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## Foreword

The Condition of Education is the annual statistical report describing conditions in education as well as those in the larger socky that affect education. It is prepared by the National Center for Education Statistics as required by Public Law 93-380, Title V, Section 501 (a). This is the fifth such report.

In this year's report, statistical data are presented on a variety of issues concerning edacational institutions, participants, and persomel. The report is organized to reflect the characteristics of the education system and its relationship to the larger society. The first section of this report describes trends and developments affecting education at all levels. Chap.ter I deals with the societal context for deseribing the condition of education. chapter 2 covers elementary and secondary education. and chapter 3 examines postsecondary education. In the second section of the report. special lopies have been selected for closer analesis. Chapter 4 looks at the financing of elementary and secondary education. chapter 5 examines outcomes of education, and chapter 6 explores the status of minorities and tromen in higher education.

The marmative for cath chapter refers to data presented in eharthook form. Each entry on a topic consints of a table and a chat, which are presented together. The data highlighted in the ehart, and briefly deseribed in a statement aceompanying the chart, are extracted from the facing table. Data used in the ehart appear in boldface type in the table, Which may be readily eonsulted for further information.

An effort was made ia preparing this report to address a broad range of significant issues at all levels of education. Data onemerging as well as recuring issues are reported. Many of the statistic:s presented here relate to issu 10 included in previous editions: of this report. To aid readers desiring statistios on other topics or more data on a particular issue, a cumblative index lists topics and data shown in the 1976. 1977, and 1978 editions, as well as in the present edition.
Part Two of this report contains a deseription of the activities of the Center for fiscal yats 1979 and 1980. We hope that this report will be helpful to the reader in understanding the information and servies avalable in the National Center for Education Statistics.

Maric D. Fldridge<br>- Administrator<br>National Conter for Education Statistics

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## The Condition of Education

I An Overview of Education


## Chapter 1 The Social Context of Education

Education is a network of relationships among people, a system with links to the family, the work force, and the community. This initial thoter is designed to illuminate these linkages between education and other social institutions. By examiring recent trends within the family, the work force, and the community, it suggests the impact that changes in other systems may have on education. It also' examines the converse, that is, the influence that education exerts on other social institutions and on the roles that Americans occupy as parents, workers, and citizens.

## Education and the Family

Educational attainment is closely' linked to fanily background. Presenting the educational status of family members by the educational atainment of family heads indicates the importance of family background (entry 1.1). The lower limit to educational attainment of family dependents has been based traditionally on the level attained by family heads. In general, dependents have tended to attain levels of education similar to or somewhat higher than those completed by family heads.

Most high school dropouts have family heads with only limited schooling. Two-thirds of family members who dropped out of high school have family heads who never finished high school. Most high school graduates with no college experience have family heads who did not go beyond high school. Similarly, a majority of family members who are fulltime college students are from houscholds in which the heads had some coflege training.

Appreciable gains in eclucational status have been made in a single generation by some raciel/ethnic groups. Progress is particularly pronounced among blacks and is also evident to a lesser extent among Hispanies. Most black and Hispanic fanily members have family heads with fewer than 12 years of schooling. Although minority members in college tend to have better educated fanily heads than blacks and Hispanics in gencral, about iwo-fifths are from families in which the heads have less than a high school eclucation. Only one-fourth of black college students have family heads with any college experience. Equal proportionis of Hispanic college students come from families headed by high school dropouts and from families with college-educated heads.

The first feature most readily apparent about the contemporary American family is its shrinking size. Within this decade, the average number of persons in family households declined from 3.61 persons in 1970 to 3.37 personss in 1977. Some of this decline can be attributed to more young adults and more senior eitizens setting up independent bouseholds. Most of the decline is the direct result of the low. birth ate among young women of childbearing age.
Although the proportion is down slightly from 1970, in 54 percent of all families have children under 18 years old. If the number of ehildren were evenly distributed among all families with children, each family would have an averege of 2.04 children. In 1965, the average was 2.44 children.

Fewer children.in the family, as in the classroom, may contribute to more favorable conditions for raising the young. Smailer families may mean that parents have more time, energy, and assets to devote to their children's education. Yet, as in the classroom, other obligations may compete for these resources. Parents mạy be less able or willing to sacrifice for children because of competing demands from work or other interests outside the home. Whether parents today devote more of themselves to their children's education than was the case in the past remains conjectural. The only information currently available is from parents' reports of their own involvement in a recent Columbia Broadcasting Sys-

- tem (CBS) survey. According to these subjective estiniates, at least. parents indicated that they are more involved in their children's education than their own parents were when they were young.

Although each family with children averages two children, not all fanilies have two parents (entry 1.2). This introduces a second phenomenon of modern American family life, single parenthood. The vast majority of children, nearly four-fifths, live with both parents. Yet, this proportion has fallen substantially over the last several years. The decline is evident aniong whites and particularly among blacks. About 85 percent of white children lived with both pare.ts, in 1977, compared to 92 percent in 1960 . Fewer than half of all black children lived with both parents in 1977, in contrast to almost two-thirds 17 years carlier.

Some obscrvers view the proportion seported living in traditional mother-father households as too high, -because this percentage includes a growing proportion of children living with the mother and a step=father. According to 1976 Foundation for Child Development estimates; 7 percent of 7 - 6111 -yearolds reside in these mother-stepfather familius. This percentage, combined with the proportion of children in the one-parent families, represents at least onefourth of American children who have experienced some fanily disruption the ough death, desertion, or more often, divorce.

Among children under 18 in one-parent houscholds, most live with their mothers only. Sixteen percent of all children in - 1977 were living in female-headed families, twice the proportion in 1960. Amorg black children, the proportion is much higher-alr:ost 42 percent. Another 9 percent of black children live in households where neither parent is present, a percentage much above, the national figure.

The impact of the female-headed houschold on the education of children is unclear. Families with female heads do have ceriain features negatively associated with the education of children, not the least of these being depressed family income. Low income, combined with lower educational attainment of female heads and less time to devote to their children, may place additional demands on the schools.

A third phenomenon of the modern American family is the working mother. As reported in last year's edition of this report, the proportion of school-age children with working mothers has risen appreciably in the 1970's. This trend continued in 1978 with over 53 percent of children 6 to 17 years old living with mothers who are in the labor force.

According to self-reports on the CBS poll, working mothers are as likely to be involved in their children's education as mothers not in the labor force. When asked to what extent parents participate in their children's educational activities, participation re-ported by working mothers was no different from that of nonworking mothers. Indicators are not currently available to show how family childrearing practices may be changing as a result of the greater labor force participation of mothers. Many analysts suggest that this trend may result in greater sharing of childrearing responsibilities between parents. Both parents working may also increase the role of the schools in providing child care.

A fourth feature of the American family likely to affect education is the inereasing educational attainment of parents (entry 1.3;. Consistent with the general trend toward a better educated populace, there has been a rise in the level of parents education. Over the past decade, educational attainment of family heads with. chiddren rose for all types of families. It was reported in 1978 that more that onethird of fathers in two-parents families had gone to college and one-fifth had graduated from college. Fewer than one-third had not graduated from high school, a significant reduction since 1970.

Educational attainment of mothers heading singleparent families tends to be much lower than the level of schooling of fathers heading two-parent families. A large proportion, 43 percent, of female heads in 1978 did not have digh school education. It is also noteworth'/ that the percentag. of temale heads with 4 years or high school or with 1 to 3 years of eollege is much the same as the pereentage among fathers in two-parent families. It is at the bottom and at the top of the educational scale that the attainment of female heads is very different from that of heads of two-parent families.

The higher overall educational attaimment of famia; heads can be attributed to several factors. The development reflects the overall trend in higher education among the adult population. The massive influx of GI Bill recipients into higher education after World War Il contributed to this general growth. The need for advanced training to meet job requirements has resulted further in a longer period of schooling. In more recent years, extension of postsecondary education to adults beyond the traditional college age also, hes contributed to greater attainment. Adult education courses have attracted many parents with school-age chiddren. As reported in a reeent Gallup poll, parents with children in school were nore likely to report that they have taken an arde education course than respondents without chidren.

The benefits which are associated with higher educational attainment in the general population apply to parents and their children as well. Educational advantages appear transferable from parent to child. Higher parental education has been shown consistently the be related to higher achievement of children as sfudents and ats young adults. As previously discussed, childfen tend to attain levels of education comparable to levels attained by their parents. As will be shown later, higher parental education is associated with higher test scores of students on national assessments of performance in various subjeet areass. Low seorers tend to be from families headed by non-high school graduates, high scorers from families with heads with some postsecondary education. However, these seores compare student aehievement at one point, not over time. Whether the trend towart nigher parental attainment will contribute to a generally higher level of student performanee in the long run remains a research question.

Beeause of the rapidity of change in the American family, the effects of these trends on education are difficult to measure. One approach to gatging their impact is to measure the public's perception of them. A recent CBS poll offers some indication of the public's attitudes toward American education and the family (entry 1.4). The responses of parents with school age children are particularly noteworthy.

When asked about the effect of the one-parent fanily on the education of children, parents overwhelmingly responded negatively. Sixfy-three pereent saw single parenthood as adversely affecting education. Only 3 pereent viewed it as having a positive effect.

The effect of the mother working was also seen negatively. Despite the fact that a majority of mothers with school-age children now work, forty-six perem of the parents viewed mothers who work as having a bad effect on their chitdren's education. Of the working mothers polled, mosi vicwed working more ambivalently; 28 percent saw working negatively, 12 percent positively, and 45 pereent neutrally.

The poll also asked parents' opinions on the effeets of influences outside the family. Television in general was viewed negatively but children's programming was seen quite positively. Racial integration was most often viewed neutrally; about the same proportion saw it positively as negatively. The effeet of husing or the education of the children involved was more negatively viewed.

Because the school-age child's time is divided among the schoo!, the family, and the television set, a closer examination of the relationship between television, the family, and children's education is warranted. As estimated by the Neilsen Ration Serviec, 97 percent of all households own telekision sets and 45 percent own more than one. According to Parent and Teachers Association estimates, by the time students graduate from high sehool, they have averaged 11,000 hours in the classroom and 15,000 hours in front of the television.

The CBS poll asked parents whether they set rules: about celevision and schoolwork (entry i.5). About one-fourth of parents indicated that they do not restice their children's television vieting time or the progran!s that their ehildren wates. There were slighty more parents respotiding that they enfore such rules all the time than there were who responded that they did not enforice such rules at all. According to their esponses, parents are more likely to enforce study hours than restric! television? viewing. The overivlielming majority indicated that they enforee study hours at heal oceasionally.

In the same poll, most parents reported that they are involved in their children's education through rimetings with teachers and counselors. Only 6 pereent said that they never met with their children's instructors or advisors. Most parents also indicated that they participate in the PTA at least oceasionally. Far fewer perform volunteer work in the schools. Orily 15 pereent responded that they are active in sehool volunter work. About one-third neves take their chiddren to the tibrary.

According to the most recent Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward education. most parents indicated that they have enough time to devote to helping their chiddren with homework (entry 1.6). However, almost one-third said that they did not. The proportion of parents who indieated that they lack time varied by educational background. Those with less sducation said that they have less time. Almost half of parents with only a grade school edueation indicated that they could not devote enough time to assisting with homework. Onc-fourth of eollege educated parents cited a lack of time. Results by family type were inconclusive due to the high nomresponse rate to this iten by parent: in one-parent fanilies.

A look at the amount of time 17-year-olds spend on homework weekly indicates that most devote only a minimal amount of time to hom:work (entry 1.7 ). A majority indicated that they sfend less than one hour a sehool night on homevork. More than 6 percent said that no homework was assigned and another 6 pereent indicated that they did not do the homework that was assigned. At the other exireme. 6 percent indicated that they, spent more thain 10 hours on homework weekly. Later chapters will explore the association between homework and television time and performance on math exereises, as well as student attitudes about the difficulty of homework.

## Education and Work

Educational status is closely related to labor force participation of young adults (entry 1.8 ). Among 16- to 24-yearolds cnrolled $b \cdot$ low the college level. 43 pereent are in the work force and of these, 18 percent are unemployed. Most joung adult eollege students combine sehooling with participation in the labor force: 43 percent of those enrolled full-time and 89 pereent of those enrolled part-time are in the labor force. Their unemployment rates tend to be lower than the rate of the $16-102+$-vear-old population in general.

The relationship between education and labor forec participation is even more apparent among young adults who are not currently enrolled in school. Higher educational attainment is positively associated with participation in the labor force and negatively associated with unemployment. Only two-thirds of young adult high school dropouts are in the labor force and of those one-fifth are unemployed. The unemployment rate of high school dropouts is twice the rate of high school graduates with no college experience and 212 times the rate of college graduates. About 84 pereent of young high school graduates with no college experience aie in the labor force and of these. 10 pereent are unemployed. College graduntes have the highest labor force participation rates and the lowest unemployment rates.

Race also influences the employment prospects of young adults within educational attainment levels. Among in-school and out-of-school young adults, blacks have appreciably lower labor force participation rates and substantially higher unemployment rates. Although less likely to be in the fabor force, blacks are three times as likely to be unchiployed as whites. Participation end employment rates of young adults of Hispanic orgin fall between the rates of whites and blacks.

As shown in last year's edition of this report, the unemployment rate of black high school graduates is lower than that of black high school dropouts yet higher than that of white high school dropouts. Reicial discrimina :on in hiring might account for some of this disparity. Differences in career skills also may eontribute to higher unemployment of young blacks.

Scores on tests of career and occupational development provide some evidence of these differences in career skills (entry 1.9). In 1976, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) tested 17-year-olds in school and out of school on exercises measuring job knọwledge, attitudes, and skills. - Performance of black 17 -year-olds was below that of whites in nearly all areas of the career and occupational development assessment. For both the ${ }^{e}$ inschool and out-of-school groups, divergences were greatest in the arcas of generally useful skills and knowledge about jobs. In the out-of-school group, blacks and wftites were about the same in their ability to describe their perceptions of their own interests and abilities.

Blacks who were in school did not perform appreciably better than whites who were not in school. In three of the areas-values related to jobs, knowledge about jobs, and generally uscful skills-average -performance of black 17-year-olds attending school was the same as or below the average performance of white 17 -year-olds not attending school. The performance scores combined with a high unemployment rate indicate that concern over the career preparedness of black youths appears justified.

Educatidnal attainment is closely related to type of employment (entry 1.10). Almost two thirds of professional and technical workers and one-third of managers and administrators have completed at least 4 years of college. A sizeable proportion of clerical and sales workers have gone beyond high school. Most blue-collar wörkers have at least a high school education. Only in the farnworker and private houschold worker category do non-high school graduates comprise a mionerkers.

Although most professional and technical workers hold college degrees; a college degree today does not guarantec professional ivork (entry 1.11). During most of the 1960 's, college graduates entering the labor foree were almost assured professional level wobrk. Between 1962 and 1969, 73 percent of all college greduates found professional and technical work and another 17 percent found work as managers and administrators. Only a small percentage of college graduates entered clerical and sales positions, and the proportion in blue-collar and service work was negligible. At the end of this period, the job prospects for entering college graduates changed substantially. Since 1969 college graduates have faced increased competition for higher status whitecollar employncit. Fewer than half of the college graduates who joined the labor force between 1969 and 1976 entered professional or technical work. Although the proportion entering managerial and administrative work remained constant, the percentage in sales and clerical work rose appreciably. Almost- 12 percent entered blue-collar or service jobs, and another 4.7 percent did not obtain employment. The cconomic slowdown during the first half of the 1970's and the drop in the demand for new teachers contributed somewhat to this turnaround. However, the single most important factor was the tremendous incicase in the number of graduates secking jobs.

Competition not only has a depressing effect on the type of work college graduates can command, it also limits the kinds of work available for non-college graduates. Although their education may not be applicable, college graduates have some hiring advantages over candidates with less education. This means stiffer competition among lab.rr force entrants at all ciducational levels.

Educational attainment is also associated with job satisfaction, particularly with the intangible aspects of work (entry 1.12). More young college graduates expressed high satisfaction with their jobs than did their counterparts with less education. They did not differ significantly from other young adults in their satisfaction with pay and fringe benefits, which reflects the shorter employment history of college graduates. College graduates were much more likely to indicate high satisfaction with their occupational status and opportunities. They recognize the potential for advancement, not necessarily in their current position or with their current employer, b.t with the future job possibilities that higher education affords.

## Education and the Community

The denocratic process requires an involved and informed citizenry. A corollary of this tenet mainteins that greater political involvement necessarily results from a more highly educated socicty. Thus, following this reasoning, political participation should rise with an increase in educational attainment. Taking voting behavior as an indicator of minimai political participation, voter particination should increase with greater educational attainment (entry 1.13). Over the last decades, however, this relationship has not been supported by the data on voting behavior. Since 1964 the proportion of the electorate voting in presidental and congressional elections has fallen. During the same period, the pereent of the adult population with at least a high school education has risen from 4.5 to 6.5 percent.

Voter participation declined at all educational levels. Yet, the more highly educated were still more likely to vote than the less educated in 1976. The college educated were almost twice as likely to have voted in the presidential election as those with only an clementary school education.

A look at the potitical and social involvement of young adult high school graduates underscores the importance of education in participation in these areas (entry 1.14). Young adults who had graduated from high school $41 / 2$ years previously were asked to indicate whether they had participated in various activitics over the past 2 years. According to their responses, young adult college graduates were far more likely to register and vote in governmental clections and belong to political organizations than their counterparts with less educition. Sixteen percent of young college graduates indicated that they belonged to a political clut or organization, which was 3 times as high as the participation rate of young adult high school graduates with no college experience. Less than 60 percent of the young adults who had not gone beyond high schoul had registered to vote. College graduates were also more often involved in work-related organizations and in community, service, or organized voluntecr work. Only in ehurchrelated actixities were rates comparable for young adults at different educational levels.

Part of this lack of involvement may be attributed to apathy and part to disenchantment with institutional leaders. Although last years edition of this report noted a generally favorable trend in public confidence in institutomal leaders since 1975, 1978, marked a decline (entry 1.15). As public confidence in most institutional leaders decreased, public support for the leaders in education fell to its lowest point in 6 years.

Disenchantment with the politieal proeess is one problem, ignorance is another. Results from the NAEP assessment of political knowledge and attitudes of 13- and 17-ycar-olds indieate that ignorance is a cause for concern (entry 1.16). A comparison of the mos' reeent scores with those reported at the start of the deeade indicates a general decline in students knowledge of constitutional rights, the political process, and international affairs.

Except among 13- and 17 -year-olds living in extreme rural areas, scores on political knowledge and attitudes dropped between the first and the seeond assessments. It was also diseoncerting that students fiom kow incone communities in metropolitan areas scored appreciably below the Nation in booth periods. The only excreises on which scores did not decline substantially were students' valuing of constitutional rights and their respect for others.

Perhaps some of the political apathy and ignorance of students may be traceable to a lack of personal involvement in their communities. Aceording to responses to the Gallup poll, the public would favor a propesal to give high school credit to juniors and seniors for community service (entry 1.17). Fightysever: percent of all respondents would apprice of juniors and seniors earning course credit for giving serviee to the community. Approval was widespread among respondents with children in the public schools and respondents with no ehildren in the schools. Students too indieated overwhelming approval for sueh a flan. It is noteworthy in' an cra of tighter budgets and eurriculuni that the public, parents, aid students see the need for high school students to extend their educational expeifences beyond the school to the eommunity. A later chapter will show that only a small percentage of seeondary schools have responded to this interest by offering course credit for community serviee.

Table 1.1
Educational status of family mu.nbers 3 to 34 years old, by years of school completed by family head and racial/ethnic group: 1976


Chart 1.1
Educational Status of Family Members by Educational Attainment of Family Head

For all racial/ethnic groups. the level of educational participation of family members rises with the level of education attained by the family head. A majority of white full-tine college students. are from families with heads who completed more than 12 years of school.


Table 1.2
Fanily status of children under 18, by race: Selected years, 1960 to 1977

|  | Race and living |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ariangement |  |

$$
\therefore \quad 30
$$

Chart 1.2 : $\quad: \quad=$
Children Living With Both Parents

The percentage of children living with both parents has dectined among hoth whites and blacks since 1960. In 1977, 47 percent of black children and $85^{\circ}$ percenf of white children were living with both parents.

-Table 1.3
Educational attainment of heads of families with children 6 to 17 years old, by type of family: 1970 to 1978


Chart 1.3
Educational Attainment of Family Heads With Children

Parental education is lower in single-parent families headed by mothers than in two-parent families headed by fathers. The attainment level has risen among both groups in recent years.


Table 1.4
Parents' opinion on the effects of external influences on children's education: 1978


## Chart 1.4

Outside Influences on Children's Education: Parents' Opinion

Although many parents regard television in general as detrimental to children's education, most view children's programs on television as a positive influence.


Table 1.5
Parental control over children's television viewing and study hours and involvenent in children's education: 1978


4

Chart 1.5


Parents' Control and Involvement in Children's Education

Most parents do enforce study hours: 'limit television viewing, and meet with their children's teachers and counselors, at least occasionally. About onethird said that they do not participate in the PTA or take their children to the library.


Table 1.6
Time parents have to devote to assisting their children with homework: 1978


Chart 1.6
Time Parents Have to Help With Homework

Most parents indicated that they devote enough time to helping with their children's homework. However, a sizeable minority of parents with only a grade school education indicated that they have little or no time to spend helping with homework.


Table 1.7
Average hours spent by 17-year-olds on homework weekly and teievision nighty: 1976


Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress. "Some Preliminary Analyses of National Longitudinal Study Background Items Used in the National Assessment", 1978.

## Chart 1.7

Weekly Homework and Nightly Television Viewing
-ime devoted to homework $\therefore$ not clearly associated with time spent viewing television. A majority of 17-year-olds spend less than 5 hours a week on homework. The larges. group of 17-year-olds reported viewing less than 1 hour of television nightly.

Percentage distribution of 17 -year-olds



Table 1.8
Employment status of civilian noninstitutional' population 16 to 24 years old, by school enrollment status, sex, racial/ethnic group, and educational attainment: October 1976 and October 1977


Chart 1.8
Labor Force Participation and Unemployment of Young Adults

Only two-thirds of young adult high school dropouts are in the labor force and of those one-fifth are unemploved. Most young adult college students combine schooling with participation in the labor force; 43 percent of those enrolied full-time and 89 percent of those enrolled part-time are in the labor force.


Table 1.9
Career development assessment of 17 -year-olds, by enrollment status, race, and type of exercise: School year 1973-74


SOURCE: US. Department of Heallh. Education. and Welfare. National Center for Educalion Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress. School and the 17-YearOld, 1978 and unpublished data.

Chart 1.9
Career Knowledge, Values, and Skills of 17-Year-Olds

Within each racial group, out-of-school 17-year-olds performed far below 17-year-old students on career development exercises. However, white high school dropouts performed tro worse than black high school students on the exercises measuring job-related values, specific job knowledge, and generally useful skills.



Table 1.10
Educational attainment of employed persons 16 years old and over, by major occupational group: March 1977


NOTE: Details may not add to to:als because of rounding
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Special Labor Force Report 209, Educational Altanment of Workers. 1978.

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Chart 1.17
College Graduates in Major Occupations

Almost two-thirds of professional and technical workers and one-third of managers and administrators have completed at least 4 years of college.


Table 1.11
Labor force entrance of college graduates, by major occupational group: March 1962 to March 1969 and March 1969 to March 1976


48

Chart 1.11
Occupations Entered by College Graduates

While the number of college graduates joining the labor force between 1969 and 1976 was twice the number entering during the previous 7 -year period, the number entering professional occupations increased by less than onethird.


Table 1.12
Job satisfaction of \(y\) oung adult full-time workers \(4^{1 ⁄ 2}\) years after high school, by educational attainment: 1976


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Natlonal Center for Education Statistics. National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972. unpublished tabulations.

