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ABSTRACT

This is the first edition of what is intended to be an annual, comprehensive report on trends in the well-being of America's children and youth. It contains two sections: the first is a quick-reference guide describing national trends for 74 indicators of child and youth well-being based on data collected by the federal government. The information provided for each indicator includes one or more tables documenting recent historical trends and important population sub-group differences, graphics to highlight key trends and group contrasts, and accompanying text that briefly describes the importance of each indicator and highlights the most salient features of the data. The indicators are organized into five substantive areas: (1) population, family, and neighborhood; (2) economic security; (3) health conditions and health care; (4) social development, behavioral health, and teen fertility; and (5) education and achievement. The second section of the report offers a narrative treatment of a particular topic affecting the well-being of children and youth. This edition's article, by Donald J. Hernandez, offers a review of trends in, and detailed historical tables on, the socio-demographic characteristics of children, youth, and their families. Contains 28 references. (EV)

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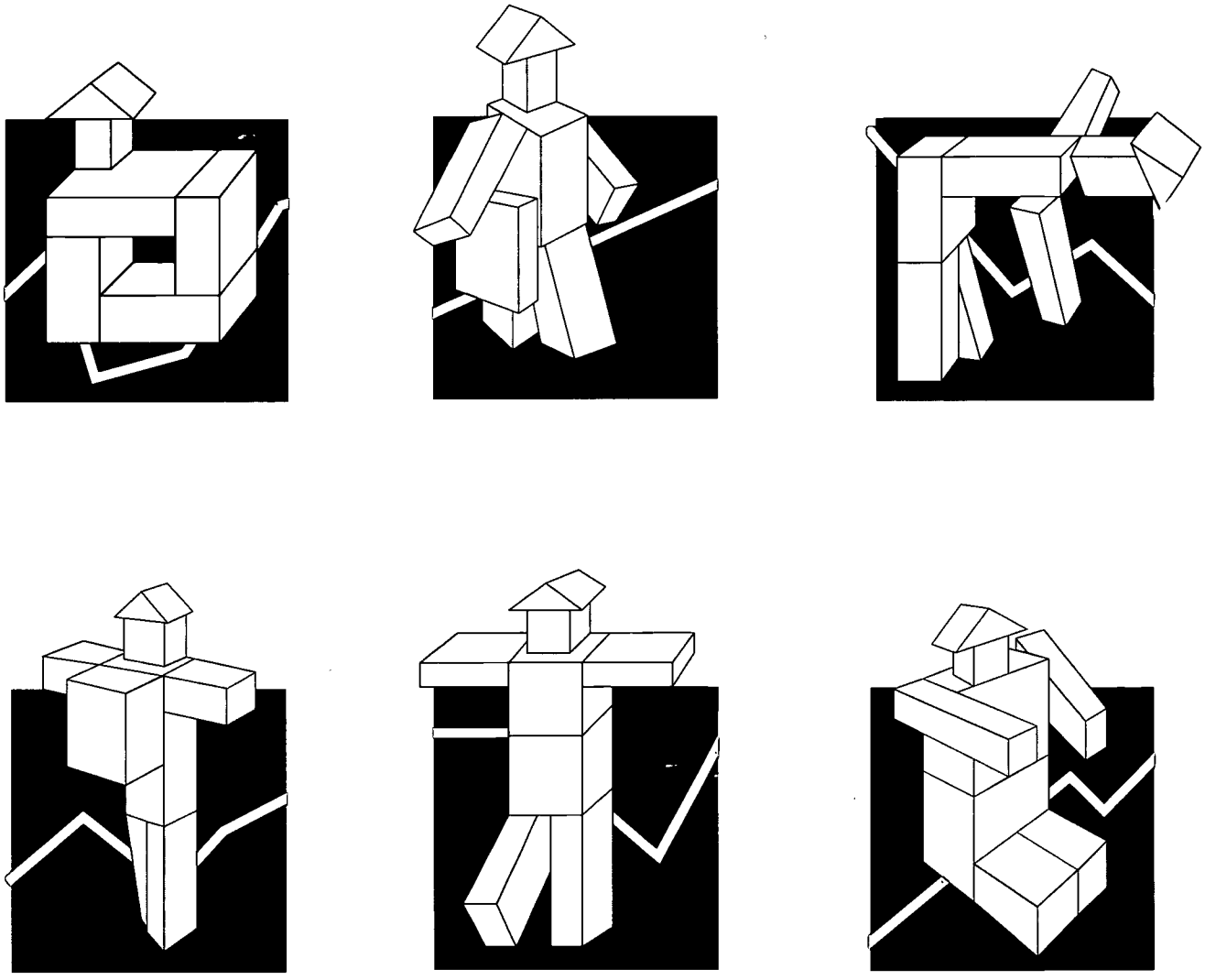
# TRENDS IN THE WELL-BEING OF AMERICA'S CHILDREN AND YOUTH: 1996





U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation

# ERRATA: TABLE ES 1.3.A ON PAGE 39 SHOULD READ AS FOLLOWS:

Table ES 1.3.a
Proportion of Children Under Age 18 Living Below Selected Poverty Thresholds by Age and Race/Hispanic Origin, 1975 to 1994

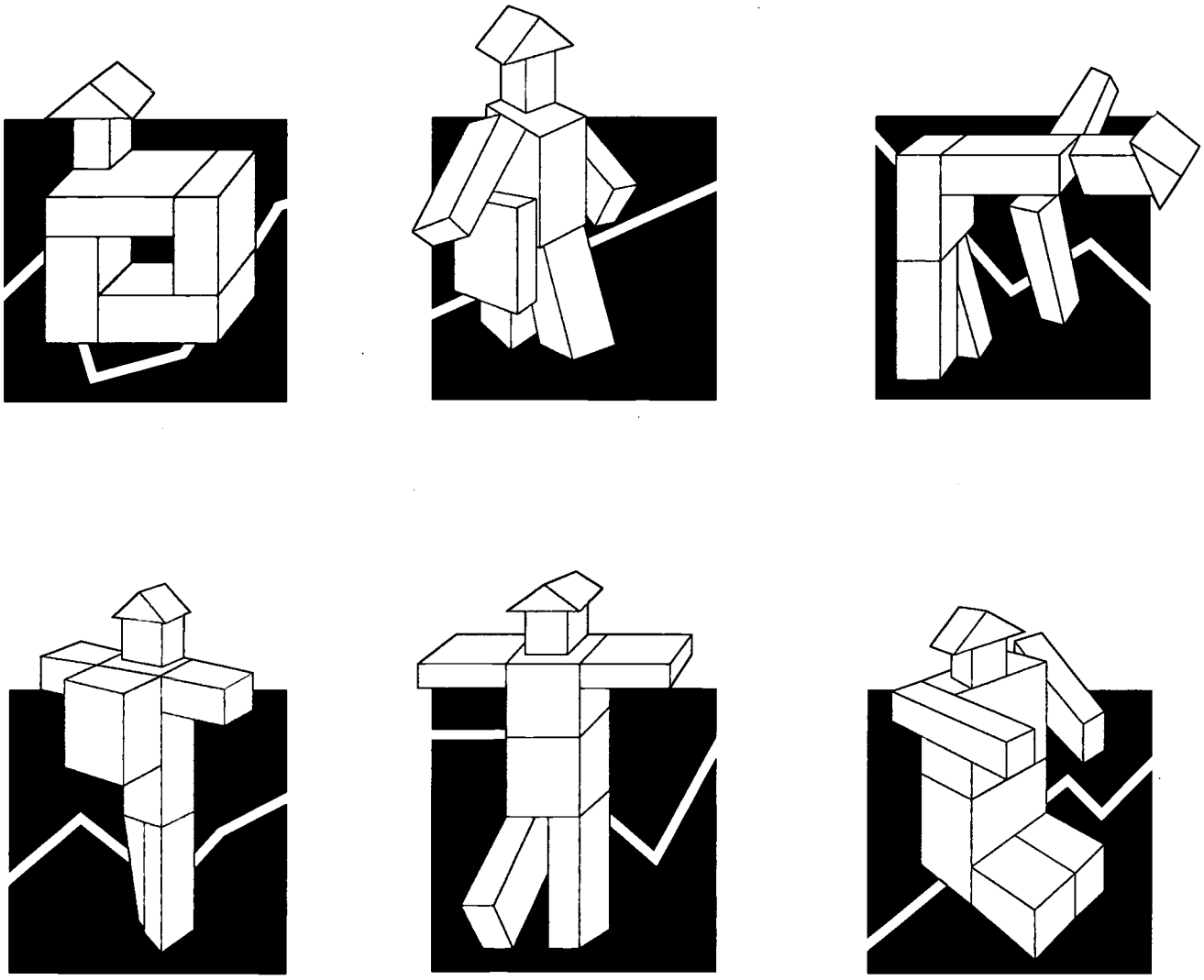
| | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Under 50% of Poverty | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children Under 18 | 5 | 7 | 8 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 10 | -- |
| White | 4 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | -- |
| Black | 14 | 17 | 22 | 22 | 25 | 27 | 26 | -- |
| Hispanic | -- | -- | -- | 14 | 14 | 15 | 14 | -- |
| Under 100% of Poverty | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children Under 18 | 17 | 18 | 20 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 22 | 21 |
| White | 13 | 13 | 16 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 17 | -- |
| Black | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 46 | 46 | 46 | -- |
| Hispanic | 33 | 33 | 40 | 38 | 40 | 39 | 40 | -- |
| Under 150% of Poverty | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children Under 18 | 30 | 29 | 32 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 33 | -- |
| White | 24 | 24 | 26 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 27 | -- |
| Black | 60 | 57 | 59 | 57 | 60 | 60 | 61 | -- |
| Hispanic | -- | -- | -- | 55 | 58 | 58 | 60 | -- |
| Under 200% of Poverty | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children Under 18 | 43 | 42 | 43 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 44 | -- |
| White | 38 | 37 | 38 | 37 | 38 | 38 | 38 | -- |
| Black | 73 | 70 | 71 | 68 | 70 | 71 | 72 | -- |
| Hispanic | -- | -- | -- | 69 | 72 | 70 | 72 | -- |

Note: The poverty level is based on money income and does not include noncash benefits, such as foods stamps. Poverty thresholds reflect family size and composition and are adjusted each year using the annual average Consumer Price Index (CPI) level. The average poverty threshold for a family of four was $13,924 in 1991 and $10,989 in 1985. The levels shown here are derived from the ratio of the family's income to the family's poverty threshold. For example, a child living under 125 percent of poverty is from a family with income above their poverty threshold but below 125 percent of their poverty threshold. If the family's poverty threshold was $10,000, under 125 percent of poverty would mean their income was between $10,000 and $12,500. Related children include biological children, stepchildren, and adopted children of the householder and all other children in the household related to the householder (or reference person) by blood, marriage, or adoption.

Source: Rates for 1975 , 1980, and 1985 were calculated by Child Trends, Inc. based on data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 106, Table 7; No. 133, Table 7; No. 158, Table 4. Rates for 1990 through 1993 are from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 175, No. 185, No. 188, and revised data for 1992 provided by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Poverty Branch. Data for 1994 from unpublished tables supplied by the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

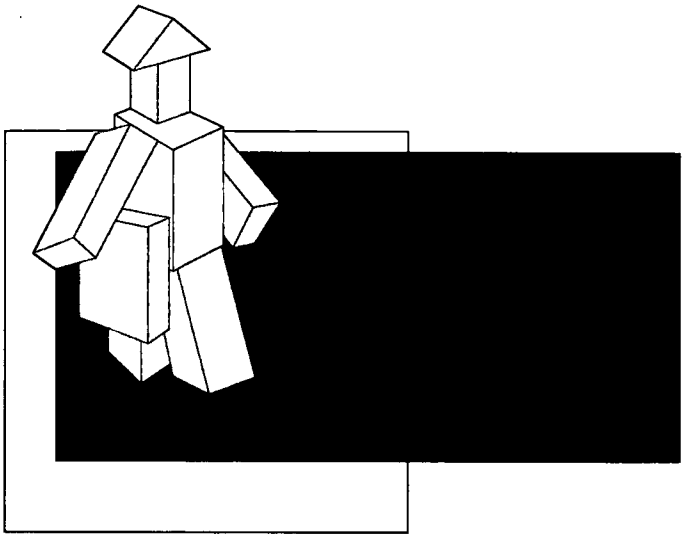
# TRENDS
## IN THE WELL-BEING OF AMERICA'S CHILDREN AND YOUTH: 1996

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation
Washington, DC



Part 1 of this document was produced by Child Trends, Inc. (Brett Brown, Ph.D., project director), for the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, under contract HHS-100-92-0015.

Part 2 of this document was produced by Donald J. Hernandez, Ph.D., of the U.S. Bureau of the Census.



# TRENDS IN THE WELL-BEING OF AMERICA'S CHILDREN AND YOUTH: 1996

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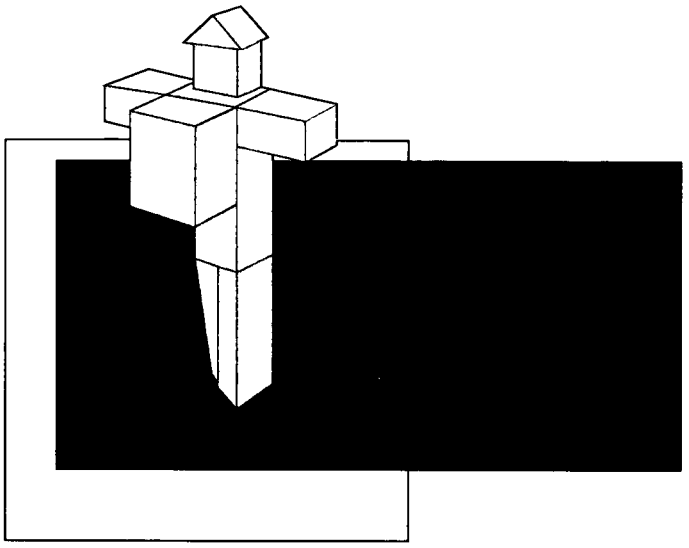


# TRENDS IN THE WELL-BEING OF AMERICA'S CHILDREN AND YOUTH: 1996

## FOREWORD

This is the first annual report from HHS on trends in the well-being of our nation's children and youth. It presents the most recent, most reliable national trends in five key domains of the lives of children and youth: Population, Family and Neighborhood; Economic Security; Health Conditions and Health Care; Social Development, Behavioral Health, and Teen Fertility; and Education and Achievement. This year we have highlighted population and family issues, including an essay by Donald J. Hernandez of the Census Bureau on population trends related to children and youth.

This report shows that the well-being of our nation's children and youth has improved in some ways over the past few decades. But it has deteriorated in many other ways. To take stock of our gains, to understand where we can improve, and to prepare our response, it is crucial that we have accurate and comprehensive trend information. We hope you will find this volume a ready guide to the changing condition of our nation's children and youth.

I would like to highlight a few of the trends outlined in this report. First, there is some good news:

- ☐ The rate of full immunization for two year olds has increased.
- ☐ The infant mortality rate continues to decline.
- ☐ Teen birth rates for those aged fifteen through nineteen declined from 1991 to 1993, although the teen birth rate is still higher than twenty years ago.
- ☐ Mathematics and science proficiency has increased.
- ☐ The proportion of children who watch six or more hours of television per day has decreased.
- ☐ Regular seat belt use among children over the age of four has improved.

But there are also many less positive trends:

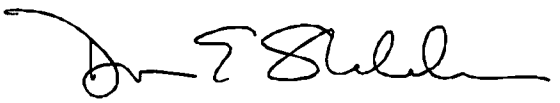
- ☐ The mortality rate for minority youth has increased.

- ☐ The proportion of children living in single-parent households has increased.
- ☐ The poverty rate for children and youth has increased, and the rate of children living in extreme poverty has increased more dramatically.
- ☐ The percentage of high school seniors who report smoking cigarettes every day has recently increased after a steady decline.
- ☐ For many indicators of well-being, minority children and youth fare much worse than white children and youth.

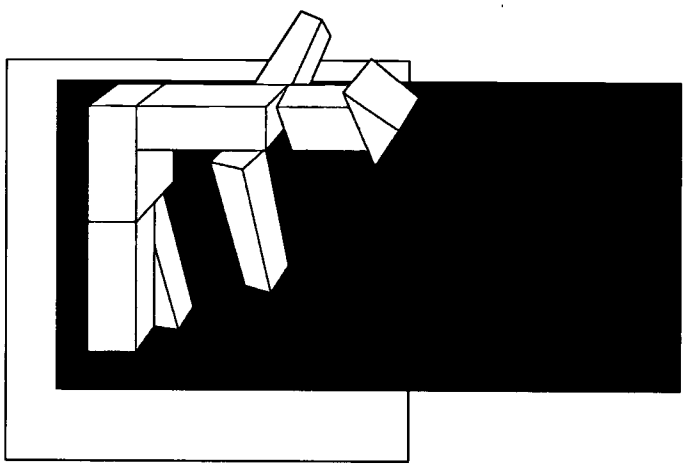
This report displays a substantial body of information about the condition of our children and youth. In working with Child Trends, Inc. to assemble this information, HHS staff collaborated closely with other Federal departments: the Department of Education, the Department of Labor, the Department of Commerce, and other government agencies.

However, this report also shows how little we know about many important issues in the lives of children and youth. We must continue to expand and improve our measures of key factors in children's lives.

Our children and youth are truly the nation's most valuable resource. I hope that this report and its successors can help the nation establish its priorities for the protection and nurturing of that resource.



Donna E. Shalala
Secretary
U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
April 1996



# TRENDS IN THE WELL-BEING OF AMERICA'S CHILDREN AND YOUTH: 1995

## INTRODUCTION

### CONTENT AND STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

This is the first edition of what is intended to be an annual, comprehensive report on trends in the well-being of America's children and youth. It is intended to provide the policy community with a comprehensive guide to data on the well-being of children and youth. We plan to update the report annually, updating existing measures, adding new measures as new data sources become available, and providing new narratives on key issues affecting children.

The report has two sections. Section one is a quick-reference guide describing national trends for seventy-four indicators of child and youth well-being based on data collected by the Federal government. The information provided for each indicator includes one or more tables documenting recent historical trends and important population sub-group differences, graphics to highlight key trends and group contrasts, and accompanying text that briefly describes the importance of each indicator and highlights the most salient features of the data. The tables often contain substantially more information than is reflected in the accompanying graphs and textual descriptions. Interested users are encouraged to use the text and graphics as a starting point for a self-guided exploration of the more detailed data contained in the tables. The indicators have been organized into five substantive areas:

- ☐ population, family, and neighborhood;
- ☐ economic security;
- ☐ health conditions and health care;
- ☐ social development, behavioral health, and teen fertility; and
- ☐ education and achievement.

The second section of the report offers a narrative treatment of a particular topic affecting the well-being of children and youth. In this first edition we offer a review of trends in—and detailed historical tables on—the socio-demographic characteristics of children, youth and their families titled "Population Change and the Family Environment of Children," by Donald J. Hernandez, Ph.D., of the United States Bureau of the Census. This section draws heavily on data from the Decennial Censuses and the Current Population Surveys. It emphasizes long historical trends, in some cases reaching as far back as 1790, the time of the first U.S. Census.

## INDICATORS INCLUDED IN THE REPORT

This report presents indicators of child and youth well-being that are reliably and regularly collected at the national level. The report does not present data at the state or local level. It presents only indicators that have been collected more than once over the past few years. Where possible, we present data from the 1970s to the 1990s. The lives of children and youth have changed dramatically over this period. In some cases, data are presented for periods before the 1970s or projections into the 21st century.

In deciding which indicators to include in part one of this report, we were guided by a combination of scientific and practical considerations. In November of 1994, a major national conference was held on indicators of child well-being. Nationally recognized experts representing a broad spectrum of disciplines and research interests related to child well-being presented over 20 papers recommending key indicators that should be tracked on a regular basis by the federal statistical system. Recommendations were gleaned from the papers and from conference discussions into a single list and used as the starting point for choosing a final set of indicators to be included in the report.

The final list of indicators was modified based on a number of practical considerations including data availability (the data needed to be available for a nationally representative sample and collected on a regular basis), timeliness (the most recent estimates had to be available for 1990 or later), and quality and consistency (the data had to be both reliable and consistently measured over time). In addition, it was decided that indicators related to federal program participation would be held to a very few direct measures of participation in key programs like AFDC and Food Stamps. Indicators that did not meet these practical criteria were removed from the list, and other important measures which were not on the original list, but met the remaining criteria, were added. It is anticipated that additional measures will be added to new editions of the report over time as new data become available, and in response to feedback from users.

## THE NEED FOR BETTER DATA ON CHILDREN

There are some major gaps in the federal statistical system that limit our capacity to monitor the well-being of our nation's children and youth. The largest gaps exist in the areas of social development and behavioral health. Very little data of this sort are collected on a regular basis for children prior to the teenage years. Data describing social development and behavioral health—broken down by age group—would be particularly informative. Data on the co-occurrence of difficulties and

deficiencies, or positive indicators, would be particularly useful. Promising efforts are being made to incorporate some such measures into regularly fielded national surveys such as the National Household Education Survey, the National Health Interview Survey, the National Household Survey of Drug Abuse, and reports such as *Mental Health, United States*, but such efforts only begin to fill this substantial data gap. At least 1 in 20—or as many as 3 million young people—may have a "serious emotional disturbance."

In addition, most of the federal data collected on teens in this area are limited to student surveys. This leaves us with limited information concerning the social development, risk- and health-related behaviors of teens who have dropped out of school, a group which is particularly likely to be experiencing difficulties.

There are relatively few positive measures of social development and behaviors for any age group. Most emphasize difficulties and deficiencies rather than positive outcomes. As a result, the collection of indicators presented in this volume may paint a somewhat gloomier picture of our children's overall well-being than is in fact the case. New, positive indicators need to be developed and incorporated into the federal statistical system.

Other important areas where data are lacking include child abuse and neglect, child mental health and substance abuse, learning disabilities, institutionalized children, and those in alternative living arrangements. Also lacking are data on the types of interventions used for children with these problems or other health and behavior problems.

## FEDERAL INTERAGENCY FORUM ON CHILD AND FAMILY STATISTICS

The Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics, a recently-formed group of leaders of Federal agencies and departments responsible for collecting data on children and youth, has adopted a mandate to improve the Federal statistical system regarding data on children, youth, and their families. This forum, which assisted in the production of this report, will continue to develop strategies for improving the Federal statistical system in ways that preserve the data that support key indicators and develop new measures that begin to fill the gaps described above. As data for new indicators resulting from these efforts become available they will be incorporated into new editions of this annual report.

## USING THE DOCUMENT

In the presentation of data for this report, percents and rates are as a rule rounded to the nearest whole number. Estimates based on the Decennial Census, Vital Statistics, and surveys with very large sample sizes are often presented to one decimal place since differences of less than one percentage point from such sources may be significant.

Practical considerations did not allow us to test for the statistical significance of differences in the value of indicators across groups or over time. Because of this, small differences have been interpreted cautiously in the textual descriptions when estimates are based on relatively small sample sizes.

Finally the user should note that, unless otherwise clearly specified, race-specific estimates (e.g., white, black, Asian, Native American, and "other") include Hispanics of those races, even when a separate estimate is given for Hispanics. This is particularly important when interpreting the meaning for the white and "other" race groups, a significant proportion of whom are also Hispanic. In cases where Hispanics are separated out, "non-Hispanic" will follow the race designation, as in "white, non-Hispanic."

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

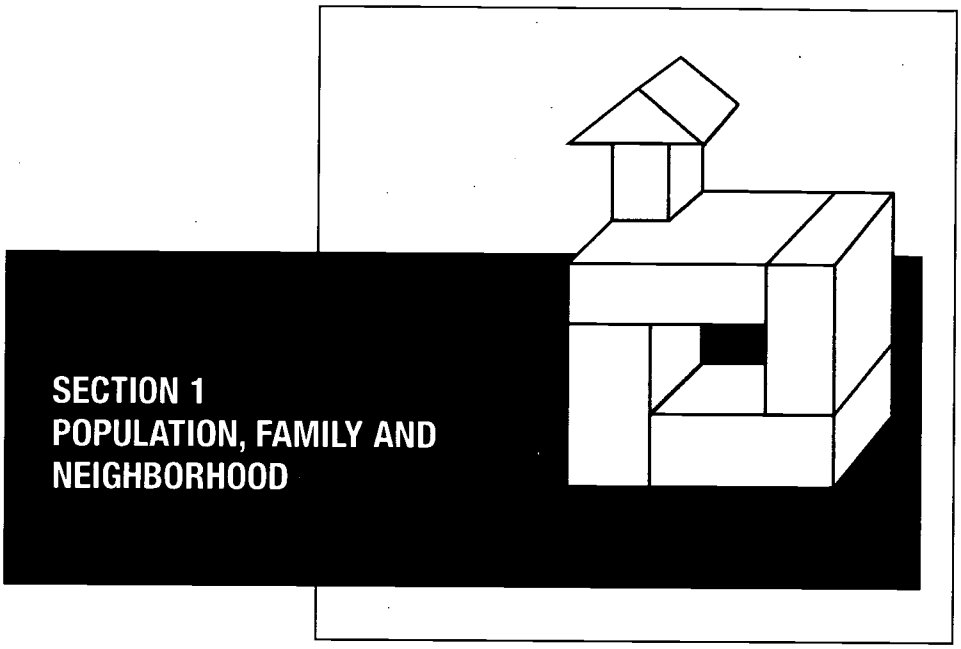
The first section of this report was produced under contract by Child Trends, Inc., of Washington, D.C. Brett Brown, Ph.D., served as project director. He was assisted by Lisa Anderson, Connie Blumenthal, Christopher Botsko, Carla Butler, Deanna

Cooke, Robin Dion, Dana Glei, Angela Dungee Greene, Charles Halla, Fanette Jones, Jennifer Manlove, Suzanne Miller, Kristin Moore, Donna Morrison, Nancy Snyder, Barbara Sugland, and Martha Zaslow.
The second section of this report was produced by Donald J. Hernandez of the United States Bureau of the Census. The author is indebted to Arthur J. Norton and the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Thanks are due also to Edith Reeves, Catherine O'Brien, and Stephanie Kennedy. The author bears sole responsibility for the results and opinions presented here.

The Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics supported the production of this document. Member agencies include the Bureau of the Census, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the National Center for Education Statistics, the National Center for Health Statistics, the National Institute for Child Health and Human Development, the Office of Management and Budget, and the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation at HHS.

Several individuals and groups supplied unpublished data or analyses, including Greg Duncan of Northwestern University; Paul Jargowski of the University of Texas at Dallas; William Frey of the University of Michigan; the Survey Research Center and Institute for Social Research of University of Michigan; and the Educational Testing Service.

Many agencies supplied data and\or reviewed tables and text. They include the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, the Administration for Children and Families, the National Institute for Child Health and Human Development, the Bureau of the Census, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Department of Housing and Urban Development, and the National Center for Education Statistics.



# SECTION 1
# POPULATION, FAMILY AND NEIGHBORHOOD

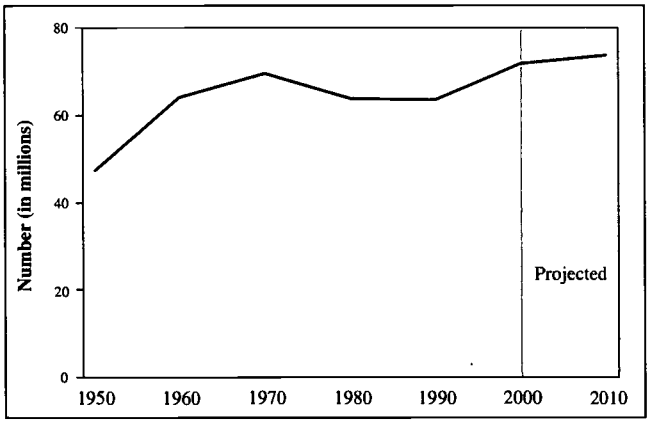
## CHILD POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

### PF 1.1 NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN THE UNITED STATES

Though the population of the United States has grown steadily over the last four decades, the trend in the number of children has been less steady, and the number of children has even shrunk during some periods. Figure PF 1.1 presents trends in the total number of children under age 18 from 1950 through 1990, with projections through the year 2010. From 1950 to 1960, roughly the period of the baby boom, the number of children increased by 36 percent from 47.3 to 64.2 million. The number rose at a more modest rate in the ensuing decade to 69.6 million in 1970. The number actually declined to 63.7 million by 1980, and held steady over the next decade. The U.S. Census Bureau projects that the number will rise substantially to 71.8 million by the year 2000, an echo of the earlier baby boom generation that is now grown and having children of its own. The number of children is expected to increase to 73.6 million by the year 2010.

The number of Hispanic children in the country grew from 5.3 to 7.8 million between 1980 and 1990. (*See* Table PF 1.1) By the year 2010, the number is expected to increase to 13.5 million. Should these projections prove accurate, Hispanics will become the largest minority child population by the year 2010.

### Figure PF 1.1 NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN US: 1950 - 2010




Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *1990 Census of Population and Housing, Summary Population and Housing Characteristics* (CPH-1-1) Table 1. 1970 Census, *Characteristics of the Population, U.S. Summary*, Table 52. *1980 Census, General Population Characteristics, U.S. Summary*, Table 41. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 311, *Estimates of the Population of the United States by Single Years of Age, Color, and Sex*, 1900 to 1959, pages 22-23, 42-43. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 917, *Preliminary Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1970 to 1981*, Table 2. Current Population Reports Series P-25, No. 985, *Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1980 to 1985*, Table 2. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 985, *Projections of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race Hispanic Origin: 1993 to 2050*, Table 2.

## Table PF 1.1 NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER 18 BY AGE AND RACE/HISPANIC ORIGIN: 1950 - 2010

Number in Millions

| | | | | | | Projected | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 | 2000 | 2010 |
| All Children | 47.3 | 64.2 | 69.6 | 63.7 | 63.6 | 71.8 | 73.6 |
| Age | | | | | | | |
| 0-5 | 19.1 | 24.3 | 21.0 | 19.6 | 22.0 | 23.4 | 20.0 |
| 6-11 | 15.3 | 21.7 | 24.6 | 20.8 | 21.5 | 24.7 | 27.9 |
| 12-17 | 12.9 | 18.2 | 24.1 | 23.3 | 20.0 | 23.7 | 25.7 |
| Race/Hispanic Origin | | | | | | | |
| White | 41.3 | 55.5 | 59.1 | 52.5 | 47.6 | 55.9 | 55.3 |
| Non White | 6.0 | 8.7 | 10.6 | 11.2 | — | — | — |
| Black | — | — | 9.5 | 9.5 | 9.6 | 11.5 | 12.5 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 5.3 | 7.8 | 10.5 | 13.5 |

Note: "Non-white" refers to all races other than white, and includes black, Native American, Asian, and any other race except white.

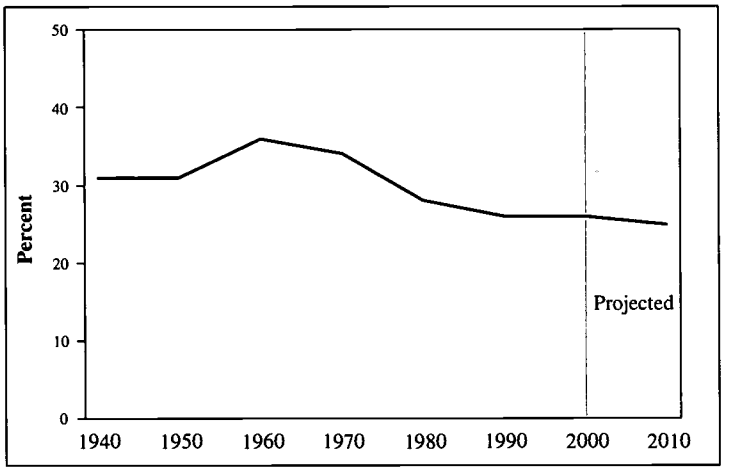
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *1990 Census of Population and Housing, Summary Population and Housing Characteristics* (CPH-1-1) Table 1. 1970 Census, *Characteristics of the Population, U.S. Summary*, Table 52. *1980 Census, General Population Characteristics, U.S. Summary*, Table 41. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 311, *Estimates of the Population of the United States by Single Years of Age, Color, and Sex, 1900 to 1959*, pages 22-23, 42-43. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 917, *Preliminary Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1970 to 1981*, Table 2. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 985, *Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1980 to 1985*, Table 2. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 985, *Projections of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race Hispanic Origin: 1993 to 2050*, Table 2.

## PF 1.2 CHILDREN AS A PERCENT OF THE TOTAL POPULATION

The proportion of the population who are children can have important consequences for the entire population, including children. On the one hand, because children are for the most part dependent and in need of investment to become productive citizens, they may present special short-term fiscal challenges to society when they constitute a relatively higher proportion of the overall population. On the other hand, as they grow up to become productive adults they will provide support for those entering retirement and for the next generation of children.

Figure PF 1.2 illustrates trends on the proportion of the population under the age of 18 from 1940 through 1990, and projected through the year 2010. In 1940 and 1950, children constituted 31 percent of the overall population. During the next decade the proportion rose to 36 percent, an increase of five percentage points. The rise in birthrates which produced this increase in the proportion of children in the population during the 1950s is commonly known as the *baby boom*. From 1970 to 1990, there was a steady decrease until by 1990 children constituted only 26 percent of the population, a reduction of some 10 percentage points from 1960. Projections produced by the Bureau of the Census predict that this proportion will remain relatively steady from 1990 to 2000, before decreasing slightly to 25 percent in the year 2010.

**Figure PF 1.2 CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 AS A PERCENT OF THE TOTAL POPULATION: 1940 - 2010**




Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *1990 Census of Population and Housing, Summary Population and Housing Characteristics* (CPH-1-1). U.S. Bureau of Census, 1970 Census Volume *Characteristics of the Population, U.S. Summary, 1980 Census Volume, General Population Characteristics, U.S. Summary.* Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 311, *Estimates of the Population of the United States by Single Years of Age, Color, and Sex, 1900 to 1959.* Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 917, *Preliminary Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1970 to 1981.* Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 985, *Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1980 to 1985.* Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 985; Projections of the Hispanic Population: 1983 to 2080, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 952, *Projections of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1983-2080.*

## Table PF 1.2 CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL U.S. POPULATION: 1940 - 2010

| | | | | | | | Projected | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 | 2000 | 2010 |
| All Children Ages 0-17 | 31 | 31 | 36 | 34 | 28 | 26 | 26 | 25 |

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990 Census of Population and Housing, Summary Population and Housing Characteristics (CPH-1-1) Table 1. U.S. Bureau of Census, 1970 Census Volume, Characteristics of the Population, U.S. Summary, Table 52. 1980 Census Volume, General Population Characteristics, U.S. Summary, Table 41. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 311, Estimates of the Population of the Unites States by Single Years of Age, Color, and Sex, 1900 to 1959. Series P-25, No. 917, Preliminary Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1970 to 1981, Table 2. Series P-25, No. 985, Estimates of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1980 to 1985, Table 2. Series P-25, No. 985, Projections of the Hispanic Population: 1983 to 2080, Table 2. Series P-25, No. 952, Projections of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1983 to 2080, Table 6.

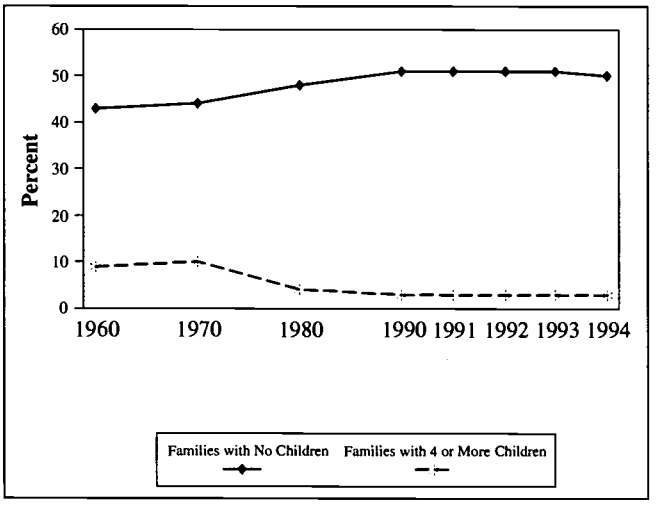
## PF 1.3 THE PROPORTION OF FAMILIES CONTAINING CHILDREN, AND THE DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY NUMBER OF CHILDREN

Since the height of the baby boom around 1960, Americans have been moving towards families with fewer children. Indeed, a growing percentage of families have no minor children of their own. As Figure PF 1.3 illustrates, between 1960 and 1994, the percent of families with four or more related children under age 18 decreased from 9 percent down to 3 percent. At the same time, the proportion of families with no minor children grew from 43 percent in 1960 to a high of 51 percent in 1992 before dropping slightly to 50 percent in 1994.

These general trends are also evident when white, black, and Hispanic families are considered separately, though the levels are substantially different. (*See* Table PF 1.3) For example, between 1970 and 1994 the percentage of black families with four or more children dropped from 19 percent to 5 percent. Rates for whites during that period went from 9 percent down to 2 percent. For Hispanic families, rates dropped from 10 percent to 6 percent between 1980 (the first year for which Hispanic estimates are available) and 1994.

Black and Hispanic families were considerably less likely than white families to be without any minor children, with rates of 40 percent, 36 percent, and 52 percent, respectively in 1994. They were also both more likely than white families to have four or more children (5 percent, 6 percent, and 2 percent, respectively), though the differences were smaller in 1994 than in previous decades.

### Figure PF 1.3 PERCENT OF FAMILIES WITH NO CHILDREN, AND WITH 4 OR MORE CHILDREN: 1960 - 1994




Source: Estimates for 1960-1993 from "Household and Family Characteristics", Current Population Reports, Series P-20 for various years. Estimates for 1994 were produced by Child Trends, Inc., based on analysis of the March, 1994 Current Population Survey.

Table PF 1.3 PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF FAMILIES BY NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS OF AGE: 1960 - 1994

| | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Families | | | | | | | | |
| Without own children | 43 | 44 | 48 | 51 | 51 | 51 | 51 | 50 |
| One child | 19 | 18 | 21 | 21 | 20 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| 2 children | 18 | 17 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 18 | 19 | 19 |
| 3 children | 11 | 11 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 8 |
| 4 or more children | 9 | 10 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| White Families | | | | | | | | |
| Without own children | 43 | 45 | 49 | 51 | 53 | 53 | 53 | 52 |
| One child | 19 | 18 | 21 | 21 | 19 | 20 | 19 | 19 |
| 2 children | 18 | 18 | 19 | 19 | 18 | 18 | 19 | 19 |
| 3 children | 11 | 11 | 8 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 |
| 4 or more children | 9 | 9 | 4 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 |
| Black Families | | | | | | | | |
| Without own children | — | 39 | 38 | 41 | 41 | 42 | 42 | 40 |
| One child | — | 18 | 23 | 25 | 25 | 24 | 25 | 25 |
| 2 children | — | 15 | 20 | 19 | 19 | 19 | 18 | 20 |
| 3 children | — | 10 | 10 | 9 | 9 | 10 | 10 | 9 |
| 4 or more children | — | 19 | 8 | 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 5 |
| Hispanic Families | | | | | | | | |
| Without own children | — | — | 31 | 37 | 36 | 36 | 37 | 36 |
| One child | — | — | 23 | 23 | 22 | 22 | 23 | 22 |
| 2 children | — | — | 23 | 21 | 23 | 22 | 22 | 23 |
| 3 children | — | — | 13 | 12 | 12 | 13 | 12 | 13 |
| 4 or more children | — | — | 10 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 6 |

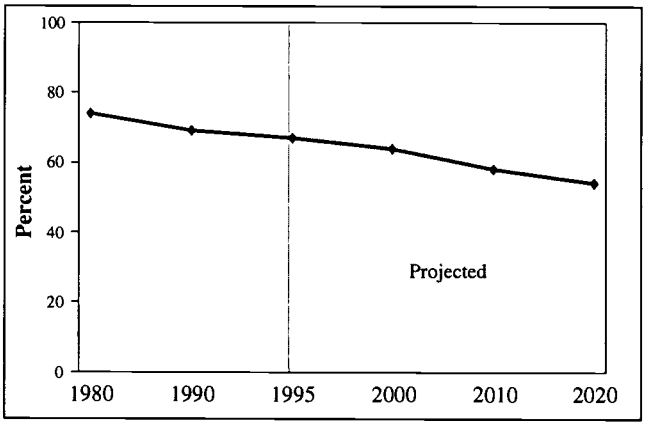
Source: Estimates for 1960-1993 from "Household and Family Characteristics", Current Population Reports, Series P-20 for various years. Estimates for 1994 were produced by Child Trends, Inc., based on analysis of the March, 1994 Current Population Survey.

## PF 1.4 RACE/ETHNICITY COMPOSITION OF U.S. CHILDREN

The United States has become increasingly racially and culturally diverse over the last three decades, and is projected to become even more so during the decades to follow. Table PF 1.4 presents the racial/ethnic composition of America's children from 1960 to 1990, and includes projections of likely changes in that composition through the year 2020 as estimated by the Bureau of the Census. As Figure PF 1.4 illustrates, as recently as 1980 nearly three quarters (74 percent) of all children in this country were non-Hispanic whites. This proportion diminished to 69 percent in 1990, and is expected to continue a steady downward trend until, by the year 2020, non-Hispanic whites will constitute just over one half (54 percent) of all U.S. children. The historical trend for all whites is similar though less dramatic owing to the fact that Hispanics comprise an increasingly large proportion of the white population. (*See* Table PF 1.4)

As of 1990, blacks constituted the largest minority population group at 15 percent of the total child population. (*See* Table PF 1.4) They were followed by Hispanics at 12 percent, Asian Americans at 3 percent, and Native Americans at 1 percent. By the year 2010, Hispanics are projected to surpass blacks as the largest minority among the child population at 18 percent. By the year 2020, over one in five American children are expected to be Hispanic, nearly double the proportion in 1990. The Asian American population is also expected to continue its rapid growth during this period, increasing from 3 percent in 1990 to 8 percent by the year 2020.

**Figure PF 1.4 PROPORTION OF U.S. CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO ARE NON-HISPANIC WHITE, 1980-2020**




Source: For projections 1995 to 2020: Day, Jennifer Cheeseman. "Population Projections of the United States, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1993 to 2050", U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P25-1104, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993. For 1980 and 1990 estimates: *The Challenge of Change: What the 1990 Census Tells Us about the Children*, prepared by the Population Reference Bureau for the Center for the Study of Social Policy.

**Table PF 1.4 PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF U.S. CHILDREN UNDER 18 BY RACE/ETHNICITY: 1960-2020**

| | | | | | Projected | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 | 1995 | 2000 | 2010 | 2020 |
| White | 86 | 85 | 82[a] | 80[a] | 79 | 78 | 75 | 73 |
| White, non-Hispanic | — | — | 74 | 69 | 67 | 64 | 58 | 54 |
| Black | 13 | 14 | 15 | 15 | 16 | 16 | 17 | 18 |
| Hispanic | — | — | 9 | 12 | 14 | 15 | 18 | 21 |
| Asian American | — | — | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 7 | 8 |
| Native American | — | — | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Note: [a]Figures for whites for 1980 and 1990 were taken from Hernandez, D.J., "Population Change and the Family Environment of Children" (this report).

Source: For projections 1995 to 2020: Day, Jennifer Cheeseman, "Population Projections of the United States, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1993 to 2050," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P25-1104, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993. For 1980 and 1990 estimates: The Challenge of Change: What the 1990 Census Tells Us about Children, prepared by the Population Reference Bureau for the Center for the Study of Social Policy. 1960 and 1970: Hernandez, D.J. Population Change, the Family Environment of Children, and Statistics on Children (this report).

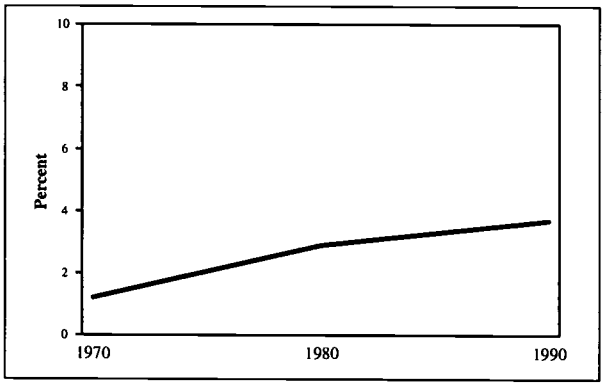
## PF 1.5 IMMIGRANT CHILDREN

The United States is a nation of immigrants. Rates of immigration, however, have varied substantially over periods of our history, as have the countries and cultures from which these immigrants originate. Immigrant children are of particular interest, as many of them have special needs that must be met through our systems of public and private education.

As Figure PF 1.5.a indicates, the percentage of America's children and youth who are foreign born has been increasing steadily over the last several decades from 1.2 percent in 1970 to 3.7 percent in 1990. The percentage foreign born is highest for older children. In 1990, while the percent foreign born was only 1.4 percent for children under the age of 5, this proportion rises steadily with age to 6.5 percent among youth ages 15-19, or approximately one in every fifteen youth in that age group. (*See* Table PF 1.5)

The percent foreign born varies substantially by racial and ethnic background. (*See* Figure PF 1.5.b) In 1980, less that 2 percent of whites, blacks and Native Americans were foreign born, compared to 40.0 percent of Asians and 14.0 percent of Hispanics. By 1990, the percentage of foreign born Asian children had diminished from 40.0 to 33.2 percent, while the percent foreign born Hispanic children increased to 15.8 percent.

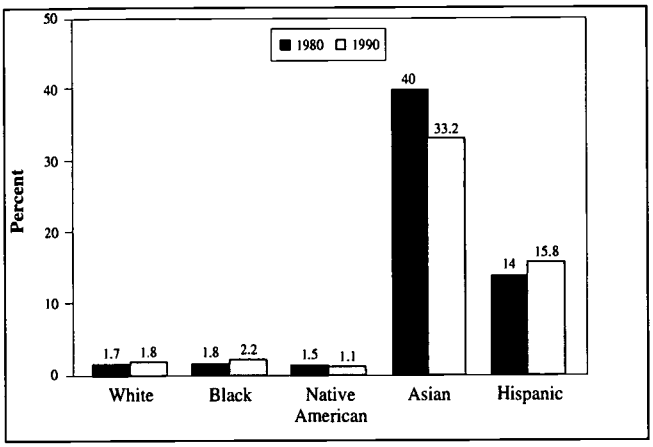
### Figure PF 1.5.A PERCENT OF U.S. CHILDREN AGES 19 AND UNDER WHO WERE FOREIGN BORN[a]: 1970 - 1990




Notes: [a]Includes both immigrants and illegal aliens.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, The Foreign-Born Population in the U.S., 1990, CP-3-1, and 1990 STF-3A census files. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Detailed Characteristics of the Population, 1980, Chapter D, U.S. Summary, U.S. Bureau of the Census, National Origin and Language, PC(2-1A), 1970.

**Figure PF 1.5.B PERCENT OF U.S. CHILDREN AGES 19 AND UNDER WHO WERE FOREIGN BORN[a] IN 1980 AND 1990. VARIATIONS BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN**




Notes: [a]Includes both immigrants and illegal aliens.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, The Foreign-Born Population in the U.S., 1990, CP-3-1, and 1990 STF-3A census files. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Detailed Characteristics of the Population, 1980, Chapter D, U.S. Summary, U.S. Bureau of the Census, National Origin and Language, PC(2-1A), 1970.

**Table PF 1.5 PERCENT OF U.S. CHILDREN AGES 19 AND UNDER WHO WERE FOREIGN-BORN[a] BY AGE AND RACE/ETHNICITY: 1970 - 1990**

| | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 |
|---|---|---|---|
| All Children | 1.2 | 2.9 | 3.7 |
| Under 5 years | 0.6 | 1.4 | 1.4 |
| 5 to 9 years | 1.1 | 2.6 | 2.7 |
| 10-14 years | 1.4 | 3.2 | 4.3 |
| 15-19 years | 1.8 | 4.1 | 6.5 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | |
| White | 1.2 | 1.7 | 1.8 |
| Black | 0.5 | 1.8 | 2.2 |
| American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut | — | 1.5 | 1.1 |
| Asian and Pacific Islander | — | 40.0 | 33.2 |
| Hispanic | — | 14.0 | 15.8 |

Notes: [a]Includes both immigrants and illegal aliens.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, The Foreign-Born Population in the U.S., 1990, CP-3-1, and 1990 STF-3A census files. U.S. Bureau of the Census, Detailed Characteristics of the Population, 1980, Chapter D, U.S. Summary. U.S. Bureau of the Census, National Origin and Language, PC(2-1A), 1970.

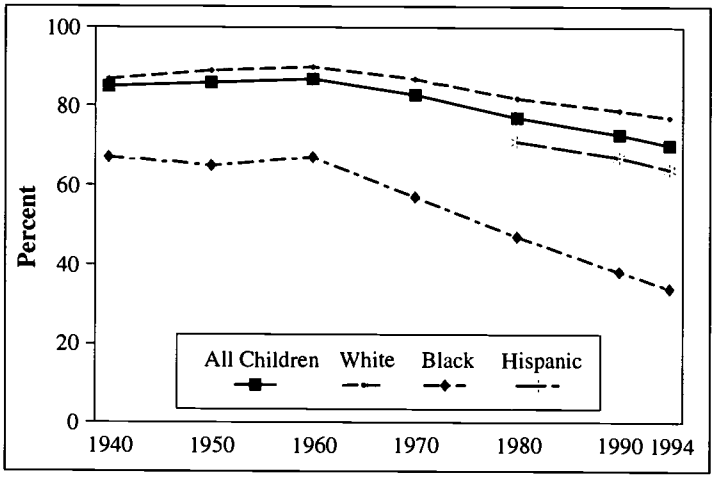
## PF 2.1 FAMILY STRUCTURE: PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF U.S. CHILDREN BY NUMBER OF PARENTS IN HOUSEHOLD

On average, children from disrupted or never-married families are more likely to use alcohol and drugs, to become teen parents, to achieve lower earnings, and are less likely to attain a high school diploma than those from intact families with both biological parents, even after controlling for other background factors including race and family socioeconomic status.[1] Even so, it must also be said that the great majority of children brought up in single-parent families do quite well, with differences in well-being between those from divorced and intact families tending, on average, to be moderate to small.[2]

Figure PF 2.1 presents trends from 1940 to 1994 in the proportion of children in all two-parent families, most but not all of whom are two-parent biological parent families. Over this period, the proportion of children in such families decreased from 85 percent to 70 percent, with a peak of 87 percent in 1960. The downward trend is evident for both black and white children, though the descent is significantly steeper for black children. Between 1940 and 1994, the proportion of black children living in two-parent families decreased by 33 percentage points, from 67 percent to 34 percent. By contrast, the drop for white children was only 10 percentage points, from 87 percent to 77 percent. For Hispanic children, the trend is also towards a smaller proportion of children in two-parent families, decreasing from 71 percent to 64 percent between 1980 (the first year for which Hispanic estimates are available) and 1994.

[1]Amato, P.R. 1993. Children's Adjustment to Divorce: Theories, Hypotheses, and Empirical Support. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*. 55: 23-58.
[2]Zill, N., Morrison, D., and Coiro, M. 1993. Long-term Effects of Parental Divorce on Parent-Child Relationships, Adjustment and Achievement in Early Adulthood. *Journal of Family Psychology*. 7(1): 91-103.

### Figure PF 2.1 PERCENT OF CHILDREN WITH TWO PARENTS IN HOUSEHOLD: 1940 - 1994




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, NY 1993, Tables 3.1, 3.6, and 3.11, calculated from 1940-1980 PUMS. Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1990 Table 4, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports. Tabulations for 1994 by Child Trends, Inc., from March 1994 Current Population Survey.

**Table PF 2.1.A PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF U.S. CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 BY NUMBER OF PARENTS IN HOUSEHOLD AND RACE/ETHNICITY: 1940 - 1994**

| | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1990 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Children | | | | | | | |
| Two parents | 85 | 86 | 87 | 83 | 77 | 73 | 70 |
| Mother only | 7 | 6 | 8 | 12 | 16 | 22 | 24 |
| Father only | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Neither parent | 6 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 3 | 3 |
| In group quarters | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | * | * | * |
| White Children | | | | | | | |
| Two parents | 87 | 89 | 90 | 87 | 82 | 79 | 77 |
| Mother only | 6 | 6 | 6 | 9 | 12 | 16 | 18 |
| Father only | 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| Neither parent | 4 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 |
| In group quarters | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | * | * | * |
| Black Children | | | | | | | |
| Two parents | 67 | 65 | 67 | 57 | 47 | 38 | 34 |
| Mother only | 12 | 14 | 19 | 30 | 39 | 51 | 54 |
| Father only | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| Neither parent | 16 | 16 | 11 | 9 | 11 | 7 | 8 |
| In group quarters | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | * | * |
| Hispanic[a] Children | | | | | | | |
| Two parents | — | — | — | — | 71 | 67 | 64 |
| Mother only | — | — | — | — | 20 | 27 | 28 |
| Father only | — | — | — | — | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Neither parent | — | — | — | — | 7 | 3 | 4 |
| In group quarters | — | — | — | — | * | * | * |

Note: *Indicates < 0.5 percent

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Tables 3.1, 3.6, and 3.11, calculated from 1940-1980 PUMS. Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1990 Table 4, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports. Tabulations for 1994 by Child Trends Inc., from March 1994 Current Population Survey.

## PF 2.1 FAMILY STRUCTURE: PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF U.S. CHILDREN BY NUMBER OF PARENTS IN HOUSEHOLD (continued)

Of the children who are not in two-parent families, most are in mother only families. In 1994, 24 percent of all children lived in mother only families. (*See* Table PF 2.1.a) The percent of children living in single father families dropped from 2 percent in 1940 to 1 percent in 1960, then rose to 3 percent by 1994. The percent of families with children where neither parent is present has declined from 6 percent to 3 percent between 1940 and 1994. Black children have consistently been much more likely to live in such families, with rates declining from 16 percent in 1940 down to a still substantial 8 percent in 1994. Finally, it is worth noting that the proportion of children living in group quarters has decreased steadily since 1940 from 1 percent to less than one tenth of one percent by 1994.

Table PF 2.1.b presents Census data for families with children instead of children themselves, reporting the percentage of such families that are headed by married couples, single females, and single males. As such they are not comparable to the data presented in the previous table, but are offered because they include family structure data for two additional racial groups, Asians and Native Americans. Asians had the highest proportion of two-parent families of any race/ethnicity group, comprising 84.3 percent of all Asian families with children in 1990. White families were close behind at 82.2 percent, followed by Hispanics at 71.4 percent, Native Americans at 63.6 percent, and black families at 46.9 percent.

**Table PF 2.1.B PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF U.S. FAMILIES WITH OWN CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18, BY FAMILY TYPE, AND RACE/ETHNICITY: 1980 AND 1990**

| | 1980 | 1990 |
|---|---|---|
| Total | | |
| Families with own children | | |
| Married couple | 81.5 | 77.1 |
| Female head | 16.1 | 17.7 |
| Male head | 2.4 | 4.1 |
| White | | |
| Families with own children | | |
| Married couple | 85.7 | 82.2 |
| Female head | 12.1 | 14.0 |
| Male head | 2.2 | 3.7 |
| Black | | |
| Families with own children | | |
| Married couple | 54.3 | 46.9 |
| Female head | 41.7 | 47.6 |
| Male head | 4.0 | 5.5 |
| Hispanic | | |
| Families with own children | | |
| Married couple | 76.6 | 71.4 |
| Female head | 20.4 | 22.1 |
| Male head | 3.1 | 6.5 |
| Asian American | | |
| Families with own children | | |
| Married couple | 88.5 | 84.3 |
| Female head | 9.4 | 9.8 |
| Male head | 2.1 | 2.9 |
| Native American | | |
| Families with own children | | |
| Married couple | 71.5 | 63.6 |
| Female head | 24.2 | 28.7 |
| Male head | 4.3 | 7.8 |

Source: The Challenge of Change: What the 1990 Census Tells Us About Children, prepared by the Population Reference Bureau for the Center for the Study of Social Policy, Table 14, with data from the Bureau of the Census, 1980 Census of Population, "General Social and Economic Characteristics," PC80-1-C1, United States Summary, tables 100,121, and 131; and Census of Population and Housing 1990, Summary Tape File 3, tables P-19, P-20, and P-21.

## PF 2.2 PERCENT OF ALL BIRTHS THAT ARE TO UNMARRIED MOTHERS

Children who are born to single mothers are, regardless of the age of the mother, considerably more likely to grow up poor, to spend large portions of their childhood without two parents, and more likely to become single parents themselves than children born to two-parent families.[3]

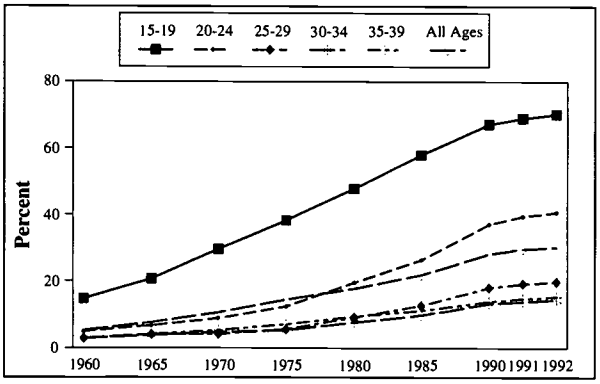
Figure PF 2.2 shows trends from 1960 through 1992 in the percent of all births that were to unmarried mothers. Data are displayed separately for all mothers, and by age of mother in five year increments from ages 15 through 39. The percent of all births to unmarried women has increased very substantially during that period, from 5.3 percent to 1960 to 30.1 percent in 1992. Among women ages 15-19 there was a steady increase from 14.8 percent in 1960 to 70.0 percent in 1992. For women ages 20-24, rates increased from 4.8 percent to 40.7 percent during that time period. For women over age 24, rates were all under 3 percent in 1960, but had climbed to between 14.3 and 19.8 percent by 1992.

Table PF 2.2 presents this data separately for white, black and Hispanic mothers. Trend data for black mothers, available for 1970 through 1992, indicate that there have been substantial increases in the percent of births that are nonmarital for all age groups, and particularly for older mothers. For black women ages 20-24, rates increased from 31.3 percent to 75.2 percent during that time. Among black women in the oldest age group, 35-39, the percent of all births that were to unmarried mothers increased from 18.6 percent to 44.7 percent from 1980 to 1992.

Comparisons among white, black, and Hispanic rates for 1992 reveal that white women have the lowest percentage of births to unmarried women, followed by Hispanic women, then black women. This is true for all age groups, though the size of the difference can vary substantially by age of mother. For women ages 15-19, for example, white and Hispanic women are quite close at 60.4 and 61.9 percent, respectively, compared to 92.6 percent for black women. By ages 25-29, however, rates for Hispanic women move midway between white and black rates with whites at 14.3 percent, Hispanics at 30.8 percent, and blacks at 55.0 percent.

[3] See Ventura, S.J., 1995. *Births to Unmarried Mothers: United States, 1980-1992.* NCHS Series 21, No. 53. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

**Figure PF 2.2 PERCENT OF ALL BIRTHS TO UNMARRIED MOTHERS BY AGE OF MOTHER: 1960 - 1992**




Source: Ventura, S.J. 1995. *Births to Unmarried Mothers: United States, 1980-92.* Vital and Health Statistics Series 21, No. 53, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, June 1995.

**Table PF 2.2 PERCENT OF ALL BIRTHS TO UNMARRIED MOTHERS, BY AGE OF MOTHER AND RACE/ETHNICITY: 1960 - 1992**

| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980[a] | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Races | | | | | | | | | |
| All Ages | 5.3 | 7.7 | 10.7 | 14.3 | 17.8 | 22.0 | 28.0 | 29.5 | 30.1 |
| Ages 15-19 | 14.8 | 20.8 | 29.5 | 38.2 | 47.6 | 58.0 | 67.1 | 68.8 | 70.0 |
| Ages 20-24 | 4.8 | 6.8 | 8.9 | 12.3 | 19.4 | 26.3 | 36.9 | 39.4 | 40.7 |
| Ages 25-29 | 2.9 | 4.0 | 4.1 | 5.4 | 9.0 | 12.7 | 18.0 | 19.2 | 19.8 |
| Ages 30-34 | 2.7 | 3.7 | 4.5 | 5.3 | 7.5 | 9.7 | 13.3 | 14.0 | 14.3 |
| Ages 35-39 | 2.9 | 4.0 | 5.2 | 7.0 | 9.4 | 11.2 | 13.9 | 14.6 | 15.2 |
| White | | | | | | | | | |
| All Ages | 2.3 | 4.0 | 5.7 | 7.3 | 11.2 | 14.7 | 20.3 | 21.8 | 22.6 |
| Ages 15-19 | 7.2 | 11.4 | 17.1 | 22.9 | 33.1 | 44.8 | 56.4 | 58.8 | 60.4 |
| Ages 20-24 | 2.2 | 3.8 | 5.2 | 6.1 | 11.7 | 17.7 | 27.8 | 30.2 | 31.7 |
| Ages 25-29 | 1.1 | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 5.2 | 8.1 | 12.6 | 13.7 | 14.3 |
| Ages 30-34 | 1.0 | 1.6 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 4.6 | 6.3 | 9.3 | 9.8 | 10.2 |
| Ages 35-39 | 1.3 | 1.9 | 2.7 | 3.9 | 6.4 | 8.1 | 10.3 | 10.9 | 11.4 |
| Black | | | | | | | | | |
| All Ages | — | — | 37.6 | 48.8 | 56.1 | 61.2 | 66.5 | 67.9 | 68.1 |
| Ages 15-19 | — | — | 62.7 | 76.9 | 85.7 | 90.2 | 92.0 | 92.3 | 92.6 |
| Ages 20-24 | — | — | 31.3 | 43.0 | 57.0 | 65.4 | 72.6 | 74.7 | 75.2 |
| Ages 25-29 | — | — | 20.3 | 26.8 | 36.8 | 45.2 | 53.3 | 54.7 | 55.0 |
| Ages 30-34 | — | — | 19.6 | 24.1 | 29.6 | 37.0 | 45.2 | 46.5 | 46.7 |
| Ages 35-39 | — | — | 18.6 | 23.9 | 28.4 | 35.1 | 42.0 | 43.8 | 44.7 |
| Hispanic | | | | | | | | | |
| All Ages | | | | | | | | | |
| Ages 15-19 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 61.9 |
| Ages 20-24 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 42.3 |
| Ages 25-29 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 30.8 |
| Ages 30-34 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 27.2 |
| Ages 35-39 | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | 28.5 |

Notes: [a]Births from 1980 onwards by race of mother. Tabulations prior to 1980 are by race of child, which assigns the child to the race of the non-white parent, if any, or to the race of the father, if both are non-white.

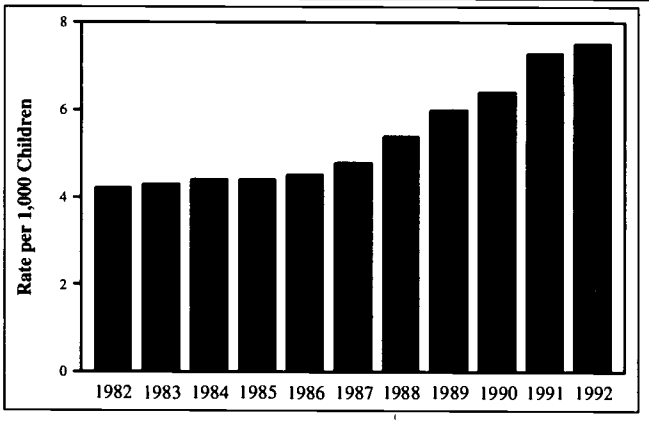
Source: Ventura, S.J., 1995. *Births to Unmarried Mothers: United States, 1980-92.* Vital and Health Statistics Series 21, No. 53, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, June 1995.

## PF 2.3 CHILDREN LIVING IN FOSTER CARE

Placement of a child in foster care occurs when a state protective services worker (under supervision of the state judicial system) determines that a child's family cannot provide a minimally safe environment for the child. Most commonly, placement occurs either because a member of the household has physically or sexually abused the child or because the child's caretaker(s) has severely neglected the child. In some cases, children with severe emotional disturbances may also be put into foster care. Since both federal and state law strongly discourage removal of children from their families, placement in foster care is an extreme step that protective services workers take only when a child is in immediate danger or when attempts to help the family function better have failed. Thus, the frequency of placements in foster care is an indicator of serious family dysfunction and serious damage to the welfare of children.

As shown in Figure PF 2.3, the rate of children living in foster care per thousand children under age 18 has risen dramatically from 4.2 per thousand in 1982 to 7.5 per thousand in 1992—an increase of nearly 80 percent. Nearly all of this increase was concentrated in the five years between 1986 and 1991. The number of children in foster care has risen steadily from 262,000 in 1982 to 442,000 in 1992.

### Figure PF 2.3 CHILDREN LIVING IN FOSTER CARE: 1982 - 1992 (Rate per thousand)




Note: Estimate of total is the number of children in foster care on the last day of the fiscal year. Estimate of Race/Ethnicity and Age percentages based on children entering the system.

Source: American Public Welfare Association, *Characteristics of Children in Substitute and Adoptive Care: A Statistical Summary of the VCIS National Child Welfare Data Base*, Public Welfare Association, October 1993.

**Table PF 2.3 NUMBER OF CHILDREN LIVING IN FOSTER CARE: 1982 - 1992**

| | 1982 | 1983 | 1984 | 1985 | 1986 | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Number | 262,000 | 269,000 | 276,000 | 276,000 | 280,000 | 300,000 | 340,000 | 383,000 | 407,000 | 429,000 | 442,000 |
| Rate per thousand | 4.2 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 4.5 | 4.8 | 5.4 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 7.3 | 7.5 |

Note: Estimate of total is the number of children in foster care on the last day of the fiscal year.

Source: Tatara, Tashio. *Characteristics of Children in Substitute and Adoptive care: A Statistical Summary of the VCRS National Child Welfare Data Base*, Washington. DC: October 1993. U.S. Bureau of Census Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1994 (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1994).

## PF 3.1 RESIDENTIAL STABILITY: PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO HAVE MOVED WITHIN THE LAST YEAR

Recent research has demonstrated a strong relationship between residential stability and child well-being, with frequent moves being associated with a number of negative outcomes including dropping out of high school, delinquency, depression, and non-marital teen births. Some researchers theorize that these negative associations may result from a lack of rootedness in the local community and its institutions on the part of frequent movers.[4]

The United States has long been a highly mobile society. In 1960, one in five children under the age of 18 had moved to a new residence during the previous year. As Table PF 3.1.a shows, the general trend since that time has been towards somewhat lower rates of mobility, to a low of 17 percent in 1994.

Table PF 3.1.b shows mobility rates separately for whites, blacks, and Hispanics, and across age groups as well for the period 1990-1994. Young children were the most mobile of any age group. In 1994, 22 percent of children under the age of 5 had changed residences in the previous year, compared to 17 percent among children ages 5-9, 13 percent for ages 10-14 and 15 percent for youth ages 15-17. These age-specific patterns hold equally for white, black and Hispanic children, although whites were the least mobile of the three regardless of age group. For all children under age 18 in 1994, 16 percent of white children moved during the previous year compared to 20 percent of black children and 21 percent of Hispanic children.

[4]Coleman, J. 1988. "Social Capital and the Creation of Human Capital." *American Journal of Sociology*. 94: s95-s120.

## Table PF 3.1.A PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO HAVE MOVED WITHIN THE LAST YEAR: 1960 & 1994

| | 1960 | 1970 | 1981 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total[a] | 21 | 19 | 18 | 18 | 17 | 18 | 17 | 17 |

Note: [a]Total children refers to all children between the ages of 1 and 17.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, March Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Geographical Mobility, various years. Tabulations for 1994 by Child Trends Inc., from March 1994 Current Population Survey.

## Table PF 3.1.B PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO HAVE MOVED WITHIN THE LAST YEAR, BY AGE AND RACE/ETHNICITY: 1990 - 1994

| | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Children | | | | | |
| Total[a] | 18 | 17 | 18 | 17 | 17 |
| 1-4 years | 24 | 23 | 22 | 23 | 22 |
| 5-9 years | 19 | 18 | 18 | 17 | 17 |
| 10-14 years | 15 | 14 | 15 | 14 | 13 |
| 15-17 years | 15 | 15 | 14 | 14 | 15 |
| White | | | | | |
| Total[a] | 18 | 17 | 17 | 16 | 16 |
| 1-4 years | 23 | 22 | 21 | 22 | 21 |
| 5-9 years | 18 | 17 | 17 | 16 | 16 |
| 10-14 years | 14 | 13 | 15 | 13 | 12 |
| 15-17 years | 14 | 14 | 14 | 14 | 13 |
| Black | | | | | |
| Total[a] | 21 | 21 | 21 | 20 | 20 |
| 1-4 years | 26 | 26 | 27 | 26 | 25 |
| 5-9 years | 22 | 22 | 22 | 20 | 22 |
| 10-14 years | 19 | 17 | 18 | 17 | 16 |
| 15-17 years | 18 | 16 | 16 | 14 | 18 |
| Hispanic | | | | | |
| Total[a] | 25 | 21 | 24 | 23 | 21 |
| 1-4 years | 32 | 27 | 27 | 28 | 26 |
| 5-9 years | 28 | 20 | 25 | 24 | 20 |
| 10-14 years | 18 | 19 | 21 | 19 | 15 |
| 15-17 years | 21 | 19 | 19 | 20 | 21 |

Note: [a]Total children refers to all children between the ages of 1 and 17.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, March Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Geographical Mobility, various years. Tabulations for 1994 by Child Trends Inc., from March 1994 Current Population Survey.

