System Prevalence and Trends Data, accessed August 2013, <http://apps.nccd.cdc.gov/brfss/list.asp?cat=TU&yr=2011&qkey=8161&state=All>.

**FIGURE A9.2:** Prevalence of alcohol dependence or abuse by sex and education level



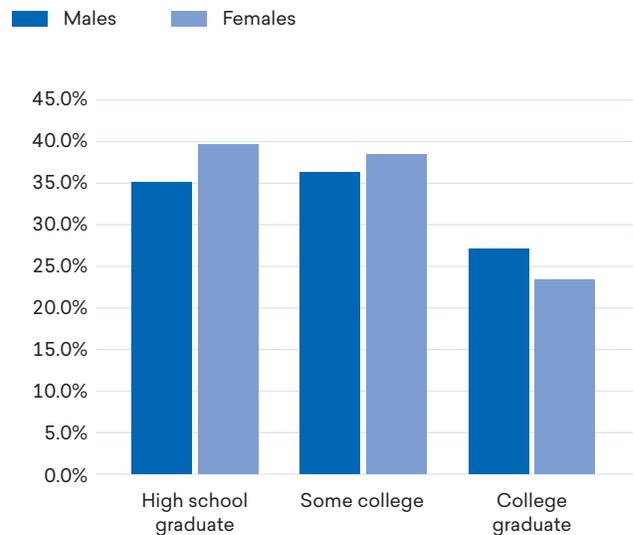
### Alcohol abuse

Alcoholism is difficult to measure and define. There are many patterns of drinking, ranging from abstinence to heavy drinking. Alcohol abuse is riddled with social costs, including healthcare expenditures for treatment, prevention, and support; workplace losses due to reduced worker productivity; and other effects.

Figure A9.2 compares the percent of males and females aged 26 and older that abuse or depend on alcohol at the less than high school level to the prevalence rate of alcoholism among college graduates, based on data supplied by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA).<sup>51</sup> These statistics give an indication of the correlation between education and the reduced probability of alcoholism. As indicated, alcohol dependence or abuse falls from a 7.7% prevalence rate among males with less than a high school diploma to a 6.9% prevalence rate among males with a college degree. Similarly, alcohol dependence or abuse among females ranges from a 3.7% prevalence rate at the less than high school level to a 3.3% prevalence rate at the college graduate level.

51 Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, "Table 5.7B - Substance Dependence or Abuse in the Past Year among Persons Aged 26 or Older, by Demographic Characteristics: Percentages, 2010 and 2011," Center for Behavioral Health Statistics and Quality, National Survey on Drug Use and Health, 2010 and 2011.

**FIGURE A9.3:** Prevalence of obesity by education level



### Obesity

The rise in obesity and diet-related chronic diseases has led to increased attention on how expenditures relating to obesity have increased in recent years. The average cost of obesity-related medical conditions is calculated using information from the *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, which reports incremental medical expenditures and productivity losses due to excess weight.<sup>52</sup> The CDC also reports the prevalence of obesity among adults by state.<sup>53</sup>

Data for Figure A9.3 was provided by the National Center for Health Statistics which shows the prevalence of obesity among adults aged 20 years and over by education and sex.<sup>54</sup> As indicated, college graduates are less likely to be obese than individuals with a high school diploma. However, the prevalence of obesity among males with some

52 Eric A. Finkelstein, Marco da Costa DiBonaventura, Somali M. Burgess, and Brent C. Hale, "The Costs of Obesity in the Workplace," *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine* 52, no. 10 (October 2010): 971-976.

53 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, "Adult Obesity Facts," Overweight and Obesity, accessed August 2013, <http://www.cdc.gov/obesity/data/adult.html#Prevalence>.

54 Cynthia L. Ogden, Molly M. Lamb, Margaret D. Carroll, and Katherine M. Flegal, "Figure 3. Prevalence of obesity among adults aged 20 years and over, by education, sex, and race and ethnicity: United States 2005-2008" in "Obesity and Socioeconomic Status in Adults: United States 2005-2008," NCHS data brief no. 50, Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics, 2010.

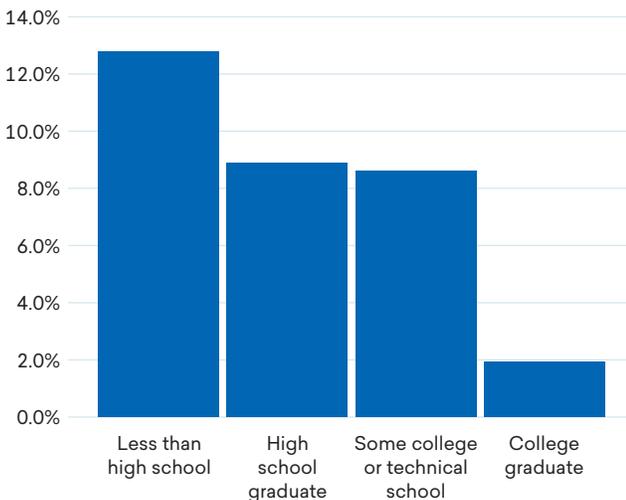
college is actually greater than males with no more than a high school diploma. In general, though, obesity tends to decline with increasing levels of education.