Chart 1.12
Job Satisfaction of Young Adult Workers

More young college graduates expressed high satisfaction with their jobs than their counterparts with less education.


Table 1.13
Voter participation rate, by educational attainment: 1964 to 1976
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Years of school completed} & \multicolumn{7}{|c|}{Percent of population who reported voting} & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{,} \\
\hline & & 1964 & 1966 & 1968 & 1970 & 1972 & 1974 & 1976 & \\
\hline & 8 years or less. & 59.0 & 44.6 & 53.4 & 43.4 & 47.4 & 34.4 & 44.1 & \\
\hline & 9 to 11 years. & 65.4 & 49.9 & 64.2 & 47.1 & 52.0 & 35.9 & 47.2 & \\
\hline & 12 years. & 76.1 & \(60.1{ }^{\text {- }}\) & 75.5 & 58.4 & 65.4 & 44.7 & 59.4 & \\
\hline & 13 to 15 years. & 82.1 & 64.8 & 81.2 & 61.3 & 74.9 & 49.6 & 68.1 & \\
\hline & 16 or more year & 87.5 & 70.2 & 85.0 & 70.2 & 83.6 & 61.3 & 79.8 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Voting and Registration in the Election of November 1976, P-20, and unpublished data.

Chart 1.13
Voter Participation by Educational Attainment

Although higher educational attainment is associated with a greater likelihood of voting, the proportion of the electorate voting in presidental and congressional elections has declined at all educational .levels since 1964.

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\therefore 53
\]

Table 1.14
Political and social pasticipation of young adult high school graduates, by educational attainment: 1976


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972, unpubished data:

Chart 1.14
Political and Social Participation of Young Adult High School Graduates by Educational Attainment

Young adalt college
graduates were far more likely to register and vote in governmental elections. and belong to a political organization than their counterparts with less education.


Table 1.15
Public confidence in people nunning institutions in the Lnited States: 1973 to 1978


\section*{Chart 1.15}

Confidence in the People Running Institutions: Public Opinios

As public confidence in most institutional leaders declined in 1978, public confidence in the people running educational institutions fell to its lowest point in 6 years.

> "I am going to name some institutions in this country. As far as the people running these institutions are concerned, would you say you have a great deal of confidence, only some connidence, or hardly any confidence at all in them?"

Percent of responderits expressing "a great deal of confidence"

\[
-=m-m \text { Medicine } \quad \text { Major companies } \quad-\quad \text { Press }
\]

NCES

Table 1.16
Change in political knowledge and attitudes from citizenship and social studies assessments, by age and type of community: School year 1969-70 to 1975-76


Chart 1.16
Political Knowiedge and Attitudes on Citizenship and Social Studies Assessments

Except among 13- and 17-year-olds living in extreme rural areas, scores on political knowledge and attitudes fell between a first and a second
- assessment. Students from low income communities in metropolitan areas scored appreciably below the Nation in both periods.


Table 1.17
Public opinion on high school course credit for community service: 1978


Chart 1.17
High School Credit for Community Service: Public Opinion

An ojerwhelming majority of the public favors allowing high school juniors and seniors to earn
, course credit for
- community service work.


American socicty has long recognized the need for a populction that has certain basic skills and \({ }^{\prime}\) knowledge ia common. The elementary and secondary edubition sviem in this country is the vehicle Atrowh arn \(\cdot\) this is achieved. Thus, the condition of en, me rary and secondary education is the subject of wiven en concern. Families. communities, emplowers, a: government at all levels have a stake in elomai: \(\%\) and secondary education.

The refatonethip among elementary and secondary educesis: and these other societal institutions are explored in this chapter. A discussion of trends in enrollrater at 3. levels-preprińary, elementary, and secondari-focuses on the societal changes. with which these trends are associated. A second section addr. sse: the issues surrounding the ongoing minimum camp atency testing debate by examining trends in children's progression through school. Tha: chapter concludes with a description of the school environment and the status of teachers. Descriptions of public elementary and secondary. school finances and of outcomes of education are offered in later chapters.

\section*{School Enrollment}

The steady decline in the Nation's birth rate in the past 15 years is mirrored by the 24 pereent decrease from 1967 to 1977 in the total number of preprimaryage children (entry 2.1 ). It was not until 1976, however, that this decline began to affect the absolute, ' number of children enrolled in preprimary programs.' Even then the effect was slight, since the proportion of chiditreia enrolled continued to increase. In 1977. almost half of all children 3 to 5 years old were enrolled in preprimary prograns.

The social changes oscurring during this period help explain the preprimary enrollment phenomenon. Among these. programs such as Head Start increased the participation of children from lower income families. Also, as chapter 1 notes, more women with children entered the labor force. This phenomenon, coupled with a belief in the importance of early childhood education. led more of these working mothers to seek educational programs for their young children rather than day care that did. not include learning experiences. Changes in programs offered by elementary schools also led to increases in preprimary enrollment. Most elementary schools now enroll children in kindergarten, at age 5. An examination of preprimary enrollment by age shows that 82 percent of all 5 -year-olds were enrolled in school in 1077 as compared with 22 and 42 percent of all 3-and 4-ycar-olds respectively.

Family income is one of the factors infidencing pre-- primaify enrollment at each of these ages. Despite the Head Start program, it is generally true that the higher the family income, the greater the likelihood that a child will be enrolled. Here, the increase in the number of working mothers comes into play, since households where both parents work register higher average incomes.


The quality of preprimary educational programs and their impact on primary school programs- ind or: the children themselves-are areas of growing concern among educators. These need greater study in the future, since increasing numbers of children entering first grade have experienced prior formal schooling. Some educaturs are calling for further expansion of public school resources into the area of preprimary education as a way to mut the growing demand for these services and as a mettiod of overcoming financial and stafling difficultics caused by declining enrollment in the schools.

The declining birth rate is also affecting enrollments in elementary and secondary schools. After a peak in 1970, enrollments steadily decreased and were almost 7 percent lower in 1978 than in the peak year (entry 2.2). The primary grades, kindergarten through eighth grade, were the first to experience the enrollment decline, but it did not begin at the secondary: level until 1977. These decreases are expected to continue at least through 1983, when enrellments are projected to be 15 percent lower in the primary grades than in the peak year. At the secondary level, the enrollnent decline is expected to eontinue through the mid 1980's.

For two reasons, care must be taken in any discussion of the effect of declining enrollments on elementary and secondary education planning. First, changes in the school-age population do not occur evenly across the Nation, either among or within States. Some States are experiencing incteases in enrollment even while overall enrollments are declining. Central cities and rural areas are affected by larger decreases than are other areas. Sieond, because of the large number of women currently reaching child-bearing age, the population of :chool-age ehildren is expected to increase again in the next decade, so that policy planning based on deelining enrollments must necessarily be of an interim nature.

Taking these factors into account, education planners have set forth three alternative responses to problems caused by declining enrollments. The first is to coniract. Consolidation of schools and school districts, fewer teachers and classrooms, and cutbacks in serviees are aspects of this alternative. The second alternative, a direct contrast of the first, is to expand services to the current school population, including greater individualized instruction, lower pupil-teacher ratios, and increased eounseling services. The third alternative is to expand services to new clientele. As mentioned carlier in this chapter, this could mean using elementary school facilities for younger chitdren: At the secondary level, the expanded clientele could anclude adults who need educational services. The need and the possibilities for expanding secondary school serviees to adults are discussed in a later chapter.

Enrollment in private elementary and secondary schools has atso decreased with the decline in the number of school-age children; but the proportion of student: enrolled in private schools has changed only slightly in the past decade (entry 2.3). Private school attendance varies groatly by race and type of arca. It is highest, for both blacks and whites, in meiropolitan central cities. Publie schools in these areas, experiencing the greatest impact from declining enrollment, are further undermined by the lorge proportion of students attending private schools. The proportion of white students enrolled in private schools decreased slightly at both elementary and secondary levels between 1967 and 1977, out for blacks it has inereased at the elementary level and remained stable at the seeondary level.

Public school integration efforts have been met with varying degrees of success in different parts of the country. In the Nation. the proportion of black students attending predominantly minority or racially isolated schools was slightly over two-thirds in 1976. a decrease of 4 percent from 1970 (entry 2.4). In the South, this proportion is 56 percent, lower than the National average, and considerably lower than in other regions. Although the number of Hispanic students increased by more than 20 pereent between 1970 and 1976, the proportion attending integrated schools dropped during this period (entry 2.5). Less than 29 pereent of these students attended integrated schools in 1976.

\section*{Progress Through School}

The grade in which most children of an age are enrolled in school is called the modal grade. Children's relative progress through school may be measured by whether they are at or below the modal grade for their age. An examination of trends associated with this measure illuminate some of the changes that have occurred in the education system.

In 1950, almost 7 percent of all 8 -year-olds were enrolled below the modi' grade (entry 2.6). This percentage was higher at each successive age through 15 as more students dropped behind their cohorts in school. Twenty-six percent of 15 -year-olds were enrolled bolow the modal grade in 1950 . At ages 16 and 17 the percentage is lower; but so is the percent of students enrolled because many of those who were behind in school dropped out as soon as they passed the age of compulsory attendance- 16 in most States. By 1976, while only 10 percent of 15 -year-olds were enrolled below the modal grade, the proportion of 16 -ycar-olds enrolled in school had increased from 81 percent in 1950 to almost 96 percent. More children were staying in school and fewer were falling behind.

Changes within scheol systems between 1950 and 1976 were in large part responsible for the decrease in the number of children enrolled below the modal grade. Many educators believed that retention in grade because of failure to meet academic requirements did more harm than good. Schools began providing remedial classes, summer school programs, and inereased counseling services to assist those who failed to complete a year's work. At the secondary level, schools began to offer alternative courses and programs that allowed for a fuller range of academic ability and interests.

Some of the variables related to the progression of a child through school include family income, the education level of th: parents, sex, and racial/ethnic characteristics. Enrollment below thic modal grade is more frequent at the lowest famity income and parental education levels (entry 2.7). A higher proportion of males than females are enrolled below the mode. Compared to the total population, significant differences remain in progress rates of black and Hispanic children. These differences are more pronounced for older youth, 14 to 17 years old. In 1977. almost 7 percent of black and over 9 percent of Hispanic 14- to 17-year-olds were enrolled below the mode compared is 3.5 percent of the total age group.

The type of area and the region of residence may also be related to a child's progression through school (entry 2.8). Enrollment below the mode for 14- to \(17-\) year-olds is higher in nonmetropolitan areas than in central cities and surrounding suburbs, although the gap has been narrowing. The difference was almost 3 percent in 1970, dropping to less than 1 percent in 1977. The South, which has a larger proportion of nonimetropolitan areas than other regions, also has the largest proportion of youth enrolled below mode. But even in metropolitan arras of the South, the proportion is higher than in imilar areas of other regions.

As fewer children were being held back in school. public concern was mounting about the quality of education in the public schools. The paramount concern became the possibility that some children were being passed through the system without developing skills necessary for adulthood. An outgrowth of this concern has been the movement toward minimum competency testing. The extent of public pressure for a measure of assurance that children are gaining minimal skills is illustrated by recent survey results. By a two-thirds majority, respondents believed children should be required to pass examinations as a condition for grade promotion (entiy 2.9). However, the overwhelming majority rejected a return to the practice of retaining a child in a grade he or she has failed. Eighty-one percent favored requiring special remedial classes rather than having a child repeat the grade after failing a promotion examination.

This public concern, along with issucs related to the decline in standardized test seores and the movement toward teacher accountability, has prompted 36 States to initiate activity in minimum competency testing (entry 2.10 ). Since such activity has been fairly recent, and is still in the experimental stage, many States are adopting a "wait and see" attitude before mandating examinations as a requirement for grade promotion. As of January, 1979, only 3 States were using or planned to use the tests for grade promotion, and 17 States planned to use them as a requirement for high school graduation.

One of the issucs related to minimum competency testing is the question of who sets the standards and prepares the tests. One argument is that, given the different needs and priorities of communities, the local school system should perform this function. An opposing argument states the need for uniformity and common expectation for results among school distriets in a State. Public opinion is divided on this issuc, but a plurality favor local control. Nine States involved in minimum competency testing allow localities to set their own standards. Six States are organizing joint procedures in which the State establishes policy and guidelines while allowing localities to set and implement standards.

\section*{The School Environment}

Since a student spends about 11,000 hours in class fiom first to twelfth grades, an examination of conditions that form the school environment is, appropriatc. Although many of these conditions are not measurable, some can be addressed by looking, at the perceptions of people both within and outside the system. Results from two 1978. Gallup Poll surveys show that 'adults and teenagers differ somewhat in their pereeptions of the quality of public schools. Respondents were asked to rate the quality of public schools in their communities by assigning a letter grade from \(A\), the highest, to \(F\), the lowest (entry 2.11). Teenagers and parents of public school children gave the sehools a mean rating of \(\mathrm{C}+\). The rating .by adults with no children in school was slightly lower, and parents of ehildren attending nonpublic schools gave public schools a mean rating of only \(D+\).

Teenagers were also asked to rate the difficulty of school and homework at the elementary and secondary levels in their communities (entry 2.12). The majority of students, both above and below average in academic standing, said school and homework at the elementary level were not hard enough. A plurality of both groups reported the same for work required in the secondary level. Less than one-fourth of the teenagers reported that the work at the secondary level was too hard.

In 1977, 64 percent of secondary school principals surveyed reported that student alternatives for meeting requirements have increased in the past 5 years (entry 2.13). Some of the nontraditional courses being offered in 1977 included social sciences, consumer, and family life education, rareer expioration and ethnic studies (entry 2.14). Students could also earn credit through such programs as off-campus work experience or training, correspondence courses, and credit by examination. Only about 14 percent of secondary schools offered credit through community volunteer programs. However, the prevalence of this credit alternative may
- increase as a result of public pressure. As shapter 1 noted, 87 percent of the public favored offering such credit for community service to junior and senior high school students. The Gallup Poll survey of teen. agers offers similar results. Almost 89 percent of the 13- to 18 -year-olds said they would like to see such a plan adopted.

The school environment is also affected by the organization of the education system. Twenty years ago there were 120,953 public schools organized into 47,594 school districts. Irı 1977, the number of schools and school districts had been reduced to 87,315 and 16,112 respectively (entry 2.15 ). This reduction occurred as an econcmy of scale, largely in order to gain financial and staffing advantages that allow for the provision of a wide variety of resources to more students.

\section*{The Teachers}

Almost all the time students spend in school is in the presence of one or mure teachers. The accessibility of students to teachers has increased in the past 20 years as pupil-teacher ratios declined stẽadily (entry 2.16). While school enrollments were dropping. the number of classroom teachers continued to increase. In 1978 there were over 2.4 million elementary and secondary school teachers in the United Sfates, but that is expected to be the peak year. The total number of teachers is expected to decrease through 1982, although the pattern will be different for elementary and secondary schools, paralleling projected enrollment patterns.

The professional experience of public school teachers changed between 1961 and 1976. As the rate of new entrants to the profession leveled off, the proportion of beginning teachers dropped from a high of more than 18 percent in 1966 to slightly over 11 percent in 1976.(entry 2.17). During the 15-year period, the proportion of teachers with 20 or more years of experience dropped by almost half. In 1976, these very experienced ceachers constituted only 14 percent of the profession. There were also dramatic changes in the professional preparation of public school teachers. In 1961, almost 15 pereent had less than 2 bachelor's degree. That proportion was less than 1 percent in 1976. Although the proportion of classroom teachers holding doetor's degrees renained fairly constant, at less than one-half of 1 pereent, the proportion with master's degrees increased significantly in just 5 years from 27 to 37 percent in 1976.

Teachers reported devoting over 40 hours per week to teaching duties in 1976 (entry 2.18.. Aside from the median of a 36 -hour required work week, such noncompensated activities as sponsoring of extracurricular activities, grading papers, and preparing lessons consumed a large proportion of a teacher's time. Teachers worked a median of 185 days in the regular sehool year, 180 of which are teaching days.

The monetary compensation teachers receive for their work has not kept pace with inflation, as will be discussed more fully in chapter 4 . The average salary for beginning teachers, most of whom work 9 to 10 months of the year. was \(\$ 9.171\) in 1978 (entry 2.19). This is lower than that carned by i976-77 bachelor's degree recipients working full-time in all other occupations, with the exception of social and recreational workers. When adjusted for a 12 -month period, the average teacher salary becomes \(\$ 11.500\), just under the overall average salary.

Table 2.1
Preprimary enrollment of children 3 to 5 years old, with trends in enrollment (1967 to 1977) and by fanily income and age of child (1977)


Chart 2.1

\section*{Preprimary Enrollment of Children 3 to 5 Years Old}

Although the total number of 3-to 5-year-olds has declined in the past decade, the proportion of those enrolled int preprimary programs continues to increase. The percent of children enrolled iends to increase with family income.


Table 2.2
Enrollment in grades K-8 and 9-12 of regular day schools, by control of school: Fall 1968 to 1986


Chast 2.2
Enrollment in Elementary and Secondary Schools

Between 1971 and 1978, enrollments in regular day schools declined due to the decline in the birth rate beginning in the mid-1960's. This enrollment decline is expected to continue, at least until the mid-1980's.


Table 2.3
Finrollment in private elententary and secondary schools as percent of total enrollment, by race and type of area: 1967, 1972, and 1977


Chart 2.3
Enrollment in Private Elementary and Secondary Schools

Overall, enrollment in private elementary schools was greater in 1967 than in 1977 for whites but the reverse is true for blacks. A greater percentage of students living in metropolitan central cities ,attend private schools than those living outside these areas.



Percent of total enrollment 30

Percent of total enrollment


Elementary


1972


Elementary


Percent of total enrollment


Table 2.4
Number and percent of black students attending public schools in selected school districts, \({ }^{1}\) by minority composition of shool and geographic area: Continental United States, fall 1970, 1972, 1974, and 1976


For nurnosac of comnarison analysis was restricted to the 1910 districts which were included in all fou: surveys. The solected districts included approximately 88 percent of all blaçk students enrolled ill public schools in the Continental United States for 1976.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education. and Welfare. Office for Civil Rights, Distribution of Situdents by Racial/Ethmic Composition of Schools, 1970-1976. August, 1978.


Chart 2.4
Distribution of Black Students in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools

Racial isolation of black public school students has increased only in the Northeast region since 1970 . In the South, where the largest -umber of black siudents altend school. less than one-fourth attend schools that are racially isolated.
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Table 2.5
Number and percent of Hispanic students attending public schools in selected school districts, \({ }^{1}\) by minority composition of school and geographic area: Coutinental United States, fall 1970, 1972, 1974, and 1976
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow{2}{*}{-- --} & \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Area} & \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{Percent of Hispanic students} & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{} & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{} \\
\hline & & Hispanic students & Attending 0-49\% minority schools & Attending 50-89\% minority schools & Attending \(9 ¢-100 \%\) minority schools & & \\
\hline & \multicolumn{6}{|l|}{Continental 'J.S.:} & \\
\hline & 1970............... & 1,563,647 & 34.6 & 35.2 & 30.2 & & \\
\hline & 1972....... ..... & 1,671,011 & 34.1 & 35.7 & 30.3 & & \\
\hline & 1974. & 1,747,658 & 32.2 & 36.6 & 31.1 & . & \\
\hline & 1976.. & 1,503,811 & 28.7 & 38.6 & 32.6 & & \\
\hline & \multicolumn{6}{|l|}{Northeast:} & \\
\hline & 1978. & 376,287 & 15.2 & 34.0 & 50.8 & & \\
\hline & 1972. & 400,681 & 16.4 & 32.3 & 51.2 & & \\
\hline & 1974. & 383,957 & 15.3 & 29.8 & 54.9 & & \\
\hline & 1976............. & 440,941 & 14.4 & 31.7 & - 53.9 & & \\
\hline & Border States and D.C.: & - & & & * & & \\
\hline & 1970 & 9,072 & 89.2 & 7.6 & 3.2 & & \\
\hline & 1972. & 11,029 & 85.7 & - 10.8 & 3.5 & & \\
\hline & 1974. & 13,693 & 78.1 & 16.8 & 5.1 & & \\
\hline & 1576 & 15,326 & 75.8 & 18.4 & \(5: 9\) & & \\
\hline & \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{South:} \\
\hline & 1970. & 469, 326 & 27.7 & 35.5 & 36.7 & & \\
\hline & 1972. & .5!4, 144 & 28.4 & 35.6 & 36.0 & & \\
\hline & 1974............. & 560.209 & 28.5 & 37.1 & 34.4 & & \\
\hline & 1976 & 598,382 & 26.j & 38.0 & 35.5 & & \\
\hline & \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{Midwest: \({ }^{-}\)} \\
\hline & 1970. & 103,901 & 48.1 & 40.8 & 11.2 & & \\
\hline & 1972. & 114, 166 & 47.6 & 37.8 & 14.6 & & \\
\hline f & 1974...... & 122,808 & 44.3 & 35.2 & 20.5 & & \\
\hline & - 1976.. & 129,000 & 39.6 & 36.7 & 23.7 & & \\
\hline & \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{West:} \\
\hline & 1970 & 605,061 & -48.9 & 35.1 & 16.0 & & \\
\hline & 1972 & 630.991 & 46.6 & 37.9 & 15.5 & & \\
\hline & 1974 & 666,991 & 42.0 & 40.8 & 17.2 & & \\
\hline & 1976............ . & 720, 162 & 36.4 & 44.2 & 19.4 & & \\
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|c|}{' For purposes of comparison. analysis was restricted to the 1,910 districts which were included in all four surveys. The selected districts include approximately 67 percent of all Hispanic students enrolled in public schools in the Continental United States for 1976.} \\
\hline & \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education. and Welfare. Office for Civil Rights, Distribution of Students by Racial/Ethnic Composition of Schools 1970-1976, August, 1978.} \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Chart 2.3
Distribution of Hispanic Students in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools

In every region. the proportion of Hispanic stadents attending racially integrated schools has declined. while the proportion attending racially isolated schools has increased.


Table 2.6
Persons 8 to 17 years old, percent enrolled, and percent enrolled below modal grade ' by age: 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1976


Chart 2.6
Enrollment Below the Modal Grade

Since 1950 , the percent of students enrolled in school has increased, while the proportion enrolled below the modal grade has decreased.


Table 2.7
Enrollment in school and modal grade status of persons 8 to 17 years old in families, by family income, education of fainily head, raciai/ethnic group, and sex; 1970 and 1977


Chart 2.7
Modal Grade Status of 8- to 17-Year-Olds

The higher the education level of the family head and the higher the family's income, the less likely a student will be enrolled below the modal grade. Males are more likely to be held back in school than females.


Table 2.8
Persons 14 to 17 years old enrolled 2 or more years below modal grade as a percent of all 14 - to 17-year-olds enrolled, by race, region, and type of area: 1970 to 1977

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Chart 2.8
14- to 17-Year-Olds Enrolled Below Modal Grade

Back stadents in the 14 - to \(1 \%\)-year-old age group are nore likely to he held back in school than are white students in every region. although the nerient enrolled below the mode for both groups has declined since 1970.

Table 2.9
Public opinion on the use of examinations for grade promotion: 1978


Chart 2.9
Cuaminations for Grade Promotion: Public Opinion


Pable 2.10
States using minimum competeney testing, by government level at which standards are set, grade levels assessed, and expected uses of standards: 1978


\footnotetext{
'In mosi Stater, ses of standards will be phased in and are not ve: in effert.
SOURCE: Educa:on Commission of the Siates. Dreantment of Besearch and Intormation. Staies Aclivity … Minimum Competancy Testing. January. 1379.
}

\section*{Chart 2.10 \\ Minimum Competency Testing in the States}

Of the thirty-six States active in developing and using minimum competency testing, less than half plan to use the examinations as a requirement for high school graduation. Three States plan to use the tests as a requirement for grade promotion.