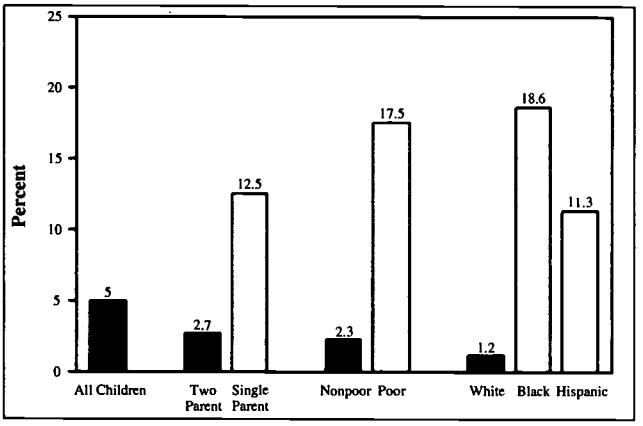
## PF 3.2 CHILDREN IN POOR AND VERY POOR NEIGHBORHOODS

Recent research has demonstrated a significant relationship between neighborhood quality and the well-being of the children and youth who live in them. Even after controlling for relevant personal and family background characteristics in multi-variate analyses, residence in low income neighborhoods has been shown to negatively affect early childhood development, and to be positively associated with higher rates of high school drop out and teen parenthood.[5]

Figure PF 3.2 presents data for 1990 on the proportion of children living in very poor neighborhoods, defined as census tracts in which 40 percent or more of the residents live in poor families. Estimates are presented for all children and separately for subgroups defined by family structure, poverty status, and race/ethnicity. Overall, one in 20 American children lived in very poor neighborhoods in 1990. Rates were higher for children in single parent households than for those in two parent households (12.5 percent versus 2.7 percent). More than one in six poor children (17.5 percent) lived in such neighborhoods compared to 2.3 percent of nonpoor children. Finally, the largest contrasts in exposure to very poor neighborhoods presented in Figure PF 3.2 are across race/ethnicity groups. Black children were the most likely to live in such neighborhoods at 18.6 percent compared to 11.3 percent for Hispanic children and 1.2 percent for non-Hispanic white children.

[5]Brooks-Gunn, J., Duncan, G., Klebanov, P., and Sealand, N. 1994. "Do Neighborhoods Influence Child Adolescent Behavior?" *American Journal of Sociology*, 99(2), 353-395. See also Crane, J., 1991. "The Epidemic Theory of Ghettos and Neighborhood Effects on Dropping Out of High School and Teenage Childbearing." *American Journal of Sociology*, 96(5), 1126-1159.

### Figure PF 3.2 PERCENT OF CHILDREN WHO LIVE IN VERY POOR (40+ % Poverty) NEIGHBORHOODS: 1990




Note: Neighborhoods are defined as census tracts and block-numbering areas. Both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas are included. The poverty rate is the percent of all persons in the neighborhood living in families below the poverty line in 1990.

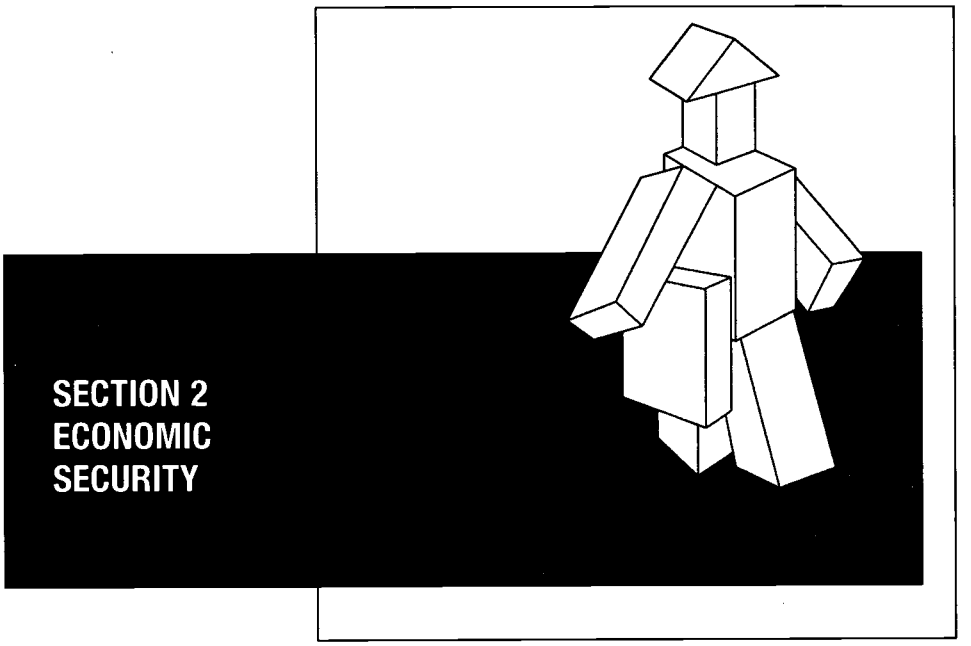
Source: Tabulations by Paul A. Jargowski from 1990 Census Summary Tape File 3A (CD-ROM version).

Table PF 3.2 PERCENT OF CHILDREN WHO LIVE IN POOR NEIGHBORHOODS: 1990

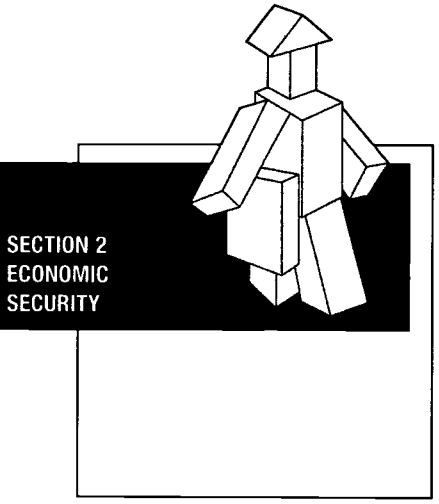
| | Neighborhood Poverty Level | |
|---|---|---|
| | 20+% Poor | 40+% Poor |
| Total | 22.9 | 5.0 |
| Age of Child | | |
| 0-4 | 23.5 | 5.3 |
| 5-17 | 22.7 | 4.9 |
| Family Structure | | |
| Two parent | 17.3 | 2.7 |
| Single parent | 41.2 | 12.5 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | |
| White non-Hispanic and Other | 12.2 | 1.2 |
| Black | 56.4 | 18.6 |
| Hispanic | 46.6 | 11.3 |
| Family Poverty | | |
| In poverty | 54.6 | 17.5 |
| Not in poverty | 16.0 | 2.3 |

Note: Neighborhoods are defined as census tracts and block-numbering areas. Both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan areas are included. The poverty rate is the percent of all persons in the neighborhood living in families below the poverty line in 1990.

Source: Tabulations by Paul A. Jargowski from 1990 Census Summary Tape File 3A (CD-ROM version)



# SECTION 2
# ECONOMIC SECURITY






## ES 1.1 MEAN (Average) FAMILY INCOME

Although the percentage of children under age 18 in poverty has increased substantially since 1975, the average or mean income of families with children has shown a modest increase during that same period. Figure ES 1.1 shows trends in mean family income between 1975 and 1993 for all families with children, and separately for married couple and female-headed families. To facilitate comparison over time, income for each year is presented in constant 1993 dollars.

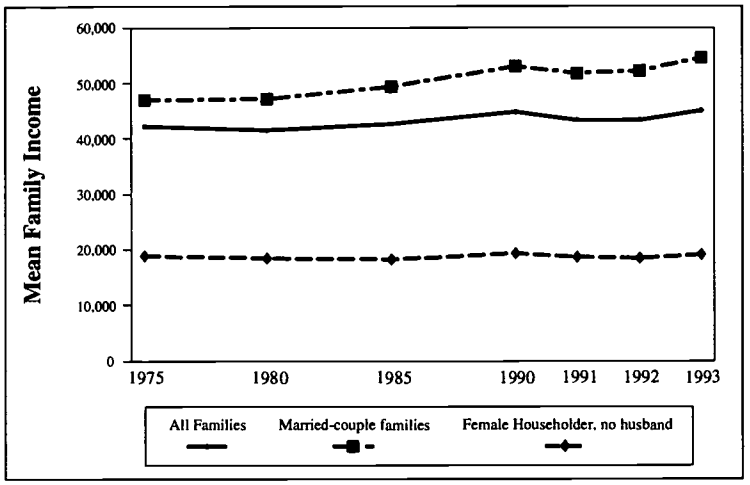
Between 1975 and 1993, the mean income of all families with children rose by 6.5 percent from $42,255 to $45,011. This rise was not experienced equally across all family types, however. While female headed families enjoyed only a modest 1.0 percent increase over that same time period from $19,019 to $19,214 , married-couple families with children showed an increase in average incomes of just over 16 percent, from $47,056 to $54,609.

Figure ES 1.1 clearly demonstrates that there has long been a substantial gap in family income between female-headed and married-couple families, and that the gap has been growing since 1975. In 1993, children in married-couple families enjoyed a substantial income advantage over children in female-headed families, with mean family incomes over 2.8 times as large ($54,609 versus $19,214). As Table ES 1.1 shows, this disparity is maintained within white, black, and Hispanic families with ratios ranging from 2.3 for Hispanics ($35,502 versus $15,602) to nearly 3.0 for black families ($44,399 versus $15,013).

Mean family incomes are substantially higher for white families with children than for black and Hispanic families with children. Table ES 1.1 shows that, in 1993, whites enjoyed family incomes that were about 80 percent higher than black families, and 65 percent higher than Hispanic families. Among married couple families the white-black disparity is considerably smaller, with whites enjoying incomes that are only 25 percent higher. The disparity between whites and Hispanics remains just as large for married couple families, however, with white families having average incomes 57 percent higher than their Hispanic counterparts. Black married couple families earn significantly more than Hispanic married-couple families, with mean family incomes of $44,399 and $35,502, respectively, in 1993.

Among female-headed families, white families with children have an average income of $21,404 in 1993, which is 43 percent higher than that for similar black families ($15,013) and 37 percent higher than that for Hispanic families ($15,602).

Figure ES 1.1 MEAN FAMILY INCOME OF FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18, 1975-1993 (in constant 1993 dollars)




Source: "Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the United States," various years. Current Population Reports, Series P60. Bureau of the Census. Tabulations for 1993 by Child Trends, Inc., from March 1994 Current Population Survey.

Table ES 1.1 MEAN FAMILY INCOME OF FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN UNDER 18 BY FAMILY TYPE, RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN OF HOUSHOLDER: SELECTED YEARS 1975-1993 (IN CONSTANT 1993 DOLLARS)

| Characteristics | 1975 | 1980 | 1985[a] | 1990 | 1991 | 1992[b] | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| One or more related children under 18 years old: | | | | | | | |
| All families | 42,255 | 41,700 | 42,771 | 44,813 | 43,309 | 43,373 | 45,011 |
| White | — | — | — | 47,513 | 46,213 | 46,460 | 48,337 |
| Black | — | — | — | 28,437 | 26,584 | 25,818 | 26,819 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 30,461 | 29,151 | 29,379 | 29,234 |
| Married-couple families | 47,056 | 47,225 | 49,299 | 53,144 | 51,683 | 52,254 | 54,609 |
| White | — | — | — | 53,739 | 52,541 | 53,209 | 55,607 |
| Black | — | — | — | 44,602 | 42,053 | 42,254 | 44,399 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 36,000 | 34,631 | 35,413 | 35,502 |
| Female Householder, no husband present | 19,019 | 18526 | 18,209 | 19,462 | 18,819 | 18,506 | 19,214 |
| White | — | — | — | 21,293 | 20,931 | 20,424 | 21,404 |
| Black | — | — | — | 16,087 | 14,888 | 15,089 | 15,013 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 15,831 | 16,247 | 15,682 | 15,602 |

Notes: [a]Recording of amounts for earnings from longest job increased to $299,999.
[b]Implementation of 1990 census population controls.

Source: "Money Income of Households, Families, and Persons in the United States," various years. Current Population Reports, Series P60. Bureau of the Census. Tabulations for 1993 by Child Trends, Inc., from March 1994 Current Population Survey.

## ES 1.2 CHILDREN AND THE DISTRIBUTION OF INCOME: THE INCOME-TO-POVERTY RATIO OF FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN, BY INCOME QUINTILE

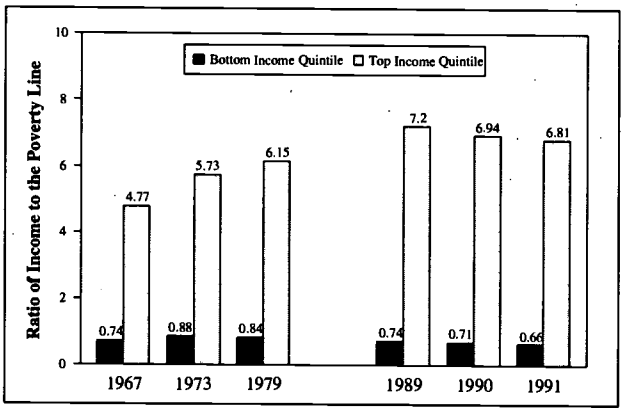
Figure ES 1.2 presents trends in the distribution of income among families with children for selected years from 1967 through 1991, highlighting trends for families in the top and bottom fifth, or quintile, of the income distribution. The measure shown is the AFI, the ratio of annual pretax family income to the poverty line. For example, families with pretax income two and one half times the poverty line would have a value of 2.50 for this measure.

Following a brief surge in family income from 1967 to 1973 for families with children in the bottom income quintile, the AFI income-to-poverty ratio has dropped from a high of 0.88 in 1973 to a low of 0.66 in 1991.[6] By contrast, incomes for families with children who were in the top income quintile grew substantially and steadily from average AFI's of 4.77 in 1967 to 7.20 in 1989, before reducing slightly to 6.81 in 1991.

Data for all five income quintiles, presented in Table ES 1.2, show income losses for the lowest quintile, a modest gain for the second quintile (from 1.54 to 1.73), and progressively larger gains for the remaining quintiles between 1967 and 1991. The same table also presents data separately for married couples with children and families headed by single mothers with children. For all time periods, families headed by single mothers had considerably less income than those headed by married couples. The basic patterns described above for all families hold by and large for both types of families, with several exceptions. First, married couple families experienced at least some income gains between 1967 and 1991 across all income quintiles, though gains were very modest for the lowest income quintile (from 0.89 to 1.06), and actually decreased from a high of 1.18 in 1979. Second, mother-headed families in the bottom two quintiles experienced little or no income gains between 1967 and 1991, and both have had substantially reduced incomes since 1979.

[6]These represent highs and lows only for the years indicated on Figure ES 1.2. Because these data were not available for every year, it is unknown whether they represent true highs and lows for the time period as a whole.

## Figure ES 1.2 AVERAGE PRETAX AFI (Income as a Multiple of Poverty) FOR ALL FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18, BOTTOM AND TOP INCOME QUINTILES




Note: Poverty thresholds are based on the 1989 distribution of family sizes, with no adjustment for the age of the head of household or the number of children. Quintiles are based on the number of persons.
Source: Congressional Budget Office tabulations of data from the March Current Population Survey, 1968, 1974, 1989, 1990, 1991, and 1992

**Table ES 1.2 AVERAGE PRETAX AFI (INCOME AS A MULTIPLE OF POVERTY) AMONG FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN, BY FAMILY TYPE AND INCOME QUINTILE, WEIGHTED BY PERSONS, 1967, 1973, 1979, 1989, 1990, AND 1991**

| Family type and Quintile | 1967 | 1973 | 1979 | 1989 | 1990 | 1991 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All families with children | | | | | | |
| Lowest Quintile | .74 | .88 | .84 | .74 | .71 | .66 |
| Second Quintile | 1.54 | 1.88 | 1.95 | 1.87 | 1.80 | 1.73 |
| Middle Quintile | 2.13 | 2.65 | 2.84 | 2.93 | 2.80 | 2.77 |
| Fourth Quintile | 2.84 | 3.54 | 3.85 | 4.14 | 4.00 | 3.98 |
| Highest Quintile | 4.77 | 5.73 | 6.15 | 7.20 | 6.94 | 6.81 |
| Total | 2.40 | 2.94 | 3.13 | 3.38 | 3.25 | 3.19 |
| Married couples with children | | | | | | |
| Lowest Quintile | .89 | 1.16 | 1.18 | 1.14 | 1.11 | 1.06 |
| Second Quintile | 1.66 | 2.12 | 2.29 | 2.34 | 2.26 | 2.24 |
| Middle Quintile | 2.23 | 2.84 | 3.12 | 3.34 | 3.22 | 3.23 |
| Fourth Quintile | 2.93 | 3.71 | 4.11 | 4.52 | 4.42 | 4.41 |
| Highest Quintile | 4.88 | 5.94 | 6.41 | 7.67 | 7.43 | 7.32 |
| Total | 2.52 | 3.15 | 3.42 | 3.80 | 3.69 | 3.65 |
| Single mothers with children | | | | | | |
| Lowest Quintile | .21 | .33 | .32 | .25 | .25 | .24 |
| Second Quintile | .59 | .71 | .75 | .64 | .61 | .59 |
| Middle Quintile | .91 | 1.03 | 1.22 | 1.14 | 1.09 | 1.03 |
| Fourth Quintile | 1.45 | 1.67 | 2.01 | 2.03 | 1.95 | 1.90 |
| Highest Quintile | 2.78 | 3.29 | 3.65 | 4.14 | 3.90 | 3.87 |
| Total | 1.19 | 1.41 | 1.59 | 1.64 | 1.56 | 1.52 |

Note: Poverty thresholds are based on the 1989 distribution of family sizes, with no adjustment for the age of the head of household or the number of children. Quintiles are based on the number of persons.

Source: Congressional Budget Office tabulations of data from the March Current Population Survey, 1968, 1974, 1980, 1990, 1991, and 1992.

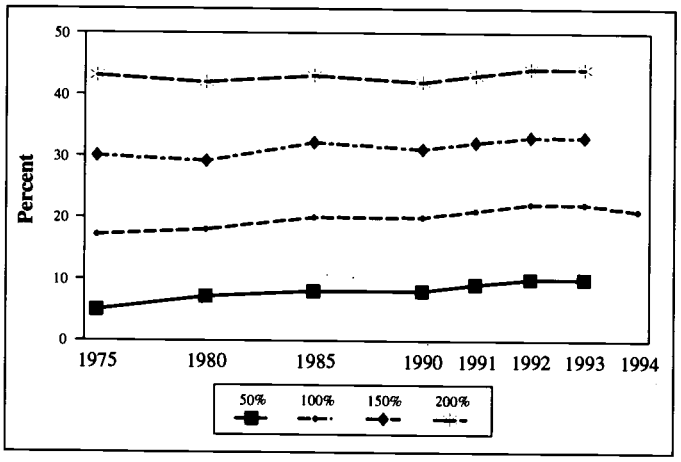
## ES 1.3 CHILDREN IN POVERTY

Being raised in poverty can have far reaching negative consequences for children. Being brought up at or near the poverty line ($15,141 for a family of four in 1994) means not only that a child has a much lower level of consumption than other children, but also that he or she is more likely than a nonpoor child to experience difficulties in school, to become a teen parent and, as an adult, to earn less and experience greater unemployment.

As shown in Figure ES 1.3.a, there has been a striking increase in the percentage of children raised in extreme poverty, that is, with family incomes less than one half the official poverty line, even though the percentage of children at or below 200 percent of the poverty line has hardly changed at all. As shown in the bottom line of the chart, the proportion of children at or below 50 percent of the poverty line[7] has doubled between 1975 (when the percentage was only 5 percent) and 1993 (when the percentage had increased to 10 percent). Less dramatic but still striking, the proportion of children at or below the poverty line increased by 47 percent between 1975 (when the percentage was only 15 percent) and 1993 (when the percentage had increased to 22 percent) before dropping to 21 percent in 1994 (the first decrease since 1988-1989). The proportion of children at or below 150 percent of the poverty line increased by only 13 percent (from 30 percent to 33 percent) between 1975 and 1993, and the proportion at or below 200 percent of the poverty line increased only slightly (from 43 percent to 44 percent).

[7]$7,570 for a family of four in 1994.

Figure ES1.3.A PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN FAMILIES LIVING BELOW SELECTED POVERTY LEVELS: 1975 - 1994




Source: Rates for 1975, 1980, and 1985 were calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 106, Tables 7; No. 133, Table 7; No. 158, Table 4. Rates for 1990 through 1993 are from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 175, No. 6; No. 188, and revised data for 1992 provided by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Poverty Branch.

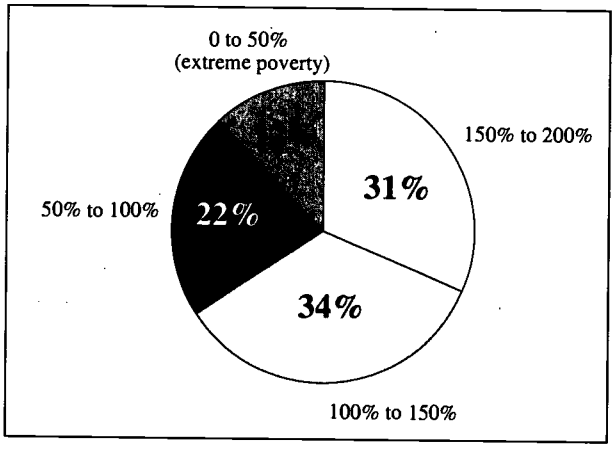
**Table ES 1.3.A PROPORTION OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 LIVING BELOW SELECTED POVERTY THRESHOLDS BY AGE AND RACE/HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1975 - 1994**

| | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Under 50% of Poverty | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children Under 18 | 5 | 7 | 8 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 10 | — |
| White | 4 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | — |
| Black | 14 | 17 | 22 | 22 | 25 | 27 | 26 | — |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 14 | 14 | 15 | 14 | — |
| Under 100% of Poverty | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children Under 18 | 15 | 17 | 18 | 20 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 21 |
| White | 11 | 13 | 13 | 16 | 15 | 16 | 17 | — |
| Black | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 46 | 46 | 46 | — |
| Hispanic | 33 | 33 | 40 | 38 | 40 | 39 | 40 | — |
| Under 150% of Poverty | — | | | | | | | |
| Related Children Under 18 | 30 | 29 | 32 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 33 | — |
| White | 24 | 24 | 26 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 27 | — |
| Black | 60 | 57 | 59 | 57 | 60 | 60 | 61 | — |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 55 | 58 | 58 | 60 | — |
| Under 200% of Poverty | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children Under 18 | 43 | 42 | 43 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 44 | — |
| White | 38 | 37 | 38 | 37 | 38 | 38 | 38 | — |
| Black | 73 | 70 | 71 | 68 | 70 | 71 | 72 | — |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 69 | 72 | 70 | 72 | — |

Note: The poverty level is based on money income and does not include noncash benefits, such as foods stamps. Poverty thresholds reflect family size and composition and are adjusted each year using the annual average Consumer Price Index (CPI) level. The average poverty threshold for a family of four was $13,924 in 1991 and $10,989 in 1985. The levels shown here are derived from the ratio of the family's income to the family's poverty threshold. For example, a child living under 125 percent of poverty is from a family with income above their poverty threshold but below 125 percent of their poverty threshold. If the family's poverty threshold was $10,000, under 125 percent of poverty would mean their income was between $10,000 and $12,500. Related children include biological children, stepchildren, and adopted children of the householder and all other children in the household related to the householder (or reference person) by blood, marriage, or adoption.

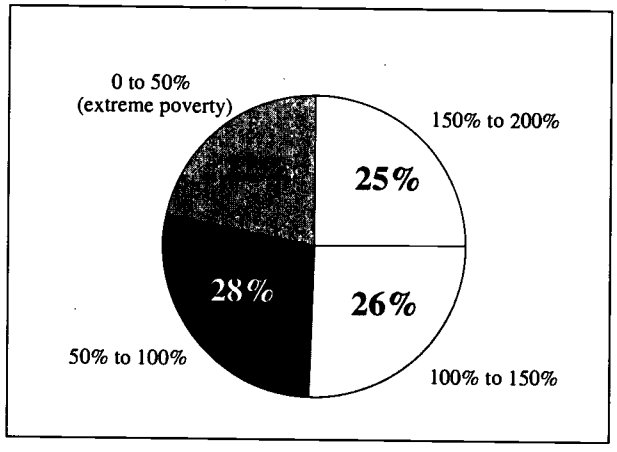
Source: Rates for 1975, 1980, and 1985 were calculated by Child Trends, Inc. based on data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 106, Table 7; No. 133, Table 7; No. 158, Table 4. Rates for 1990 through 1993 are from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 175, No. 185, No. 188, and revised data for 1992 provided by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Poverty Branch. Data for 1994 from unpublished tables supplied by the U.S. Bureau of the Census.

Figure ES 1.3.B CHILDREN IN EXTREME POVERTY AS PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN FAMILIES BELOW OR NEAR THE POVERTY LINE, 1975




Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 188.

FIGURE ES 1.3.C CHILDREN IN EXTREME POVERTY AS PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN FAMILIES BELOW OR NEAR THE POVERTY LINE, 1993




Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 188.

Table ES 1.3.B PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN POVERTY IN 1979 AND 1989 BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN

| | 1979 | 1989 |
|---|---|---|
| All Children under 18 | 16.0 | 18.3 |
| White | 11.0 | 12.5 |
| Black | 37.8 | 39.8 |
| Hispanic | 29.1 | 32.2 |
| Asian | 14.9 | 17.1 |
| Native American | 32.5 | 38.8 |

Note: The poverty level is based on money income and does not include noncash benefits, such as foods stamps. Poverty thresholds reflect family size and composition and are adjusted each year using the annual average Consumer Price Index (CPI) level.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *1980 Census of the Population*, "Detailed Population Characteristics", PC-80-1-D1-A, United States Summary, Table 304. Population Reference Bureau analysis of the Bureau of the Census, *Census of the Population and Housing 1990*, Summary Tape File 3, Tables P-117, P-119, and P-120.

## ES 1.3 CHILDREN IN POVERTY (continued)

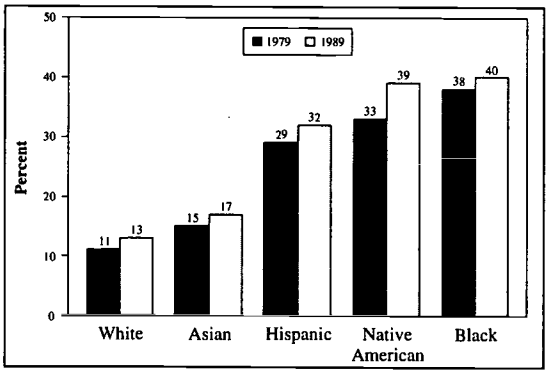
Another way to understand what has happened is to focus on the population of all children living in poor or near-poor families with incomes no more than 200 percent of the poverty line. As shown in Figure ES 1.3.b, in 1975 children raised in extreme poverty (below 50 percent of the poverty line) made up only 12 percent of this poor or near-poor population, while nearly two-thirds of this population fell into the near-poor category. However, as shown in Figure ES 1.3.c, by 1993, children raised in extreme poverty made up 22 percent of the poor or near-poor children. Conversely, only half of this population consisted of children between 100 percent and 200 percent of the poverty line.

There are no differences by race or Hispanic origin in the *trends* described above, as shown in Table ES 1.3.a, even though the incidence of poverty is consistently highest for blacks and lowest for whites. The increase in the percentage of children raised in extreme poverty has occurred for all three groups, while the percentage of children at or below 200 percent of the poverty line has hardly changed at all.

Taking a more detailed look at poverty by race and Hispanic origin, as shown in Figure ES 1.3.d, the incidence of poverty is lowest by far for white children and highest for black and Native American children.[8] While the incidence of poverty grew noticeably between 1979 and 1989 for all groups, the differences between the groups remained stable. For white children the percentage in poverty was 13 percent in 1989. The incidence of poverty for Asian children was nearly a third higher than for white children—17 percent in 1989. In 1989, 32 percent of Hispanic children were living in poverty—a rate 2.6 times as high as for white children. Poverty was still more pervasive among black and Native American children. In 1989, the poverty rate for black children was 40 percent, while the poverty rate for Native American children was 39 percent. Thus, both black children and Native American children were more than three times as likely as white children to be living in poverty in 1989.

[8]These poverty estimates are based on Decennial Census data rather than the Current Population Survey data presented in other tables. Estimates from the two sources may not match.

**Figure ES 1.3.D PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN POOR FAMILIES, BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1979 AND 1989**




Source: Rates for 1975, 1980, and 1985 were calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 106, Table 7; No. 133, Table 7; No. 158, Table 4. Rates for 1990 through 1993 are from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 175, Table 6; No. 185, Table 6; No. 188, Table 8; and revised data for the 1992 provided by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Poverty Branch

**Table ES 1.3.C PROPORTION OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 LIVING BELOW THE POVERTY LEVEL BY FAMILY TYPE, AGE, RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1960 TO 1993**

| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Types of Families | | | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children under 18 | 27 | 21 | 15 | 17 | 18 | 20 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 22 |
| White | 20 | 14 | 11 | 13 | 13 | 16 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 17 |
| Black | — | — | 42 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 46 | 46 | 46 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | 33 | 40 | 38 | 40 | 39 | 40 |
| Related Children under 6 | — | — | 17 | 18 | 20 | 23 | 23 | 24 | 26 | 26 |
| White | — | — | 12 | 14 | 16 | 18 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 20 |
| Black | — | — | 42 | 41 | 46 | 47 | 51 | 51 | 53 | 52 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | 34 | 41 | 40 | 44 | 43 | 43 |
| Related Children 6 to 17 | — | — | 14 | 16 | 17 | 19 | 18 | 20 | 19 | 20 |
| White | — | — | 10 | 12 | 12 | 14 | 14 | 15 | 15 | 15 |
| Black | — | — | 41 | 42 | 40 | 41 | 41 | 43 | 43 | 43 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | 32 | 39 | 36 | 37 | 37 | 38 |
| Married Couple Families | | | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children under 18 | — | — | — | — | — | — | 10 | 11 | 11 | 12 |
| White | — | — | — | — | — | — | 9 | 10 | 10 | 11 |
| Black | — | — | — | — | — | — | 18 | 15 | 18 | 18 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | — | — | 27 | 29 | 29 | 30 |
| Related Children under 6 | — | — | — | — | — | — | 12 | 12 | 13 | 13 |
| White | — | — | — | — | — | — | 11 | 11 | 12 | 13 |
| Black | — | — | — | — | — | — | 20 | 17 | 22 | 20 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | — | — | 28 | 33 | 32 | 33 |
| Related Children 6 to 17 | — | — | — | — | — | — | 10 | 10 | 10 | 11 |
| White | — | — | — | — | — | — | 8 | 9 | 9 | 10 |
| Black | — | — | — | — | — | — | 17 | 14 | 16 | 17 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | — | — | 25 | 26 | 26 | 28 |
| Female Headed Families | | | | | | | | | | |
| Related Children under 18 | 68 | 61 | 53 | 53 | 51 | 54 | 53 | 56 | 55 | 54 |
| White | 60 | 53 | 43 | 44 | 42 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 46 | 46 |
| Black | — | — | 68 | 66 | 65 | 67 | 65 | 68 | 67 | 66 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | 65 | 72 | 68 | 69 | 66 | 66 |
| Related Children under 6 | — | — | 64 | 62 | 65 | 66 | 66 | 66 | 66 | 64 |
| White | — | — | 59 | 59 | 60 | 59 | 60 | 60 | 61 | 58 |
| Black | — | — | 71 | 67 | 72 | 75 | 73 | 74 | 73 | 72 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | 70 | 78 | 77 | 74 | 72 | 72 |
| Related Children 6 to 17 | — | — | 49 | 49 | 46 | 48 | 47 | 50 | 49 | 49 |
| White | — | — | 38 | 40 | 36 | 40 | 39 | 41 | 39 | 40 |
| Black | — | — | 66 | 66 | 62 | 63 | 60 | 65 | 64 | 62 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | 62 | 70 | 64 | 65 | 62 | 63 |

Note: The poverty level is based on money income and does not include noncash benefits, such as foods stamps. Poverty thresholds reflect family size and composition and are adjusted each year using the annual average Consumer Price Index (CPI) level. The average poverty threshold for a family of four was $13,924 in 1991 and $10,989 in 1985. Related children include biological children, stepchildren, and adopted children of the householder and all other children in the household related to the householder (or reference person) by blood, marriage, or adoption.

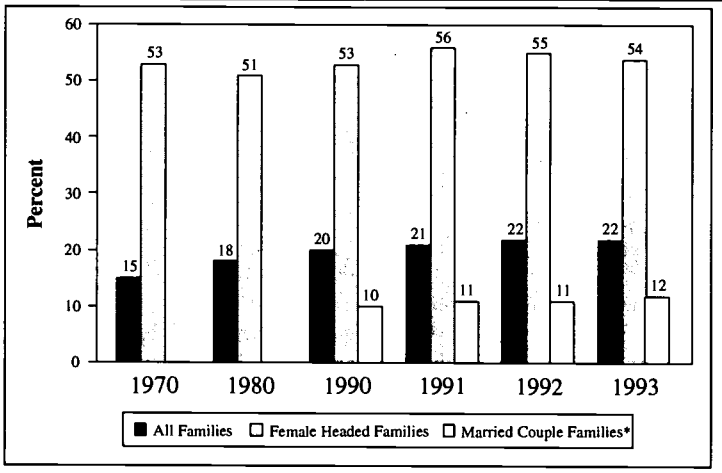
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60 No. 81, Table 4 No. 86, Table 1; P-60, No. 106, Table 11; No. 133, Table 11; No. 158, Table 7; No. 175, Table 6; No. 181, Table 5; No. 188, Table 8, and revised data for 1992 provided by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Poverty Branch.

## ES 1.3 CHILDREN IN POVERTY (continued)

The chances of a child experiencing poverty are strongly influenced by the type of family he or she lives in. As shown in Figure ES 1.3.e, throughout the period from 1970 through 1993, just over half of the children living in female-headed families were poor. In contrast, during the 1990s,[9] only about 10 percent of children living in married-couple families were poor. However, from 1970 to 1993 the number of female-headed families with children nearly tripled from 3.4 million families to 9.3 million families, while the number of two-parent families with children actually declined from 25.8 million to 25.2 million. This shift in family structure is reflected in the increase in overall child poverty rates from 15 percent to 22 percent during that period of time.

[9]The only period for which these statistics are published.

### Figure ES 1.3.E PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN POOR FAMILIES BY FAMILY TYPE




Note: *Data not available for children in married couple families before 1990.

Source: U.S. Bureau of Census, Series P-60 No. 81, Table 4 No. 86, Table 1; P-60, No. 106, Table 11; No. 133, Table 11; No. 158, Table 7; No. 175, Table 6; No. 181, Table 5; No. 188, Table 8, and revised data for 1992 provided by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Poverty Branch.

## Table ES 1.3.D PROPORTION OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 LIVING BELOW 50 PERCENT OF THE POVERTY LEVEL BY FAMILY TYPE, AGE , RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1975 TO 1993

| | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Types of Families | | | | | | | |
| Related Children under 18 | 5 | 7 | 8 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 10 |
| White | 4 | 5 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| Black | 14 | 17 | 22 | 22 | 25 | 27 | 26 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 14 | 14 | 15 | 14 |
| Related Children under 6 | 6 | 8 | 10 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 12 |
| White | 4 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 8 |
| Black | 14 | 22 | 26 | 27 | 31 | 32 | 31 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 12 | 14 | 13 | 12 |
| Related Children 6 to 17 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 8 |
| White | 4 | 4 | 5 | 5 | 5 | 6 | 5 |
| Black | 15 | 15 | 19 | 20 | 22 | 24 | 23 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 12 | 14 | 13 | 12 |
| Married Couple Families | | | | | | | |
| Related Children under 18 | — | — | — | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| White | — | — | — | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Black | — | — | — | 4 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 7 | 8 | 9 | 7 |
| Related Children under 6 | — | — | — | 3 | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| White | — | — | — | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 |
| Black | — | — | — | 4 | 7 | 9 | 8 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 8 | 8 | 10 | 8 |
| Related Children 6 to 17 | — | — | — | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| White | — | — | — | 2 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Black | — | — | — | 4 | 5 | 7 | 6 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 6 | 8 | 8 | 7 |
| Female Headed Families | | | | | | | |
| Related Children under 18 | 19 | 22 | 26 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 29 |
| White | 15 | 16 | 19 | 22 | 22 | 23 | 21 |
| Black | 26 | 31 | 38 | 37 | 40 | 41 | 40 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 32 | 31 | 31 | 30 |
| Related Children under 6 | 24 | 32 | 35 | 37 | 37 | 39 | 36 |
| White | 24 | 25 | 27 | 32 | 31 | 33 | 30 |
| Black | 25 | 40 | 47 | 44 | 46 | 47 | 45 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 39 | 34 | 36 | 36 |
| Related Children 6 to 17 | 18 | 18 | 22 | 23 | 25 | 26 | 25 |
| White | 13 | 13 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 18 | 17 |
| Black | 26 | 27 | 33 | 33 | 37 | 38 | 37 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | 28 | 30 | 27 | 26 |

Note: The poverty level is based on money income and does not include noncash benefits, such as foods stamps. Poverty thresholds reflect family size and composition and are adjusted each year using the annual average Consumer Price Index (CPI) level. The average poverty threshold for a family of four was $13,924 in 1991 and $10,989 in 1985. The extreme poverty level shown here is derived from the ratio of the familyís income to the familyís poverty threshold. If the familyís poverty threshold was $10,000, under 50 percent of poverty would mean their income was under $5,000. Related children include biological children, stepchildren, and adopted children of the householder and all other children in the household related to the householder (or reference person) by blood, marriage, or adoption.

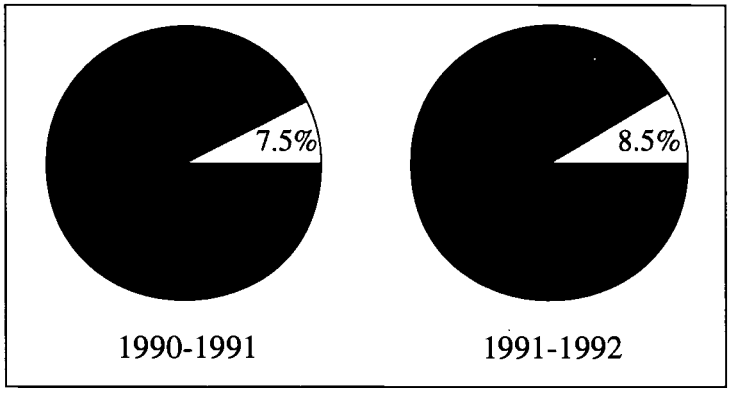
Source: Rates for 1975, 1980, and 1985 were calculated by Child Trends, Inc. based on data from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 106, Table 7; No. 133, Table 7; No. 158, Table 4. Rates for 1990 through 1993 are from the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-60, No. 175, Table 6; No. 185, Table 6; No. 188, Table 8; and revised data for 1992 provided by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, Poverty Branch .

## ES 1.4 SUSTAINED CHILD POVERTY

Very often poverty is a short term experience lasting a matter of months to a year. Though poverty for any length of time can be problematic, sustained or long term poverty is the more substantial threat to the long term well-being of children.

Figure ES 1.4 shows the proportion of all children under age 18 who were continuously poor for 24 months in 1990 and 1991, and in 1991 and 1992. While the annual poverty rates for children during these years were around 20 percent, rates of continuous two-year poverty were 7.5 percent in 1990-1991, and increased somewhat to 8.5 percent for 1991-1992. Put another way, one in every twelve American children in the early 1990s were continuously poor over a two year period.

**Figure ES 1.4 SUSTAINED CHILD POVERTY: PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO WERE POOR IN EVERY MONTH OVER A TWO-YEAR PERIOD**




Source: Shea, M. 1995. Dynamics of Economic Well-Being: 1990 to 1992 Current Population Reports Series P70-42. Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of the Census. Shea, M. 1995. Dynamics of Economic Well-Being: 1991 to 1993. Current Population Reports, Series P70-45. Washington, DC: Bureau of the Census.

**Table ES 1.4 SUSTAINED CHILD POVERTY: PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO WERE POOR IN EVERY MONTH OVER A TWO-YEAR PERIOD**

| | 1990-1991 | 1991-1992 |
|---|---|---|
| All children under 18 | 7.5 | 8.5 |

Source: Shea, M. 1995. Dynamics of Economic Well-being: 1990-1992. Current Population Reports Series P70-42. Washington, DC: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

## ES 1.5 LIFETIME CHILDHOOD POVERTY

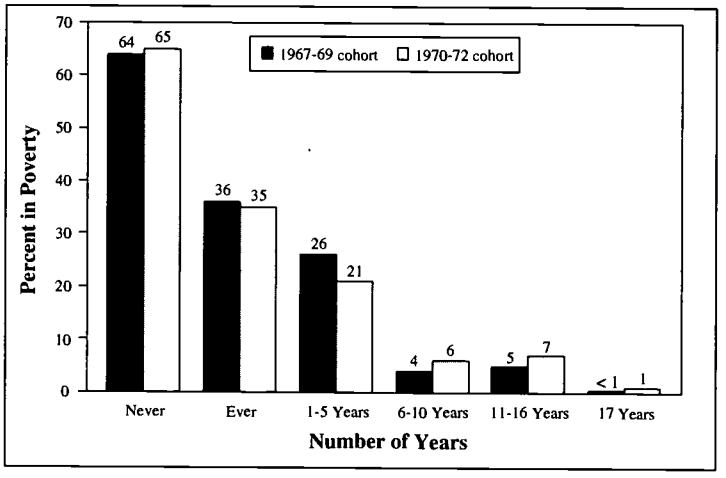
The majority of children never experience poverty while growing up, and among those who do, most are in poverty for only a small portion of their childhood. Many children, however, and particularly many black children, spend a large proportion of their formative years living in poverty, with correspondingly negative consequences for their development and well-being.[10]

As shown in Figure ES 1.5.a, although 64 percent of all children who turned age 18 between 1985 and 1987 were never poor, 10 percent were poor for six or more years by age 17. Five percent were poor for eleven or more years, and 1 percent for all 17 years. Children born three years later show a similar pattern, though they were somewhat more likely to have been poor for a greater number of years, with 14 percent poor for six or more years, and 8 percent poor for eleven or more years.

As shown in Figure ES 1.5.b, there are large racial differences in the risk of experiencing long-term poverty in childhood. Of the nonblack children who turned age 18 between 1988 and 1990, 73 percent never experienced poverty while growing up, and about 8 percent were poor for six or more years. By contrast, nearly one half (47 percent) of all black children in that cohort were poor for six or more years, 28 percent for eleven or more years, and 6 percent for all seventeen years of their childhoods.

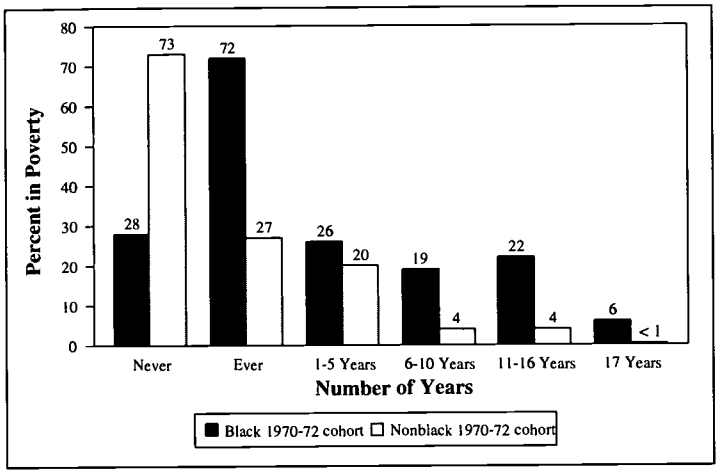
[10]Duncan, G. 1995. "Longitudinal Indicators of Children's Poverty and Dependence". Institute for Research on Poverty Special Report Series, SR#60b.

### Figure ES 1.5.A PERCENT OF CHILDREN IN POVERTY BY NUMBER OF YEARS IN POVERTY AND COHORT




Source: Calculations by Greg J. Duncan, based on data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

**Figure E S1.5.B PERCENT OF CHILDREN IN POVERTY BY NUMBER OF YEARS IN POVERTY BY RACE, FOR COHORT AGE 18 IN 1988 - 90**




Source: Calculations by Greg J. Duncan, based on data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

**Table ES 1.5 PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN IN POVERTY BY NUMBER OF YEARS IN POVERTY DURING CHILDHOOD, BIRTH YEAR, AND RACE**

| | Number of Years in Poverty | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Never | Ever | 1-5 yrs | 6-10 yrs | 11-16 yrs | 17 yrs |
| Turned Age 18 in 1985-1987 (1967-69 cohort) | | | | | | |
| All children | 64 | 36 | 26 | 4 | 5 | 1 |
| Black | 24 | 76 | 38 | 14 | 19 | 4 |
| Nonblack | 71 | 30 | 24 | 2 | 3 | * |
| Turned Age 18 in 1988-1990 (1970-72 cohort) | | | | | | |
| All Children | 65 | 35 | 21 | 6 | 7 | 1 |
| Black | 28 | 72 | 26 | 19 | 22 | 6 |
| Nonblack | 73 | 27 | 20 | 4 | 4 | * |

Note: The percentages under "number of years in poverty" sum to the proportion "ever" in poverty for each subgroup.
* = less than 1 percent.

Source: Calculations by Greg J. Duncan, based on data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

## ES 1.6 CHILD SUPPORT NONPAYMENT

The issue of child support has gained in importance in recent years. As rates of divorce and non-marital birth have risen, an increasing proportion of children and their custodial parents must depend on this source of income for financial support, and suffer correspondingly when it is not forthcoming. In addition, when noncustodial parents do not support their children financially, it is often left to the government to step in and provide support in the form of AFDC, Food Stamps, and other forms of assistance.

In many cases, and particularly where nonmarital births are concerned, families who should be receiving child support from the noncustodial parent lack a court order that established how much is owed. Among those who do have court orders, over 49 percent do not receive all of the money they are owed in a given year.[11]

Table ES 1.6 shows the proportion of families who had court orders for child support but received no support at all for selected years between 1978 and 1991. Estimates are presented for all eligible families, and separately for population subgroups defined by marital status (married, divorced, separated, and never married) and race/ethnicity (white, black, and Hispanic). During that time period, the proportion of all eligible families who received no support whatsoever ranged between 21 and 28 percent. It appears that rates of nonpayment decreased somewhat from 1978 to 1985 from 28 to 21 percent, only to rise to about 25 percent by the end of the decade. This general historical pattern is consistent across all marital status and race/ethnic population subgroups represented in the table.

Women who are separated or never married are substantially less likely to have court orders for child support than those who are divorced, or who have remarried. Once a court order is established, however, the rates of nonpayment appear to be fairly similar across all marital status groups. In 1991, for example, rates of nonpayment ranged from about 24 percent for divorced women to 28 percent for never married women.[12] In most years, eligible white families experienced lower rates of nonpayment than either black or Hispanic families. For example, in 1991, the most recent year for which estimates are available, the percent of eligible families receiving no payment was 23 percent for whites, 31 percent for blacks, and 35 percent for Hispanics.

Some custodial parents receive their child support payments directly from the non-custodial parent or that parent's place of employment. Other parents use the Child Support Enforcement program, authorized under title IV-D of the Social Security Act, to establish and enforce child support orders. Families receiving AFDC and Medicaid benefits are required to cooperate with the Child Support Enforcement agency. Other families may request these services. Since fiscal year 1992 collections made by child support enforcement agencies have increased by nearly 40 percent, from $8 billion in fiscal year 1992 to $11 billion in fiscal year 1995. For the same period, paternity establishments increased over 40 percent and child support orders increased 16 percent.

[11] *Child Support for Custodial Mothers and Fathers.* Current Population Reports Series P60. No. 187.

[12] In some years rates of nonpayment appear to be substantially smaller for women who were separated or never married than for those who are divorced or remarried, but estimates for the former groups are based on small samples sizes which are subject to greater error. Disparities in sample size may account for the apparent cross-group differences in those years. (*See*, for example, years 1983, 1985, and 1987)

**Table ES 1.6 CHILD SUPPORT NONPAYMENT: PERCENT OF ELIGIBLE WOMEN WHO ARE NOT RECEIVING CHILD SUPPORT.**

| | 1978 | 1981 | 1983 | 1985 | 1987 | 1989 | 1991[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 28 | 23 | 24 | 21 | 24 | 25 | 25 |
| Marital Status | | | | | | | |
| Married | 32 | 25 | 28 | 24 | 27 | 28 | 25 |
| Divorced | 27 | 23 | 24 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
| Separated | 27 | 16 | 13 | 12 | 26 | 20 | 26 |
| Never Married | 19 | 27 | 24 | 20 | 17 | 27 | 28 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | |
| White | 27 | 23 | 23 | 21 | 23 | 24 | 23 |
| Black | 37 | 23 | 31 | 22 | 27 | 30 | 31 |
| Hispanic | 35 | 29 | 38 | 26 | 25 | 30 | 35 |

Note: [a]Estimates for 1991 were produced using somewhat different assumptions then in previous years, and should not be contrasted with earlier estimates.

Eligible Families are those with court orders for child support.

Source: 1978-1987 data from Child Support and Alimony, Series P23, Nos. 112, 140, 141, 154, and 167. Data for 1989 from Current Population Reports Series P60, No. 173. Data for 1991 from Current Population Reports Series P60, No. 187.

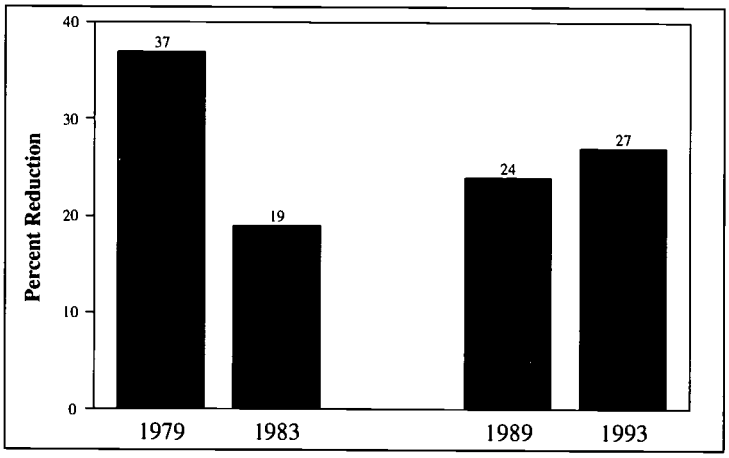
## ES 2.1 IMPACT OF GOVERNMENT CASH AND NEAR-CASH TRANSFER PROGRAMS ON POVERTY AMONG PERSONS LIVING IN FAMILIES WITH OWN CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18

The federal system of cash and near-cash transfers plays a substantial role in reducing the poverty rate of children from year to year.[13] Their collective impact has varied significantly over time, however. Figure ES 2.1 shows the percent reduction in poverty among persons in families with related children under age 18 that is attributable to these transfers. Data are presented for selected years from 1979 to 1993. In 1979 federal cash and near cash transfers produced a 37 percent reduction in poverty among this population. Just four years later in 1983, the same transfer programs produced only a 19 percent reduction in poverty. In 1989 the percent poverty reduction rose to 24 percent, and rose again to 27 percent in 1993.

Not surprisingly, of all the federal cash and near cash transfers considered in Table ES 2.1 only the federal tax system did not serve to reduce poverty among persons in families with related children under age 18. In most years, the net impact of the federal tax system was to increase the poverty rate. In 1993, however, the most recent year for which such data were available, the impact of the tax system on the number of such persons in poverty was neutral.

[13]Federal cash and near-cash transfers include social security, social insurance other than social security, all means-tested cash transfers, food and housing benefits, and federal income and payroll taxes.

Figure ES 2.1 PERCENT REDUCTION IN THE NUMBER OF INDIVIDUALS IN FAMILIES WITH OWN CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO ARE POOR, RESULTING FROM FEDERAL CASH AND NEAR-CASH TRANSFERS




Note: Cash and Near-cash transfer include social security, means-tested cash transfers, food and housing benefits, social insurance, and federal taxes.

Source: Congressional Budget Office computations using the CBO tax model, with data from the March Current Population Survey, 1980, 1984, 1990, and 1994. Table prepared by staff from the Department of Health and Human Services, Assistant Secretary for Planning Evaluation.

**Table ES 2.1 ANTIPOVERTY EFFECTIVENESS OF CASH AND NEAR-CASH TRANSFERS (including Federal Income and Payroll Taxes) FOR ALL INDIVIDUALS IN FAMILIES WITH RELATED CHILDREN LESS THAN AGE 18.**

| | 1979 | 1983 | 1989 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total population (in thousands) | 133,435 | 132,123 | 135,430 | 144,551 |
| Poverty rate (in percent): | | | | |
| Cash income before transfers | 16.6 | 21.9 | 18.6 | 22.3 |
| Plus social Insurance (other than Social Security) | 15.8 | 20.4 | 18.0 | 21.4 |
| Plus Social Security | 14.3 | 19.1 | 16.8 | 20.0 |
| Plus means-tested cash transfers | 12.9 | 18.4 | 15.8 | 18.7 |
| Plus food and housing benefits | 10.2 | 16.5 | 13.6 | 16.4 |
| Less Federal taxes | 10.5 | 17.7 | 14.1 | 16.4 |
| Total percent reduction in poverty rate | 36.6 | 19.1 | 23.9 | 26.5 |

Source: Congressional Budget Office computations using the CBO tax model, with data from the March Current Population Survey, 1980, 1984, 1990, and 1994. Table prepared by staff from the Department of Health and Human Services, Assistant Secretary for Planning Evaluation.

## ES 2.2 CURRENT WELFARE RECEIPT: AFDC[14] AND FOOD STAMPS

Many poor children are dependent on Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) and the Food Stamp program to meet basic material needs. AFDC is a Federal and state cash assistance program targeted to needy children, and to certain others in the household of such a child.[15] Eligibility rules for AFDC can vary substantially across states. The Food Stamp program provides in-kind support to low-income households to allow households to purchase the food stuffs for a nutritionally adequate low-cost diet. Eligibility for the program is consistent across all states with limited variations in Alaska, Hawaii, and the territories. Families receiving AFDC are generally automatically eligible for food stamps.

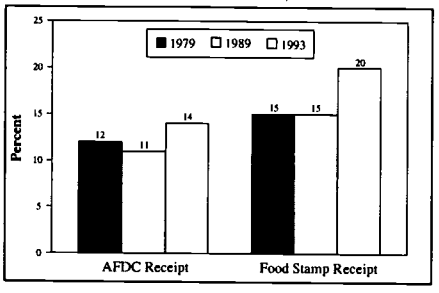
Figure ES 2.2 presents trends in the percentage of children in families receiving welfare (AFDC or other welfare), and in households receiving food stamps, for 1979, 1989, and 1993 based on survey data. In 1979, 12 percent of all children lived in families receiving at least some welfare. The rate decreased to 11 percent in 1989, but by 1993 had increased to 14 percent. The numbers of children in families receiving welfare were 7.2 million in 1979 and 7.1 million in 1989, increasing to 9.4 million by 1993. (*See* Table ES 2.2.a) Administrative data produce slightly different estimates. They show a similar rise in the number of children receiving AFDC between 1985 and 1994 (*See* Table ES 2.2C). After peaking at 9.6 million in 1994, however, the number of children on AFDC dropped in 1995 to 9.4 million or 13.4 percent of the child population.

A similar trend is evident where food stamp receipt is concerned. In 1979 and 1989, survey data show that 15 percent of all children lived in households receiving food stamps. The proportion increased to 20 percent, or one in five children, by 1993. In that year nearly 14.2 million children lived in households receiving food stamps, up from 9.7 million in 1989. (*See* Table ES 2.2.b) This represents a 46 percent increase in the number of children in households receiving food stamps over that four year period. Administrative data for Food Stamps also produce slightly different estimates. They show a rise in number of children receiving Food Stamps during the late 1980s and early 1990s, followed by a recent decline. The number of children receiving Food Stamps grew from 9.4 million in 1985 to 14.5 million in 1993. In 1994, the number declined to just under 14 million, or 20.2 percent of the child population.

[14]Welfare includes AFDC and "General Assistance".

[15]Needy children include those "who have been deprived of parental support or care because their father or mother is absent from the home continuously, is incapacitated, is deceased or is unemployed.". In *Overview of Entitlement Programs: 1994 Green Book*, Committee on Ways and Means, U.S. House of Representatives.

### Figure ES 2.2 PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 LIVING IN FAMILIES RECEIVING AFDC (or general assistance), AND IN HOUSEHOLDS RECEIVING FOOD STAMPS




Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on analyses of March 1980, 1990, and 1994 Current Population Surveys.

**Table ES 2.2.A PERCENT AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN FAMILIES RECEIVING AFDC OR GENERAL ASSISTANCE**

| | 1979 | 1989 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC or General Assistance | | | |
| Number | 7,227,985 | 7,115,505 | 9,439,524 |
| Percent | 12 | 11 | 14 |

Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on analyses of the March 1980, 1990, and 1994 Current Population Surveys.

**Table ES 2..2.B PERCENT AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN HOUSEHOLDS RECEIVING FOOD STAMPS**

| | 1979 | 1989 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Food Stamps | | | |
| Number | 9,336,235 | 9,695,722 | 14,192,977 |
| Percent | 15 | 15 | 20 |

Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on analyses of the March 1980, 1990, and 1994 Current Population Surveys.

**Table ES 2..2.C PERCENT AND NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 RECEIVING AFDC OR FOOD STAMPS ACCORDING TO ADMINISTRATIVE RECORDS (number of children in thousands)**

| | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 (est) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| AFDC | | | | | | | |
| Number | 7,041 | 7,620 | 8,375 | 9,087 | 9,239 | 9,596 | 9,393 |
| Percent | 11.4 | 11.9 | 12.9 | 13.5 | 13.6 | 13.9 | 13.4 |
| Food Stamps | | | | | | | |
| Number | 9,425 | 10,244 | 12,610 | 13,515 | 14,486 | 13,969 | — |
| Percent | 15.2 | 16.0 | 19.4 | 20.1 | 21.3 | 20.2 | — |

Sources: AFDC information drawn from unpublished data, Administration for Children and Families, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. 1995 estimate calculated by Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation. Food Stamps information drawn from calculations by the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, based on unpublished data from the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Service.

## ES 2.3 LIFETIME WELFARE DEPENDENCE[16]

Chronic welfare receipt is a major concern of policy makers of all political persuasions because of the costs to society and out of a concern that long-term welfare receipt may have a negative impact on adult recipients and their children.

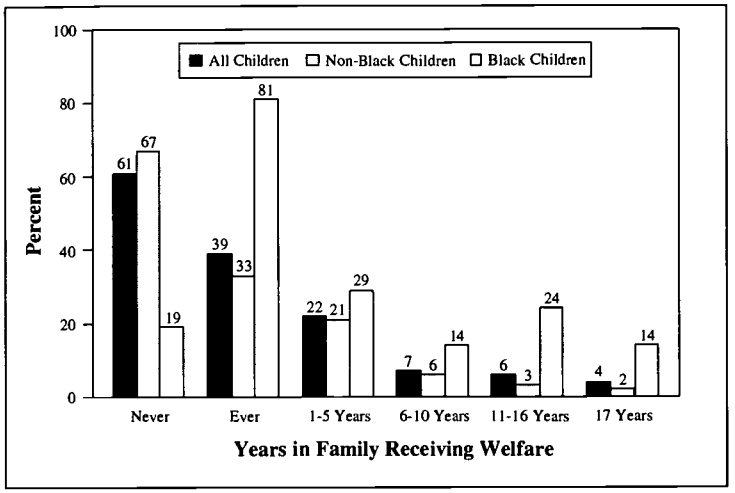
Figure ES 2.3 and Table ES 2.3 present estimates of the lifetime experience of family welfare receipt for children from birth through age seventeen. Data presented in Figure ES 2.3 indicate that family welfare receipt at some point during childhood is a common experience affecting 39 percent of all children, 33 percent of nonblack children, and 81 percent of the black children born between 1973 and 1975. Long-term welfare receipt was considerably less common: 10 percent of all children lived in families receiving welfare for eleven or more years of their childhood, and 4 percent lived in families that received welfare for all seventeen years of their childhood.

For black children, however, long term welfare receipt was a considerably more common experience than among the general population of children. Of all black children born in the years 1973-1975, 38 percent spent eleven or more years of their childhood living in families receiving welfare. Some 14 percent spent all 17 years of their childhood in families receiving welfare. This contrasts with the experience of non-black children of whom only five percent spent eleven or more years of their childhood in families receiving welfare.

Table ES 2.3 presents data for three cohorts of children born in 1967-79, 1970-72, and 1973-75. The data show two contrasting trends in the lifetime experience of welfare receipt among children. First, there appears to be a small increase in the proportion of children whose families never received welfare from 57 percent to 61 percent across the three age cohorts. This trend is also evident for black children, where the proportion whose families never received welfare increased from 12 percent to 19 percent. At the same time, however, there is also an increase in the percentage of children who lived in families receiving welfare throughout childhood, from 1 percent in the 1967-1969 cohort to 4 percent for the 1973-1975 cohort. The increase is even more substantial among black children, from 5 percent to 14 percent across the two cohorts. These two trends indicate some polarization of the life experience of children in which a greater proportion are growing up in families who are chronically dependent on welfare even while an increasing proportion of children live in families that manage to avoid welfare altogether.

[16]For this indicator, "welfare" has been defined to include Aid to Families with Dependent Children, Food Stamps, Supplemental Security Income, and "other welfare," which includes local General Assistance.

Figure ES 2.3 LIFETIME EXPERIENCE OF WELFARE, RECEIPT THROUGH AGE 17: 1973 - 1975 COHORT




Note: Welfare included AFDC, Food Stamps and SSI or "other welfare".

Source: Calculations by Greg J. Duncan, based on data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

Table ES 2.3 PERCENT OF CHILDREN RECEIVING WELFARE BY NUMBER OF YEARS ON WELFARE DURING CHILDHOOD BY BIRTH YEAR AND RACE

| | | | Number of Years on Welfare | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Never | Ever | 1-5 yrs | 6-10 yrs | 11-16 yrs | 17 yrs |
| Birth Year 1967- 1969 | | | | | | |
| All children | 57 | 43 | 27 | 8 | 7 | 1 |
| Black | 12 | 88 | 22 | 31 | 30 | 5 |
| Nonblack | 64 | 36 | 28 | 5 | 3 | 0 |
| Birth Year 1970-1972 | | | | | | |
| All Children | 58 | 43 | 21 | 9 | 9 | 3 |
| Black | 19 | 81 | 15 | 27 | 28 | 12 |
| Nonblack | 65 | 35 | 22 | 6 | 5 | 2 |
| Birth Year 1973-1975 | | | | | | |
| All Children | 61 | 39 | 22 | 7 | 6 | 4 |
| Black | 19 | 81 | 29 | 14 | 24 | 14 |
| Nonblack | 67 | 33 | 21 | 6 | 3 | 2 |

Note: Welfare includes AFDC, Food Stamps and SSI or "other welfare, which includes local General Assistance". The percentages under "number of years on welfare" sum to the proportion "ever in poverty" for each subgroup.

Source: Calculations by Greg J. Duncan, based on data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSID), Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.

## ES 3.1 PERCENT OF CHILDREN WITH BOTH OR ONLY RESIDENT PARENT IN THE LABOR FORCE

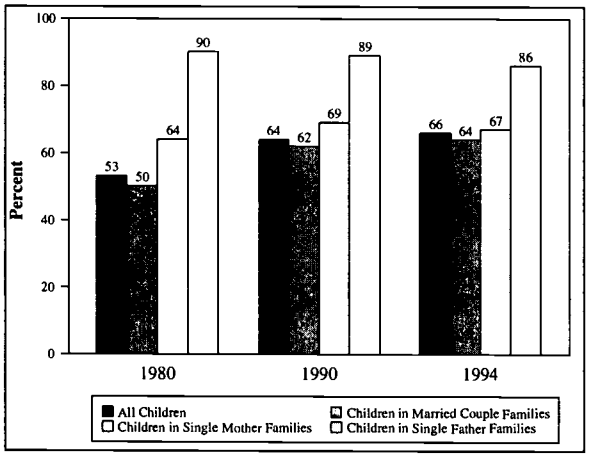
Over the last three decades there has been a rise in the proportion of single parent families, and in the proportion of mothers who work regardless of marital status.[17] These factors have acted to reduce the percent of children who have a parent at home full time. Figure ES 3.1 presents data on the percent of children who have all resident parents participating in the labor force at some level for the years 1980, 1990, and 1994. Between 1980 and 1990, rates for all children under age 18 increased from 53 percent to 64 percent. During the early 1990s the percentage rose at a more modest rate, to 66 percent by 1994. Increases were highest among children in married couple families, from 50 percent in 1980 to 64 percent in 1994. Children in single mother families saw much smaller increases over the same time period, from 64 percent to 67 percent. Contrary to the general trend, children in single father families actually experienced a slight decline over this period from 90 percent to 86 percent.

Children under age 6 experienced larger increases than those ages 6-17 in this indicator from 1980 to 1994. Rates increased 16 percentage points (44 percent to 60 percent) for younger children compared to 12 percentage points for children ages 6-17 (57 percent to 69 percent). (*See* Table ES 3.1) During that same time period, whites experienced a 13 percentage point increase (53 to 66 percent); blacks an 8 percentage point increase (58 to 66 percent); and Hispanics also experienced an 8 percentage point increase (44 to 52 percent).

In 1994, the proportion of children who had both or only resident parent in the labor force was similar for those in married couple and single mother families at 64 percent and 67 percent, respectively. (See Table ES 3.1) Rates were substantially higher for children in single father families, at 86 percent. Across race/ethnicity groups, whites and blacks had identical rates of 66 percent, while Hispanic children had lower a lower rate of 52 percent.

[17]Bianchi, S. M. 1995. "Changing Economic Roles of Women and Men" in *State of the Union: American in the 1990s: Volume I.* Reynolds Farley (ed.). New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1995.

## Figure ES 3.1 PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WITH BOTH OR ONLY RESIDENT PARENT IN THE LABOR FORCE




Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on analyses of the March 1980, 1990, and 1994 Current Population Surveys.

Table ES 3.1 PERCENT OF CHILDREN WITH BOTH OR ONLY RESIDENT PARENT IN THE LABOR FORCE

| | 1980 | 1990 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|
| All children | 53 | 64 | 66 |
| < age 6 | 44 | 58 | 60 |
| 6-17 | 57 | 68 | 69 |
| Family Type | | | |
| Married couple | 50 | 62 | 64 |
| < age 6 | 42 | 55 | 58 |
| 6-17 | 54 | 65 | 68 |
| Single mother | 64 | 69 | 67 |
| < age 6 | 55 | 62 | 62 |
| 6-17 | 67 | 72 | 70 |
| Single father | 90 | 89 | 86 |
| < age 6 | 91 | 91 | 88 |
| 6-17 | 89 | 88 | 85 |
| Race/ethnicity group | | | |
| White | 53 | 64 | 66 |
| < age 6 | 43 | 57 | 60 |
| 6-17 | 57 | 68 | 69 |
| Black | 58 | 66 | 66 |
| < age 6 | 53 | 62 | 62 |
| 6-17 | 60 | 68 | 68 |
| Hispanic | 44 | 53 | 52 |
| < age 6 | 39 | 49 | 47 |
| 6-17 | 47 | 55 | 56 |

Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on analyses of the March 1980, 1990, and 1994 Current Population Surveys.

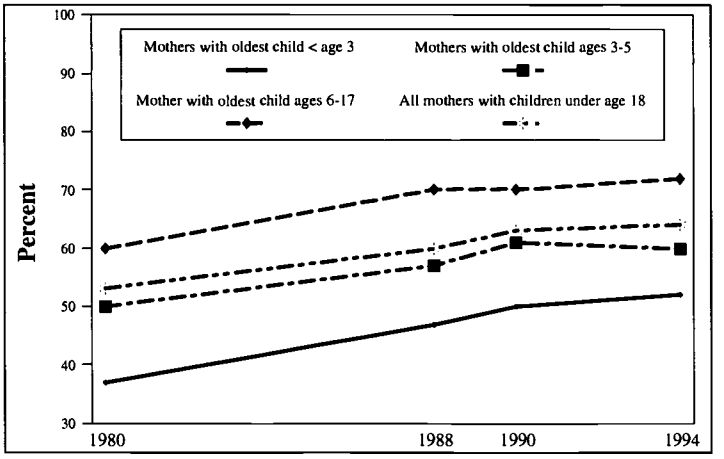
## ES 3.2 MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT: PERCENT OF MOTHERS WITH CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO ARE EMPLOYED, FULL TIME AND PART TIME

Over the last several decades, the increasing proportion of mothers moving into employment has had substantial consequences for the everyday lives of families with children. Maternal employment adds to the financial resources available to families, and is often the only source of income for families headed by single mothers. In addition, it often means that younger children are spending a substantial amount of time in child care.

Figure ES 3.2.a presents trends in rates of maternal employment by age of youngest child for selected years from 1980 through 1994. For all mothers with children under age 18, rates increased steadily from 53 percent to 63 percent between 1980 and 1990. From 1990 to 1994, rates increased at a slower pace from 63 percent to 64 percent. Mothers with children under the age of three experienced the largest increases, advancing 15 percentage points, from 37 percent in 1980 to 52 percent in 1994. The increase for women with a youngest child age 3-5 was 10 percentage points (from 50 percent to 60 percent), and 12 percentage points for mothers whose youngest child was 6-17 (from 60 percent to 72 percent). Most of the increase for mothers whose youngest children were in this older age group occurred between 1980 and 1988, when the rate increased to 70 percent.

Table ES 3.2 provides additional trend data from 1980 to 1994 by race ethnicity group. During that period maternal employment among white mothers increased 13 percentage points (from 52 percent to 65 percent) followed by Hispanic mothers at 6 percentage points (from 42 percent to 48 percent) and black mothers at 4 percentage points (from 54 percent to 58 percent). Increases had been larger for black and Hispanic mothers between 1980 and 1990, but those groups showed declines in maternal employment of 2 to 3 percentage points in employment levels from 1990 to 1994 while white mothers continued to gain.

### Figure ES 3.2.A PERCENT OF MOTHERS WHO ARE EMPLOYED, BY AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD: 1980 - 1994




Source: Unpublished Tables, Bureau of Labor Statistics, based on analyses of March Current Population Surveys for 1980, 1988, 1990 and 1994.