### Mental illness

Capturing the full economic cost of mental disorders is problematic because many of the costs are hidden or difficult to detach from others externalities, such as drug abuse or alcoholism. For this reason, this study only examines the costs of absenteeism caused by depression in the workplace. Figure A9.4 summarizes the prevalence of self-reported frequent mental distress among adults by education level, based on data supplied by the CDC.<sup>55</sup> As shown, people with higher levels of education are less likely to suffer from mental illness, with the prevalence of mental illness being the highest among people with less than a high school diploma.

55 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, "Table 1. Number of respondents to a question about mental health and percentage who self-reported frequent mental distress (FMD), by demographic characteristics -- United States, Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System, 1993-1996" in "Self-Reported Frequent Mental Distress Among Adults -- United States, 1993-1996." *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 47, no. 16 (May 1998): 325-331.

**FIGURE A9.4:** Prevalence of frequent mental distress by education level



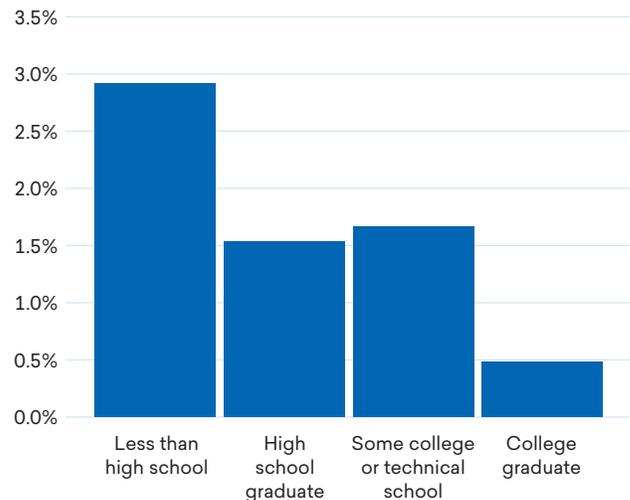
### Drug abuse

The burden and cost of illicit drug abuse is enormous in our society, but little is known about potential costs and effects at a population level. What is known is that the rate of people abusing drugs is inversely proportional to their education level. The higher the education level, the less likely a person is to abuse or depend on illicit drugs. The probability that a person with less than a high school diploma will abuse drugs is 2.9%, nearly six times greater than the probability of drug abuse for college graduates (0.5%). This relationship is presented in Figure A9.5 based on data supplied by SAMHSA.<sup>56</sup> Health costs associated with illegal drug use are also available from SAMSHA, with costs to state and local government representing 48% of the total cost related to illegal drug use.<sup>57</sup>

56 Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, National Survey on Drug Use and Health, 2010 and 2011.

57 Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration. "Table A.2. Spending by Payer: Levels and Percent Distribution for Mental Health and Substance Abuse (MHSA), Mental Health (MH), Substance Abuse (SA), Alcohol Abuse (AA), Drug Abuse (DA), and All-Health, 2005" in *National Expenditures for Mental Health Services & Substance Abuse Treatment, 1986 - 2005*. DHHS Publication No. (SMA) 10-4612. Rockville, MD: Center for Mental Health Services and Center for Substance Abuse Treatment, Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, 2010.

**FIGURE A9.5:** Prevalence of illicit drug dependence or abuse by education level



## CRIME

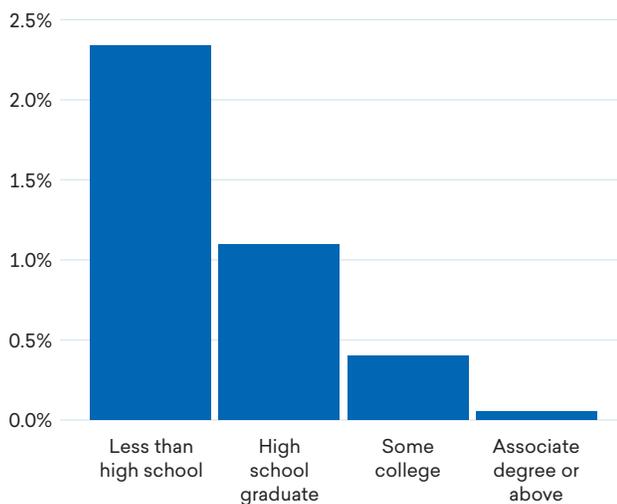
As people achieve higher education levels, they are statistically less likely to commit crimes. The analysis identifies the following three types of crime-related expenses: 1) criminal justice expenditures, including police protection, judicial and legal, and corrections, 2) victim costs, and 3) productivity lost as a result of time spent in jail or prison rather than working.