Table 2.11
Opinion of students and adults on the quality of the public schools: 1978
"Students are often given the grades A, B, C, D and F fail" to denote/the quality of therr work. Suppose the pubhic schools theniselves, in this communty, were graded in the same way. What grade would you give the public schools here- A, B. C, D, of F?'
\begin{tabular}{cccc} 
Students & Public & Nonpublic & No children \\
13 to 18 & school parents & school parents & in school \\
years old
\end{tabular}

Percentage distrabution


Chart 2.11
Quality of the Public Schools: Student and Adult Opinion

Teenagers and parents of public school children give higher ratings to the public schools than do
parents of nonpublic school children and adults with no children in school.


Table 2.12
Opinion of 13- to 18-year-olds on the difficulty of school and homework at the elementary and secondary levels. by academic standing of stadent: 1978


Chart 2.12
Difficulty of School and Homework: Student Cpinion

A large proportion of teenagers, both above and below average in academic standing, view elementary and secondary school work as being "not hard enowh".


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Chart 2.13
Extent of Changes in Secondary Scheals.

Secomdary sohool principals report that the greatest change in achools in the past 5 vears nas heen an increased emphasis upori hasic reading, writing, and math shills.


Table 2.14
Nontraditional courses and alternative credit programs in secondary schocls: 1977
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Nontradi. nal course: & Fercent of schoo,s offering & Alternative credit programs & Percent of schiools ofiering \\
\hline Sociology, anthropology, or psycho..ggy & 77.1 & Off campus work experience or training & 64.5 \\
\hline Consumer education & 60.4 & Independent study projects. & 59.6 \\
\hline Family life education/sex education. & 36.2 & Correspondence courses.. & 53.9 \\
\hline Career exploration... & 27.9 & College courses on a college campus. & 53.4 \\
\hline Environmental or ocean siudies. & 26.7 & Night or adult school........... ...... & 41.2 \\
\hline Ethnic studies. & 16.7 & Creait by contract. & 22.6 \\
\hline Vaiues clarfication. moral educath. & 6.9 & College-level courses at high schiool.. & 18.9 \\
\hline Women's studies & 4.7 & Credit by examination.. & 17.3 \\
\hline & & Community volunteer programs...... & 14.2 \\
\hline & & Travel. . & 7.7 \\
\hline & & Other. & 2.7 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Institute of Education, High School

Chart 2.14
Nontraditional Courses and Alternative Credit Programs in Secondary Sehools

Secondary sehools in the United States ofier comprehensive programs which include nontraditional courses and alternative credit programs.


Table 2.15
Number of public school systems, number of schools, and number of pupils enrolled, by size of systent: Fall 1977


Chart 2.15
- School Systeys, Schools, and Pupils by Enröliment Size of the System

More than one-quarter of the school systems in the United States contain 6.6 percent of the schools and enroll only 1.2 percent of the pupils. Conversely, more than one-quarter of the pupils are enrolled in 19.2 percent of the schools contained in only 1.2 percent of the school systems.


Table 2.16
Classrom teachers and pupil-teacher ratios in regulat elementary and secondary day sobools, by control of school: Fall 1958 to 1986


Chart 2.16
Number of Teachers and Pupil-Teacher Ratios in Elementary and Secondary Schools


Table 2.17
-
Teaching experience and professional preparation of the American public school teacher: 1961 to 1976 \(a\)


Experience
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(1-2\) years & 14.3 & 18.4 & 16.8 & 11.3 \\
\hline 39 years & 32.6 & 35.1 & 39.6 & 44.9 \\
\hline 1019 years & 25.5 & 24.0 & 25.3 & 29.8 \\
\hline 20 or more years & 27.6 & 21.4 & 18.3 & 14.1 \\
\hline - & & - & , & \\
\hline \multicolumn{5}{|l|}{Highest degree held} \\
\hline Less than a bachelor's & 14.5 & 7.0 & 2.9 & - . 9 \\
\hline Bachelor's & 81.9 & 69.6 & 69.6 & 61.6 \\
\hline Master's or six-yepr diploma & 23.1 & 23.2 & 27.1 & 37.1 \\
\hline Doctor's & . 4 & . 1 & 4 & . 4 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
SOURCE Natonall Education Assocration. Siatus of the American Public School Teacher, 1975-76 Copyright c 1977 by the National Education Association, all pights reserved
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\]

Chart 2.17
Experience and Preparation of Public School Teachers

Since 1961, the percent of beginning teachers and the percent of very experienced leachers has declined. The number of reachers with master's degrees has increased in the past 15 years, while nondegree teachers will soon all hul disappear from the education scene.


Table 2.18
Median hours, class periods and days in the teaching assignment by school level: 1976


3
\[
\ldots: 102
\]

\section*{Chart 2.18}

Teaching Assignment in Elementary and Secondary Schools

The median number of hours per week devoted to all teaching duties exceeds 40 hours per week for both elementary and secondary school teachers. Secondary school teachers paid for a median of 185 days per year actually work a median of 207 days based on an 8 hour day.


Table 2.19
Occupational distribution and average annaal salaries of 1976-77 bachelor's degree recipients working full-time: February 1978

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\]

\section*{Chart 2.19}

\section*{Salary Comparisons of Teachers and Other Workers}

Salaries for beginning teachers ware lower than those in all other occupations with the exception of social and recreational workers. Even when adjusted for a 12-month period, teachers: salaries were lower than the overall average.


\section*{Chapter 3 Postsecondary \\ Education}

American postsecondary education has grown in creasingly complex and diverse, reflecting the growth of American society. As jobs have required more skills, as responsible citizenship has required greater amoums of complex information. and as consumer options have required increased knowledge, society and the insividuals within it have needed to extend and expand formal education beyond the compulsory school age. To neet th.is demand. postsecondary education has evolved into a multifaceted enterprise. Vocational schools allow students to explore eareer opportunitics and train for highly skilled jobs. Adult education courses in high schools and community colleges offer students a means of continuing their learning experiences. From small nrivate liberal arts colleges to large public universities. higher education offers a wide range of courses. progranss, and degree options.

Characteristics of segments of the postsecondary education enterprise are described in this chapter. Occupational education. serving as a bridge between secondary schooling and employment in the labor market. is addressed with focus on its development and place in the education system. Characteristies of the institutions offering occupational programs and the students participating in them are also addressed. In examining higher education. comparisons and contrasts are made among types of instituions, with emphasis on degrees of aceess and choice avaliable. Trends in higher education participation. staffing. and financing are explored in the context of both the current state of the system and the outlook for the future. Educational onteones and the status of women and minorities in postsecondary colucation are discussed in later chapters.

\section*{Occupational and Adult Education}

Occupational education has developed into an important component of the education system in response. in part. to the needs of students leaving high school without employment skills. More than onequarter of the students enrolled in occupational programs in 1977 were under 20 years of age. More than 60 percent were under 25 (entry 3.1). Almost. one-quarter of the students attending noncollegiate postsecondary schools had at least some college before enrolling in occupational programs (entry \(3.2)\).

The other societal influence affecting the growth of occupational education is the labor market. In the pas:t, as long as unskilled manpower was widely needed. new untrained entrants to the labor market could find jobs and learn skills during their working careers. As the work force becane increasingly mobile, the practice of developing skills largely throushtexperienee became time consuming and costly, for workers and employers alike.

In response to the needs of students and the labor markel, oceupational education has become an integral part of the education system. This integration of oceupational education with other more traditional segments of the system has developed with the aid of Federal support. Federal involvement was initiated in 1862 , with the Morrill Act, also known as the Land Grant Colleges Act. This legislation introduced two new concepts: that liberal arts and practical studies could be combined in one institution for the same group of students and. more significantly for education as a whole, that the Federal Government would participate in the development of public education.

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 provided funds to be matched by the States for training in agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics. and for teacher education. The next major expansion of Federal support for occupational education came in 1946 with the George-Barden Act, which expanded Federal aid for training in distributive oceupations. This legislation directed a major part of the funding to secondary schools, which led to controversy between proponents of secondary level voca-tional-technical prograns and administrators of the burgeoning 2-ycar colleges.

The National Defense Edacation Aet, cnacted in 1958 in response to the launching of Sputnik by the Soviet Unien, recognized the need for highly skilled technicians in occupations necessary for national defense and provided funds for sach training. Enacted under conditions of mounting unemplownent. the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 provided subsistence and vocational training for adults of working age. This was the first piece of legislation that did not limit funds to specific training areas.

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 had a profound effect on the nature and seope of posisecondary oceupational education. Not only did it extend Federal aid to include teclinical institute and community college training below the baccalaureate degree level as well as move further from categorical limitations of earlicr legislation, it also provided area school construction money to encourage 2 -year colleges to participate in occupational education. The effect of this act is clearly seen by comparing the number of 2-year colleges established in the 1960 's with the number cstablished carlier. Of the 1.174 2-ycar institutions in existence today, 505 were established between 1960 and 1969. Amendments to this act in 1968 further shifted the pattern of fronding from occupational categories to groups af people in need of training. It did so by providing funds for new entrants to the job market, those in need of skill upgrading or retraining, those with academic or sociocconomic disadvantages, and handicapped persons:

While most Federal support for occupational education has been directed to programs in publie institutions. the overwhelming majority of students are enrolled in private, proprictary (profit-making) institutions. Private institutions outnumber public institutions by almost four to one and the most numerous of these. cosmetology/barber schools, are all private . (entry 3.3). Public and proprictary' institutions are distinct in several ways. The essential difference is that proprietary schools depend on the narketplace for their income: public schools depend on the political process for theirs. This difference determines not only how each type of institution derives its income. but also how each allocates its resources and organizes its oceupaticaal programs. Hiring rates for graduates reflect market demand and have a substantial inipact on the viability of proprictary schools. If graduates do not get jobs, the schools quickly lose their appeal. Proprictary institutions, recognizing that a stacent's forcgone income is the largest single expense of training, offer year-round operations. short programs, and frequent class starts. These schools also emphasize job plasement ervices.

The dependence of public institutions on the polifical proeess for income requires that they fulfill institutional and governmental regulations. They require more non-employment-related eoursework, and training is gencrally longe with less freguent class starts. Consequently, although training costs in public institutions are only about cne-fifth those in private institutions, the time required to cemplete a program in a private institutions averages about three-quarters that required in a public sehool. This may be one of the reasons the large majority of students choose private over public institutions (entry 3.4 ).

Another area of growing importance in the education enterprise is adult education. Participants, generally not interest:- in acquiring a license or a degree. enroll in courses to learn more about the world around them in such subjects as arts, sports, religion. politics, or community or societa! developments. In 1978. almost ene-third of adults clamed to bave taken an adult education course at some point in
' their lives. It is interesting to note that those with children in school were more likely to have taken such a course than adults with no children in school (entry 3.5).

Also in 1978. 41 percent of adults surveyed claimed to be interested in taking an adult education course \(\because\) the following year. If this percentage were applied to the entire adult population, it would mean that over 60 million adults would overwhem existing facilities for such instruction. Howewer, this is not likely to occur since not enough schools offer the right programs at the right time and at the right cost. But it is clear that there is nuch roon for expansion in the area of adult education. Some of this expansion has already begun. In chapter 2 it was shown that 36 percent of secondary schools report an increase in educational programs offered new clientede. such as adults.

\section*{Participation in Higher Education}

In 1951. college enrollment dropped by 7.8 percent from the previous year. In 1976, enrollment dropped by 1.5 percent rom 1975 levels. In the intervening quarter century, especially during the 1960's, higher edu*ation experienced rapid growth. Not only were the numbers of college-age youth increasing, but so were the rates of college participation. Colleges and universities were faced with the problem of educating this relatively sudden and large influx of students.

Although enrollments had risen by 2.6 percent in 1977 to a new high of 11.415 .020 , the growth rate of the college-age population had slowed and the collegegoing rate had stabilized (entry 3.6 ). Consequently, many institutions were already experiencing only slight enrollment increoses, stable enrollmeats, or even declines. The problem facing higher education in the next quarter century could involve reductions in ficulty and staff, contraction of financial obligations, and even the closing of institutions. Alternatively, the problent coukl become one of providing educational services to those segments of the population not traditionally served by higher education.

During the poriod of expansion, many changes were . taking piaer. Among toduys institutions, the number of private senools established before \(196^{n}\) had always exceeded the number of public schools. established. Between 1960 and 1969 wore than twice as many institutions were established as in any other 10 -year period..Of the 702 new institutions, 80 percent were public, reflecting the changing nature of the higher cducation industry (entry 3.7). Higher education was becoming increasingly a public utility.

Concurrent with this change in the control of institt tions were enrollment changes. In 1067. private institutions' share of the student market was 30 percent. By 1977 their share had decreased to 22 perecont. However, a closer examination of the 1976 decrease - and the slight 1977 increase in carollments indicates that this trend may be leveling off. From 1967 to 1975 the yearly enrollment pereentage increases at publie institutions had been at least double those at private institutions. but in 1976. when the publi: sector was experiencing a decline private \(\mathrm{sc}^{\prime}\).ool enroliment actually increased. In 1977. the pecemtage increase for private schools was almost double that for public schools.

Changes also occurred in the types of institutions being established. Serenty-one percent of the schools established between 1960 and 1977 were 2-year colleges. Enrellment in 2 -year colleges grew by 169 percent from 1967 to 1977, compared to an enrollment zrowth of 65 percent for all institutions in that time period. While the share of total enrollment at universitics was 38 percent in 1967, second to other 4 -year institutions at 41 percemt, the growth of \(2-\) year colleges changed this balance. By 1977 the universities' share of enrollment was loivest at 25 percemt. 2-year institutions' share second at 36 percent, and other 4 -year institutions still led with a stable 40 . percent (entry 3.8).

Institutions of higher education also adapted to the changing characteristies of their students. By 1977 women constituted almost 49 percent of the student body, up from 41 percent in 1970. This increase in female emrollment has been fairly eonsistent over each of the regions in the Nation, although it has occurred at a slightly faster rate in the Northeast and Southeast (entry 3.9). The overall enrollnent decline of 1976 wis the result of a decrease in mate enroliment. From 1975 to 1976 male enrollment dropped by alnost 6 percent. Even the slight enroll-
. ment inerease from 1976 to 1977 could be attributed
- to an increase in female enrollment of almost 6 percent. In the same period, male enrollment dropped slightly.

The trend toward increased female participation is expected to continue. In 1976. for the first time, and again in 1977. the number of first-time female students enrolling in college exceded the number of first-time male students. If tints trende otinues, the proportion of females enrolled in college will at least equal that of males within the next + gears.

Minority enrolments also have increased. Black and Hispance corolment rates for the 18 - to \(3+-5\)-ar-old age groep inereased by 5 and 6 percent, rexpectively. between 397 and 1977 while remaning faity con stant for whites ( varying by iess than 2 percent daring that period). In 1977. 17 pereom of whites 16 pereent of blacks. and 12 percem of Hispanies in the 18- to \(3+\)-yan-orf age group were carolled it: college (conty 3.10).

While these rates indicate that minorite eroups are underrepresented in colleges an examination of cob lege enrollment rates of high school graduate in cath of these population subgroups sugesests future incrases. By 1975, hack and Hisparic college enmenment rates. calculated as a percent of high school graduates in each of these groups. had exceded that of whites. Unequal representation of these groups in institutions of higher education can thus be attributed in part to their uncqual representation among high school graduates. In \(1: 77.84\) pereent of whites, 70 percent of backs. and 56 percent of Hispanies in this age group had graduated from high school. This represents an increase of 4.12 , and 6 percent, respectively, over 1970 high school graduation rates.

If these trends continuc, the representation of minority groups in institutions of higher education will soon approach their representation in the general population. A recent survey of public attitudes to-
- ward education supports this. It shows that minorities are more likely than whites to consider a college education to be "very important", in today's world. That this same ryitude is held by groups at the lower income and educational attaindent levels indicates that a college education is viewed as a vehicte for upwari monility (entry 3.11).

\section*{.}

The propütion of freshmen who have delayed entry into collese beyma the var of high school graduathon has increased (entex 31? ) In 1970, almost Thethird of all frebhmen had entered college in the same :car they graduated from high school. That propertan had dropped to wighty wee half by 1977 when 2! percent of the student bad deliyed college antry fl w ? sam and 25 perem by 4 or more ocas: The change indicates a need for different
 athon are matried. live in uff-cimpus houning and ase part-ime or fall-ime johs.

\section*{Inştructional Faculty in Higher Education}

There were 389,033 full-time instructional salaried faculty in institutions of higher education for the academic ycar ending in 1978 (entry 3.13). Private institutions, with only 22 percent of enrollment, employed 27 percent of the faculty. There are also differences in enrollment and faculty shares by the type of institution being examined. Universitics had the 'smallest share of cirollment, 25 percent', and'a faculty share of 31 percent. In contrast, enrollment in 2-year colleges was 36 percent of all college students, but the share of full ime instructional faculty was only 22 percent of the total. 'One reason for the lower percentage of full-time instructional faculty in 2-year colleges is that these schools tend to hire more parttime faculty than universities or other 4-ycar colleges.

The academic rank of faculty members and the representation of women are two related differences among the three types of institutions. Only at the lower academic ranks, below assistant professor, was the proportion of women close to that of men. Universities and other 4 -year colleges had mort faculty at or above this rank and their proportions of female faculty members were lower than at 2 -year colleges. Proportions of female faculty members at univerșities. and other 4-year institutions were 18 and 26 percent respectively, while at 2 -ycar colleges the proportion was 35 percent. Part of this difference is due to disparities, discussed in a later chapter, in the proportion of women earning postbaccalaureate degrees qualifying them for positions in institutions of higher education. Because of projected enrollment declines in the next decade, fewer new faculty are expected to be hired. Consequently; even though the number of women qualified for faculty positions is increasing, other factors-enrollment and the effect of tenureare expected to slow the growth of their representation.

An examination of the recent higing patterns of new full-time faculty in 2- and 4 -year colleges reveals some of the effects the projected enfollment declines already have had on the composition of faculty. In 1977, approximately 9,900 new faculty were hired in 2 -year colleges and 4,700 in 4 -year colleges (entiry 3.14). These new hires were concentrated in 4 fitilds of study: arts and humanities, social sciences, cducation, and business and managenent. At-4-year colleges, more of the new faculty were employed by the private sector than the public, while the reverse was true of 2 -year colleges. These hiring patterns reflect the enrollment trends discussed above.
\({ }^{7}\) …
An examination of the proportion of doctoral degree holders among these new faculty reveals some interesting surprises. With the supply of persons holding doctoral degrees now exceeding the demand, it might be suppesed that colleges would seize the opporlunity increase the proportion of doctoral degree holders among their faculty by hiring them exclusively. But hiring patterns reveal that doctoral degree holders exceeded 50 percent of new hires in only half of the 10 fields surveyed for 4 -ywar colleges and in none of the fields for 2 -ycar colleges. Several factors contribute to these patterns. At 4 -ycar institu"tions." the "expected enrollment declines are causing concern over hiring permanent faculty members, and many institutions prefer io hire temporary faculty with master's degrees to teach introductory coursés in order to avoid commitments that may later prove burdensome. Also many institutions are facing budget constraints requiring such economy measures as hiring faculty at the master's level. An additional factor is that many institutions, in seeking to achicve a more balanced faculty, are choosing to hire women - and minoritics, still in small supply at the doctoral degree level.

While the intpact of declining enrollmem has not yet affected 2 -year colleges, other factors contribute to the tendency to hire faculty below the doctoral level. The mission of community colleges is the cducation of undergraduates, noi only those planning to go on to a 4 -year gollege to obtain a bachelor's degree, but also those planning to complete a 2 -year program and enter the labor forec. These institutions tend to, prefer teaching: candidates at the master's level who bring with them deaching credentials or experience in: the job market. There is less need for a large proportion of faculty with doctoral degrees in 2 -ycar instifutions than in those supporting resuarch and graduate school programıs.

Salaries of faculty at institutions of higher education also reflect differences by type and control of 'institution (entry 3.15). With the exception of universities, average salaries of faculty with 9 -month contraets. are slightly higher atypublio than aţ,private institutions. At 2 -year colleges, the differences are significant at every rank most notably at the rank of professor. Sataries of professors in pubiic 2-year eolleges average \(\$ 8.000\) more than those in private 2 -year institutions, a difference of 37 pereent.


Higher Education Finance The differences among,institüzons by type/and control, extend to their financial characteristics as well. Examination; of current expenditure patterns reveals
"some of these differences (entry 3.16). Two-year colleges, whose primary task is undergraduate education, spend ta higher proportion of total current funds expenditurds on student education than do universities and other 4 -year colteges, many of which support research attivities and institutionally controlled hospitals. Private universities spend a higher proportion on federally funded researeh and development eenters and other independent operations.

Another insight into the fiscal character of institutions of higher education is provided by current funds revenues (entry 3.17). Government, at all levels, is a key contributor to publie and private higher education. However, since 1268 , revenues received from Federal sources have constituted a smaller propertion of total current funds revenues for colleges and universities, witi exceptions of public, -year and other 4 -year institutions. State support increased at most levels dering the period. but direct local aid was proportionately lower, except for small increases in the private sector. Revenue derived from private gifts, grants and contracts accounter for a smaller amount of the total during the period, while sales and services inereased slightly.


In an altempt to meet rising costs, many institutions have increased titition charges. Private institutions have been foreed to raise luition and fees, as a method of responding to fiscal pressures despite the fact that doing so makes it harder for them to compete with lower rates offered by State schools. State unicersities and 2-year institutions also reported a :lightly higher proportion of current funds revenues eoming from tuition and fees. The difference between public and private tuition charges averaged more than \(\$ 2: 000\) in 1977 (entry \(3: 18\) ). Although the impact of this tuition gap is lessened by a variety of financial aid packages which allow recipients to choose either public or private colleges, it does emphasize the importance of tuition revenue to private institutions and their dependence on financial aid programs.

As student charges in institutions of higher education inereased, public pressure for the extension of financial aid to midde-income families grew. Results from a 1978 survey show that, when offered a choice of college-aid plans, a plurality of respondents preferred one that would raise the income ceiling under which government ad was available to students over one that would provide direct government aid to colleges, even if it meant that tuition and fees could be held down (entry 3.19). Starting with the Education Amendments of 1972. the bulk of Federal attention and aid was directed from aid to institutions to aid to students. In late 1978. Congress amended Fitle IV of the Higher Education Act to extend the availability of assistance to middle-income students.

Imation in the general economy is measured by the Consumer Price Index (CPI), which calculates the inerease in the prices of goods and services purchased by the eonsumer. However, colleges and universities buy different kinds of goods and services, such as staff salaries, books, and utilities The Higher Education Price Index (HEPI) was specifically designed to measure the increases in the prices of these goods and services.

The costs of items purchased by colleges and uni-versities-supplies, utilities, contracted serviceshave increased at a more rapid pace than those purchased by consumers. But it was in the area of payroll costs, comprising over three-fóurths of total higher education costs, that colleges and universities were able to offset osher cost increases. To illustrate. in 1978, faculty salaries inereased only 5.3 percent compared to a 6.8 percent increase in the CPI. Throughout the period, the slopes of the HEPI and CPI are quite similar with the HEPI consistently higher than the CPI reflecting the higher costs affecting this sector (entry 3.20).

Between 1971 and 1978, the enrollment index is very similar to the HEPI and the CPI, while the current dollar expenditures index was bigher than both the inflation and the enrollment indices. However, this apparent growth in current operations is negated by the combined effects of inflation and higher corollments. Constant dollar expenditures per student dropped during this period. and did not return to 1967 levels.

Higher inflation, stable or lower enrollments, and stable government allocations indicate a fiscal dilemma for many colleges and universitics. Onc indicator that retrenchment may have begun is a reported drop in capital contract commitments. This could signal apprehension over growth prospects and general unwillingness to, make long term financial commitments. If these trends continue into the next decade, institutions of higher education may be foreed to curtail their programs. But there is decp concern that these financial hard times will not be shared equally throughout higher education. It is feared that private schools will be much more severely affected by future changes because of their lower levels of government support.