**Table ES 3.2 MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT: PERCENT OF MOTHERS WITH CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO WERE EMPLOYED, FULL TIME AND PART TIME[a]**

| | 1980 | 1988 | 1990 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | | | | |
| Employed | 53 | 60 | 63 | 64 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 44 | 46 | 45 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 16 | 17 | 19 |
| Age of Youngest Child | | | | |
| < Age 3 | | | | |
| Employed | 37 | 47 | 50 | 52 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 32 | 34 | 34 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 15 | 16 | 18 |
| Ages 3-5 | | | | |
| Employed | 50 | 57 | 61 | 60 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 40 | 43 | 41 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 17 | 18 | 19 |
| Ages 6-17 | | | | |
| Employed | 60 | 70 | 70 | 72 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 53 | 53 | 53 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 17 | 17 | 19 |
| Marital Status | | | | |
| Married, Spouse Present | | | | |
| Employed | — | 62 | 63 | 66 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 43 | 44 | 45 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 19 | 19 | 21 |
| Never Married | | | | |
| Employed | — | 40 | 45 | 46 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 32 | 36 | 34 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 8 | 9 | 12 |
| Divorced | | | | |
| Employed | — | 75 | 75 | 74 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 66 | 66 | 63 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 9 | 9 | 11 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | |
| White | | | | |
| Employed | 52 | 62 | 63 | 65 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 44 | 44 | 45 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 18 | 19 | 20 |
| Black | | | | |
| Employed | 54 | 56 | 61 | 58 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 48 | 53 | 47 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 8 | 8 | 11 |
| Hispanic | | | | |
| Employed | 42 | 49 | 50 | 48 |
| Working Full-Time | — | 38 | 39 | 36 |
| Working Part-Time | — | 11 | 11 | 12 |

Note: [a]Percentages for 1980 are not offered separately by marital status and full-time vs. part-time due to incompatibilities with definitions used in later years.

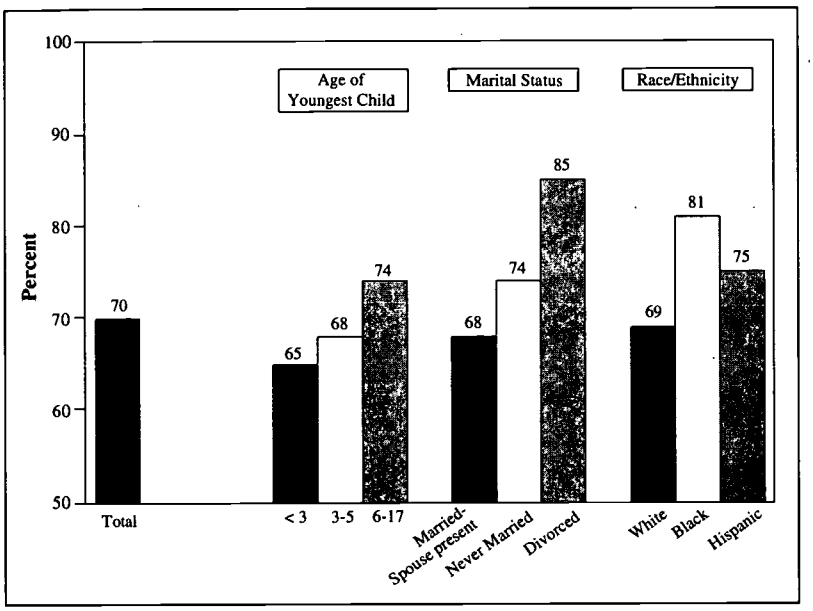
Source: Unpublished Tables, Bureau of Labor Statistics, based on analyses of March Current Population Surveys for 1980, 1988, 1990 and 1994.

## ES 3.2 MATERNAL EMPLOYMENT: PERCENT OF MOTHERS WITH CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WHO ARE EMPLOYED, FULL TIME AND PART TIME (continued)

Table ES 3.2 also presents data for married, never married, and divorced mothers, though only for years 1988, 1990, and 1994. Both married and never married mothers experienced increases in employment during that period, from 62 percent to 66 percent for married mothers, and from 40 to 46 percent for never married mothers. Divorced mothers, who had the highest rates of employment over that period, actually experienced a small decrease from 75 percent to 74 percent.

Figure ES 3.2.b shows the proportion of employed mothers who reported working full time in 1994, by age of youngest child, marital status, and race/ethnicity. Among all employed mothers, 70 percent were working full time in 1994. Employed mothers with older children were more likely to work full time than those with young children, with rates ranging from 65 percent for mothers with children under age 3, to 74 percent for mothers with a youngest child between the ages of 6 and 17. Among employed mothers of different marital statuses, divorced mothers were the most likely to work full time (85 percent) and married mothers the least likely (68 percent). Finally, among race/ethnicity groups, black mothers who were employed were the most likely to work full time (81 percent), followed by Hispanic mothers (75 percent) and white mothers (69 percent).

Figure ES 3.2.B PROPORTION OF OF MOTHERS WHO REPORTED WORKING FULL TIME: 1994




Source: Unpublished Tables, Bureau of Labor Statistics, based on analyses of March Current Population Surveys for 1980, 1988, 1990, and 1994.

## ES 3.3 PARENTAL LABOR FORCE DETACHMENT: THE PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WITH NO RESIDENT PARENTS IN THE LABOR FORCE.

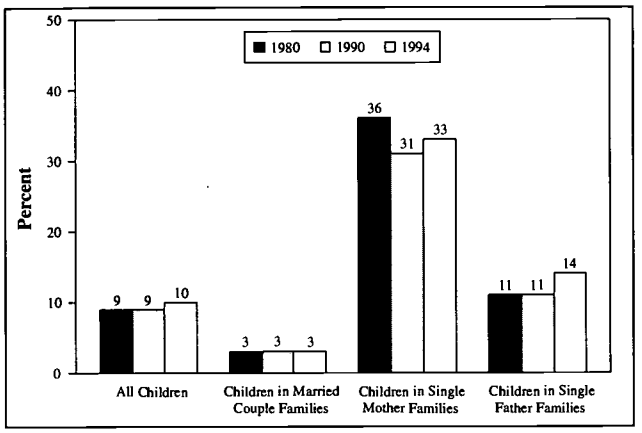
Attachment to the labor force is, for the vast majority of families, a necessary prerequisite for a financially and socially stable life. Children who have no parents in the labor force are at considerably higher risk of poverty, welfare dependence, and social isolation, all of which can have long term negative consequences for their well-being.

Figure ES 3.3 presents trends in the proportion of children living in families where there were no resident parents attached to the labor force. Data are presented for 1980, 1990, and 1994, by family type and race/ethnicity. During that period, approximately one in 10 children lived in families where all resident parents were detached from the labor force. The percentages were 9 percent in 1980 and 1990, and rose slightly to 10 percent in 1994.

The rate of parental labor force detachment for children in married couple families was constant at 3 percent from 1980 to 1994. Rates for children in families headed by single mothers were considerably higher. For children in such families, parental labor force detachment dropped from 36 percent to 31 percent between 1980 and 1990, then increased somewhat to 33 percent by 1994. For children under age 6 in such families, however, the reduction was more substantial, from 46 percent in 1980 to 38 percent in 1990 and 1994. (See Table ES 3.3 for age-specific data). In families headed by single mothers, mothers of children under age six were more likely to be detached from the labor force than mothers of older children. The difference for the two age groups has become smaller over time, however, going from 13 percentage points in 1980 (46 percent versus 33 percent) to 8 percentage points in 1994 (38 percent versus 30 percent). Children living in families headed by single fathers experienced parental labor force detachment rates of 11 percent in 1980 and 1990, and 14 percent in 1994. This is substantially less than rates experienced by children in families headed by single mothers (14 percent versus 33 percent in 1994), but substantially higher than those in married couple families (3 percent).

White children were less likely than black or Hispanic children to have no resident parents in the labor force in 1994, with rates of 8 percent, 24 percent, and 17 percent, respectively. For white children, rates were steady at 6 percent in 1980 and 1990 before increasing to 8 percent in 1994. Rates for Hispanic children have been increasing over the time period from 14 percent in 1980 to 17 percent in 1994. Black children had rates of 24 percent in 1980 and 1994, with a modest dip to 23 percent in 1990.

**Figure ES 3.3 PARENTAL LABOR FORCE DETACHMENT: PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WITH NO RESIDENT PARENTS IN THE LABOR FORCE**




Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on analyses of the March 1980, 1990, and 1994 Current Population Surveys.

**Table ES 3.3 PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WITH NO RESIDENT PARENTS IN THE LABOR FORCE FOR SELECTED YEARS: 1980 - 1994**

| | 1980 | 1990 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|
| All Children | 9 | 9 | 10 |
| < age 6 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| Ages 6-17 | 9 | 9 | 10 |
| Family Type | | | |
| Married couple | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| < age 6 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| 6-17 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Single mother | 36 | 31 | 33 |
| < age 6 | 46 | 38 | 38 |
| 6-17 | 33 | 28 | 30 |
| Single father | 11 | 11 | 14 |
| < age 6 | 9 | 9 | 12 |
| 6-17 | 11 | 12 | 15 |
| Race/ethnicity group | | | |
| White | 6 | 6 | 8 |
| < age 6 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 6-17 | 7 | 6 | 8 |
| Black | 24 | 23 | 24 |
| < age 6 | 26 | 27 | 27 |
| 6-17 | 23 | 20 | 23 |
| Hispanic | 14 | 15 | 17 |
| < age 6 | 14 | 15 | 18 |
| 6-17 | 14 | 15 | 17 |

Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on analyses of the March 1980, 1990, and 1994 Current Population Surveys.

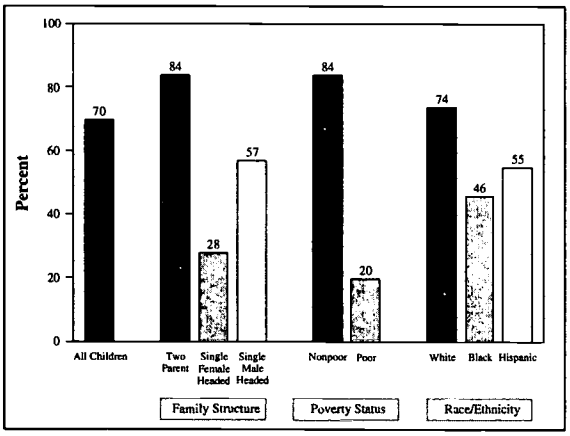
## ES 3.4 SECURE PARENTAL LABOR FORCE ATTACHMENT: PERCENT OF CHILDREN WITH AT LEAST ONE FULLY EMPLOYED (FULL TIME, FULL YEAR) RESIDENT PARENT

Full time, full year employment is an indicator of secure and stable labor force attachment and, for most families, produces a degree of financial security and independence.

Table ES 3.4 presents trend data for 1979, 1989, and 1993 in the percent of children who have at least one resident parent employed full time, full year. Data are presented for all children, and separately by race/ethnicity, poverty status, age of child, and family structure. The data indicate that the percent of children in such families stayed constant at 72 percent in 1979 and 1989, decreasing modestly to 70 percent in 1993. Rates for most population subgroups were also fairly stable, decreasing or increasing by a couple of percentage points. In general, those groups that are better off on most measures of economic security (e.g., children in married couple or nonpoor families), experienced increased levels of full time, full year employment, while those who are generally worse off economically (children in poor or single parent families) experienced decreases. For example, while rates for children from single female-headed families dropped from 32 percent to 28 percent between 1989 and 1993, rates for children from married couple families increased from 82 percent to 84 percent.

Figure ES 3.4 presents estimates of secure parental labor force attachment for 1993 by family structure, poverty status, and race/ethnicity. Across family types, full time, full year parental employment is considerably more common for children from two parent families (84 percent) than among children from either single female headed families (28 percent) or single male headed families (57 percent). The figure also shows a strong relationship between poverty and secure labor force attachment, with rates of 84 percent for children from nonpoor families versus 20 percent for children in poor families. Finally, rates of secure parental labor force attachment were highest among white children (74 percent) followed by Hispanic children (55 percent) and then black children (46 percent).

## Figure ES 3.4 SECURE PARENTAL LABOR FORCE ATTACHMENT: PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 WITH AT LEAST ONE FULLY EMPLOYED (Full-time, Full Year) RESIDENT PARENT: 1993




Note: Fully employed is defined as having worked 50+ weeks during the preceding year, and working 35+ hours per week for the majority of those weeks.

Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on data from the March 1994 Current Population Survey.

**Table ES 3.4 SECURE PARENTAL LABOR FORCE ATTACHMENT: PERCENT OF CHILDREN WITH AT LEAST ONE FULLY EMPLOYED RESIDENT PARENT FOR SELECTED YEARS: 1979 - 1993**

| | 1979 | 1989 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 72 | 72 | 70 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | |
| White | 76 | 77 | 74 |
| Black | 51 | 50 | 46 |
| Hispanic | 63 | 60 | 55 |
| Poverty Status | | | |
| Poor | 21 | 22 | 20 |
| Nonpoor | 82 | 84 | 84 |
| Child's Age | | | |
| < age 5 | 69 | 69 | 66 |
| 6-11 | 72 | 73 | 70 |
| 12-17 | 75 | 76 | 74 |
| Family Structure | | | |
| Two-parent | 82 | 84 | 84 |
| Single female headed | 32 | 31 | 28 |
| Single male headed | 61 | 60 | 57 |

Note: Fully employed is defined as having worked 50+ weeks during the preceding year, working 35+ hours per week for the majority of those weeks.

Source: Calculated by Child Trends, Inc., based on data from the March 1980, 1990, and 1994 Current Population Surveys.

## ES 3.5 CHILD CARE

The child care needs of American families have been increasing over the past several decades as mothers have moved into the labor force in ever greater numbers. Research has clearly demonstrated that the quality of child care that a young child receives can have substantial impacts on his or her development and well-being, and that the quality of care varies substantially in the United States.[18]

Table ES.3.5.a presents trends from 1965 through 1993 in the types of child care used by working mothers for their children under the age of five. The data demonstrate a clear trend away from care in the home, and towards care outside the home in day care centers, preschools and in the homes of non-relatives. For the children of full-time working mothers, the proportion attending day care centers and preschools increased from 8 percent to 31 percent between 1965 and 1988, declined somewhat to 28 percent in 1991, then resumed its upward trend to 35 percent in 1993. For children whose mothers worked part time, use of child care centers and preschools increased from 3 percent in 1965 to 17 percent in 1988, dipped to 15 percent in 1991, then increased once again to 21 percent in 1993.

Data for 1991 indicate that, for children whose mothers work full time, the most common forms of child care used were day care and preschool facilities (28 percent) followed by non-relative care in the provider's home (21 percent). (See Table ES.3.5.a) For children whose mothers work part time, care by the father is by far the most common arrangement (29 percent). Day care centers and preschools are used by only 15 percent of these children.

[18]Whitebook, M., Phillips, D., and Howes, C. 1989. *National Child Care Staffing Study*. Oakland, CA: Child Care Employees Project and Hayes, C.D., Palmer, J.L., and Zaslow, M. J. (Eds.). 1990. *Who Cares for America's Children? Child Care Policy for the 1990s*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

**Table ES 3.5.A PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 5 WITH EMPLOYED MOTHERS IN DIFFERING CHILD CARE ARRANGEMENTS, BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS, 1965 - 1993**

| | 1965* | 1977 | 1982 | 1984-85 | 1988 | 1991 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mother Employed Full-Time | | | | | | | |
| Day care center or preschool | 8 | 15 | 20 | 30 | 31 | 28 | 35 |
| Non-relative care in provider's home | 20 | 27 | 25 | 27 | 27 | 21 | — |
| Grandparent or other relative in relative's home | 18 | 21 | 21 | 16 | 14 | 14 | — |
| Father in child's home | 10 | 11 | 11 | 10 | 8 | 15 | — |
| Other care in child's home | 37 | 18 | 16 | 13 | 13 | 15 | — |
| Mother Employed Part-Time | | | | | | | |
| Day care center or preschool | 3 | 9 | 8 | 17 | 17 | 15 | 21 |
| Non-relative care in provider's home | 8 | 16 | 19 | 14 | 17 | 13 | — |
| Grandparent or other relative in relative's home | 9 | 13 | 16 | 16 | 11 | 11 | — |
| Father in child's home | 23 | 23 | 21 | 22 | 27 | 29 | — |
| Other care in child's home | 24 | 20 | 20 | 18 | 14 | 17 | — |

*Data for 1965 are for children under 6 years old.

Notes: 1. Data are based on survey questions that asked about care arrangements for youngest child in the family. Percentages for earlier years have been recalculated after removal of cases in "don't know" category.

2. Different arrangements do not sum to 100 percent because children may be in multiple care arrangements.

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-70, No. 9, P-70, No. 30, and P-70; No. 36, *Who's Minding the Kids? Child Care Arrangements: Winter 1984-1985, 1988 and 1991*, 1987, Table 3; 1992, Table 1; and 1994, Table 1; and Series P-23, No. 117, *Trends in Child Care Arrangements of Working Mothers*, Table A; U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Data for 1993 from unpublished tables, Bureau of the Census.

## ES 3.5 CHILD CARE (continued)

Table ES.3.5.b presents 1993 estimates of the distribution of child care types used by all working mothers (regardless of hours worked) by child's age, race/ethnicity, mothers educational attainment and marital status, poverty status, and monthly income. The data indicate that, prior to age 3, the most common source of child care is a relative (other than the father) in the child's own home, with rates of 28 percent for children less than age one, and 29 percent for children ages 1-2. For ages 3-4, the percent receiving care from this source drops to 21 percent, and day care and preschool become the most common source of care (39 percent).

Children with mothers of higher socioeconomic status are the most likely to be receiving care from a day care center or preschool. For example, 18 percent of poor children under age 5 receive care from such sources, compared to 31 percent of nonpoor children. Only 20 percent of children whose mothers have less than a high school diploma receive care from a day care center or preschool, compared to 36 percent of children whose mothers have a college degree. For the children of poor mothers and those with mothers lacking a high school diploma, the most common source of child care was a relative other than the father, with rates of 36 percent for both groups.

Patterns of child care use also vary by race/ethnicity. Black children were, at 33 percent, the most likely to receive some form of organized child care (from a child care center or preschool), followed by whites (30 percent) and Hispanics (21 percent).

## Table ES 3.5.B PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 5 WITH EMPLOYED MOTHERS IN DIFFERING CHILD CARE ARRANGEMENTS, BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS, 1993

| | Day Care Center/ Preschool[a] | Family Day Care[b] | Non-Relative Sitter in Child's Home | Father in Child's Home | Relative in Own or Child's Home | Mother Cares for Child[c] | Other Care Arrangements[d] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 30 | 17 | 5 | 16 | 25 | 6 | 1 |
| Age of Child | | | | | | | |
| Under 1 year | 19 | 22 | 6 | 18 | 28 | 7 | * |
| 1-2 years | 24 | 19 | 5 | 17 | 29 | 6 | * |
| 3-4 years | 39 | 12 | 4 | 14 | 21 | 7 | 3 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | |
| White | 30 | 17 | 5 | 17 | 23 | 7 | 1 |
| Black | 33 | 13 | 2 | 9 | 37 | 3 | 2 |
| Hispanic[e] | 21 | 13 | 7 | 15 | 39 | 3 | 2 |
| Educational Attainment of Mother | | | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 20 | 15 | 5 | 17 | 36 | 6 | 1 |
| High school | 27 | 16 | 3 | 17 | 30 | 6 | 1 |
| College, 1 to 3 years | 32 | 16 | 4 | 16 | 23 | 8 | 1 |
| College, 4 or more years | 36 | 19 | 8 | 14 | 17 | 6 | 1 |
| Marital Status | | | | | | | |
| Married, Spouse Present | 30 | 16 | 5 | 19 | 21 | 7 | 1 |
| All other marital status[f] | 29 | 17 | 5 | 3 | 40 | 4 | 1 |
| Poverty Level[g] | | | | | | | |
| Below Poverty | 18 | 12 | 7 | 16 | 36 | 8 | 1 |
| Above Poverty | 31 | 17 | 5 | 16 | 24 | 6 | 1 |
| Monthly Family Income[g] | | | | | | | |
| < $1,500 | 23 | 16 | 5 | 15 | 34 | 6 | 1 |
| $1,500 - $2,999 | 25 | 15 | 3 | 21 | 26 | 9 | 1 |
| $3,000 - $4,499 | 29 | 19 | 4 | 18 | 24 | 5 | 1 |
| $4,500 and over | 39 | 17 | 7 | 11 | 21 | 4 | 1 |

*Less than 0.5 percent.
[a]Includes day/group care center, nursery school and pre-school.
[b]Refers to care by a non-relative in a home other than the childís.
[c]Includes mothers working at home or away from home.
[d]Other care arrangements include school-based activity and kindergarten/grade school.
[e]Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
[f]Includes married, husband absent (including separated), widowed, divorced, and never-married mothers.
[g]Omits persons who did not report family income.

Note: Total may not sum to 100% due to rounding.

Source: Unpublished tables, United States Department of Commerce, U.S. Bureau of the Census.

## ES 4.1 INADEQUATE HOUSING

Housing is a major consumption item that can affect the quality of life of inhabitants in many ways. Housing-related factors that can affect well-being include the quality of the neighborhood in which the dwelling is located, the level of crowding, and the physical condition of the unit.

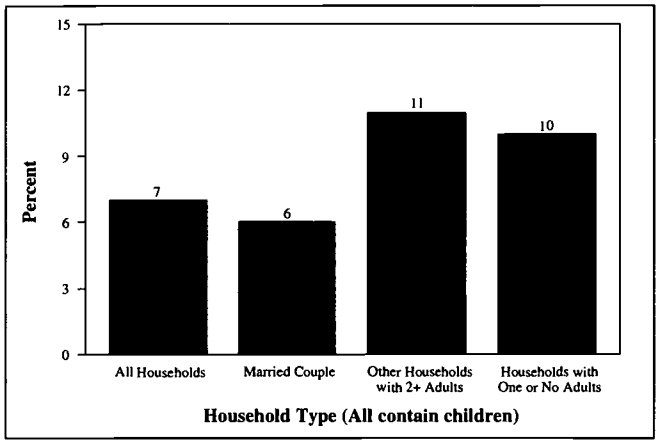
Table ES 4.1 presents recent trends in the physical quality of housing for children, reporting the percentage of families with children under age 18 living in housing units with moderate to severe physical problems as defined by the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development.[19] Data are presented for every other year from 1985 through 1993. Across the time period the percentage of children's households with moderate to severe physical problems ranges from 9 percent in 1985 to 7 percent in 1993.[20]

Data are also presented separately for three types of households containing children: married couples, other types of households containing two or more adults (which could include, for example, cohabiting couples, adult siblings, mother and grandmother, or adult house mates), and households with one or no adults. The data are very consistent over time, indicating that married-couple families with children are the least likely to experience housing with physical problems as defined here, followed by households with one or no adults and, finally, households with two or more adults who are not married. In 1993, for example, the reported percentages living in housing with moderate to severe physical problems were 6 percent, 10 percent, and 11 percent for the three household types, respectively. (See Figure ES 4.1)

[19]Physical problems can include problems with plumbing, heating, electric, upkeep, and/or hallways.

[20]It is not clear whether or not this downward trend is statistically significant. The level of fluctuation in this estimate from year to year would indicate that the contrast may be the result of random error.

**Figure ES 4.1 INADEQUATE HOUSING: PERCENT OF HOUSEHOLDS CONTAINING CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN HOUSING WITH MODERATE TO SEVERE PHYSICAL PROBLEMS: 1993**




Note: Physical problems include problems with plumbing, heating, electric, upkeep, and/or hallways. For detailed definitions of "moderate" and "severe" physical problems, see *American Housing Survey for the United States, 1993*, page A-13.

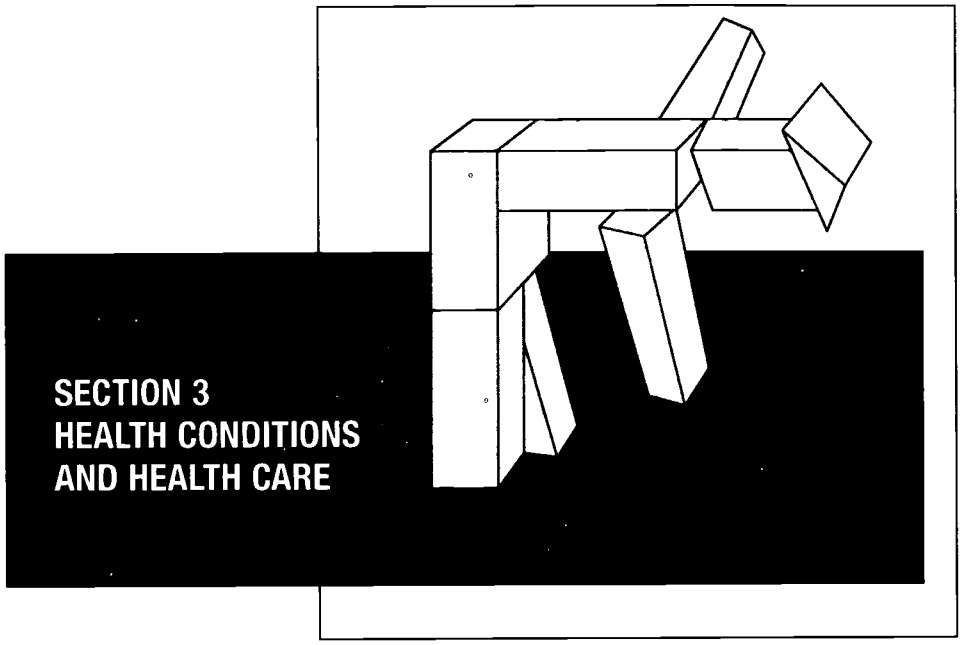
Source: *Current Housing Reports: American Housing Survey for the United States* for 1985, 1987, 1989, 1991, and 1993.

**Table ES 4.1 INADEQUATE HOUSING: PERCENT OF HOUSEHOLDS CONTAINING CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 IN HOUSING WITH MODERATE TO SEVERE PHYSICAL PROBLEMS**

| | 1985 | 1987 | 1989 | 1991 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Households with Children under Age 18 | 9 | 8 | 9 | 9 | 7 |
| Married couples | 7 | 6 | 7 | 7 | 6 |
| Other households with two or more adults | 15 | 15 | 13 | 14 | 11 |
| Households with one or no adults | 12 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 10 |

Note: Physical problems include problems with plumbing, heating, electric, upkeep, and/or hallways. For detailed definitions of "moderate" and "severe" physical problems, see American Housing Survey for the united States, 1993, page A-13.

Source: *Current Housing Reports: American Housing Survey for the United States* for 1985, 1987, 1989, 1991, and 1993.



# SECTION 3
# HEALTH CONDITIONS AND HEALTH CARE

## MORTALITY

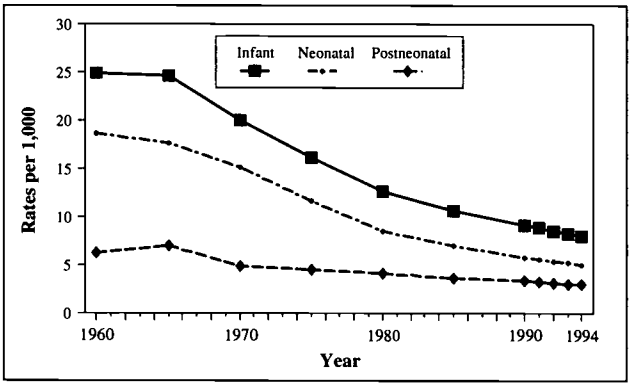
### HC 1.1 A INFANT MORTALITY

Infancy is commonly divided into the *neonatal* period, the first 27 days of life, and the *post-neonatal* period, 28 days to less than one year. About two-thirds of infant deaths occur during the neonatal period. However, advances in neonatology have greatly improved infant survival. As Figure HC 1.1.a.1 shows, the overall infant mortality rate has decreased rapidly over the past three decades. Between 1960 and 1994 the rate fell from 24.9 to 8.0 infant deaths per 1,000 live births. There was a steep decline in the rate of neonatal deaths (from 18.6 to 5.0 infant deaths per 1,000 live births ) and a smaller more gradual decline in the rate of post-neonatal deaths (from 6.3 to 3.0 infant deaths per 1,000 live births).

Figure HC 1.1.a.2 presents *infant* mortality rates by race and Hispanic origin for 1992. The black infant mortality rate of 16.8 infant deaths per 1,000 live births was 2.4 times higher than the white rate of 6.9. The Native American rate of 9.9 infant deaths per 1,000 live births was second highest. The Hispanic rate of 6.8 per 1,000 live births was comparable to the white rate, while the Asian rate of 4.8 per 1,000 live births was the lowest.[21] Between 1960 and 1992, the infant mortality rate decreased by 69 percent among whites, 62 percent among blacks, 68 percent among Asians, and by 77 percent among Native Americans. (*See* Table HC 1.1.a)

[21]It should be noted that for groups other than blacks and whites, infant mortality rates are underestimated due to common errors in the recording of race/ethnicity on death certificates. However, the general rank order of the race/ethnic groups according to their rates appears to be accurate (unpublished data provided by the Infant and Child Health Studies Branch, National Center for Health Statistics, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention).

### Figure HC 1.1.A.1 INFANT, NEONATAL, AND POSTNEONATAL DEATHS PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS, 1960 - 1992




Source: Rates for 1960, 1965, 1970 and 1975 were calculated by Child Trends, Inc. based on data from the National Center for Health Statistics. *Vital Statistics of the United States. Mortality*, Volume 2, Part A. 1960. Table 1-E and Table 3-1: 1965, Table 2-7: 1970. Table 2-1 and Table 2-3: 1975, Table 2-3: and the National Center for Health Statistics. *Vital Statistics of the United States, Natality*, Volume 1, 1960. Table 1-P: 1965, Table 1-37: 1970, Table 1-51: 1975 Table 1-51. Rates for 1980, 1985, and 1990 through 1992 were calculated by Child Trends based on tables provided by the Infant and Child Health Studies Branch, National Center for Health Statistics, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

## Table HC 1.1.A INFANT, NEONATAL AND POSTNEONATAL DEATHS PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1960 TO 1992

| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Infant (under 1 year) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Infant Death Rate | 24.9 | 24.7 | 20.0 | 16.1 | 12.6 | 10.6 | 9.2 | 8.9 | 8.5 | 8.3 | 8.0 |
| White | 22.2 | 21.5 | 17.8 | 14.2 | 10.9 | 9.2 | 7,6 | 7.3 | 6.9 | — | — |
| Black | 44.3 | 41.7 | 32.6 | 26.2 | 22.3 | 19.1 | 18.0 | 17.7 | 16.8 | — | — |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | — | — | 7.6 | 7.3 | 6.8 | — | — |
| Asian[a] | 15.1 | — | 9.5 | 5.5 | 7.4 | 6.7 | 5.3 | 4.8 | 4.8 | — | — |
| Native American | 43.8 | — | 22.0 | 17.8 | 16.6 | 11.5 | 10.7 | 10.4 | 9.9 | — | — |
| Neonatal (under 28 days) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Neonatal Death Rate | 18.6 | 17.7 | 15.1 | 11.6 | 8.5 | 7.0 | 5.8 | 5.6 | 5.4 | 5.3 | 5.0 |
| White | 17.0 | 16.1 | 13.8 | 10.4 | 7.4 | 6.1 | 4.8 | 4.5 | 4.3 | — | — |
| Black | 27.8 | 26.5 | 22.8 | 18.3 | 14.7 | 12.6 | 11.6 | 11.2 | 10.8 | — | — |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | — | — | 4.8 | 4.5 | 4.3 | — | — |
| Asian[a] | — | — | 6.9 | 3.9 | 5.0 | 4.0 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 3.0 | — | — |
| Native American | — | — | 10.6 | 9.1 | 8.7 | 5.2 | 5.3 | 4.8 | 4.8 | — | — |
| Postneonatal (28 days to under one year) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Postneonatal Death Rate | 6.3 | 7.0 | 4.9 | 4.5 | 4.1 | 3.7 | 3.4 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 3.0 | 3.0 |
| White | 5.2 | 5.0 | 4.0 | 3.8 | 3.5 | 3.1 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.6 | — | — |
| Black | 16.5 | 15.2 | 9.8 | 7.9 | 7.6 | 6.5 | 6.4 | 6.4 | 6.0 | — | — |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | — | — | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.5 | — | — |
| Asian[a] | — | — | 2.6 | 1.6 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.2 | 2.0 | 1.8 | — | — |
| Native American | — | — | 11.4 | 8.7 | 7.9 | 6.3 | 5.4 | 5.6 | 5.1 | — | — |

Note: [a]Due to data limitations, the Asian rates shown for years prior to 1980 include only Chinese and Japanese infants.
[b]Rates for 1993 and 1994 are provisional.

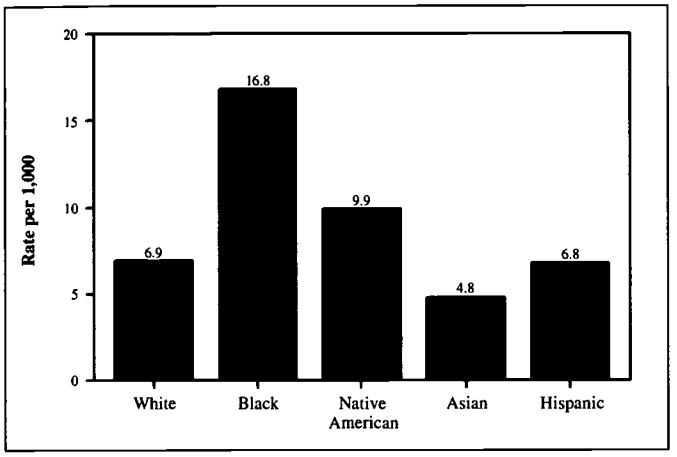
Source: Rates for 1960, 1965, 1970 and 1975 were calculated by Child Trends, Inc. based on data from the National Center for *Health Statistics, Vital Statistics of the United States, Mortality, Volume 2,* Part A, 1960, Table 1-E and Table 3-1; 1965, Table 2-7; 1970, Table 2-1 and Table 2-3; 1975, Table 2-3; and the National Center for Health Statistics, *Vital Statistics of the United States, Natality, Volume 1, 1960,* Table 1- P; 1965, Table 1-37; 1970, Table 1-51; 1975, Table 1-51. Rates for 1980, 1985, and 1990 through 1992 were calculated by Child Trends based on tables provided by the Infant and Child Health Studies Branch, National Center For Health Statistics, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Data for 1993 and 1994 from "Births, Marriages, Divorces, and Deaths for 1994," Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol. 43, No. 12, National Center for Health Statistics, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

## HC 1.1 A INFANT MORTALITY (continued)

The total *neonatal* death rate decreased by 71 percent from 18.6 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1960 to 5.4 deaths per 1,000 live births in 1992. During that same period, the black neonatal mortality rate of 27.8 declined by 61 percent to 10.8; while the white rate of 17.0 declined by 79 percent to a rate of 4.3 per 1,000. The neonatal mortality rate for Native American infants was 10.6 in 1970 but decreased by 55 percent to 4.8 in 1992. Only about one half of infant deaths among Native Americans occur during the neonatal period; for other race/ethnic groups, neonatal deaths account for about two thirds all infant deaths.

From 1960 to 1992, the *post-neonatal* mortality rate decreased by 49 percent from 6.3 to 3.1 deaths per 1,000 live births, a significantly smaller decline than observed for the neonatal period. Interestingly, the post-neonatal mortality rate decreased more for black infants (75 percent) than for white infants (61 percent), reducing the black to white ratio from 3.1 in 1960 to 2.3 in 1992.

Figure HC 1.1.A.2 INFANT DEATHS PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN, 1992




Source: Rates were calculated by Child Trends, Inc. based on tables provided by the Infant and Child Health Studies Branch, National Center for Health Statistics, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

## HC 1.1B CHILD MORTALITY

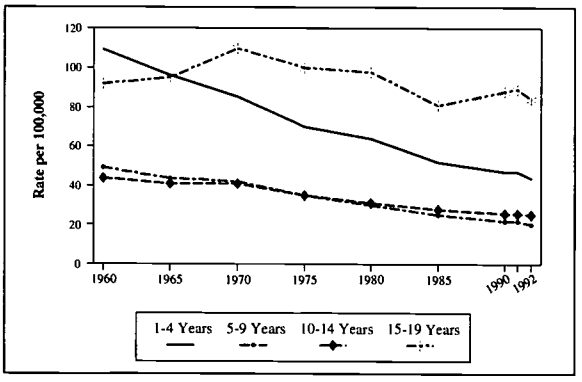
Figure HC 1.1.b.1 reveals that among children ages 1-4, mortality rates decreased from 109 to 44 per 100,000 between 1960 and 1992, a decrease of 60 percent. Mortality rates fell by 58 percent (from 49 to 20 per 100,000) among children ages 5-9, and by 40 percent (from 44 to 25 per 100,000) among children 10 to 14 during the same time period. For youth ages 15-19, the mortality rate actually increased between 1960 and 1970 from 92 to 110 per 100,000. Youth mortality declined steadily to a low of 81 in 1985 before increasing to 89 in 1991, then decreasing slightly to 84 per 100,000 in 1992.

Male child death rates are higher than female rates for all age groups, but the differences are far more pronounced for the older age groups where violent and accidental deaths disproportionately affect males. (See Table HC 1.1.b.1) In 1992, death rates for males and females were, respectively, 48 and 39 per 100,000 for 1-4 year olds, 24 and 17 per 100,000 for 5-9 year olds, 31 and 18 per 100,000 for 10-14 year olds, and 122 and 44 per 100,000 for 15-19 year olds.

There are substantial differences in mortality rates between white and black children that are consistent over time and across all age groups except for ages 15-19. In 1970, death rates for children ages 1-4 were 75 per 100,000 for white children and roughly twice as high (140 per 100,000) for black children. By 1992 rates had declined substantially for children of both races to 38 and 73 per 100,000 for white and black children, respectively, but rates remained twice as high for black children.

Figure HC 1.1.b.2. depicts trends in child mortality between 1970 and 1992 for white and black youth ages 15-19. The race disparity was substantial in 1970 (103 per 100,000 for whites versus 158 per 100,000 for blacks), but had declined by 1980 to the point where black youth actually registered lower mortality rates than white youth (92 versus 99 per 100,000). This reversal was short lived, however. Black mortality rates surged from a low of 85 per 100,000 in 1985 to 136 per 100,000 in 1992, while white death rates remained fairly stable. This had the affect of reestablishing the black/white differential that had existed some 22 years earlier.

**Figure HC 1.1.B.1 CHILD MORTALITY RATES BY AGE GROUP, 1960 TO 1992 (rates per 100,000 population in age group)**




Source: National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), unpublished data provided by the Statistical Resources Branch.

**Table HC 1.1.B.1 CHILD MORTALITY RATES BY AGE GROUP, GENDER AND RACE, 1960 TO 1992**
**(rates per 100,000 population in age group)**

| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **1- 4 years** | | | | | | | | | |
| All Children | 109 | 96 | 85 | 70 | 64 | 52 | 47 | 47 | 44 |
| **Gender** | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 120 | 104 | 93 | 77 | 73 | 59 | 52 | 52 | 48 |
| Female | 98 | 87 | 95 | 63 | 55 | 45 | 41 | 43 | 39 |
| **Race** | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 83 | 95 | 75 | 63 | 58 | 47 | 41 | 42 | 38 |
| Black | — | — | 140 | 106 | 98 | 81 | 77 | 80 | 73 |
| **5-9 years** | | | | | | | | | |
| All Children | 49 | 44 | 42 | 35 | 30 | 25 | 22 | 22 | 20 |
| **Gender** | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 56 | 51 | 50 | 41 | 35 | 29 | 26 | 25 | 24 |
| Female | 42 | 37 | 34 | 29 | 26 | 21 | 19 | 18 | 17 |
| **Race** | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 41 | 46 | 40 | 33 | 28 | 23 | 20 | 20 | 18 |
| Black | — | — | 56 | 47 | 42 | 36 | 32 | 32 | 32 |
| **10-14 years** | | | | | | | | | |
| All Children | 44 | 41 | 41 | 35 | 31 | 28 | 26 | 26 | 25 |
| **Gender** | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 55 | 51 | 51 | 45 | 38 | 35 | 32 | 33 | 31 |
| Female | 33 | 30 | 30 | 25 | 23 | 21 | 20 | 18 | 18 |
| **Race** | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 39 | 41 | 38 | 34 | 30 | 27 | 24 | 24 | 23 |
| Black | — | — | 55 | 44 | 37 | 35 | 37 | 36 | 35 |
| **15-19 years** | | | | | | | | | |
| All Children | 92 | 95 | 110 | 100 | 98 | 81 | 88 | 89 | 84 |
| Gender | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 130 | 136 | 158 | 145 | 141 | 113 | 127 | 129 | 122 |
| Female | 54 | 54 | 62 | 54 | 53 | 46 | 46 | 47 | 44 |
| Race | | | | | | | | | |
| White | 91 | 88 | 103 | 98 | 99 | 80 | 81 | 81 | 76 |
| Black | — | — | 158 | 114 | 92 | 85 | 128 | 141 | 136 |

Source: National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), unpublished data provided by the Statistical Resources Branch.

## HC 1.1B CHILD MORTALITY (continued)

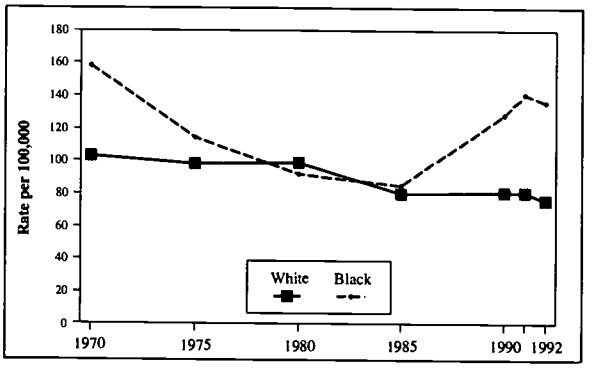
Table HC 1.1.b.2 shows child mortality rates by age, gender, detailed race,[22] and Hispanic origin for combined years 1989, 1990, and 1991 for children ages 1-14 and youth ages 15-24. In 1989-91, the death rate for black children ages 1-14 (48.3 deaths per 100,000 population) was 70 percent higher than the rate for white children (28.4). Native American children had the second highest death rate; their rate (37.3) was 31 percent higher than the rate for white children.

Asian children had the lowest death rate (22.7), a full 20 percent below the rate for their white peers. The death rate for children of Hispanic origin (30.2) was comparable to the rate for white children. Within each race/ethnic group, the male death rate exceeded the female death rate by at least 27 percent.

The total death rate for youth ages 15-24 (99.1 deaths per 100,000 population) was three times higher than the total death rate for children ages 1-14 (31.4). In addition, the disparity between race/ethnic groups was greater among 15-24 year olds than among 1-14 year olds. For instance, the death rate for black youth 15-24 years of age (161.9 deaths per 100,000 population) was 81 percent higher than the rate for white youth of similar age (89.3). Secondly, the death rate for Native American youth (142.0) was 59 percent higher than the rate for white youth. The death rate for Asian youth (50.1) was the lowest, 44 percent lower than the rate for white youth. In this age group, the death rate for youth of Hispanic origin (103.3) was about 16 percent higher than that for white youth. For each race/ethnic group, the male death rate was substantially higher than the female death rate. The male to female ratio ranges from 2.5 for Asian American youth (70.8 for males, 28.1 for females) to a high of 3.8 for youth of Hispanic origin (156.5 for males, 40.9 for females).

[22]It should be noted that death rates reported for white, black, and Hispanic persons are based on highly consistent information; however, persons identified as Native American or Asian in data from the Census Bureau (denominator of death rates) are sometimes misreported as white on their death certificate (numerator of death rate) resulting in underestimates of about 22 to 30 percent for death rates of Native Americans and 12 percent for death rates of Asians. (Sorlie, P.D., Rogot, E., Johnson, N.J. (1992). "Validity of demographic characteristics on the death certificate." *Epidemiology* 3(2): 181-184.

**Figure HC 1.1.B.2 MORTALITY RATES FOR WHITE AND BLACK YOUTH AGES 15 TO 19, 1970-1992 (rates per 100,000 population in age group)**




Source: National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), unpublished data provided by the Statistical Resources Branch.

**Table HC 1.1.B.2 CHILD MORTALITY RATES BY AGE GROUP, GENDER, DETAILED RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN FOR 1989-1991 (rates per 100,000 population in age group)**

| | Combined Years 1989-1991 | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Male | Female |
| 1-14 Years | | | |
| All Races | 31.4 | 36.2 | 26.3 |
| White | 28.4 | 32.8 | 23.8 |
| Black | 48.3 | 56.1 | 40.3 |
| Asian | 22.7 | 25.3 | 20.0 |
| Native American | 37.3 | 45.1 | 29.2 |
| Hispanic Origin | 30.2 | 34.7 | 25.5 |
| 15-24 Years | | | |
| All Races | 99.1 | 146.1 | 50.0 |
| White | 89.3 | 129.5 | 47.0 |
| Black | 161.9 | 188.9 | 69.8 |
| Asian | 50.1 | 70.8 | 28.1 |
| Native American | 142.0 | 208.3 | 71.1 |
| Hispanic Origin | 103.3 | 156.5 | 40.9 |

Note: Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. The four race groups listed in the table include persons of Hispanic and non-Hispanic origin. Death rates reported for white, black, and Hispanic persons are based on highly consistent information, however, persons identified as American Indian or Asian in the data from the Census Bureau (denominator of death rates) are sometimes misreported as white on the death certificate (numerator), resulting in underestimate of about 22-30 percent for death rates of American Indians and 12 percent for death rates of Asians (National Center for Health Statistics, Health United States 1993, Table 33; Sorlie, P.D., Rogot E., and Johnson, N.J.: 'Validity of demographic characteristics on the death certificate", *Epidemiology* 3(2): 181-184, 1992).

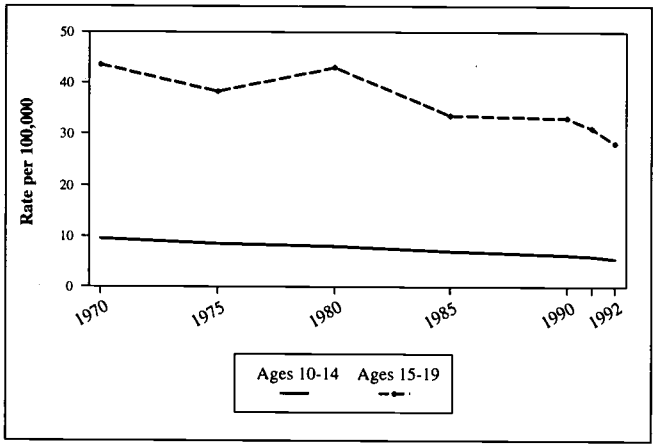
Source: Center for Disease Control and Prevention, National Center for Health Statistics (NCHS), *Health United States 1993*, Table 33; NCHS: Data computed by the Division of Analysis from data compiled by the Division of Vital Statistics and from national population for race groups from national population estimates for race groups.

## HC 1.2.A TEEN MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENT DEATHS

Motor vehicle accident deaths comprise a large proportion of all deaths to teenagers. However, as a fraction of all violent deaths to teens, motor vehicle accidents have played a declining role in recent years. While motor vehicle death rates have declined from 43.6 to 28.2 per 100,000 teens age 15-19 between 1970 and 1992, some teens have benefitted more than others by the decline. The declines have been greatest among males, from 67.1 to 39.6 per 100,000 among white males, and from 43.4 to 26.2 per 100,00 among black males. (See Table HC 1.2.a) Among females ages 15-19 rates declined less dramatically from 24.4 to 21.0 per 100,000 for whites, and from 11.1 to 9.1 per 100,000 for blacks.

Among those aged 10-14, rates are quite low in comparison to older youth, and have dropped from 9.6 to 5.5 per 100,000 between 1970 and 1992. This drop was evident in both males and females of both races.

**Figure HC 1.2.A YOUTH MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENT DEATHS: 1970 - 1992 (rate per 100,000)**




Source: National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished work tables prepared by the Mortality Statistics Branch, Division of Vital Statistics, 1995.

## Table HC 1.2.A RATE (Per 100,000) OF YOUTH MOTOR VEHICLE ACCIDENTAL DEATHS, 1970 - 1992

| Population Groups | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All youth | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 9.6 | 8.4 | 8.1 | 7.1 | 6.4 | 6.1 | 5.5 |
| Ages 15-19 | 43.6 | 38.4 | 43.0 | 33.5 | 33.1 | 31.2 | 28.2 |
| White males | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 12.6 | 10.9 | 10.9 | 9.8 | 7.7 | 7.8 | 7.0 |
| Ages 15-19 | 67.1 | 61.7 | 69.1 | 51.3 | 49.3 | 44.5 | 39.6 |
| White females | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 6.6 | 5.8 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 5.3 | 4.4 | 4.1 |
| Ages 15-19 | 24.4 | 20.6 | 25.6 | 22.6 | 22.2 | 23.0 | 21.0 |
| Black males | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 11.9 | 9.6 | 7.9 | 8.9 | 7.9 | 8.8 | 7.8 |
| Ages 15-19 | 43.4 | 24.6 | 24.4 | 22.1 | 28.7 | 29.5 | 26.2 |
| Black females | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 6.4 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 3.0 | 3.8 | 3.3 | 3.6 |
| Ages 15-19 | 11.1 | 7.1 | 6.7 | 7.5 | 9.7 | 9.0 | 9.1 |

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished work tables prepared by the Mortality Statistics Branch, Division of Vital Statistics, 1995.

## HC 1.2.B TEEN HOMICIDE DEATHS

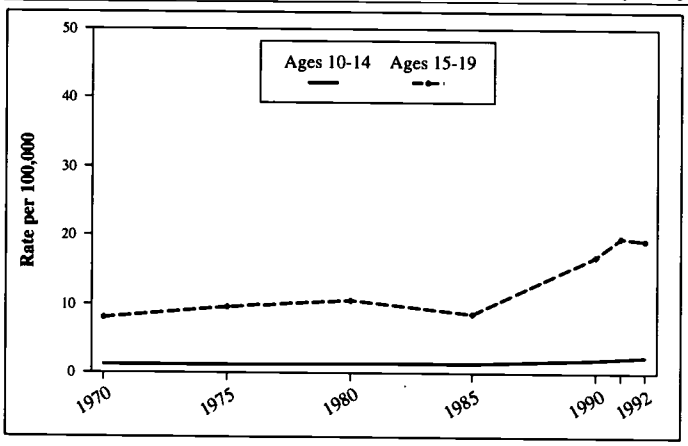
Since 1970, there has been a dramatic increase in the homicide rate among teens ages 15-19, from 8.1 per 100,000 to 19.3 per 100,000 by 1992. (*See* Figure HC 1.2.b.1) Virtually all of this increase has taken place since 1985. More recent provisional data, available for all youth ages 15-24 (not shown in the figure) indicate that homicide rates for this broader age group have fallen from an estimated rate of 22.8 to 21.6 per 100,000 between 1992 and 1994. For more information see the Annual Summary of Births, Marriages, Divorces and Deaths, 1992 and 1994 reports, *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

As large as the overall increase has been, this trend has been most alarming among black male teens, with an increase from 46.4 per 100,000 in 1985 to 134.6 per 100,000 in 1991. (*See* Figure HC 1.2.b.2) The rate for this group appears to have stabilized between 1991 and 1992, with a small drop to 128.5 per 100,000.

Homicide rates among females ages 15-19 of both races are considerably lower than among males in that age group. For example, rates for black females were 14.2 per 100,000 in 1992, about one tenth the rate for black males. Females exhibit the same race differences, though, with rates among white females age 15-19 of 3.6 per 100,000 compared to 14.2 per 100,000 for black females.

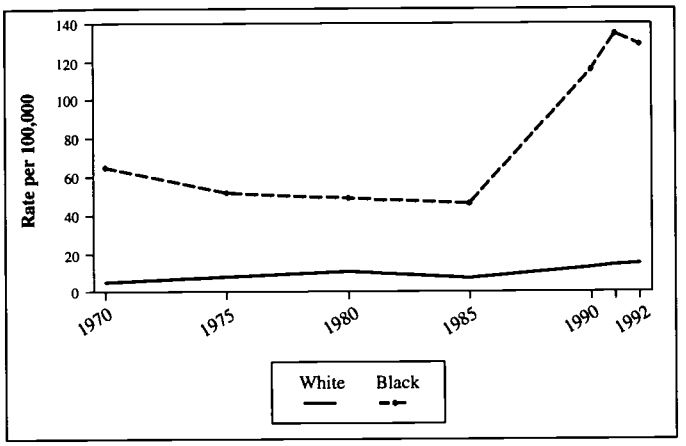
Homicide rates among youth ages 10-14 are quite low compared to rates for older youth, with rates of 2.4 per 100,000 overall compared to 19.2 per 100,000 for older youth in 1992. Between 1970 and 1992 rates increased from 1.2 to 2.4 per 100,000 for this age group. (*See* Table HC 1.2.b) Even among black males ages 10-14, rates never exceeded 10 per 100,000.

**Figure HC 1.2.B.1 YOUTH HOMICIDE DEATHS: 1970 - 1992 (rate per 100,000)**




Source: National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished work tables prepared by the Mortality Statistics Branch, Division of Vital Statistics, 1995.

Figure HC 1.2.B.2 WHITE AND BLACK MALE YOUTH HOMICIDE DEATHS AGES 15-19: 1970 - 1992 (rate per 100,000)




Source: National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished work tables prepared by the Mortality Statistics Branch, Division of Vital Statistics, 1995.

Table HC 1.2.B RATE (per 100,000) OF YOUTH HOMICIDE DEATHS[a]: 1970 - 1992

| Population Groups | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All teenagers | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 1.2 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 2.4 |
| Ages 15-19 | 8.1 | 9.6 | 10.6 | 8.6 | 17.0 | 19.6 | 19.3 |
| White males | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.0 |
| Ages 15-19 | 5.2 | 8.1 | 10.9 | 7.3 | 12.5 | 14.4 | 15.2 |
| White females | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 1.0 |
| Ages 15-19 | 2.1 | 3.2 | 3.9 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 3.6 |
| Black males | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 6.8 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 8.1 | 9.1 | 9.6 |
| Ages 15-19 | 65.2 | 51.4 | 48.8 | 46.4 | 115.7 | 134.6 | 128.5 |
| Black females | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 2.3 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 1.7 | 4.8 | 3.8 | 5.1 |
| Ages 15-19 | 10.6 | 15.3 | 11.0 | 10.4 | 15.6 | 15.6 | 14.2 |

Note: [a]Homicide includes death by legal intervention.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished work tables prepared by the Mortality Statistics Branch, Division of Vital Statistics, 1995.

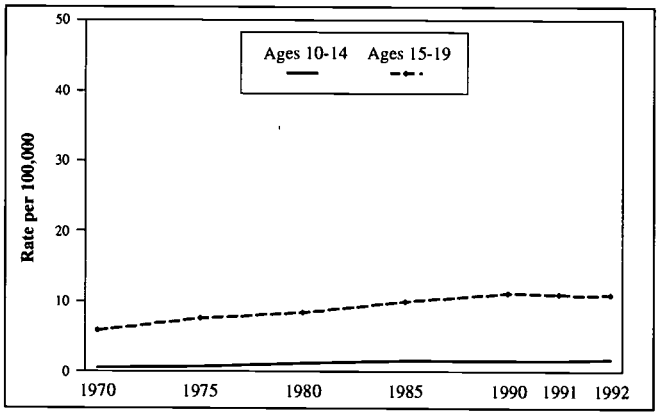
## HC 1.2.C TEEN SUICIDE DEATHS

As with homicide, suicide has come to play a proportionately larger role in teen deaths over the past several decades. Between 1970 and 1990, the suicide rate for youth ages 15-19 nearly doubled from 5.9 to 10.8 per 100,000. (*See* Figure HC 1.2.c) Since 1990, the overall suicide rate has stabilized at about 11 per 100,000. Rates for youth ages 10-14 are considerably lower at 1.7 per 100,000 in 1992. More recent provisional data available for youth aged 15-24 show an increase in the suicide rate for this older group from an estimated rate of 12.9 per 100,000 in 1992 to 14.9 per 100,000 in 1994. For more information see the Annual Summary of Births, Marriages, Divorces and Deaths, 1992 and 1994 reports, *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Data presented in Table HC 1.2.c demonstrate that, overall, male teens are five to seven times more likely than females to commit suicide. For example, rates for white males ages 15-19 were 18.4 per 100,000 in 1992, compared to 3.7 per 100,000 for white females. Among blacks in this age group, rates were 14.8 per 100,000 for males and 1.9 per 100,000 for females in 1992.

In 1970, white males age 15-19 were about twice as likely as black males to commit suicide (9.4 versus 4.7 per 100,000). By 1992, however, the gap between white and black males had narrowed considerably with suicide rates of 18.4 and 14.8 per 100,000 for white and black males, respectively. Among females age 15-19, white teens and black teens were equally likely to be suicides in 1970 with rates of 2.9 per 100,000. By 1992, however, white females were more likely than black females to commit suicide (3.7 versus 1.9 per 100,000).

### Figure HC 1.2.C YOUTH SUICIDE DEATHS: 1970 - 1992 (rates per 100,000)




Source: National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished work tables prepared by the Mortality Statistics Branch, Division of Vital Statistics, 1995.

Table HC 1.2.C RATE (PER 100,000) OF YOUTH SUICIDE DEATHS, 1970 - 1992

| Population Groups | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All teenagers | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 0.6 | 0.8 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.5 | 1.7 |
| Ages 15-19 | 5.9 | 7.6 | 8.5 | 9.9 | 11.1 | 11.0 | 10.8 |
| White males | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 1.1 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.6 |
| Ages 15-19 | 9.4 | 12.9 | 15.0 | 17.3 | 19.3 | 19.1 | 18.4 |
| White females | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 1.1 |
| Ages 15-19 | 2.9 | 3.1 | 3.3 | 4.1 | 4.0 | 4.2 | 3.7 |
| Black males | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 2.0 |
| Ages 15-19 | 4.7 | 6.1 | 5.6 | 8.2 | 11.5 | 12.2 | 14.8 |
| Black females | | | | | | | |
| Ages 10-14 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.6 | * | * | * |
| Ages 15-19 | 2.9 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.5 | 1.9 | * | 1.9 |

* = Not calculated because of unreliability due to infrequency of the event.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, unpublished work tables prepared by the Mortality Statistics Branch, Division of Vital Statistics, 1995.

## HC 2.1 HEALTHY BIRTH

A healthy birth is defined here as a birth with the following characteristics: an Apgar[23] score of 9 or more out of ten, weight at birth of least 2,500 grams (5.5 lbs.), a gestational age of at least 37 weeks, and maternal receipt of prenatal care within the first trimester.

Table HC 2.1 reports the percent of all births qualifying as healthy births for 1985 and 1991 by race/ethnicity, and by the marital status and educational background of the mother. The table shows a modest increase in the percent of all births defined as healthy births between 1985 and 1991, and for each subgroup presented. For example, the percent of healthy babies born to black mothers rose from 41.5 percent to 43.3 percent, while the percent of health births born to single women went from 37.9 percent to 43.1 percent. Mothers with less than a high school education also demonstrated a slight increase in the proportion of healthy babies born, from 40.0 percent to 43.3 percent. Though the changes described represent a relatively small percent increase, these numbers indicate a positive trend towards healthy births for various subgroups of the population.

Despite this optimistic trend across a variety of population subgroups, disparities in the proportion of healthy births by race/ethnicity, marital status and education are evident. For example in 1991, 43.3 percent of births to black women were defined as healthy, compared with 49.8 percent of births to Hispanic women and 65.0 percent of births born to white women. Similar disparities are seen by marital status and education. In 1991 the percent of healthy births to married women was 68.6 percent compared with 43.1 percent for single women; 67.1 percent of mothers with at least a high school education had healthy births as compared to 43.3 percent of mothers with less than a high school education.

[23]The Apgar score is a numerical expression of the physical condition of an infant at birth. The infant is rated, 0, 1, or 2 on color, heart rate, reflect irritability, muscle tone and breathing. The maximum score is 10, and a score of 4 or less indicates examination and treatment are warranted.

Apgar, V., Holiday, D.A., James, L.S., Weisbrot, I.N., Berrien, C., (1953). Evaluation of the Newborn Infant-2nd Report in Current Researches in Anesthesia and Analgesia, Vol. 32. pg. 260-267.

**Table HC 2.1 PERCENT OF ALL BIRTHS DEFINED AS HEALTHY,[a] BY SELECTED SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS: 1985 AND 1991**

| | 1985 | 1991 |
|---|---|---|
| Race/Ethnicity | | |
| White | 62.7 | 65.0 |
| Black | 41.5 | 43.3 |
| Hispanic | 48.6 | 49.8 |
| Mother's Marital Status | | |
| Married | 65.0 | 68.6 |
| Single | 37.9 | 43.1 |
| Mother's Education | | |
| High school or more | 64.0 | 67.1 |
| Less than high school | 40.0 | 43.3 |

Notes: [a]Healthy birth is defined as follows: Apgar score of 9+, birth weight 2,500+ grams, gestational age of 37+ weeks, prenatal care in the first trimester.

Source: Morrison, D.R. (1994). "Healthy Birth Index". Final Report. Submitted to the Annie Casey Foundation, Kids Count Indicator Development Project, Child Trends, Inc., Washington, DC, 1994

## HC 2.2.A PERCENT OF INFANTS BORN LOW BIRTH WEIGHT

Low birth weight (e.g., births weighing less than 2500 grams or 5.5 pounds) is an important indicator of the health and welfare of a population. Low birth weight infants are at an increased risk of suffering severe physical and developmental complications and death. Low birth weight infants account for nearly two-thirds of all neonatal deaths (deaths under 28 days of age) and 60 percent of infant deaths in the first year of life.

According to Table HC 2.2.a, in 1970, 6.8 percent of white infants and 13.9 percent of black infants born in the U.S. were classified as low birth weight. A measurable improvement in the percent of white infants born low birth weight is seen between 1970 and 1985, going from 6.8 percent to 5.6 percent during that 15 year period. A slight increase in the percent of white low birth weight infants is noted between 1985 and 1990, however, reaching 5.8 percent by 1992. The twenty-two year period witnessed little sustained improvement in the percent of low birth weight infants among blacks. A modest decline is seen between 1970 and 1985 going from 13.9 percent to 12.4 percent; by 1992 the proportion had increased to 13.3 percent. Rates for Hispanics were 6.1 percent in 1980 (the first year for which Hispanic data are available) and in 1992.

Improvements in low birth weight infants born to very young mothers were achieved between 1970 and 1992. Approximately 17 percent of infants born to mothers under age 15 were classified as being low birth weight in 1970, declining to 13 percent by 1992.

**Table HC 2.2.A PERCENT OF ALL BIRTHS BORN LOW BIRTH WEIGHT,[a] SELECTED YEARS: 1970 - 1992**

| | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Race/Ethnicity[b,c] | | | | | | |
| Black | 13.9 | 13.1 | 12.5 | 12.4 | 13.3 | 13.3 |
| White | 6.8 | 6.3 | 5.7 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 5.8 |
| Hispanic | — | — | 6.1 | 6.2 | 7.0 | 6.1 |
| Age of Mother | | | | | | |
| Under 15 | 16.6 | 14.1 | 14.6 | 12.9 | 13.3 | 13.2 |
| 15-19 | — | 10.0 | 9.4 | 9.3 | 9.3 | 9.3 |
| 20-24 | 7.4 | 7.1 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 7.1 | 7.1 |
| 25-29 | 6.9 | 6.1 | 5.8 | 5.9 | 6.2 | 6.2 |
| 30-34 | 7.5 | 6.8 | 5.9 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 6.5 |
| 35-49 | — | 8.4 | 7.2 | — | 7.4 | 7.8 |

Notes: [a]Before 1979, low birth weight defined as: Infants weighing ≤ 2,500 grams (≤ 5.5 pounds). 1979 and beyond, low birth weight defined as: Infants weighing < 2,500 grams (<5.5 pound).
[b]Data between 1970 and 1985 by race are for race of child; percentages for 1990 and 1992 are based on race of mother.
[c]Percent low birth weight by ethnicity are not available before 1980. Birth figures for Hispanic infants in 1985 are based on data for 23 States and the District of Columbia which report Hispanic origin of the mother on the birth certificate. These states accounted for 90 percent of the Hispanic population in 1980. Percentages for 1980 and 1985 are based on the ethnicity of child, percentages for 1990 and 1992 are based on the ethnicity of the mother.

Source: 1970 data from: National Center for Health Statistics, *Health, United States, 1982*, Table 24; 1975 data from: *Vital Statistics of the U.S., 1975*, Table 1-37; 1980 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Vol. 31 No. 8 (Supplement) November 1982; 1985 data from: *Vital Statistics of the United States*, 1985, Table 13, Tables 1-39; and 1-113. 1990 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Vol. 41, No. 9(s) February, 1993, Tables 13 and 26; 1992 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Vol. 43, No. 5(s), October, 1994, Tables 24,43 and 44.

## HC 2.2.B PERCENT OF CHILDREN BORN VERY LOW BIRTH WEIGHT

Very low birth weight is defined as infants weighing less than 1,500 grams (3.3 pounds). Very low birth weight infants are particularly at risk for severe physical and developmental complications and death. Advances in medical technology have made it possible to keep smaller children alive for longer periods.

For whites, the percentage of births classified as very low birth weight is approximately 1.0 percent and has remained relatively constant between 1970 and 1992. (*See* Table HC 2.2.b) The percent of very low birth weight babies among blacks, however, increased during this time period, going from 2.4 percent in 1970 to 3.0 percent by 1992. These trends are in contrast to those shown in Table HC 2.2.a in which the proportion of low (as distinct from "very low") birth weight babies decreased for both blacks and whites across the same twenty-two year period.

Age of the mother appears to be an important factor in the likelihood of very low birth weight, particularly at the youngest ages. The proportion of babies born very low birth weight to mothers under the age of 15 is nearly twice as high as that for mothers 15 and older, and has not improved substantially between 1975 (the first year that data were presented by age of the mother) and 1992. The proportion of very low birth weight births to mothers under age 15 was 3.1 in 1975, increased to 3.4 by 1980 and declined to its original 3.1 percent by 1992. The percent of very low birth weight births among mothers age 15 to 19 (1.8 percent) is substantially less than the proportion of such births to their younger counterparts, but remains somewhat higher than the proportion observed for women 20 and older (between 1.1 and 1.5 percent).

**Table HC 2.2.B PERCENT OF ALL BIRTHS BORN VERY LOW BIRTH WEIGHT[a] SELECTED YEARS: 1970 - 1992**

| | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Race/Ethnicity[b,c] | | | | | | |
| White | 1.0 | .9 | .9 | .9 | 1.0 | 1.0 |
| Black | 2.4 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 3.0 |
| Hispanic | — | — | — | — | — | 1.0 |
| Age of Mother | | | | | | |
| Under 15 | — | 3.1 | 3.4 | 3.1 | 3.2 | 3.1 |
| 15-19 | — | 1.8 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 1.8 |
| 20-24 | — | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 1.3 |
| 25-29 | — | .9 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.1 |
| 30-34 | — | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 1.2 |
| 35-49 | — | 1.2 | 1.2 | — | 1.4 | 1.5 |

Notes: [a]Before 1979, very low birth weight defined as: Infants weighing ≤ 1,500 grams, 1979 and beyond, very low birth weight defined as: Infants Weighting < 1,500 grams.
[b]Data between 1970 and 1985 by race are for race of child; percentages for 1990 and 1992 are based on race of mother.
[c]1992 ethnicity is of mother.

Source: 1970 data from: National Center for Health Statistics, *Health, United States, 1982*, Table 24; 1975 data from: *Vital Statistics of the U.S., 1975*, Table 1-37; 1980 data from: Monthly Vital Statistics, Vol. 31 No. 8 (Supplement) November 1982; 1985 data from: *Vital Statistics of the United States, 1985*, Table 13, Tables 1-39 and 1-113; 1990 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Vol. 41, No. 9(s) February, 1993, Tables 13 and 26; 1992 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report* Vol. 43, No. 5(s), October, 1994, Tables 24,43 and 44.

## HC 2.3 GENERAL HEALTH CONDITION: PERCENT OF CHILDREN IN VERY GOOD OR EXCELLENT HEALTH

Most children in the United States are reported to be in very good or excellent health. Table HC 2.3 indicates that between 1982 and 1993, roughly 80 percent of children under the age of 18 were reported to be in very good or excellent health. The proportion increased slightly between 1982 and 1990, then decreased slightly between 1990 and 1993. The proportion of children in very good or excellent health varied little by gender or age of the child, with percentages ranging between 76 and 82 percent across these subgroups over this time period.

While few age or gender differences are observed in the proportion of children who are reported to be in very good or excellent health, race differences in this indicator are more striking. In 1982, a smaller proportion of black children under 5 years of age (64 percent) received a favorable health rating than did white children of similar age (83 percent). Respective percentages for ages 5-17 were 57 and 80 percent for black and white children. By 1993, racial disparities in the proportion of children in very good or excellent health narrowed by approximately one half due to increases in the percentage of black children reported to be in good or excellent health. Among children under age 5, 71 percent of black children and 82 percent of white children were reported to be in good or excellent health. Percentages for black and white children ages 5-17 were 70 and 81 percent, respectively.