Figure A9.6 displays the probability that an individual will be incarcerated by education level. Data are derived from the breakdown of the inmate population by education level in federal, state, and local prisons as provided by the Bureau of Justice Statistics,<sup>58</sup> divided by the total adult population. As indicated, incarceration drops on a sliding scale as education levels rise.

Victim costs comprise material, medical, physical, and emotional losses suffered by crime victims. Some of these costs are hidden, while others are available in various databases. Estimates of victim costs vary widely, attributable to differences in how the costs are measured. The lower end of the

58 Caroline Wolf Harlow. "Table 1. Educational attainment for State and Federal prison inmates, 1997 and 1991, local jail inmates, 1996 and 1989, probationers, 1995, and the general population, 1997" in "Education and Correctional Populations." Bureau of Justice Statistics Special Report, January 2003, NCJ 195670. Accessed August 2013. <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/index.cfm?ty=pbdetail&iid=814>.

**FIGURE A9.6:** Incarceration rates by education level



scale includes only tangible out-of-pocket costs, while the higher end includes intangible costs related to pain and suffering (McCollister et al., 2010).

Yet another measurable benefit is the added economic productivity of people who are gainfully employed, all else being equal, and not incarcerated. The measurable productivity benefit is simply the number of additional people employed multiplied by the average income of their corresponding education levels.

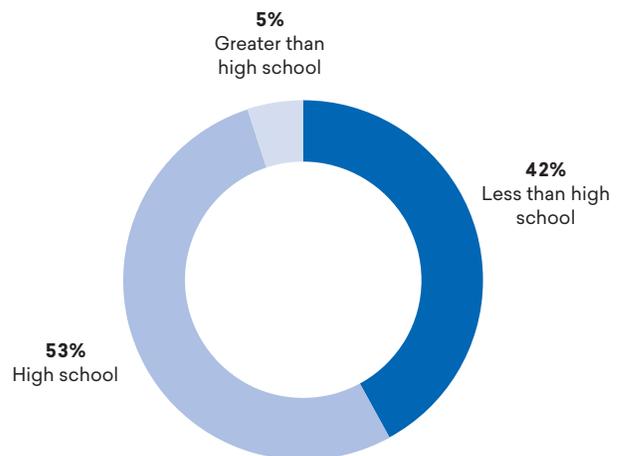
## WELFARE AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Statistics show that as education levels increase, the number of welfare and unemployment applicants declines. Welfare and unemployment claimants can receive assistance from a variety of different sources, including Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP), Medicaid, Supplemental Security Income (SSI), and unemployment insurance.<sup>59</sup>

Figure A9.7 relates the breakdown of TANF recipients by education level, derived from data supplied by the U.S.

59 Medicaid is not considered in the analysis for welfare because it overlaps with the medical expenses in the analyses for smoking, alcoholism, obesity, mental illness, and drug abuse. We also exclude any welfare benefits associated with disability and age.

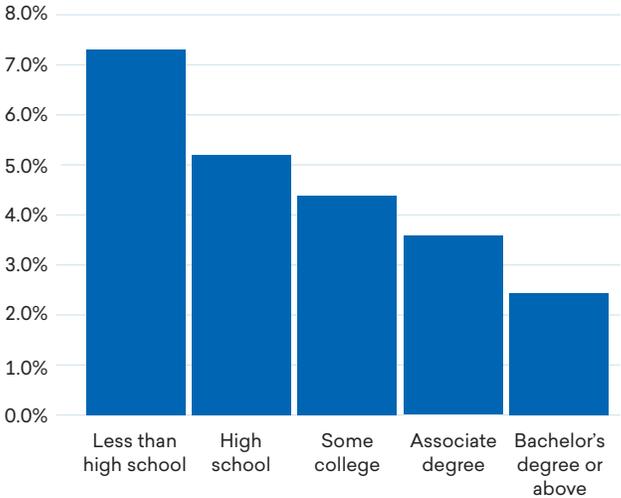
**FIGURE A9.7:** Breakdown of TANF recipients by education level



Department of Health and Human Services.<sup>60</sup> As shown, the demographic characteristics of TANF recipients are weighted heavily towards the less than high school and high school categories, with a much smaller representation of individuals with greater than a high school education.

Unemployment rates also decline with increasing levels of education, as illustrated in Figure A9.8. These data are supplied by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.<sup>61</sup> As shown, unemployment rates range from 7.4% for those with less than a high school diploma to 2.5% for those at the bachelor's degree level or higher.

**FIGURE A9.8:** Unemployment by education level



60 U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Office of Family Assistance, "Table 10:26 - Temporary Assistance for Needy Families - Active Cases: Percent Distribution of TANF Adult Recipients by Educational Level, FY 2009" in Temporary Assistance for Needy Families Program Ninth Report to Congress, 2012.

61 Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Table 7. Employment status of the civilian noninstitutional population 25 years and over by educational attainment, sex, race, and Hispanic or Latino ethnicity." Current Population Survey, Labor Force Statistics. Accessed August 2013. <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat07.pdf>.