Concerns over uncien retrenchment are not unfounded. During the enrollment boom of the last two decades public schools expanded greatly. Many * small public institutions cxpanded into major colleges and universities. This growth often resulted in program duplication with public and private institutions competing in the same student market. Large sums of public money were committed to this expansion not only for new construction, but for operating subsidies as well. These allowed States to offer higher education at a fraction of its actual cost while private institutions offered diversity and program selection at a higher price.

Access and choice as provided by public and private institutions became part of the foundation of American higher education; retrenchment threatens this diversity. Some relief may come from tuition equalization programs, already adopted by several States, aimed at offsetting the higher costs of private education. Innovations: in management may also help schools adjust to the fiscal real:ics of the '1980's. Now marketing approaches designed to attract substantial nuntbers of new kinds of students could produce sizeable enrollment increases. The upeoming decade will present serious challenges for the current \({ }^{-}\)financial strueture of higher education, requiring conecrted effort and adaptive institutional approaches.

\section*{Table 3.1}

Number and percent of students enrolled in noncollegiate post secondary schools with oceapational programs, by sex and age of student: Aggregate United States, 1977


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Chart 3.1
Age and Sex of Students in Occupational Programs

Most students in occupational programs are under 25 years of age. Female studénts outnumber males in the under 20 age group and in the 35-io-49 age group.


Table 3.2
Educaîgnal attainment of students in noncollegiace postsecondary schools with occupational programs: Aggregate United States, 1976


Chart 3.2
Educational Attainment of Studes.'s in Occupational Programs

More than 20 percent of students enrolled in occupational programs have had at least some prior college experience.


Table 3.3 .
Number of postsecondary schools with occupational programs, by control and type of school: Aggregate United States, 1978


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Chart 3.3
Noncollegiate Postsecondary Schcels With Oĉcupational Programs

Except for vocational/ technical schools. technical institutes. and colleges which offer occupational programs. private postsecondary schools with occupational programs far outnumber public institutions.


Table 3.4
Enroliment, mean charges, and mean length of programs in noncollegiate postsecondary schools with occupational programs, by program area: Aggregate United States, 1978
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Program area} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Enrollment} & \multicolumn{2}{|r|}{Mean charges} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Mean length (Hours)} & \multirow[t]{2}{*}{,} \\
\hline & & Public & Private & Public & Private & Public & Private & \\
\hline \multirow{8}{*}{\(\cdots\)} & Total. & 350.388 & 819,940 & \$345 & \$1,616 & 1,182 & 922 & \\
\hline & Asri-busincss. & 4,220 & 1,738 & 326 & 2,5i4 & 1,115 & 888 & \\
\hline & Marketing/istribution... & 13,573 & 168,355 & 310 & 926 & 999 & 327 & \\
\hline & Health occupations....... & 55,565 & 91,203 & 454 & 1,664 & 1,214 & 1,977 & \\
\hline & Home economics. . . . . . & 6,406 & 1,182 & 344 & 1,149 & 803 & 481 & \\
\hline & Business/office......... & 77,671 & 189,570 & 270 & 1,821 & 903 & 956 & \\
\hline & Tectinical............... & 22,812 & 88,533 & 586 & 2,317 & 1,844 & 249 & \(\cdots\) \\
\hline & Trades and industry..... & 170, 2.41 & 275,353 & 315 & 1,155 & 1,214 & 1,026 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education, and Welfare. National Center for Education Statistics, Enrollments and Programs in Noncollegato Postsecondary Schcols, 1978, forthcoming.

Chart 3.4
Enrollment, Charges, and Length of Occupational Programs

Although student charges in private schools with occupational programs are almost 5 times higher than in public schools. enrollment in private schools is more than double that of public schools.


Table 3,5
Percent of adults who have taken an adult education course or were inter sted in taking a course the following year: 1978


\footnotetext{
SOURCE: Phi Della Kappa, Inc.. "The Tenth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attutudes Toward the Public Schools"., Phi Della Kappan, September,
} 1978.
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Chart 3.5
Adult Education Participation

More adults with children altending school claim to have taken an adult education course than adults without children in school. The sante is true of idults who say they would be interested in laking a course the following year.


Table 3.6
Total enrollment in institutions of higher education, by control of institution: Aggregate United States, fall 1967 to fall 1977

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Chart 3.6
Total Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education

Enrollment in institutions of higher education dropped in 1976 for the first time since 1967, but rose again to an all time high in 1977


Table 3.7
Number of institutions of higher education and branches, by level, year established, and year degrees or other completion awards first granted: Aggregate United States, 1978
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Institution dates} & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{All institutions} & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{Publicly controlled institutions} & \multicolumn{3}{|l|}{Privately controlled institutions} \\
\hline & Total & 4-year & 2-year & Total & 4.year & 2-year & Totat & 4-year & 2.year \\
\hline Year institution established... & 3,130 & 1,956 & 1,174 & 1,486. & 561 & 925 & 1,644 & 1,395 & 249 \\
\hline 1859 or earlier. & & & 23 & 88 & 82 & & 295 & 278 & 17 \\
\hline \[
1860-1879 .
\] & \[
277
\] & 264 & 13 & 89 & 88 & 1 & 188 & 176. & 12 \\
\hline 1880-1899. & 400 & 338 & 62 & 123 & 112 & 11 & 277 & 226 & 31 \\
\hline 1900-1919. & 357 & 264 & 93 & 145 & 85 & 60 & 212 & 1779 & 33
34 \\
\hline 1920-1939................... & 376 & 224 & 152 & 166 & 48 & 118 & 210
119 & 176 & 34
22 \\
\hline 1940-1949................. & 219 & 122 & 97 & 100 & 25
29 & 75
86 & 119 & 96 & 23 \\
\hline 1950-1959................ & 234
702 & 125 & 109
505 & 115 & 71 & 86
463 & 168 & 126 & 42 \\
\hline 1960-1969......... ....... & 702
182 & 197 & 505
120 & 1264 & 21 & 105 & 56 & 41 & 15 \\
\hline * No response................ & 10 & 0 & 0 & - 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hline Year degrees or other completion awards first granted & 3,130 & 1,956 & 1,174 & 1,486 & 561 & 925 & 1,644 & 1,395 & 249 \\
\hline & & & 15 & 56 & 50 & 6 & 200 & 191 & 9. \\
\hline 1860-1879. & \[
230
\] & 221 & 9 & 73 & 71 & 2 & & 150
193 & 21. \\
\hline 1880-1899. & 315 & 290 & 25 & 101 & 97 & \({ }_{31}^{4}\) & 214
203 & 193
180 & 23 \\
\hline 1900-1919. & 313 & 259 & 54 & 110 & 79 & 126 & 261 & 127 & 44 \\
\hline 1920-1939. & 480 & 310 & 170 & 219 & 93
21 & 126
67 & 125 & 101 & 24 \\
\hline 1940-1949........ . . . . . . & 213 & 122 & 91
76 & 88
69 & 21 & 48 & 154 & 126 & 28 \\
\hline 1950-1959... ..... ...... & 223 & 147 & 76
448 & 472 & 65 & 407 & 171 & 130 & 41. \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{l}
1960-1969 \\
1970 or later
\end{tabular} & 643
433 & \(\begin{array}{r}195 \\ \hline 161\end{array}\) & 448
272 & 280 & 58 & 222 & 153 & 103 & 50 \\
\hline 1970 or later No response. & \(\begin{array}{r}43 \\ \\ \hline\end{array}\) & - \(\begin{array}{r}161 \\ \end{array}\) & 14 & 18 & 6 & 12 & 6 & 4 & 1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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Chart 3.7
Number of Institutions of Higher Education

Of the number of institutions of high eqducation in existence today, nearly twice as many were established in
\(\therefore\) the decade 1960 to 1969 than in any other period. The majority of those established since 1960 are public 2-year institutions.


NCES

Table 3.8
Distribution of enrollment ins institutions of higher education, by type and control of institution: Aggregate United'States, fall 1967 and fall 1977


NOTE: Details may not add to totals because of rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Centersfor Education Statistics, Opening Fall Enrollment in Higner Educalion 1967; Fall Enrollmenl in Higher Education 1977.

\section*{Chart 3.8}

\section*{Distribution of Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education}
\(\therefore \quad\) In the past decade, public institutions have increased their share of enrollment by more than 8 percent. with the largest growth occurring in public 2 -year institutions which almost doubled their share of enrollment.




Table 3.9
Enrollment in institutions of higher education, by region and sex of student: Fall 1970 to lall 1977


NOTE: Details may not add to tolals because of rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education, and. Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, unpublished tabulations.

Chart 3.9
Enrollment in Institutigns of Higher Education by Region

The numbers of males and females enrolled in higher education are approching equality somewhat faster in the Northeast and Southeast regions than in the West and Central regions.


Table 3.10
College enrollment as a percent of the 18 - to 34 -year-old population, by racial/ethnic group: 1970 to 1977


Chart 3.10
College Enrollment of the 18- to 34-Year Old Population
\(\qquad\)
\(\dot{i}\)
Among high school graduates, college enrollment-rates for both blacks and Hispanics exceeded those for whites by 1975. but high school graduation rates remain highest for whites.


Table 3.11
Public opinion on the importance of a college education, by race, educational attainment, and income level of respondent: 1978


SOURCE: Phi Delta Kappa. Inc., "The Tenth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public Atlitudes Towards the Public Schools". Phi Della Kappa, September, 1978

Chart 3.11
Importance of a College Education Today: Public Opinion

When asked about the importance of a college education today, respondents most often citing "very important" belong to socioeconomic groups that are underrepresented in today's college population.


Table 3.12
Distribution of college ireshmen, 16 to 34 years old, by nunther of years since high school graduation: 1970 to 1977
保
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \multicolumn{8}{|c|}{Year of coiloge ent:y} \\
\hline Number of years & 1970 & 1971 & 1972 & 1973 & \(=1974\) & 1975 & 1976 & 1977 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Percentage distribution
\begin{tabular}{cccccccccc} 
Total. \(\ldots \ldots\) & 100.0 & 100.0 & 100.0 & 100.0 & 100.0 & 100.0 & 100.0 & 100.0 \\
\begin{tabular}{c} 
Same year as itigh \\
schoo: graduation
\end{tabular} & 65.4 & 62.4 & 62.7 & 61.9 & 57.6 & 55.7 & 54.8 & 54.1 \\
\begin{tabular}{c}
1 to 3 years after \\
graduation \(\ldots\)
\end{tabular} & 17.5 & 18.0 & 18.1 & 18.6 & 22.0 & 22.2 & 22.1 & 20.9 \\
\begin{tabular}{c} 
4 or more years \\
after graduation
\end{tabular} & 17.1 & 19.5 & 19.0 & 19.5. & 20.4 & 22.1 & 23.1 & 24.94
\end{tabular}

SOURCE: Details may not add to a'dals because of rounding. \(^{\text {a }}\).
SQURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports. School Enromment -... Social and Economic Characteristics of S:udemts, P-20. unpublished tabulations

Chart 3.12
Composition of College Freshman Class by Time Elapsed Since High
School Graduation

The proportion of college frohmen entering college directly after high school decreased between 1970 and 1977.


Table 3.13
Jumber and percent female of full-time instructional faculty in institutions of higher education, by type and ontrol of institution, and academic rank of faculty: Aggregate United States, 1978


Chart 3.13

\section*{Faculty in Institutions of Higher Education}

At universities. professors comprise the largest faculty group, while assistant professors constitute the largest group at other 4 -year institutions.


Cable 3.14 and
Educational attanment of new full-time faculty in 2 - and 4 -year colleges, by control of institution and field: tcademic year ending 1977


Chart 3.14
Percent of New/ Faculty With Doctorates

Although the largest number of new full-time faculty in 2 - and 4 -year colleges are in the arts and humanities, the largest percentage with doctorates are in the physical sciences.


Table 3.15
Average salaries of full-time instructional faculty-in ihstitutions of higher education on \(\mathbf{9 - 1 0}\) month contracts, by control and type of institution, rank and sex of faculty: Fall 1977
\(\dot{\square}\)


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, Salaries. Tenure, and Fringe Benotits of Full-Time Inslructional Facully in Institutions of Higher Education, 1977-78, forthcoming

\section*{Chart 3.15}

Average Salaries of Full-Time Institutional Faculty in Institutions of Higher Education

Except at the university level, public institutions pay higher salaries for faculty in equivalent positions than do private institutions.


Table 3.16
Current funds expenditures of institutions of higher education, by control and type of institution and by purpose: 1976-77


\(\dot{i}\)

Chart 3.16
Distribution of Current Funds Expenditures of Institutions of Higher Education

Two-year institutions spend a larger proportion of current funds ior education and general expenditures than do other types of institutions of higher education.


Table 3.17
Amount and percentage distribution of current funds revenues of institutions of higher education, by control and type of institution and source of funds: 1968 and 1977


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. National Center for Education Statistics, unpublished tabuiations.

Chart 3.17
Current Funds Revenues of Institutions of Higher Education

State aid comprises the largest portion of government aid to public institutions, while Federal aid constitutes the largest portion of government aid to private institutions.


Table 3.18
Estimated average charges in constant 1976-77 dollars per full-time-equivalent student in institutions of higher education, by control and type of institution: Acadenic year ending 1968 to 1977

\(;\)

\section*{Chart 3.18}

Student Charges for Higher Education
,
When adjusted for inflation, tuition and fees in public institutions have remained fairly constant, while similar charges at private schools have generally increased over the decade from 1968 to 1977.


Trble 3.19
Public opinion on college aid plans, by percent of respondents favoring plans and by income and educatic nal level of respondent: 1978
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Pan} & \multirow[b]{2}{*}{\[
\begin{gathered}
\text { All } \\
\text { respon. } \\
\text { dents }
\end{gathered}
\]} & \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{Income} & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{Education} \\
\hline & & Under \$7,000 & \[
\begin{gathered}
\$ 7,000 \\
10 \\
\$ 14,999
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \$ 15,000 \\
& 100 \\
& \$ 24,399
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
\$ 25, ~ ग 00 \\
\text { and } \\
\text { over }
\end{gathered}
\] & Non-high school graduate & \[
\begin{gathered}
\text { Higlı } \\
\text { school } \\
\text { graduate }
\end{gathered}
\] & College \\
\hline A. \(\$ 250\) reduction in taxes regardless of income for each year a child is in college. & 9 & 9 & 11 & 7 & 11 & 9 & 9 & 11 \\
\hline B. \(\$ 250\) reduction in taxes for those with less than \(\$ 25,000\) of income for each year a child is in college. & 14 & 10 & 14 & 16 & 14 & 9 & 13 & 19 \\
\hline C. Raise the income ceiling under which government grants and loans are available. & 34 & 23 & 31 & 38 & 43 & 27 & 34 & 39 \\
\hline D. Provide direct government aid to colleges so tuition fees can be held down. & 20 & 22 & 20 & 19 & 18 & 19 & 22 & 19 \\
\hline None. & - 16 & 19 & 17 & 16 & 13 & 19 & 18. & 12 \\
\hline Don't know. & \(\cdot 7\) & 18 & 8 & 4 & 1 & 17 & 5 & 1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\(\theta\)
\[
1,51
\]

Chart 3.19 -
College Aid Plans Favored: Public Opinion

While no one plan to aid people with the cost of college is favored by a majority of those surveyed, the plan to raise the income ceiling under which government grants and loans are available is favored by a plurality at each of the income and education levels.

Plan 8


Plain D


All iespondents


Table 3.20
Current funds expenditures, enrollments and price indices in higher education: Academic year ending 1971 to 1978


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Weltare, National Center for Education Statistics, Fall Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education 1971-76, State Data and unpublished labulations; National Institute of Education, Higher Education and Prices Indexes, 1978 supplement.
\[
152
\]

Chart 3.20
Higher Eduzation Current Funds Expenditures, Enrollments and Price Indices

Although current funds expenditures have risen sharply since 1971. per-student expenditures. when adjusted for inflation. show a decline over he period.


\section*{The Condition of Education}


I Selected Topics in Education
4


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\section*{Chapter 4 \\ Financing \\ Public Elementary \\ and Secondary \\ Education}

Recent concern over high taxes and rising inflation has focused greater attention on how america pays, for its schools. In the 1978 elections, tax, reform issues pervaded almost every campaign. California's Proposition 13 and similar efforts elsevhere placed particular emphasis on property tax reform in an effort to reduce the burden on property owners. Public schools depend primarily on property tax revenues and these proposed reforms direetly affect their financial structure. Allocation procedures are also being scrutinized to provide greater equity in revenue collection and expenditure disbursement. School finance is no longer the province of a small number of State officials; it increasingly involves a wide range of complex issues attracting greater participation and interest of other professionals and the general public. This chapter examines public elementary . and secondary school finance in the context of these recent occurrences.

\section*{Government Sources}

Public opinion polls taken in 1974 and 1978 indicate a majority believe that too little is spent on education compared to some other government functions (entry 4.1). But cducation still ranks first in governmental expenditures, amounting to over 21 percent of the total general government payments. Although there was a decline in direet Federal expenditures for education between 1976 and 1977. Federal contributions to State and local governments for education increased by over 10 percent (entry 4.2). Direet Federal expenditures consist primarily of veterans education benctits. while the largest portion of the Federal intergovernmental expenditures is for elementary and secondary education. Revenues from other levels of government inereased in 1977. though by smaller amemest than in 1975 or 1976 (entry 4.2).

The distribution of sources of financial support for education is changing. Thirty years ago the financing of public education was primarily a iocal function. In 1942. local sources contributed over twa-thirds of the total funding; smaller amounts of State and Federal aid were sontributed (entry 4.3). But by 1978 the proportion of local revenues for elementary and secondary education had dropped to less than half of total revenues. The State share had increased to 44 percent and the Fedefal share to over 8 pereent. State involvenent with elementary and secondary education is even more substantial than this revenue proportion suggests. nee over one-third of the Federal share is administered by the States. These "flow-through" grants increase State fiscal responsibilities to a level almost equal to aggregate local contributions (entry 4.4).

State financing systems vary greatly and comparisons are diffieult. However. one useful method, computing education revenue as a percentage of personal income, allows for the comparison of revenue generating efforts in the States. Nine States with below average per eapita income levels have above average education-revenue to personal income ratios. demonstrating a substantial tax effort (entry 4.5). At the other end of the spectrum are 10 States with above average per capita income and below average revente-to-ineome rátios. Revenues from Federial sourees tend to represent a larger share of - total edueation revenues in States with low personal incone.

School bond sales for ffnancing the acquisition of public school facilitics (land, construction, buildings) and equipment declined between 19.67 and 1977 (entry 4.6). Both the number. of school bond issucs proposed, and the number approved decreased during this period. The' proportion approved ranged from a high of 68 percent in 1968 to a low of 46 percent in 1975. The par value of issues approved also declined during this period. These trends are related to the enrollment declines discussed in chapter 2. As enrollments dropped, so did the need for construction of ncw public school facilities. The nec.d for replacement of facilities and equipment remains, however. The drop in the number of school bond elections beld is indicative of the curollment decline, but the drop in the proportion approved may be indicative of a decline in public willingness to. finance education.

\section*{Expenditures}

Even when adjusted for inflation, public school expenditures are projected to rise through 1987 (entry 4.7). Using constant 1976-77 dollars. expenditures allocable to pupil-costs were almost \(\$ 20\) billion in 1957. Twenty years later they had risen to more than 3 'imes that amount. By 1987 expenditures of public sehool systems are expected to be more than 4 times the 1957 amount. Instruction is the largest expenditure category for public schools, with most of this amount supporting teacher salaries (entry 4.8). Since 1972, average teacher salaries have increased annuatly, but when adjusiod for inflation, average salaries actually decreased (eriary 4.9). Very little savings will be rcalized through professional staff reductions which may accompany decreased enrollments. In fact, because reductions in force will be based on seniority, the cost of supporting professional staff may increase as the work foree matures.

Transportation costs also continue to rise. In 1940 oniy 16 percent of all public school pupils were being transported at public expease, at an average cost per pupil of slightly over \(\$ 20\) (entry 4.10). As school systems and schools were consolidated, the proportion. of pupils being transported at public expense rose steadily to a high of 55 percent in 1976. As enrollments décline, more schools may be consolidated in the future, but savings thus accrued will be offect somewhat by the need to provide transportation for more students. In 1976, the average per-pupil cost fad increased to 5 times the cost in 1940. Rising fuel costs are likcly to force transportation expenditures even higher in the future.

Instruction, transportation, and other coits continued to rise even while enrollments were dropping. In 1977, 33 States had fewer pupils than in 1970, but in each of these States, expenditures increased (entry 4.11). In 15 of the States with lower enrollments, the expenditure increases were gieater than the avcrage increase for the Nation.

\section*{Financial Reform}

In recent years disparities in educational resources have been a concern at all levels of government, but particularly at the Stace level. An examination of differences in school district expenditure levels reveals the extent to which disparities exist both within and among the States. Within-State disparitics can be measured by distributing school districts in a State acruss a range of 10 per-pupil-expenditure intervals. ii. 1977, school districts in 15 Stares were spread across all 10 intervals (entry 4.12). School districts in 6 States were spread across a range of fewer than 5 expenditure per-pupil intervals. In five of these States, Alabama, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, and West Virginia, the interval spreads were at the lower end of the range. Only in Alaska was the spread at the highest intervals. For the entire United States, over half of the school districts had current expenditures between \(\$ 800\) and 31,400 per pupil. Among the States, median perpupil. expenditures ranged from a low of \(\$ 766\) in Tennessee to a high of \(\$ 3,049\) in Alaska.

Another measure of within-State disparities is shown in entry 4.13. This measure allows for a comparison of changes in disparities from 1970 to 1977. A decrease in disparities is indicated by percents of 98 and below on the 1977-(0)-197() comparison measure. Twenty-cight States decreased disparities during this period. Increasingly. States are overhauling existing financial structures to provide greater equity in education funding. Between 1970 and 1977. 25 States had enacted reforms of elementary and secondary education finanee structures (entry 4.14). In 18 of these reform States. disparities ivere reduced.

The impetus for selool finance reform has come from State jurists and legistators. In Sun Antomio i. Rodrigue: the Supreme Court ruled that the Constitution does not guaramee celucation as a fundamental right and left the design of funding systems to State discretion. State courts responded to the issue in quite a different manner. In a series of decisions beginning with Serrano i: Priest in California, State courts found fault with existing financing structures for failing to provide expitable collection and distribution of edlueation aid. This prompted changes in funding structures which ranged from minor alterations to revolutionary new efforts. Equalization efforts generally reflect hiree approaches: high-level foundation. augmented foandation, and district power equalization. These programs are structured around combinations of the basic components of school finance-district wealth, tax effort, and student need.

High-level foundation programs provide for a minimum level of per-pupil support funded through state and local allocations. The local share is raised through property taxes generated at a State mandated rate. State funds fill the gap between Iocal tax reventues and the prescribed minimum level. The degree of equalization achieved increases as the mandated foundation level is raised, since a larger proportion of district expenditure. become eligible for State aid. But disparitics can become more prevalent as wathier districts tax above the prescribed rate. Of the 11 States enacting this type of reform, 7 hate reduced disparities, I State maintained its 1970 level, and in 3 States disparities increased.

An augmented foundation plan focuses on both a district's wealh and tax effort. A guaranteed tax base is ereated by the legistature and local tax rates applieds the result is a minimum revenue base. State aid is provided to make up the difference between this guaranted base and funds actually raised by the focal tax system. This methed provides incentive to incerase the focal tax rate since State aid increases proportionally. Once again the degree of equalization achiewed is contingent upon the level of the guaranted tax base. A relatively high base provides more districts with equal funds while a how base allows wealthier distriets to spend greater amounts:

18\%

A percentage equalizing formula is another type of augmented foundation program which attempts to reduce disparity by coneentrating on the degrec to which State and local jurisdictions share education \(\therefore\) menditures. The State determines the percentage oi to:al costs it will support in an average district - \(n\) : hasai adjusts this figure to cach local jurisdiction mased on particular need and cost rquirements. This mersted pereentage is then applied to total local expenditures to determine the level of State support the area will receive. The degrec of equity obtained through this plan depends on two factors: the perremage of expenditures the State agrees to support and the overall expenditures level determined by each local district. The greater the percentage supported oy the State, the greater the equity obtained. given equivalent total expenditures. If total expenditures vary significantly, wealthier areas spending more will receive greater amounts of State aid, and disparity will proliferate. Three of the 6 States using an augmented plan based on a guaranteed tax base or percentage equalization formula hate increased disparities.