**Table HC 2.3 PERCENT OF CHILDREN UNDER AGE 18 REPORTED TO BE IN VERY GOOD OR EXCELLENT HEALTH FOR SELECTED YEARS: 1982 - 1993**

| | 1982 | | 1984 | | 1987 | | 1990 | | 1992 | | 1993 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Age | < 5 | 5-17 | < 5 | 5-17 | < 5 | 5-17 | < 5 | 5-17 | < 5 | 5-17 | < 5 | 5-17 |
| Total | 79 | 76 | 79 | 77 | 81 | 80 | 81 | 80 | 80 | 80 | 80 | 79 |
| Race | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Black | 64 | 57 | 67 | 65 | 71 | 66 | 72 | 68 | 70 | 68 | 71 | 70 |
| White | 83 | 80 | 81 | 80 | 84 | 83 | 83 | 83 | 82 | 82 | 82 | 81 |
| Gender | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 78 | 77 | 78 | 78 | — | — | 80 | 81 | 79 | 80 | 80 | 79 |
| Female | 80 | 76 | 79 | 77 | — | — | 82 | 80 | 81 | 79 | 80 | 78 |

Notes: [a]Health status as reported by parent.
[b]The scale in the National Health Interviews Survey for overall rating of a subjects health was changed between 1981 and 1982 from a four category to a five category scale. In addition, parents were no longer asked to compare the child with others of the same age and sex. Thus ratings for years prior to 1982 are not strictly comparable to these years.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Current Estimates from the National Health Interview Survey: United States" 1982, 1984, 1987, 1990, 1992, 1993; *Vital and Health Statistics*, Series 10, No. 150, Table 68, Nos. 156, 166, 181, 189, and 190, Table 70 in each.

## HC 2.4 CHRONIC HEALTH CONDITIONS

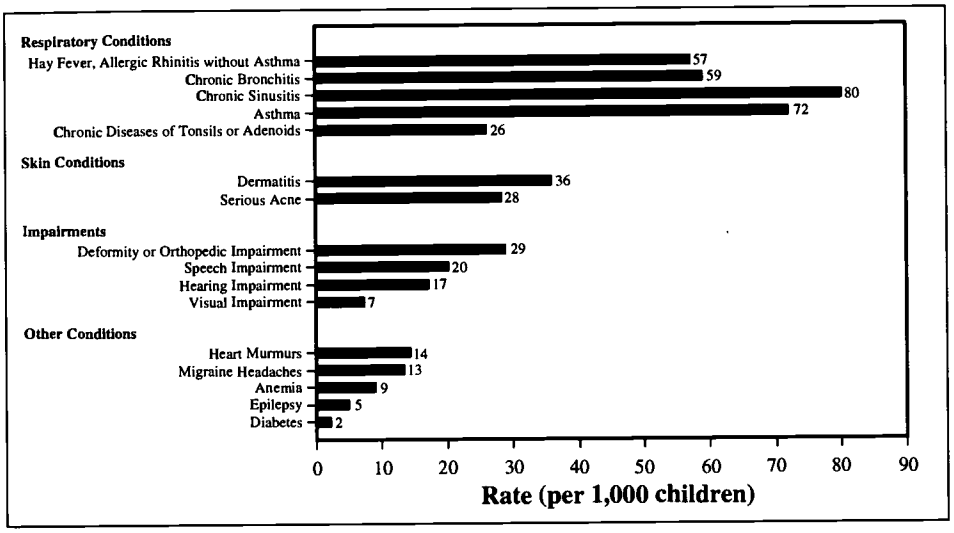
When assessing the health of children, it is important to examine the prevalence of chronic health conditions. Children with persistent health problems are more likely to miss school and require regular medical assistance and follow-up. Such chronic problems also pose difficulties for the parents of children with chronic health problems. Parents may experience emotional stress, often lose days from work, and incur additional medical expenses associated with recurrent medical visits and follow-up care.

According to Table HC 2.4, respiratory conditions are the most prevalent type of chronic health problems experienced by children 0 to 17 years of age over the past 20 years. In addition, rates for most types of chronic health conditions were fairly constant during that time period, with the exception of chronic respiratory conditions which show sizable increases between 1982 and 1992. Figure HC 2.4.B demonstrates substantial increases in rates of chronic bronchitis, chronic sinusitis, and asthma between 1982 and 1993. Rates of chronic bronchitis rose from 34 per 1,000 children in 1982 to 59 per 1,000 in 1993 (a 76 percent increase). Similarly, rates of chronic sinusitis increased steadily from 43 cases per 1,000 to 80 cases per 1,000 children (an 85 percent increase). Rates of asthma increased 79 percent going from 40 cases per 1,000 in 1982 to 72 cases per 1,000 in 1993.

Rates of chronic skin conditions also changed during this time period, although to a lesser extent. Table HC 2.4 shows that rates of dermatitis decreased from 40 per 1,000 to 36, while rates of acne increased from 24 to 28 per 1,000 children. In addition, rates for chronic impairments showed measurable declines. The prevalence of deformities or orthopedic impairments declined slightly from a rate of 32 to a rate of 29, speech impairments from 21 to 20, and hearing impairments from a rate of 20 to 17 per 1,000 children. The largest improvement in this category of chronic conditions is noted for visual impairments, where the prevalence of conditions among children went from a rate of 13 to 7 per 1,000 children; a 45 percent decline over the 9 year period.

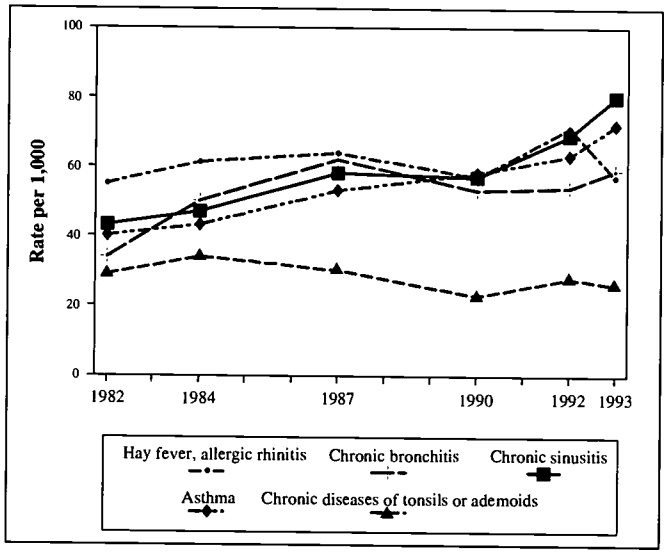
Rates of "other conditions," which include heart murmurs, migraine headaches, anemia, epilepsy and diabetes, indicate these ailments affect the child population to a lesser extent than the chronic conditions just described. However, we note modest increases in the rates for most of these types of conditions. The biggest increase is observed in the prevalence of migraine headaches which increased from a rate of 8 per 1,000 in 1984 to 13 per 1,000 in 1993.

## Figure HC 2.4.A SELECTED CHRONIC HEALTH CONDITIONS PER 1,000 CHILDREN 0-17: 1993




Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Current Estimates from the National Health Interview Survey: United States 1982", 1984, 1987, 1990, 1992, 1993; Vital and Health Statistics, Series 10, Nos. 150, 156, 166, 181, 189, and 190, Tables 57 and 62.

Figure HC 2.4.B RATES PER 1,000 CHILDREN 0-17 OF SELECTED CHRONIC RESPIRATORY CONDITIONS FOR SELECTED YEARS: 1982 - 1993




Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Current Estimates from the National Health Interview Survey: United States 1982", 1984, 1987, 1990, 1992, 1993; *Vital and Health Statistics*, Series 10, Nos. 150, 156, 166, 181, 189, and 190, Tables 57 and 62.

## Table HC 2.4 SELECTED CHRONIC HEALTH CONDITIONS[a] PER 1,000 CHILDREN[b], FOR SELECTED YEARS: 1982 - 1993

| Type of Conditions | 1982 | 1984 | 1987 | 1990 | 1992 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Respiratory Conditions | | | | | | |
| Hay fever, allergic rhinitis without Asthma | 55 | 61 | 64 | 57 | 71 | 57 |
| Chronic bronchitis | 34 | 50 | 62 | 53 | 54 | 59 |
| Chronic sinusitis | 43 | 47 | 58 | 57 | 69 | 80 |
| Asthma | 40 | 43 | 53 | 58 | 63 | 72 |
| Chronic diseases of tonsils or adenoids | 29 | 34 | 30 | 23 | 28 | 26 |
| Skin Conditions | | | | | | |
| Dermatitis | 40 | 39 | 32 | 31 | 41 | 36 |
| Serious acne | 24 | 26 | 26 | 26 | 25 | 28 |
| Impairments | | | | | | |
| Deformity or orthopedic impairment | 32 | 35 | 36 | 29 | 33 | 29 |
| Speech impairment | 21 | 16 | 19 | 14 | 21 | 20 |
| Hearing impairment | 20 | 24 | 16 | 21 | 15 | 17 |
| Visual impairment | 13 | 9 | 10 | 9 | 10 | 7 |
| Other Conditions | | | | | | |
| Heart murmurs | 13 | 16 | 17 | 13 | 13 | 14 |
| Migraine headache | 8 | 11 | 8 | 14 | 13 | 13 |
| Anemia | 10 | 11 | 8 | 10 | 11 | 9 |
| Epilepsy | 5 | 7 | 4 | 4 | 3 | 5 |

Notes: [a]Chronic conditions as defined in the National Health Interview Survey are conditions that either a) were first noticed three months or more before the reference date of the interview; or b) belong to a group of conditions (including heart diseases, diabetes, and others) that are considered chronic regardless of when they began. The prevalence estimates are based on reports by parents or other adult respondents in response to checklists administered in household interviews.
[b]Children defined as < 18 years old.
*Estimates for which the numerator has a relative standard error of more than 30% are indicated with an asterisk.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Current Estimates from the National Health Interview Survey: United States 1982", 1984, 1987, 1990, 1992, 1993; Vital and Health Statistics, Series 10, Nos. 150,156, 166, 181, 189, and 190, Tables 57 and 62.

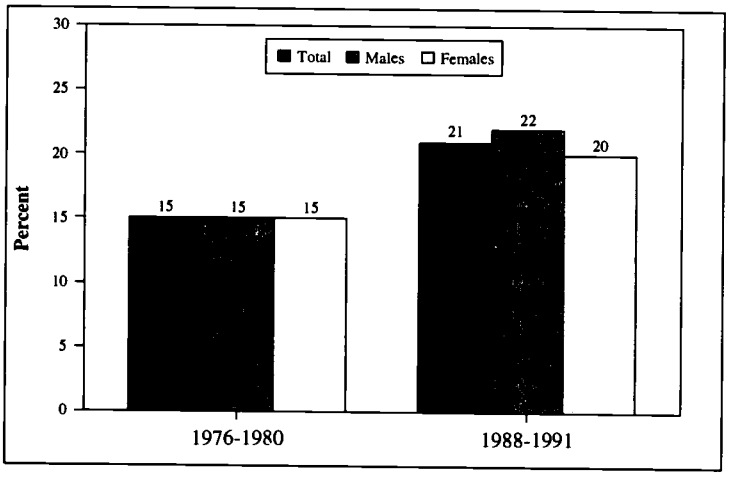
## HC 2.5 OVERWEIGHT ADOLESCENTS

Persons who are overweight in adolescence are at greater risk of being overweight as adults, and adults who are overweight are at higher risk of numerous health problems including high blood pressure, coronary heart disease, gallbladder disease, and non-insulin-dependent diabetes.[24]

Figure HC 2.5 shows the percentage of adolescents ages 12-19 who were overweight for two time periods: 1976-1980 and 1988-1991. Overweight is defined here as the age- and sex-specific weight above the 85th percentile during the initial time period of 1976-1980. The data indicate that adolescents were more likely to be overweight around 1990 than a decade earlier, with the proportion overweight increasing from 15 percent to 21 percent. Further, the increase is larger for males than females, with 22 percent of males and 20 percent of females identified as overweight in the 1988-1991 period.

[24]Public Health Service. 1988. *The Surgeon General's Report on Nutrition and Health.* DHHS (PHS) Pub. No. 88-50210. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

### Figure HC 2.5 THE PERCENTAGE OF ADOLESCENTS AGES 12-19 WHO ARE OVERWEIGHT




Note: Overweight is defined as the weight at or above the 85th percentile of adolescents in 1976-1980. Weights were sex and age specific.

Source: Troiano, Richard. 1995. Prevalence of overweight for adolescents. Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, Phase 1, 1988-91. National Center for Health Statistics. Estimates are calculated from NHANES II and NHANES III surveys.

## Table HC 2.5 PERCENTAGE OF ADOLESCENTS AGES 12-19 WHO ARE OVERWEIGHT

| | 1976-1980 | 1988-1991 |
|---|---|---|
| Total | 15 | 21 |
| Males | 15 | 22 |
| Females | 15 | 20 |

Note: Overweight is defined as the weight at or above the 85th percentile of adolescents in 1976-1980. Weights were sex and age specific.

Source: Troiano, Richard. 1995. "Prevalence of overweight for adolescents." Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey, Phase 1, 1988-1991. National Center for Health Statistics. Estimates are calculated from NHANES II and NHANES III surveys.

## HC 2.6 ABUSE AND NEGLECT

The National Research Council (NRC) characterizes child maltreatment as "a devastating social problem in American society."[25] Abuse and neglect can produce short-term psychological consequences which range from poor peer relations to violent behavior, plus untold long-term psychological and economic consequences when children reach adulthood. In extreme cases it leads to death or serious injury.

The NRC distinguishes four categories of child maltreatment: (1) physical abuse, (2) sexual abuse, (3) emotional maltreatment, and (4) neglect. The first three are commonly grouped together under the term "abuse." However, there are currently no universally accepted definitions of any of these terms. (For example, the point at which corporal punishment becomes physical abuse is not agreed upon by child welfare professionals or lay people.)

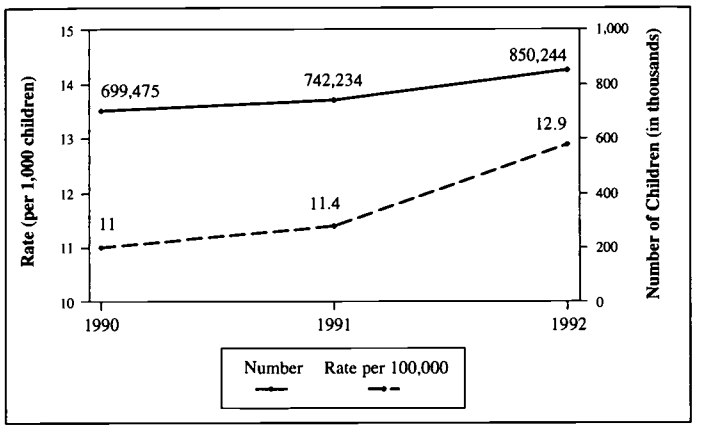
As shown in Figure HC 2.6, according to data from the most comprehensive annual data collection efforts undertaken to date, there were about 850,000 substantiated cases of child abuse and neglect in 1992—a rate of 12.9 cases per thousand children under age 18. This is a substantial increase over the roughly 700,000 cases substantiated in 1990, when the rate was only 11.0 cases per thousand. Maltreatment was about evenly split between abuse and neglect.

As shown in Table HC 2.6, black children account for a disproportionate share of substantiated maltreatment cases relative to their share of the child population. In 1992, African-American children, who constituted 15 percent of all children under age 18, accounted for 26 percent of the abuse and neglect cases. In contrast, whites, who constituted 68 percent of all children under age 18, accounted for only 55 percent of abused and neglected children. Hispanics, who constituted about 13 percent of all children under age 18, accounted for 10 percent of the abuse and neglect cases.

No age group accounts for an obviously disproportionate share of abuse and neglect cases. Infants under age one account for about 7 percent of substantiated cases. Children age 1 to 5 account for about 33 percent; children ages 6 to 12 account for 38 percent; and children ages 13 to 17 account for about 20 percent.

[25]National Research Council, Panel on Child Abuse and Neglect, *Understanding Child Abuse and Neglect*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press, 1993.

**Figure HC 2.6 SUBSTANTIATED CASES OF CHILD MALTREATMENT, 1990 - 1992 (number, and rate per 1,000 children)**




Sources: 1992, National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect (Washington, DC: U.S.government Printing Office, 1994). 1990-91, National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect, 1991 Summary Data Component (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1993). Denominators for rates from U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States. 1994* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1994).

**Table HC 2.6 NUMBER AND PERCENT OF CHILDREN EXPERIENCING MALTREATMENT, RATE PER 1,000, AND PERCENT DISTRIBUTION ACROSS POPULATION SUBGROUPS, SUBSTANTIATED CASES: 1990 - 1992**

| | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total | | | |
| Number | 699,745 | 742,234 | 850,244 |
| Rate per thousand | 11.0 | 11.4 | 12.9 |
| Type of Maltreatment (% of Total Cases) | | | |
| Abuse | 51 | 50 | 45 |
| Neglect | 49 | 50 | 55 |
| Race/Ethnicity (% of Total Cases) | | | |
| White | 55 | 56 | 55 |
| Black | 25 | 27 | 26 |
| Hispanic | 9 | 10 | 10 |
| Other | 4 | 4 | 4 |
| Unknown | 7 | 5 | 6 |
| Sex (% of Total Cases) | | | |
| Male | 47 | 46 | 46 |
| Female | 53 | 54 | 54 |
| Age (% of Total Cases) | | | |
| Under 1 | 8 | 8 | 7 |
| 1 to 5 | 31 | 32 | 33 |
| 6 to 12 | 37 | 38 | 38 |
| 13 to 17 | 20 | 20 | 20 |
| 18+/unknown | 5 | 2 | 2 |

Sources: 1992, National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect, *Child Maltreatment 1992: Reports from the States to the National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1994). 1990-91, National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect, 1991 Summary Data Component. (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1993). Denominators for rates from U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1994* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1994).

## HC 2.7 PERCENT OF YOUTH WHO THOUGHT SERIOUSLY ABOUT OR ATTEMPTED SUICIDE

Suicide has become increasingly common among youth during the last 40 years. Between 1950 and 1988, suicide rates for teens ages 15-19 increased from 2.7 to 11.3 per 100,000.[26] A considerably larger proportion of teens report having attempted suicide, and even more have seriously considered taking their own lives. As Figure HC 2.7 indicates, in 1993 some 24 percent of youth in grades 9 through 12 report having seriously considered suicide during the previous 12 months. During the same time period an alarming 9 percent, or one in twelve, report having actually attempted suicide during the previous year.

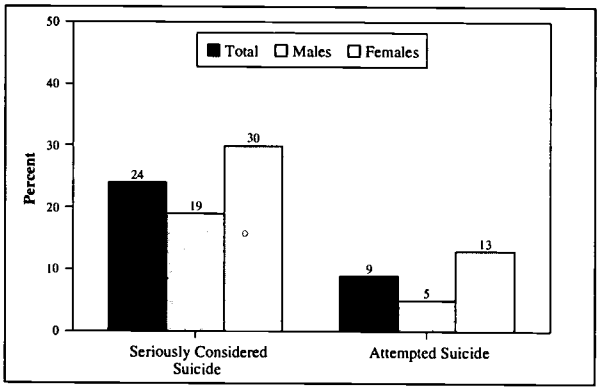
Figure HC 2.7.a also shows that female youth are considerably more likely than male youth to report having thought seriously about suicide (30 percent versus 19 percent) and to have actually attempted suicide (13 percent versus 5 percent) during the previous year. However, rates of actual suicide are considerably higher for males than for females.[27]

The propensity to consider suicide appears to vary little by grade, ranging from 23 percent to 25 percent across grades 9 through 12 in 1993. (*See* Table HC 2.7.a) In 1993, Hispanic youth appear to be somewhat more likely to report having attempted suicide (14 percent) than either black (8 percent) or white (9 percent) youth.

[26] *1990-1991 Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System*, MMWR Reprints, Centers for Disease Control, p. 9.

[27] See elsewhere in this report.

### Figure HC 2.7 SUICIDE: PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING SERIOUSLY CONSIDERED OR ATTEMPTED SUICIDE IN THE PREVIOUS 12 MONTHS: 1993




Sources: Data for 1993 from Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States 1993, Vol. 44, No. SS-1. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. All data from Youth Risk Behavior Surveys 1990-1993.

**Table HC 2.7.A SUICIDAL TEENS: PERCENT OF TEENS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO HAVE SERIOUSLY CONSIDERED SUICIDE IN THE PREVIOUS 12 MONTHS**

| | 1990 | 1991 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 27 | 29 | 24 |
| Male | 21 | 21 | 19 |
| Female | 34 | 37 | 30 |
| Grade | | | |
| 9 | 30 | 29 | 24 |
| 10 | 26 | 30 | 25 |
| 11 | 29 | 32 | 25 |
| 12 | 33 | 26 | 23 |
| Race/Ethnic Group | | | |
| White non-Hispanic | 28 | 30 | 24 |
| Black non-Hispanic | 20 | 22 | 20 |
| Hispanic | 30 | 27 | 26 |

Source: Data for 1990 from 1990-1991 Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System, MMWR reprints, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Data for 1991 from Public Health Reports, Vol. 108, Supplement 1, *U.S. Public Health Service*. Data for 1993 from *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance* - United States 1993, Vol. 44, No. SS-1, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. All data from Youth Risk Behavior Surveys 1990-1993.

**Table HC 2.7.B SUICIDAL TEENS: PERCENT OF TEENS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING ATTEMPTED SUICIDE IN THE PREVIOUS 12 MONTHS**

| | 1990 | 1991 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 8 | 7 | 9 |
| Male | 6 | 4 | 5 |
| Female | 10 | 11 | 13 |
| Grade | | | |
| 9 | 9 | 9 | 10 |
| 10 | 9 | 8 | 9 |
| 11 | 8 | 6 | 8 |
| 12 | 7 | 6 | 7 |
| Race/Ethnic Group | | | |
| White non-Hispanic | 8 | 7 | 8 |
| Black non-Hispanic | 7 | 7 | 8 |
| Hispanic | 12 | 8 | 14 |

Source: Data for 1990 from 1990-1991 Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System, MMWR reprints, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Data for 1991 from Public Health Reports, Vol. 108, Supplement 1, *U.S. Public Health Service*. Data for 1993 from *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States 1993*, Vol. 44, No. SS-1, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. All data from Youth Risk Behavior Surveys 1990-1993.

## HC 3.1 HEALTH INSURANCE COVERAGE

Children who are covered by health insurance are considerably more likely to have a regular source of health care.[28] Regular care increases the continuity of care, which is important to the maintenance of good health.

Table HC 3.1 presents trends from 1987 to 1994 in the percentage of children who were not covered by any form of health insurance. During that period, rates of non-coverage were 13 percent, with an increase to 14 percent in 1993 and 1994.

Table HC 3.1 also displays selected estimates by age, race/ethnicity, and family structure. The table indicates that children were somewhat less likely to be covered as they got older. In 1993 rates of non-coverage increased from 12 percent for children under age 6, to 17 percent for children ages 12-17. Between 1989 and 1993, rates of non-coverage have decreased slightly for children under age 6 (from 13 percent to 12 percent) and increased for children ages 12-17 (from 14 percent to 17 percent).

Across race/ethnicity groups for 1994, Hispanics were considerably more likely to lack coverage (28 percent) than either white (13 percent) or black (17 percent) children. In 1989, the gap between race/ethnicity groups was somewhat larger, when 30 percent of all Hispanic children lacked health coverage.

While children in two parent and single female headed families in 1993 showed similar rates of non-coverage (12 and 14 percent, respectively), children living in single father household were considerably more likely to lack coverage (22 percent). Between 1989 and 1993, rates of health non-coverage appear to have decreased somewhat for children in single female headed families (from 16 to 14 percent), and to have increased for children living in two-parent families (from 11 to 12 percent).

[28]National Center for Health Statistics, "Health of Our Nation's Children" 1988. Vital Statistics Health Series 10, No. 191.

## Table HC 3.1 PERCENT OF CHILDREN NOT COVERED BY HEALTH INSURANCE

| | 1987 | 1988 | 1989 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Children | 13 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 13 | 12 | 14 | 14 |
| Age 0-5 | — | — | 13 | — | — | — | 12 | — |
| Age 6-11 | — | — | 13 | — | — | — | 13 | — |
| Age 12-17 | — | — | 14 | — | — | — | 17 | — |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | | |
| White | — | — | 13 | — | — | — | 13 | 13 |
| Black | — | — | 17 | — | — | — | 16 | 17 |
| Hispanic | — | — | 30 | — | — | — | 26 | 28 |
| Family Structure | | | | | | | | |
| Two parents | — | — | 11 | — | — | — | 12 | — |
| Single Female Headed | — | — | 16 | — | — | — | 14 | — |
| Single Male Headed | — | — | 24 | — | — | — | 22 | — |

Source: Data for 1989 and 1993 produced by Child Trends, Inc., based on data from the March 1990 and 1994 Current Population Surveys. Data for 1994 produced by Child Trends, Inc., based on unpublished tables supplied by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Data for other years provided by U.S. Bureau of the Census based on analyses of March Current Population Surveys for 1988, 1989, 1991, 1992, and 1993.

## HC 3.2.A PRENATAL CARE RECEIPT IN THE FIRST TRIMESTER

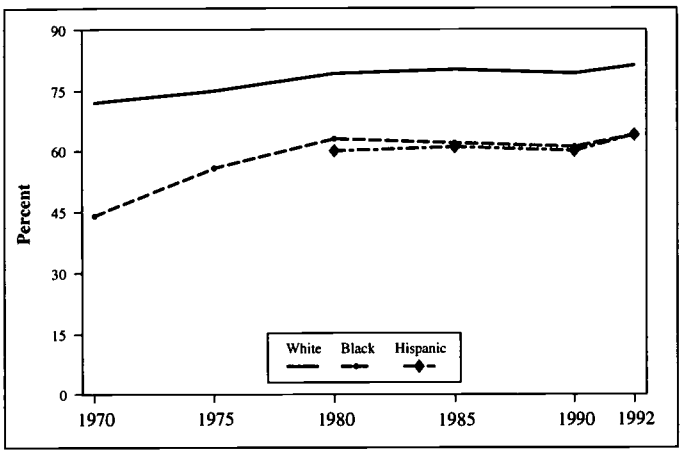
Receiving prenatal care early, that is during the first trimester of a woman's pregnancy, is most beneficial to the mother and fetus. Early prenatal care allows for the early detection of health or physical problems, and the early identification of health compromising behaviors which can be particularly damaging during the initial stages of fetal development. Increasing the number of women who receive prenatal care, and who do so early in their pregnancies can have important implications for birth outcomes and can reduce health care costs by reducing the likelihood of complications during pregnancy and childbirth.

The percent of mothers receiving prenatal care during the first three months of pregnancy (Table HC 3.2.a) has increased, in general, over the past two decades for all women irrespective of race, ethnicity, or age, although gains in the receipt of prenatal care are greater for black mothers than for either white or Hispanic mothers (Figure HC 3.2.a). Further, virtually all of these gains were made between 1970 and 1980. The percent of black mothers receiving prenatal care in the first trimester increased from 44 percent in 1970 to 63 percent in 1980. Rates dipped slightly to 61 percent in 1990 before rising to 64 percent in 1992. Among white mothers, the percent receiving early prenatal care increased from 72 percent in 1970 to 79 percent in 1980, then to 81 percent by 1994.

Mothers under age 15 and mothers age 35 and over also experienced sizable increases in the proportion receiving prenatal care during the first trimester, with rates rising steadily between 1975 and 1992. (*See* Table HC 3.2.a) The percent of young adolescent mothers receiving early prenatal care went from 31 percent in 1975 to 43 percent by 1992; the respective percentages for mothers ages 35 and over were 68 percent and 85 percent.

Despite the general improvements and the strong improvements for black, teen and older mothers, strong race/ethnicity and age differences in the percent of women receiving prenatal care still remain. White women and older women are more likely to receive prenatal care during their first trimester than either black and Hispanic mothers, or younger mothers. For example, in 1992 a greater proportion of white mothers had received prenatal care during their first trimester of pregnancy than black mothers (81 percent versus 64 percent). Young mothers were the least likely to receive prenatal care in the first trimester. Forty-three percent of teen mothers under 15 and 60 percent of mothers 15-19 years of age were reported to receive early prenatal care in 1992, compared to rates in excess of 80 percent among mothers age 25 and older.

**Figure HC 3.2.A PERCENT OF MOTHERS RECEIVING PRENATAL CARE IN THE FIRST TRIMESTER, FOR SELECTED YEARS 1970 - 1992, BY RACE/ETHNICITY**




Source: 1970 data from: National Center for Health Statistics *Health, United States,* 1982, Table 24; 1975 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report.* Vol. 25, No. 10 (Supplement) December 1976, Tables 17 and 18; 1980 data from: Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol. 31, No. 8 (Supplement) November, 1982, Table 20 and Vol. 32, No. 6 (Supplement) September, 1983, Table 13. 1985 data from *Vital Statistics of the United States,* 1985, Vol. 1, "Natality" Tables 1-44 and 1-111. 1990 data from *Monthly Vital Statistics Report,* Vol. 41 No. 9 (Supplement) February, 1993, Tables 26 and 30. 1992 data from *Monthly Vital Statistics Report,* Vol. 43, No. 5(s) October, 1994, Tables 24 and 33.

**Table HC 3.2.A PERCENT OF MOTHERS RECEIVING PRENATAL CARE IN THE FIRST TRIMESTER, FOR SELECTED YEARS: 1970-1992**

| | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Race/Ethnicity[a] | | | | | | |
| White | 72 | 75 | 79 | 80 | 79 | 81 |
| Black | 44 | 56 | 63 | 62 | 61 | 64 |
| Hispanic | — | — | 60 | 61 | 60 | 64 |
| Age of Mother | | | | | | |
| Under 15 | — | 31 | 35 | 36 | 38 | 43 |
| 15-19 | — | 53 | 56 | 54 | 55 | 60 |
| 20-24 | — | 73 | 75 | 72 | 69 | 71 |
| 25-29 | — | 82 | 84 | 83 | 82 | 83 |
| 30-34 | — | 79 | 84 | 86 | 85 | 86 |
| 35 and older | — | 68 | 76 | — | 83 | 85 |

Note: [a]Figures for Hispanic women in 1985 are based on data for 23 States and the District of Columbia which report Hispanic origin of the mother on the birth certificate in those years. These states accounted for 90 percent of the Hispanic population in 1980. By 1992, 49 states reported Hispanic origin.

Source: 1970 data from: National Center for Health Statistics *Health, United States, 1982,* Table 24; 1975 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report,* Vol. 25, No. 10 (Supplement) December 1976, Tables 17 and 18; 1980 data from: Monthly Vital Statistics Report ,Vol. 31, No. 8 (Supplement) November, 1982, Table 20 and Vol. 32, No. 6 (Supplement) September, 1983, Table 13. 1985 data from: *Vital Statistics of the United States, 1985,* Vol. 1, "Natality" Tables 1-44 and 1-111. 1990 data from Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol. 41 No. 9 (Supplement) February, 1993, Tables 26 and 30. 1992 data from *Monthly Vital Statistics Report,* Vol. 43, No. 5(s) October, 1994, Tables 24 and 33.

## HC 3.2.B LATE OR NO PRENATAL CARE

Receiving prenatal care late in a woman's pregnancy, or receiving no prenatal care at all during pregnancy, can lead to negative health outcomes for mother and child. Women who receive care late in their pregnancy or no care at all are at an increased risk of bearing infants who are low birth weight, who are stillborn, or who die within the first year of life

As Table HC 3.2.b shows, between 1970 and 1980 the proportion of women receiving late or no prenatal care dropped from 16.6 percent to 8.8 percent for black mothers, and from 6.2 percent to 4.3 percent for white mothers Rates for black mothers rose to 11.3 percent in 1990 before declining to 9.9 percent in 1992. Rates for whites mothers also rose between 1980 and 1990, then fell to a new low of 4.2 percent by 1992.

Table HC 3.2.b shows that young mothers are considerably more likely to receive prenatal care late or not at all than older mothers, with rates for 1992 ranging from 17.2 percent among mothers under age 15 to less than 4 percent among mothers ages 25 and older.

**Table HC 3.2.B PERCENT OF MOTHERS RECEIVING LATE[b] OR NO PRENATAL CARE, FOR SELECTED YEARS: 1970 - 1992**

| | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Race/Ethnicity[a] | | | | | | |
| White | 6.2 | 5.0 | 4.3 | 4.7 | 4.9 | 4.2 |
| Black | 16.6 | 10.5 | 8.8 | 10.0 | 11.3 | 9.9 |
| Hispanic | 12.0 | 12.5 | 12.0 | 9.5 | — | — |
| Age[a] | | | | | | |
| < 15 | — | 21.1 | 20.0 | 20.5 | 20.3 | 17.2 |
| 15-19 | — | 10.8 | 12.7 | 12.0 | 11.9 | 9.7 |
| 20-24 | — | 5.8 | 9.2 | 6.9 | 8.0 | 6.7 |
| 25-29 | — | 3.6 | 2.7 | 3.7 | 4.4 | 3.9 |
| 30-34 | — | 4.2 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.0 |
| 35 and older | | — | 7.5 | 5.4 | — | 4.1 |

Notes: [a]Figures for Hispanic women in 1985 are based on data for 23 States and the District of Columbia which reported Hispanic origin of the mother on the birth certificate. These states accounted for 90 percent of the Hispanic population in 1980. Non-Hispanic women are white, black, and other women not of Hispanic origin, in the same 23 states that report data on origin. By 1992, 49 states reported Hispanic origin.
[b]Late prenatal care is defined as 7th month or later.

Source: 1970 data from: National Center for Health Statistics *Health, United States, 1982*, Table 24; 1975 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Vol. 25, No. 10 (Supplement) December 1976, Tables 17 and 18; 1980 data from: *Monthly Vital Statistics Report* ,Vol. 31, No. 8 (Supplement) November, 1982, Table 20 and Vol. 32, No. 6 (Supplement) September, 1983, Table 13. 1985 data from: *Vital Statistics of the United States, 1985*, Vol. 1, "Natality" Tables 1-44 and 1-111. 1990 data from *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Vol. 41 No. 9 (Supplement) February, 1993, Tables 26 and 30. 1992 data from *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Vol. 43, No. 5(s) October, 1994, Tables 24 and 33.

## HC 3.2.C INADEQUATE PRENATAL CARE

Timeliness of prenatal care is an important contributor to healthy birth outcomes, and is used to assess the adequacy of prenatal care received by mothers. Timeliness of prenatal care is determined by the number of prenatal care visits obtained according to the stage of fetal development. Thus, mothers whose prenatal care is defined as inadequate (e.g., too few visits given the stage of fetal development) are at a greater risk for negative birth outcomes and complications during pregnancy.

According to Table HC 3.2.c, relatively few women received inadequate prenatal care, although strong racial disparities in the adequacy of prenatal care are evident.[29] In 1984, only 6.2 percent of white mothers had received too few visits with respect to the fetal development of their child. The proportion of black mothers in this category was more than twice as high, at 15.1 percent. These racial disparities persisted through 1992.

[29]Data on the adequacy of prenatal care are available only by race of the mother.

**Table HC 3.2.C PERCENT RECEIVING INADEQUATE PRENATAL CARE, (based on the KESSNER Index[a]) BY RACE FOR SELECTED YEARS: 1984 - 1992[b]**

| | 1984 | 1986 | 1988 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Race[c] | | | | | | |
| White | 6.2 | 6.3 | 6.1 | 6.8 | 6.4 | 5.7 |
| Black | 15.1 | 15.3 | 15.5 | 16.4 | 15.5 | 14.5 |

Notes: [a]The Kessner index takes into account both timeliness and quantity of prenatal care, as well as the gestational age of the baby. Inadequate care is defined as follows:

| Gestation (Weeks) | | Number of Prenatal visits |
|---|---|---|
| 17-21 | and | 0 |
| 22-29 | and | 1 or less |
| 30-31 | and | 2 or less |
| 32-33 | and | 3 or less |
| 34 or More | and | 4 or less |

In addition, all women who started care after the 6th month of pregnancy (3rd trimester) were considered to have inadequate care. Adequate care is defined as follows:

| Gestation (Weeks) | | Number of Prenatal visits |
|---|---|---|
| 17 | and | 2 or more |
| 18-21 | and | 3 or more |
| 22-25 | and | 4 or more |
| 26-39 | and | 5 or more |
| 30-31 | and | 6 or more |
| 32-33 | and | 7 or more |
| 34-35 | and | 8 or more |
| 36 or More | and | 9 or more |

In addition, the interval to the first prenatal visit has to be within the first trimester of pregnancy.

Intermediate care - all combinations other than those specified above.

[b]Based on 49 states for 1984-1988 and all 50 states of the United States, 1989-1992. Births with period of gestation, number of prenatal visits or month pregnancy care began not stated were excluded from tabulation.
[c]In 1990, 1991, and 1992 race is of mother; For 1984, 1986 and 1988, race is of child.

## HC 3.3 IMMUNIZATION: PERCENT OF CHILDREN AGES 19-35 MONTHS WHO ARE FULLY IMMUNIZED

Between 1989 and 1991, several major outbreaks of measles occurred across the United States, refocusing national attention on childhood immunizations. According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 80 percent of all routine childhood vaccinations are recommended to be administered within the first 2 years of life. Although between 97 and 98 percent of children in the United States receive their complete series[30] of immunizations before or shortly after starting school, estimates of complete immunization among preschool children are considerably lower.

Increases in the proportion of children vaccinated between 1991 and 1993 are noted for each of the five recommended vaccines. (*See* Figure HC 3.3.a) Improvements in vaccination coverage of individual vaccines are observed for all children, but particularly for low-income children, minority children, and children living in urban or rural areas. (*See* Table HC 3.3.a) For instance, in 1991 the percent of impoverished children vaccinated for polio was roughly 39 percent, while 60 percent of children at or above the poverty line had received the polio vaccine (a 21 percentage point gap). By 1993, the gap had closed to only 8 percent, with respective percentages at 73 and 81.

During this time period, substantial improvements are observed in the proportion of children receiving the combined series of DTP, OPV and MMR vaccinations. (*See* Figure HC 3.3.b) In 1991, only 37 to 56 percent of children 19-35 months had received their completed vaccination series of 4 doses of DTP, 3 doses of OPV, and 1 dose of MMR (4:3:1). The proportion increased to 55 percent in 1992 and 67 percent in 1993.[31] Similar increases are observed for children across socioeconomic, minority, and residence subgroups. (*See* Table HC 3.3.a) However, disparities by income subgroups remain. For example, less than one-quarter of children in poverty in 1991 received the complete vaccination series with four doses of DTP. The proportion of children above poverty who did so was 42 percent. By 1993 the respective proportions were 59 percent and 71 percent.

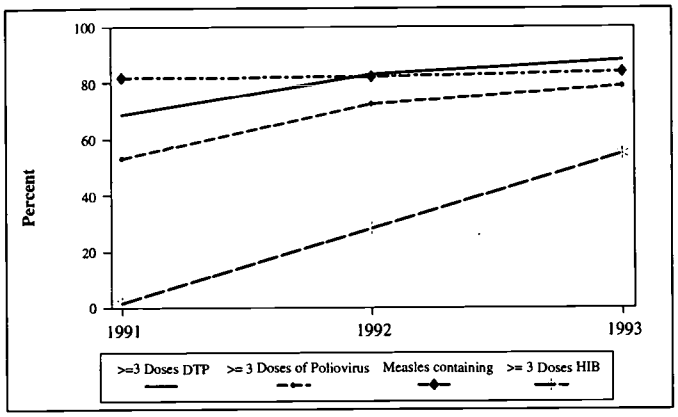
Table 3.3.b presents immunization data for 1994. Unlike data for previous years, which were based only on parent reports, 1994 estimates are based on both parent and provider information. Current plans are for future Federal estimates will also be based on parent and provider information as well. Estimates that include provider reports are more accurate and reflect higher rates of immunization than those based on parent reports alone. Data for 1994 cannot be compared to estimates for 1991-1993, however, since an undetermined portion of the observed increase between 1993 and 1994 is due to this change in methodology.

In 1994, the proportion of two year olds who had received the full 4:3:1 series of vaccines is 75 percent. Ninety-three percent of two year olds received three or more doses of DTP vaccine, and 77 percent received 4 or more doses. Eighty-three percent received three or more doses of poliovirus vaccine, 86 percent three or more doses of hemophilus influenzas type b vaccine, 89 percent received the MMR (measles, mumps, rubella) vaccine, and 42 percent received three or more doses of the hepatitis b vaccine. Still, over one million American children remain unvaccinated for serious preventable diseases.

[30]Four doses of diphtheria and tetanus toxoids and pertussis (DTP), three doses of oral poliovirus vaccine (OPV) and one dose of measles-mumps-rubella (MMR).

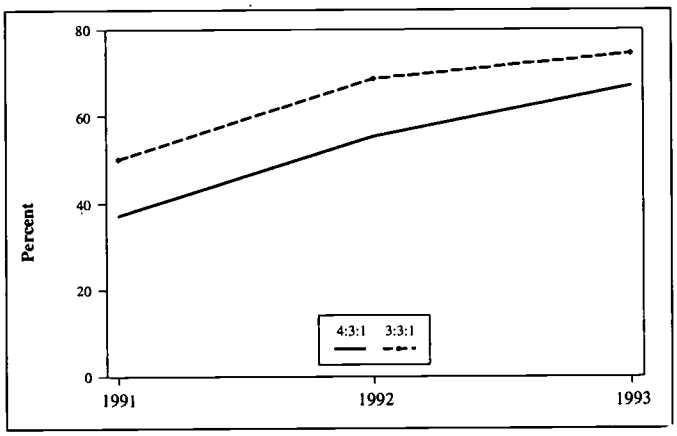
[31]1994 estimates that supplement immunization data gathered from parents with information from medical providers report a 75% rate of coverage. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, Vol. 44, No. 33, pp 613-623.

**Figure HC 3.3.A PERCENT OF CHILDREN 19-35 MONTHS WHO RECEIVED RECOMMENDED VACCINATIONS FOR 1991, 1992 AND 1993**




Source: Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Reports, Vaccination Coverage 2 year old children, United States, 1991-1992 January 7, 1992 Vol. 43 Nos. 51 and 52, Table 1; and unpublished data from the Assessment Branch of the National Immunization Program, National Center for Health Statistics: Centers for Disease Control.

**Figure HC 3.3.B PERCENT OF CHILDREN 19-35 MONTHS WHO RECEIVED THE COMBINED SERIES IMMUNIZATIONS 1991, 1992, AND 1993**




Source: Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Reports, Vaccination Coverage 2 year old children, United States, 1991-1992 January 7, 1992 Vol. 43 Nos. 51 and 52, Table 1; and unpublished data from the Assessment Branch of the National Immunization Program, National Center for Health Statistics: Centers for Disease Control.

## Table HC 3.3.A PERCENT[a] OF CHILDREN AGED 19-35 MONTHS WHO HAVE RECEIVED VACCINATIONS FOR ROUTINELY RECOMMENDED VACCINES, BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS—UNITED STATES: 1991 - 1993

| Characteristics | Individual Vaccine 1991 | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | Combined Series | |
| | ≥ 3 Doses DTP* | ≥ 4 Doses DTP | ≥ 3 Doses Poliovirus | ≥ 3 Doses Hib† | Measles¥ | ≥ 3 Doses Hepatitis | 4:3:1§ | 3:3:1¶ |
| Socioeconomic status | | | | | | | | |
| Below poverty†† level | 53.0 | 29.9 | 38.7 | 0.0 | 73.4 | — | 23.8 | 34.3 |
| At or above poverty level | 75.7 | 48.6 | 59.5 | 2.2 | 86.6 | — | 42.2 | 56.6 |
| Race | | | | | | | | |
| White | 73.4 | 47.3 | 57.3 | 1.9 | 82.9 | — | 41.4 | 54.5 |
| Black | 50.6 | 27.9 | 35.6 | 1.4 | 77.4 | — | 20.8 | 31.4 |
| Other§§ | 58.0 | 33.1 | 49.8 | 0.0 | 83.8 | — | 27.5 | 44.2 |
| Residence¶¶ | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | 64.8 | 36.4 | 49.9 | 0.9 | 78.4 | — | 31.7 | 46.6 |
| Suburban | 72.3 | 46.4 | 55.8 | 2.5 | 85.0 | — | 38.6 | 52.8 |
| Rural | 67.6 | 47.5 | 52.5 | 1.2 | 81.1 | — | 41.9 | 49.4 |
| Total | 68.8 | 43.3 | 53.2 | 1.7 | 82.0 | — | 37.0 | 50.0 |

| Characteristics | Individual Vaccine 1992 | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | Combined Series | |
| | ≥ 3 Doses DTP* | ≥ 4 Doses DTP | ≥ 3 Doses Poliovirus | ≥ 3 Doses Hib† | Measles¥ | ≥ 3 Doses Hepatitis | 4:3:1§ | 3:3:1¶ |
| Socioeconomic status | | | | | | | | |
| Below poverty†† level | 79.7 | 54.4 | 66.6 | 23.0 | 80.2 | — | 51.4 | 65.0 |
| At or above poverty level | 84.6 | 61.0 | 74.7 | 29.8 | 84.3 | — | 56.7 | 70.2 |
| Race | | | | | | | | |
| White | 84.8 | 59.5 | 74.1 | 29.1 | 83.6 | — | 55.9 | 70.0 |
| Black | 74.7 | 55.0 | 62.7 | 25.5 | 77.9 | — | 50.9 | 60.2 |
| Other§§ | 79.3 | 62.4 | 75.5 | 23.0 | 79.9 | — | 57.5 | 71.9 |
| Residence¶¶ | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | 82.5 | 59.7 | 74.1 | 27.5 | 84.5 | — | 57.7 | 72.4 |
| Suburban | 84.4 | 60.0 | 72.6 | 31.8 | 83.3 | — | 55.4 | 68.2 |
| Rural | 80.7 | 55.4 | 69.0 | 20.8 | 77.2 | — | 50.5 | 63.2 |
| Total | 83.0 | 59.0 | 72.4 | 28.2 | 82.5 | — | 55.3 | 68.7 |

**Table HC 3.3.A PERCENT[a] OF CHILDREN AGED 19-35 MONTHS WHO HAVE RECEIVED VACCINATIONS FOR ROUTINELY RECOMMENDED VACCINES, BY SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS—UNITED STATES: 1991 - 1993 (continued)**

| | Individual Vaccine 1993 | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | Combined Series | |
| | ≥ 3 Doses DTP* | ≥ 4 Doses DTP | ≥ 3 Doses Poliovirus | ≥ 3 Doses Hib† | Measles¥ | ≥ 3 Doses Hepatitis | 4:3:1§ | 3:3:1¶ |
| Characteristics | | | | | | | | |
| Socioeconomic status | | | | | | | | |
| Below poverty†† level | 80.6 | 65.3 | 73.3 | 44.0 | 78.4 | 11.3 | 58.7 | 66.8 |
| At or above poverty level | 90.8 | 74.6 | 81.0 | 59.6 | 87.0 | 18.2 | 70.5 | 77.7 |
| Race | | | | | | | | |
| White | 89.4 | 73.0 | 79.8 | 57.0 | 86.0 | 16.3 | 68.4 | 75.7 |
| Black | 82.6 | 69.2 | 73.4 | 44.8 | 76.9 | 16.0 | 61.8 | 69.2 |
| Other§§ | 84.5 | 64.7 | 80.8 | 56.9 | 72.5 | 16.7 | 58.4 | 68.0 |
| Residence¶¶ | | | | | | | | |
| Urban | 85.8 | 68.5 | 75.3 | 47.8 | 84.2 | 17.4 | 62.1 | 71.5 |
| Suburban | 89.8 | 75.6 | 79.7 | 60.5 | 86.2 | 19.0 | 71.4 | 76.3 |
| Rural | 88.5 | 70.6 | 82.5 | 55.2 | 79.8 | 9.3 | 66.0 | 75.3 |
| Total | 88.2 | 72.1 | 78.9 | 55.0 | 84.1 | 16.3 | 67.1 | 74.5 |

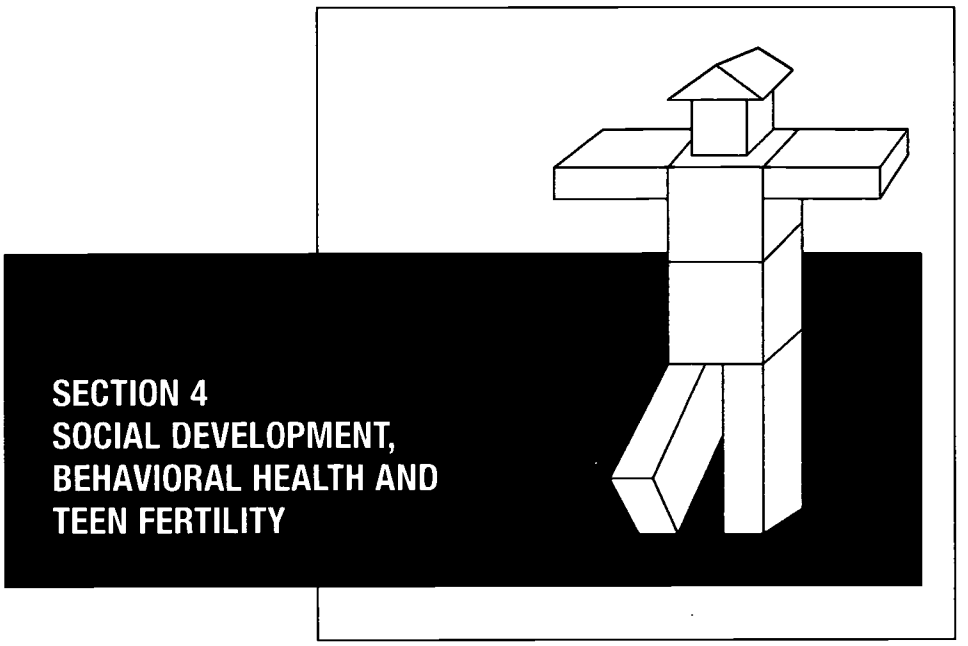
Source: Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Reports,Vaccination Coverage 2 year old children, United States, 1993, October 7, 1994, Vol. 43 No. 39, Table 2.

**Table HC 3.3.B PERCENT[a] OF CHILDREN AGED 19-35 MONTHS WHO HAVE RECEIVED VACCINATIONS FOR ROUTINELY RECOMMENDED VACCINES—UNITED STATES: 1994**

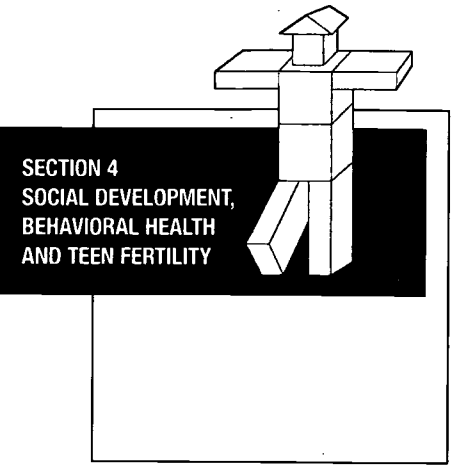
| | Individual Vaccine 1994 | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | Combined Series | |
| | ≥ 3 Doses DTP* | ≥ 4 Doses DTP | ≥ 3 Doses Poliovirus | ≥ 3 Doses Hib† | Measles¥¥ | ≥ 3 Doses Hepatitis | 4:3:1§ | 3:3:1¶ |
| Total | 93 | 77 | 83 | 86 | 89 | 42 | 75 | — |

Note: Data for 1994 supplement immunization data gathered from parents with information from medical providers and cannot be compared to 1991-1993 data.
Source: Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Reports, National, State and Urban Area Vaccination Coverage Levels Among Children Aged 19-35 Months— United States April 1994-March 1995, February 23, 1995 (Data from the National Immunization Survey).

Notes for Tables HC 3.3.a and HC 3.3.b:
*Diphtheria and tetanus toxoids and pertussis vaccine.
†Hemophilus influenzas type b vaccine;
§Four doses of DTP, three doses of poliovirus, and one dose of measles-mumps-rubella vaccine.
¶Three doses of DTP, three doses of poliovirus, and one dose of measles-mumps-rubella vaccine.
††Poverty statistics are based on definitions developed by the Social Security Administration that include a set of income thresholds that vary by family size and composition.
§§Limitations in sample size precluded collection of data about ethnicity and analysis of data for races other than black and white.
¶¶Rural areas were those not in a metropolitan statistical area (MSA); suburban areas were those in an MSA but outside the central city; and urban areas were the central city of MSA.
¥Any vaccination containing measles vaccine.
¥¥Any vaccination containing measles-mumps-rubella vaccine.
[a]Data are based on household interviews of a sample of the non civilian, non institutionalized population. Refusals and unknowns were excluded.



# SECTION 4
# SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT, BEHAVIORAL HEALTH AND TEEN FERTILITY






## SD 1.1 LIFE GOALS: THE PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS WHO RATED SELECTED PERSONAL AND SOCIAL LIFE GOALS AS EXTREMELY IMPORTANT

Table SD 1.1 presents the percent of high school seniors who rated selected personal and social life goals as extremely important for 1976 through 1994. Personal goals include: being successful at work, having a good marriage and family life, and having lots of money. Social goals include: making a contribution to society, working to correct social and economic inequalities, and being a leader in the community.

An overview of these measures shows that in 1994 a majority of seniors thought that it was extremely important to be successful at work (63 percent), and to have a good marriage and family life (76 percent). By contrast, the percentage who attached this level of importance to the social goals of making a contribution to society, working to correct social and economic inequality, and being a leader in the community is substantially smaller, ranging from 14 percent to 24 percent. Twenty-six percent believed that having lots of money was extremely important.

Trends between 1976 and 1994 indicate that a rising percentage of seniors attach great importance to the personal goals of being successful at work (from 53 percent to 63 percent) and making lots of money (from 15 percent to 26 percent). The percent reporting having a good marriage and family life as extremely important stayed relatively high and steady at around 75 percent. Among the social goals, there were increases in the percentage who think that it is extremely important to make a contribution to society (18 percent to 24 percent), and to become a leader in the community (7 percent to 14 percent), and to correct social and economic inequalities (10 percent to 14 percent).

In 1994, blacks were more likely than whites to view as extremely important issues such as being successful at work (79 percent versus 60 percent), having lots of money (47 percent versus 22 percent), and correcting social and economic inequalities (25 percent versus 11 percent). The two groups appeared equally likely to attach extreme importance to having a good marriage and family life, a rate that has hovered at around 75 percent for both races over time. Clearly, black youth continue to attach great importance to marriage and family despite their considerably lower marriage rates.

Across the six goals rates vary little between males and females with two exceptions. In 1994, females were more likely to indicate that having a good marriage and family life was extremely important (81 percent versus 70 percent), and less likely to report that having lots of money was an extremely important goal (19 percent versus 32 percent).

**Table SD 1.1 PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO RATE SELECTED LIFE GOALS AS BEING "EXTREMELY IMPORTANT": 1976 - 1994**

| | 1976 | 1981 | 1986 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Personal Goals** | | | | | | | |
| *Being Successful in My Line of Work* | | | | | | | |
| Total | 53 | 57 | 61 | 62 | 66 | 65 | 63 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 53 | 58 | 62 | 60 | 63 | 63 | 61 |
| Female | 52 | 57 | 60 | 64 | 69 | 67 | 66 |
| Race | | | | | | | |
| White | 50 | 55 | 58 | 59 | 65 | 62 | 60 |
| Black | 67 | 71 | 73 | 75 | 80 | 74 | 79 |
| *Having a Good Marriage and Family Life* | | | | | | | |
| Total | 73 | 76 | 75 | 76 | 78 | 79 | 76 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 66 | 71 | 69 | 71 | 72 | 74 | 70 |
| Female | 80 | 89 | 82 | 83 | 84 | 85 | 81 |
| Race | | | | | | | |
| White | 72 | 77 | 76 | 76 | 79 | 79 | 76 |
| Black | 75 | 73 | 76 | 78 | 75 | 76 | 72 |
| *Having Lots of Money* | | | | | | | |
| Total | 15 | 18 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 26 | 26 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 20 | 24 | 34 | 37 | 35 | 32 | 32 |
| Female | 11 | 13 | 18 | 19 | 22 | 18 | 19 |
| Race | | | | | | | |
| White | 12 | 15 | 24 | 25 | 24 | 20 | 22 |
| Black | 33 | 32 | 38 | 39 | 46 | 45 | 47 |
| **Social Goals** | | | | | | | |
| *Making a Contribution to Society* | | | | | | | |
| Total | 18 | 18 | 17 | 21 | 22 | 24 | 24 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 16 | 19 | 18 | 20 | 22 | 25 | 23 |
| Female | 20 | 17 | 16 | 22 | 23 | 25 | 25 |
| Race | | | | | | | |
| White | 18 | 18 | 16 | 20 | 22 | 24 | 23 |
| Black | 23 | 21 | 20 | 27 | 27 | 25 | 29 |
| *Working to Correct Social and Economic Inequalities* | | | | | | | |
| Total | 10 | 10 | 9 | 12 | 15 | 15 | 14 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 8 | 9 | 7 | 11 | 14 | 14 | 12 |
| Female | 13 | 10 | 11 | 13 | 17 | 16 | 16 |
| Race | | | | | | | |
| White | 8 | 7 | 7 | 10 | 13 | 12 | 11 |
| Black | 20 | 21 | 19 | 21 | 26 | 21 | 25 |
| *Being a Leader in My Community* | | | | | | | |
| Total | 7 | 8 | 9 | 11 | 13 | 13 | 14 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 8 | 8 | 11 | 12 | 14 | 17 | 14 |
| Female | 6 | 7 | 6 | 10 | 11 | 10 | 13 |
| Race | | | | | | | |
| White | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 11 | 12 | 12 |
| Black | 14 | 14 | 12 | 17 | 21 | 19 | 21 |

Source: Bachman, J. G., Johnston, L. D. & O' Malley, P. M. "Monitoring the Future: Questionnaire Responses from the Nations' High School Seniors" 1992, 1994 Questionnaire Form 1-5 numbers C13B and C13C in each report.
Johnston, L. D., Bachman, J. G. & O' Malley, P. M. "Monitoring the Future: Questionnaire Responses from the Nations' High School Seniors" 1976, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1993 Questionnaire Form 1-5 numbers C13B and C13C in each report.

## SD 1.2 POSITIVE PEER INFLUENCES: PEER APPROVAL OF HARD WORK AND GOOD BEHAVIOR IN SCHOOL

The attitudes of a student's peers are of interest to parents, teachers, and society because they are considered by many to influence the youth's own attitudes and behavior. Table SD 1.2 indicates the extent to which students in grades 6-12 in 1993 reported that their peers approved of working hard for grades and behaving well in school.

Asian students were more likely than students of other racial/ethnic origins to report that their peers believe it is very important to work hard for good grades (51 percent of Asian students compared to between 37 percent and 41 percent for white, black and Hispanic students). Asian students were also more likely to report that their peers believe it is very important to behave in school; 40 percent versus 34 percent among Hispanic students, 31 percent among black and 29 percent among white students.

Elementary school students were also more likely to report peer approval of hard work and good behavior than junior or senior high school students. Among elementary school students, 45 percent report peer approval of working hard for good grades compared to only 35 percent of junior high and 38 percent of senior high school students. A similar pattern is found for peer approval of good behavior in school, with the respective percentages for the three groups being 40 percent, 29 percent, and 27 percent.

**Table SD 1.2 POSITIVE PEER INFLUENCES: PERCENT OF STUDENTS REPORTING PEER APPROVAL OF HARD WORK FOR GOOD GRADES AND GOOD BEHAVIOR IN SCHOOL, BY RACE/ETHNICITY AND SCHOOL GRADE, U.S. STUDENTS IN GRADES 6-12, 1993**

| | Very Important to Work Hard For Good Grades | Very Important to Behave Well in School |
|---|---|---|
| Race/Ethnicity | | |
| White | 37 | 29 |
| Black | 41 | 31 |
| Hispanic | 40 | 34 |
| Asian | 51 | 40 |
| School Grade Level | | |
| Elementary | 45 | 40 |
| Middle or Junior High | 35 | 29 |
| Senior High | 38 | 27 |

Source: Zill, N. and Nord, C.W. (1994). *Running in Place.* Washington, DC: Child Trends, Inc., based on tabulations from the National Household Education Survey.

## SD 1.3 RELIGIOUS ATTENDANCE AND RELIGIOSITY

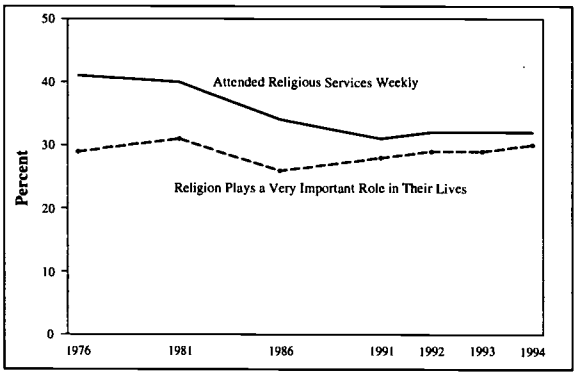
The percent of high school seniors who reported weekly religious attendance declined between 1976 and 1991 from 41 percent to 31 percent. From 1991 to 1994 rates of reported weekly attendance remained fairly constant at between 31 and 32 percent. (*See* Figure SD 1.3) Rates have decreased for both males (36 percent to 30 percent) and females (46 percent to 35 percent) between 1976 and 1994, with females the most likely to report attending throughout the period. (*See* Table SD 1.3)

In 1976, white seniors were somewhat more likely to report regular religious attendance than black seniors with rates of 42 percent and 37 percent, respectively. Due to a decline in attendance rates among white seniors, this situation had reversed by 1994, with rates of 32 percent for white seniors and 39 percent for black seniors.

Given the drop in attendance rates it is perhaps surprising that the percent of high school seniors who report that religion plays a very important role in their lives has remained fairly stable between 1976 and 1994 at 30 percent. (*See* Figure SD 1.3) In 1994, females were somewhat more likely than males to report that religion plays a very important role at 32 percent and 27 percent, respectively. This five percentage point difference is half what it was in 1976, when rates were 34 percent for females and 24 percent for males. (*See* Table SD 1.3)

The most notable contrast concerning the reported importance of religion is between black and white seniors. Between 1976 and 1994, approximately one half of black seniors have consistently reported that religion plays a very important role in their lives. This is approximately double the reported rate for white seniors over that same time period.

### Figure SD1.3 RELIGIOUS ATTENDANCE AND RELIGIOSITY AMONG HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS 1976 - 1994




Source: Bachman, J.G., Johnston, L.D. & O'Malley, P.M. "Monitoring the Future: Questionnaire Responses from the Nations' High School Seniors" 1992, 1994 Questionnaire Form 1-6 numbers C13B and C13C in each report. Johnston, L.D., Bachman, J.G. & O'Malley, P.M. "Monitoring the Future: Questionnaire Responses from the Nation's High School Seniors" 1976, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1993.

**Table SD 1.3 PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO REPORT REGULAR (WEEKLY) RELIGIOUS ATTENDANCE, AND WHO RATE RELIGION AS PLAYING A "VERY IMPORTANT" ROLE IN THEIR LIVES: 1976 - 1994**

| Percent Reporting: | 1976 | 1981 | 1986 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Regular (Weekly) Religious Attendance | | | | | | | |
| Total | 41 | 40 | 34 | 31 | 32 | 32 | 32 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 36 | 36 | 31 | 28 | 31 | 29 | 30 |
| Female | 46 | 44 | 38 | 34 | 34 | 34 | 35 |
| Race | | | | | | | |
| White | 42 | 41 | 35 | 31 | 32 | 31 | 32 |
| Black | 37 | 40 | 36 | 38 | 35 | 35 | 39 |
| Percent Reporting that Religion Plays a Very Important Role in Their Lives. | | | | | | | |
| Total | 29 | 31 | 26 | 28 | 29 | 29 | 30 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 24 | 25 | 23 | 24 | 26 | 26 | 27 |
| Female | 34 | 36 | 30 | 31 | 33 | 33 | 32 |
| Race | | | | | | | |
| White | 26 | 27 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 24 | 26 |
| Black | 51 | 51 | 51 | 50 | 51 | 51 | 49 |

Source: Bachman, J. G. , Johnston, L. D. & O' Malley, P. M. "Monitoring the Future: Questionnaire Responses from the Nations' High School Seniors" 1992, 1994 Questionnaire Form 1-6 numbers C13B and C13C in each report.

Johnston, L. D., Bachman, J. G. & O' Malley, P. M. "Monitoring the Future: Questionnaire Responses from the Nations' High School Seniors" 1976, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1993 Questionnaire Form 1-5 numbers C13B and C13C in each report.

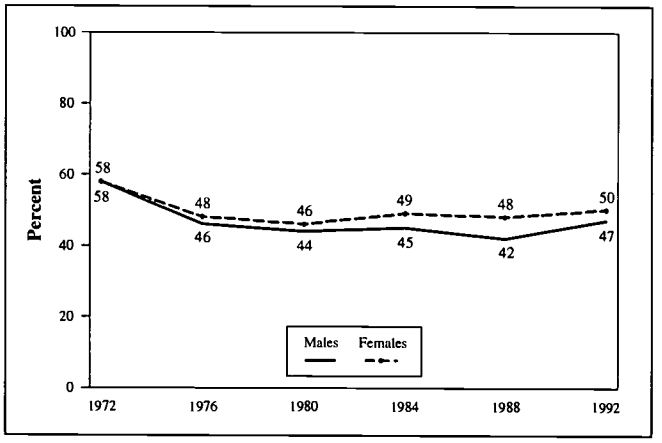
## SD 1.4 YOUNG ADULTS REGISTERED TO VOTE

Voting is a seminal act of citizenship in a democracy. Voter registration among youth may be seen as an indicator of the level of youth commitment to become actively involved in the democratic process. The percent of young adults in the United States who are registered to vote varies from year to year. To examine trends, it is appropriate to look at the proportion during years of presidential elections, when turnout tends to be highest.

As shown in Table SD 1.4.a, in 1972, the first election when young adults aged 18-20 could vote, 58 percent of young adults aged 18-20 were registered to vote. The proportion registered has not been that high in any presidential election year since. By 1976, the proportion had dropped to 47 percent. Throughout the 1980s, the level went up and down but remained around 45 percent. The proportion registered to vote in the most recent presidential election year of 1992 was the highest since 1972 at 48 percent.

Voter registration does vary by gender, as a greater proportion of females in this age group were registered than males in any presidential election year. (*See* Figure SD 1.4) However, the difference is never more than a few percentage points. Registration also varies by race and ethnicity. Table SD 1.4.b presents the proportion of young adults in 1992 who were registered to vote by race/ethnicity, and gender for 1992. The table indicates that white youth were the most likely to register to vote in 1992 at 51 percent, followed by black youth at 43 percent. Hispanic youth were considerably less like to be registered than either whites or blacks at 23 percent. Only about one in five Hispanic male youth were registered to vote.

**Figure SD1.4 PERCENT OF PERSONS AGED 18-20 WHO WERE REGISTERED TO VOTE, PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION YEARS 1972-1992**




[a]Source: Jennings, J.T. (1993). *Voting and Registration in the Election of November 1992.* Current Population Reports, P20-466, Table 2 and Appendix A Historical Tables

**Table SD 1.4.A PERCENT OF PERSONS AGED 18-20 WHO WERE REGISTERED TO VOTE, BY GENDER, PRESIDENTIAL ELECTION YEARS 1972 - 1992**

| Percent Registered in Presidential Election of: | 1972 | 1976 | 1980 | 1984 | 1988 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 58 | 47 | 45 | 47 | 45 | 48 |
| Male | 58 | 46 | 44 | 45 | 42 | 47 |
| Female | 58 | 48 | 46 | 49 | 48 | 50 |

Source: Jennings, J.T. (1993). *Voting and Registration in the Election of November 1992.* Current Population Reports, P20-466, Table 2 and Appendix A Historical Tables.

**Table SD 1.4.B PERCENT OF PERSONS AGED 18-20 WHO WERE REGISTERED TO VOTE BY RACE/ETHNICITY GROUP: 1992**

| | Total | Male | Female |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 48 | 47 | 50 |
| White | 51 | 49 | 53 |
| Black | 43 | 41 | 44 |
| Hispanic | 23 | 20 | 27 |

Source: Jennings, J.T. (1993). *Voting and Registration in the Election of 1992.* Current Population Reports, P-20-466, Table 2.

## SD 1.5 TV VIEWING HABITS

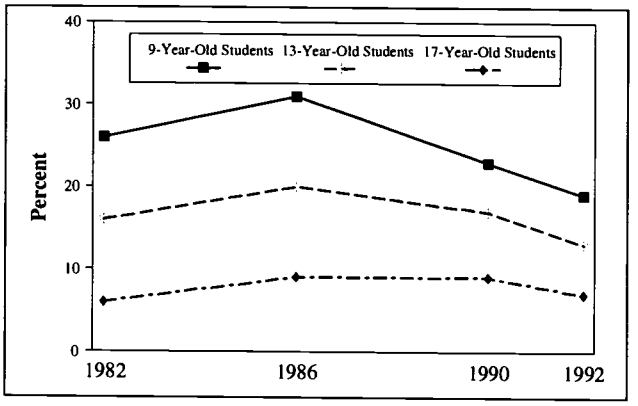
Excessive television watching is negatively related to children's and youths' academic attainment. For example, children and adolescents in grades 4, 8, and 11 who watch six or more hours of television per day have substantially lower scores on a test of writing achievement.[31]

As depicted in Figure SD 1.5, almost one fifth of 9-year-old students (19 percent) watched six or more hours of television each day in 1992. Among 13-year-old students, 13 percent watched six or more hours of television, and only 7 percent of 17-year-olds watched this amount of television each day. For all three age groups, the percentage of students spending six or more hours a day watching television increased between 1982 and 1986, and then declined through 1992. For instance, among 9-year-olds, 26 percent were watching television for long periods each day in 1982; this percentage increased to 31 percent in 1986, and then decreased to 19 percent in 1992.

In general, larger proportions of boys than girls are watching television for long periods of time. This gender difference is particularly notable among the younger children (Table SD 1.5.a). In 1990, 27 percent of boys compared to 20 percent of girls age 9 were watching television for six or more hours per day. A similar pattern is evident for the 13-year-old students (Table SD 1.5.b). In 1990, 18 percent of 13-year-old boys compared to 15 percent of 13-year-old girls were watching television for six or more hours per day. For 17-year-olds on the other hand, the percentages of boys and girls watching television for long periods is nearly the same at 9 percent and 8 percent, respectively, in 1990 (Table SD 1.5.c).

[31]U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (1988). *Youth indicators 1988: Trends in the well-being of American youth.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office

**Figure SD 1.5 PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS WHO WATCH 6 OR MORE HOURS OF TELEVISION PER DAY, BY AGE, 1982-1992**




Source: National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1992 Trend Assessment; and unpublished Trend Almanacs, 1978-1990.

**Table SD 1.5.A PERCENTAGE OF 9- YEAR-OLD STUDENTS WHO WATCH 6 OR MORE HOURS OF TELEVISION PER DAY BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1982 - 1992**

| | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 26 | 31 | 23 | 19 |
| Gender | | | | |
| Male | 30 | 34 | 27 | — |
| Female | 23 | 27 | 20 | — |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | |
| White | 23 | 26 | 18 | — |
| Black | 43 | 53 | 47 | — |
| Hispanic | 28 | 33 | 26 | — |
| Type of School | | | | |
| Public | 27 | 32 | 24 | — |
| Private | 21 | 24 | 18 | — |

Source: National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trend Assessment*; and unpublished Trend Almanacs, 1978-1990.

**Table SD 1.5.B PERCENTAGE OF 13- YEAR-OLD STUDENTS WHO WATCH 6 OR MORE HOURS OF TELEVISION PER DAY BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, TYPE OF SCHOOL, AND PARENT'S HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION: 1982 - 1992**

| | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 16 | 20 | 17 | 13 |
| Gender | | | | |
| Male | 18 | 21 | 18 | — |
| Female | 15 | 19 | 15 | — |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | |
| White | 13 | 17 | 12 | — |
| Black | 32 | 40 | 35 | — |
| Hispanic | 19 | 21 | 18 | — |
| Type of School | | | | |
| Public | 13 | 20 | 17 | — |
| Private | 17 | (*) | 11 | — |
| Parents' Highest Level of Education | | | | |
| Less than high school | 23 | 32 | 24 | — |
| Graduate high school | 18 | 22 | 19 | — |
| More than high school | 13 | 18 | 12 | — |
| Graduate college | 12 | 15 | 13 | — |

*Too few observations for a reliable estimate.

Source: National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trend Assessment*; and unpublished Trend Almanacs, 1978-1990.

## SD 1.5 TV VIEWING HABITS (continued)

In addition to the gender differences in television viewing habits, there are also notable racial/ethnic group differences. For each age group and for each time point of assessment, larger proportions of Black students than either white or Hispanic students are watching television for six or more hours per day. For example, among 9-year-old students, 47 percent of Black students, compared to 18 percent of white students, and 26 percent of Hispanic students were watching television for long periods of time per day during 1990 (Table SD 1.5.a).

In general, smaller percentages of children and adolescents who attend private school than students who attend public school spend six or more hours per day watching television, although the differences are usually not very large. As noted in Table SD 1.5.a, smaller proportions of 9-year-old private school students than public school students are spending long hours watching television at each year of assessment. In 1990, 24 percent of public school students compared to 18 percent of private school students were watching television for six or more hours per day. Differences in television viewing patterns were similar for 13-year-olds, as depicted in Table SD 1.5.b. For 17-year-olds, although two time points of data are missing, smaller percentages of private school students than public school students were watching television for six or more hours per day in 1978 and in 1982 (4 percent versus 5 percent in 1978; 3 percent versus 7 percent in 1982). (Table SD 1.5.c.)

There are also differences in television viewing habits by parent's highest level of education. Among 13- and 17-year-old students, smaller proportions of children whose parents have graduated from college spend six or more hours per day watching television for nearly all time points of assessment. In 1990, 24 percent of 13-year-olds whose parents had less than a high school education were watching six or more hours of television per day, compared to 19 percent of students with parents who graduated from high school, 12 percent whose parents had more than a high school education, and 13 percent of students whose parents graduated from college. A similar pattern is evident for 17-year-old students in 1982.

**Table SD 1.5.C PERCENTAGE OF 17- YEAR-OLD STUDENTS WHO WATCH 6 OR MORE HOURS OF TELEVISION PER DAY BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, TYPE OF SCHOOL, AND PARENT'S HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION: 1978 - 1992**

| | 1978 | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 5 | 6 | 9 | 9 | 7 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 5 | 7 | 10 | 9 | — |
| Female | 5 | 6 | 8 | 8 | — |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | |
| White | 4 | 5 | 6 | 6 | — |
| Black | 13 | 14 | 22 | 23 | — |
| Hispanic | 7 | 6 | 12 | 8 | — |
| Type of School | | | | | |
| Public | 5 | 7 | 9 | 9 | — |
| Private | 4 | 3 | (*) | (*) | — |
| Parents' Highest Level of Education | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 8 | 10 | 17 | 11 | — |
| Graduate high school | 5 | 8 | 10 | 11 | — |
| More than high school | 4 | 4 | 9 | 8 | — |
| Graduate college | 3 | 4 | 4 | 5 | — |

*Too few observations for a reliable estimate.

Source: National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trend Assessment*; and unpublished Trend Almanacs, 1978-1990.

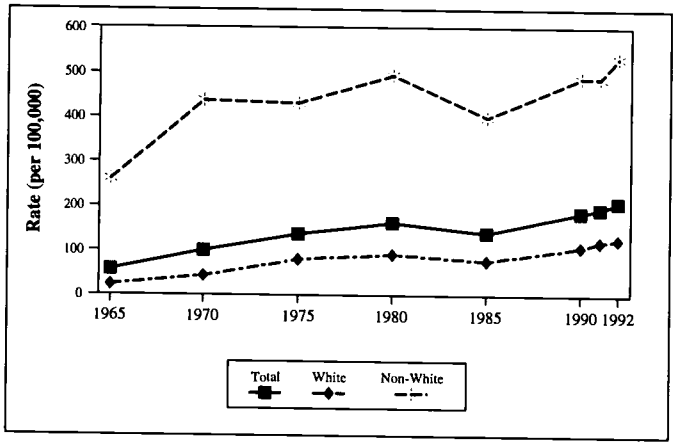
## SD 1.6 YOUTH VIOLENT CRIME ARREST RATES[32]

Figure SD 1.6 presents national estimates of the rate (per 100,000) of youth arrests for violent crimes from 1965 through 1992. Violent crimes include murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. The estimates represent rates of arrest based on the entire child population under age 18. Rates have increased by more than three and one half times between 1965 and 1992 from 58 to 209 per 100,000. The increase has been fairly constant over time, except for a short-lived reduction in rates between 1980 and 1985. Rates have increased for both white and nonwhite youth during this period. In 1992 rates of arrest for violent crimes for whites were 126 compared to 534 per 100,000 for non-whites.

Table SD 1.6 presents these rates for individual years of age between 13 and 18 rather than for all persons under age 18, and separately for men and women. Between 1965 and 1992, arrest rates for violent crime increased for both males and females. For example, among females age 18 rates increased from 37 to 197 per 100,000. For 18 year old males, the rates increased from 638 to 1944 per 100,000, or to about two arrests per one hundred 18 year old males by 1992. Among males, arrest rates for violent crime climb quickly and steadily with age from 681 among 13-14 year olds to 1944 among 18 year olds in 1992. By contrast, the rates for young women do not increase uniformly or rapidly with age, climbing from 145 per 100,000 at ages 13-14 to 217 per 100,000 by age 16, then decreasing somewhat to 197 per 100,000 by age 18 in 1992.

[32]Arrests for violent crimes were chosen in preference to other arrest measures as an indicator both because of the particular hazards that violent crime represent to our society, and because arrests for violent crimes are less likely to be affected over time by changes in police practice and policy than other types of crime.

**Figure SD 1.6 VIOLENT CRIME ARREST RATE FOR YOUTHS UNDER AGE 18: 1965 - 1992 (Rate per 100,000)**




Note: Violent crimes include murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. Rates refer to the number of arrests made per 100,000 inhabitants belonging to the prescribed age group.

Source: Uniform Crime Reporting Program, Federal Bureau of Investigation (December, 1993). *Age-Specific Arrest Rates and Race-Specific Arrest Rates for Selected Offenses, 1965-1992.* U.S. Department of Justice.

## Table SD 1.6 ARREST RATES FOR VIOLENT CRIMES BY YOUTH UNDER AGE 18, 1965 - 1992 (per 100,000)

| | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 58 | 101 | 136 | 163 | 139 | 184 | 195 | 209 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | | |
| White | 24 | 42 | 79 | 92 | 77 | 108 | 121 | 126 |
| Non-white | 259 | 436 | 431 | 492 | 400 | 488 | 486 | 534 |
| Age | | | | | | | | |
| 13-14 | 139 | 207 | 250 | 262 | 252 | 369 | 397 | 420 |
| 15 | 245 | 364 | 483 | 505 | 446 | 670 | 720 | 725 |
| 16 | 304 | 459 | 616 | 638 | 568 | 879 | 925 | 940 |
| 17 | 305 | 519 | 663 | 739 | 662 | 986 | 1041 | 1001 |
| 18 | 338 | 571 | 713 | 746 | 661 | 1023 | 1108 | 1092 |
| Gender | | | | | | | | |
| Male | | | | | | | | |
| 13-14 | 242 | 351 | 420 | 446 | 424 | 602 | 652 | 681 |
| 15 | 442 | 644 | 832 | 877 | 769 | 1137 | 1222 | 1210 |
| 16 | 564 | 838 | 1102 | 1130 | 999 | 1525 | 1604 | 1621 |
| 17 | 572 | 957 | 1201 | 1322 | 1180 | 1745 | 1841 | 1757 |
| 18 | 638 | 1065 | 1299 | 1350 | 1194 | 1840 | 1996 | 1944 |
| Female | | | | | | | | |
| 13-14 | 32 | 57 | 72 | 70 | 71 | 123 | 130 | 145 |
| 15 | 40 | 73 | 119 | 117 | 108 | 177 | 192 | 214 |
| 16 | 36 | 67 | 114 | 125 | 118 | 193 | 204 | 217 |
| 17 | 30 | 66 | 105 | 130 | 118 | 179 | 188 | 195 |
| 18 | 37 | 72 | 113 | 125 | 114 | 164 | 176 | 197 |

Note: Violent Crime is the sum of murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. Rates refer to the number of arrests made per 100,000 inhabitants belonging to the prescribed age group.

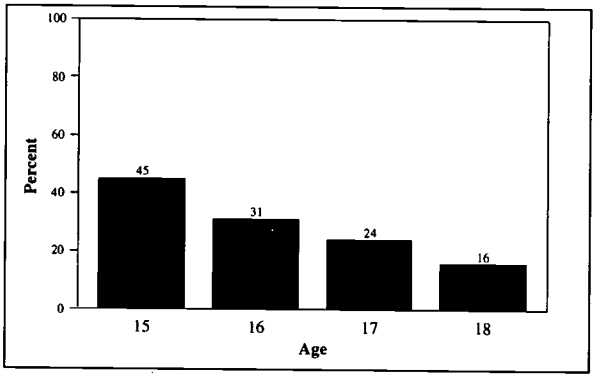
Source: Uniform Crime Reporting Program, Federal Bureau of Investigation (December, 1993). *Age-Specific Arrest Rates and Race-Specific Arrest Rates for Selected Offenses, 1965-1992.* pp. 12-17 & p. 181. U.S. Department of Justice.

## SD 1.7 LOW-RISK TEENS: CUMULATIVE RISK INDEX

Statistics often show rates of specific problem behaviors among adolescents such as drug or alcohol use, school drop out, or early sexual activity. However, most parents and other members of society believe that the ideal is for youth to avoid all of these risk behaviors. The cumulative risk index is designed to identify the degree to which adolescents avoid a set of key problem behaviors simultaneously. This measure is created from youth-report data for five behaviors, where a youth is defined as having no risks if he or she is in school or has graduated from high school, has never had sexual intercourse, has never used illegal drugs, has not had 5 or more alcoholic beverages in a row in the past month, and has not stayed out all night without permission in the past year. Although some of these behaviors may be acceptable to society when adolescents become adults, through age 18 each can be considered a risk.

The proportion of youth who report avoiding all of these risk behaviors is shown in Figure SD 1.7 for 1992 by single year of age. Table SD 1.7 presents additional data on the percentage who report only one risk, and two or more risk behaviors. Even at age 15, less than half (45 percent) have avoided all risk behaviors, and 30 percent have experienced two or more risks. By age 17, an age at which most youth are still in high school, the proportion with no risks has dwindled to less than one-quarter and the majority have now experienced two or more risk behaviors. By age 18, only 16 percent report having engaged in no risk behaviors, while 62 percent report two or more such behaviors.

### Figure SD 1.7 PERCENTAGE OF YOUTH WITH NO RISKS ON CUMULATIVE RISK MEASURE, BY AGE: 1992




Note: Status of having no risks requires all of the following: being in school or graduated from high school, never having had sexual intercourse; never having used illegal drugs (includes marijuana), not having had 5 alcoholic beverages in a row in the past month; and not having stayed out all night without permission in the past year.

Source:1992 National Health Interview Survey — Youth Risk Behavior Supplement, tabulations by Child Trends, Inc., weighted analyses.

**Table SD 1.7 PERCENT OF YOUTH WITH NO, ONE, AND TWO OR MORE RISKS ON CUMULATIVE RISK MEASURE[a] BY AGE: 1992**

| | Age | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 |
| Cumulative Risk Measure | | | | |
| No Risks | 45 | 31 | 24 | 16 |
| Only One Risk | 25 | 24 | 26 | 22 |
| Two or More Risks | 30 | 45 | 50 | 62 |

Note: [a] A status of having no risks requires all of the following: being in school or graduated from high school; never having had sexual intercourse; never having used illegal drugs (includes marijuana); not having had 5 alcoholic beverages in a row in the past month; and not having stayed out all night without permission in the past year.

Source: 1992 National Health Interview Survey — Youth Risk Behavior Supplement. tabulations by Child Trends, Inc., weighted analyses.

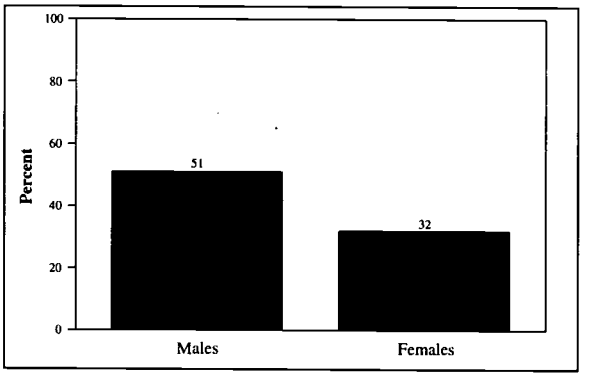
## SD 2.1 PHYSICAL FIGHTING BY YOUTH

Physical violence is a major cause of injury and homicide among adolescents.[33] Figure SD 2.1 presents data for 1993 indicating the percentage of male and female high school students who, by their own report, have been in a physical fight during the previous year. The data indicate that physical violence among youth is disturbingly common, with slightly over one half of all male students and nearly a third of female students reporting having been in a physical fight during that time.

Data presented in Table SD 2.1 indicate that the percentage of students who report being involved in fights decreases with age from 50 percent among ninth grade students down to 35 percent among twelfth grade students. It is unclear, however, whether this reduction reflects the effects of increasing maturity, a change in the propensity to report having been in a fight, or a tendency for violence-prone youth to drop out of school, leaving a less violent pool of students in the higher grades. Finally, white students appear somewhat less likely than black students to engage in physical fights (40 percent versus 50 percent).

[33]University of California at Los Angeles, CDC. "The Epidemiology of Homicide in Los Angeles, 1970-79." Atlanta: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, CDC, 1985. Cited in Chronic Disease and Health Promotion, Reprints from the MMWR: 1990-1991 Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System. Atlanta: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, CDC, 1992. P. 37.

**Figure SD 2.1 PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING BEEN IN A PHYSICAL FIGHT IN THE LAST YEAR: 1993**




Source: Data for 1993 from *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States 1993*, Vol. 44, No. SS-1.

**Table SD 2.1 PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT THAT THEY HAVE BEEN IN A PHYSICAL FIGHT WITHIN THE LAST YEAR: 1993**

| | 1993 |
|---|---|
| Total | 42 |
| Male | 51 |
| Female | 32 |
| Grade | |
| 9 | 50 |
| 10 | 42 |
| 11 | 41 |
| 12 | 35 |
| Race/Ethnic Group | |
| White, non-Hispanic | 40 |
| Black, non-Hispanic | 50 |
| Hispanic | 43 |

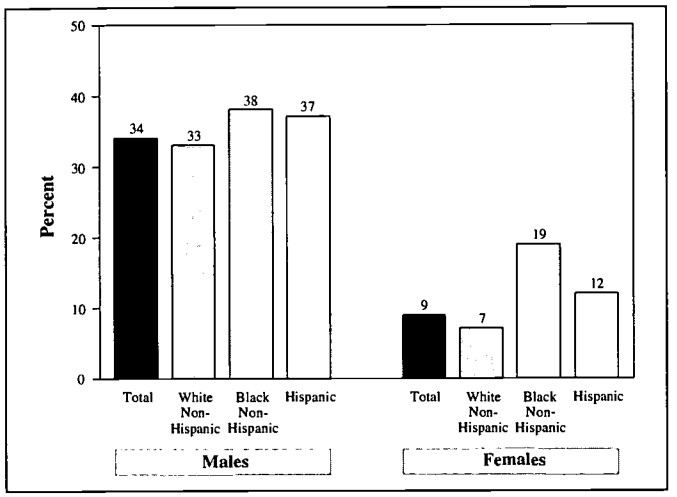
Sources: Data for 1993 from *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States 1993*, Vol. 44, No. SS-1.

## SD 2.2 WEAPONS CARRYING AMONG HIGH SCHOOL YOUTH

Figure SD 2.2.a presents national estimates of the rate of weapons-carrying among high school students in 1993. The data refer to the percentage of students who report having carried a weapon at least once during the previous 30 days. Weapons include knives, razors, clubs, or firearms. The figure shows that weapons carrying is disturbingly common, with over one third (34 percent) of male students and nearly one in ten (9 percent) female students reporting that they have carried a weapon within the previous month. Among male youth, whites, blacks, and Hispanics report similar rates of weapons carrying. Among female youth, however, blacks appear to be the most likely to report carrying a weapon (19 percent), followed by Hispanics (12 percent) and then whites (7 percent).

Figure SD 2.2.b presents national estimates of the percentage of high school students who have carried a gun within the last month. Overall, 14 percent, or approximately one in seven, male students in grades nine through twelve report having carried a gun within the last month. Reported gun carrying among females is much lower at 2 percent. Across race/ethnic groups, the percentage of males who report having carried a gun within the previous month ranged from 12 percent for white youth to 21 percent for black youth, with Hispanic youth at 17 percent.

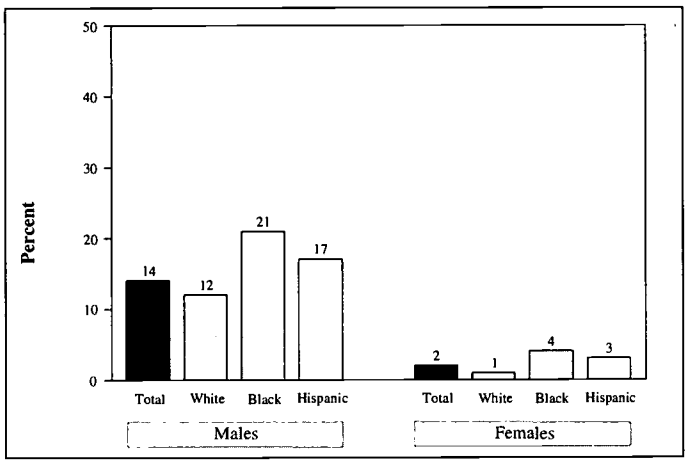
**Figure SD 2.2.A WEAPONS: PERCENT OF TEENS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING CARRIED A WEAPON WITHIN THE LAST 30 DAYS: 1993**




Note: Weapons included knives, razors, clubs, and firearms (including handguns).

Sources: *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States 1993*, Vol. 44, No. SS-1. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

**Figure SD 2.2.B GUNS: PERCENT OF TEENS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING CARRIED A GUN WITHIN THE LAST 30 DAYS: 1993**




Note: Percentages reflect those who carried a gun during the 30 days preceding the survey.

Source: *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States, 1993*, Volume 44, No. 55-1. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

**Table SD 2.2.A PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADE 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING CARRIED A WEAPON[a] AT LEAST ONCE WITHIN THE LAST MONTH: 1991 AND 1993**

| | 1991 | | | 1993 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female |
| Total | 26 | 41 | 11 | 22 | 34 | 9 |
| Grade | | | | | | |
| 9 | 28 | — | — | 26 | 39 | 11 |
| 10 | 27 | — | — | 21 | 33 | 10 |
| 11 | 29 | — | — | 22 | 33 | 9 |
| 12 | 21 | — | — | 20 | 33 | 7 |
| Race/Ethnicity Group | | | | | | |
| White, non-Hispanic | 25 | — | — | 21 | 33 | 7 |
| Black, non-Hispanic | 33 | — | — | 29 | 38 | 19 |
| Hispanic | 26 | — | — | 24 | 37 | 12 |

Note: [a]Weapons included knives, razors, clubs, and firearms (including handguns).

Source: Data for 1991 from Public Health Reports, Vol. 108, Supplement 1, U.S. Public Health Service. Data for 1993 from *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States 1993*, Vol. 44, SS-1, U.S. Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

**Table SD 2.2.B PERCENT OF TEENS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING CARRIED A GUN WITHIN THE LAST 30 DAYS, 1993**

| | Total | Male | Female |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 8 | 14 | 2 |
| Grade | | | |
| 9 | 9 | 16 | 2 |
| 10 | 9 | 15 | 2 |
| 11 | 7 | 13 | 1 |
| 12 | 7 | 12 | 1 |
| Race/Ethnic Group | | | |
| White non-Hispanic | 7 | 12 | 1 |
| Black non-Hispanic | 12 | 21 | 4 |
| Hispanic | 10 | 17 | 3 |

Note: Percentages reflect those who carried a gun more often than other weapons.

Source: *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States 1993*, Volume 44, No. 55-1, U.S. Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

## SD 2.3 SEAT BELT USE

The National Highway Traffic Safety Administration estimates that, in 1993, 55 percent of all children under age five who were killed while occupants of a motor vehicle were not protected by seat belts.[34] Further, among youth ages 15-19, motor vehicle deaths were the leading cause of death in 1992, accounting for one third of all fatalities in that age group.

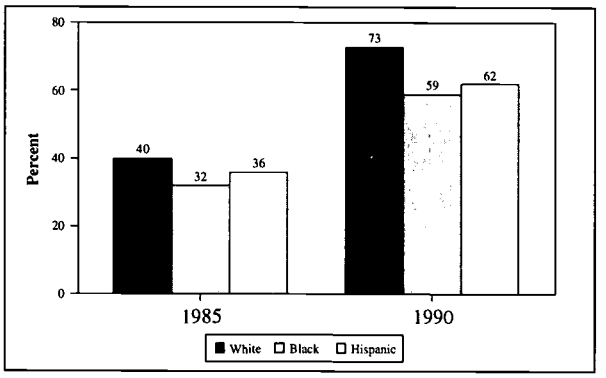
Figure SD 2.3 presents data for 1985 and 1990 on the percent of white, black, and Hispanic children ages 5-17 who were reported to wear seat belts all or most of the time. The data indicate a clear and dramatic increase in regular seat belt use among these children during that five year period from 40 to 73 percent among whites, from 32 to 59 percent among blacks, and from 36 to 62 percent among Hispanics.

Among children ages 0-4, both white and black children experienced increased rates of regular seat belt use during that same period, though the gains have been less dramatic: from 84 to 88 percent among white children, and from 67 to 79 percent among black children. (*See* Table SD 2.3) Only Hispanic children below the age of five appear to have lost some ground, with rates of regular seat belt use decreasing from 73 percent to 71 percent between 1985 and 1990.

Table SD 2.3 includes data with more refined age categories including less than 1 year of age, 1-4 years, 5-9 years, 10-14 years, and 15-17 years. Rates of regular seat belt use decreased substantially with age in both 1985 and 1990, though the differences were less pronounced in the more recent year. In 1990, age-specific rates of regular seat belt use were as follows: 93 percent for children under the age of one; 87 percent for ages 1-4: 76 percent for ages 5-9; 67 percent for ages 10-14; and 68 percent among youth ages 15-17.

[34]National Highway Traffic Safety Administration. 1994. *Traffic Safety Facts* 1993. DOT HS 808 169. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Transportation.

**Figure SD 2.3 SEAT BELT USE: PERCENT OF CHILDREN AGES 5-17 WHO ARE REPORTED TO HAVE WORN SEAT BELTS ALL OR MOST OF THE TIME: 1985 AND 1990**




Sources: National Health Interview Survey data were published in *Vital and Health Statistics* Series 10: No. 185, Health Promotion and Disease Prevention United States, 1990; and Series 10: No. 163 Health Promotion and Disease Prevention United States, 1985.

**Table SD 2.3 PERCENT OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH WHO ARE REPORTED TO HAVE WORN SEAT BELTS ALL OR MOST OF THE TIME : 1985 AND 1990**

| | 1985 | 1990 |
|---|---|---|
| Children by Age: | | |
| <1 year | 92 | 93 |
| 1-4 years | 82 | 87 |
| 5-9 years | 49 | 76 |
| 10-14 years | 33 | 67 |
| 15-17 | 31 | 68 |
| White | | |
| Ages 0-4 | 84 | 88 |
| Ages 5-17 | 40 | 73 |
| Black | | |
| Ages 0-4 | 67 | 79 |
| Ages 5-17 | 32 | 59 |
| Hispanic | | |
| Ages 0-4 | 73 | 71 |
| Ages 5-17 | 36 | 62 |

Sources: National Health Interview Survey data were published in Vital and Health Statistics Series 10: No. 185, Health Promotion and Disease Prevention United States, 1990; and Series 10: No. 163 Health Promotion and Disease Prevention United States, 1985.

## SD 2.4 REGULAR PHYSICAL EXERCISE

Vigorous physical activity is associated with a wide range of positive health outcomes for children and youth including reduced rates of obesity and hypertension. Further, habits of physical exercise formed in childhood can carry into adulthood producing life-long health benefits.[35] According to the Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance, nationwide only about half of all students in grades 9 through 12 are enrolled in a physical education class in school, and only about one third attend a physical education class daily.

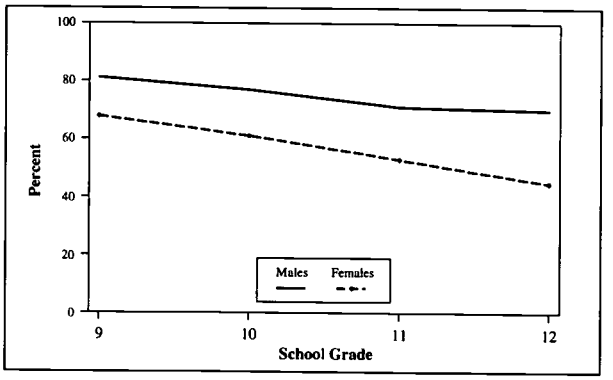
Table SD 2.4.a shows the percent of high school seniors from 1976 through 1994 who reported participating in sports or exercising "almost every day." The percentage has remained remarkably constant during that period, varying between 44 percent and 48 percent. Only among black youth do the rates of physical exercise appear to have changed substantially, dropping from a high of 53 percent in 1981 down to 39 percent in 1994.

Table SD 2.4.b presents 1993 data on the percentage of youth in grades nine through twelve who reported that they exercised vigorously three or more times per week.[36] These data demonstrate that males are considerably more likely than females to exercise vigorously (75 percent versus 56 percent). In addition, they show that the percent of youth who report exercising vigorously drops off between grades nine and twelve, dropping by 11 percentage points for males (81 percent to 70 percent) and by 23 percentage points for females (68 percent to 45 percent). (*See* also Figure SD 2.4). Finally, white students appear to be more likely than black and Hispanic students to exercise vigorously (68 percent versus 60 percent and 59 percent, respectively).

[35]*Chronic Diseases and Health Promotion, Reprints from the MMWR: 1990-1991* Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service. p. 33.

[36]Vigorous exercise" is defined as activities that caused sweating and hard breathing for at least 20 minutes.

**Figure SD 2.4 PERCENT OF 9TH-12TH GRADERS WHO REPORT HAVING EXERCISED VIGOROUSLY 3 OR MORE TIMES IN THE PAST 7 DAYS: VARIATIONS BY GENDER AND SCHOOL GRADE, 1993**




Source: Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance-United States 1993, Volume 44, No. SS-1.

**Table SD 2.4.A PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO REPORT THEY ACTIVELY PARTICIPATE IN SPORTS OR EXERCISING "ALMOST EVERY DAY", 1976 - 1994**

| Actively participate in sports or exercising | 1976 | 1981 | 1986 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 44 | 48 | 44 | 46 | 46 | 44 | 45 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 52 | 56 | 54 | 55 | 59 | 55 | 56 |
| Female | 36 | 39 | 36 | 36 | 33 | 33 | 36 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | |
| White | 43 | 47 | 46 | 48 | 48 | 46 | 49 |
| Black | 49 | 53 | 43 | 43 | 41 | 39 | 39 |

Source: Bachman, J. G. , Johnston, L. D. & O'Malley, P. M. "Monitoring the Future: Questionnaire Responses from the Nations' High School Seniors" 1992, 1994 Questionnaire Form 2 number A02H in each report.

Johnston, L. D., Bachman, J. G.& O'Malley, P. M. "Monitoring the Future: Questionnaire Responses from the Nations' High School Seniors" 1976, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1993 Questionnaire Form 2 number A02H in each report.

**Table SD 2.4.B PERCENT OF TEENS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING EXERCISED VIGOROUSLY 3 OR MORE TIMES IN THE PAST 7 DAYS, 1993**

| | Total | Male | Female |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 66 | 75 | 56 |
| Grade | | | |
| 9 | 75 | 81 | 68 |
| 10 | 70 | 77 | 61 |
| 11 | 63 | 71 | 53 |
| 12 | 58 | 70 | 45 |
| Race/Ethnic Group | | | |
| White, Non-Hispanic | 68 | 76 | 59 |
| Black, Non-Hispanic | 60 | 71 | 49 |
| Hispanic | 59 | 69 | 50 |

Note: Vigorous physical exercise is defined as activities that caused sweating and hard breathing for at least 20 minutes.

Source: *Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States 1993*, Volume 44, No. SS-1.

## SD 3.1 CIGARETTE SMOKING AMONG YOUTH

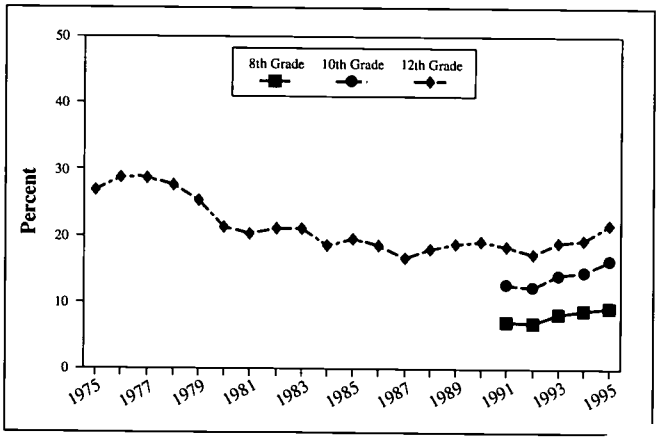
Cigarette smoking is the single most preventable cause of death in the United States. It has been estimated that one in five deaths is caused by tobacco use.[37]

Figure SD 3.1 and Table SD 3.1.a present trends in the percent of eighth, tenth, and twelfth grade students who reported smoking cigarettes daily. Prevalence of daily smoking decreased sharply in the late 1970s for twelfth graders, flattened off beginning in the early 1980s, and has recently begun to increase. Between 1992 and 1995, rates increased from 17.2 percent to 21.6 percent. Data for eighth and tenth grade students, available from 1991 through 1995, also show a recent increase in the percent who reported smoking daily from 7.2 percent to 9.3 percent among eighth graders, and from 12.6 percent to 16.3 percent among tenth graders.

Table SD 3.1.b presents data from a separate data source, which provides a different way of looking at smoking and which furnishes estimates by gender and race/ethnicity. These data provide the percent of students in grades nine through twelve who report "current" and "frequent" smoking.[38] Data for 1993 indicate that male and female youth were equally likely to smoke, with 14 percent in both groups reporting that they smoked frequently. Substantial differences existed, however, across race/ethnicity groups. In 1993, 16 percent of white, non-Hispanic youth reported smoking frequently, compared to 5 percent of black, non-Hispanic youth and 8 percent of Hispanic youth. Current cigarette use (i.e., smoking on one or more of the previous 30 days) is higher for all groups: 34 percent for white, non-Hispanics, 15 percent for black, non-Hispanics, and 29 percent for Hispanics.

[37]Centers for Disease Control. Cigarette Smoking-Attributable Mortality and Years of Potential Life Lost—United States, 1990. *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 1993; 42:645-9.
[38]Current smoking means smoking on one or more of the previous 30 days. Frequent smoking means smoking on 20 or more of the previous 30 days.

### Figure SD 3.1 PERCENT OF 8TH, 10TH, AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO REPORT SMOKING CIGARETTES DAILY: 1975 - 1994




Source: Johnston, L.D., O'Malley, P.M. and Bachman, J.G. *National Survey Results on Drug Use from the Monitoring the Future Study, 1975-1994*, Volume 1, Secondary School Students. Rockville, Maryland; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, National Institute on Drug Abuse, NIH Pub. No 95-4026, 1995, and unpublished tables, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.

## Table SD 3.1.A CIGARETTE SMOKING: PERCENT OF 8TH, 10TH, AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO REPORT SMOKING CIGARETTES DAILY

| | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8th Grade | | | | | 7.2 | 7.0 | 8.3 | 8.8 | 9.3 |
| 10th Grade | | | | | 12.6 | 12.3 | 14.2 | 14.6 | 16.3 |
| 12th Grade | 26.9 | 21.3 | 19.5 | 19.1 | 18.5 | 17.2 | 19.0 | 19.4 | 21.6 |

Source: Johnston, L.D., O'Malley, P.M. and Bachman, J.G. *National Survey Results on Drug Use from the Monitoring the Future Study, 1975-1994*, Volume 1, Secondary School Students. Rockville, Maryland; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, National Institutes of Health, National Institute on Drug Abuse, NIH Pub. No 95-4026, 1995, and unpublished tables, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan.

## Table SD 3.1.B CIGARETTE SMOKING: PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT CURRENT SMOKING AND FREQUENT SMOKING

| | Current Smoking | | Frequent Smoking | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1991 | 1993 | 1991 | 1993 |
| Total | 28 | 31 | 13 | 14 |
| Male | 28 | 30 | 12 | 14 |
| Female | 27 | 31 | 12 | 14 |
| White Non-Hispanic | 31 | 34 | 15 | 16 |
| Male | 30 | 32 | 15 | 16 |
| Female | 32 | 35 | 16 | 16 |
| Black Non-Hispanic | 13 | 15 | 3 | 5 |
| Male | 14 | 16 | 5 | 5 |
| Female | 11 | 14 | 2 | 4 |
| Hispanic | 25 | 29 | 7 | 8 |
| Male | 28 | 30 | 8 | 9 |
| Female | 23 | 27 | 6 | 7 |
| Grade | | | | |
| 9th Grade | 23 | 28 | 8 | 9 |
| 10th Grade | 25 | 28 | 11 | 13 |
| 11th Grade | 32 | 31 | 16 | 15 |
| 12th Grade | 31 | 35 | 16 | 18 |

Note: Current smoking means smoking on one or more of the previous 30 days. Frequent smoking means smoking on 20 or more of the previous 30 days.

Source: Data for 1991 from U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, *Preventing Tobacco Use Among Young People. A Report of the Surgeon General*. U.S. Public Health Service, 1994. Data for 1993 from "Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance-United States 1993," *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, Vol. 44, No. SS-1, 1995.

## SD 3.2 SMOKELESS TOBACCO USE AMONG TEENS IN GRADES 9-12.

The use of smokeless tobacco (*i.e.* snuff, chewing tobacco) has been associated with substantially higher risk for developing oral cancer.[39]

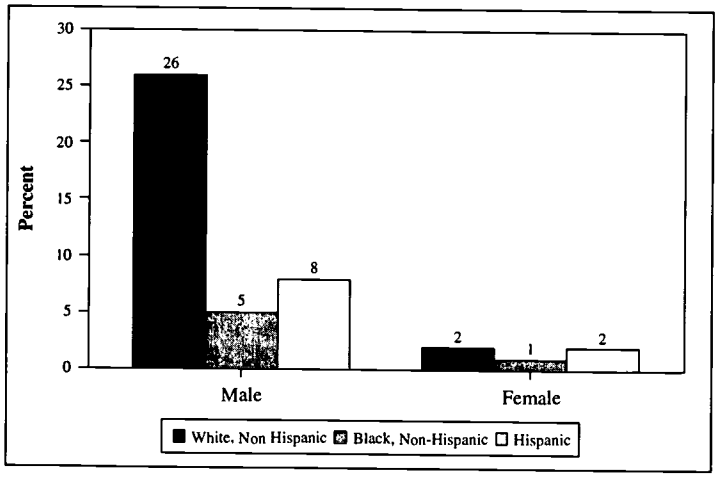
Table SD 3.2 shows the percent of teens in grades 9-12 who reported using some form of smokeless tobacco one or more times in the previous 30 days. The data indicate that the percent reporting smokeless tobacco use was 10 percent in 1991 and 12 percent in 1993.[40] Unlike cigarettes, smokeless tobacco is much more common among males, with 20 percent of males and 2 percent of females reporting smokeless tobacco use in 1993.

The use of smokeless tobacco is most prevalent among white, non-Hispanic male youth, with over one quarter (26 percent) in 1993 reporting having used smokeless tobacco one or more times in the previous 30 days, compared to 8 percent of Hispanic male youth and 5 percent of black, non-Hispanic male youth. (*See* Figure SD 3.2) Rates of reported use among female youth never exceed 2 percent for any race/ethnicity group.

[39]Public Health Service. 1986. *The Health Consequences of Using Smokeless Tobacco.* A Report to the Surgeon General. DHHS Pub. No. (NIH) 86-2874. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

[40]Data for 1991 from U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, *Preventing Tobacco Use Among Young People. A Report of the Surgeon General.* U.S. Public Health Service, 1994. Data for 1993 from "Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance-United States 1993," *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report.* Vol. 44, No. SS-1, 1995. Another federal survey, the National Household Survey of Drug Abuse, shows a declining trend in the use of smokeless tobacco among all male youth ages 12-17, with rates declining from 6.6 percent in 1988 to 4.8 percent in 1992 and 3.9 percent in 1993. See National Center for Health Statistics, 1995. *Healthy People 2000 Review*, 1994 Hyattsville, MD: Public Health Service. Caution should be exercised in making comparisons between the two surveys because the age ranges and the methods of administering the surveys differ.

**Figure SD 3.2 SMOKELESS TOBACCO: THE PERCENT OF YOUTH IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING USED SMOKELESS TOBACCO DURING THE PREVIOUS 30 DAYS: 1993**




Source: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 1995. "Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance - United States, 1993." *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, Vol. 44, No. SS-1.

**Table SD 3.2 SMOKELESS TOBACCO: THE PERCENT OF YOUTH IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING USED SMOKELESS TOBACCO DURING THE PREVIOUS 30 DAYS**

| | 1991 | | | 1993 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female |
| Total | 10 | 19 | 1 | 12 | 20 | 2 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | |
| White, non-Hispanic | 13 | 24 | 1 | 15 | 26 | 2 |
| Black, non-Hispanic | 2 | 4 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 1 |
| Hispanic | 6 | 11 | 1 | 5 | 8 | 2 |

Source: Data for 1991 from U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. *Preventing Tobacco Use Among Young People, A Report of the Surgeon General.* U.S. Public Health Service, 1994. Data for 1993 from "Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance-United States 1993," *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report*, Vol. 44, No. SS-1, 1995.

## SD 3.3 BINGE DRINKING AMONG YOUTH

Binge drinking among adolescents has been linked to a host of problems including motor vehicle crashes and deaths, difficulties in school and the workplace, fighting, and breaking the law.[41] Table 3.3.A reports the percentage of students in the 8th, 10th, and 12th grade who report having taken five or more drinks in a row within the previous two weeks[42]. Data are available from 1975 for 12th grade students, and from 1991 for 8th and 10th grade students. Among 12th grade students, rates of binge drinking fell from a high of 41.2 percent in 1980 to 27.5 percent in 1993 (*See* also Figure SD 3.5). Between 1993 and 1995, rates have edged up modestly to 29.8 percent.

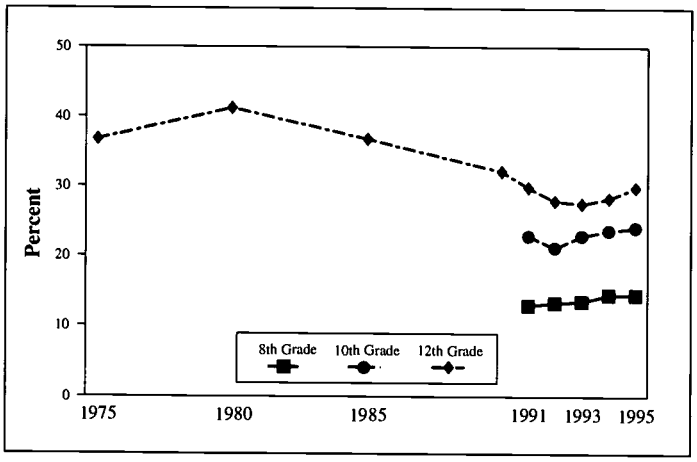
Among 8th grade students, reported binge drinking has risen from 12.9 percent in 1991 (the first year for which data were available) to 14.5 percent in 1995. During the same time period rates increased slightly from 22.9 percent to 24.0 percent among 10th grade students.

Table SD 3.5.B presents separate estimates of reported binge drinking for white, black, and Hispanic students in the 8th, 10th, and 12th grades. Data from 1993 and 1994 were combined to produce a single, stable set of estimates for these population subgroups. Among white students, reported rates of binge drinking increase substantially from 12.9 percent in 8th grade to 31.5 percent in 12th grade. Hispanic students reported the highest rates of binge drinking in the 8th grade at 22.3 percent. By 12th grade, however, their rates increased only slightly to 24.3 percent, well below that of white students. Black students consistently reported the lowest levels of binge drinking with rates ranging from 11.8 percent in 8th grade to 14.4 percent in 12th grade.

[41]National Institute on Drug Abuse. *National Trends in Drug Use and Related Factors Among American High School Students and Young Adults, 1976-1986.* DHHS Pub. No. (ADM)87-1535. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1987.

[42]These percentages underestimate the rate of binge drinking among all youth, since school age youth who are not in school are somewhat more likely to binge drink that those in school. (Based on unpublished analyses, National Health Interview Survey 1992, by Child Trends, Inc.)

**Figure SD 3.3 BINGE DRINKING: PERCENT OF 8TH, 10TH, AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO REPORTED HAVING HAD FIVE OR MORE DRINKS IN A ROW IN THE PREVIOUS TWO WEEKS:**




Source: Data are from the Monitoring The Future Surveys, as reported in "Drug Use Rise Again in 1995 Among American Teens", press release December 11, 1995, University of Michigan.

**Table SD 3.3.A BINGE DRINKING: PERCENT OF 8TH, 10TH, AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO REPORTED HAVING HAD FIVE OR MORE DRINKS IN A ROW IN THE PREVIOUS TWO WEEKS: 1975 - 1995**

| | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8th Grade | | | | | 12.9 | 13.4 | 13.5 | 14.5 | 14.5 |
| 10th Grade | | | | | 22.9 | 21.1 | 23.0 | 23.6 | 24.0 |
| 12th Grade | 36.8 | 41.2 | 36.7 | 32.2 | 29.8 | 27.9 | 27.5 | 28.2 | 29.8 |

Source: Data are from the Monitoring The Future Surveys, as reported in "Drug Use Rise Again in 1995 Among American Teens", press release December 11, 1995, University of Michigan.

**Table SD 3.3.B BINGE DRINKING: PERCENT OF 8TH, 10TH, AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO REPORTED HAVING HAD FIVE OR MORE DRINKS IN A ROW IN THE PREVIOUS TWO WEEKS: VARIATIONS BY RACE/ETHNICITY GROUP, 1993 - 1994 (combined)**

| | 8th Grade | 10th Grade | 12th Grade |
|---|---|---|---|
| White | 12.9 | 24.5 | 31.5 |
| Black | 11.8 | 14.0 | 14.4 |
| Hispanic | 22.3 | 24.2 | 24.3 |

Note: Data from 1993 and 1994 surveys were combined to increase subgroup sample sizes.

Source: Johnston, L.D., O'Malley, P.M., and Bachman, J.G. 1995. National Survey Results on Drug Use from the Monitoring the Future Study, 1975-1994. Volume I, Secondary School Students. National Institute on Drug Abuse, Rockville, MD.

## SD 3.4 EXPOSURE TO DRUNK DRIVING

Automobile accidents are a major cause of death among teens ages 15 and older, and studies indicate that about 30 percent of drivers ages 15-20 who were involved in fatal crashes were alcohol involved.[43] Further, as of 1991 nearly one half of all fatal crashes were alcohol-related.[44]

Table SD 3.4 shows 1991 estimates of the percentage of students in grades 9 through 12 who report having driven drunk or ridden with a drunk driver within the last 30 days. The data reveal that a large proportion of youth are at-risk, with 42 percent of all teens reporting having ridden with a drunk driver or driven drunk during the previous month. Further, teens exhibit high rates of this dangerous behavior regardless of gender, grade, or race-ethnicity group. Males and females are virtually equally as likely to report such activity at 44 percent and 41 percent, respectively. Exposure to drunk driving rises steadily with age starting at a surprisingly high 36 percent in grade nine, and rising to 49 percent among twelfth grade students. Finally, the percentage of teens who report having driven drunk or ridden with a drunk driver within the last 30 days is lowest among black non-Hispanic students at 38 percent, followed by white non-Hispanic students at 43 percent and Hispanic students at 49 percent.

[43]"Factors Potentially Associated with Reductions in Alcohol-related Traffic Fatalities - United States, 1990 and 1991." *MMWR Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report* 41: 893-899, December 4, 1993. Cited in Waxweiler, R.J., Harel, Y., and O'Carroll, P.W. 1993. "Measuring Adolescent Behaviors Related to Unintentional Injuries." In *Public Health Reports, Journal of the U.S. Public Health Service*, Volume 108, Supplement 1, 1993.

[44]Ibid.

**Table SD 3.4 DRUNK DRIVING: PERCENT OF TEENS IN GRADES 9-12 WHO REPORT HAVING DRIVEN DRUNK OR WITH A DRUNK DRIVER WITHIN THE LAST 30 DAYS: 1991**

| | |
|---|---|
| Total | 42 |
| Male | 44 |
| Female | 41 |
| | |
| Grade | |
| 9 | 36 |
| 10 | 39 |
| 11 | 45 |
| 12 | 49 |
| | |
| Race/Ethnicity Group | |
| White Non-Hispanic | 43 |
| Black Non-Hispanic | 38 |
| Hispanic | 49 |

Source: Youth Risk Behavior Surveys, 1991, calculations by Child Trends, Inc.

## SD 3.5 DRUG USE AMONG ADOLESCENTS: MARIJUANA AND COCAINE

The use of cocaine has been linked with numerous health problems ranging from eating disorders to disability and even death from heart attack and stroke.[45] New research has confirmed a number of health and cognitive risks associated with marijuana as well.[46]

Table SD 3.5.A reports trends in marijuana (or hashish) and cocaine use among 8th, 10th, and 12th grade students. Data are available from 1975 for 12th grade students, and from 1991 for 8th and 10th grade students. Among 12th grade students, the proportion who report having used marijuana during the previous 30 days decreased from a high of 33.7 percent in 1980 to a low of 11.9 percent in 1992 (*See* also Figure 3.5). Beginning in 1992, rates have risen reach year reaching 21.2 percent in 1995.

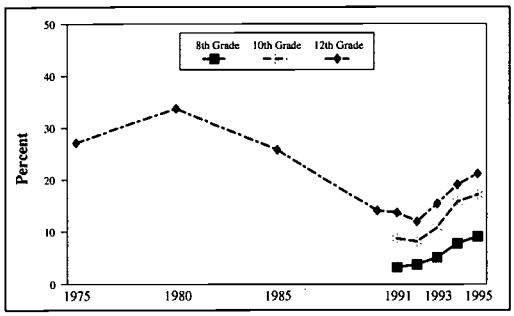
Reported marijuana (or hashish) use among 8th and 10th grade students has also increased. Between 1991 and 1995, rates increased from 3.2 percent to 9.1 percent among 8th grade students and from 8.7 percent to 17.2 percent among 10th grade students.

The proportion of 12th grade students who report having used cocaine during the previous 30 days increased from 1.9 percent to 6.7 percent between 1975 and 1985, and then dropped to 1.3 percent in 1992. Beginning in 1992, it has increased slightly from 1.3 percent to 1.8 percent in 1995. Rates of reported use also increased slightly among those in the earlier grades, from 0.5 percent in 1991 to 1.2 percent in 1995 among 8th grade students, and from 0.7 in 1991 to 1.7 percent in 1995 among 10th grade students.

Table SD 3.5.B presents separate estimates of reported marijuana and cocaine use for white, black, and Hispanic students in the 8th, 10th, and 12th grades. Data from 1993 and 1994 were combined to produce a single, stable set of estimates for these population subgroups. In the 8th and 10th grades, reported marijuana use is highest among Hispanics. In 12th grade, whites have higher rates of reported marijuana use than Hispanics. Reported cocaine use was highest among Hispanic students and lowest among black students in all three grades.

[45]Blanken, A.J. 1993. "Measuring Use of Alcohol and Other Drugs Among Adolescents." In *Public Health Reports, Journal of the U.S. Public Health Service*, Volume 108, Supplement 1, 1993.
[46]See, for example, "Marijuana: Facts Parents Need to Know," National Institute on Drug Abuse, U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, NCADI Publication No., PHD712, 1995, and Pope.Harrison G. Jr., and Deborah Yurgelun-Todd, "The Residual Cognitive Effects of Heavy Marijuana Use in College Students," JAMA, Feb. 21, 1996, Vol. 275, No. 7.

**Figure SD 3.5 PERCENT OF 8TH, 10TH, AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO REPORTED HAVING USED MARIJUANA WITHIN THE PREVIOUS 30 DAYS: 1975 - 1995**




Source: Data are from the Monitoring The Future Surveys, as reported in "Drug Use Rise Again in 1995 Among American Teens," press release December 4, 1995, University of Michigan.

**Table SD 3.5.A PERCENT OF 8TH, 10TH, AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO REPORTED HAVING USED MARIJUANA OR COCAINE WITHIN THE PREVIOUS 30 DAYS: 1975 - 1995**

| | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 | 1994 | 1995 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Marijuana/Hashish | | | | | | | | | |
| 8th | | | | | 3.2 | 3.7 | 5.1 | 7.8 | 9.1 |
| 10th | | | | | 8.7 | 8.1 | 10.9 | 15.8 | 17.2 |
| 12th | 27.1 | 33.7 | 25.7 | 14.0 | 13.8 | 11.9 | 15.5 | 19.0 | 21.2 |
| Cocaine | | | | | | | | | |
| 8th | | | | | 0.5 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 1.2 |
| 10th | | | | | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.9 | 1.2 | 1.7 |
| 12th | 1.9 | 5.2 | 6.7 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.3 | 1.5 | 1.8 |

Source: Data are from the Monitoring The Future Surveys, as reported in "Drug Use Rise Again in 1995 Among American Teens," press release December 4, 1995, University of Michigan.

**Table SD 3.5.B PERCENT OF 8TH, 10TH, AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO REPORTED USING MARIJUANA OR COCAINE WITHIN THE PREVIOUS 30 DAYS: VARIATIONS BY RACE/ETHNICITY GROUP, 1993 - 1994 (combined)**

| | 8th Grade | 10th Grade | 12th Grade |
|---|---|---|---|
| Marijuana/Hashish | | | |
| White | 5.6 | 13.4 | 18.4 |
| Black | 5.0 | 9.8 | 13.1 |
| Hispanic | 12.1 | 15.6 | 14.9 |
| Cocaine | | | |
| White | 0.7 | 0.9 | 1.3 |
| Black | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.5 |
| Hispanic | 2.2 | 1.8 | 2.3 |

Note: Data from 1993 and 1994 surveys were combined to increase subgroup sample sizes.

Source: Johnston, L.D., O'Malley, P.M., and Buchman, J.G. 1995. National Survey Results on Drug Use from the Monitoring the Future Study, 1975-1994. Volume I, Secondary School Students. National Institute on Drug Abuse, Rockville, MD.

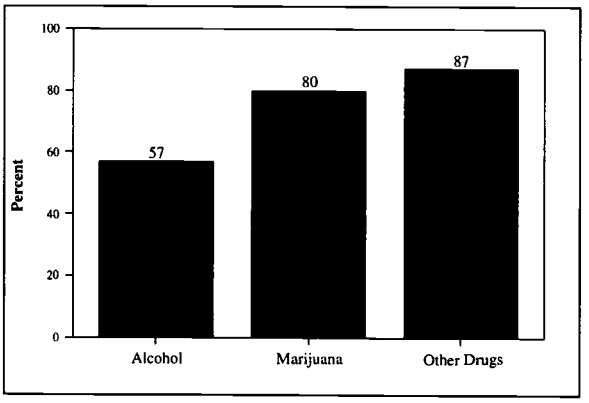
## SD 3.6 PEER ATTITUDES TOWARDS ALCOHOL, MARIJUANA, AND OTHER DRUGS

As children reach adolescence, peer influences on personal behavior can take on increasing importance. Figure SD 3.6.a indicates the percentage of students in grades 6-12 in 1993 who report peer disapproval of alcohol, marijuana, and other drug use. For each of these drugs, a majority of students reported that peers did not approve of their use. Disapproval rates ranged from 57 percent for alcohol to 80 percent for marijuana and 87 percent for other drugs.

Table SD 3.6 reports rates of peer disapproval for using various type of drugs for selected population subgroups. Rates of reported peer disapproval are similar across gender, race/ethnicity, and poverty status subgroups, never differing by more than a few percentage points. Students who have had drug/alcohol education within the past year report somewhat higher rates of peer disapproval for the use of marijuana and other drugs than those who did not receive such education, though the differences are small, never exceeding five percentage points.

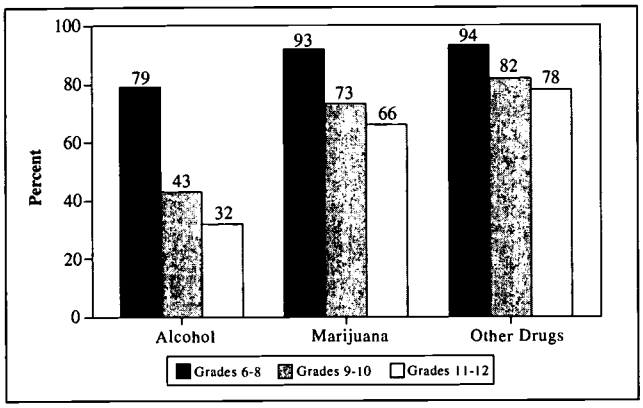
The largest contrasts in reported rates of peer disapproval are between younger and older students, with younger students far more likely to report peer disapproval of all drugs. (*See* Figure SD 3.6.b) For example, among sixth through eighth graders, 79 percent report that their peers disapprove of drinking alcohol. This declines to 32 percent, or less than one third, among eleventh and twelfth grade students. Peer disapproval rates for these two groups are 93 percent and 66 percent for marijuana use, and 94 and 78 percent regarding the use of other drugs.

### Figure SD 3.6.A PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADES 6-12 REPORTING PEER DISAPPROVAL OF ALCOHOL, MARIJUANA, AND OTHER DRUGS




Source: Vaden-Kiernan, N. & Nolin, M.J. (March/April 1995) "School, home, and community factors related to peer approval of drug use". Paper presented at the Eastern Sociological Annual Meeting: Philadelphia, PA. Data from the National Household Education Survey 1993 School Safety and Discipline Component, National Center for Education Statistics.

**Figure SD 3.6.B PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN GRADES 6-12 REPORTING PEER DISAPPROVAL OF ALCOHOL, MARIJUANA, AND OTHER DRUG USE, BY GRADE: 1993**




Source: Vaden-Kiernan, N. & Nolin, M.J. (March/April 1995) "School, home, and community factors related to peer approval of drug use." Paper presented at the Eastern Sociological Society Annual Meeting: Philadelphia, PA. Data from the National Household Education Survey 1993 School Safety and Discipline Component, National Center for Education Statistics.

**Table SD 3.6 PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN GRADES 6 THROUGH 12 REPORTING THAT PEERS DO NOT APPROVE OF USE OF ALCOHOL, MARIJUANA, OR OTHER DRUGS: 1993**

| | Percent of Friends at School Who Do Not Think it is Alright to: | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Drink Alcohol | Smoke Marijuana | Use Other Drugs |
| Total | 57 | 80 | 87 |
| Gender | | | |
| Male | 56 | 81 | 88 |
| Female | 57 | 80 | 85 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | |
| White, non-Hispanic | 55 | 82 | 87 |
| Black, non-Hispanic | 57 | 77 | 86 |
| Hispanic | 61 | 77 | 83 |
| Grade | | | |
| 6-8 | 79 | 93 | 94 |
| 9-10 | 43 | 73 | 82 |
| 11-12 | 32 | 66 | 78 |
| Household poverty status | | | |
| Not poor | 55 | 80 | 87 |
| Poor | 61 | 80 | 87 |
| Received school alcohol/drug education within past year | | | |
| In Current Year | 58 | 81 | 87 |
| Not in Current Year | 52 | 76 | 83 |
| Discussion With Parents About Avoiding Alcohol or Drugs | | | |
| Yes | 65 | 84 | 88 |
| No | 52 | 78 | 86 |

Source: Vaden-Kiernan, N. & Nolin, M. J. (March /April 1995) "School, home, and community factors related to peer approval of drug use." Paper presented at the Eastern Sociological Society Annual Meeting: Philadelphia, PA.

Data are from the National Household Education Survey 1993 School and Safety Component, National Center for Education Statistics.

## SD 4.1 SEXUALLY EXPERIENCED TEENS

Sexual experience, and particularly the age at first intercourse, represent critical indicators of the risk of pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases. Youth who begin having sex at younger ages are exposed to these risks over a longer period of time. Because sexual intercourse during the teen years, especially first intercourse, is often unplanned,[47] it is not surprising that it is often unprotected by contraception.[48] In addition, research has shown that youth who have early sexual experience are more likely at later ages to have more sexual partners and more frequent intercourse.[49]

The trends over the past several decades show that increasing proportions of teens have had sexual intercourse. Table SD 4.1 shows data for females in three cohorts: those who turned 20 in 1958-1960, 1970-1972, and 1985-1987. Data for males are presented for the two most recent cohorts only. Among males, the later cohort has slightly higher levels of sexual activity at young ages than those of the earlier cohort, but at older ages the increase in sexual activity becomes larger. For example, among males age 13, 9 percent of the earlier cohort had experienced sexual intercourse compared to 11 percent of the later cohort. However, at age 17, the difference between the two cohorts in the proportion of sexually active was 11 percentage points (41 percent versus 52 percent).

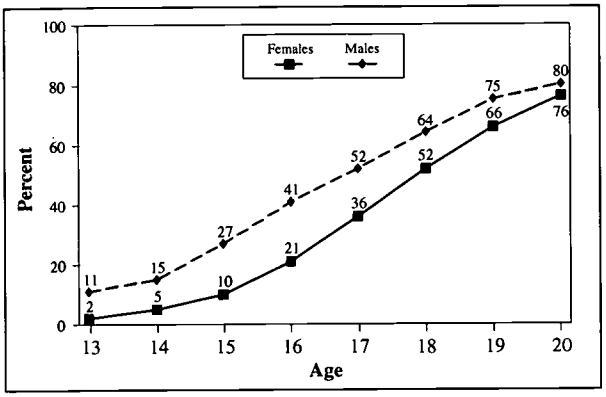
Among females, the percentage who were sexually experienced increased for all ages between the 1970-1972 and 1985-1987 cohorts. Percentages also increased between the 1958-1960 and 1970-1972 cohorts, but the increases were smaller and existed only for females ages 15 and older. For example, the percentage of 18 year old females who were sexually experienced increased from 27 percent for the 1958-1960 cohort to 35 percent for the 1970-1972 cohort and 52 percent for the 1985-1987 cohort.

By the late teen years, most teens are sexually experienced, however it is important to note that not all teens are sexually experienced. Among the most recent cohort of youth, it is estimated that more than half of adolescent females and nearly two-thirds of adolescent males had intercourse by age 18 (Figure SD 4.1). However, nearly one in five abstained from sexual intercourse throughout their teenage years. Age is the most important correlate of teen sexual experience. At age 13, just over 1 in 10 males and only 1 in 50 females were sexually experienced, but by age 20, about 3 in 4 females and 4 out of 5 males and females were sexually experienced.

At every year of age more teen males than females report having had intercourse. The gender difference in teen sexual experience has been declining over time, but still the proportion of teen males at each year of age who report having sex is roughly equal to the number of sexually experienced teen females who are one year older.

[47]Lowenstein, G. and Furstenberg, F.F. 1991. "Is teenage sexual behavior rational?" *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 21(12): 957-986.
[48]Forrest, J. D., and Singh, S. 1990. "The sexual and reproductive behavior of American women, 1982-1988." *Family Planning Perspectives* 22 (5): 206-214.
[49]Koyle, P., Jensen, L., Olsen, J., and Cundick, B. 1989. "Comparison of sexual behaviors among adolescents having an early, middle, and late first intercourse experience." *Youth and Society* 20(4): 461-475.

## Figure SD 4.1 PERCENT OF FEMALES AND MALES WHO HAVE HAD INTERCOURSE BY EACH AGE, COHORT AGED 20 IN 1985 - 1987




Source: Alan Guttmacher Institute. (1994). *Sex and America's Teenagers.* New York, NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute. Based on data from the 1988 National Survey of Family Growth and the 1991 Survey of Men.

## Table SD 4.1 PERCENT OF TEENS WHO HAVE HAD INTERCOURSE BY EACH AGE

| | Females Who Turned Age 20 in: | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1958-1960 | 1970-1972 | 1985-1987 |
| Ages | | | |
| 13 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| 14 | 2 | 1 | 5 |
| 15 | 3 | 4 | 10 |
| 16 | 8 | 9 | 21 |
| 17 | 16 | 20 | 36 |
| 18 | 27 | 35 | 52 |
| 19 | 46 | 53 | 66 |
| 20 | 61 | 68 | 76 |

| | Males Who Turned Age 20 in: | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1958-1960 | 1970-1972 | 1985-1987 |
| Ages | | | |
| 13 | — | 9 | 11 |
| 14 | — | 13 | 15 |
| 15 | — | 20 | 27 |
| 16 | — | 30 | 41 |
| 17 | — | 41 | 52 |
| 18 | — | 55 | 64 |
| 19 | — | 67 | 75 |
| 20 | — | 74 | 80 |

Note: Data are based on females aged 30-32 and 42-44 in the 1982 National Survey of Family Growth (NSFG) and aged 21-23 and 36-38 in the 1988 NSFG and males aged 21-23 and 36-38 in the 1991 Survey of Men.

Source: Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1994. *Sex and America's Teenagers,* New York, NY. Alan Guttmacher Institute.

## SD 4.2 SEXUALLY ACTIVE TEENS

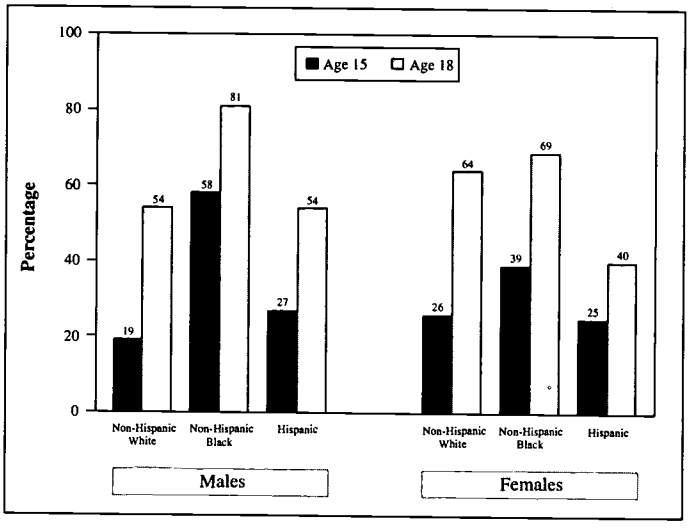
Having become sexually experienced does not necessarily mean a teenager will be sexually active from that point on. They may still abstain from intercourse out of concern for the risk of pregnancy or sexually transmitted diseases, or they may experience periods in which they do not have a sexual partner and are not sexually active, and therefore are not at risk. Nevertheless, research indicates that once a person has had sex, they are likely to continue to be sexually active; among young adults aged 18-22 who had ever had intercourse, over 70 percent had a second experience of intercourse within six months of first intercourse.[50]

Figure SD 4.2 shows the proportion of teens at each age who have had intercourse in the previous three months by gender and race/ethnicity for 1992. At age 15, 58 percent of non-Hispanic black males were sexually active compared to 19 percent of non-Hispanic white males and 27 percent of Hispanic males. Among females, 39 percent of non-Hispanic blacks are sexually active compared to about one quarter of non-Hispanic whites and Hispanics.

By age 18, a majority of teens in each of these groups reported being sexually active, with the exception of Hispanic females of whom only 40 percent reported recent sexual activity. Non-Hispanic white and Hispanic 18 year old males had rates of 54 percent; non-Hispanic white and black 18 year old females had rates of 64 and 69 percent, respectively. Among non-Hispanic black males of that age, 81 percent reported being sexually active.

[50]Moore, K.A. and Peterson, J.L. August 1989. *"The Consequences of Teenage Pregnancy."* Final report to NICHD and ASPE/HHS, Grant number HD 21537.

**Figure SD 4.2 PERCENT OF ALL YOUTH WHO ARE SEXUALLY ACTIVE BY AGE 15 AND AGE 18, BY GENDER AND RACE/ETHNICITY, 1992**




Note: Sexually Active is defined as intercourse in the past 3 months.

Source: 1992 National Health Interview Survey — Youth Risk Behavior Supplement, tabulations by Child Trends, Inc., weighted analyses.

**Table SD 4.2 SEXUALLY ACTIVE TEENS: PERCENT OF TEENS AGE 15 AND 18 WHO REPORT HAVING HAD INTERCOURSE IN THE PREVIOUS THREE MONTHS, BY GENDER AND RACE/ETHNICITY, 1992**

| | Age 15 | Age 18 |
|---|---|---|
| Males | | |
| Non-Hispanic White | 19 | 54 |
| Non-Hispanic Black | 58 | 81 |
| Hispanic | 27 | 54 |
| Females | | |
| Non-Hispanic White | 26 | 64 |
| Non-Hispanic Black | 39 | 69 |
| Hispanic | 25 | 40 |

Source: 1992 National Health Interview Survey — Youth Risk Behavior Supplement, tabulations by Child Trends, Inc., weighted analyses

## SD 4.3 UNPROTECTED SEX

Sexual intercourse without contraception puts a teen at risk of unintended pregnancy and of contracting a sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/AIDS. The vast majority of teens do not want to become pregnant. Data from a national survey shows that among teens who had first intercourse at age 17 or younger, only about one in one hundred wanted a pregnancy to occur at that time, and this was true for both males and females, and for both blacks and whites.[51] Nevertheless, some of these sexually active teens who do not want to become pregnant do not use any contraception. The estimated risk of a female aged 15-19 becoming pregnant during one year of intercourse using no contraceptive method is 90 percent.[52] Teens who do not use contraception account for nearly 50 percent of the unintended teen pregnancies.[53]

Data on the level of unprotected sexual intercourse among teen females at risk of unintended pregnancy, shown in Table SD 4.3.a, indicate that older teens, white teens, and higher income female teens are more likely to use contraception. Among females at risk of an unintended pregnancy, 27 percent of those aged 15-17 and 16 percent of those aged 18-19 were using no contraception in 1988. Contraceptive use also varied by race and ethnicity. Hispanic females were the least likely to use contraception—35 percent used no method—compared to 23 percent of black females and 19 percent of whites females. Higher income teen females were also somewhat more likely to use contraception. While 17 percent of teens whose family incomes were 200 percent of the poverty line or above were using no contraception, 29 percent of low-income teens (100-199 percent of poverty) and 22 percent of poor teens were using no contraception.

Data for males show that the proportion who were not using an effective contraceptive method declined substantially from 1979 to 1988, although there was still a substantial group who are not using effective contraception. In 1979, 51 percent of urban males aged 17-19 reported that neither they nor their partner were using an effective method of contraception. By 1988 the proportion had declined substantially to 21 percent. (See Table SD 4.3.b) The increase in contraceptive use over time was due to increasing levels of condom use; use of other methods actually declined. However, there was no substantial change in contraceptive use from 1988 to 1991 among males aged 17.5-19. Some have suggested that the increased awareness of AIDS and the public attention towards AIDS in the 1980s resulted in increases in condom use.

[51]Moore, K.A. and Peterson, J.L. August, 1989. "The Consequences of Teenage Pregnancy." Final Report to NICHD and ASPE/DHHS, Grant No. HD 21537.

[52]Harlap, S., Kost, K., and Forrest, J.D. 1991. *Preventing Pregnancy, Protecting Health: A New Look at Birth Control Choices in the United States*. New York, NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute, Table 8.2, p. 121.

[53]Forrest, J.D. 1994. "Epidemiology of unintended pregnancy and contraceptive use." *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology* 170:1485-1489.