District power equalizing programs guarantec a specific dollar yield for a given tax effort. Districts in which the tax rate fails to provide the guaranteed yield reccive State aid up to the guaranted level. Through the "recapture" provision in such programs, districts whose tax exeeed the guaranted level must return the difference to the State for redistribution. Expenditure disparities could result if distriets reduced their tax rate in order to avoid loosiogg funds \({ }^{\text {. }}\) through the recapture provision. The lower tax rate would provide equivalent yield while enhancing the attractiveness of property values in the area, causing wealth disparity. But of the 8 States that have enacted this type of reform. only 1 has in-- creased disparities as measured by the index shown in entry 4.13.

Equalization programs can be evaluated using two different standards: fiscal neutrality and expenditure equalization. Efforts to compensate for differenecs in intrastate district wealth attempt to achicve wealth neutrality. These reforms adjust fiscal capacity in - order to provide that variations in expenditures will reflect differences in tax effort, rather than wealth differences. In contrast, expenditure equalization efforts attempted to reduce disparity in per-pupil expenditures throughout a State. Absolute equality (weahth neutrality and expenditure equality) might be intpossible to xehicve without full State funding but even then spectal need. students (handicapped, bilingual, and economically disadvantaged) will require special expenditu-c consideration.

Table 4.1
Public opinion of national spending for problems facing the United States: 1974 and 1978


NOTE: Details may not add to totals because of rounding.
SOURCE: National Opinion Research Center, University of Chicago, General Social Surveys, 1972-1978: Cumulative Codebook, 1978.
\[
\because \quad 109
\]

\section*{Chart 4.1}

Government Spending: Public Opinion

In 1974 and 1978 over half of the public believed too little is spent on . education and health. For the same years. over 70 percent of the public believed spending for welfare and foreign aid/ defense to be about right or too much.



Table 4.2
Selected governmental general expenditures, by level of government and purpose of expenditure: Fiscal vears I974 to 1977
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{3}{*}{Item} & \multicolumn{4}{|c|}{\multirow[b]{2}{*}{Amount (In :allions)}} & \multicolumn{3}{|c|}{Percent change} \\
\hline & & & & & \[
1974
\] & 1975 & \[
1976
\] \\
\hline & 1974 & 1975 & 1976 & 197 & 1975 & 1976 & 1971 \\
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|l|}{Federal government direct \({ }^{\text {) }}\)} \\
\hline Education? & \$5.320 & \$7.153 & 59.039 & 37.836 & 22.9 & 26.4 & -13.3 \\
\hline Health and hospitals. & 5.123 & 5.996 & 6.82 .8 & \(7.50 \%\) & 4.8 & 14.8 & 9.0 \\
\hline Defense and inter. national affairs & 35. 4.4 .4 & 93.811 & 93.000 & 105.592 & 9.9 & 4.4 & 7.7 \\
\hline Welfare. & 16.286 & 12,212 & 13.69.4 & 14,914 & \(-25.0\) & 12.1 & 8.9 \\
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|l|}{State and local governments} \\
\hline Education & 7.5 .833 & 87.853 & 97, 216 & 102.805 & 15.9 & 10.7 & 5.8 \\
\hline Health and hospitals.... & 15. 9.45 & 13.845 & 23,505 & 22.543 & 18.2 & 9.8 & 9.0 \\
\hline Defense and inter. natior al affars & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
\hline Weltare... .. & 25.135 & 23,155 & 32,604 & 35.9 .41 & 12.2 & 15.8 & 10.2 \\
\hline \multicolumn{8}{|l|}{Federal Intergovernmental 3} \\
\hline Education. & 7.496 & 8.957 & 9.257 & 10.205 & 19.5 & 3.3 & 10.3 \\
\hline Health and hospitals & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
\hline Defense and inter. national affairs & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA & NA \\
\hline Welfare......... & 12.831 & \[
1.1,352
\] & \[
17.225
\] & \[
19.520
\] & \[
11.8
\] & \[
19.9
\] & \[
13.3
\] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

NA Not applicab!e. \(\quad\) Alt expenditures other inan ingovernmental expenditures, (See footnote 3).
, Alt expenditures other than inergovernmental foxderal expenditures for educaton consist promarily of veteran's educational benefits but include funds for the operation of the United States Office of Education, grants to individuals and institution; of higher education. and other expenditures.
, Mainly concerns payments made in the form of arants-in-aid or shared taxes. The largest portion of Federal intergovernmental expenditures for education was for grants-in-aid to local elementary and secondary school systems.
SOURCE: U.S. Deparment of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. Governmental Finances in 1976-77, 1978.

\section*{Chart 4.2}

Percent Change in Governmental Expenditures

Although direct Federal expenditures for education decreased in 1977,
intergovernmental expendiares increased. The percentage increase in State and local expenditures for education in 1977 is the smallest in the past two years.


Table 4.3
Revenue receipts of public elementary and secondary schools, by source: \(1942^{\prime}\) to 1978 '


\section*{Chart 4.3}

Revenue of Public Elementary and Secondary Schools

Since 1942. State and Federal shares of public school revenues have been increasing, while the loca share has decreased by almosi 20 percent. In constant dollars. revenue receipts have increased 10 more than eight times the 1942 level.

\[
\therefore 161
\]

Table 4.4
Federal funds made available for State administered programs under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) and percent change: Fiscal years 1974, 1975, and 1976


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. State Administered Federal Education Funds: Fiscal Years 1974 and 1975; Uses of State Administered Fecieral Education Funds:. Fiscal Years 1975 and 1976.

Chart 4.4
Federal Funds for State Administered ESEA Programs

In 1976. decreases in
Federal funding occurred in 4 of the 10 major State ad'ministered ESEA F. ugrams. In 5 of the programs. funds in 1976 were below 1974 amounts.


Table 4.5 .
1976 personal inconle reiated to \(1976-77\) revenue receipts for public schools, by State


SOURCE: U.S. Departmant of Health, Education, and Welfare, National tanter for Education Statistics, Revenues and Expenditures for Public Elementary anc Secondary Education: 1976-1977, forthcoming: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Eccinomic Analysis, Survey of Current Business, August, 1977.

Chart 4.5
Revenue as a Percent of Personal Income

Of the 20 States above the United States average in public schools revenue receipts from State and local sources, half are below the average in per capita personal income.


Table 4.6
Results of school bond elections: Fiscal years 1967 to 1977


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education. and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, Bond Sales ior Public School Purposes: 1975-76; Bond Sales for Public School Purposes: 1976-77, forthcoming.

Chart 4.6
School Bond Elections

Despite inflation. the number of school bond elections held and the par value of the issulues approved in 1977 were about half those of 1967.


Table 4.7
Current expenditures of public school systems: School years ending 1957 to 1987


\section*{Chart 4.7 \\ Current Expenditures of Public School Systems}

Current expenditures of public school systems have more than tripled since 1957, even when adjusted for inflation. By 1987 they are expected to be at least four times the 1957 expenditures.


Table 4.8
Fxpenditures of public elementary and secondary schools, by financial character of school districts and for major functions: School year ending 1977


Chart 4.8
School Expenditures by Major Function

Expenditures for instruction constitute the largest portion of total expenditures. There is very little difference between the distribution of expenditures in districts which exercise autonomous budgeting power and those dependent upon other local government bodies.

\section*{Percentage distribution}


Table 4.9
Current expenditures ior salaries of classroom teachers in regular public clementary and secondary schools: School years ending 1966 to 1987


GOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. National Center
for Education Statistics, Projections of Education Statistics to \(1986-87\). for Education Statistics, Projections of Education Statistics to 1986-87.

\section*{Chart 4.9}

Average Teacher Salaries

Adjusted for inflation, the average annual salary for cla.sroom teachers dropped in 1973. Despite later increases, by 1976, the average was still not up to the 1972 level.


Table 4.10
Number and percent of public school pupils transported at public expense and current expenditures for transportation: School year ending 1940 to 1976
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & \multirow[b]{2}{*}{School year ending} & \multirow[b]{2}{*}{A!li ruolic school pupils} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Pupils transported at public expense} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Expenditure of public funds} & \\
\hline & & & Number & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Percent of } \\
& \text { total }
\end{aligned}
\] & Total, excluding capital outlay (in thousands) & Average cost per pupil transported & \\
\hline & 1940..... & 25,433,542 & 4, 144, 161 & 16.3 & \$ 83, 28. & \$ 20.10 & \\
\hline & 1944... & 23,266,616 & 4,512,412 & 19.4 & 107,754 & 23.88 & \\
\hline & 1948. & 23,944,532 & 5,854,041 & 24.4 & 176,265 & 30.11 & \\
\hline & 1952.. & 26,562,664 & 7,697,130 & 29.0 & 268,827 & 34.93 & \\
\hline & 1956. & 27,740,149 & 9,695,819 & 35.0 & 353,972 & 36.51 & \\
\hline & 1960. & 32,477,4:0 & 12,225,142 & 37.6 & 486,338 & 39.78 & \\
\hline & 1964. & 37,405,058 & 14,475,778 & 38.7 & 673,845 & 46.55 & \\
\hline & 1968... & 40,827,965 & 17,130,873 & 42.0 & 981,006 & 57.27 & , \\
\hline , & 1972.. & 42,254, 272 & 19,474, 355 & 46.1 & 1,5ci, 830 & 77.43 & \\
\hline & 1976... & 41,274,308 & 22,757,316 & 55.1 & 2,371,814 & 104.22 & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

NOTE: Data on pupil transportation through 1952 are based upon enrollment: data for 1956 and subsequent years are based upon average daily attendance.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, Digesl of Education Slatislics, 1977-78.

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\section*{Chart 4,10}

Public Schooi Pupils Transported at Public Expense

In 1976, more than half of all public school pupils were being transported at public expense. Per-pupil expenditures for transportation have risen sharply since 1968.


Table 4.11
Public elementary and secondary school average daily attendance and current expenditures: School year ending 1970 and 1977


\section*{Chart 4.11}

\section*{Change in Expenditures and Average Daily Attendance by State: 1970 to 1977}

Arrivag the States, there is almost no association between changes in enrollment and changes in expenditures. Of the 15 States below the national average in percent change in enrollment. 7 are ahove the average in percent change in expenditures.


Table 4.12
 School year erding 1977
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline State & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Under } \\
& \$ 800
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
\$ 800 \\
\text { to } \\
\$ 999
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
\$ 1,000 \\
10 \\
\$ 1,199
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
\$ 1.200 \\
10 \\
\$ 1.399
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
\$ 1,6110 \\
\$ 1,199 \\
\$ 1,799
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
\$ 1,8100 \\
10 \\
10.999
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \$ 2.000 \\
& 10 \\
& \$ 2.299
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \$ 2.300 \\
& 100 \\
& 10.599
\end{aligned}
\] & \(\$ 2,600\) and over & Niedian expenditure \\
\hline United States & 5.6 & 15.5 & 20.1 & 20.4 & 15.4 & 9.0 & 5.3 & 3.7 & 1.8 & 3.1 & \$1.278 \\
\hline Alabama & 64.6 & 33.1 & 1.6 & & . 8 & & & & & & 1769
3.049 \\
\hline Alaska & & & & & & & & 6.5
2.8 & 12.9
1.9 & 80.6
3.8 & 1,293 \\
\hline Arizona.
Arkansas & 2.4
42.9 & 8.0
39.2 & 23.1
12.4 & \(\begin{array}{r}30.2 \\ 3.2 \\ \hline\end{array}\) & \begin{tabular}{l}
11.8 \\
1.8 \\
\hline 8
\end{tabular} & 8.5
.3 & 7.5
.3 & & & & 1,224 \\
\hline California & . 8 & 1.8 & 10.7 & 29.3 & 25.4 & 1.4 .5 & 6.3 & 5.8 & 2.0 & 3.5 & 1,444 \\
\hline Colorado. & & & 12.7 & 24.3 & 21.0 & 15.5 & 1.1 & 5.0 & 3.9 & 9.9 & 1,493 \\
\hline Connecticut & . 6 & 2.4 & 12.1 & 32.1 & 26.7 & 15.4 & 6.1 & 3.0 & & & 1,413 \\
\hline Delaware & & 3.8 & . 30.8 & 23.1 & 26.9 & 1.1 & & 7.1 & & & 1.335 \\
\hline District of Columbra & & & & & & & 100.0 & 15 & & & 1.240 \\
\hline Florida & & & 38.8 & 5:3 & 10.5 & 1.5 & & & & & 882 \\
\hline Hawaı & 19. & 59. & 15.4 & 5.3 & 100.0 & i & & & & & 1.591 \\
\hline Idaho & . 9 & 32.2 & 35.7 & 15.7 & 7.0 & 3.5 & 3.5 & \(\cdots\) & . 9 & & 1.076 \\
\hline Illinois. & 4 & 7.4 & 29.4 & 30.0 & 15.6 & 1.9 & 4.1 & 3.0 & 1.1 & 1.1 & 1.275 \\
\hline Indiana & 2.0 & 44.1 & 42.8 & 8.6 & 1.6 & 1.0 & & & & & 1,483 \\
\hline Iowa. & & & 2 & 24.2 & 54.5 & 17.3 & 5.4 & 1.15 & 1.6 & . 2 & 1,356 \\
\hline Kansas, & 39.3 & 4.2 & 20.5
3.9 & 32.6
1.1 & 22. 5 & 9.4 & & & & - & . 821 \\
\hline Kentucky
Louisiana & 1.5
1.5 & 45.5 & 45.5 & 6.1 & 1.5 & & & & & , & 1.012 \\
\hline Mane & 10.4 & 27.8 & 42.5 & 12.1 & 1.4 & 1.4 & . 9 & ? & . 5 & 1.9 & +, 071 \\
\hline Maryland & & & 4.2 & 33.3 & 29.2 & 29.2 & & 4.2 & & & 1.449
1.560 \\
\hline Massachusetts & & . 3 & 5.0 & 22.4 & 26.6 & 20.1 & 11.6 & 6.3 & 2.1 & & 1,567 \\
\hline Michigan. & 3.7 & 2.6 & 28.3 & 40.3 & 14.3
35.8 & 5.6
0.9 & 3.1 & 1.1 & . 7 & . 5 & 1,399 \\
\hline Minnesota & 36.2 & 55.9 & 7.5 & 81.9 & 35.8 & 0.9 & & & & & . 840 \\
\hline Missisippl. & 30.2
4.6 & 35.9 & 41.2 & 10.4 & 4.1 & 1.6 & & . 2 & . 4 & . 4 & 1,035 \\
\hline Montana & 3.7 & 8.7 & 16.2 & 16.9 & 13.8, & 8.2 & 9.8 & 8.1 & 5.9 & - 8.2 & 1.414 \\
\hline Nebraska & 7.6 & 12.3 & \(\because 5\) & 14.5 & \(14.3{ }^{\prime}\) & 10.5 & 8.2 & 5.6 & 3.8 & 1.6 & 1.481 \\
\hline Nevada. & & & 5. 9 & 35.3 & 35.3 & 5.9 & 5.9 & & & 11.8 & 1,409 \\
\hline New Hampshire & 7.6 & 31.8 & 31.8 & 14.6 & 8.9 & 2.5 & 1.3 & & 2.6 & . 6 & 1, 1.531 \\
\hline New Jersey. & . 2 & \(1 . ?\) & 8.9 & 21.0 & 25.4 & 23.2 & 8.4 & 8.7 & 2.2
4.5 & 1.0
2.3 & 1.434 \\
\hline New Mexico & & & 17.0 & 25.17 & 23.9 & 2.1. & 23.2 & 1.2 & 9.5
9.4 & 20.4 & 1,966 \\
\hline New York & & 35.6 & 54.8 & 7.5 & 5.4
2.1 & 24.2 & & & & & 1.029 \\
\hline North Carolina
North Dakota & 2.2 & 4.4 & \(1 / .2\) & 31.6 & 20.9 & 12.2 & 5.3 & 3.8 & 1.3 & \(\bigcirc 1.3\) & 1,361 \\
\hline Ohio & . 3 & 32.0 & 3.4 .4 & 15.3 & 13 & 5.2 & 2.4 & 1.5 & , & . 8 & 1,083 \\
\hline Oklahoma & 7.2 & 46.1 & 23.3 & 10.0 & 5.6 & 1.9 & 2.0 & 1.1 & 1.7 & . 6 & 978 \\
\hline Oregon. & . 3 & 1.5 & 6.6 & 18.6 & 25.4 & 17.7 & 11.4 & 9.0 & 4.2 & 4.2 & 1,542 \\
\hline Pennsyivania & . 7 & 2.5 & \(\bigcirc\) & 40.5 & 15.3 & 1.2 & 3.2 & 1.4 & 2.7 & & 1.273 \\
\hline Rhode Islanc & & & 1. 5 & 25.0 & 35.0 & 17.5 & 7.5 & 5.0 & 2.5 & & 1,474 \\
\hline South Carolina, & 39.1 & 53.3
4.8 & & & & & 1.6 & & . 5 & & 1,186 \\
\hline South Dakota.
Tennessee & 2.1
6.1 .9 & 27.8 & 43.9
6.8 & 29.9
3.4 & 11.8 & 3.2 & 1.6 & \(1: 6\) & . 5 & . 7 & \({ }^{766}\) \\
\hline Texas.... & 5.3 & 28.6 & 29.0 & 14.9 & 1.6 & 3.9 & 3.8 & \(2: 7\) & 1.3 & 3.0 & 1,094 \\
\hline Utah & & 1.5 & 47.5 & 21.5 & 2.5 & 7.5 & 5.0 & 2.5 & & & 1,162 \\
\hline Vernont & 4.4 & 17.7 & 34.1 & 211.5 & 12.4 & 6.0 & 3.2 & 1.2 & . 4 & & . 1.130 \\
\hline Virgina & 1.5 & 42.9 & 39.1 & 11.3 & 3.11 & & & 1.5 & . 8 & & 1.414 \\
\hline Washington & 1.0 & 2.6 & 18.6 & 24.1 & \(19 . ?\) & 9.9 & 10.9 & 5.1 & 2.6 & & 1.089 \\
\hline West Virginia & & 106 & 48 & 3.25 .4 & 40.5 & 13.8 & 5.7 & . 5 & . 2 & . 2 & 1,447 \\
\hline Wiscsnsin. & - & & & \(20.4{ }^{\text {- }}\) & 28.6 & 18.4 & 10.2 & 14.3 & 2.0 & 6.1 & 1,601 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

SSOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and weifare. National Center for Education Statishics, preliminary data.
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Chart 4.12
Distribution of School Districts in the United States by Expenditure per Pupil

The distribution of school districts in the United States by per-pupil expenditures ranges from 5.6 percent spending under \(\$ 800\) to 3.1 percent spending 52.600 or more.


Table 4.13
Within-State disparities in current per-pupil expenditures in 1977 and change from 1970


The ratio of expenditures at tie 95 th percentile of students to expenditures at the 5 th percentile of students is used as an index of expenditure disparities at the extremer, The exclusion of the highest and the owns 5 percent is intended to allow for circumstances that might justify some extreme unevenness in the disturitur or mores as tho sn at the fth percentile percentile spend three and one-half this the expenditures perpupul as those at the fth percentile
SOURCE: US Department of Hath. Education. and Welfare. National Center for Education Statistics, unpublished tabulations.


Chart 4.13
Within-State Disparities in Per-Pupil Expenditures

From 1970 to 1977,' 28 States reduced disparities between rich and poor school systems.


Table 4.14
Status of States in enacting refornıs of elementary and secondary education linance structures, during the 1970 's, by type ofi equalization fornula enacted


\section*{Chart 4.14}

States Enacting Equalizason Formuas During the 1970's

During the \(1970^{\circ}\) s, 25 states reiormed their elementary and secondary education finance structures to distribute more State a: to school districts lov. property wealth.


\section*{Chapter 5 \\ Ontcomes of Education.}

Although descriptive statistics about the educational system's resources are readily available, measures of the system's output in terms of what is learned and what benefits accrue from this learning are pore difficult to document. This chapter does not fill this gap, but it does attempt to go beyond numerical counts and suggest the effect that education has on its participants. It is divided into two sections-the first presents various academic outcomes and the second examines several social and economic outcomes associated with educational attainment.

This chapter focuses on the outcomes of schooling as they affect individuals and deals only peripherally with the effects that education has on the whole of society. It should be remembered that education has benefits which go beyond its effects on the individual participant. That society benefits from an cducated populace underlies the tenet that education should be a societal responsibility.

Althrugh the education system bears the primary responsibility for schooling. it cannot take full credit or blame, for the results. As discussed in Chapter 1, the education system shares its responsibilities with the family and the economic and poitical institutions of this country. It is difficult to separate the outcomes attribu:able solely to schooling from the larger societal effects.

\section*{Educational Outcomes}

The impact of school and its interaction with the social environment are apparent in national assessments of student performance. The National Asse nent of Educational Progress (NAEP) provides a comprehensive. comparable data base of information on trends in performance of young Americans. Analyses of recent assessments in science, art, and math provide some indication of the learning that occurs inside and outside the classroom.

From the base year 1970 assessment, achievement on the physical science exercises declined in 1973 and declined still further in 1977 across all age groups (entry 5.1). The decline in physical seience achievement was sharpest among, the 17 -year-olds. On the biological science exercises, scores declined in 1973, but rose in 1977 among the younger age grouns.

This downward trend in performance may reflect a de-emphasis during the 1970's in science education, particularly in the secondary schools. Since the first assessment nieasured achievement at the close of a period of intense interest in the sciences. the decline in subsequent assessments may have been somewhat inevitable. Science did not receive the same coverage in or out of the classroom as it had in the previous period. At the elementary school level, an emphasis on basic education may have diminished interest in the science programs. At the seconfary school level, the decline may have been further aggravated when many schools made advanced physical science courses elective.

Just as declines in science achievement may reflect a de-emphasizing of science not only within but also outside the classroom, assessments in other areas show the effects of learning beyond the school. The effects of the 'student's environment on performance are particularly evident in the art assessment (entry 5.2) While significant differences were apparent across all age groups according to whether or not art was taught in the schools, substantial differences were also evid.nt by parental education and community type- \({ }^{\text {e }}\) tors outside the control of the ser.ools.

Higher parental education was positively associated with higher student achicement on both art knowledge and art appreciation exereises. As the student progresses through school, some diminishing of parental effects might be expected. However, in the art assersment, the influence of parental education did not appear to weaken from the youngest to the oldest age group.

Type as well as size of conmmenty was also related to students performance. Although both groups. tested were from metropolitan areas. students from low ineome communities scored far below, and those from high income communities well above. the nat tional mean on the art knowledge assessment. If one considers that metropolitan areas may offer smitar opportunities for learning about art to wealthy and poor students alike. the effects of ceonomic background are particularly revealing.

As previously indicated, secondary shool students did not devote eonsiderable time to homework nor did they regard their homework as difficult. Television viewing oceupied at least as noweh time as homework. Cross-tabulating the time spent on both homework and television viewing with math achievement further illustrates the interaction between the school and those influences beyond the sehool's control (entry 5.3). Compared to other 17-vear-olds. those students who spent more than 10 hours weekly on homework and less than 1 hour nightly watching television seored appreciably higher on the math assessment. Students who spent 5 or more hours nighty watehing television seored signitieantly below the national mean.