## Table SD 4.3.A PERCENT USING NO METHOD OF CONTRACEPTION AMONG FEMALES AGED 15-19 WHO ARE AT RISK OF UNINTENDED PREGNANCY: 1988

| | Percent Using No Method of Contraception |
|---|---|
| Age Group | |
| 15-17 | 27 |
| 18-19 | 16 |
| Race/Ethnicity | |
| Black | 23 |
| Hispanic | 35 |
| White | 19 |
| Poverty Level | |
| < 100% of Poverty | 22 |
| 100-199% | 29 |
| 200% or more | 17 |

Note: 1. The definition of "at risk" excludes females who have never had intercourse, are pregnant/postpartum/seeking pregnancy, and who are non-contraceptively sterile.
2. Methods of contraception include sterilization, oral contraceptives, IUD, diaphragm, condom, withdrawal, spermicidal foam or jelly, douche, and periodic abstinence or the rhythm method.

Source: Based on tabulations by the Alan Guttmacher Institute of data from the 1982 and 1988 National Survey of Family Growth.

## Table SD 4.3.B PERCENT USING CONTRACEPTIVES AT LAST INTERCOURSE AMONG SEXUALLY ACTIVE YOUNG MALES: 1979-1991

| | Urban Males, Aged 17-19 | | All Males, Aged 17.5-19 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1979 NSYM | 1988 NSAM | 1988 NSAM | 1991 NSAM |
| Condom | 20 | 54 | 53 | 56 |
| Female method only | 29 | 25 | 27 | 23 |
| No or ineffective method | 51 | 21 | 20 | 21 |

Note: Female contraceptive methods include oral contraceptives, diaphragm, IUD, contraceptive foam or jelly, and Today Sponge. When combined with condom use, these methods are classified under condom use.

Source: National Survey of Young Men: Sonenstein, Freya, Joseph Pleck, and Leighton Ku. "At Risk of AIDS," March, 1989, Table 5; Zelnick, M., and J. Kantner, "Sexual Activity, Contraceptive Use and Pregnancy Among Metropolitan-Area Teenagers: 1971-1979," *Family Planning Perspectives*, 12(5), September/October, 1980.

## SD 4.4 NUMBER OF SEXUAL PARTNERS

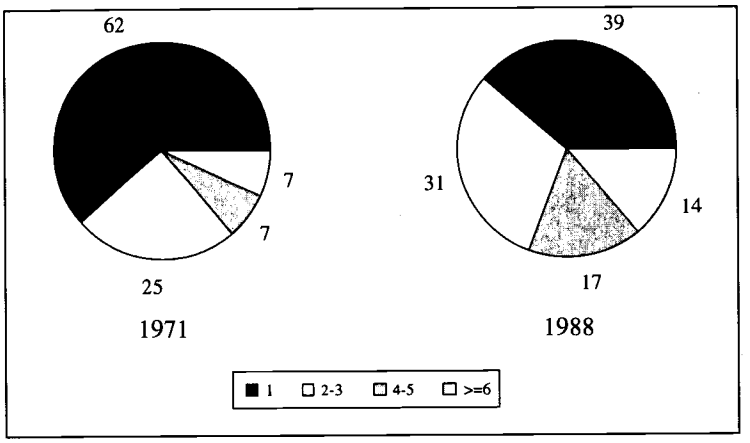
The greater the number of sexual partners a person has, the greater the risk of contracting sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS. Since the early 1970s, the number of sexual partners among sexually active females has increased (See Figure SD 4.4.a). In 1971, 62 percent of sexually active females aged 15-19 living in metropolitan areas had had one partner in their lifetime, whereas by 1988, only 39 percent had only one partner. Furthermore, the proportion of females with a high number of partners—6 or more in their lifetime—doubled over this same time period (from 7 percent to 14 percent). Black females were slightly less likely to have had only one partner than whites, but the trend is similar. (See Table SD 4.4.a)

Unfortunately, trend data for males are rather limited, but, as shown in Table SD 4.4.b, among never-married sexually experienced males aged 17.5-19, the mean number of partners over the previous 12 months increased from 2.0 in 1988 to 2.6 in 1991. There was also an increase in the percent of males with 5 or more partners in the past year from 6.3 percent in 1988 to 10.7 percent in 1991. The mean number of partners over the past 4 weeks was unchanged.

Recent data show that among sexually active teens, males, especially non-Hispanic black and poor males, are more likely to have a high number of partners than females. In 1992, among teens ages 15-19, 45 percent of non-Hispanic black males and 40 percent of all males below the poverty line had 6 or more partners in their lifetime, compared to just over a quarter of non-Hispanic white males and males who were at or above the poverty line, one-third of Hispanic males, and less than one in five females in all race/ethnic and poverty groups (See Table SD 4.4.c). It is interesting that among females, given sexually activity, there do not appear to be large differences in the numbers of sexual partners regardless of poverty status. Although Hispanic females are more likely to have only one partner and less likely to have had 6 or more partners, non-Hispanic white and non-Hispanic black females who are sexually active have rather similar patterns of numbers of partners. (See Table SD 4.4.c).

Age at first intercourse has a strong association with number of partners a person accumulates (Table SD 4.4.d); early intercourse means that over the years there is more time to accumulate partners. Figure SD 4.4.b shows that among teens who were age 20 in 1992, 74 percent of males who had sexual intercourse at age 14 or younger had 6 or more partners during their lifetime, compared to 48 percent of those who initiated sex at ages 15 or 16 and 10 percent of those who did not have intercourse until age 17 or older. The comparable figures among females were 57 percent, 34 percent, and 10 percent, respectively.

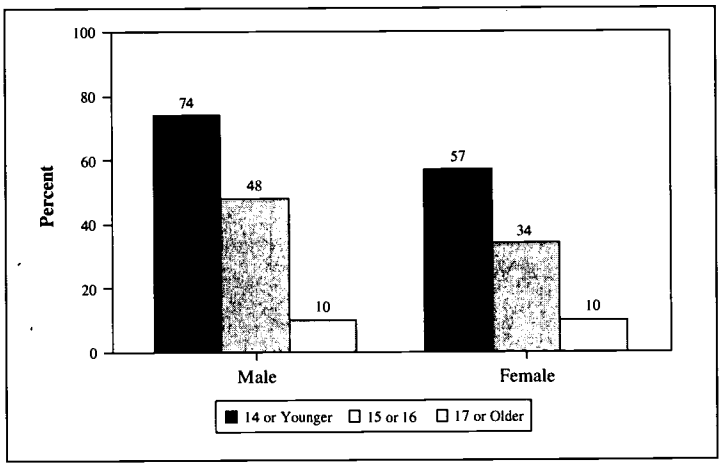
**Figure SD 4.4.A PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF LIFETIME SEXUAL PARTNERS AMONG SEXUALLY ACTIVE FEMALES AGED 15-19 LIVING IN METROPOLITAN AREAS, 1971 AND 1988**




Note: Similar time trend data are not available for males.

Source: Kost, K. and Forrest, J.D. 1992. "American women's sexual behavior and exposure to risk of sexually transmitted disease". Family Planning Perspectives 24(6): 244-254. Based on data from the National Surveys of Young Women and the 1988 *National Survey of Family Growth.*

**Figure SD 4.4.B PERCENT WITH 6 OR MORE LIFETIME SEXUAL PARTNERS AMONG SEXUALLY ACTIVE TEENS AGE 20, BY AGE AT FIRST INTERCOURSE, 1992**




Source: 1992 National Health Interview Survey — Youth Risk Behavior Supplement, tabulations by Child Trends, Inc., weighted analysis.

**Table SD 4.4.A PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF SEXUAL PARTNERS AMONG SEXUALLY ACTIVE FEMALES AGED 15-19 LIVING IN METROPOLITAN AREAS, BY RACE, 1971, 1976, 1979, AND 1988**

| | 1971 | 1976 | 1979 | 1988 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Races | | | | |
| 1 Partner | 62 | 53 | 49 | 39 |
| 2-3 Partners | 25 | 28 | 35 | 31 |
| 4-5 Partners | 7 | 9 | 8 | 17 |
| 6 or More Partners | 7 | 11 | 8 | 14 |
| Whites* | | | | |
| 1 Partner | 62 | 56 | 51 | 40 |
| 2-3 Partners | 23 | 23 | 33 | 30 |
| 4-5 Partners | 7 | 8 | 7 | 17 |
| 6 or More Partners | 8 | 13 | 9 | 14 |
| Blacks | | | | |
| 1 Partner | 61 | 43 | 41 | 35 |
| 2-3 Partners | 30 | 40 | 43 | 35 |
| 4-5 Partners | 5 | 2 | 11 | 18 |
| 6 or More Partners | 4 | 6 | 5 | 12 |
| Total | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

*Includes a small number of women of other races who are not black.

Note: The National Surveys of Young Women (1971, 1976, and 1979) asked respondents about their number of premarital partners, the 1988 National Surveys of Young Women asked respondents for their lifetime number of partners.

Source: Kost, K. And Forrest, J.D. 1992. "American women's sexual behavior and exposure to risk of sexually transmitted disease." *Family Planning Perspectives* 24(6): 244-254. Based on data from the National Surveys of Young Women and the 1988 National Survey of Family Growth.

**Table SD 4.4.B AVERAGE NUMBER OF SEXUAL PARTNERS AMONG NEVER-MARRIED MALES, AGED 17.5-19, 1988 AND 1991**

| | 1988 | 1991 |
|---|---|---|
| Mean No. of Partners Last 12 Months (Among those Sexually Experienced) | | |
| Total | 2.0 | 2.6 |
| Black | 2.4 | 4.3 |
| White | 2.0 | 2.3 |
| Hispanic | 1.8 | 2.1 |
| Mean No. of Partners in Last 4 Weeks (Among those with 1 or More Partners in Last 12 Months) | 0.8 | 0.8 |
| Percent with 5 or More Partners in Last 12 Months | 6.3 | 10.7 |

Source: Ku, L., Sonestein, F.L. and Pleck, J.H. 1993. "Young males risk behaviors for HIV infection and sexually transmitted disease, 1988 through 1991". *American Journal of Public Health* 83(11): 1609-1615. Based on data from the 1988 and 1991 National Survey of Adolescent Males.

**Table SD 4.4.C PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF LIFETIME SEXUAL PARTNERS, AMONG SEXUALLY ACTIVE TEENS AGED 15-19, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY AND POVERTY LEVEL: 1992**

| | One Partner | 2-3 Partners | 4-5 Partners | ≥ 6 Partners |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Males | 27 | 28 | 15 | 31 |
| Non-Hispanic white | 31 | 19 | 15 | 26 |
| Non- Hispanic black | 12 | 26 | 17 | 45 |
| Hispanic | 24 | 31 | 12 | 33 |
| Below poverty | 22 | 23 | 15 | 40 |
| At or above poverty | 28 | 30 | 15 | 27 |
| Females | 36 | 32 | 15 | 18 |
| Non-Hispanic white | 36 | 30 | 16 | 18 |
| Non-Hispanic black | 31 | 37 | 14 | 19 |
| Hispanic | 43 | 34 | 13 | 10 |
| Below poverty | 34 | 33 | 15 | 18 |
| At or above poverty | 37 | 30 | 15 | 18 |

Note: Percents may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

Source: 1992 National Health Interview Survey — Youth Risk Behavior Supplement, Tabulations by Child Trends, Inc., weighted analyses.

**Table SD 4.4.D PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF NUMBER OF LIFETIME SEXUAL PARTNERS AMONG SEXUALLY ACTIVE TEENS AGE 20, BY AGE AT FIRST INTERCOURSE: 1992**

| | Age at First Intercourse: | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 14 or Younger | 15 or 16 | 17 or Older |
| Males | | | |
| One Partner | 2 | 9 | 42 |
| 2-3 Partners | 10 | 27 | 30 |
| 4-5 Partners | 15 | 16 | 19 |
| 6 or More Partners | 74 | 48 | 10 |
| Females | | | |
| One Partner | 2 | 10 | 45 |
| 2-3 Partners | 26 | 28 | 33 |
| 4-5 Partners | 16 | 28 | 13 |
| 6 or More Partners | 57 | 34 | 10 |

Note: Percents may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

Source: 1992 National Health Interview Survey — Youth Risk Behavior Supplement, Tabulations by Child Trends, Inc., weighted analyses.

## SD 4.5 TEEN PREGNANCY

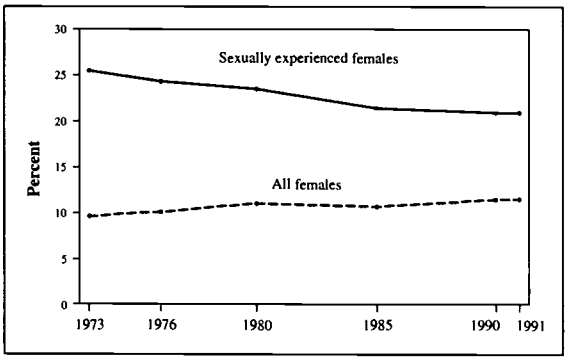
From 1973 to 1990 the percent of females aged 15-19 who became pregnant generally increased, rising from 9.6% in 1973 to 11.5% in 1990. Since then, among females aged 15 to 17, the percent becoming pregnant has declined slightly from 7.6 percent in 1990 to 7.5 percent in 1991. Since 1990, among females aged 15 to 19, the percent becoming pregnant has leveled off, staying at 11.5 percent in 1991. In addition, among females aged 15 to 19, state data indicates that from 1991 through 1992, pregnancy rates decreased significantly in 30 of the 41 reporting states and the District of Columbia.[54]

Pregnancy is more prevalent among older teens. Table SD 4.5 shows that the percent of all females aged 18-19 who become pregnant is more than double the corresponding percentage of all females aged 15 to 17. The overwhelming majority of U.S. teens do not want to become parents as teens.[55] Among all pregnancies to teens under age 20 at pregnancy outcome, 86 percent were unintended at conception.[56]

Figure SD 4.5 shows that among females aged 15 to 19 who have ever had sexual intercourse, the percent becoming pregnant declined from 25.4 percent in 1973 to 20.9 percent in 1990.

[54]State-specific Pregnancy and Birth Rates Among Teenagers—United States, 1991, 1992," MMWR. Sept. 22, 1995.
[55]Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1994. "Sex and America's Teenagers." New York, NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute.
[56]Unintended pregnancies tabulated by Alan Guttmacher Institute based on National Survey of Family Growth in "Facts at a Glance," Washington, D.C.: Child Trends, Inc., 1995.

**Figure SD 4.5 PERCENT EXPERIENCING PREGNANCY EACH YEAR AMONG FEMALES AGED 15-19, BY SEXUAL EXPERIENCE 1972 - 1991**




Note: Pregnancies are calculated by summing the number of live births, the number of abortions, and the estimated number of spontaneous fetal losses. Spontaneous fetal losses are based on data from the National Survey of Family Growth conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics.

Source: All data for 1973, and sexually experienced female data for 1976, are from Henshaw, S.K. (1994) U.S. Teenage Pregnancy Statistics, New NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute; and Alan Guttmacher Institute. 1994. All other data from Ventura, S.J., Taffel S.M., Mosher, W.D., Wilson, J.B., and Henshaw, S.K. (1995). "Trends in Pregnancies and Pregnancy Rates: Estimates for the United States, 1980-92." *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Volume 43, No. 11(S). May 25, 1995.

**Table SD 4.5 PERCENT OF TEEN FEMALES EXPERIENCING PREGNANCY, BY AGE GROUP: 1973 - 1991**

| Percent Becoming Pregnant Each Year: | 1973 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Females Aged 14 or Less* | 1.4 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 1.7 |
| All Females Aged 15-17 | 6.7 | 6.9 | 7.3 | 7.1 | 7.6 | 7.5 |
| All Females Aged 18-19 | 14.1 | 14.9 | 16.2 | 15.8 | 16.6 | 17.1 |
| All Females Aged 15-19 | 9.6 | 10.1 | 11.0 | 10.7 | 11.5 | 11.5 |
| All Sexually Experienced Females Aged 15-19 | 25.4 | 24.3 | 23.5 | 21.4 | 20.9 | 20.9 |

*Denominator is females aged 14.

Note: Pregnancies are calculated by summing the number of live births, the number of abortions, and the estimated number of spontaneous fetal losses. Spontaneous fetal losses are based on data from the National Survey of Family Growth conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics.

Source: All data for 1973, and sexually experienced female data for 1976, are from Henshaw, S.K. (1994) U.S. Teenage Pregnancy Statistics, New NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute; and Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1994. All other data from Ventura, S.J., Taffel S.M., Mosher, W.D., Wilson, J.B., and Henshaw, S.K. (1995). "Trends in Pregnancies and Pregnancy Rates: Estimates for the United States, 1980-92," *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Volume 43, No. 11(S), May 25, 1995.

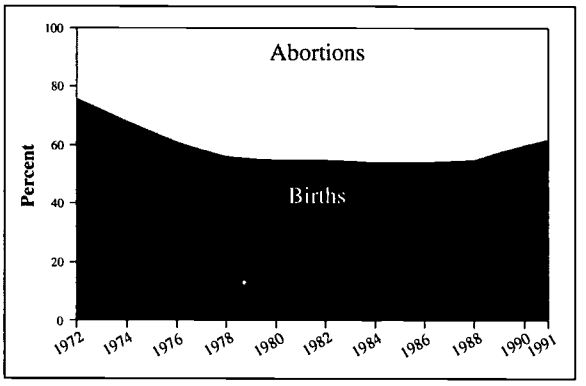
## SD 4.6 ABORTION AMONG TEENS

The proportion of teen females aged 15-19 who obtained an abortion increased from 2.3 to 4.3 percent between 1973 and 1980, presumably influenced both by the legalization of abortion and increasing levels of sexual activity and pregnancy. (*See* Table SD 4.6) By 1991, the proportion obtaining abortions had dropped slightly to 3.8 percent. Similar patterns occurred among both younger teens (ages 15-17) and older teens (ages 18-19).

The percent of teens who are sexually experienced has increased during the past several decades, and therefore it is reasonable to consider abortion in light of this trend. When abortion rates are calculated among females age 15-19 who have ever had intercourse, the data indicate that the proportion obtaining abortions increased from 5.9 percent in 1973 to 9.1 percent in 1980, then declined to 6.8 percent in 1991. Thus, although a larger proportion of teen females were sexually experienced in 1990 than in 1980, a smaller proportion of those who were at risk of pregnancy obtained abortions.

Figure SD 4.6 depicts trends in the propensity to give birth versus obtaining an abortion given pregnancy over the past several years. In 1972, the proportion of pregnancies (excluding miscarriages) to females aged 15-19 which ended in birth was 76 percent. During the rest of the 1970s this proportion declined as abortion increased. However, throughout most of the 1980s, the proportion of pregnancies ending in birth remained fairly stable at around 55 percent. By 1991, there was an increase to 62 percent in the proportion of pregnancies ending in birth.

**Figure SD 4.6 PERCENT OF PREGNANCIES AMONG FEMALES AGED 15-19 ENDING IN BIRTH AND ABORTION, 1972 - 1991**




Note: Pregnancies do not include miscarriages

Source: Alan Guttmacher Institute. (1991) *Sex and America's Teenagers*. New York, NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute, Figure 33. Based on birth data from the National Center for Health Statistics and abortion data from the Alan Guttmacher Institute. Data for 1991 are from Ventura, S.J., Taffel, S.M., Mosher, W.D., Wilson, J.B., and Henshaw,S., "Trends in Pregnancies and Pregnancy Rates: Estimates for the United States, 1980-92," *Monthly Vital Statistics Report*, Vol. 43, No. 11(S), May 25, 1995.

Table SD 4.6 PERCENT OF TEEN FEMALES OBTAINING AN ABORTION DURING THE YEAR, BY AGE GROUP: 1973 - 1991

| | 1973 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Females Aged 14 or Less* | 0.6 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| Females Aged 15-17 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 3.1 | 2.7 | 2.4 |
| Females Aged 18-19 | 2.9 | 4.2 | 6.1 | 6.2 | 5.8 | 5.6 |
| Females Aged 15-19 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 4.0 | 3.8 |
| Sexually Experienced Females Aged 15-19 | 5.9 | 7.5 | 9.1 | 8.5 | 7.3 | 6.8 |

*Denominator is females aged 14.

Source: Data for 1973 and 1975 are from Henshaw, S.K. (1994). *U.S. Teenage Pregnancy Statistics.* New York, NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute; Alan Guttmacher Institute 1994. *Sex and America's Teenagers.* New York, NY: Alan Guttmacher Institute 1994; Based on data from abortion providers and sexual experience data from the National Survey of Family Growth. Data for 1980 - 1991 based on calculations from Ventura, S.J., Taffel, S.M., Mosher, W.D., Wilson, J.B., and Henshaw, S.K. (1995). "Trends in Pregnancies and Pregnancy Rates: Estimates for the United States, 1980-92," *Monthly Vital Statistics Report,* Volume 43, No. 11(S), May 25, 1995. Data for 1985 were interpolated from 1980 and 1988 data.

## SD 4.7 TEEN BIRTHS

Although much of the discussion around teen fertility focuses on nonmarital birth, research indicates that having a teen birth can have negative impacts on both mothers and their children regardless of the marital status of the mother. Giving birth at an early age can limit a young women's options regarding education and employment opportunities, increase the likelihood of receiving welfare, and can have negative impacts on the development of her children.[57]

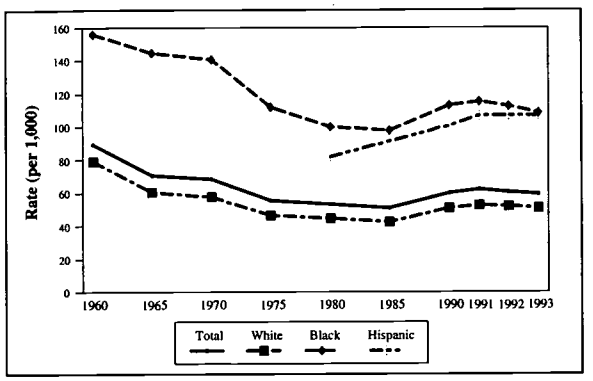
Figure 4.7.a shows trends in the number of teen births per 1000 teen women ages 15-19 from 1960 to 1993. Data are shown for all teens, and separately for white, black, and Hispanic teens ages 15-19. Between 1960 and 1985 the trend in teen birth rates was steadily downward from 89.1 to 51.0 births per 1000. Between 1985 and 1991, this trend reversed and the teen birth rate increased to 62.1 per 1000. Between 1991 and 1993, the rate fell modestly to 59.6 per 1000.

These basic historical trends are evident for white, black, and Hispanic teens as well. (*See* Table 4.7.a) Among whites age 15-19, rates went from 79.4 to 43.3 between 1960 and 1985, and rose to 52.8 in 1991 before dipping slightly to 51.1 in 1993. Rates for black teens have been consistently higher but follow the same pattern going from 156.1 to 95.4 per 1000 from 1960 to 1985, then increasing to a high of 115.5 in 1991 before dropping to 108.6 in 1993. Trends for Hispanic teens ages 15-19, which have been available only since 1980, indicate that the teen birth rate has risen steadily from 82.2 per 100 in 1980 to 106.7 in 1991, and continued to rise to 107.1 in 1992 before dropping slightly to 106.8 in 1993.

An important issue for policy purposes, and one that has received little attention, is the question of who are the fathers of these children born to teen mothers. Figure 4.7.b shows estimates of the percent of these fathers who were not themselves teenagers by age of mother for 1988. The data clearly reveal that the majority of these fathers were not teenagers. Even for mothers who were age 15 at the time their child was born, 39 percent of the fathers were age 20 or older. By mother's age 17, over half (55 percent) of the fathers were age 20 or older, rising to 78 percent by mother's age 19.

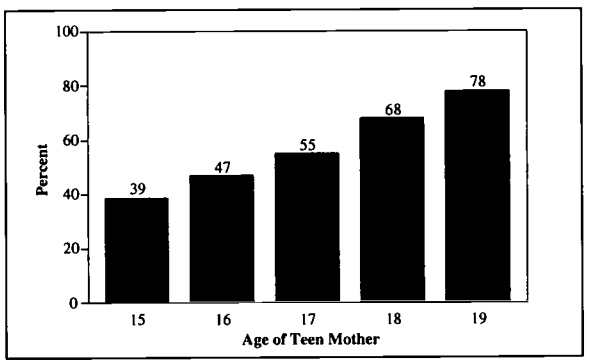
[57]Moore, K.M. 1993. *Teenage Childbearing: A Pragmatic Perspective*. Child Trends, Inc. Washington, D.C.

**Figure SD 4.7.A TEEN FERTILITY RATES (BIRTHS PER 1,000 TEEN WOMEN) BY RACE/ETHNICITY: 1960 - 1993**




Source: Compiled by Child Trends, Inc., with data from annual Natality volumes of the Vital Statistics Branch of the National Center for Health Statistics.

**Figure SD 4.7.B PERCENT OF CHILDREN OF TEEN MOTHERS WHO WERE FATHERED BY MEN AGES 20 AND OLDER, BY AGE OF MOTHER, 1988**




Source: 1988 National Maternal and Infant Health Survey tabulations by the Alan Guttmacher Institute, calculations by Child Trends, Inc.

**Table SD 4.7.A TEENAGE FERTILITY RATES (Births Per 1,000 Teen Women) BY AGE OF MOTHER AND RACE/ETHNICITY: 1960 - 1992**

| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980[a] | 1985[a] | 1990[a] | 1991[a] | 1992[a] | 1993[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Races | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age 15-17 | — | — | 38.8 | 36.1 | 32.5 | 31.0 | 37.5 | 38.7 | 37.8 | 37.8 |
| Age 18-19 | — | — | 114.7 | 85.0 | 82.1 | 79.6 | 88.6 | 94.4 | 94.5 | 92.1 |
| Age 15-19 | 89.1 | 70.4 | 68.3 | 55.6 | 53.0 | 51.0 | 59.9 | 62.1 | 60.7 | 59.6 |
| White | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age 15-17 | — | — | 29.2 | 28.0 | 25.5 | 24.4 | 29.5 | 30.7 | 30.1 | 30.3 |
| Age 18-19 | — | — | 101.5 | 74.0 | 73.2 | 70.4 | 78.0 | 83.5 | 83.8 | 82.1 |
| Age 15-19 | 79.4 | 60.6 | 57.4 | 46.4 | 45.4 | 43.3 | 50.8 | 52.8 | 51.8 | 51.1 |
| Black | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age 15-17 | — | — | 101.4 | 85.6 | 72.5 | 69.3 | 82.3 | 84.1 | 81.3 | 79.8 |
| Age 18-19 | — | — | 204.9 | 152.4 | 135.1 | 132.4 | 152.9 | 158.6 | 157.9 | 151.9 |
| Age 15-19 | 156.1 | 144.6 | 140.7 | 111.8 | 97.8 | 95.4 | 112.8 | 115.5 | 112.4 | 108.6 |
| Hispanic | | | | | | | | | | |
| Age 15-17 | — | — | — | — | 52.1 | — | 65.9 | 70.6 | 71.4 | 71.7 |
| Age 18-19 | — | — | — | — | 126.9 | — | 147.7 | 158.5 | 159.7 | 159.1 |
| Age 15-19 | — | — | — | — | 82.2 | — | 100.3 | 106.7 | 107.1 | 106.8 |

Notes: Data for Hispanics have been available only since 1980, with 22 states reporting in 1980, representing 90% of the Hispanic population. Hispanic birth data were reported by 23 states and DC in 1985, 48 states and DC in 1990; and 49 states and DC in 1991 and 1992.

[a]Births by race of mother. Tabulations prior to 1980 for black and whites (and for 1980 for Hispanics) are by race/ethnicity of child, which assigns the child to the race/ethnicity of the non-white parent, if any, or to the race/ethnicity of the father if both are non-white.

Source: Compiled by Child Trends, Inc., with data from annual Natality volumes of the Vital Statistics Branch of the National Center for Health Statistics.

## Table SD 4.7.B PERCENT OF BIRTHS TO TEEN MOTHERS BY AGE OF MOTHER AND AGE OF FATHER, 1988

| | Age of Father | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | ≤ 17 | 18 - 19 | 20+ |
| Age of Mother | | | |
| 15 | 30 | 31 | 39 |
| 16 | 25 | 28 | 47 |
| 17 | 15 | 30 | 55 |
| 18 | 5 | 27 | 68 |
| 19 | 4 | 18 | 78 |
| Total ≤ 19 | 10 | 25 | 65 |

Source: 1988 National Maternal and Infant Health Survey tabulations by the Alan Guttmacher Institute, calculations by Child Trends, Inc.

## SD 4.8 TEEN NON-MARITAL BIRTH RATE

While teen sexual behavior, pregnancy and parenthood have received increased attention for several decades, even more attention has been focussed on the increase in non-marital teen childbearing.[58] Potential explanations for this trend are varied. One reason may be a decrease in the stigma of non-marital childbearing.[59] The traditional response to premarital pregnancy—marriage before the birth of the child—has become much less common.[60] Others argue that high unemployment, particularly among black males, has diminished the attractiveness of young men as marriage partners.[61] Also, the availability of abortion may cause men to feel less responsible and less willing to marry the mother of their child because abortion is an alternative.

Non-marital childbearing among teens is a concern because of the personal, economic, and social consequences for the child, the teen parent, and society. Raising a child is a challenging task, even for two parents. A large body of research suggests that the absence of a father is associated with negative outcomes for children when they grow up.[62] For example, studies have linked growing up with a single parent to lower educational attainment for the child.[63] This trend is not isolated to teens. Rather, non-marital childbearing has increased among women of all ages. The issue of non-marital childbearing has focussed on teens because these young women often have little education and lack the ability to support their families economically, especially as a single parent.

Figure SD 4.8 shows the percent of births to women aged 15-19 which occurred outside of marriage by race/ethnicity group. The increase in non-marital childbearing has occurred among teens of all ages and across all race/ethnic groups. Among all teens aged 15-19, 15 percent of births were non-marital in 1960, compared to 70 percent in 1992. Non-marital childbearing is higher among blacks; in 1992, 93 percent of births to black females aged 15-19 were non-marital, compared to less than two-thirds among whites and Hispanics. Non-marital births were more prevalent among younger teens. For example, in 1992, 79 percent of births to 15-17 year olds were non-marital, compared to 65 percent among 18-19 year olds. This (*See* Table SD 4.8)pattern occurs across all race/ethnicity subgroups. However, increases in non-marital childbearing have been particularly dramatic among whites. In 1960, only 7 percent of births to white females age 15-19 were non-marital, compared to 60 percent of births in 1992.

[58]Furstenberg, F.F., Jr. 1991. "As the pendulum swings: Teenage childbearing and social concern." *Family Relations* 40(2):127-138.

[59]Pagnini, D.L. and Rindfuss, R.R. 1993. "The divorce of marriage and childbearing: Changing attitudes and behavior in the United States." *Population and Development Review* 19(2):331-347.

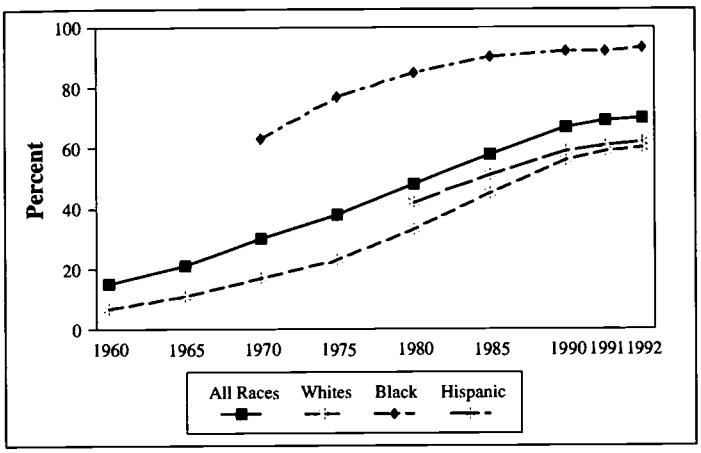
[60]Furstenberg, F.F., Jr. 1991. "As the pendulum swings: Teenage childbearing and social concern." *Family Relations* 40(2):127-138.

[61]Wilson, W.J. 1987. The Truly Disadvantaged: The Inner City, the Underclass, and Public Policy. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press; Lichter, D.T., McLaughlin, D.K., Kephart, G., and Landry, D.J. 1992. "Race, local mate availability, and transitions to first marriage among young women." Paper presented to the annual meeting of the Population Association of America, Denver, CO, April 30 - May 2.

[62]McLanahan, S. and Sandefur, G. 1994. Growing up with a single parent: What hurts, what helps. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press; Haveman, R. and Wolfe, B. 1994. Succeeding generations: On the effects of investments in children. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

[63]Knox, V. and Bane, M.J. 1994. "Child support and schooling." In I. Garfinkel, S. McLanahan , and P. Robins (Eds.). *Child Support and Child Well-Being*. Washington, DC: The Urban Institute.

## Figure SD 4.8 PERCENT OF ALL TEEN BIRTHS TO UNMARRIED TEENS AGES 15-19: 1960 - 1992




Source: Compiled by Child Trends, Inc., with data from annual Natality volumes of the Vital Statistics Branch of the National Center for Health Statistics

## Table SD 4.8 PERCENT OF ALL TEEN BIRTHS TO UNMARRIED TEENS, BY AGE OF MOTHER AND RACE/ETHNICITY[a] OF CHILD: 1960 - 1992

| | 1960 | 1965 | 1970 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990[b] | 1991[b] | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All Races | | | | | | | | | |
| Ages 15-17 | 24 | 33 | 43 | 51 | 61 | 71 | 78 | 79 | 79 |
| Ages 18-19 | 11 | 15 | 22 | 30 | 40 | 51 | 61 | 63 | 65 |
| Ages 15-19 | 15 | 21 | 30 | 38 | 48 | 58 | 67 | 69 | 70 |
| White | | | | | | | | | |
| Ages 15-17 | 12 | 17 | 25 | 33 | 45 | 58 | 68 | 70 | 71 |
| Ages 18-19 | 5 | 9 | 14 | 17 | 27 | 38 | 51 | 53 | 55 |
| Ages 15-19 | 7 | 11 | 17 | 23 | 33 | 45 | 56 | 59 | 60 |
| Black | | | | | | | | | |
| Ages 15-17 | — | — | 76 | 87 | 93 | 95 | 96 | 96 | 96 |
| Ages 18-19 | — | — | 52 | 68 | 79 | 86 | 89 | 90 | 90 |
| Ages 15-19 | — | — | 63 | 77 | 85 | 90 | 92 | 92 | 93 |
| Hispanic[a] | | | | | | | | | |
| Ages 15-17 | — | — | — | — | 51 | 61 | 68 | 69 | 69 |
| Ages 18-19 | — | — | — | — | 36 | 46 | 54 | 56 | 57 |
| Ages 15-19 | — | — | — | — | 42 | 51 | 59 | 61 | 62 |

Note: [a]Data for Hispanics have been available only since 1980, with 22 states reporting in 1980, representing 90% of the Hispanic population. Hispanic birth data was reported by 23 states and DC in 1985, 48 states and DC in 1990; and 49 states and DC in 1991 and 1992.
[b] Births by race of mother. Tabulations prior to 1989 were by race of child, which assigns the child to the race of the non-white parent, if any, or to the race of the father, if both are non-white.

Source: Compiled by Child Trends, Inc., with data from annual Natality volumes of the Vital Statistics Branch of the National Center for Health Statistics.

## SD 4.9 SECOND AND HIGHER ORDER BIRTHS TO TEENS

Experiencing a birth during the teen years has been associated with poorer outcomes for young women,[64] and giving birth to a second child while still a teen increases the risk of poor outcomes for the young women (e.g., school dropout),[65] as well as their children. In addition, among teen mothers on AFDC, the occurrence of a subsequent teen birth reduces the likelihood of getting off of welfare.[66] In terms of personal, social, and economic costs to the teen, to the child, and to society, it seems that delaying subsequent childbearing would be preferable. However, recent analyses of nationally representative data indicate that these young mothers proceed to have a second birth at about the same pace as older mothers.[67]

As shown in Table SD 4.9, the proportion of teen births which are second or higher order has increased in recent years. In fact, in 1991, nearly one-quarter of all teen births involved a second or higher order birth. Between 1985 and 1991, the proportion of teen births that were second or higher order births rose from 22 to 25 percent.

Subsequent teen births are more common among certain subgroups of the population. In 1991, a higher proportion of births among married teens were second or higher order births (28 percent) than births to unmarried teens (23 percent). Moreover, births to teens with lower educational attainment are more likely to be subsequent births; 27 percent of births to teens who had not graduated from high school were second or higher order births compared to 19 percent for teens who had a high school education. Finally, births to black and Hispanic teens were more likely to be subsequent births than births to whites, with black teens at 32 percent, Hispanic teens at 26 percent, and white teens at 21 percent.

[64]Moore, K.A., Myers, D.E., Morrison, D.R., Nord, C.W., Brown, B.B., and Edmonston, B. 1993. "Age at first childbirth and later poverty." *Journal of Research on Adolescence* 3(4):393-422.

[65]Kalmuss, D. and Namerow, P.B. 1992. "The mediators of educational attainment among early childbearers." Unpublished manuscript. Columbia University, Center for Population and Family Health.

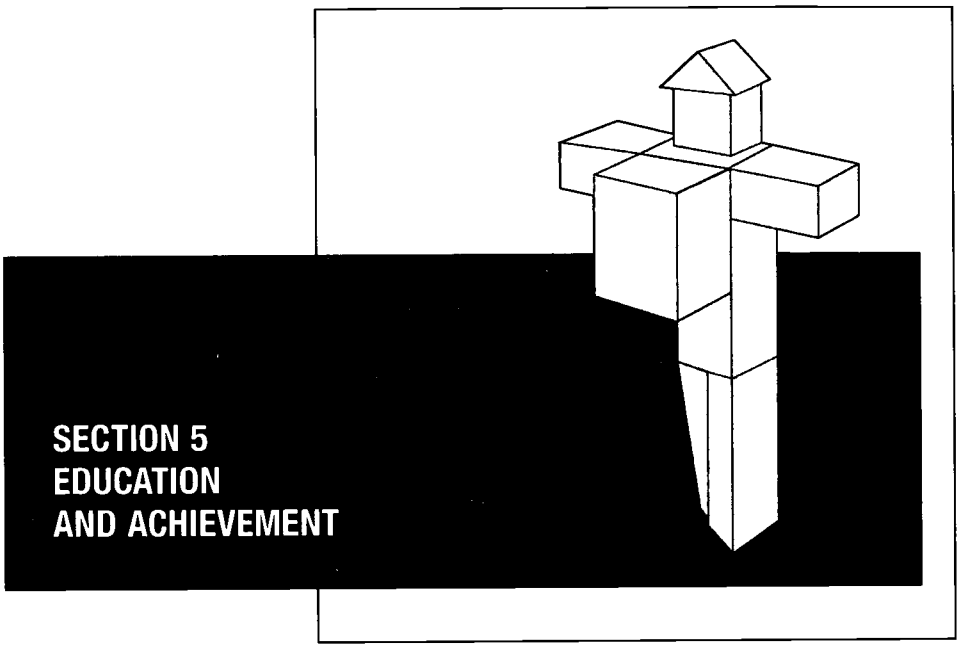
[66]Moore, K.A. and Hofferth, S. 1978. "The consequences of age at first childbirth: Female-headed families and welfare recipiency." Working paper 1146-05. Washington, DC: The Urban Institute.

[67]Moore, K.A., Myers, D.E., Morrison, D.R., Nord, C.W., Brown, B. and Edmonston, B. 1993. "Age at first childbirth and later poverty." *Journal of Research on Adolescence* 3(4):393-422.

**Table SD 4.9 PERCENT OF ALL TEEN BIRTHS THAT ARE SECOND OR HIGHER ORDER, BY MARITAL STATUS, EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, AND RACE/ETHNICITY: 1985 AND 1991**

| | 1985 | 1991 |
|---|---|---|
| All Births | 22 | 25 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | |
| White | 20 | 21 |
| Black | 27 | 32 |
| Hispanic | 25 | 26 |
| Other | 26 | 25 |
| Educational Attainment | | |
| High school graduate | 16 | 19 |
| Not high school graduate | 25 | 27 |
| Marital Status | | |
| Married | 26 | 28 |
| Single | 20 | 23 |

Source: Child Trends, Inc., tabulations of Natality data for 1985 and 1991 from the National Center for Health Statistics.



# SECTION 5
# EDUCATION AND ACHIEVEMENT

## ENROLLMENT/ATTENDANCE

### EA 1.1 PRESCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF 3-4 YEAR-OLDS

Preschool enrollment is one measure of readiness to learn that may especially help prepare children from disadvantaged backgrounds for elementary school. One educational goal proposed by the National Education Goals Panel is that "all children will have access to high-quality and developmentally appropriate preschool programs that help prepare children for school."[68]

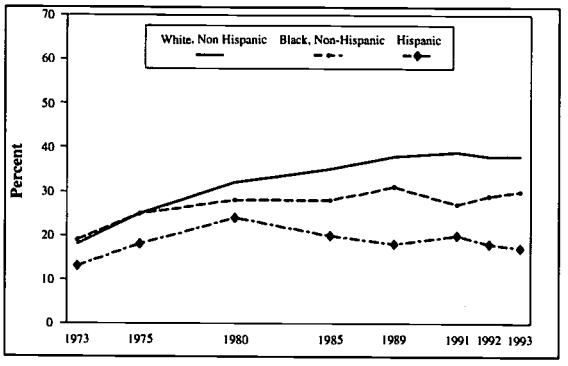
Recent trends in enrollment rates show that kindergarten is not necessarily the first schooling experience for children (Table EA 1.1). In 1993, approximately a third of all 3- to 4- year old children were enrolled in preschool. The total enrollment rate of 3- to 4- year-olds almost doubled between 1973 and 1989, from 18 percent to 35 percent, and has stabilized at around a third in the 1990s.

Preschool enrollment rates differ by race-ethnicity, with only 17 percent of Hispanic children enrolled in preschool compared with 30 percent of blacks and 38 percent of whites in 1993. In the past 20 years, white enrollment rates have increased at a faster pace than either black or Hispanic rates. (See Figure EA 1.1.a) In 1973, whites and blacks participated in preschool at similar rates (18 percent vs. 19 percent). The gap in enrollment rates between whites and blacks rose until it peaked at 12 percentage points in 1991, after which the gap decreased to 5 percentage points in 1993. As Figure EA 1.1.a illustrates, the gap between Hispanic children and other children increased over time, because Hispanic enrollments only rose a few percentage points over the two decades.

Figure EA 1.1.b shows substantial family income differences in preschool enrollment rates. In 1973, the enrollment rates of low-income families[69] (15 percent) were less than half as high as those of high-income families (35 percent). In 1993, this ratio was similar, with over half of children from high-income families enrolled in preschool, in comparison with approximately a quarter of low-income children.

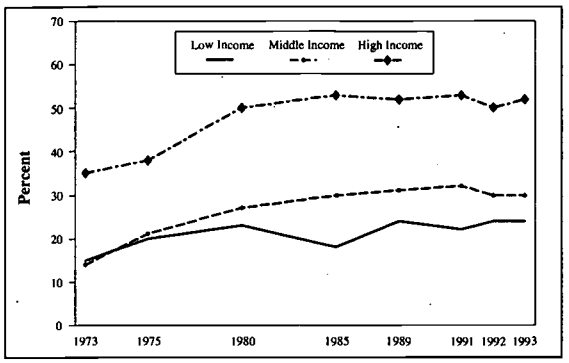
[68]National Education Goals Panel. (1994). The National Education Goals Report: Building a Nation of Learners 1994. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
[69]Low income is defined as the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes; high income is defined as the top 20 percent of all family incomes; and middle income is defined as the 60 percent of incomes between low and high income.

### Figure EA 1.1.A PRESCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF 3-4 YEAR OLDS, BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1973 - 1993




Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October Current Population Surveys.

## Figure EA 1.1.B PRESCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF 3-4 YEAR OLDS, BY FAMILY INCOME , 1973 - 1993




Note: Low income is defined as the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes; high income is defined as the top 20 percent of all family incomes; and middle income is defined as the 60 percent of incomes between low and high income.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October Current Population Surveys.

## Table EA 1.1 PRESCHOOL ENROLLMENT OF 3-4 YEAR-OLDS, (Percent Enrolled) BY RACE/ETHNICITY AND FAMILY INCOME: 1973 - 1993

| | 1973 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1989 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 18 | 24 | 30 | 32 | 35 | 34 | 34 | 34 |
| Race/Ethnicity[a] | | | | | | | | |
| White, non-Hispanic | 18 | 25 | 32 | 35 | 38 | 39 | 38 | 38 |
| Black, non-Hispanic | 19 | 25 | 28 | 28 | 31 | 27 | 29 | 30 |
| Hispanic | 13 | 18 | 24 | 20 | 18 | 20 | 18 | 17 |
| Family Income[b] | | | | | | | | |
| Low | 15 | 20 | 23 | 18 | 24 | 22 | 24 | 24 |
| Middle | 14 | 21 | 27 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 30 | 30 |
| High | 35 | 38 | 50 | 53 | 52 | 53 | 50 | 52 |

Notes: [a] Due to small sample sizes for the Black and Hispanic categories, 3-year averages are calculated. The 3-year average for 1990 is the average percentage enrolled in preschool in 1989, 1990, and 1991.
[b] Low income is defined as the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes; high income is defined as the top 20 percent of all family incomes; and middle income is defined as the 60 percent of incomes between low and high income.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October Current Population Surveys.

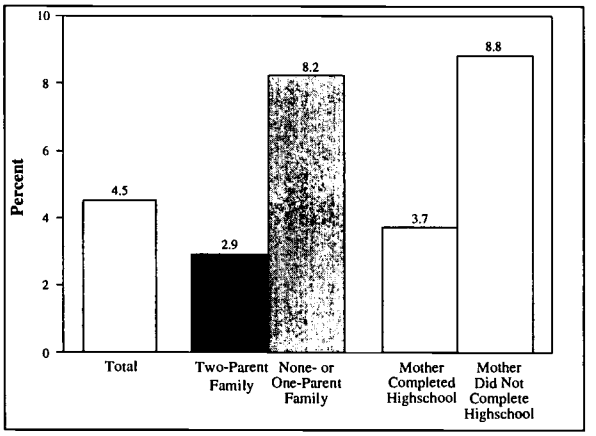
## EA 1.2 GRADE RETENTION: PERCENTAGE OF CURRENT FIRST GRADERS WHO WERE RETAINED IN FIRST GRADE

Children's early primary school experiences are associated with their adjustment to school and contribute to later school success. Being retained in school at an early age signals an unreadiness for school which may influence later educational performance. Grade retention may also measure the degree to which schools are prepared to deal with a variety of children. Table EA 1.2 presents recent data on the percentage of first grade students whose parents reported them as being retained in first grade in 1991 and 1993. Parent reports presented in Table EA 1.2 indicate that approximately 5 percent of first grade children had repeated first grade in 1991 and 1993 (5.3 percent and 4.5 percent respectively).

The percentage of students attending first grade for the second time varies by race, gender, family type and mother's education. In 1993, white first grade children (3.1 percent) were less likely than black (10.8 percent) or Hispanic children (5.5 percent) to have repeated first grade. These levels were similar in 1991. Boys were more likely to repeat first grade for a second time than girls in both years, although the difference between their rates was small in 1993 (4.8 versus 4.2 percent).

Family type is also tied to retention in first grade. (*See* Figure EA 1.2) In 1993, only 2.9 percent of children in 2-parent households were in first grade for the second time, in comparison with 8.2 percent of children residing with no or one parent. These percentages were similar in 1991. Finally, mother's education is related to repeating first grade, with children whose mothers did not complete high school (8.8 percent) more likely to repeat than children whose mothers had higher educational attainments (3.7 percent). This suggests that parental education is related to a child's level of school readiness.

### Figure EA 1.2 PERCENTAGE OF CURRENT FIRST GRADERS WHO WERE RETAINED IN FIRST GRADE, BY FAMILY TYPE AND MOTHER'S EDUCATION, 1993




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. National Household Education Survey of 1991 and 1993.

**Table EA 1.2 PERCENTAGE OF CURRENT FIRST GRADERS WHO WERE RETAINED IN FIRST GRADE, BY RACE/ETHNICITY, GENDER, FAMILY TYPE, AND MOTHER'S EDUCATION: 1991 AND 1993**

| | 1991 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|
| Total | 5.3 | 4.5 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | |
| White non-Hispanic | 4.1 | 3.1 |
| Black non-Hispanic | 8.9 | 10.8 |
| Hispanic | 7.5 | 5.5 |
| Gender | | |
| Male | 7.1 | 4.8 |
| Female | 3.3 | 4.2 |
| Family Type | | |
| Two parents | 4.0 | 2.9 |
| None or one parent | 9.2 | 8.2 |
| Mother's Education | | |
| Completed high school/GED | 4.2 | 3.7 |
| Did not complete high school | 11.6 | 8.8 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Household Education Survey, 1991 and 1993.

## EA 1.3 SCHOOL ABSENTEEISM: PERCENT OF EIGHTH GRADE AND TWELFTH GRADE STUDENTS WHO WERE ABSENT FROM SCHOOL 3 OR MORE DAYS IN THE PRECEDING MONTH

Student absenteeism is associated with poorer achievement in school, among other outcomes. For example, absenteeism is one of five personal and family background factors that accounted for 91 percent of the variation in states' mathematics scores.[70]

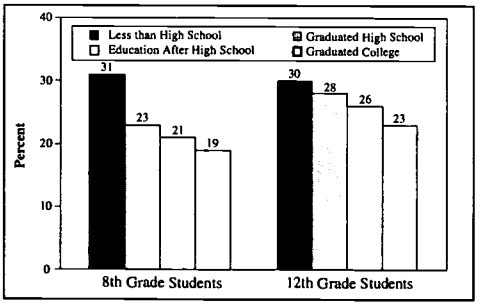
The overall percentage of eighth grade students who were absent from school three or more days in the preceding month has remained relatively constant at around 22 percent between 1990 and 1992, whereas the percentage of twelfth grade students who were absent from school appears to have dropped from 31 to 26 percent (Table EA 1.3). In addition, the most recent percentage for total eighth grade absences (22 percent) was slightly lower than the percentage for total twelfth grade absences (26 percent). Girls experienced slightly more absences than boys in each grade (e.g., 21 percent versus 24 percent among eighth grade boys and girls in 1992).

There are notable differences between racial and ethnic groups. Among eighth graders in 1992, Native American and Hispanic children were by far the most likely to have been absent 3 or more days in the preceding month at 38 percent and 31 percent, respectively. Asian students had the lowest rate at 12 percent, with white and black students in between at 21 and 22 percent. The patterns are similar for 12th grade students, though the differences are smaller, ranging from 19 to 32 percent.

In addition to the racial and ethnic differences in percentages of students absent from school, there are also differences by parents' educational level, differences which are more pronounced for younger students. (See Figure EA 1.3) Absences from school were consistently highest for students whose parents have less than a high school education. For example in 1992, among eighth graders, 31 percent of children whose parents lacked a high school degree were absent from school 3 or more days, compared to a rate of 19 percent among students where at least one parent had graduated from college. Moreover, students who attended private or Catholic schools also experienced lower levels of school absences than students from public schools across both grades and years of assessment.

[70]National Education Goals Panel. (1994). *The National Education Goals Report: Building a Nation of Learners.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

### Figure EA 1.3 PERCENT OF 8TH GRADE AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO WERE ABSENT FROM SCHOOL 3 OR MORE DAYS IN THE PRECEDING MONTH, BY PARENTS' EDUCATION LEVEL: 1992




Note: The data for this table come from the 1990 and 1992 National Math Assessments.
Source: National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1990 and 1992

**Table EA 1.3 SCHOOL ABSENTEEISM: PERCENT OF 8TH GRADE AND 12TH GRADE STUDENTS WHO WERE ABSENT FROM SCHOOL 3 OR MORE DAYS IN THE PRECEDING MONTH, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENTS' EDUCATION LEVEL, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1990 AND 1992**

| | 8th Grade | | 12th Grade | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1990 | 1992 | 1990 | 1992 |
| Total | 23 | 22 | 31 | 26 |
| Gender | | | | |
| Male | 21 | 21 | 29 | 24 |
| Female | 24 | 24 | 32 | 27 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | |
| White | 22 | 21 | 31 | 24 |
| Black | 23 | 22 | 30 | 29 |
| Hispanic | 27 | 31 | 34 | 32 |
| Asian/Pacific American | 9 | 12 | 32 | 19 |
| American Indian/Alaskan Native | 37 | 38 | 28 | 31 |
| Parents' Education Level | | | | |
| Less than high school | 38 | 31 | 41 | 30 |
| Graduated high school | 27 | 23 | 34 | 28 |
| Education after high school | 22 | 21 | 31 | 26 |
| Graduated college | 15 | 19 | 27 | 23 |
| Type of School | | | | |
| Public | 23 | 23 | 31 | 27 |
| Private or Catholic | 13 | 14 | 24 | 17 |

Note: The sample for this table is based on the 1990 and 1992 National Math Assessments.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1990 and 1992

## EA 1.4 TEEN DROPOUT: EVENT DROPOUT RATE (Percent) FOR GRADES 10-12

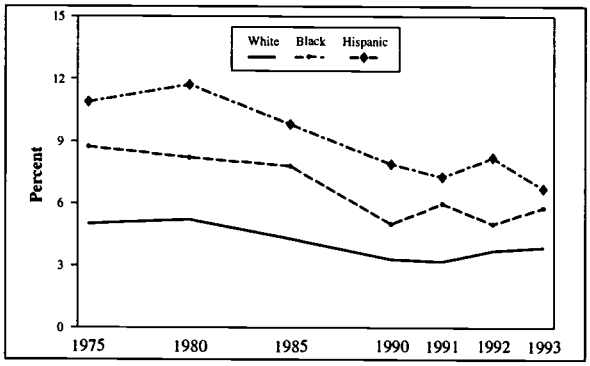
Dropping out of high school is associated with economic and social disadvantage. Dropouts have lower earnings, experience more unemployment, and are more likely to end up on welfare and in prison than students who complete high school or college.[71] Women who drop out of high school are more likely to become pregnant or have a birth at young ages, and are more likely to become single parents.[72] Monitoring dropout rates provides one measure of the condition of children in the U.S.

Table EA 1.4 shows the annual event dropout rates for students in grades 10 through 12, ages 15 to 24. Event dropout rates measure the proportion of students enrolled in grades 10 through 12 in the last year, who were no longer enrolled or had not completed high school by the date measured in the current year. For instance, between October 1992 and October 1993, 4.5 percent of all high school students age 15-24 in grades 10-12 dropped out of high school. This table shows an overall decline in event dropout rates between 1975 (5.8 percent) and 1993.

On average, the dropout rate for whites is lower than the rate for blacks and Hispanics. As Figure EA 1.4 indicates, dropout rates for whites and blacks have generally fallen in the past 20 years. For example, the dropout rate generally fell for blacks between 1975 (8.7 percent) and 1993 (5.8 percent). The rate for whites also fell from 5.0 percent in 1975 to 3.9 percent in 1993. The dropout rate for Hispanics fluctuated across years, but is higher, on average, than the rate for either blacks or whites.[73]

[71]McMillen, Marilyn, Phil Kaufman, and Summer Whitener. 1994. *Dropout Rates in the United States: 1993*. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.
[72]McMillen et. al. 1994; Manlove, Jennifer. 1995. "Breaking the Cycle of Disadvantage: Ties Between Educational Attainments, Dropping Out and Teenage Motherhood." Paper presented at the annual meeting of AERA.
[73]The unstable trend in Hispanic dropout rates reflects, in part, the small sample size of Hispanics in the Current Population Survey.

### Figure EA 1.4 EVENT DROPOUT RATE FOR GRADES 10-12 (Ages 15-24), BY RACE/ETHNICITY 1975 - 1993




Note: The event dropout rate is the proportion of students enrolled in grades 10 through 12 in the previous year who were not enrolled and not graduated in the present year.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, unpublished tabulations; and U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Dropout Rates in the United States*, 1993, 1994.

**Table EA 1.4 EVENT DROPOUT RATE[a] (Percent) FOR GRADES 10-12, (Ages 15-24), BY GENDER AND RACE/ETHNICITY: 1975 - 1993**

| | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991 | 1992 | 1993 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 5.8 | 6.1 | 5.2 | 4.0 | 4.0 | 4.4 | 4.5 |
| White | | | | | | | |
| Total | 5.0 | 5.2 | 4.3 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 3.9 |
| Male | 4.7 | 5.7 | 4.6 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 3.5 | 4.1 |
| Female | 5.4 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 3.1 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 3.7 |
| Black | | | | | | | |
| Total | 8.7 | 8.2 | 7.8 | 5.0 | 6.0 | 5.0 | 5.8 |
| Male | 8.4 | 7.7 | 8.3 | 4.2 | 5.3 | 3.3 | 6.4 |
| Female | 9.0 | 8.7 | 7.3 | 5.7 | 6.8 | 6.7 | 5.3 |
| Hispanic | | | | | | | |
| Total | 10.9 | 11.7 | 9.8 | 7.9 | 7.3 | 8.2 | 6.7 |
| Male | 10.3 | 17.6 | 9.4 | 8.7 | 10.1 | 7.6 | 5.1 |
| Female | 11.6 | 6.7 | 10.0 | 7.2 | 4.6 | 9.0 | 8.0 |

Note: [a] The event dropout rate is the proportion of students enrolled in grades 10 through 12 in the previous year who were not enrolled and not graduated in the present year.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, unpublished tabulations; and U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Dropout Rates in the United States*. 1993, 1994.

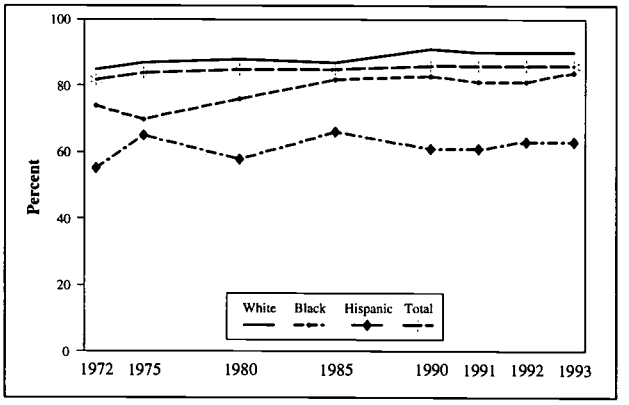
## EA 1.5 HIGH SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES FOR 21- AND 22-YEAR-OLDS

A high school education is necessary to continue with further education and is increasingly considered a minimum requirement to begin an entry level position in the labor force. Table EA 1.5 presents the high school completion rates among 21-22 year olds. This table defines high school completion as the percentage of 21-22 year olds who have received a high school diploma or its equivalent. For 1993, 86 percent of 21-22 year olds had received their high school diploma or an equivalent credential, such as the General Educational Development (GED) certificate. The remaining 14 percent of 21-22 year-olds had either dropped out or were still enrolled in high school.[74]

As Figure EA 1.5 shows, completion rates differ strongly by race-ethnicity. In 1993, the completion rates among white students (90 percent) was six percentage points higher than the rate for blacks (84 percent) and 27 percentage points higher than the rate for Hispanics (63 percent). Hispanic students have had much lower completion rates than the other groups since the early 1970s. This suggests that Hispanic students remain less prepared than other 21-22 year olds to enter the labor force or to continue with post-secondary education.

[74]McMillen, M., Kaufman, P., and Whitener, S. 1994. *Dropout Rates in the United States: 1993.* U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

### Figure EA 1.5 HIGH SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES FOR 21- AND 22-YEAR-OLDS, BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1972 - 1993




Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, October (various years).

**Table EA 1.5 HIGH SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES FOR 21- AND 22-YEAR- OLDS (Percent), BY RACE/ETHNICITY: 1972 - 1993**

| | 1972 | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990[a] | 1991[a] | 1992[a,b] | 1993[a,b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 82 | 84 | 85 | 85 | 86 | 86 | 86 | 86 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | | |
| White,non-Hispanic | 85 | 87 | 88 | 87 | 91 | 90 | 90 | 90 |
| Black, non-Hispanic | 74 | 70 | 76 | 82 | 83 | 81 | 81 | 84 |
| Hispanic | 55 | 65 | 58 | 66 | 61 | 61 | 63 | 63 |

Notes: [a] Numbers for these years reflect new editing procedures instituted by the Bureau of the Census for cases with missing data on school enrollment items.
[b] Numbers for these years reflect new wording of the educational attainment item in the CPS.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Survey, October (various years).

## EA 1.6 ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION: PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES ENROLLED IN COLLEGE THE OCTOBER FOLLOWING GRADUATION

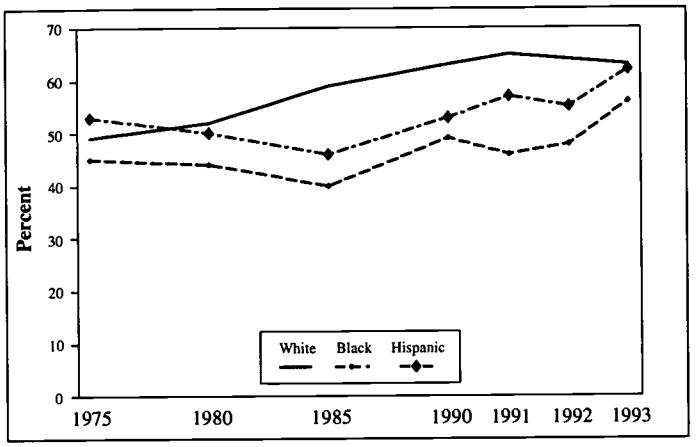
Table EA 1.6 presents the percentage of high school graduates enrolled in college the October following graduation, by type of institution attended. In 1993, 62 percent of high school graduates were enrolled in college immediately following graduation, with 39 percent enrolled in 4-year colleges and 22 percent enrolled in 2-year colleges. Total college enrollment immediately after graduation has increased dramatically in the past 20 years, from 51 percent in 1975 to 62 percent in 1993. This reflects small increases in enrollments for both 2-year and 4-year colleges between 1975 and 1993 (4 and 6 percentage point increases, respectively). These figures may be affected by changes in the number and type of youth who graduate from high school.

College enrollment levels following high school graduation were slightly higher for females (64 percent) than males (59 percent) in 1993. This differs from a slightly higher male (53 percent) than female (49 percent) enrollment rate following graduation in 1975. In 1993, males and females had similar 2-year college enrollment rates (22 percent), but there were gender differences in 4-year college enrollments immediately following graduation (42 percent of females versus 36 percent of males).

Total college enrollment rates immediately following graduation differ substantially by family income. For instance, in 1993, only half of high school graduates from low-income families were enrolled in any type of college, in comparison with 79 percent of high-income families.[75] The gap in enrollment rates between low-and high-income families was also high in 1975 (31 percent of low income families versus 65 percent of high-income families).

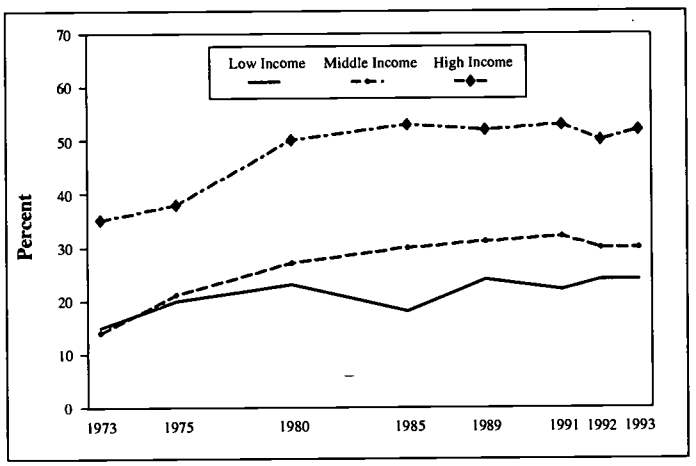
[75]Low income is defined as the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes high income is defined as the top 20 percent of all family incomes; and middle income is defined as the 60 percent of incomes between low and high income.

**Figure EA 1.6.A PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES ENROLLED IN COLLEGE THE OCTOBER FOLLOWING GRADUATION, BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1975 - 1993**




Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October Current Population Surveys.

**Figure EA 1.6.B PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES ENROLLED IN 4-YEAR COLLEGE THE OCTOBER FOLLOWING GRADUATION, BY FAMILY INCOME, 1975 - 1993**




Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October Current Population Surveys.

## EA 1.6 ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION: PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES ENROLLED IN COLLEGE THE OCTOBER FOLLOWING GRADUATION (continued)

Enrollment rates immediately following graduation also differ by race-ethnicity. Blacks were less likely than whites or Hispanics to be enrolled in any type of college following graduation, and have had lower enrollment rates in all time periods. (*See* Figure EA 1.6.a) For example, in 1993 enrollment rates among those who had graduated from high school were 56 percent for blacks, 62 percent for Hispanics, and 63 percent for whites. While Hispanic students had similar enrollment rates to white students in 1993 (62 percent compared with 63 percent), they differed on the type of school enrolled. Hispanic high school graduates were less likely than whites or blacks to go on to 4-year colleges (24 percent versus 41 percent and 37 percent), while they were more likely than the other groups to be enrolled in 2-year colleges in 1993 (38 percent versus 19 percent and 22 percent, respectively). Figure EA 1.6.b indicates that while whites and blacks have shown increases in 4-year college enrollment immediately following graduation, Hispanics have not.

## Table EA 1.6 PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES ENROLLED IN COLLEGE THE OCTOBER FOLLOWING GRADUATION, BY TYPE OF COLLEGE, GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, AND FAMILY INCOME: 1975 - 1993

| | 1975 | 1980 | 1985 | 1990 | 1991[b] | 1992[b] | 1993[b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total College Enrollment | 51 | 49 | 58 | 60 | 63 | 62 | 62 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Males | 53 | 47 | 59 | 58 | 58 | 60 | 59 |
| Females | 49 | 52 | 57 | 62 | 67 | 64 | 64 |
| Race/Ethnicity[a] | | | | | | | |
| White | 49 | 52 | 59 | 63 | 65 | 64 | 63 |
| Black | 45 | 44 | 40 | 49 | 46 | 48 | 56 |
| Hispanic | 53 | 50 | 46 | 53 | 57 | 55 | 62 |
| Family Income[c] | | | | | | | |
| Low | 31 | 33 | 40 | 47 | 40 | 41 | 50 |
| Middle | 46 | 43 | 51 | 54 | 58 | 57 | 57 |
| High | 65 | 65 | 75 | 77 | 78 | 79 | 79 |
| 2-Year Colleges | 18 | 19 | 20 | 20 | 25 | 23 | 22 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Males | 19 | 17 | 20 | 20 | 23 | 22 | 22 |
| Females | 17 | 22 | 19 | 27 | 27 | 24 | 22 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | |
| White | 18 | 19 | 20 | 20 | 26 | 23 | 22 |
| Black | 13 | 19 | 13 | 20 | 19 | 17 | 19 |
| Hispanic | 31 | 31 | 27 | 27 | 25 | 29 | 38 |
| 4-Year Colleges | 33 | 30 | 38 | 40 | 38 | 39 | 39 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Males | 34 | 30 | 39 | 38 | 35 | 38 | 36 |
| Females | 32 | 30 | 38 | 42 | 40 | 40 | 42 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | |
| White | 33 | 31 | 40 | 43 | 40 | 41 | 41 |
| Black | 29 | 24 | 29 | 27 | 28 | 31 | 37 |
| Hispanic | 28 | 21 | 24 | 16 | 32 | 26 | 24 |

Note: [a] Due to small sample sizes for the Black and Hispanic categories, 3-year averages are calculated. The 3-year average for 1990 is the average percentage enrolling in college in 1989, 1990, and 1991.
[b] Three year averages are not calculated for Blacks or Hispanics in 1991, 1992, and 1993.
c Low income is defined as the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes; high income is defined as the top 20 percent of all family incomes; and middle income is defined as the 60 percent of incomes between low and high income.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, October Current Population Surveys.

## EA 2.1 READING PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17)

There are five levels of reading proficiency reported by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), ranging from Level 150 (simple, discrete reading tasks) to Level 350 (learn from specialized reading materials).[76] The following tables (Tables EA 2.1.a, EA 2.1.b, and EA 2.1.c) report the percentage of students in three age groups who have scored at or above Level 200 (at age 9), Level 250 (at age 13), and Level 300 (at age 17). These categories were chosen to represent approximately median levels of reading proficiency at each age. The three different levels of reading proficiency reported in these tables include:

**Level 200:** Partially developed skills and understanding;

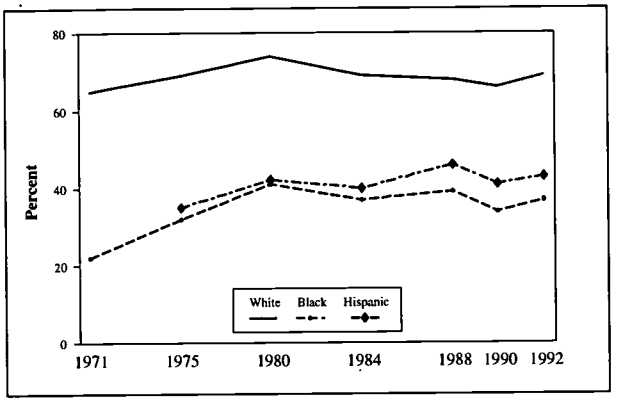
**Level 250:** Interrelate ideas and make generalizations; and

**Level 300:** Understand complicated information.

Tables EA 2.1.a, EA 2.1.b, and EA 2.1.c report that in 1992, 62 percent of 9-year-olds scored at or above Level 200, 62 percent of 13-year-olds scored at or above Level 250, and 43 percent of 17-year-olds scored at or above Level 300 on the NAEP reading proficiency scale. Nine-year-olds showed increases in reading proficiency between 1971 (59 percent at or above Level 200) and 1980 (68 percent), after which scores declined somewhat. Between 1971 and 1992, the percentage of 13- and 17-year-old students scoring above median proficiency levels showed small increases (4 percentage points each.)

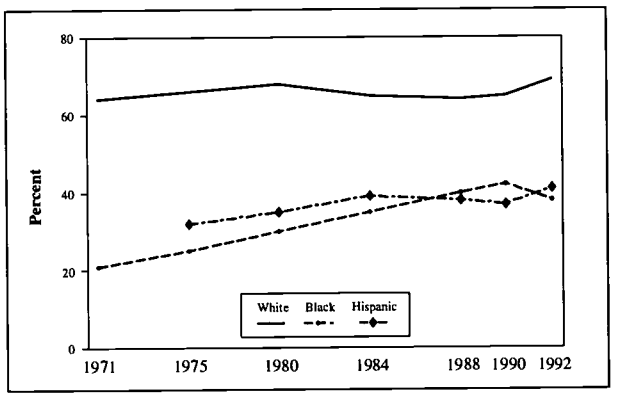
[76]NAEP has regularly been conducting assessments of U.S. students in public and private schools in order to monitor trends in academic achievement in core curriculum areas since the 1970s. NAEP uses proficiency scales that range from 0 to 500. To give meaning to the results, students' performance is characterized at five levels along the proficiency scales (150, 200, 250, 300, 350).

## Figure EA 2.1.A AGE 9: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE READING PROFICIENCY LEVEL 200, BY RACE/ETHNICITY




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## Figure EA 2.1.B AGE 13: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE READING PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY RACE/ETHNICITY




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.1 READING PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17) (continued)

A higher percentage of females than males scored at or above median reading proficiency levels at all ages. In 1992, the gap between females and males was 10 percentage points for 9-year-olds, 12 percentage points for 13-year-olds, and 11 percentage points for 17-year olds. These differences are fairly stable over time.

There are large differences in reading proficiency by race/ethnicity for all age categories, in 1992 and over time. For instance, among 13-year-olds in 1992, the percentage of whites at or above proficiency level 250 (69 percent) was much higher than the percentage of Hispanics (41 percent) or blacks (38 percent). This gap in the proportion of black and white 13-year-olds achieving median proficiency scores decreased over time, due to a strong steady gain among blacks throughout the 1970s and 1980s, in comparison with smaller gains among whites. (*See* Figure EA 2.1.b) Hispanic 13-year-olds also showed fairly steady gains in proficiency rates, although their levels were more similar to blacks than to whites. Among 17-year-olds, blacks also showed steady gains, primarily through the 1980s, but after 1988, they lost ground in comparison with whites and Hispanics. (*See* Figure EA 2.1.c) Figure EA 2.1.a illustrates that the proportion of 9-year-old blacks achieving at or above the median almost doubled between 1971 and 1980 (from 22 percent to 41 percent at or above proficiency level 200), thus reducing the gap between white and black students. Since 1980, however, both black and white proficiency scores have stayed fairly stable, so that the gap between blacks and whites has not been further reduced.

**Table EA 2.1.A READING PROFICIENCY — AGE 9. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 200, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1971 - 1992**

| | 1971 | 1975 | 1980 | 1984 | 1988 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 59 | 62 | 68 | 62 | 63 | 59 | 62 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 53 | 56 | 63 | 58 | 58 | 54 | 57 |
| Female | 65 | 68 | 73 | 65 | 67 | 64 | 67 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | |
| White | 65 | 69 | 74 | 69 | 68 | 66 | 69 |
| Black | 22 | 32 | 41 | 37 | 39 | 34 | 37 |
| Hispanic | — | 35 | 42 | 40 | 46 | 41 | 43 |
| Type of School | | | | | | | |
| Public | — | — | 66 | 60 | 61 | 58 | 60 |
| Non-Public | — | — | 79 | 74 | 74 | 75 | 77 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Table EA 2.1.B READING PROFICIENCY — AGE 13. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1971 - 1992**

| | 1971 | 1975 | 1980 | 1984 | 1988 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 58 | 59 | 61 | 59 | 59 | 59 | 62 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 52 | 52 | 56 | 54 | 52 | 52 | 56 |
| Female | 64 | 66 | 65 | 64 | 65 | 65 | 68 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | |
| White | 64 | 66 | 68 | 65 | 64 | 65 | 69 |
| Black | 21 | 25 | 30 | 35 | 40 | 42 | 38 |
| Hispanic | — | 32 | 35 | 39 | 38 | 37 | 41 |
| Parent's Education | | | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 38 | 39 | 37 | 40 | 45 | 41 | 39 |
| Graduated high school | 59 | 57 | 55 | 56 | 55 | 53 | 55 |
| Post high school | 75 | 74 | 75 | 71 | 68 | 70 | 72 |
| Type of School | | | | | | | |
| Public | — | — | 59 | 57 | 57 | 57 | 59 |
| Non-Public | — | — | 75 | 74 | 72 | 73 | 78 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

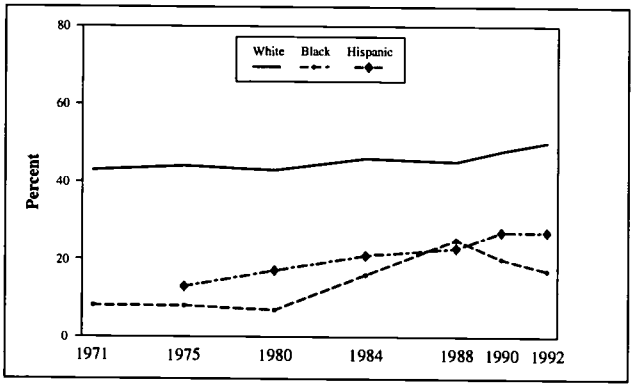
## EA 2.1 READING PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17) (continued)

Reading proficiency levels vary dramatically by parent's education level.[77] For instance, in 1992, 72 percent of 13-year-old children of parents with some post- high school experience scored at or above a median level of proficiency, in comparison with 55 percent of children whose parents had a high school degree and only 39 percent whose parents had less than a high school degree. (*See* Table EA 2.1.b) The gaps between children whose parents had some post-high school experiences and the other two groups decreased slightly over time for 13-year-olds. Seventeen-year-old students show similar time trends. (*See* Table EA 2.1.c)

Students from non-public schools were more likely than students from public schools to score above median proficiency levels for all age groups. The gap between public and non-public school students in 1992 was highest among 17-year-olds (22 percentage points), in comparison with 13-year-olds (19 percentage points), and 9-year-olds (17 percentage points). The trend data indicate that the difference in proficiency levels between public and non-public school students have increased slightly over time.

[77]Parent's education is not reported at age 9 because approximately a third of these students did not know their parent's education level.

### Figure EA 2.1.C AGE 17: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE READING PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY RACE/ETHNICITY




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Table EA 2.1.C READING PROFICIENCY— AGE 17. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENT'S EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1971 - 1992**

| | 1971 | 1975 | 1980 | 1984 | 1988 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 39 | 39 | 38 | 40 | 41 | 41 | 43 |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 34 | 34 | 35 | 35 | 37 | 36 | 38 |
| Female | 44 | 44 | 41 | 45 | 44 | 47 | 49 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | | | |
| White | 43 | 44 | 43 | 46 | 45 | 48 | 50 |
| Black | 8 | 8 | 7 | 16 | 25 | 20 | 17 |
| Hispanic | — | 13 | 17 | 21 | 23 | 27 | 27 |
| Parent's Education | | | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 20 | 19 | 17 | 21 | 18 | 20 | 26 |
| Graduated high school | 36 | 33 | 29 | 32 | 31 | 32 | 34 |
| Post high school | 53 | 52 | 50 | 53 | 51 | 51 | 52 |
| Type of School | | | | | | | |
| Public | — | — | 37 | 39 | 40 | 40 | 41 |
| Non-Public | — | — | 50 | 54 | 50 | 63 | 63 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.2 WRITING PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17)

Writing assessments designed by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) examine students' abilities to engage in three types of writing: informative, persuasive, and imaginative. Written papers were evaluated on the basis of: 1) their success in accomplishing the specific purpose of each writing task; 2) their relative writing fluency; and 3) their mastery of the conventions of written English.[78] The following tables (Tables EA 2.2.a, EA 2.2.b, and EA 2.2.c) report the percentage of students in three age groups who have scored at or above Level 200 (in grade 4), Level 250 (in grade 8), and Level 300 (in grade 11). These categories were chosen to represent approximately median levels of writing proficiency at each age. The three different levels of writing proficiency reported in these tables include:

**Level 200**: Incomplete, vague writing;

**Level 250:** Beginning focussed, clear writing; and

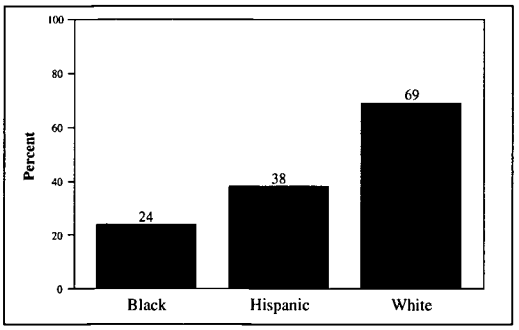
**Level 300:** Complete, sufficient writing.

Tables EA 2.2.a, EA 2.2.b, and EA 2.2.c report that in 1992, 58 percent of fourth graders scored at or above writing proficiency Level 200, 75 percent of eighth graders scored at or above Level 250, and 36 percent of eleventh graders scored at or above Level 300. The percentages for fourth and eleventh graders have remained fairly stable since 1984. For eighth graders, the percent declined from 72 percent in 1984 to 67 percent in 1988, and then to 57 percent in 1990. By 1992, however, the percent of eighth graders scoring at or above Level 250 rose substantially to 75 percent.[79]

[78]In order to analyze trends in students' writing performance, the results of their written evaluations were aggregated using Item Response Theory (IRT) scaling techniques, which account for the multiple levels of student responses to individual writing tasks. The tasks used in the trend writing assessment were mapped onto a five-level writing scale, which ranges from 150 (disjointed, unclear writing) to 350 (effective, coherent writing). These data reflect probabilities of success based on the performance observed in the assessment for students at various levels on the scale.

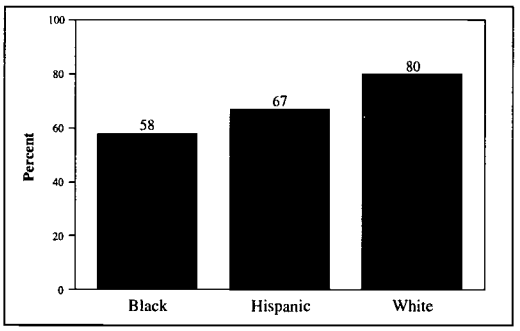
[79]An increase of this magnitude in a large national sample is unusual. After rigorous examination, however, the Educational Testing Service, which administers the examination, concluded that it reflected an actual change in student performance.

**Figure EA 2.2.A GRADE 4: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE WRITING PROFICIENCY LEVEL 200, BY RACE/ETHNICITY: 1992**



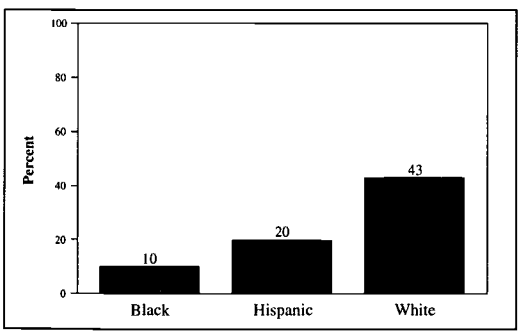

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Figure EA 2.2.B GRADE 8: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE WRITING PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY RACE/ETHNICITY: 1992**




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Figure EA 2.2.C GRADE 11: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE WRITING PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY RACE/ETHNICITY: 1992**




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.2 WRITING PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17) (continued)

Females have consistently scored higher on writing assessments than males over time. In 1992, the gap between females and males was greatest among eleventh graders (21 percentage points), followed by eighth graders (18 percentage points) and fourth graders (17 percentage points).

There are large differences in writing proficiency levels by race/ethnicity for all grade levels. (*See* Figure EA 2.2.a, EA 2.2.b, and EA 2.2.c) For instance, in 1992, 43 percent of white eleventh graders scored at or above proficiency Level 300. This percentage is over twice as high as that of Hispanics (20 percent) and over four times as large as that for blacks (10 percent). These differences have remained strong over time since proficiency levels among blacks, whites, and Hispanics have remained fairly similar to 1984 levels.[80] (See Tables EA 2.2.a, EA 2.2.b, and EA 2.2.c)

[80]Although Hispanic assessment scores increased among eighth graders from 47 percent at or above proficiency Level 250 in 1984 to 67 percent in 1992, because of the small sample sizes, this increase is not statistically significant (National Center for Education Statistics. 1994. NAEP 1992 Trends in Academic Progress. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education).

**Table EA 2.2.A WRITING PROFICIENCY- -GRADE 4. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 200, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1984 - 1992**

| | 1984 | 1988 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 54 | 56 | 53 | 58 |
| Gender | | | | |
| Male | 50 | 50 | 46 | 50 |
| Female | 59 | 63 | 59 | 67 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | |
| White | 62 | 65 | 62 | 69 |
| Black | 29 | 25 | 24 | 24 |
| Hispanic | 37 | 41 | 34 | 38 |
| Type of School | | | | |
| Public | 52 | 55 | 51 | 56 |
| Non-Public | 66 | 66 | 67 | 74 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Table EA 2.2.B WRITING PROFICIENCY- -GRADE 8. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENT'S EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1984 - 1992**

| | 1984 | 1988 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 72 | 67 | 57 | 75 |
| Gender | | | | |
| Male | 61 | 56 | 45 | 66 |
| Female | 84 | 78 | 69 | 84 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | |
| White | 79 | 74 | 63 | 80 |
| Black | 48 | 45 | 37 | 58 |
| Hispanic | 47 | 52 | 45 | 67 |
| Parent's Education | | | | |
| Less than high school | 62 | 56 | 45 | 60 |
| Graduated high school | 66 | 60 | 53 | 70 |
| Some education after high school | 79 | 79 | 68 | 81 |
| Graduated college | 85 | 75 | 66 | 84 |
| Type of School | | | | |
| Public | 70 | 65 | 54 | 73 |
| Non-Public | 87 | 80 | 77 | 86 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.2 WRITING PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17) (continued)

There are also large differences among eighth and eleventh graders in writing proficiency by level of parental education.[81] A higher percentage of students whose parents graduated from college scored at or above median writing proficiency levels than students in the other categories. For instance, eleventh graders whose parents graduated from college were more than twice as likely as students whose parents had less than a high school education to score at or above a median proficiency level (46 percent vs 17 percent). (See Table EA 2.2.c) Students whose parents graduated from high school, or who had some education past high school, had proficiency levels (24 and 41 percent respectively) that lay in-between these other two groups of students. Eighth graders exhibit similar differences by parents' education levels. (See Table EA 2.2.b)

Writing proficiency levels are also related to the type of school attended. In 1992, non-public school students had higher proficiency levels than public school students in all three grades, with a gap of 18 percentage points for fourth graders, 13 percentage points for eighth graders, and 11 percentage points for eleventh graders. Tables EA 2.2.a, EA 2.2.b, and EA 2.2.c show that these differences have been maintained since 1984.

[81]Parent's education is not reported for fourth graders because approximately a third of these students did not know their parent's education level.

**Table EA 2.2.C WRITING PROFICIENCY — GRADE 11. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENT'S EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1984 - 1992**

| | 1984 | 1988 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 39 | 39 | 37 | 36 |
| Gender | | | | |
| Male | 28 | 26 | 26 | 26 |
| Female | 50 | 51 | 48 | 47 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | |
| White | 46 | 46 | 43 | 43 |
| Black | 16 | 17 | 18 | 10 |
| Hispanic | 8 | 20 | 26 | 20 |
| Parent's Education | | | | |
| Less than high school | 18 | 21 | 18 | 17 |
| Graduated high school | 31 | 29 | 28 | 24 |
| Some education after high school | 48 | 45 | 41 | 41 |
| Graduated college | 51 | 50 | 48 | 46 |
| Type of School | | | | |
| Public | 36 | 37 | 35 | 35 |
| Non-Public | 59 | 51 | 56 | 46 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.3 MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, and 17)

Five different levels of mathematics proficiency collected by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) range from Level 150 (simple arithmetic facts) to Level 350 (multi-step problem solving and Algebra).[82] The following three tables (Tables EA 2.3.a, EA 2.3.b, and EA 2.3.c) report the percentage of students in three age groups who have scored at or above Level 200 (age 9), Level 250 (at age 13), and Level 300 (at age 17). These categories were chosen to represent median levels of mathematics proficiency at each age. The three different levels of mathematics proficiency reported in these tables include:

**Level 200:** Beginning skills and understandings;

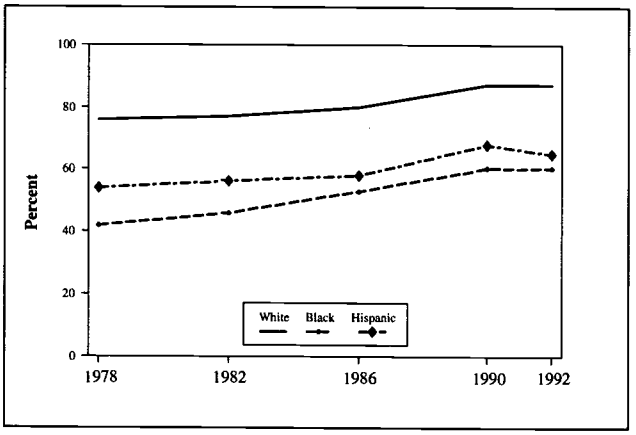
**Level 250:** Basic operations and beginning problem solving; and

**Level 300:** Moderately complex procedures and reasoning.

Tables EA 2.3.a, EA 2.3.b, and EA 2.3.c show that in 1992, 81 percent of 9-year-olds scored above Level 200, 78 percent of 13-year-olds scored above Level 250, and 59 percent of 17-year-olds scored above Level 300 on the NAEP mathematics proficiency scale. Between 1978 and 1992, the percentage of students scoring at or above each level increased for all ages (by 11 percentage points for 9-year-olds, 13 percentage points for 13-year-olds, and 7 percentage points for 17-year-olds), showing overall improvements in mathematics proficiency over time.

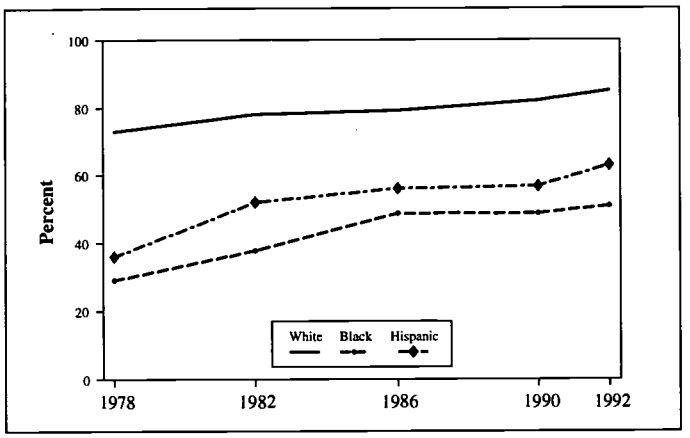
[82]NAEP has regularly been conducting assessments of U.S. students in public and private schools in order to monitor trends in academic achievement in core curriculum areas since the 1970s. NAEP uses proficiency scales that range from 0 to 500. To give meaning to the results, students' performance is characterized at five levels along the proficiency scales (150, 200, 250, 300, 350).

### Figure EA 2.3.A AGE 9: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY LEVEL 200, BY RACE/ETHNICITY



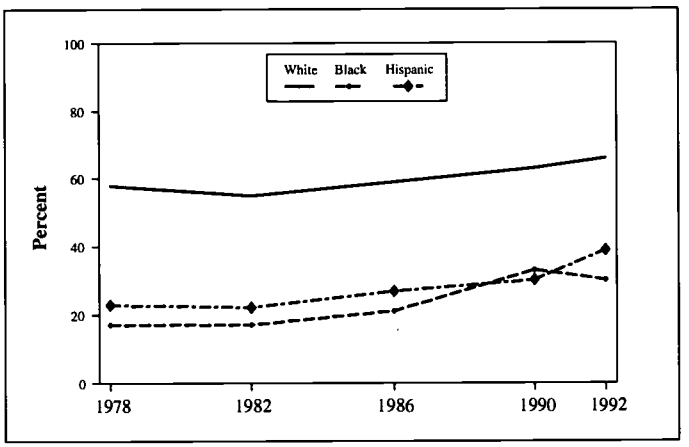

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Figure EA 2.3.B AGE 13: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY RACE/ETHNICITY**




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Figure EA 2.3.C AGE 17: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY RACE/ETHNICITY**



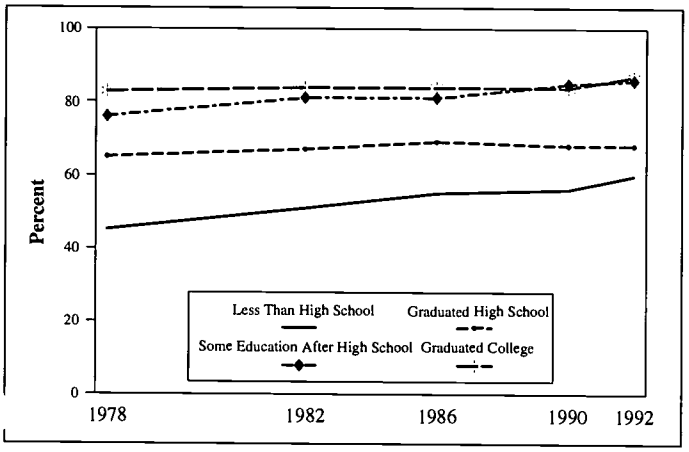

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.3 MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, and 17) (continued)

These tables indicate very little variation by gender. In 1992, a similar percentage of males and females scored at or above median proficiency levels for each age group. In 1978, a slightly higher percentage of females scored at or above the proficiency levels for 9-year-olds (a difference of three percentage points) and 13-year-olds (two percentage points), while in 1992, 9- and 13-year-old males and females had nearly equal percentages at or above median proficiency levels. The male-female difference for 17-year-olds was slightly higher in 1978 (males were 7 percentage points higher than females) than in 1990 or 1992 (males were 3 percentage points higher than females in both years).

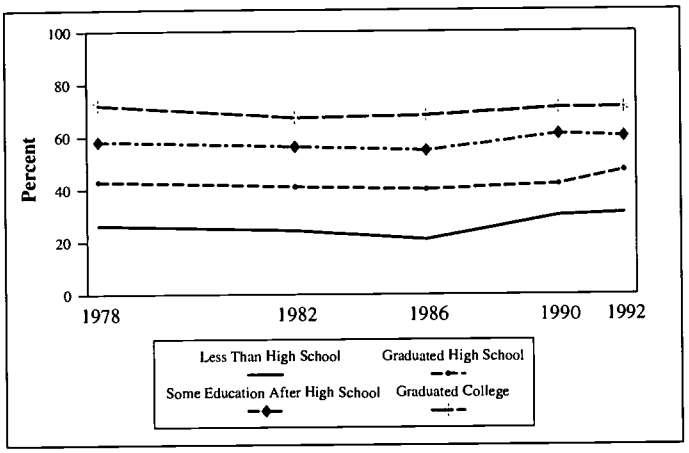
Figures EA 2.3.a, EA 2.3.b, and EA 2.3.c show large variations in the percentages of white, black, and Hispanic students performing at or above median proficiency levels for 9-, 13-, and 17-year-olds. For example, Figure EA 2.3.a shows that in 1992, 87 percent of white 9-year-olds scored at or above Level 200, in comparison with only 60 percent of blacks and 65 percent of Hispanics. The difference between blacks and whites is apparent for all three age groups, with the percentage of white 17-year-olds scoring above Level 300 (66 percent) over twice as high as the percentage of blacks scoring at this level (30 percent). The gap between blacks and whites decreased somewhat over time for all age groups. For instance, the gap between 9-year-old whites and blacks closed slightly between 1978 (34 percentage points) and 1992 (27 percentage points). The gap between Hispanics and whites also decreased for 13- and 17-year-olds, but not for 9-year olds.

### Figure EA 2.3.D AGE 13: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY PARENT'S EDUCATION




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Figure EA 2.3.E AGE 17: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY PARENT'S EDUCATION**




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Table EA 2.3.A MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY — AGE 9. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 200, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1978-1992**

| | 1978 | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 70 | 71 | 74 | 82 | 81 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 69 | 69 | 74 | 81 | 82 |
| Female | 72 | 74 | 74 | 82 | 81 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | |
| White | 76 | 77 | 80 | 87 | 87 |
| Black | 42 | 46 | 53 | 60 | 60 |
| Hispanic | 54 | 56 | 58 | 68 | 65 |
| Type of School | | | | | |
| Public | 69 | 69 | 73 | 81 | 80 |
| Non-Public | 83 | 84 | 82 | 89 | 92 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.3 MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, AND 17) (continued)

Figures EA 2.3.d and EA 2.3.e show large variations in proficiency levels by parental education levels for 13- and 17-year-olds.[83] For instance, in 1992, only 60 percent of 13-year-olds with parents who did not have a high school degree scored at or above proficiency Level 250, in comparison with 87 percent of students whose parents had graduated from college. As illustrated in Figure EA 2.3.d, the gap between 13-year-old children of parents with high school degrees and children of parents with no high school degree decreased between 1978 and 1992. This trend is due to gains in proficiency among children of parents without a high school degree, in comparison with fairly stable scores among children of high school graduates. Thirteen-year-old children of parents who had some education after high school also caught up with the percentage of children of parents who graduated from college in median proficiency levels. In contrast, 17-year-olds (Figure EA 2.3.e) show almost parallel trends in scores by parental education level over time, indicating consistent differences in scores.

Students attending public schools were less likely than students attending non-public schools to be at or above median proficiency levels, for each age. The difference between public and non-public school proficiency levels are the greatest for 17-year-olds (57 percent versus 80 percent in 1992).

[83]Parent's education is not reported at age 9 because approximately a third of these students did not know their parent's education level.

## Table EA 2.3.B MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY — AGE 13. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENT'S EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1978 - 1992

| | 1978 | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 65 | 71 | 73 | 75 | 78 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 64 | 71 | 74 | 75 | 78 |
| Female | 66 | 71 | 73 | 74 | 78 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | |
| White | 73 | 78 | 79 | 82 | 85 |
| Black | 29 | 38 | 49 | 49 | 51 |
| Hispanic | 36 | 52 | 56 | 57 | 63 |
| Parent's Education | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 45 | 51 | 55 | 56 | 60 |
| Graduated high school | 65 | 67 | 69 | 68 | 68 |
| Some education after high school | 76 | 81 | 81 | 85 | 86 |
| Graduated college | 83 | 84 | 84 | 84 | 87 |
| Type of School | | | | | |
| Public | 63 | 70 | 73 | 73 | 76 |
| Non-Public | 81 | 85 | 82 | 87 | 90 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## Table EA 2.3.C MATHEMATICS PROFICIENCY — AGE 17. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENT'S EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1978 - 1992

| | 1978 | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 52 | 49 | 52 | 56 | 59 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 55 | 52 | 55 | 58 | 61 |
| Female | 48 | 45 | 49 | 55 | 58 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | |
| White | 58 | 55 | 59 | 63 | 66 |
| Black | 17 | 17 | 21 | 33 | 30 |
| Hispanic | 23 | 22 | 27 | 30 | 39 |
| Parent's Education | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 26 | 24 | 21 | 30 | 31 |
| Graduated high school | 43 | 41 | 40 | 42 | 47 |
| Some education after high school | 58 | 56 | 55 | 61 | 60 |
| Graduated college | 72 | 67 | 68 | 71 | 71 |
| Type of School | | | | | |
| Public | 51 | 47 | 51 | 55 | 57 |
| Non-Public | 68 | 66 | 75 | 71 | 80 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.4 SCIENCE PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17)

In order to present time trends in science proficiency levels, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reports five different proficiency levels, ranging from Level 150 (knows everyday science facts) to Level 350 (integrates specialized scientific information).[84] The following three tables (Tables EA 2.4.a, EA 2.4.b, and EA 2.4.c) report the percentage of students in three age groups who have scored at or above Level 200 (at age 9), Level 250 (at age 13), and Level 300 (at age 17). These categories were chosen to approximate median levels of proficiency at each age. The three different levels of scientific proficiency reported in these tables include:

**Level 200:** Understands simple scientific principles;

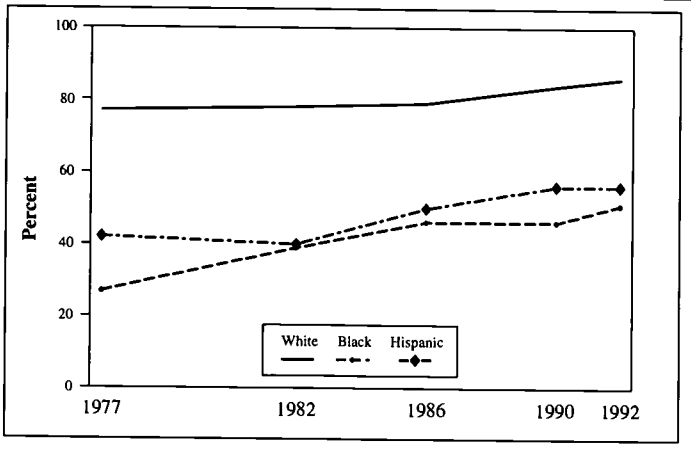
**Level 250:** Applies basic scientific information; and

**Level 300:** Analyzes scientific procedures and data..

Tables EA 2.4.a, EA 2.4.b, and EA 2.4.c show that in 1992, 78 percent of 9-year-olds scored above Level 200, 61 percent of 13-year-olds scored at or above Level 250, and 47 percent of 17-year-olds scored at or above Level 300 on the science proficiency scales. Increases in the percent scoring at or above the median occurred in each age group between 1977 and 1992 (an increase of 10 percentage points for 9-year-olds, 12 percentage points for 13-year-olds, and 5 percentage points for 17-year-olds).

[84]NAEP has regularly been conducting assessments of U.S. students in public and private schools in order to monitor trends in academic achievement in core curriculum areas since the 1970s. NAEP uses proficiency scales that range from 0 to 500. To give meaning to the results, students' performance is characterized at five levels along the proficiency scales (150, 200, 250, 300, 350).

**Figure EA 2.4.A AGE 9: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE SCIENCE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 200, BY RACE/ETHNICITY**




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Table EA 2.4.A SCIENCE PROFICIENCY — AGE 9. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 200, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1977 - 1992**

| | 1977 | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 68 | 71 | 72 | 76 | 78 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 70 | 70 | 74 | 76 | 80 |
| Female | 67 | 72 | 70 | 76 | 76 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | |
| White | 77 | 78 | 79 | 84 | 86 |
| Black | 27 | 39 | 46 | 46 | 51 |
| Hispanic | 42 | 40 | 50 | 56 | 56 |
| Type of School | | | | | |
| Public | 66 | 70 | 71 | 76 | 77 |
| Non-Public | 80 | 83 | 80 | 84 | 86 |

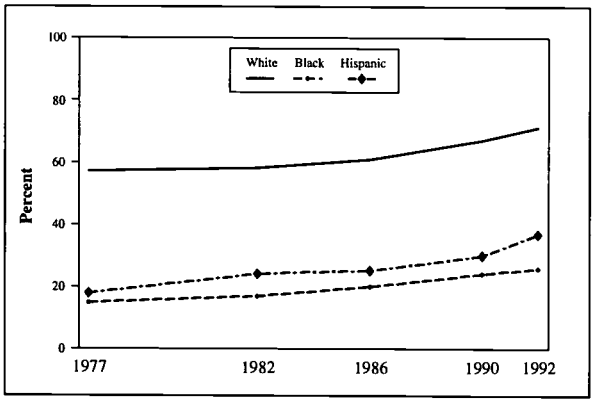
Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 2.4 SCIENCE PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17) (continued)

Females scored slightly lower than males at all ages in 1992, with the largest gap between 17-year-old males and females (9 percentage points), in comparison with a difference of 4 or 3 percentage points at ages 9 and 13. These gender gaps in performance do not appear to have changed substantially over time.

There are large differences by race/ethnicity for each age group, with whites outscoring blacks and Hispanics at all ages. For instance, in 1992, 51 percent of black 9-year-olds scored above Level 200, in comparison with 56 percent of Hispanics and 86 percent of whites. However, the difference between blacks and whites at this age (35 percentage points) is lower in 1992 than it was in 1977 (50 percentage points), showing a reduction in the gap over time. (See Figure EA 2.4.a) Figure EA 2.4.a indicates that the percentage of black 9-year-olds performing at or above the median increased at a faster pace than white 9-year-olds. The gap between white and Hispanic 9-year-olds also decreased, but to a much smaller extent between 1977 and 1992. Figures EA 2.4.b and EA 2.4.c indicate that, while the gap between whites and blacks decreased for 9-year-olds, the gap between white and black 13- and 17- year-olds did not decrease over time.

### Figure EA 2.4.B AGE 13: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE SCIENCE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY RACE/ETHNICITY




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Table EA 2.4.B SCIENCE PROFICIENCY — AGE 13. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 250, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENT'S EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1977 - 1992**

| | 1977 | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 49 | 51 | 53 | 57 | 61 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 52 | 56 | 57 | 60 | 63 |
| Female | 45 | 46 | 48 | 53 | 60 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | |
| White | 57 | 58 | 61 | 67 | 71 |
| Black | 15 | 17 | 20 | 24 | 26 |
| Hispanic | 18 | 24 | 25 | 30 | 37 |
| Parent's Education | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 26 | 24 | 29 | 31 | 34 |
| Graduated high school | 46 | 43 | 44 | 47 | 49 |
| Some education after high school | 61 | 60 | 61 | 65 | 71 |
| Graduated college | 67 | 66 | 67 | 70 | 73 |
| Type of School | | | | | |
| Public | 47 | 49 | 52 | 55 | 60 |
| Non-Public | 69 | 66 | 67 | 72 | 69 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

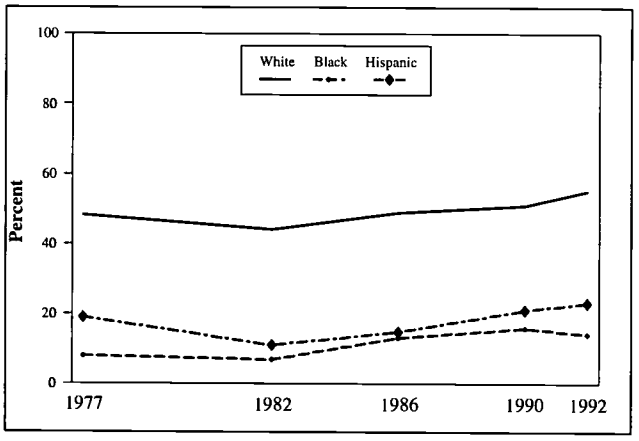
## EA 2.4 SCIENCE PROFICIENCY (Ages 9, 13, 17) (continued)

There are sizeable differences in the percentage of students passing median proficiency levels by parent's education.[85] The higher the level of parental education, the greater the likelihood that students would score at or above a median proficiency level. For instance, in 1992, 73 percent of 13-year-old children of college graduates were at or above proficiency Level 250, in comparison with only 34 percent of children whose parents did not have a high school degree.

For each age group, there are also strong differences in proficiency levels by type of school attended. In 1992, 86 percent of 9-year-olds who attended non-public schools scored at or above Level 200, compared with 77 percent of public school students. The gap between school types for 17-year-olds (18 percentage points) is greater than that of 9-year-olds or 13-year-olds (both 9 percentage points) in 1992. These data suggest that high school students may see a greater return in science scores from their non-public school education, in comparison with middle school or elementary school students. The difference in scores between public and non-public students has decreased slightly over time for all age groups.

[85]Parent's education is not reported at age 9 because approximately a third of these students did not know their parent's education level.

### Figure EA 2.4.C AGE 17: PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE SCIENCE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY RACE/ETHNICITY




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

**Table EA 2.4.C SCIENCE PROFICIENCY — AGE 17. PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS AT OR ABOVE PROFICIENCY LEVEL 300, BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENT'S EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1977 - 1992**

| | 1977 | 1982 | 1986 | 1990 | 1992 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 42 | 37 | 41 | 43 | 47 |
| Gender | | | | | |
| Male | 49 | 45 | 49 | 48 | 51 |
| Female | 35 | 30 | 34 | 39 | 42 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | | | |
| White | 48 | 44 | 49 | 51 | 55 |
| Black | 8 | 7 | 13 | 16 | 14 |
| Hispanic | 19 | 11 | 15 | 21 | 23 |
| Parent's Education | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 22 | 17 | 15 | 18 | 17 |
| Graduated high school | 36 | 30 | 30 | 31 | 32 |
| Some education after high school | 46 | 42 | 47 | 47 | 49 |
| Graduated college | 60 | 53 | 55 | 57 | 60 |
| Type of School | | | | | |
| Public | 41 | 37 | 40 | 42 | 45 |
| Non-Public | 69 | 44 | 75 | 60 | 63 |

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

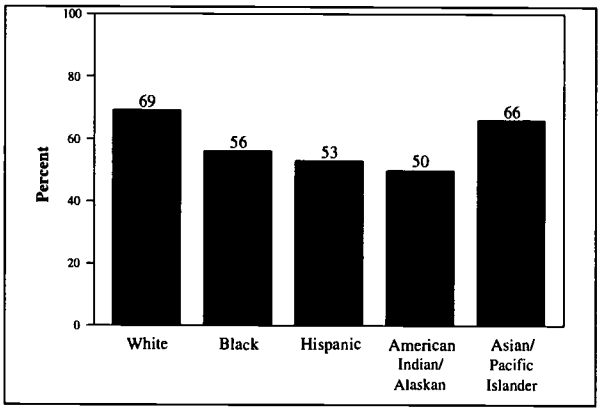
## EA 3.1.A PARENTAL READING TO YOUNG CHILDREN

Numerous studies have documented the importance of reading books to enhance children's literacy development. Reading to children is a critical determinant of subsequent school literacy,[86] promotes the growth and understanding of vocabulary,[87] and enhances learning of basic concepts about books.[88] Telling stories is another way in which parents can participate in their children's literacy development.[89]

As noted in Figure EA 3.1.a, only 64 percent of three- to five-year-old children had parents who read to them or told them stories on a regular basis in 1993. This percentage is somewhat lower for black (56 percent), Hispanic (53 percent), and American Indian (50 percent) children than for white (69 percent) and Asian (66 percent) children. In addition, children from single parent families, and those whose mothers did not complete high school were less likely to be read or told stories to several times a week. Only 51 percent of children whose mothers did not complete either high school or a GED certificate, compared to 67 percent of children whose mothers did complete high school had parents who read to them or told stories to them on a regular basis. (*See* Table EA 3.1.a) Finally, there was only a small gender difference in the percentage of children whose parents read to or told stories to them frequently, with 63 percent of males and female children read to or told stories on a regular basis.

[86]Anderson, R. C., et al. (1985). *Becoming a Nation of Readers: Report of the National Academy of Education's Commission on Reading.* Washington, DC: National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education.
[87]Chomsky, C. (1972). Stages in language development and reading exposure. *Harvard Educational Review*, 42, 1-33.
[88]Snow, C., & Ninio, A. (1986). The contribution of reading books with children to their linguistic and cognitive development. In W. Teale & E. Sulzby (Eds.), *Emergent Literacy: Reading and Writing.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
[89]Sulzby, E. (1985). Children's emergent reading of favorite story books: A developmental study. Reading Research Quarterly, Summer(4), 458-481. National Education Goals Panel. (1994). *The National Education Goals Report: Building a Nation of Learners.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

**Figure EA 3.1.A PERCENT OF 3- TO 5-YEAR-OLDS WHOSE PARENTS READ TO THEM OR TOLD STORIES REGULARLY, BY RACE/ETHNICITY: 1993**




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## Table EA 3.1.A PERCENTAGE OF 3- TO 5-YEAR-OLDS WHOSE PARENTS[a] READ TO THEM EVERY DAY OR TOLD THEM STORIES REGULARLY[b], BY RACE/ETHNICITY, GENDER, FAMILY TYPE, AND MOTHER'S EDUCATION: 1993

| | Read to or Told a Story |
|---|---|
| Total | 64 |
| Race/Ethnicity | |
| White | 69 |
| Black | 56 |
| Hispanic | 53 |
| American Indian/Alaskan | 50 |
| Asian/Pacific Islander | 66 |
| Gender | |
| Male | 63 |
| Female | 65 |
| Family Type | |
| Two parents | 67 |
| None or one parent | 58 |
| Mother's Education | |
| Completed high school/GED | 67 |
| Did not complete high school | 51 |

Notes: [a] parent or another family member.
[b] Response of "read to everyday" or "told a story 3 or more times a week."

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Trends in Academic Progress.*

## EA 3.1.B READING HABITS OF CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Independent reading is one necessary aspect of literacy development. The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has documented the association between students who read for fun in their free time and reading achievement. Students in grades 4, 8, and 12 who read more frequently for fun had consistently higher average reading proficiency scores than those students who read less often.[90]

As shown in Table EA 3.1.b, less than half of fourth graders (44 percent), and less than a quarter of eighth and twelfth graders (22 percent and 23 percent, respectively) reported reading for fun on a daily basis in 1992. In both fourth and eighth grades, larger proportions of girls than boys reported frequent reading in their spare time. For example, over half (51 percent) of fourth grade girls read for fun on a daily basis, in comparison with only 36 percent of fourth grade boys. Among twelfth graders, however, about equal proportions of boys (23 percent) and girls (22 percent) reported reading on a daily basis.

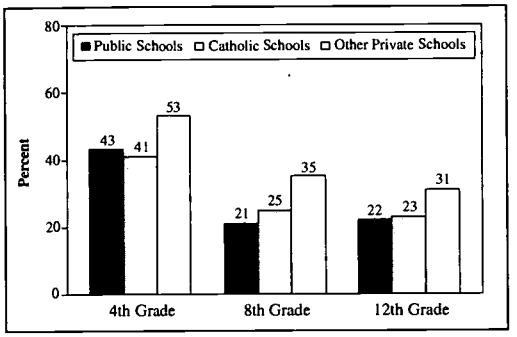
Asian students reported the highest level of reading daily (50 percent), and black students the lowest (40 percent), with whites, Hispanics, and Native American children in between. By twelfth grade rates across these groups ranged from 17 percent (black) to 25 percent (Native American and white).

There were differences in the percentage of students who reported reading on a daily basis by parents' educational level. For example, larger percentages of twelfth grade students whose parents had some education after high school (22 percent), or who graduated from college (28 percent) than students whose parents did not finish high school (14 percent) or only graduated from high school (18 percent) read for fun on a daily basis. These patterns are similar among eighth graders.

As illustrated in Figure EA 3.1.b, larger percentages of students in each grade who attended non-Catholic private schools than either public or Catholic schools, read for fun on a frequent basis. Nearly equal percentages of public and Catholic school students reported reading in their free time on a daily basis in eighth (21 percent and 25 percent) and twelfth grades (22 percent and 23 percent), but not in fourth grade (43 percent and 41 percent).

[90]National Center for Education Statistics (1993). *NAEP 1992: Reading Report Card for the Nation and the States.* Report No. 23-ST06. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

## Figure EA 3.1.B PERCENT OF STUDENTS IN 4TH, 8TH, AND 12TH GRADE WHO READ FOR FUN ON A DAILY BASIS, BY TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1992




Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Reading Assessment*, unpublished data.

## Table EA 3.1.B PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN 4TH, 8TH, AND 12TH GRADE WHO READ FOR FUN ON A DAILY BASIS BY GENDER, RACE/ETHNICITY, PARENT'S EDUCATION, AND TYPE OF SCHOOL: 1992

| | 4th Grade | 8th Grade | 12th Grade |
|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 44 | 22 | 23 |
| Gender | | | |
| Male | 36 | 17 | 23 |
| Female | 51 | 27 | 22 |
| Race/Ethnicity | | | |
| White | 44 | 24 | 25 |
| Black | 40 | 15 | 17 |
| Hispanic | 44 | 17 | 18 |
| Asian/Pacific Islander | 50 | 26 | 22 |
| American Indian | 45 | 31 | 25 |
| Parents' Education[a] | | | |
| Did not finish high school | — | 18 | 14 |
| Graduated high school | — | 18 | 18 |
| Some education after high school | — | 23 | 22 |
| Graduated college | — | 26 | 28 |
| Type of School | | | |
| Public schools | 43 | 21 | 22 |
| Catholic schools | 41 | 25 | 23 |
| Other Private schools | 53 | 35 | 31 |

Note: [a] Percent reading for fun is not reported by parent's education for 4th graders because over a third did not know their parent's level of education.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), *1992 Reading Assessment*, unpublished data.

## EA 3.2 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILD'S SCHOOL

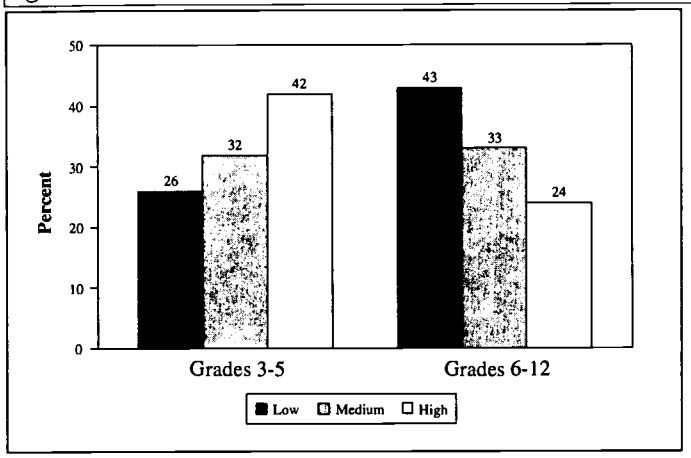
Parental involvement in school activities has been identified by many educators as having a positive impact on the school performance of children.[92] Greater involvement is thought to be associated with greater monitoring of school and classroom activities, a closer coordination of teacher and parent efforts, greater teacher attention to the child, and earlier identification of problems that might inhibit learning.[93]

Figure EA 3.2 presents national estimates for 1993 on the degree of parental school participation among parents of children in grades 3-5 and 6-12. Possible activities include general school meetings (e.g., PTA meeting or back-to-school night), attending a class event such as a play or sports event, and volunteering in the classroom or to serve on a school committee. The figure demonstrates that levels of parental involvement in school activities decreases substantially as children age. Forty-two percent of parents with children in grades 3-5 were classified as highly involved, meaning that they had been involved in all three types of activities described above during the school year. The level of involvement among parents of older children in grades 6-12 is substantially lower with 24 percent classified as highly involved. Nearly one half of the parents of older children were classified as having a low level of involvement, defined as having participated in one or no school activities.

Table EA 3.2 shows that the degree of school involvement varies substantially according to characteristics of the family and the school. These data refer only to parents of children in grades 6-12. Parents with a college degree were far more likely to be highly involved in school activities than are parents with less than a high school degree (43 percent versus 7 percent). Families where there are two biological parents in the households were more likely to be highly involved than either mother-only families or families involving step-fathers (33 percent versus 14 percent and 18 percent). Mothers who worked part-time were more likely to be highly involved (32 percent) than either mothers who work full time (24 percent) or those who were not in the labor force (24 percent). Mothers who were unemployed were even less likely to be highly involved in school activities (12 percent). Finally, parents of children in private school were more than twice as likely to be highly involved in school activities as parents of public school children (54 percent versus 22 percent).

[92]Cited in Zill, N., and Nord, C.W. (1994). *Running in Place: How American Families are Faring in a Changing Economy and Individualistic Society.* Child Trends, Inc.
[93]Ibid.

Figure EA 3.2 DEGREE OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILD'S SCHOOL ACTIVITIES IN 1993




Note: Parents were asked about whether they had participated in the following activities: (1) attended a general school meeting such as a back to school night; (2) attended a school or class event such as a play or sports event; and (3) volunteered at the school or served on a school committee. Parents who had done none of these things or only one were categorized as displaying a low level of involvement. Parents who answered yes to two of the questions were classified as having a moderate level of involvement, while those who had done all three were said to have a high level of involvement.

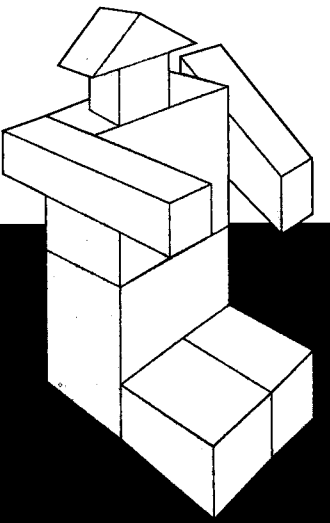
Source: Zill, N. and Nord, C.W. (1994). *Running in Place: How America Families are Faring in a Changing Economy and an Individualistic Society.* Child Trends, Inc. Complied with data from U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1993. National Household Education Survey, School Safety and Discipline component.

Table EA 3.2 PERCENT OF PARENTS WHO HAVE BEEN INVOLVED IN THEIR CHILD'S SCHOOL ACTIVITIES, BY GRADE AND LEVEL OF INVOLVEMENT[a]: 1993

| | Low Involvement | | Moderate Involvement | | High Involvement | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Grades 3-5 | Grades 6-12 | Grades 3-5 | Grades 6-12 | Grades 3-5 | Grades 6-12 |
| All Parents | 26 | 43 | 32 | 33 | 42 | 24 |
| Parental Education Level | | | | | | |
| Less than high school | — | 74 | — | 19 | — | 7 |
| High school graduate | — | 53 | — | 31 | — | 16 |
| Some college | — | 41 | — | 35 | — | 24 |
| College graduate or more | — | 21 | — | 36 | — | 43 |
| Family Type | | | | | | |
| Mother-father families | — | 34 | — | 33 | — | 33 |
| Mother-only families | — | 54 | — | 32 | — | 14 |
| Mother-stepfather families | — | 46 | — | 36 | — | 18 |
| Mother's Employment | | | | | | |
| Works full-time | — | 40 | — | 36 | — | 24 |
| Works part-time | — | 36 | — | 32 | — | 32 |
| Not in labor force | — | 50 | — | 26 | — | 24 |
| Looking for work | — | 54 | — | 34 | — | 12 |
| School Type | | | | | | |
| Public | — | 45 | — | 33 | — | 22 |
| Private | — | 16 | — | 30 | — | 54 |

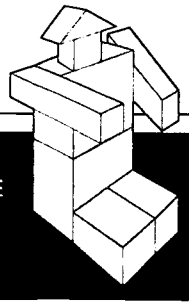
Note: [a]Parents were asked about whether they had participated in the following activities: (1) attended a general school meeting such as a back to school night; (2) attended a school or class event such as a play or sports event; and (3) volunteered at the school or served on a school committee. Parents who had done none of these things or only one were categorized as displaying a low level of involvement. Parents who answered yes to 2 of the questions were classified as having a moderate level of involvement, while those who had done all three were said to have a high level of involvement.

Source: Zill, N. and Nord, C.W. (1994). *Running in Place: How American Families are Faring in a Changing Economy and an Individualistic Society*: Child Trends, Inc. Compiled with data from U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 1993. National Household Education Survey, School Safety and Discipline Component.



# PART 2
# POPULATION CHANGE AND THE FAMILY ENVIRONMENT OF CHILDREN

by Donald J. Hernandez
U.S. Bureau of the Census



PART 2
POPULATION, CHANGE AND THE FAMILY ENVIRONMENT OF CHILDREN

## INTRODUCTION

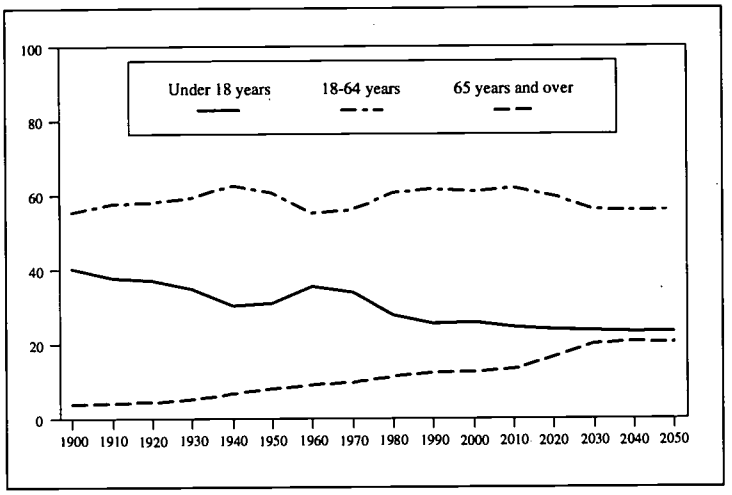
Children's lives have been completely transformed by enormous changes in their family environment, especially by changes in their family composition, parental work, and family income. Underlying changes in the family environment of children are historic trends in the size, composition, and demographic behavior and circumstances of the American population. This chapter begins by describing historic changes in the population and demography of the U.S. It then describes the nature and reasons for historic changes in the family environment of children. The chapter closes by discussing the value for public policy analysis of statistics using children as the unit of analysis, and a major new panel survey, the Survey of Program Dynamics (SPD), planned for the years 1993-2002 to provide a basis for evaluating welfare and health care reform as they affect children.

## POPULATION SIZE AND COMPOSITION

The U.S. population more than tripled during this century, rising from 76 million in 1900 to 250 million in 1990, an increase of 174 million. By the middle of the next century, the population is projected to grow by an additional 140 million, reaching 392 million by 2050 (Table 1). Children under age 18, adults age 18-64, and elderly persons age 65 years and over experienced very different rates of increase, however. As a result, by 1990 children accounted for a much smaller proportion of the population than they did in 1900, while the elderly accounted for a much larger proportion. This aging of the population is projected to continue through at least the middle of the next century.

Between 1900 and 1990, the proportion of the total population accounted for by adults age 18-64 fluctuated within the range of 55-63 percent (Figure 1). As of 1990, adults age 18-64 accounted for 62 percent of the total population, and this is projected to decline to about 56 percent in

### Figure 1. PERCENT OF THE POPULATION BY AGE: 1900 - 2050




Note: Estimates for 1900 to 1990, projections for 2000 to 2050. Sources: "Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970," Bicentennial Edition, Part 1, Series A29-42, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. 1975.
U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 311, "Estimates of the Population of the United States, by Single Years of Age, Color, and Sex: 1900 to 1959" U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1965.
U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 519, "Estimates of the Population of the United States, By Age, Sex, and Race: April 1, 1960 to July 1, 1973," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1974.
U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 1095, "U.S. Population Estimates, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1980 to 1991," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.
U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population, Reports, Series P25-1104, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.



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POPULATION SIZE AND COMPOSITION (continued)

2030-2050. Children, in contrast, experienced a steady decline in their share of the population, with the exception of the two-decade baby-boom, and children are projected to experience a continuing decline in their share of the population for the next sixty years. Meanwhile, the elderly have experienced and are projected to continue to experience a steady increase in their share of the population.

Children under age 18 as a proportion of the total population fell from 40 percent in 1900 to 26 percent in 1990. After 2000, the proportion of the total population consisting of children is projected to decline further to about 23 percent in 2040-2050. Meanwhile, the proportion of the total population accounted for by elderly adults age 65 years and over tripled from only 4 percent in 1900 to 13 percent in 1990. As the baby-boom generation begins to reach age 65 around 2010, the elderly population is projected to rise especially rapidly to 20-21 percent between 2030-2050.

During the forty years from 1990 to 2030, then, the U.S. population is projected to age substantially, as the proportion under age 18 declines from 26 to 24 percent, the proportion in the main working ages of 18-64 shrinks from 62 to 56 percent, and the proportion elderly expands from 13 to 20 percent.

Viewing children under age 18 and the elderly 65 years and over as the primary populations potentially dependent on working-age adults age 18-64 for their support and care, the relative size of the child population has shifted enormously. Children as a proportion of these potentially dependent age groups have dropped from 91 percent in 1900 to 67 percent in 1990, and they are projected to decline to only 53 percent of total potential dependents by 2050.

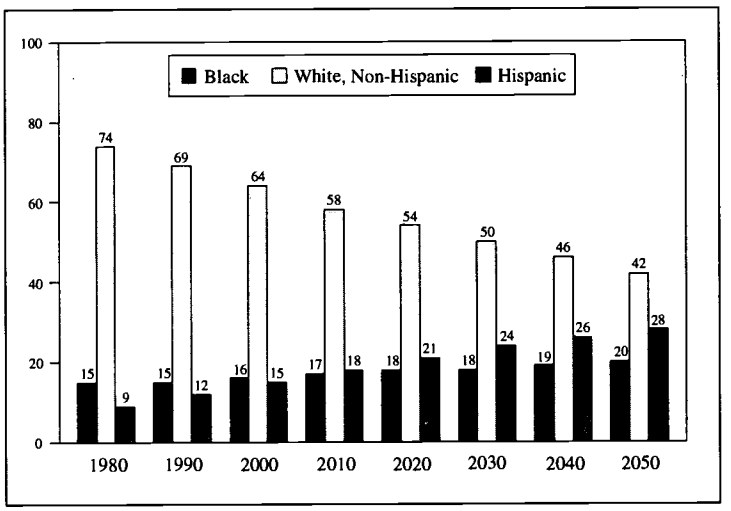
At least since 1970, the large decline in the comparative size of the child population and the large increase in the comparative size of the elderly population has been accompanied by a simultaneous shift in the composition of the population toward minority group membership. This growth in the comparative size of the minority population is projected to continue for at least fifty years, and to be especially large among children, but relatively small among the elderly (Table 1).

Between 1900 and 1970, whites accounted for 88-90 percent of the total population, 85-89 percent of children, 89-90 percent of adults age 18-64, and 91-94 percent of the elderly. After 1970, these proportions all began declines that are projected to continue through at least 2050. As of 1980, it became possible to distinguish the majority white, not Hispanic population from not white races and from Hispanics.

In 1980, 74 percent of children were white, not Hispanic; by 1990 this had declined to 69 percent, and projections suggest that by 2030, that is, 35 years from now, only 50 percent of U.S. children will be white, not Hispanic (Figure 2). During the same time, projections suggest that the proportion of persons who are white, not-Hispanic will decline for adults age 18-64 from 81 to 59 percent, and for the elderly from 88 to 75 percent. In other words, in all three age groups, the proportion who are members of a non-white race or who are Hispanic will double—from 26 percent to 50 percent for children, from 19 to 41 percent for working-age adults, and from 12 to 25 percent for the elderly (Figure 3). Despite the enormous increases in minority

group membership for all ages during the coming years, the gaps separating children from working-age adults and the elderly in the proportion who are minority group members will increase. Between 1980 and 2030, the extent to which children are more likely than working-age adults to be minority group members will grow from 7 to 9 percentage points, and the extent to children are more likely than the elderly to be minority group members will expand from 14 to 25 percentage points.

**Figure 2. PERCENT OF CHILDREN WHO ARE WHITE NOT HISPANIC, BLACK, AND HISPANIC: 1980 - 2050**




Note: Estimates for 1980 to 1990, projections for 2000 to 2050.
U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 1095, "U.S. Population Estimates, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1980 to 1991," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.

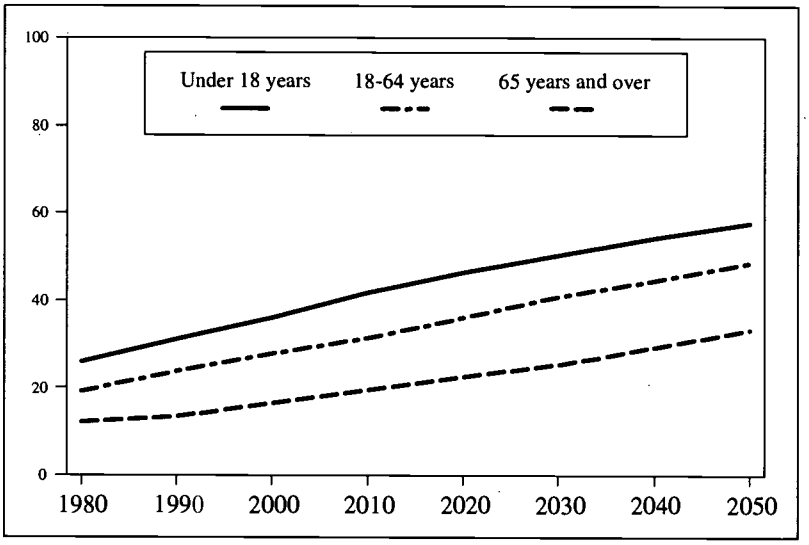
Day, Jennifer Cheeseman, "Population Projections of the United States, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1993 to 2050," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population, Reports, Series P25-1104 U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.

In short, the U.S. is now in the midst of large population increases which are associated with major shifts toward a population composition that will more elderly and more likely to belong to a non-white or Hispanic minority group. As a result, the experience of American children during the coming years will increasingly be the experience of minority children who live in a society where children constitute a decreasing proportion of the potentially dependent population, and where the elderly constitute an increasing proportion of the potentially dependent population. From the viewpoint of the elderly, because growing numbers of elderly will depend increasingly, for their economic support, on the productivity of working-age adults who are members of racial and ethnic minorities, the economic support available to the elderly will increasingly depend on the quality of the education, training, and health care received by members of minority groups when they are children.

## POPULATION SIZE AND COMPOSITION (continued)

The population of minority children consists mainly of two groups (which overlap slightly). In 1990 black children accounted for 15 percent of all children, a figure projected to increase to 20 percent by 2050 (Figure 2). The next largest group in 1990, Hispanic children, accounted for 12 percent of children in 1990, and is projected to grow to 28 percent by 2050.

### Figure 3. PERCENT OF CHILDREN AND ADULTS WHO ARE HISPANIC OR NON WHITE: 1980 - 2050

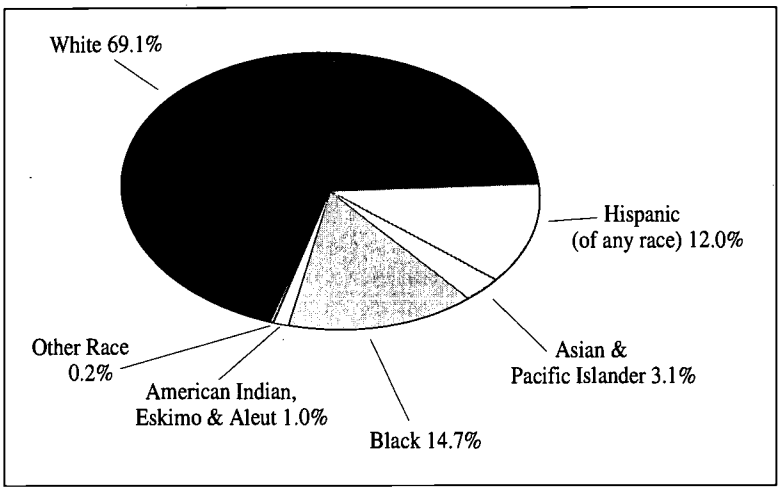


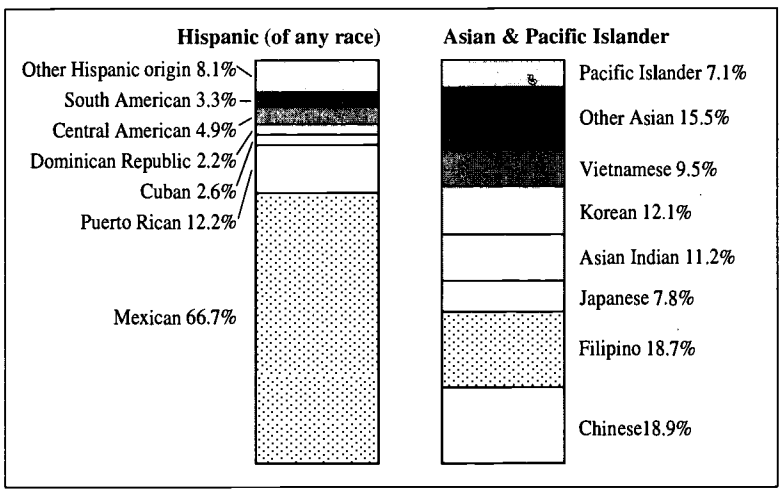

Note: Estimates for 1980 to 1990, projections for 2000 to 2050.
U.S. Bureau of the Census. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 1095, "U.S. Population Estimates, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1980 to 1991," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.

Day, Jennifer Cheeseman, "Population Projections of the United States, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1993 to 2050." U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population, Reports, Series P25-1104 U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.

Although blacks and Hispanics account for the largest proportions of the one-third of American children in 1990 who belong to non-white or Hispanic minority groups, minority children trace their backgrounds to many different sources (Table 2, Figure 4). For example, 1 percent of U.S. children were American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut, and 3 percent were Asian or Pacific Islander. The Asian and Pacific Islander group in turn was very diverse, with 20 percent Chinese, 19 percent Filipino, 12 percent Korean, 11 percent Asian Indian, 10 percent Vietnamese, and 8 percent Japanese. The Hispanic population also was quite diverse in 1990, with 67 percent of Mexican origin, 12 percent Puerto Rican, 5 percent Central American, 3 percent Cuban, and 2 percent Dominican Republic.

**Figure 4. RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN OF CHILDREN: 1990**
**(percent distribution of children under 18 years old)**




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "We the American Children," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series WE-10, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.

Foreign countries have, of course, always contributed substantially to the U.S. population (Table 3). Between 1900 and 1930, 12-15 percent of the U.S. population was foreign-born, and this varied from 5-9 percent between 1940-1980. As of 1990, 8 percent of the U.S. Population was foreign-born, and these persons were drawn from many countries throughout the world; 22 percent from Mexico; 5 percent from the Philippines; 4 percent from each of three countries, Canada, Cuba, and Germany; 3 percent from each of five countries, United Kingdom, Italy, Korea, Vietnam, and China; and 2 percent from El Salvador. Even these eleven countries accounted for only 54 percent of the foreign-born, nearly half were drawn from other countries around the world.



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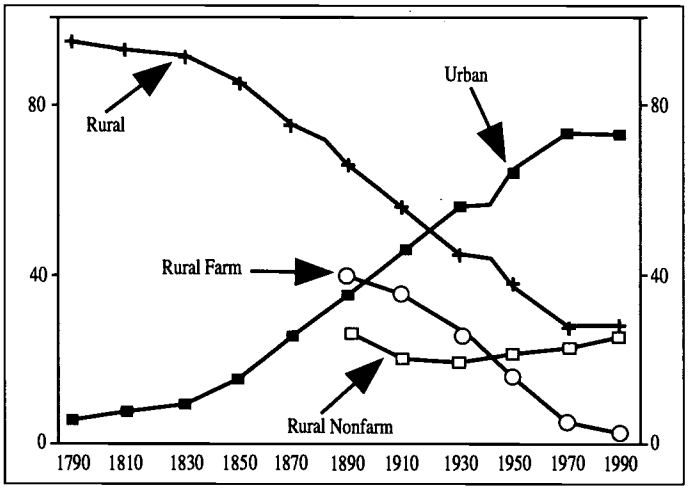
## GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION

The geographic distribution of the population also has changed enormously during American history. In 1790, 95 percent of the population lived in rural areas, only 5 percent lived in urban areas (Table 4). By 1900, the rural population had declined to 60 percent (39 percent in rural farm areas and 21 percent in rural nonfarm areas), and the urban population had grown to 40 percent (Figure 5). By 1920 a majority of Americans lived in urban areas, and by 1990, a large majority, 73 percent, lived in urban areas. While the remaining 27 percent lived in rural areas, most lived in nonfarm settings, only 2 percent of Americans lived in rural farm areas by 1990.

**Figure 5. PERCENT OF THE POPULATION RESIDING IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS 1790 - 1990, AND RURAL FARM AND RURAL NONFARM AREAS: 1890 - 1990**

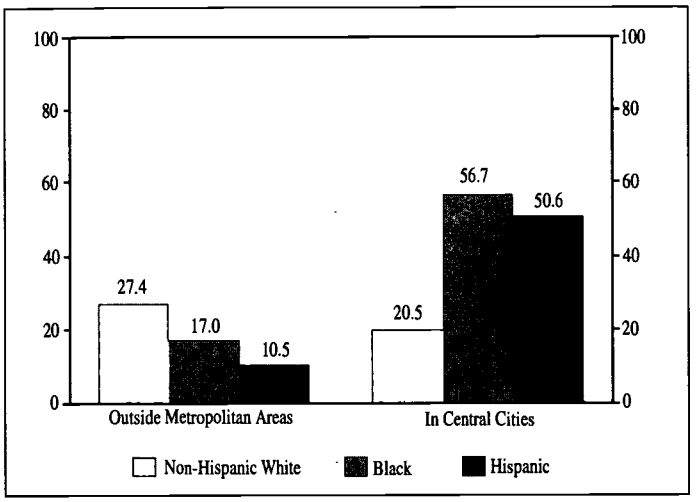



Source: Dahmann, Donald C. and Dacquel, Laarnit, "Residents of Farms and Rural Areas: 1990," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20-457, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1992, Tables 1 and 2.

The living situations of persons in urban areas are, in turn, quite diverse. For example in 1990, 77 percent of children lived inside metropolitan areas, but these were split between the 30 percent who lived in central cities, and the 46 percent who lived outside the central cities (Table 5). Among the 23 percent of children living outside metropolitan areas, there was also diversity, since these children were split between the 8 percent in urban areas, and the 15 percent in rural areas.

Enormous differences exist in the geographic distribution of children by race and Hispanic origin. For example, more than one-half of black and Hispanic children lived in central cities in 1990, 57 and 51 percent, respectively, compared to 21 percent of white, not Hispanic children (Figure 6). Most likely to live outside metropolitan areas were white, not Hispanic children (27 percent), followed by black children (17 percent), and Hispanic children (11 percent).

Figure 6. PERCENT OF CHILDREN INSIDE AND OUTSIDE METROPOLITAN AREAS BY RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN: 1990




Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990 Census of Population, "General Population Characteristics, United States," 1990 CP-1-1, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1992, Tables 15, 17, 18, 21 and 22.

## MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE

The median age at first marriage for both men and women declined for more than half a century from 1890 until the late 1950s (Table 6, Figure 7), when fertility rates reached their baby-boom peak. Since then, the median age at first marriage for both men and women has increased substantially, especially since the mid-1970s. By 1993, the median age at first marriage reached 26.5 years for men, somewhat more than the historic high of 26.1 years recorded in 1890, and it reached 24.5 for women, substantially higher than at any time since 1890.