For the individual. the high sehool diphoma prosides a conventional measure of educational suceess. For socicty. the rate at wheh young alults granuate from high school serves as a common indicator of the exEnt to which the Nation has achieved the major goal of free universal basic education. Indications are that the goal has mut been reached and will not be achicved in the near future The proportion of 18 yearoolds who graduated from high school iose steadily during the 1950 s and the early 1960 s (entry 5.4). Howerer, the ratio has fallen slightly during this lecade. from a high of 75.9 percent in 1969 . No rise in the ratio io projected until the node-1980 s.

Various trends support the assumption that cach vear. one-fourth of all 18 -vear-olds will not graduate.
 well before the lith grade. The majority of these dropouts are unlikely to re-emoll or take the high school equivaleney examination. Furthermore if plans to implement competeney standards for graduation are followed, more students may fail to sraduatc.

As shown periousiy, the likelihood of completing high school is related io racial cothnic origin. Onc-therd of roung adults of Hispanic origin and one-fifth of foung black dults have not completed high school contry 5.5 ). The dropout rate among backs fell apprectiably in the carly l970's, but has levelled off in more recent catrs.

Approximately one-hatif of the Nation's high sehool graduate:; enter college the following fall. An indication of the knowledge that students bring to college is provided through national standardioed entrance examination seores. Entrance examination seores on the Seholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) declined throughout the 1970's (entry 5.6). in 1978. SAT verbal seores held steady but the mathematical seores dropped a few points from 1977. Scores on the ACT Assessment Program examinations also have dropped somewhat, though the latest year shows a slight improwement on both the English and the mathematicai subtests. It is too carly to assess whether these latest data represent a pause or a turning point from the .decline.

Researchers have given considerable thought to the factors underlying this decline. The explanation presented by the SAT advisory patal on the test seore deeling is that the decline came in two sterges. eache associated with a different set of factors. During the initial stage (the first 6 or 7 years of the decline). cflleges and universities extended admissions to many groups formerly excluded. The college-going population grew in size and diversity. More lowerscoring students took the tests for the first time. The entry of low seorers depressed the owerall average hat, of eourse, had no effect on the performance of students who characteristically did well. High ability students did as well as they always hat.

After 1970, changes in the ec nposition of the testtaking gioue became less important as scores among all ability groups began to fall. This pervasize score decline indicated that factors other than compositional changes were influencing performance. Maintainin! that the results could not be attributed to one single factor, the panel of experts ciled several interwoven influences:
- Curriratum changes
- Lo: derformance expectations
- Tel-vision
- Sirutural changes in the family
- puciosal disruption
- Diminohed student motivation

It is too eafry to tell whether changes in any one of these areats will result in improvenent in students, college entrance examination seores.

These 穴sults come at a period when many students are-trlering eollege with advanced standing while others feel that they are inadequately prepared for college coursework in certain subjects. Di.... on advanced plaement candidates and on students citing a need for remedial work suggest the outer limits of this range.

The number of students participating in the College Entrance Examination Boards Advanced Placement Program indicate that many high school students are prepared to handle college work beyond the entry level (entry 5.7). Examinations are offered annually to give high school students opportunities to dentonstrate college-level proficiencies. I: the 1978 school year, more than 93.000 high school students took examinations to qualify for sophomore standing in college coursework. This number approximates onetenth of all students who took college entrance exaninations. Students most often took the examinations in English. Americin history, calculu, and biongy.


While one-ienth of high school students appear prepared for advanced college work. at least that proportion of college freshmen reported ihat they need remedial work to raise their performance to that of entry level (entry 5.8). The percentages of students who indicated a need for remedial work varied by subject area and type of institution. About one-fourth of all entering freshmen said they need additional work in mathematies. Only 4 percent indieated they needed help in social studies. Students attending universities were least likely to report that they were unprepared for college work. According to their selfreports, students going to predominantly black colleges were most likely to respond that they needed remedial work. Students in predominantly black colleges as well as students in 2-year institutions were also nore likely to report that they had undergone emedial work for college. Most often, remedial work was in social studies. reading. and English.

The need for better preparation in high school is measured in the responses of high school graduates upon graduation and \(41 / 2\) years following graduation (entry 5.9). I Figh school graduates tend to assess their high school more critically 4 tiz years after high school than upon graduation. Before the class of 1972 graduated, they were asked to evaiuate the training and the counseling that they received. These questions were repeated. \(41 / 2\) years later, in 1976. Although responses differed by the respondents' postsecondary educational experience, :hey were, in general, less favorable in 1976. Fewer respondents indicated in 1976 that the school had provided helpful advice in finding employment or in furthering their education. More felt that thei; sehood should have placed greater emphasis un basic academic subjeets. This heightened need for better pademic training was expressed by those without eollege experience a, well as by those with concege experience. A sizeable proportion of responcients indicated a need for better vocational training and for practical work experience in both 1972 and 1976.

For matiy high school graduates and adults, noncollegiate postsecondary vocational schools provide an alternative to college. Although quite different from higher education degree data, completion rates in vocational schools provide a measure of educational outcomes. Completion of vocational programs in non-collegiate postsecondary school appe:s to be associated with the type of the program and the control of the institution (entry 5.10). Vocations which require eertification for entry (e.g., health occupations) tend to have higher completion rates. Other occupations with no licensing requirements (e.g., business office and marketing distribution) have sraller proportions completing but larger proportions leaving with markeable skills prior to completion. Also. programs offered by private schools tend to have higher completion rates. Shorter, more intensive training and higher tuition costs may contribute to higher rates of completion in private schools.

Because comparable data have been avalable on eollege degree recipients for a decade and a half, it is possible not onl: to deseribe recent trends in degrees granted but also to project these trends into the near future. The 1960 s marked a period of unpreedented growth in degrees awarded at all levels (entry 5.11). The numbers of bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees more than doubled during this deade. By the early 1970's, the number of bachelor's 'qrees awarded had reached over 900,000 an. Ind has levelled off since then. In 1977, the m. f bachelor's degrees awarded to males dropped while the number to females continued to rise slightly. The pattern for masters degrees is similar to that for bachelor's degrees except that growth is expected to eontinue throughout this decade. Doctor's degrees, at least in the immediate future are in erpected to approach the peak reached in the carly 1970's.
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These projections. of course, cannot take into aceount several important unknowns. The increased number of older adults entering college has eonfounded degree data by including more part-time, non-degree credit participants in the enrollment totals. Greater flexibility in terms of programs and the time allocated to complete programs has also complicated the problem of projecting degrees. Furthermore. streanlining of lata collection efforts has eliminated the distinction between degree credit and non-degree credit participants.

Uncertainty about the job market creates additional problems in projecting the supply of college graduates. The labor market in the 1970 s evidenced some diffectity in absorbing the outpouring of college graduates. Approximately ane-fourth of recent college graduates entered occupations not taditionally held by the college-educated. Whether or not potentian ollege applicants adjust their plans in light of labur force demands is a significant unknown.

\section*{Social and Economic Outcomes}

Programs authorized by the Adult Education Act of 1966 are designed to alleviate the educational deficiencies of Americans with iess than a basic education. State projects have been funded to extend educational opportunities to non-high school graduates and to persons with limited English proficiency. Through these projects, 118,071 participants received eighth rade diplomas, 128.886 entered high school, and 114.222 enrolled in other education in fiscal year 1976 (entry 5.12). Personal benefits which acerued from participation included registering to vote, obtaining U.S. citizenship, getting a driver's license. and completing training in income tax filing. Also as a result of participation. 18.983 were removed from public assistance, 61,610 found employment, and an additional 44.502 found better employment.

A total of 2,149.900 persons completed vocational education program requirements during fiscal year 1976 and, of those, \(1,183.984\) (55.1 pereent) were avaitable for employment (entry 5.13). Most who were unavailable for placement were continuing in sthool Eull-time. Of those available for employn: ...: 64 percent found full-time jobs related to their \(t=\) ing. Another 25 percent found jobs unrelated to therr trainin. and 10 percent were uneniplowed 3 months after completing their training.

Anong young adults with noncollegiate postsecondary experience who applied for jobs related to their training, more than two-thirds of those who had not. receised certification found employment in related fields (entry 5.14). This indicates that many who did not complete training left programs with marketable skills and found related jobs. Gver 90 percent of those who received licenses found employment in the ficlds for which they trained.

College graduates earn at least 30 percent more amnaally than high school graduates with no college experience (entry 5.15). However, the income advantages of a college education have diminished somewhat in recent years. is y years ago, college graduates carned 50 pereent more annually than workers with less education. White the income of high school graduates has kept pace with the rise in the Consumer Price Index, the income of. college graduates has fallen short of the inflation rate. Competition among the large numbers of college graduates entering the lahor force has deflated salaries in many professional entry level positions. Competition, too, has foreed a number of college graduates to take bower paying jobs not formerly filled by coliege graduates. which further depresses their median income. It should be remembered. however, that college graduates ate likely to have a distinct edge in employment. if not in carnings.

The earning advantage of college graduates over high school graduates appears to be slightly higher for famakes. College educated women earn approximately 40 percen: \(: n o r e\) than high schooi educated women\(\$ 12,655\) compared to \(\$ 8.894\) in 1977 . However. female college graduater average about \(\$ 3.000\) less annually than ma: with only a high school education.

Among young adult high school graduates with no college experience. most males were eraftspersons or operatives and most females vere homemakers 4 years after high school graduation (entry 5.16). Relatively few males without college or with only some college were employed in white collar positions. Among the employed females with no college or only some college, most were in sales and clerical ocicupations. A sizable proportion of both males and females who had sonce college but no degree were students, indicating that many had extended their college-going bevond the + years after high school. Most of their counteremets who had graduated from college during this fore vere eniploved in . professional or technical we.h or were continuing in school.

Beginning salaries offered to bachelor's degree candidates vary considerably by type of undergraduate field and, to a lesser extent, by sex (entry 5.17). Candidates in engineering and the "hard" sciences command a distinct earning advantage over candidates in other fieds. Average monthly salary offers range from a low of \(\$ 837\) offered to female candidates in the humanities to a high of \(\$ 1.662\) offered to female candidates in petroleum engineering. Even within the enginecring fields, salary offers may differ by more than \(\$ 300\) monthly.

Salary offers to female bachelor's degree candidetes in traditionally male-dominated fields such as engineering and chemistry are generally as high as or slightly higher than offers to males. In the humanities and social seiences, however, offers to females fall below those to males.

Athough femate doctoral degre holders have much higher labor foree participatoon rates than women in general. their rates are lower than those of males in all doctoral fields (entry 5.18 ). Women appear to fare worse in those fields in which they have higher representatio: . In those fields in which wonen represent more than 10 percent of ail doctoral degree holders (the average represcotation of women across all such fields) they tend to have lower labor force participation and higher unemployment rates. For example. unemployment if female doctoral holders in history and the languages runs as high as 6.2 to 10.4 percent.
© 1 suggesting the effects that education has on its participants, this chapter has raised more questions than it has resolved. It has shown the difficulty in separating the outcomes of the educational system from the int?uences outside the educational system. It has alṣo presented the problems associated with projecting the supply of higher education degrees in an uncertain labor market; By examining the wide variation in ëarnings among college graduates by :ace and sex and degree field, it has shown the need for closer stady.

Table 5.1
Change in science achievement, by age and type of exercise: School year, 1969-70, 1972-73, and 1976-77


\author{
Chart 5.1 \\ Science Assessment by Age
}

Achievement on the physical sciences exercises declined in 1973 from a base ycar 1970 assessment and declined still further in 1977. On the biological science exercises, scores declined in 1973 yet rose in 1977 among the younger age groups.


Table 5.2
Differences from niational scores on art knowledge and art appreciation exercises, by age; parental education, size and fype of community': and art exposure: School year 1974-75


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education. and Welfare. National Center for Education Statistics,
National Assessment of Educational Progress. Arf Tecthnical Reporf: Summary Volume, 1978

\section*{Chart 5.2}

Art Knowledge by Age, Parental and Community Background, and Art Exposure
- Students from low income metropolitan communities scured far below the national mean and those from high income metropolitan communities scored well above the national mean on the art knowledge assessment.


Table 5.3
Mean percent correct scores on math assessment of 17 -year-olds, by time spent on homework weekly and television nightly: 1976

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\because 197
\]

Chart 5.3
Math Achievement of 17-Year-Olds by Nightly Television Viewing and Weekly
Homework Assignment

Seventeen-year-olds who spent more than 10 hours on homework weekly and less than 1 hour watching television nightly scored highest on the mathematićs assessment. Students who spent 5 or more hours watching television nigitly scored significantly below the national mean.


Table 5:4
High school graduates as percent of 18-year-old population': School year, 1954-55 to 1984-85


\section*{Chart 5.4}

High School Graduates as Percent of 18-Year-Olds

The ratio of łigh school graduates to alk 18 -yzar-olds has fallen slightly from a high of 75.9 percent in 1969. No rise in the ratio is projected until the mid-1980's.


Table 5.5
Persons not enrolled in school and not high school graduates, by age, racial/ethnic group, and sex: 1967 to 1977


\footnotetext{
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. School Enrollment-Social and Economic Charac-
} taristics of Students. \(P\)-20, various years.

\section*{Chart 5.5 \\ Young Adult High School Dropouts}

\footnotetext{
One-third of young adults of Hispanic origin and one-fifth of black young adults-have not completed high school. The dropout rate among blacks fell appreciably in the early 1970's. leveling off in the later years. The dropout rate \({ }^{\text {a }}\) among white young adults has not declined agnificantly in 10 years.
}


Table 5.6
Mean scores on standardized college entrance examinations: School year ending 1967 to 1978
)


\section*{Chart 5.6}

\section*{College Entrance Examination Scores̀}

Entrance examination scores on the Scholastic Aptitude Tesr have continued to decline in the 1970's. Scores on the ACT Assersment Program exuininations have also. dropped somewhat, although the latest year shows a slight improvenmen: on' both the English and the mathematics subtests.


Table 5.7
Number of advanced placement candidates, examinations taken, and, institutions of higher education offeritg advanced placement: School year ending 1956 to 1978

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\because, j, 5
\]

Chart 5.7
Advanced Placement Candidates

In the school year ending in 1978. more than 93,000 high school students took examinations to qualify
- for sophomore standing in college coursies. More than half of all institutions of bigher education granted advanced, standing or credit to qualifying applicants.

- Table 5.8

Percent of first-time entering freshmen having had remedial work and percent citing need for remedial work, by type of institution and by subject area: Fall 1978

- SOURCE: American Counct on Education, Cooperative Institutionat Research
* Program. The Amencan Freshman National Norms 1978. advanne data.
- Chart 5.8
- Colicge Freshmen Indicáting Need for Remedial Work by Subject Area
\(\qquad\)

About one-fourth of air.
entering college freshmen
slated that they need - slated that theyneed remedial work in maihematics. In predominanily black. prodiominanily black.
colleges. almosir half of the students citedio need : \(\therefore\) for addilional math Fielp.



Table 5.9
Attitudes of young adults toward high school, upon graduation in 1972 and \(41 / 2\) years after graduation, by educational attaimment in 1976


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education. and Welfare. National Center for Education Statistics, National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972, unpublished tabulations.

Chart 5.9
Attitudes of Young Adults Toward High School

More young adults saw a greater need for basic high school academic training 4 years after high school graduation than they had seen immediately prior to graduation.




4

Table 5.10
Occupational program completions and hours to complete prograns in noncollegiate postsecondary residential schools, by control of institution and type of program: Fiscal year 1976


NOTE: Details may not add to totals Decause of rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, "Occupational Education: Completers and Leavers From Schools With Occupational Programs". 1978, and un?ublished data.


Chart 5.10
Vocational Education Completions by Type of Frogran and Control of Institution
\(\qquad\)

\footnotetext{
Completion rates in noncollegiate posisecondary schools are dependent on the type of program and the control of the institution.
}


Table 5.11
Earned degrees, by leven and sex of student: 1960-61 to 1984-85


\section*{Chart 5.11}

Earned Degrees by Level

The numbers \(0^{f}\). degrees at all levels are expected to remain fairly constant over the next 7 years.


Table 5.12
Participants in adult basic and secondary education programs, by recognized educational, economic, and personal achievements resultirg from participation: Fiscal year 1976


Chart 5.12
Adult Basic and Secondary Education Achievements
-Fhrough adult basic and secondary education programs. 118.071 participants recesved an eighth grade diploma. 128.886 entered high school. and 114.2?2 enrolled in other education.


199

Table 5.13
Labor force status of persons completing State-administered vocational education programs \(\mathbf{3}\) months following completion: Fiscal year 1976
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \(\because \quad\) ' & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{All programs} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Secondary} & \multicolumn{2}{|l|}{Postsecondary} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Adult} \\
\hline Status & Number & Percent & Number & Percent & Number & Percent & Number & Percent \\
\hline Total. & 2,149,900 & 100.0 & 1,378,012 & 100.0 & 537,363 & 100.0 & 234,525 & . 100.0 \\
\hline In labor force. & 1,183,784 & 55.1 & 720,64]. & 52.3 & 338,326 & 63.0 & 124,817 & 53.2 \\
\hline Not in labor force. & . 532,978 & 24.8 & 439, 472 & 31.9 & 64,070 & 11.9 & 29,436 & 12.6 \\
\hline Status unknown.. & 433,490 & 20.1 & 218,254 & 15.8 & 134.964 & 25.1 & 80,272 & 34.2 \\
\hline In labor force. & 1,183,784 & \(1000^{\circ}\) & 720,641 & 100.0 & 338, 326 & 100.0 & 124,817 & 100.0 \\
\hline Employed in related field & 762,179 & 64.4 & 421, 108 & 58.4 & 257,322 & 75.9 & 83,839 & 67.2 \\
\hline Employed in other field. & 299, 749 & 25:3 & 212,856 & 29.6 & 57,043 & 16.8 & 29,850 & 23.9 \\
\hline Unemployed. . . . . . . . . & 121,856 & 10.3 & 86,677 & 12.0 & 24,051 & 7.1 & 11,128 & 8.9 \\
\hline Not in labor force. & 532,978 & - 100.0 & 439,472 & 100.0 & 64,070 & 100.0 . & 29,436 & 100.0 \\
\hline Enrolied in school full-time & 381, 106 & 71.5 & 331, 790 & 75.5 & 33, 884 & \(52.9{ }^{\circ}\) & 15,432 & 52.4 \\
\hline  & 151,872 & 28.5 & 107,68? & 24.5 & 30,186 & 47.1 & 14,004 & 47.6 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

NOTE: Details may rot add to totals because of rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Vocational Education Fiscal Year 1976: Summary Data, 1978.

Chart 5.13
Labor Force Participation Following Completion of Vocational Fdncation Prograns

Of the persons who completed vocational education programs and were available for employment, 64 percent found jobs related to their training. Another 25 perient found job; unrelated to their :raining and 10 percent were unemployed 3 months after completing the prograns.


Table 5.14
Young adults with noncollegiate postsecondary training who applied for and obtained employment in fiefd for which traned, by type of certification: 1976


Chart 5.14
Young Adults \({ }^{W}\) ith Noncollegiate Postsecondary Training Obtaining Employment in Field Trained by Type of Certification

\footnotetext{
Amongr:young adults with noncollegiate postsecondary training who applied for jobs in their field of training, over 90 percent of those with licenses found employment.
More than two-thirds of those without certification also found employment in thoit ficld.
}


Table 5.15
Annual median income (current dollars) of year-round full-time workers, 25 years old and over, by sex and educational attainment: 1967 to 1977

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221
\]

\section*{Chart 5.15 \\ College Graduates' Income Compared to High School Graduates'}

College graduates earn at least 30 percent more annually than high school graduates with no college experience. Ten years ago, however, college graduates earned 50 percent more annually than workers with less education.


Table 5.16
Occupational distribution of young adults, \(41 / 2\) years after high scrool, by sex and educational attainment: 1976


\footnotetext{
\(9-3\)
}

Chart 5.16
Status of High School Graduates 41/2 Years After High School


Among young adult high school graduates with no college experience, most males were craftŝpersons or operatives and most females.were homemakers 4 years after high school graduation.


Table 5.17
National average monthly salary offers to bachelor's degree candidates, by sex and field of study: 1973-74 to 1977-78

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\]

Chart 5.17
National Average Monthly Salary Offers to Bachelor's Degree Candidates by Curriculum

> In traditionally male-dominated fields, salary offers to female bachelor's degree candidates are generally as high or slightly higher than offers to males. In the humanities and social sciences, however, offers to females fall below those to males.


Table 5.18
Labor force participation and employment status of doctoral degree holders, by field of doctorate and sex: 1977


Chart 5.18
Unemiployment of Doctoral Degree Holders by Field and Sex

Although female doctoral
degree holders have much higher labor force participation rates than women in general, their rates are lower than those of male doctoral holders. Female unemployment rates, however, are bigher than male rates in all doctoral fields.

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Chapter 6
The Status of
Minorities and Women
in Higher Education

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Various initiatives have been taken in education to promote change in the wider socicty. One such initiative in recent decades has been the expansion of learning opportunities to groups that in the past have been excluded from the American mainstream. Providing equal access to higher education has been seen as a first step toward socio-economic betterment for minorities and independence for women.

This chapter discusses trends in participation of minorities and women in higher education and in society as a whole. It begins with an examination of public opinion surveys which suggest the outloak of the public toward racial and sexual equality. By presenting trend data on participation and attainment, it portrays recent chanres in both the educational and economic status of minorities and women. It concludes by exploring some current developments which may contribute to equal access to higher education.

\section*{Public Opinion}

Recent nationwide surveys provide some insights into people's attitudes toward racial and sexual equality. Although trend data are seldom available to document attitudinal change, some shifts in attitudes can be inferred.

According to a 1978 Harris poll, whit:s generally support the concept of equal treatment for minorities and women. More than two-thirds or the white respondents concurred with the statement hat "after years of discrimination, it is only fair to s.t up special programs to make sure that women and minorities are given every chance to have equal opportunity in employment and education." Yet the responses of whites to other items in the survey suggest some ambivalence. An overwhelming majority of whites expressed the opinion that minorities and women -should not become dependent on special treatment.

The opinions of whites and/6lacks differ substantially on the question , oi yhether equal educational opportunity currently exists in their communities, according to a 1978 Gallup Poll (entry 6.1). Of the blacks surveyed, 38 percent responded that minority children have the same educational opportunitics as white children do in their communities. In contrast, 86 percent of the whites indicated that opportunities were equal. Although responses of northern whites ard southern whites were much the same, responses of blacks differed by region. Southern blacks we ee much more likely than their northern counterpaits to respond that equal educational opportunity existed in their commanity- 54 percent compared to 21 percent.

Results from a 1962 Gallup Poll suggest that these latest responses signal a regional shift in black attitudes. In 1962, about 6 out of 10 southern blacks responded that equal educational opportunities did not exist in their community. Although data were not reported specifically for northern blacks in 1962, the responises of non-southern blacks indicated that in 1962 about 60 percent believed that equal educational opportunity did exist in their communities.

Past enrollment data indicate that traditionally the sons of the family, rather than the daughters, were encouraged to attend college. According to a recent General Mills survey of the American family, the attitudes underlying this practice are changing (entry 6.2). Most parents responded that the best student, regardless of sex, should be given the opportunity to go to coltege. While fathers were not as egalitarian in their attitudes as mothers, an overwhelming majority of both parents expressed the opinion that the decision should be based on merit rather -than on sex.

Of additional interest is a recent Gallup Poll survey of teenagers' attitudes toward education: Results of the opinion survey indicate that young people generaily affirmed that the United States is still the land of oppertunity. More than three-fourths of the teenagers agreed with Statement that "almost everyone in America today can get ahead if he or she wants to" (entry 6.3). This opinion held regardless of the respondent's race, sex, place of residence, and parental education. Only between the younger teenagers and the older teenagers was there any variation in responses; the 13 - to 15 -year-olds were more positive in their responses than the 16 - to 18 -year-olds.

\section*{Educational Participation}

Minoritics and women are being educated in greater numbers today. Onc indicator of this progress can be seen in the increased proportions of the population having graduated from high school within age cohorts (entry 6.4). From the oldest to the youngest adult cohort, the proportions having fraduated from high school in all racial/ethnic groups have increased substantially while the disparities among the groups have diminished. Among the oldest cohort, persons 65 years old and over, whites were \(21 / 2\) times as likely as blacks and Hispanics to have completed high school. The disparities are considerably less among the 25 - to 29 -year-old group. However even among this younger cohort, fewer than three-fourths of the blacks, and only 58 percent of persons of Hispanic origin had completed high school in 1977.

Differences in educational attainment are less evident by sex. The proportion of women who attained at least a high school education does not differ appreciably from the proportion of male graduates. Differjences among racial/ethnic groups follow similar patterns for females as for males: among each age cohort, white females were more likely to graduate from high school than black or Hispanic females.

Minorities and women are seeking further schooling at unprecedented rates. As chapter 3 notes, ininority participation in higher education increased during the 1970's. In 1977, the college enrollment rate of blacks approximated that of whites, while the rate of persons of Hispanic origin was somewhat lower (see entry 3.10 in chapter 3). If the participation rate were calculated as the proportion of high school graduates enrolled in college, the rates of blacks and Hispanics would exceed that of whites. The smalier proportion of blacks and Hispanic high school graduates partially accounts for their lower representation in college.

As chapter 3 also points out. the participation of women in higher education has risen substantially over the last seven years. Females in 1977 comprised 49 percent of the college student body and 52 percent of the first-time entering students. Their representation also has increased at graduate and professional schools. In 1977, females comprised almost one-third of the total graduate enrollment and nearly half of the part-time graduate enrollment.

Data on degrees awarded to racial/ethnic groups show that most minorities are not represented in proportioin to their college-age population. Blacks are underrepresented at all degree levels (entry 6.5). While representing 12.4 percent of the college-age population, they account for 6.4 percent of the bachelor's degrees, 6.5 percent of the master's degrees, 3.6 percent of the doctoral degrees, and 4.3 percent of the first-professional degrees. Persons of Hispanic origin. who comprise 4.9 percent of the college-age population, were underrepresented at the bachelor's ( 2.8 percent), master's ( 2.0 percent), doctoral (1.2 percent), and first-professional (2.2 percent) levels.

On the other hand, Asian American/Pacific Islander degree recipients exceeded their population representation of less than 1 percent. This group accounted for over 1.5 pereent each of the bachelor's, master's, doctoral, and first-professional degrees.

Non-resident aliens comprised 2.0 percent of the total enrollment in colleges in 1976. Their representation in degrees awarded was greatest at the master's and doctor`s level. Twelve percent, or almost one doctorate in cight. were awarded to non-resident aliens. The total of 4,071 doctor's degrees awarded to foreign students compares to 2.372 doctorates awarded to all minority U.S. citizens.

Education. business, and social seiences were the three fields with the highest percentage of bachelor's degrees (entry 6.6). While education was the single most popular field for all racial/ethinic groups, a larger percentage of blacks and Native Americans received their degrees in this field than did other racial/ethnic groups. Similarly, a larger percentage of black, Hispanic, and Native American graduates received their degrees in social sciences than did white or Asian American/Pacific Islander graduates.

The eoncentration of black graduates majoring in education is even more pronounced in traditionally black institutions. These 106 institutions, founded spectifally for the education of blacks, confer the largest proportion of their degrees in the edueation field. 31 percent of their bachelor's degrees. 75 percent of their master's degrees. and 24 percent of their doctorates.

Appreciable increases in the proportion of degrees awarded to females have occurred at the higher degree levels (entry 6.7). In 1965. women received orie-third of the masters degrees awarded; by 1977, they represented almost half ( 47.1 pereent) of all master's degree recipients. During the same period, womens representation among doetoral degree recipients more than doubled, from 10.8 to 24.3 percent. Growth at the first-professional degree level has been even more substantia!. Since 1965. women have more than tripled their proportion of the "total firstprofessional derees awarded--10) 18.7 percent in 1977.

Despite increased participation in higher education, women still receive degrees in the fields which have traditionally had high proportions of female graduates. In 1977, degrees awarded to women were concentrated in the areas of edueation, social scienees, and social serivices. The fields most often chosen by women at the bachelors level were education and social sciences. These fields alone accounted for more than one-third of all bachelor's degrees awarded to women. At the master"s level, the most popuiar fields were education and publie affairs and services. At the doetoral level the fields most often ehosen were education. psyehology, letters, and social sciences. Edraation alone accounted for more inan one-third of all doetorates awarded to females in 1977.

The concentration of women in relatively few fields is also refleeted in their share of degrees awarded within specific fieds (entry 6.8). Although women comprised 46 percent of all bachelors degree recipients in 1977. their share of bachelor's degrees by field ranged from 96 percent in home economics to less than 1 percent in military sciences. The concentration of femate degree recipients in traditionally feminine fields has changed little since 1971. Between 1971 and 1977, women increased their representation at the master's and doctoral levels in two traditionally feminine fields-education and the health professions. Yet. substantial gains by women have been made in at least one male-dominated fieldbusiness and management. Although their representation in business and management remained low in 1977. women have registered appreciable increases at all levels since 1971.

Women also increased their share of first-professional degrees in all fields from 1971 to 1977 (entry 6.9).
- Women's representation more than doubled among medical degree recipients and more than tripled among law degree recipients.

According to Howard University's Institute for the Study of Educational Policy, slightly more than 3 percent of the facultios at colleges and universities in 1960 were blacks, including those employed in traditionally black institutions. This proportion changed little through the 1960's. In 1974 the proportion of blacks on facultics was an estimated 3.5 percent, and in 1977 it was 4.4 percent. While these data show gradual increases in the percentage of black faculty members, the proportion does not approach the 11 percent that blacks represent of the total work force.

The status of women in faculties of higher education has remained relatively unchanged in the last decade. Women comprise about one-fourth of college faculties, a proportion that has remained fairly constant since 1960 . This represents, in fact. a lower proportion of female faculty than taught in 1930.

Female representation on facultics appears to be inversely related to the status and salary of the position. In 1978, women comprised half of all faculty at the rank of instructor yet one-tenth of those with full professorial status. While women hold 25.4 percent of the full-time faculty jobs, they occupy only 18.3 percent of the university positions. Representation of women on faculties is largest at the two-year college level: more than one-third of these jobs are held by women: In comparing women's ain: men's faculty salaries, at al', manks, men earn considerably more than women (see entry 3.15 in chapter 3). Disparities are greatest at the rank of full professor, with males earning \(\$ 2.000\) ) more than femoles in public institutions and almost \(\$ 4.000\) more in private institutions.

\section*{Economic Participation}

With changing attudes, heightened participation and gradual reform. the status of minorities and women may aproach equity in coming generations. Data on median income levels provide an indication of the current differences in carning power anong racial groups and between the sexes (entry 6.10). Among full-time wage and salary workers, whites areraged almose \(\$ 50\) more weekly than minorities in 1978. However the earning differential between whites and minorities has decreased somewhat in 11 years. In 1967, minorities carned wages and salaries ateraging 70 pereent of those of whites: in 1978. they earned approximatey 80 percent.

Disparities in earnings are more evident between the sexes than among the races. In 1978, the median weekly earnings of females working full-time were Siob. compared to \(\$ 272\) carned by males or about 6t percent of the men's earnings. This ratio has shown little change since 1967 .

Earning differences betwecn whites and minorities are less apparent among fenales. Minority women carned \(\$ 158\), of 5 percent less than the \(\$ 167\) earned by white women. In comparison the usual weekly carnings of white males were \(\$ 279\), while those of minority maics were \(\$ 218\), or 22 percent less:.

Within occupational categorics of full-time yearround vorkers, women consistently earned less than men (entry 6.11). Female professional/technical workers earned at least one-third less than their male counterparts in 1977. Fenale. sales workers fared worse; they earned half the saiary of male sales workers, down slightly from the proportion carned in 1962. Within educational levels, too, males continue to hold an carnings advantage (see entry 5.15 in chapter 5). Even at the highest educational level, women's carnings are only 70.6 perient of the males' carnings. Comparing women's and men's 'income levels across categories, one sees that the carnings of female college graduates are still less than those of male high school graduates.

While these data on earnings are revealing, they do not take into account the numbers of minorities and women who are not fully employed. The inclusion of jart-time workers, the unemployed, and persons who are not in the work force would change the income distribution considerably. In this case, the gap in income levels between whites and blacks, and between males and females, would be substantially wicer for at least three reasons: 1) blacks and women more often fill those jobs at the lowest end of the cconomic scale; 2) even with governmental cash assistance included as income, more than one-fourth of all black families remained in poverty in 1975, compared with less than 8 percent of white families; and 3) a greater proportion of persons under the official guideline for poverty are women.

A National Center for Education Statistics survey of recent college graduates yields information about the employment status of college educated minorities and .women (entry 6.12). Amọng 1976-77 bachelor's degree recipients, men's median earnings were \(\$ 12.700\) per year, compared to \(\$ 10.300\) per year for women. White males earned slightly higher average salaries than black males, \(\$ 12,700\) compared to \(\$ 12,000\). The earning advantage of whites was reversed among women. At the master's level, black males and females ayyeraged somewhat highersalaries than their white counterparts.

Cation suggested in interpreting these cita because the survey sampled only \(r\) a \(t\) colle graduates. The employment characiebis...s of the sample, therefore, did not reflect those of the general population. The underrepresentation of black; and women in higher education, and the higher collegiate attrition rate of minoritics and women inust be kept in mind. Thus, while minorities and women may seem to be faring well from the results of this study, these income levels refer to a sipecific population subgroup, recent college graduates.*

Part of the earning disparity between male and female college graduates may be explained by the fact that men and women major in different fields. Yet an examination of the earnings of men and women within the same college field indicates that differences in college coursework cannot account for all the variation (entry 6.13). Males averaged at least \(\left.\$^{-}\right) 0\) more annually than females who majored in the same field. In the health professions, business and management, the social sciences and public affairs, and cominunications, morc than \(\$ 2,000\) separated the annual earaings of males from the carnings of females. Only in one field, engineering, in which women comprised less than 5 percent of the degree recipients, did the salaries of women exceed those of males.

An examination of the underemployment of these recent college graduates modifies these findings somewhat. To be classified as underemployed, a graduate had top be working full-time in a job that was not professional, technical, managerial, or administrative and wheri asked, had responded that the job did not require a college degree. To exclude respondents who were working full-time while in graduate study, the definition further stipulated that the respondent not be enrolled in school.

Femalégraduates were slightly less likely than male graduates to indicate that they were underemployed in the year followitg graduation, 23.7 percent compared to 19.0 percent: In only three fields, psy. cholog \(\bar{y}\), humanities, and communications, were women more likely to be underemployed. In addition, underemployment of both males and females was lower than average in the female-dominated fields of education and the health professions.

\section*{Equalizing Access}

Although young women may approach parity with young men in the level of education attained, they are underrepresented in certain traditionally masuline fields, as this chapter has shown. Women are pursuing advanced study at unprecedented rates, yet they are graduating in fields which have traditionally attracted a disproportionate share of women. Few inroads have been made in the traditionally masculine fields of engineering and the physical sciences.

The concentration of women in a few academic fields in college persists in part because of the preparation females received at the precollege level. Young females traditionally were not encouraged to take advanced coursework in mathematjes and the hard sciences. Several collcge fields have attracted fow females because they required advanced high school math and science courses as prerequisites.

Data from the National Longitudinal Study of the High School Class of 1972 suggest that this trend was still evident in the carly 1970's (entry 6.14).
- Female college students from this study averaged less high school coursework in math and science than their male counterparts. Only those few females who were majoring in male-dominated fields in college, had taken math and science coursework in high sche ul comparable to that taken by males.

Some of the educational disparities between men and women may be diminishing, however, according to data supplicd by HEW's Office for Civil Rights (OCR). These data, collected in 1976, present national estimates of enrollment by sex in courses such as home economic and industrial arts, which have traditionally enrolled a disproportionate percentage of a single sex (entry 6.15.). Results of the OCR survery indicate that sex-stercotyping still exists in some courses. Almost three -ipurths of the students in home economics closses were female while less than onefourth of the students in industrial arts classes were female.

At the highest level of coursework in mathematics and science, however, females comprised 49 percent of the students. This is especially noteworthy, since as the NLS data indicate, pt the beginning of the decade females were undefrepresented in the more advanced math and science levels. The OCR findings suggest that the sex differences in educational experience may diminish as this age cohort matr es.

New programs aimed at decreasing the differences in educational experiences may be paving the way for future equality for minoritics and women. An indicator of the commitment to reform is evident in the special programs that have been established for minorities and women in higher education. To find out about the prevalence of such prograns, the Anerican Council on Education, through its Higher Education Pancl, conducted a survey of 311 colleges and universities that award a professional degree, doctoral degree or some other degree beyond the master's (cntry 6.16). The results of this survey indicate that nearly half of the doctoral and professional institutions offered some form of special recruitment, academic, or financial aid program to benefit minority or female graduate students. The degree of involvement varied by the control of the institution as well as by the type, with universities and public institutions being the most active. Furthernore, certain ficlds of graduate study, notably law and medicine, reported an above average level of effort.

Table 6.1
Public opinion on equality of educational opportunity, by race and geographical area: 1978


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Chart 6.1
Public Opinion on Equality of Educational Opportunity

Blacks were much less likely than whites to respond that minority children in their communities have access to equal educational opportunities. Northern blacks were the least likely to indicate that minorities have equal opportunities.


Table 6.2
Parental attitudes on whether sending children to college should be based on sex or merit: 1976


Chart 6.2
Parental Attitudes on Whether Sending Children to College Should Be Based on Sex or Merit

Most parents would favor sending the better student o college regardiess of sex. INothers were slightly more likely to respond that the decision should be based on merit rather than on sex.


Table 6.3
Aftitudes of 13- to 18-year-olds toward "getting ahead": 1978


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Chart 6.3
Teenagers' Attitudes Toward "Getting Ahead"

Regardless of their
backgrounds, teenagers
overwhelmingly responded
that in America almost
everyone can get ahead - with effort.


Table 6.4
Percent of persons 25 years old and over completing at least 4 years of high school, by age and racial/ethnic group: 1977
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Racial/ethnic group & Total & \[
\begin{gathered}
25 \\
\text { to } 29
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 30 \\
& \text { io } 34
\end{aligned}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
35 \\
\text { to } 44
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
45 \\
\text { to } 54
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
55 \\
\text { to } 64
\end{gathered}
\] & \[
\begin{gathered}
65 \\
\text { and over }
\end{gathered}
\] \\
\hline & Total. & 64.9 & 85.4 & 81.0 & 73.6 & 64.3 & 56.2 & 37.5 \\
\hline & White. & 67.0 & 86.8 & 82.6 & 75.8 & 67.5 & 59.3 & 39.7 \\
\hline & Black. & 45.5 & . 74.5 & 67.2 & 55.7 & 35.6 & 26.1 & 14.8 \\
\hline & H :spanic origin \({ }^{\text {I }}\). & 39.6 & 58.1 & 49.0 & 41.0 & 33.0 & 22.7 & !. 2 \\
\hline & Male. & 65.6 & 86.6 & 82.4 & 74.3 & 62.5 & 55.5 & 36.0 \\
\hline & White. & \(167{ }^{5}\) & 87.6 & 83.5 & 76.2 & 65.7 & 28.4 & 38.0 \\
\hline & Blȧk. .... & 45.6 & 77.5 & 69.3 & 55.7 & 31.1 & 25.5 & 15.6 \\
\hline & Hispanic origin \({ }^{\text {I }}\). & 42.3 & 62.1 & 53.6 & 43.7 & 35.7 & 20.8 & 19.4 \\
\hline \multirow{4}{*}{-:} & Female & 64.4 & 84.2 & 79.7 & 73.0 & 66.0 & 56.8 & 38.5 \\
\hline & White. & 66.5 & 86.0 & 81.7 & 75.3 & 69.2 & 60.0 & 40.9 \\
\hline & Black. & 45.4 & 72.0 & 65.3 & 55.7 & 39.2 & 26.6 & 14.1 \\
\hline & Hispanic origin \({ }^{1}\). & 37.2 & 54.8 & 45.2 & 39.0 & 30.8 & 24.1 & 13.8 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
' Categories are not discrete (e.g., a person may be classified in both white and Hispanic origin categories)
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census, Educational Altainment in the United States: March 1977 and 1976, Series P-20, No. 314, 1977.

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Chart 6.4

\section*{High Schoo! Graduates by Age Group}

Differences in educational attainment diminish substantially among racial/ethnic groups from the oldest to the youngest age cohorts. Attainment levels by age and by racial/ethnic group follow similar patterns for females and males.

Males, 25 Years Old and Over


Females, 25 Years Old and Over
Percent of population completing at least 4 years of high school


NCES

Table 6.5
Representation of racial/ethnic groups among degree recipients, by level of degree:
Aggregate United States, 1975-76


Chart 6.5
Racial/Ethnic Group Representation Among Degree-Recipients

Whites and Asian American/Pacific Islanders are better represented among degree recipients than members of other racial/ethnic groups. Nonresident aliens receive a substantial share of doctor's degrees.


Table 6.6
Distribution of bachelor's degrees conferred among selected academic fields, by racial/ethnic group: Aggregate United States, 1975-76


Chat 6.6
Distribution of Bachelor's Degrees Among Selerted Fieliss by Racial/Ethnic Group

Representation in various degree fields differs among racial/ethnic groups. A breplif brthortion of black and Native American degree recipients earn their degrees in education th :n other minorities and \(u\) "te degree recipients.


Table 6.7
Percent of degrees awarded to females, by level of degrec: School years ending 1965, 1970, and 1977


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health. Education. and Welfare. National Center for Education Statistics, Prolecions of Education Statistice 'o 1986-87, 1978.

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Chart 6.7
Percent of Degrees Awarded to Females

Female representation among degree recipients has increased gradually at the bachelor's level and rapidly at the advanced degree levels. Even so, females earn fewer than one-fourth of all doctor's and first-professional degrees.


Table 6.8
Percent of females among degree recipients, by level of degree and discipline division: Aggregate United States, 1971 and 1977

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Chart 6.8
Percent of Degrees Awarded to Females by Level and Selected Discipline Divisions
\(L\)

The proportion of bathelor's and master’s degrees awarded to females increased appreciably between 1971 and 1977 in hosiness and managenent. a traditionally maseuline field. Gains in fenmate reprecentation at the master's and dector's levels were aloo substantial in traditionally feminine tield, notably, the health profesions and education.


Table 6.9
Percent of females among first-professional degree recipients, by field: Aggregate United States, 1971 and 1977


Chart 6.9
Percent of First-Professional Degrees Awarded to Females by Selected Fields

The female share of firstprofessional degrees nearly tripled between 1971-and 1977. Women, however, continued to comprise less than one-fifth of all
first-professional recipients in 1977.




Table 6.10
Median usual weekly earnings in current dollars of full-time wage and salary workers, by racial/ethnic group and by sex: May 1967 to May 1978

' Reflects annually compounded rates of change for the 1967 to 1978 period
Data for black (exclusive of other races) and Hispanic origin workers are not available prior to 1978. Data on persons of Hispanic origin are tabulated separately without regard to race, which means they are also included in the data for white and black workers. At the time of the 1970 census, approximately 96 percent of their population was white
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics, News, USDL 78-842, 1978.

\section*{Chart 6.10}

Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Workers by Race and Sex

The advantage that males command in weekly earnings has changed'little since 1967 . Variation in weekly earnings among females by race is far smaller than disparities in earnings among men by race.


Table 6.11
Median earnings of female year-round full-time workers as percent of those of nales, by selected major dccupational group: 1965 to 1977
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & Occupational group & 1965 & 1967 & 1960 & 1971 & 1973 & 1975 & 1971 & \\
\hline & & & & & Percent & & & & \\
\hline & Professional/technical. & 67.7 & 66.2 & 64.9 & 68.6 & 63.6 & 65.9 & 65.8 & \\
\hline & Manager/administrator (except farm) & 52.2 & 54.4 & 53.1 & 56.2 & 52.8 & 56.7 & 54.2 & \\
\hline & Clerical. & 68.1 & 67.1 & 65.1 & 62.4 & 60.9 & 62.2 & 61.6 & \\
\hline & Sales. & 42.4 & 42.4 & 40.5 & 43.0 & 37.8 & 38.9 & 42.5 & \\
\hline & Operative. & 57.1 & 57.8 & 59.1 & 60.8 & 56.4 & 56.1 & 58.3 & \\
\hline & Service (ëxcept private household) & 57.0 & 56.5 & 58.9 & 59:5 & 57.8 & 57.1 & 61.2 & \\
\hline & \multicolumn{9}{|l|}{SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census, Consumer Income. Money income and Poverty Status of Families and Persons in the United States, P-60. Nos. 43, 51, 75, 85. 97, 105, and 116.} \\
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Chart 6.11
Salaries of Females Compared to Salaries of Males by Occupation

Within occupational categories of full-time year-round workers, females' earnings continue to be substantially lower than males' earnings. The ratio of female salaries to. male salaries is highest among professional and technical workers and lowest among salesworkers.
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Table 6.12
Average annual' salaries of 1967-77 bachelor's and master's degree recipients working full-time, by sex and by racial/ethnic group: February 1978

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Chart 6.12
Salaries of Recent Degree Recipients by Sex and Race

Among recent college graduates working full-time. males have an earning advantage over femates. The salary gap belween males and females is widest among white graduates. White femates earn the least among recent bachelor's and masler's degre recipients.


Table 6：13
Average annual \({ }^{1}\) salaries and underemployment＂of 1976－77 bachelor＇s degree recipients working full－time，by major degree field and sex：February 1978
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \multirow[b]{2}{*}{Major degree field} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Total} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Male} & \multicolumn{2}{|c|}{Female} \\
\hline & Average salary & Percent under－ employed & Average \({ }^{\circ}\) salary & Percent under． employed & Average salary & Percent under－ employed \\
\hline & \＄11．700 & 21.6 & \＄12．700 & 23.7 & \＄10，300 & 19.0 \\
\hline Biological sciences． & 10．100 & 21.5 & ＋10．200 & 30.5 & 10.000 & 7.8 \\
\hline Engineering ． & 15.200 & 7.9 & 15.200 & 8.4 & 15.900 & 9 \\
\hline Physical sciences \＆mathematics & 11.600 & 14.1 & 12.000 & 16.0 & 10,400
+0.000 & 9.4
41.0 \\
\hline Psychology．．．． & 10，700 & 36.8
36 & 11.400
12.507 & 32.0
40.4 & 10.000
9.200 & 29.5 \\
\hline Social sciences \＆public affairs & 1.300
9.500 & 32.3
32.9 & 10，300 & 32.5 & 8.800 & 33.2 \\
\hline Humanities management & 13．200 & 18.6 & 13.700 & 19.9 & 11，300 & 14.2 \\
\hline Education ．．． & 11.100 & 14.0 & 11.700 & 15.9 & 10，800 & 13.3 \\
\hline Health professions & 12.300 & 2.5 & 14． 100 & 3.4 & 11,900
9,100 & 2.3
26.3 \\
\hline Communications． & 10.200 & 23.0 & 11.300
11.900 & 34.1 & 9,100
8,800 & 26.3
31.2 \\
\hline Other．．．．．． & 10，500 & 32.7 & 11．900 & 34.1 & 8，800 & 31.2 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

\footnotetext{
Salaries of teachers working on 9 to 10 month contracts have been adjusted to 12 month salaries． －Bachelor＇s degree recipients working full－time are defined as underemployed if in a job that is not professional，technical．managerial．or administrative and when asked．responded that job did riol require a college degree．Definition includes addilional stipulation that they are not enrolled in school．
SOURCE：U．S．Department of Health．Education，and Welfare．National Centér for Education Sta－ listics， 1978 Survey of 1976－77 College Graduates，Drelsminary dala．
}

Chart 6.13
Underemployment of 1976-77 Bachelor's Degree Recipients by Sex and Selected College Fields

Female salaries tend to be lower across all fields except engineering. However, their underemployment is not as high as male underemployment in most fields.


Table 6.14
Average number of high school semester courses in science and math taken in 1972 by entering college students, by sex and by sex-typing \({ }^{1}\) of major field in college: 1973


\footnotetext{
' Male-dominated fields were defined as biological sciences, business, engineering, physical sciences, and math.
SOURCE: U S. Department of Health. Education. and Welrare, National Center for Education Statistics, Sponsored Report Series, National Longitudinal Study, Women Who Enler Male Dominated Fields of Sludy in Higher EducaEnler Male
tion, 1978.
}

Chart 6.14
High School Science and Math Courses Taken by College Students by Sex and Type of College Field

Female college students in -male-dominated fields took more bigh school science and math courses than females in other fields but less than their male counterparts.


Table 6.15
Estimated participation in selected traditionally single-sex high school courses, by sex: 1976


Chart 6.15
High School Enrollment in Traditionally Single-Sex Courses

Female high school students comprise about three-fourths of the enrollment in home economics and about onefourth of the enrollment in industrial arts. Female students represent just under half of the enroliments in math and science at the highest levels offered in high school.


Table 6.16
Estimated percent of institutions \({ }^{1}\) with special programs for female or minority graduate students, by type and control: 1978


Chart 6.16
Institutions of Higher Education With Special Programs for Female or Minority Graduate Studenth

An estimated 43 percent of all graduate institutions offer special programs for minorities and about 23 percent offer special programs for women.


\(\wedge\) Programs for Minorities

Any special program


Special recruitment or admissions program

\(\therefore\)

Special financial aid program


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\section*{The Condition of Education}

\section*{III Appendix}
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\section*{Data Sources}

The information presented in this report derives from several sources including Federal and State agencies, private resear-h organizations, and professional associations. The data are obtained using several research methods iricluding universe and sample surveys, administrative records, and statistical projections.

Particular care should be taken in comparing data from different sources because of differences in reference periods, operational definitions, and collection techniqués. Additionally, ail tata entrics are susceptible to érrors such as faulty survey design, incomplete response, incorrect processing, or biased interpretations.

The accompanying guide is designed to acquaint the reader with the sources consulted in the preparation of this report. Government contributions are described first, followed by private rescarch and professional associations. Additional information can be obtained by contacting directly the contributing organization.

\section*{National Center for Education Statistics}

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) is the primary Federal agency for coilecting; analyzing, and reporting of education statistics. It further coordinates data acquisition for the Office of Education and the Office for Civil Rights. In addition, NCES assists State data collection activitics in an effort to promote efficiency and comparability. The National Center for Education Statistics collects data primarily through census or sample surveys of educational institutions. NCES also conducts some sample surveys of individuals designed to chart the educational experiences and performance levels of young Americans.

Surveys of Educational Institutions
Institutional characteristics obtained through several surveys provide important insights into how schools are organized, supported, and maintained. Data on public elementary and secondary schools are colIceted annually from State departments of cducation. Statistics on privately controiled elementary and secondary cducation are gathered periodically from the universe of non-public schools. Annual surveys are also taken of institutions of higher education. These surveys cover a variety of subject areas includirg students, faculty, lipraries, and finance. Data on roncollegiate and vocational postsecondary cducation are collected pe-iodically on a sample basis. Morc dctailed information on survey instruments, sampling frames, and methodology can be obtained through the individual reports.

Surveys of Students

\section*{National Assessment of Ėducational Progress ( \(N A E P\) )}

The National Asscssment of Educational Progrcss (NAEP) collects data on achievement of young Aricricans in several subject areas. The excreises are adnuinistered to carcfully selected representative groups of 9 -ycar-olds, 13 -year-olds, 17-year-olds. and young adults aged 26 to 35 . The assessment group of 17 -year-olds includes a sample of those not currently enrolled in school. Results are reported for cach age level and by region, sex, racial group, parcntal education, and size and type of community. NAEP uses weighted percentages of correct responses to describe the performance of a gioup on an exercisc. Each reported percentage is an estimate of the perentage of persons in a given group who could have given a certain acceptable response to a specific exercise. For more information on the NAEP design and methodology. sec National Assessment of Educational Progress, report 03/04-GY. General Information Ycarbook (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office. 1974).

\section*{National Longitudinal Study (NLS)}

The National I.ongitudinal Study (NLS) periodically queries a national sample of the high school class of 1972 to chart the educational, vocational, and personal development of these young Americans. The population consists of all 12 th graders enrolled during 1972 in all public and private schools in the 50 States and the District of Columbia.

The original sample design was a deeply stratified two-stage probability sample with schools as firststage sampling units and students as second-stage units. The first-stage sampling frame was constructed from computerized school files maintained by the Office of Education and by the National Catholic Education Association. The schools were then stratified according to various criteria and randonly selected within strata. Except for schools in low income areas or with high black enrollments and schools with small enrollments, the schools were sampled with equal probability and without replacement. From each selected school, is students were randomly chosen to participate.

The base-line survey of the class of 1972 was conducted in the spring of 1972. Three follow-up surveys were conducted in fall 1973, fall 197\%, and fall 1976. For additional information concerning the NLS, contact the National Longitudinal Studies Branch, National, Center for Education Statistics. 400 Maryland Avenuc, S.W., W/ashington. D.C. 20202.

\section*{National Institute of Education}

Survey of Public Secondary School Principals
In cooperation with ine National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Institute of Education conducted a nationwide survey of public secondary school principals in 1977. The survey was designed to provide current information on school programs, organizations, and management from the perspective of the administrators directly in charge.

Two thousand schools were randomly selected from all regions of the country and from all metropolitan status arcas (urban. suburban, and rural). Schools were selected with probabilities proportional to their 12 th grade enrollments. This procedure slightly overrepiesented urban schools in number, but not in terms of their share of total enrollment.

The questionnaire was sent to principals during the summer and fall of 1977. Seventy-two percent of the principals responded. The results are presented in High Schiool 77, available from the National Institute of Education, Washington, D.C. 20208.

\section*{Bureau of the Census}

\section*{Current Population Survey (CPS)}

The Bureau of the Census provides data throughi a regular program of data collection and through supplements conducted for other organizations. The Census mechanism for data collection cited most frequently in this report is the Current Population Survey (CPS). The data on preprimary education and on educational attainment and labor foree participation of the population were collected from the CPS or supplements to it.

The primary purpose of the CPS is to obtain a monthiy measure of labor force participation for the Bureath of Lalur Statistics. It gathers data on the employment status of the civilian resident noninstitutionalized population 16 years old and over. In addition, it provides monthly population estimates as well as annual data on sudh characteristics of the population as income, school ng, age, racial/cthnic origin, sex, marital status. add living arrangements. Various governnental agencies utilize CPS to obtain specific information.

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The current CPS sample is spread over 461 areas comprising 923 countics and independent cities, with coverage in each of the 50 States and the District of Columbia: Approximately 47,000 occupied housing units comprise the sampling frame sites for interviews cach month. Of this number, 2,000 occupied units, on the average, are visited without oblaining interviews because the occupants are not found at home after repeated calls or are unavailable for some other reason. In addition to the 2,000, about 8,000 sample units are visited in an average month but are found to be vacant or the occupants are not available to be interviewed.

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\section*{National Academy of Sciences}

The survey of the characteristics of the nation's doctorate recipients is conducted biennially by the
\(\checkmark\) National Academy of Sciences-National Research Council under the sponsorship of the National Science Foundation, the National Endowment for the Humanities, and the National Institutes of Health.

The analysis pertains to 361,300 doctoral degree holders in science, enginesring, and the humanities who earned doctorates within the 4: year period 1934 to 1976 and who were residing in the United States in February 1977. Estimates are based on the weighted responses of 50.648 doctoral degree recipients.

\section*{Columbia Broadcasting Systen (CBS) News}

The CBS News organization conducted a poll on education in Junc of 1978. The nationwide rancom survey of 1,622 adults dealt with a range of topics and was the basis of the CBS special broadcast "Is Anyone Out There Learning?" Additional information is available from CBS News, 524 West 57 th St., New York, New York 10019.

\section*{Gallup Poll}

Public Attitudes Toward the Public Schools Survey Through funding provided by the Institute for Development of Educational Activitics, Inc. (I/D/E/A), the Gallup Poll conducts amual surveys of the public's attitudes toward education. Each year the Poll interviews approximately 1,600 adults, representative of the civilian noninstitutional population 18 years old and over. A full description of the sampling rnethodology appears in "The Tenth Annual Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools,", Phi Delta Kappen, September 1978.

\section*{Attitudes of America's Youth Toward the Public} Schools Survey
Conducted jointly by the Gallup Poll and Charles F. Kettering Foundation/I/D/E/A, the survey polled a nationally representative sample of American teenagers about their attitudes toward education. A total of 1,115 13- to 18 -year-olds, excluding those living in institutions or in the armed forces, were interviewed by telephone in November of 1978. Further information is available in the advance report "The Attitudes of Americas Youth Toward the Public Schools".

\section*{National Opinion Research Center}

The National Opinion Research Center biennially collects information on the characteristics and opinions of the adult noninstitutional population. Through its General Social Survey, it interviews approximately 1,500 English-speaking persons 18 years old and over, on their attitudes toward a variety of concerns. The survey instrument, a description of the methodology, and the data marginals appear in Cieneral Social Survey, i972-78, Cumulative Codebook, July, 1978, published by the National Opinion Research Center/University of C'hieago.

\section*{National Education Association}

Every 5 years since 1956, the National Education Association has conducted a nationwide survey of public school teachers. From questionnaires e mpleted by a probability sample of classroom trachers, the survey reports on the composition of the teaching profession and on conditions in the teaching field. The sampling procedures, survey instrument, and tindinge are presented in the report, Status of the American Pubtic. School Teacher 1975-76, available from the National Education Associatio:

\section*{The Roper Organization}

The Roper Organization surveyed the responses of 2,007 men and women over 18 years of age for its poll, "The American Public and the Income Tax System". The sample was stratified by county population and individuals were chosen at random from geographic subunits.

\section*{American College Testing Program}

The ACT Assessment is a comprehensive evaluative. guidance, and placement service for students and educators involved in the transition from high school to coliege. The ACT Assessment measures abilities in the four subject areas traditionaliy identified with college and high school programs: English, wathematics, social stadies, and matural sciences. ACT test scores are reported on a standard scale that ranges from 1 to 36 . On this saale, a student's true score is usually within two score points on either side of the score reported for each of the four tests. Additional information is available from American College Testing Program, P.O. Box 16s. Iowa Cify, Iowa 52240.

\section*{General Mills, Inc.}

American Family Report
The Consumer Center of General Mills. Inc. sponsored a nationwide stady of the American family conducted by Yankelovich. Stelly and White, lnc. The study was designed to provide information on many aspects of parent child relationships including discipline, health, money. nutrition. the roles of television and advertising. schools and education. the impact of workiang mothers, and the transmission of values from parent to child.

The results were based on a national probability sample of 1.230 families and a total of 2.102 interviews including 403 interviews with the other parent in the same household and 469 interviews with children between the ages of 6 and 12 in the households surveyed. Further information about the sudy is available from (isacral Mills. Inc. 92()0 Wivaata Boulevard, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55440.

\section*{College Entrance Examinatien Board (CEEB)}

Scholastic Aptitude Test Program (SAT)
The Scholastic Aptitucis Test has been used since the 1920's to help determine high school students' apparent preparedness for college. Given in different editions several times a year at locations all over the country, the SAT is taken primarily by seniors but also by a large number of juniors and by a few others. ithe roughly one million young people in each high school senior class who take the SAT represent approximately a quarter of their age group as a whole and about half of the number going on to college. Further information is available in College-Bound Seniors. 1978 from the College Entrance Examination Boaird.

\section*{Advanced Pla:cment Prouram (AP)}

The Advance Placemem Program, which the College Board has sponsored since 1955 , offers secondary school students an opportunlty to study one or more college-level courses and then. depending on examination results, to receive advanced placement, eredit, or both when they enter college. The program provides AP course descriptions and examinations in 11 disciplines: American history, biology, chemistry, English. Furopean history, French, German, Latin, mathematics, physics, and Spanish. The Educational Testing Service administers the three hour examinations to AP candidates each May. Readers from schools and colleges then grade the exar..anations on a five-point scale: 5 , extremely well qualified: 4 , well; qualified: 3. qualified: 2. possibly gualified: or 1, no recommendation. It is then up to the college to de-1 cide whether and how it will recognize the cari-. didate's qualitications. Additional information can be obtained from the College Entrance Examination Board, 6.5 East Elizabeth Ave.. Bethlehem. PA 18018.
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\section*{College Placement Council (CPC) Salary Sarvey}

The CPC Salary Survey reports beginning salary data based on offers (not acceptances) made to both male \({ }^{4}\) and female graduating studenes at all degree levels in: selected curricula and graduate progranis during the normal recruiting period, September to June, as submitted by a representative group of 158 colleges throughout the United States. The survey covers job openings in a broad range of functional areas, except teaching, within employing organizations in business, industry, government, and non-profit and educational organizations, and maintains confidentiality for the individual, the college, and the employer.

The survey reports, issued three times a year, are provided as nember and subscriter services of the College Placement Council. I: ther information about the service is available from the College Placement Council, P.O. Box 2263, Bethkent, PA 18001.

\section*{American Council on Education}

American Freshman Survey
Sponsored by the American Council on Education (ACE), the annual survey of college freshmen is administered through the Cooperative Institutional Research Program at UCLA. Since 1966 the survey has collected biographic and demographic data on career plans, educational aspirations, financial arrangements, and current attitudes. The 1978 survey obtained usable information from 187,603 freshmen in 383 institusion; of higher education listed with the Oflice of Education. Only data from institutions whose coverage of eritering students was judged representative were used. The wionited data 'reflect the responses of first-time, full-time frestamen obtained during the initial weeks of the fall term. A full discussion of the design and sampling proeedures is provided in The American Freshmam: National Norms For Fall 1978, available from the Cooperative Institutional Research Program. UCLA.

\section*{Higher E:ducation Pancl Survey of Special Prograns} for Females and Minority Graduate Students
The Higher Education Panel Survey of the American Council on Education is a continuing survey rescarch program that was initiated in 1971 . Its purpose is to conduct small-scale surveys on topics of current policy irterest to the higher education commutity and government agencies.

For this particular survey, the population was limited to colleges and universities that award a professional degree, a doctorate degree, or some other degree beyond the master's. Further restrictions were that the institutions be coeducational and predominantly white to assure that responses about programs for women and minorities would have a single, uniform meaning. The survey instrument was mailed to the 343 Panel members meeting these requirements and usable data were received from 311 institutions, for a response rate of 91 percent. National estimates were obtained by weighting each response within each stratification cell, by the ratio of the number of institutions in the population to the number that responded. Additional information about the survey results and methodology is contained in the publication Special Programs For Female and Minurity Graducate Students available from the Higher Educational Panel, ACE.

\section*{Definitions of Selected Terms}

Adult education: Orgatiized instruction including correspondence courses and private tutoring, ordinarily under the auspices of a school, eenter, or community organization, and gererally with a predetermined end result which may be a certificate, diploma, or degree. Participants in adult education are persons beyond compulsory school age ( 17 and over) who are not enrollea full-time in a regular school or college program but who are engaged in activities of organized instruction.

Aggregate United States: The 50 States, District of Columbia, and outlying areas-American Samoa, Canal Zone, Guam, Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands. Several NCES surveys report data for the aggregate United States. Unless otherwise noted. data pertain to the 50 States and the District of Columbia.

Auxiliam. enterprises (higher education): Services to students, faculty, or other staff for which a fee is charged that is directly related to, but not necessarily equal to, the cost of service (e.g., dormitories, food service, and student stores).

Average daily attendance: Aggregate days attendance during a regular school term divided by the number of days school was in sessioit.

Bachelor's degrec: I owest degree conferred by college. university, or profescional school. requiring 4 or more years of academic work.

College enrollment: Enrollment in a course which ieads to a bathelors, masters, professional. or doctorate degree, exeluding vocational ..ertification used in the Current Population Survey.
'Constart dollars: Financial data which have been adjusted by means of price and cost indexes 10 climinate inflationary factors and allow direct comparison across years.

Current dollars: Financial data which have not been adjusted to compensate for inflation.

Direct expenditures: Payment to employees. suppliers, contractors, beneficiaries, and other final recipients of governmental payments, i.e.. all expenditures other than intergovermmental expenditures.

Doctor's degree: Highest academic degree conferred by a university, including Ph.D. in any field, doctor of education. doctor of juridical science. and doctor of public health (preceded by professional degree in medicine or sanitary engineering).

Dropomas: F arsons not enrolled in school and not high school graduates.
Elementary educatom: Formal education organized by grade, composed of a span of grades not above grade cight.

Expenditures: For elementary and secondary schools, all charges for current outays for education, plus capital outlays and interest on school debt. For institutions of higher education, current outlays plus capital outays. For government, net of recoveries and other correcting transactions-other than for retirement of debt, investment in securities, extension of credit, or as agency transactions. Goveanment expenditures include only external transactions such as the provision of perquisites or other payments in kind. Aggregates for groups of governments exclude intergovernmental transactions among the goveramentor.
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Family: A unit consisting of a houschold head and one or more other persons living in the same household who are related to the head by blood, marriage, or adoption; all persons in a houschold who are related to the head are regarded as memhers of his (her) family.

First-professional degree: An academic degree which requires at least 2 academic years of provious college work for entrance and at least 6 acad nic years oi college work for completion. Zeginning in 1965-66, NCES classification includes the following degrees: !aw (LL.B. or J.D.) ; dentistry (D.D.S. or D.M.D.) ; medicine (M.D.) ; veterinary medicine (D.V.M.); chiropody or podiatry (D.S.C. or D.P.) ; optoretry (O.D.); osteopathy (D.O.) ; pharmacy (D. Pharm.) ; and theology (B.D.).
First-time students: Students not previously enrolled in any institution of higher education.

Full-time instructional faculty: Those members of the staff who are employed on a full-time basis and whose major regular assignment is instruction.

Full-time students: Students enrolled in courses with credits equal to at least 75 percent of the normal full-time course load.

Geogratphic region: Regions used by the Bureau of Economic Aralysis, U.S. Department of Commerce:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Northeast & Southeast \\
Connecticut & Alabama \\
Delaware & Arkansas \\
Pistrict of Columbia & Florida \\
Maine & Georgia \\
Maryland & Kentucky \\
Massachusets & Louisiana \\
New Hanpshiire : & Mississippi \\
New Jerscy & North Carolina \\
New York & South Carolina \\
Pennsylvania & Tennessee \\
Rhode Island & Virginia \\
Vermont & West Virginia \\
Central & West \\
Illinois & Alaska \\
Indiana & Arizona \\
Iowa & California \\
Kansas & Colorado \\
Michigan & Hawaii \\
Minnesota & Idaho \\
Missouri & Montana \\
Nebraska & Nevada \\
Norih Dakota & Ncw Mexico \\
Otio & Oklahonaa \\
South Dakota & Oregon \\
Wisconsin & Texas \\
& Utah \\
& Washington \\
& Wyoming
\end{tabular}

The same regional scheme is used by the iNational Assessment of Educational Progress and the Bureau of the Census (for data on education participation).

The elementary and secondary school data from the Office for Civii Rights pertain to the contiguous United States and follow the regional classification scheme below:
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
Northeast & Border \\
Connecticut & Delaware \\
Maine & District of Columbia \\
Massachusetts & Kentucky \\
New Hampshire & Maryland \\
New Jerscy & Missouri \\
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Virginia & Suth Dakota \\
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Northeast Connecticut Massachusetts New Hampshire
New Jerscy Nu.w York Pennsylvana Rhode Island Vermont



Head of faimily: The husband is designated as the head of two-parent families whether or not he is the chicf wage eamer in Bureau of the Census enumerations.

Higher education: Study beyond the secondary school level at an institution that offers programs terminating in an associate, baccalaureate, or higher degrec.

Master's degree: An academic degree higher than a bachelor's but lower than a doctor's. All degrees classified as first-professional are excluded.

Minimum compctency testing: Measuring the acquisition of competence or skills to or beyond a certain defined standard.

Modal grade: The grade in which most children of a given age are enrolled.
Noncollesiate postsecondary school: An institution beyond the high sehool level which does not offer programs terminating in an associate, baccataureate, or higher degree.

Occupation:al education: A non-acadernic program generally directed toward training of a specific iob skill.

Preprimary program: A set of organized educational experiences intended for children attending prekindergarten and kindergarten classes. Such programs may be offered by a public or nonpublic school or by some other agency. Children enrolled a Head Start progranis are counted under prekindergarten or kindergarten. as appropriate. Institutions which offer essentially custodia! care, such as day care centers, are not included.

Proprietary scheol: An cducationa! institution operated for profit.

Racial/ethnic group: Classification based upon selfidentification of the individual.

Regular day schools: Schools that sitisfy the requirements of State cducation laws and oifer at least one grade beyond kinderga: en. Not included in this category are residential schuols for exceptional children. Federalschools or Incians, fedcrally operated sehools on Federal, instellations: and subcollegiate departments of institutions of higher education.

Reveriues: All anoynts of moncy received by an institution from external sourecs, net of refunds, and correcting transactions. Nuncash transactions such as reccipt of services, commodities, or other receipts "in kind" are excluded, as are funds received from the issuance of debt. liquidation of investments, and nonroutine sale of property.
School disisyct: An educational agency at the local level which exists primarily to operate public schools or to contract for public school services. This term is used synonymously with the terms "local basic administrative unit" and "local education agency."
Secomedary educution: Formáal education organized by subject nlatter taught, composed of junior high and/ or high schools. "

Student charges: Charges for tuition, required fees (matriculation, laboratory, library; health, ctc.), room, and board. Charges for books are excluded.

Student" education (higher education): Activities which are most closely related to instruction. Includes instruction and research which are part of regular instructional services (departmental rescarch).extension and public service, libraries. physical plant operation and maintenance, gencral administration, and other sponsored activities.

Traditional black institution: One of 106 institutions of higher education established specifically for the education of blacks.

Underemployment: Full-time employment of a college graduate in a job that is not professional, teehnical, managerial, or administrative, and does not require a college degree according to the graduate.

U'ndergraduate stadents: Degree eredit or non-degree credit students who have not received formal recognition as having completed the prescribed degree eredit or non-degree credit requirements of an accredited institution of higher education.

Unemployment rate: The number of unemployed persons as a percent of the civiiian labor force.
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\section*{The Condition of Education}

\author{
IV Cumulative Index
}

\section*{Cumulative Index}








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\hline by race .............................................................. & & \[
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INSTRUYENT MATRIX



INSTRUKENT MATRIX



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APPENDIX B
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\section*{SEARCH LITERATURE FILE ON SCREENING}

One of the primary goals of Project SEARCH has been the development an implementation of the SEARCH Literature File on Screening. SEARCH staff membêrs have. "s?ant-several months collecting, sorting and: evaluating the latest literature in the areas. of Child Find. Utilizing computer technology, SEARCH has entered into a dissemination system that can span the entire country with the use of a simple teriminal and phone line. Using a thesaurus of terms compiled by SEARCH stiff, individuals can obtain a príntout of abstracted articles on a variety of screening programs, health and developmental. screening tests, and research findings regarding the effectiveness of various identification methods and proc'edures. Anyone interested in using the SEARCH Literature File on Screening may obtain a copy of the Thesaurus and Directions for Computer use by contacting Patrick Cronin; Director of Project SEARCH, 254 Upton Avenue South, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55405 .
\(3<6\)

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