The post-1940 decline in the median age at first marriage was accompanied by large declines in the proportion of young adults who had never married (Table 7). The proportion of women never married dropped from 47 percent to 28 percent between 1940 and 1960 for women age 20-24, and from 23 percent to only 11 percent for women 25-29. Similarly for men between 1940 and 1960, the proportion never married dropped from 72 to 53 percent at ages 20-24 and from 36 to 21 percent for ages 25-29.

Since then, the proportion never married among young adults has increased dramatically (Table 7, Figure 8). Between 1960 and 1993, the proportion never married at ages 20-24 jumped from 28 to 67 percent for women, and from 53 to 81 percent for men. At ages 25-29 during the twenty-three years from 1970 to 1993, the proportion never married jumped from 11 to 33 percent for women and from 19 to 48 percent for men, and at ages 30-34 the proportion never married jumped from 6 to 19 percent for women, and from 9 to 30 percent for men.



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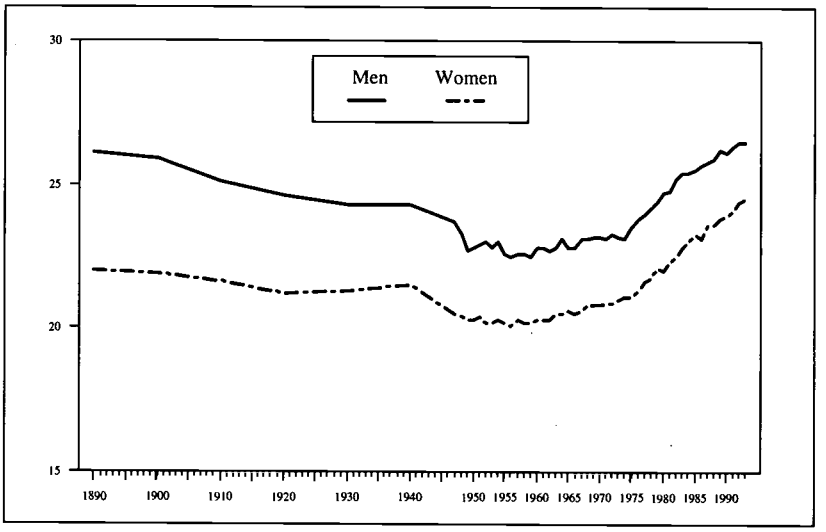
## MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE (continued)

Whites, blacks, and Hispanics all experienced large increases in the proportion of young adults never married, but the increases for blacks have been extraordinary. By 1993, for example, the proportions never married at ages 20-24 were 81 percent for black women, compared to 64 and 55 percent for white and Hispanic women, respectively, and at ages 25-29 the proportions never married were 57 percent for black women, compared to 29 and 31 percent for whites and Hispanics, respectively.

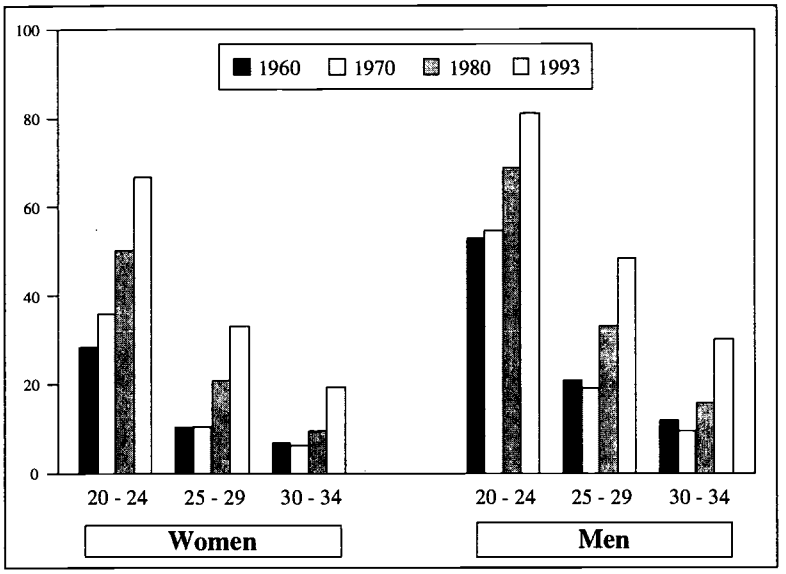
### Figure 7. MEDIAN AGE AT FIRST MARRIAGE, BY SEX: 1890 TO 1993




Source: Saluter, Arlene, "Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20-478, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1994.

The divorce rate increased at a remarkably steady pace between for the 100 years spanning 1860 to 1960, with the exception of sharp but temporary peaks associated with the two world wars and a sharp but temporary dip associated with the Great Depression (Table 8, Figure 9). After 1960, the increase in the divorce rate accelerated sharply, and in 1979 the annual divorce rate reached a peak of 22.8 divorces per 1,000 married women. Since then the divorce rate has declined to 20.7 divorces per 1,000 married women in 1988, but by historical standards the divorce rate remains extremely high.

Figure 8. PERCENT SINGLE BY AGE AND SEX: 1960 - 1993 (never married)




Source: Saluter, Arlene, "Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20-478, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1994.

U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970," Bicentennial Edition, Part 1, Series A160-171 Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1975.

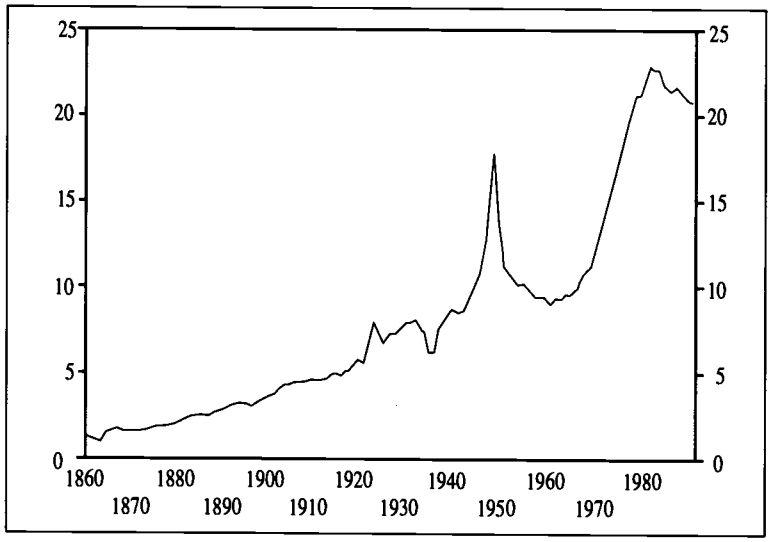
## MARRIAGE AND DIVORCE (continued)

These recent divorce rates suggest that the proportion whose first marriage may eventually end in divorce by age 65 will be 38-49 percent for women age 20-24 in 1990, compared to about 30-32 percent for women born thirty years earlier and age 50-54 in 1990 (Norton and Miller, 1992, p. 5). Of course many persons who divorce subsequently remarry, and of all current marriages, about 4 out of 10 in the U.S. involve a second or higher-order marriage of the bride, groom, or both (U.S. National Center for health Statistics, 1991).

Many persons who remarry subsequently redivorce, however. Recent redivorce rates suggest, for example, that the proportion whose second marriage may eventually end in divorce may be 47-62 percent for women age 20-24 in 1990, compared to 38-46 percent for women born thirty years earlier.

In short, the past quarter century brought enormous increases in non-marriage among young men and women, especially among blacks, and it brought enormous increases in divorce and redivorce.

### Figure 9. DIVORCE RATE: 1860 TO 1988 (rate per 1000 married women age 15 and over)

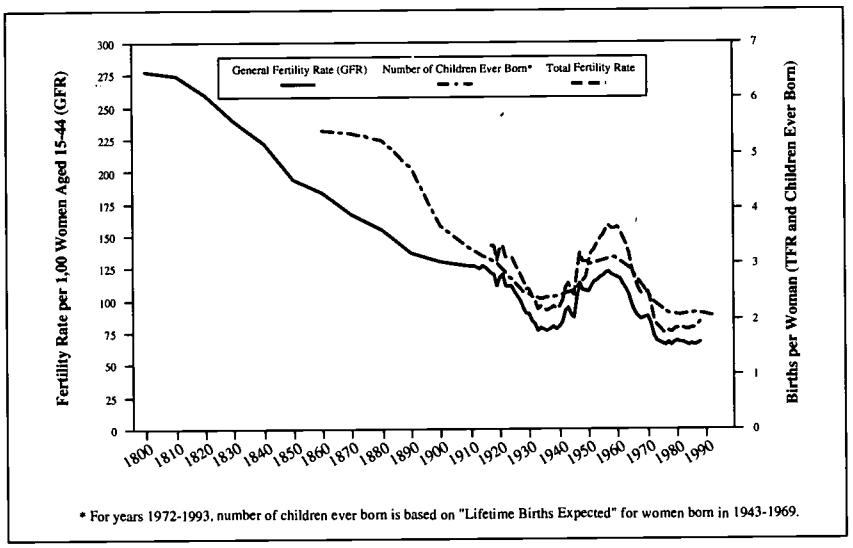



Source: National Center for Health Statistics,"Advance Report of Final Divorce Statistics, 1988," Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol. 39, No. 12, Supplement 2, May 21, 1991, Hyattsville, Maryland 1991.

## CHILDBEARING AND FAMILY SIZE

One commonly used measure of childbearing is the General Fertility Rate (GFR), calculated as the annual number of births per 1,000 women age 15-44 (Table 9, Figure 10). Using this measure, fertility declined during each of the 14 decades spanning 1800 to 1940, and by the time of the Great Depression and World War II, the GFR was less than one-third as large as it was in 1800. With the post- World War II baby boom, the GFR increased, for example, by about 50 percent between 1940 and 1957, returning to the level experienced in 1916.

### Figure 10. GENERAL AND TOTAL FERTILITY RATES, NUMBER OF CHILDREN EVER BORN, AND LIFETIME EXPECTED BIRTHS: 1800 - 1994




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Tables 2.1 and 2.2.

A second commonly used fertility measure is the Total Fertility Rate (TFR), which indicates the mean number of births that would occur to a hypothetical cohort of 1,000 women over the course of their childbearing years if they were to experience the age-specific fertility rates for a given year. Divided by 1,000 the TFR indicates the average number of children that would be born to one woman in that hypothetical cohort. By this oft-cited measure, fertility increased by about 60 percent during the baby boom, from an average of 2.3 births per woman in 1930-1945 to a peak of 3.5 in 1957.

After the postwar baby boom, the historic fertility decline resumed, and by the early 1970s, both the GFR and the TFR had fallen below the level recorded during the Great Depression, with the TFR fluctuating narrowly between 1.7 and 1.9 births per woman.

## CHILDBEARING AND FAMILY SIZE (continued)

A more direct measure of actual family size is the average (mean) number of children ever born to specific 5-year cohorts of women by the end of their childbearing years. Since the average childbearing age is about 27, estimates are graphed in Figure 10 (from Table 10) at the point about 27 years later than the average year of birth for each cohort of women. For women who have not yet completed their childbearing, expected family size can be calculated from data on the total number of births these women expect to have during their lifetime.

The general pattern of family-size change indicated by this measure is similar to the pattern of change shown in the GFR and TFR. The mean number of children ever born declined from more than 5.0 in 1865 to only 2.4 children in the mid-1930s. During the baby boom it then increased to 3.1 children per woman in the late 1950s and declined during the baby bust to about 2.1 children per woman in 1975. By this measure, then, the actual family size of women increased by about 30 percent during the baby boom—that is, by about only one-half as much as the TFR—and the baby bust decline also was about one-half as large as the decline measured by the TFR.

Why were the postwar swings in family size so much smaller than the corresponding swings in fertility? Norman B. Ryder (1980) provided the answer to this question, calculating that one-half of the baby-boom increase in the TFR was due to: (1) childbearing among older women who had postponed having children during the economic hard times of the Great Depression; (2) a shift toward earlier childbearing among young women after World War II; and (3) the tendency of these young women to space their children's births more closely.

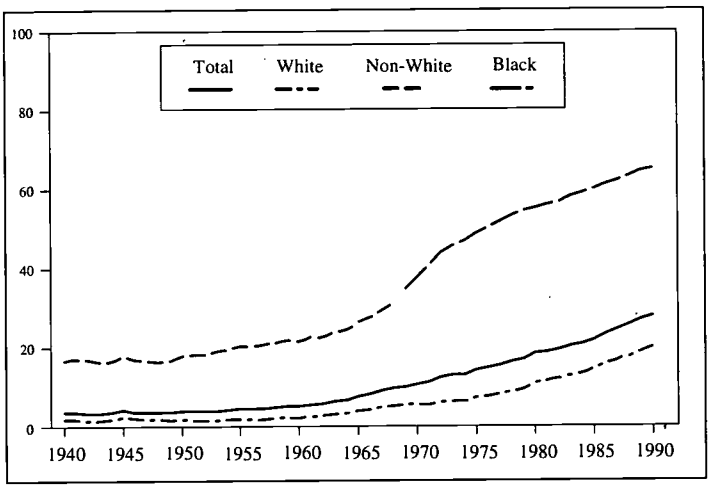
Similarly, more than one-half of the baby-bust decline in the TFR between 1957 and 1976 occurred because: (1) young women who during the baby boom started their childbearing at an early age also finished at an early age, and hence had relatively fewer births later in life; and (2) a shift toward later childbearing and longer spacing of births occurred among women who were beginning to bear children during the late 1960s.

In short, the fertility and family sizes of women have declined dramatically since 1800, with the post World War II baby boom as the single important interruption. The effect of the baby-boom on the family sizes of women was important, but it was only half as great as would be suggested by commonly used measures of fertility change.

## CHILDBEARING AMONG UNMARRIED WOMEN

Between 1940-1960, only 3-5 percent of children were born to unmarried mothers (Table 11, Figure 11). But as the proportion of young adults never married began increasing after 1960, so too did the proportion of children born to unmarried mothers, from 11 percent in 1970, to 18 percent in 1980, and to 30 percent in 1991.

**Figure 11. BIRTHS TO UNMARRIED WOMEN, AS PERCENT OF ALL BIRTHS BY RACE OF CHILD: 1940 - 1990**



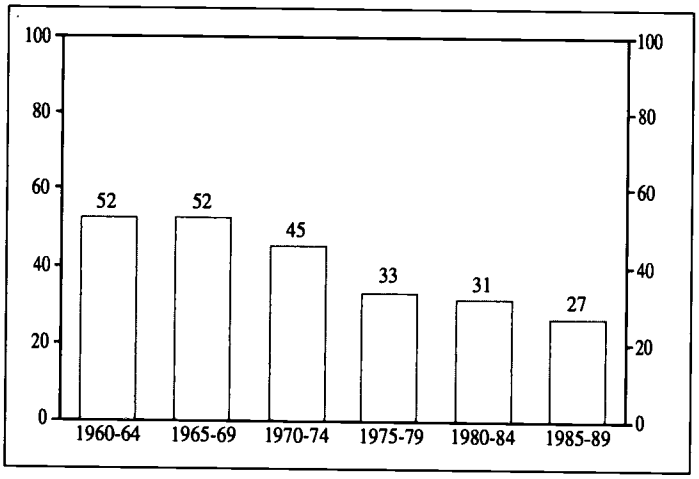

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the U. S., 1991," Vol. I, Natality. Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. (publication in preparation) Table 1-76.

Among whites, the proportion born to unmarried mothers has been smaller than for the population as a whole, but the increases have been large, rising from 2 percent for 1940-1960, to 6 percent in 1970, 11 percent in 1980, and 22 percent (more than 1-in-5) in 1991. Throughout the era, non-marital childbearing has been much higher among blacks. Between 1940-1960, births to unmarried women accounted for a fairly constant proportion at about 18-22 percent of nonwhite births, and this increased for blacks to 38 percent in 1970, 55 percent in 1980, and about 68 percent by 1991.

One factor contributing to the overall increase in the proportion of births occurring to unmarried women is that premaritally conceived births are only one-half as likely to lead to a marriage before the birth as was true during the 1960s (Figure 12). In the 1960-64 and 1965-69 periods, of all women whose first birth was premaritally conceived, 52 percent married for the first time before the birth. This percentage has decreased to 27 percent for the 1985-89 period. The increasing social acceptance of never-married mothers and the desire to avoid an unstable or economically disadvantageous marriage have been involved in the decline of women marrying before the birth of their first child.

## CHILDBEARING AMONG UNMARRIED WOMEN (continued)

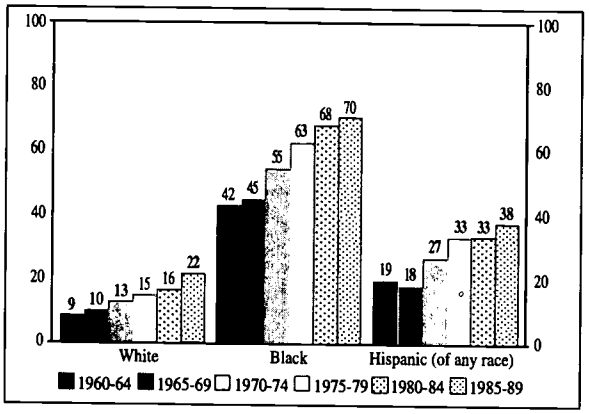
### Figure 12. WOMEN 15 TO 34 YEARS WITH A PREMARITALLY CONCEIVED FIRST CHILD - PERCENT MARRYING BEFORE THE BIRTH OF CHILD: 1960-64 TO 1985-89




Source: O'Connell, Martin, "Fertility of American Women: June 1990," U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20-454, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C., 1991.

Focusing on women 15-34 years with a first birth, estimates of premarital births are available for white, black, and Hispanic women (Figure 13). In the 1960-64 percent, the proportion of first births occurring to unmarried women was 9 percent for whites, 19 percent for Hispanics, and 42 percent for blacks. The percentage of women age 15-34 with their first birth occurring premaritally more than doubled for white women between the 1960-64 period and the 1985-89 period from 9 to 22 percent. The proportion also doubled for Hispanics from 19 to 38 percent. The proportion for blacks increased from 42 to 70 percent.

### Figure 13. WOMEN 15 TO 34 YEARS OLD WITH A FIRST BIRTH — PERCENT WITH FIRST BIRTH OCCURRING BEFORE FIRST MARRIAGE, BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN: 1960-64 TO 1985-89




Source: O'Connell, Martin, "Fertility of American Women: June 1990," U. S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20-454, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C., 1991.

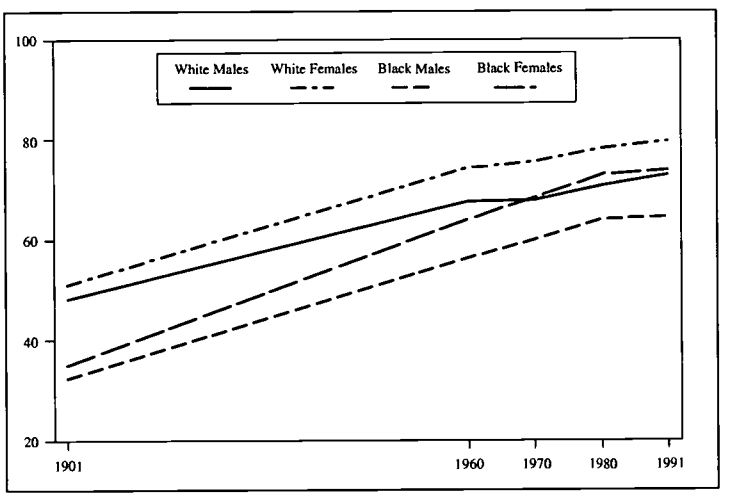
## LIFE EXPECTANCY AND MORTALITY

The life expectancy of Americans increased enormously after the turn of the century. In 1900-02, based on current death rates, the average life expectancy was only 49 years, but by 1991 it had increased to 76 years (Table 12). During the six decades from 1900-02 to 1959-61, the average life expectancy of Americans increased by 26 years, rising from 49 to 70 years of life. The three decades since have brought an additional, but much smaller, increase of 6 years in life expectancy.

Historically, the life expectancy of blacks was much shorter than that of whites (Figure 14). In 1900-02, the life expectancy for females was 51 years for whites, compared to only 35 years for blacks. Similarly, for males the life expectancy was 48 years for whites, compared to only 33 years for blacks. At the turn of the century, then, the racial gap in life expectancy was 16 years for both females and males.

Both whites and blacks experienced enormous increases in life expectancy during this century. For females, life expectancy has increased from 51 years to 80 years for whites, and from 35 to 74 years for blacks. For males, life expectancy has increased from 48 to 73 years for whites, and from 35 to 65 years for blacks. Hence, the racial gaps have narrowed substantially from 16 to 6 years for females, and from 16 to 8 years for males, but the gaps remain large.

### Figure 14. EXPECTATION OF LIFE AT BIRTH BY RACE AND SEX: 1901 TO 1991




Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the United States, 1989," Vol. II - Mortality, part A, Public Health Service, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. Tables 6-4 and 6-5.

1990-91, National Center for Health Statistics, Monthly Vital Statistics Report, "Advance Report of Final Mortality Statistics, 1991" Vol. 42, No. 2, Supplement August 31, 1993.

## LIFE EXPECTANCY AND MORTALITY (continued)

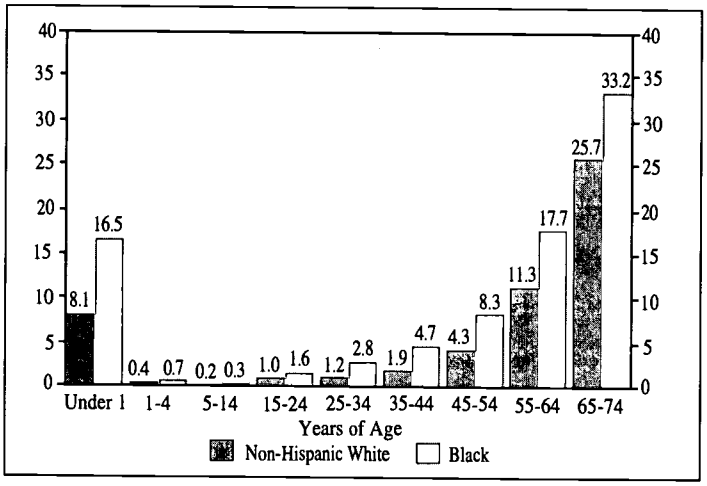
The gains in survival have been especially great in the first year of life, both for whites and for blacks (Table 13). In 1900-02, the proportion dying before age 1 was 11-13 percent for whites, and 21-25 percent for blacks. At the turn of the century, more than 1-in-10 white children died before age 1, and more than 1-in-5 black children did not live to see their first birthday. By 1988, only 1 percent of white children and 2 percent of black children died before age 1.

Improvements in survival by age 20 also are striking. In 1900-02 the proportion not reaching age 20 was 21-24 percent for whites and 41-43 percent for blacks. By 1988, only 1-2 percent of whites and 2-4 percent of blacks do not survive to age 20.

During the next twenty years of life, the racial is still larger, both historically and today. The proportion dying before age 40 in 1900-02 among females was 32 percent for whites 54 percent among for blacks, and among males was 35 percent for whites and 57 percent for blacks. As of 1989, current death rates imply that the proportion dying before age 40 among females was 3 percent for whites, and 6 percent for blacks, and among males was 5 percent for whites and 12 percent for blacks.

These historical statistics show that both whites and blacks have experienced enormous declines in mortality and corresponding increases in life expectancy during the past century. Despite these improvements, and a narrowing of the racial gaps, death rates for blacks continue to be about twice as great as for whites during the early childhood years under age 5, and during the middle adult ages of 25-54 years (Table 14, Figure 15). At other childhood ages and the adult ages through 64 years, blacks are 50 percent more likely than whites to die in any given year.

**Figure 15. DEATH RATES BY AGE AND RACE: 1990 (Number of deaths, excluding fetal deaths, per 1000 population)**




National Center for Health Statistics, "Annual Summary of Births, Marriages,Divorces, and Deaths: US, 1990."Monthly vital statistics report; vol.39, no. 13. Hyattsville, Maryland: Public Health Service, Table 5.

## HOUSEHOLD SIZE AND COMPOSITION

The average number of persons per household declined enormously during the past two centuries. In 1993, 2.6 persons lived in the average household, less than half the average household size of 5.8 in 1790 (Table 15). Of this total decline of 3.2 persons per household over 200 years, two-thirds occurred during the 80 years spanning 1900 to 1980.

Between 1790 and 1990, much of the decline can be accounted for by a 15 percentage point reduction, from 35.8 to 20.4 percent in the proportion living in households with 7 or more persons, and a corresponding 13 percentage point increase in the proportion living households with only 2-3 persons. Since 1900, the average household size decline can be accounted for mainly by the 35 percentage point drop in the proportion living in households with 5 or more persons, and corresponding increases in the proportions living in very small households with only 1 or 2 persons, at 19 percentage points and 17 percentage points, respectively.

By 1993, then, one-person households accounted for 25 percent of the total, and two-person households accounted for an additional 32 percent, while only 10 percent of households had 5 persons or more. From the perspective of persons, however, it is important to note that most persons do not live in one or two-person households. In fact, in 1993 only 9 percent of persons lived alone, and 25 percent lived in two-person households, while 23 percent lived in households with 5 persons or more.

Focusing on the era since the Great Depression, average household size declined from 3.7 to 2.6 persons per household between 1940 and 1993 (Table 16). Despite the post-war baby boom, however, there was no increase in average household size between 1947 and 1964, when household size actually declined from 5.6 in 1947 to 3.3 between 1951 and 1967. The average number of children under 18 years did increase during the baby boom, but only slightly, from 1.1 in 1948 to 1.2 between 1956-1967. Since 1983 the average number of children per household remained stable at 0.7.

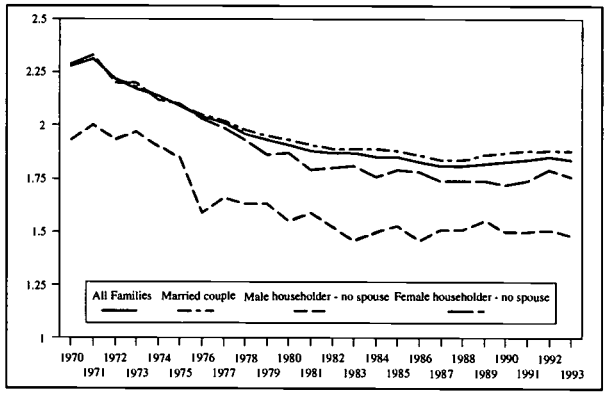
Focusing more narrowly on only the number of family members in family households, average family size declined from 3.8 in 1940 to 3.2 in 1993, with a baby boom increase from 3.5 persons per family in 1950-1953 to 3.7 persons per family in 1959-1967. Similarly, the number of children per family declined from 1.2 to 1.0 between 1940 and 1993, with a baby boom increase from 1.2 in 1947-1951 to 1.4 in 1958-1969.

Married-couple families maintained 76-80 percent of all households between 1910 and 1957, but this proportion has fallen substantially since then, especially since 1970, from 71 percent to 61 percent in 1980, and 55 percent in 1993 (Table 17). From 1940 through 1993, the proportion of households maintained by a male with no wife in the home has remained within the narrow range of 2-4 percent, while the proportion maintained by a female with no husband present has increased from 8-10 percent in between 1940 and 1970, to 11 percent in 1980, and 12 percent in 1993. Despite this increase, most of the decline in married-couple households can be accounted for by the rise in nonfamily households, from 10-11 percent in 1940-1950 to 15 percent in 1960, 19 percent in 1970, 26 percent in 1980, and 29 percent in 1993.

## HOUSEHOLD SIZE AND COMPOSITION (continued)

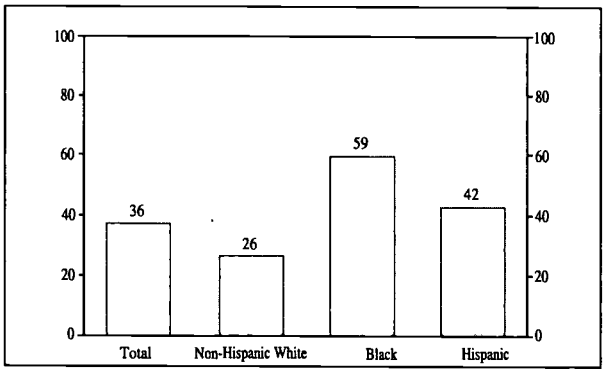
Important changes by family type have occurred since 1970 in the number of children under age 18 per family with children. Between 1970 and 1977, there was no difference in the average number of children per family for married-couple families and mother-child families (Figure 16). Since then differences have emerged, with married couples having a slightly larger average number of children. The average number of children for married couples and for mother-child families has declined since 1970. Father-child families have had a substantially smaller number of children than other family types. On average in 1993, married couples had 1.9 children per family compared to 1.8 for mother-child families and 1.5 for father-child families.

### Figure 16. AVERAGE NUMBER OF OWN CHILDREN UNDER 18 PER FAMILY WITH CHILDREN, BY TYPE OF FAMILY WITH CHILDREN: 1970 - 1993




Source: Rawlings, Steve W., "Household and Family Characteristics: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P20-477, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1994.

### Figure 17. PERCENT OF ONE-PARENT FAMILY GROUPS WITH A NEVER-MARRIED PARENT, BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN: 1993




Source: Rawlings, Steve W., "Household and Family Characteristics: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P20-477, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1994.

Among one-parent family groups, that is, among one-parent family households and one-parent subfamilies living in households maintained by someone else, 36 percent in 1993 had a never-married parent (Figure 17). The other 64 percent consisted of those parents who were widowed, divorce, or separated. By race, there were notable differences. For whites, 26 percent of the one-parent family groups had a never-married parent, compared to 59 percent for Blacks, and 42 percent for persons of Hispanic origin (who may be of any race).

The family environment of children was completely transformed during the past 150 years by a series of revolutionary changes in family composition, parental work, and family income. This section of the chapter draws especially on a new socio-historical study, *America's Children: Resources from Family, Government, and the Economy* (Hernandez, 1993), to present statistics for children documenting the timing and magnitude of these transformations, and to discuss why they occurred. The section then shows how changes in family income, poverty, and welfare dependence since the Great Depression have been linked to changes in parent's work and family composition. An important innovation of these analyses is that unlike most past social, economic, and demographic research, children are the primary unit of statistical analysis (Hernandez, 1986; Qvortrup, 1993).

This section also presents statistics documenting the expanding need for non-parental childcare, and children's current situation with regard to health insurance coverage, housing conditions, and the prevalence of disabilities. It then offers examples suggesting why it is important that statistical analyses use children as the primary unit of analysis, and why such statistics are essential to the development of effective public policies. Finally, the section describes plans for a new national survey, the Survey of Program Dynamics (SPD), that will provide new statistics measuring the developmental status and well-being of children, and measuring the effects that welfare reform and health care reform will have for the well-being and future prospects of children.

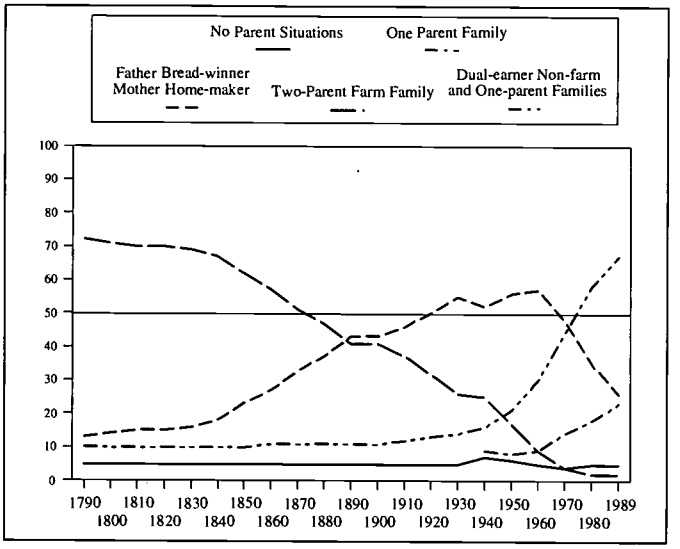
This section now begins by discussing three revolutionary changes experienced by children during the past 150 years: the revolutionary shift to non-farm work by fathers, the drastic constriction in family size, and the enormous expansion in schooling. It then turns to more recent transformations, the revolutionary increases in mother's labor force participation, and in mother-child families with no father present in the home. From the perspective of children and their parents, a fundamental cause driving these seemingly disparate changes was the desire of parents to improve, maintain, or regain their relative social and economic status compared with other families, when confronted with changing and often uncertain, difficult, or precarious social and economic conditions.

## THE REVOLUTIONARY RISE IN FATHER'S NON-FARM WORK

From the beginning of U.S. history, agriculture and the two-parent farm family were primary forms of economic production and family organization. Once it began, the shift away from farming to the nonfarm, father-as-breadwinner, mother-as-homemaker system of family organization was very rapid.

Figure 18 shows that a large majority of children, nearly 70 percent, lived in two-parent farm families in 1830, but by 1930 this had dropped to a minority of less than 30 percent. During the same 100 years, children living in nonfarm families with breadwinner fathers and homemaker mothers jumped from only 15 percent to a majority of 55 percent.

**Figure 18. PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN AGE 0-17 IN FARM FAMILIES, FATHER AS BREADWINNER FAMILIES, AND DUAL-EARNER FAMILIES: 1790 - 1989**




Note: estimates for 10 yr. intervals to 1980, and for 1989.

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, p. 103.

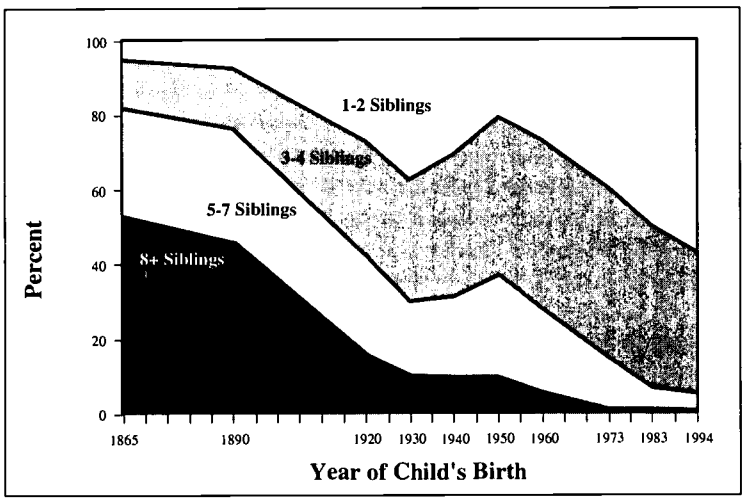
This represented a historically unprecedented transformation in the nature of childhood, away from two-parent families where family members worked side-by-side to sustain themselves in small farming communities, to two-parent families that lived in urban areas or cities with fathers who spent much of the day away from home to earn income required to support the family, while mothers remained in the home to care for their children and perform domestic functions.

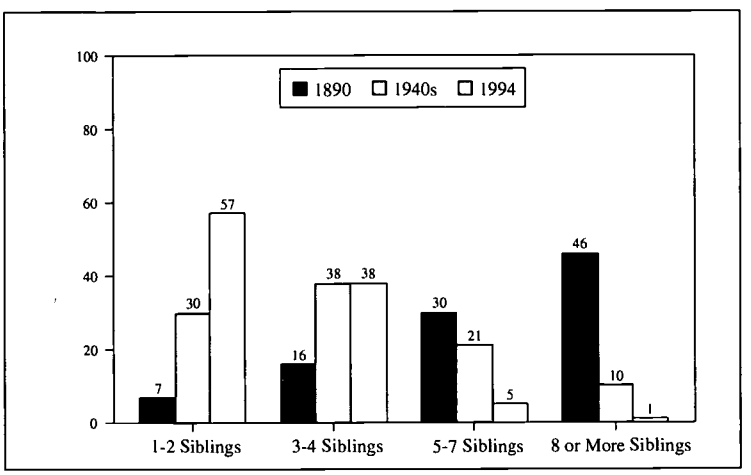
## THE REVOLUTIONARY DECLINE IN LARGE FAMILIES

This enormous shift out of farming to an urban life with fathers as the sole family breadwinner was accompanied by a revolutionary decline in large families. Figure 19 shows that 82 percent of adolescents born in 1865 lived in families with 5 children or more, but this fell to only 30 percent for those born in 1930. During these same 65 years, smaller families with only 1-4 children more than tripled from 18 percent to 70 percent. As a result the median number of siblings in the families of adolescents dropped by almost two-thirds, from 7.3 siblings to only 2.6 siblings per family.

This represented a complete transformation from a situation in which a majority of children were competing with at least 6 other siblings for their parents' time and economic resources, to a situation where nearly 60 percent of children either were only children, or they had only 1-2 other siblings in the home.

### Figure 19. ACTUAL AND EXPECTED SIBSIZES FOR ADOLESCENTS BORN 1865 - 1994




Note: Based on birth expectations after 1965.
Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

## THE REVOLUTIONARY RISE IN EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENTS

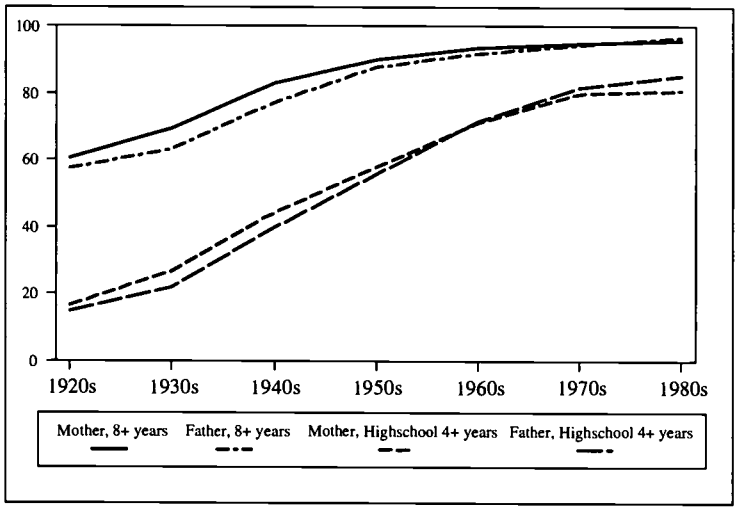
A third revolutionary change in children's lives occurred during the same era. School enrollment of children increased enormously, producing corresponding increases in educational attainments for children and for parents.

Between 1870 and 1940, school enrollment rates jumped sharply from about 50 percent for children age 5-19, to 95 percent for children age 7-13, and to 79 percent for children age 14-17. During the same time, among enrolled students, the number of days spent in school doubled, jumping from 21 percent of the total days in the year in 1870 to 42 percent of the days in the year in 1940. By 1940, then, school days accounted for 59 percent of all the non-weekend days in the year (Hernandez, 1993, pp. 146-148).

As more and more children 6 years and older spent larger and larger portions of the year in school, that is, in a formal educational setting, they also were spending less and less time at home with their parents. By 1940, 95 percent of children aged 7-13 were spending 5-6 hours per day in school, for 59 percent of all their non-weekend days. This represented a profound change in how children age 6 and above spent much of their waking time.

Since the children of today are the parents of tomorrow, this enormous increase in schooling also led, in due course, to corresponding increases in parents' education (Figure 20). Hence, among adolescents born in the 1940s, 77 percent had fathers with 8 or more years of schooling, and 39 percent had fathers who had completed at least 4 years of high school. Even larger, 83 percent had mothers with 8 or more years of schooling, and 44 percent had mothers completing at least 4 years of high school.

**Figure 20. PROPORTION OF CHILDREN BORN BETWEEN 1920s AND 1980s WHOSE PARENTS HAVE SPECIFIED EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT**




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

## WHY THE REVOLUTIONS IN FATHER'S WORK, FAMILY SIZE, AND SCHOOLING?

Why did these revolutions in father's work, family size, and schooling occur between the mid-to-late 1800s and 1930 or 1940? This question might be answered in many ways, but this section offers an explanation taking the viewpoint of children and their parents as the central organizing feature. The question then can be posed in the following way.

First, why did parents move from farms to urban areas where fathers could obtain jobs outside the farm sector of the economy? Second, why did parents drastically restrict their childbearing to a small number of children? Third, why did parents send their children to school to achieve increasingly high educational attainments? A single underlying force can be seen as motivating parents to pursue all three courses of action — the desire to improve, maintain, or regain the relative social and economic status of themselves and their children compared to other families, when confronted with changing and often uncertain, difficult, or precarious social and economic conditions.

The first question is "Why did parents move from farms to urban areas? The reason is that the shift from farming to urban occupations was typically required to achieve an improved relative economic status, or to keep from losing (too much) ground compared to others. The incomes provided by urban jobs were higher than the incomes that many people could earn through farming. Of course in some cases, the economic situation of families in rural areas was extremely precarious; and in such situations even poorly paid or dangerous jobs in urban areas might appear attractive compared to a rural situation with no employment and no source of economic support. In short, a fundamental cause of the massive migration from farms to urban areas was the comparatively favorable economic opportunities in urban areas.

This leads to the second question. Why did parents drastically restrict their childbearing to a small number of children? The shift from farming to urban areas meant that housing, food, clothing and other necessities had to be purchased with cash, making the costs of supporting each additional child increasingly apparent. At the same time, the potential economic contribution children could make to their parents and families was sharply reduced by the passage of laws restricting child labor and mandating compulsory education.

Also at the same time, as economic growth led to increases in the quality and quantity of available consumer products and services, expected consumption standards rose, and individuals were required to spend more money simply to maintain the new "normal" standard of living. Hence, the costs of supporting each additional child at a "normal" level increased as time passed.

In addition, newly available goods and services competed with children for parental time and money. Since each additional child in a family requires additional financial support and makes additional demands on parents' time and attention, the birth of each child reduces the time and money parents can devote to their own work or careers as well as to recreation and to older children.



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## WHY THE REVOLUTIONS IN FATHER'S WORK, FAMILY SIZE, AND SCHOOLING? (continued)

As a result, more and more parents limited their family size to a comparatively small number of children, so that available income could be spread less thinly.

This leads to the third question. Why did parents send their children to school to achieve increasingly high educational attainments? At one level, as farming was overshadowed by the industrial economy and family size was shrinking, school enrollment increased because of the efforts of labor unions to ensure jobs for adults (mainly fathers) by limiting child labor, and because of the efforts of the child welfare movement to obtain the passage of laws protecting children from unsafe and unfair working conditions. These movements also achieved corresponding success in gaining the passage of compulsory education laws, through which the government both mandated and paid for essentially universal schooling.

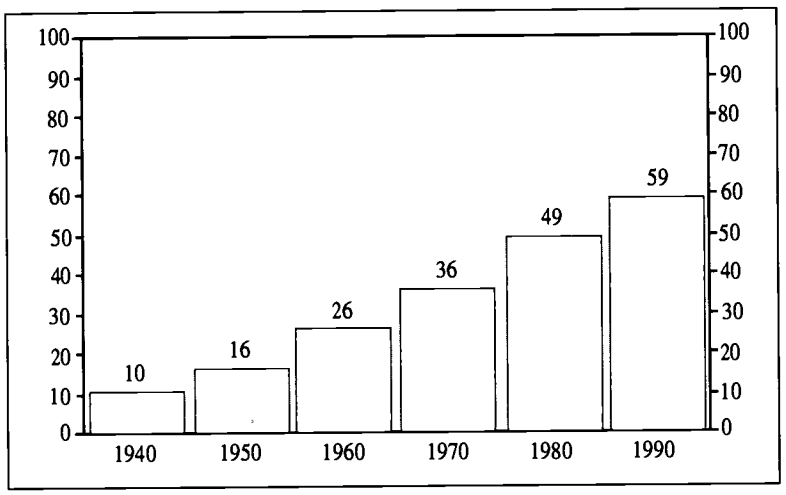
But in addition, as time passed, higher educational attainments became increasingly necessary to obtain jobs that offered higher incomes and greater prestige. Hence, parents encouraged and fostered higher educational attainments among their children as a path for children to achieve occupational and economic success in adulthood, that is, so that their children might improve their relative social and economic standing, compared to others in the children's own generation.

## THE REVOLUTIONARY RISE IN MOTHER'S LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

After 1940, two additional revolutions in children's families began. First was the explosion in mother's employment outside the home. Figure 21 shows that only 10 percent of children in 1940 lived with a mother who was in the labor force (employed plus unemployed in Table 18). This increased by 6 percentage points during the 1940s, and then by at least 10 percentage points during each of the next four decades. By 1990, nearly 60 percent of children had a working mother, a six-fold increase in fifty years.

Just as children in an earlier era experienced a massive movement by fathers out of the family home to work at jobs in the urban-industrial economy, children since the Great Depression have experienced a massive movement by mothers into the paid labor force.

Figure 21. PROPORTION OF CHILDREN WITH MOTHERS IN THE LABOR FORCE: 1940 - 1990




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

Both of these revolutions in parents' work brought enormous changes in the day-to-day lives of children. As fathers entered the urban labor force, children age 6 and over entered schools and spent increasing proportions of their lives in formal educational settings. Now, as mothers are entering the labor force, children under age 6 are spending increasing amounts of time in the care of someone other than their parents.

The revolution in mother's work is occurring twice as fast as the revolution in father's work, however. The decline for children in the two-parent farm family from 60 percent to 10 percent required the 100 years from 1860 to 1960 (Figure 18). But the corresponding rise in working mothers from 10 percent to 60 percent required only the 50 years from 1940 to 1990 (Figure 21).

## WHY THE REVOLUTION IN MOTHER'S LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION?

What caused the profound increase in mother's labor force participation after 1940? Much of the answer lies in the historic changes that occurred in the family and economy. As suggested earlier, between the early days of the Industrial Revolution and about 1940, many parents had three major avenues for maintaining, improving, or regaining their relative economic standing compared with other families.

First, they could move off the farm and have the husband work in comparatively well-paid jobs in the growing urban-industrial economy. Second, they could limit themselves to a smaller number of children so that available family income could be spread less thinly, compared to families with larger numbers of children. Third, they could increase their educational attainments.

By 1940, however, only 23 percent of Americans lived on farms, and 70 percent of parents had only 1-2 dependent children in the home. Consequently, for many parents, these two historical avenues for maintaining, improving, or regaining their relative economic standing had run their course. In addition, since most persons achieve their ultimate educational attainments by age 25, additional schooling beyond age 25 is often difficult or impractical.

With these avenues to improving their family's relative economic status effectively closed for a large majority of parents after age 25, a fourth major avenue to improving family income emerged between 1940 and 1960, namely, paid work by wives and mothers, because the traditional sources of female nonfarm labor, that is, unmarried women, were either stationary or in the process of declining in size, while the demand for female workers was increasing (Oppenheimer, 1970).

Meanwhile, mothers also were becoming increasingly available and increasingly well-qualified for work outside the home. By 1940, the historically unprecedented increase in children's school enrollment had effectively released mothers from personal child-care responsibilities for a time period equivalent to about two-thirds of the hours in an adult work-day for about two-thirds of a full-time adult work-year, except for the few years before children entered elementary school. In addition, many women were highly educated, since the educational attainments of women and mothers had increased along with those of men. By 1940 young women were more likely than young men to graduate from high school, and they were about two-thirds as likely to graduate from college.

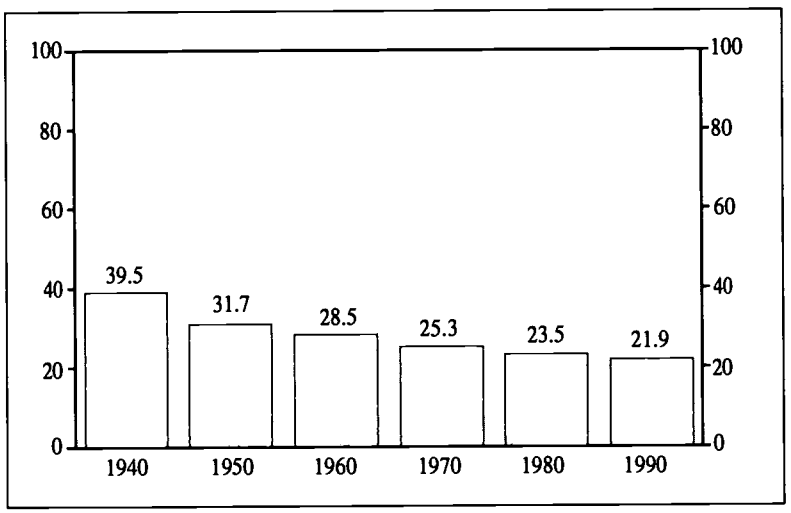
Paid work outside the home for mothers was becoming increasingly attractive in our competitive, consumption-oriented society for another reason. For example, families in which husband's income was comparatively low could, by virtue of the wives' work, jump economically ahead of families in which the husbands had the same occupational status but lacked a working wife. Similarly, families of young men with low relative incomes could, by virtue of wives' work, jump economically ahead of both other young families and older families that had no working wife. But this in turn placed families with comparatively well-paid husbands at a disadvantage, which made their wives' work more attractive (Oppenheimer, 1982).

In addition, with the historic rise in divorce, which is discussed below, paid work became increasingly attractive to mothers as a hedge against the possible economic disaster of losing most or all of their husbands' income through divorce.

Immediate economic insecurity and need, associated with father's lack of access to full-time employment, also made mothers' work attractive. Figure 22 shows that 40 percent of children in the Great Depression year of 1940 lived with fathers who did not work year-round full-time (Table 18). While this proportion declined after the Great Depression, it has continued at high levels. In 1950 and 1960, 29-32 percent of children lived with fathers who did not work year-round full-time.

Even with the subsequent expansion in mother-only families with no father present in the home, which is discussed below, the proportion of all children living with fathers who did not work year-round full-time was 22-25 percent during the past two decades. Throughout the era since the Great Depression, then, at least one-fifth of children have lived with fathers who, during any given year, experienced part-time work or joblessness. This has been a powerful incentive for many mothers to work for pay.

Figure 22. PROPORTION OF CHILDREN LIVING WITH A FATHER WHO WORKS LESS THAN FULL-TIME YEAR-ROUND: 1940 - 1990




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

## WHY THE REVOLUTION IN MOTHER'S LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION? (continued)

The importance of sheer economic necessity in fostering the growth in mother's employment is reflected in the following fact. As of 1988, 1 out of every 8 American children in two-parent families either would have been living in official poverty if their mothers had not worked, or they remained in official poverty despite their mother's paid employment.

Of course, the desire to maintain, improve, or regain their family's relative social and economic status is not the only reason that wives and mothers enter the labor force. Additional reasons to work include the personal non-financial rewards of the job itself, the opportunity to be productively involved with other adults, and the satisfactions associated with having a career in a high-prestige occupation. Nonetheless, for many mothers economic insecurity and need provide a powerful incentive to work for pay.

Finally, all these inducements for mothers to enter the labor force after 1940 existed in the presence of the fact that at age 25 young women still have a potential of about 40 years when they might work for pay in the labor force.

In short, a revolutionary increase in mothers' labor force participation occurred during the past half-century for the following reasons. By 1940 many mothers were potentially available for work, and mothers' work had become the only major avenue available to most couples over age 25 who sought to maintain, improve, or regain their relative social and economic status compared to other families. After 1940, not only was there an increasing economic demand for married women to enter the labor force, there also were increases among married women in the attractions of work and the economic need to work.

## THE REVOLUTIONARY RISE IN MOTHER-ONLY FAMILIES

Twenty years after the beginning of this profound increase in mother's work, yet another unparalleled change in family life began, namely, an unprecedented increase in mother-only families where the father was not present in the home.

Figure 9 shows there was a remarkably steady eight-fold increase in divorce rates between the 1860s and 1960s (Table 8). Three noteworthy, but short-lived interruptions occurred in conjunction with the world wars and the Great Depression. Why did this historic long-term increase occur? On preindustrial farms, fathers and mothers had to work together to sustain the family, but with a nonfarm job, the father could, if he desired, depend on his own work alone for his income. He could leave his family, but take his income with him. At the same time, in moving to urban areas, husbands and wives left behind the rural small-town social controls that once censured divorce.

More recently, with the revolutionary post-1940 increase in mothers' labor force participation, the economic interdependence of husbands and wives was weakened further. A mother with a job could, if she desired, depend on her work alone for her income. She could separate or divorce the father, and take her income with her.

In addition, economic insecurity and need associated with erratic or limited employment prospects for many men also contributed to increasing divorce rates, as well as to out-of-wedlock childbearing. Regarding divorce, Glen Elder and his colleagues (Liker and Elder, 1983; Elder, Foster, and Conger, 1990, Conger, et al, 1990) have shown that instability in husbands' work, drops in family income, and a low ratio of family income-to-needs lead to increased hostility between husbands and wives, decreased marital quality, and increased risk of divorce. In fact, each of the three economic recessions between 1970 and 1982 led to a substantially larger increase in mother-only families for children than did the preceding non-recessionary period.

A rough estimate of the size of this recession effect for children has been developed by assuming that, without each recession, the average annual increase in mother-only families would have been the same during recession years as during the immediately preceding non-recessionary period. The results suggest that recessions account for about 30 percent of the overall increase in mother-only families between 1968 and 1988, or for about 50 percent of the increase in mother-only families with separated or divorced mothers (Hernandez, 1993, pp 389-391).

Since 70 percent of the increase in mother-only families for white children between 1960 and 1988 can be accounted for by the rise in separation and divorce, these explanations may account for much of the rise in mother-only families for white children during these decades (Table 19).

Between 1940 and 1960, black children experienced much larger increases than white children in the proportion living in a mother-only family with a divorced or separated mother. But, especially since 1970, black children also have experienced extremely large increases in the proportion in mother-only families with a never-married mother.

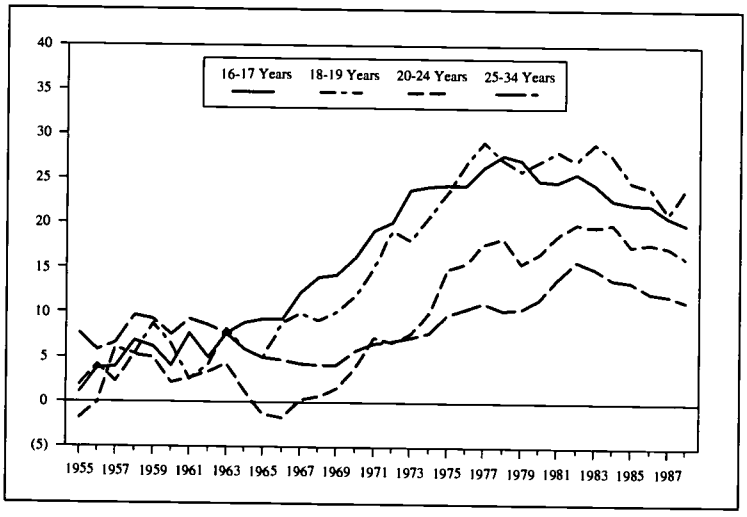
## THE REVOLUTIONARY RISE IN MOTHER-ONLY FAMILIES (continued)

Without going into great detail here, Hernandez (1993, pp.397-399) argues that the factors leading to increased separation and divorce among whites were also important for blacks, but that the startling drop in the proportion of blacks living on farms between 1940 and 1960, from 44 percent in 1940 to only 11 percent in 1960, and the extraordinary economic pressures and hardships faced by black families may account for much of the much higher proportion of black children than white children who lived in mother-only families.

In addition, drawing upon the work of William Julius Wilson (1987), as shown in Figure 23, Hernandez calculated that the extent to which joblessness of young black men aged 16-24 exceeded joblessness among young white men expanded from almost negligible in 1955 to 15-25 percentage points by 1975-1989. Faced with this large and rapid reduction in the availability of black men during the main family-building ages who might provide significant support to a family, many young black women appear to have decided to forgo a temporary and unrewarding marriage — in fact, a marriage in which a jobless or poorly-paid husband might act as a financial drain.

The size of this increased racial gap in joblessness is at least two-thirds the size of the 23 percentage point increase that occurred between 1960 and 1988 in the racial gap in the proportion of children living in mother-only families with never-married mothers. Consequently, the increasing racial gap in joblessness may well be the major cause of the increasing racial gap in the proportion of children living in mother-only families with never-married mothers.

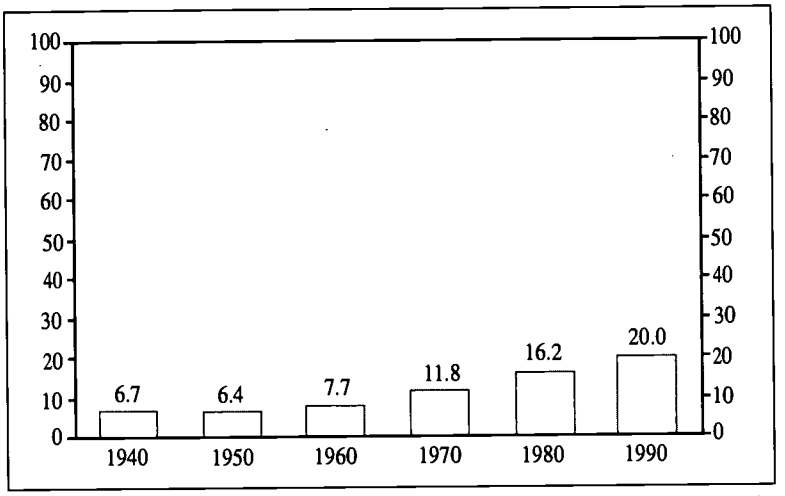
**Figure 23. PERCENTAGE POINTS BY WHICH WHITE MALE EMPLOYMENT EXCEEDS BLACK MALE EMPLOYMENT: 1955 - 1988**




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y.

As a result of sharp increases in divorce and out-of-wedlock childbearing, Figure 24 shows that the proportion of children living with their mother, but no father in the home, about tripled from 6-8 percent between 1940 and 1960 to 20 percent in 1990. By 1990, children in mother-only families were about twice as likely to live with a divorced or separated mother as with a never-married mother. Hence separation and divorce account for about two-thirds of children living in mother-only families, and out-of-wedlock childbearing accounts for about one-third of children living in mother-only families.

**Figure 24. PROPORTION OF CHILDREN LIVING WITH MOTHER ONLY: 1940 - 1990**




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

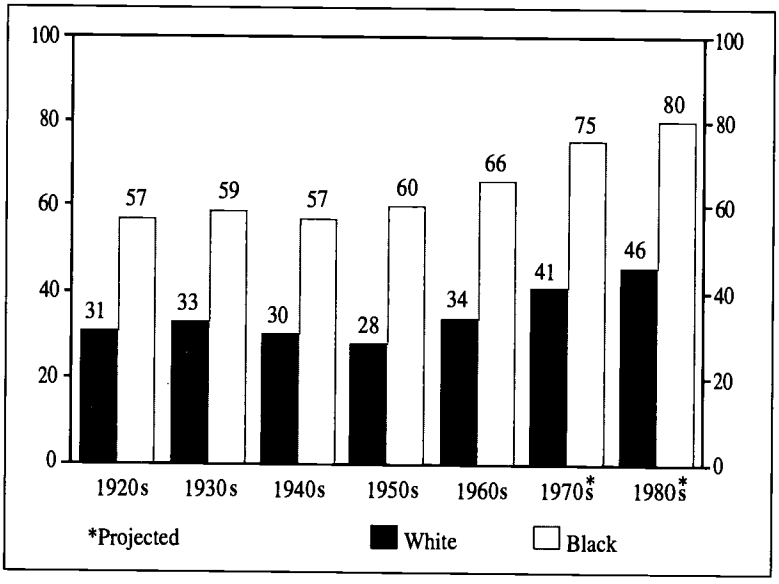
## HISTORIC EXPERIENCE WITH ONE-PARENT FAMILIES

It was not until after 1960, however, that historic increases in divorce led to increases in children living with one parent. The reason is that historic increases in divorce were simply counter-balancing historic declines in parents' death rates. Both historically and today, however, large proportions of children spend at least part of their childhood with fewer than two parents in the home, because of their parent's death, divorce, or out-of-wedlock childbearing.

Figure 25 shows for white children born between 1920 and 1960, for example, that a large minority of 28-34 percent spent part of their childhood living with fewer than two parents. In addition, this proportion was about constant for white children born between the late 1800s and 1920, since the historic decline in parental mortality was counter-balanced by the historic increase in divorce during the 100 years spanning the mid 1860s to the mid 1960s. Projections indicate, however, that the proportion ever spending time in a family with fewer than two parents will increase to about 50 percent for white children born since 1980.

Among black children born between 1920 and 1950, an enormous 55-60 percent spent part of their childhood living with fewer than two parents, and, again, additional evidence indicates that this proportion was roughly the same for black children born since the late 1800s. Projections indicate that this will rise to about 80 percent for black children born since 1980.

**Figure 25. WHITE AND BLACK CHILDREN EVER LIVING WITH FEWER THAN TWO PARENTS BY AGE 17: 1920S - 1980S COHORTS**




Note: 1970 and 1980 are projected.

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

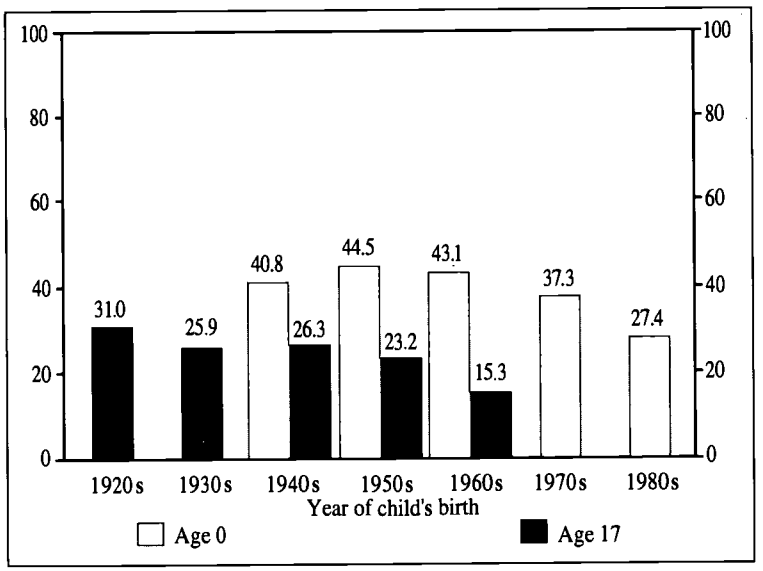
## THE MYTH OF THE "OZZIE AND HARRIET FAMILY"

What do these results about insecurity in father's employment, increases in mother's employment, and parental presence in the home imply for the family situation of children? One extremely important implication is that never since at least the Great Depression have a majority of children lived in the idealized family situation where the father worked full-time year-round, the mother was a full-time homemaker, and all the children were born after the parents' only marriage (Table 18).

In the 1950s, the "Ozzie and Harriet" television program portrayed the idealized urban American family in which the father was a full-time year-round worker, the mother was a full-time homemaker without a paid job, and all the children were born after the parents' only marriage.

As Figure 26 shows, even among newborn children under age 1, a majority since 1940 have not begun life in an "Ozzie and Harriet" family. Since at least the Great Depression, even for newborn children, the mid-twentieth century ideal of family living has been a myth. For any single year, the reality has been that more than one-half of children were born into families that did not conform to this ideal, because the father worked less than full-time year-around, because the mother was engaged in paid employment, or because not all of the children were born after the parents' only marriage.

**Figure 26. CHILDREN IN OZZIE AND HARRIET FAMILIES AT AGES 0 AND 17 FOR 1920s - 1980s COHORTS**




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.



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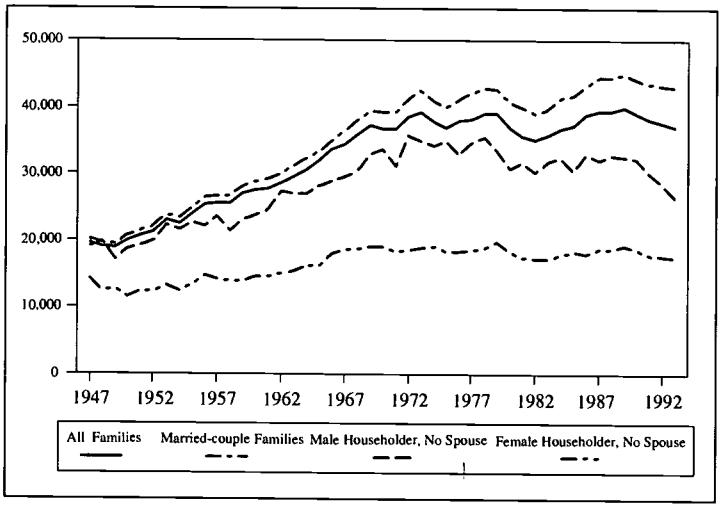
## FAMILY INCOME AND POVERTY

As the historic revolutions in father's work, family size, and men's educational attainments drew to a close in the early 1970s, and as the post-1940 revolutions in mothers' work and mother-only families proceeded, what changes occurred in income and poverty? Briefly, the answer is as follows.

Figure 27 shows that median family income more than doubled during the 26 years from 1947 to 1973. But twenty years later in 1993, median family income was at exactly the same level as in 1973, despite the enormous jump in mothers' labor force participation.

Turning to poverty, because of the enormous increase in real income and the real standard of living between 1940 and 1973, social perceptions about income levels that were "normal" and "adequate" changed substantially. The relative nature of judgments about what income level is adequate or inadequate has been noted for at least 200 years. In the *Wealth of Nations*, for example, Adam Smith (1776) emphasized that poverty must be defined in comparison to contemporary standards of living. He defined economic hardship as the experience of being unable to consume commodities that "the custom of the country renders it indecent for creditable people, even of the lowest order, to be without."

**Figure 27. MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME, BY TYPE OF FAMILY: 1947 - 1993 (In 1993 dollars) (thousands of dollars)**



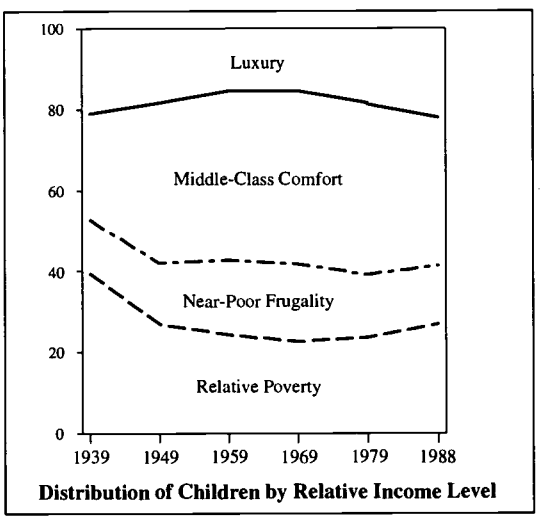

Source: ISBPL-2, "Income Summary Measures for Families in the United States: 1947 to 1993," Table F-7, Income Statistics Branch, Housing and Household Economic Statistics Division, U.S. Bureau of the Census, May 8, 1995.

More recently, John Kenneth Galbraith (1958, pp 323-324) also argued that "(p)eople are poverty-stricken when their income, even if adequate for survival, falls markedly behind that of the community. Then they cannot have what the larger community regards as the minimum necessary for decency; and they cannot wholly escape, therefore, the judgment of the larger community that they are indecent. They are degraded for, in a literal sense, they live outside the grades or categories which the community regards as respectable."

Based on these insights, and Lee Rainwater's (1974) comprehensive review of existing U.S. studies and his own original research, as well as additional literature, Hernandez (1993) developed a measure of relative poverty relying on poverty thresholds set at 50 percent of median family income in specific years, and adjusted for family size.

Figure 28 shows that the relative poverty rate among children dropped sharply after the Great Depression from 38 to 27 percent between 1939 and 1949. The 1950s and 1960s brought an additional decline of 4 percentage points, but by 1988 the relative poverty rate for children had returned to the comparatively high level of 27 percent that children had experienced almost 40 years earlier in 1949.

**Figure 28. CHILDREN BY RELATIVE INCOME LEVELS: 1939 - 1988 (Distribution of Children by Relative Income Level)**



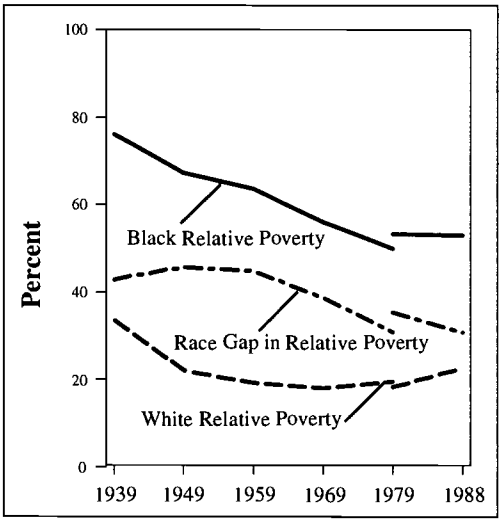

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

The pattern of change was somewhat different for whites and blacks, and the racial gap has been and continues to be enormous. In 1939, 76 percent of black children lived in relative poverty, compared with 33 percent of white children, for a large racial gap of 43 percentage points (Figure 29). Since 89 percent of blacks lived in slavery in 1860 (Farley and Allen, 1987, p. 13), it appears that compared with subsequent decades, relatively little improvement had occurred in the relative economic status of blacks between the Civil War and the Great Depression. After the Great Depression, black children shared in the general economic boom but by 1959 the racial gap in relative poverty rates for children was the same as it had been in 1939 (at 44 percentage points), and the proportion of black children living in relative poverty remained extremely large at 63 percent compared with 19 percent for white children.

## FAMILY INCOME AND POVERTY (continued)

Between 1959 and 1979, the relative poverty rate for black children continued to fall. Combined with the slight decline and subsequent turnaround in relative poverty experienced by white children, the racial gap finally narrowed during these decades. But the racial gap in relative poverty rates for children remained quite large (30-35 percentage points in 1979), and about 50-53 percent of black children still lived in relative poverty (more than two and one-half times the rate for white children).

### Figure 29. PERCENTAGE OF WHITE AND BLACK CHILDREN IN RELATIVE POVERTY, AND RACE GAP: 1939 - 1988




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

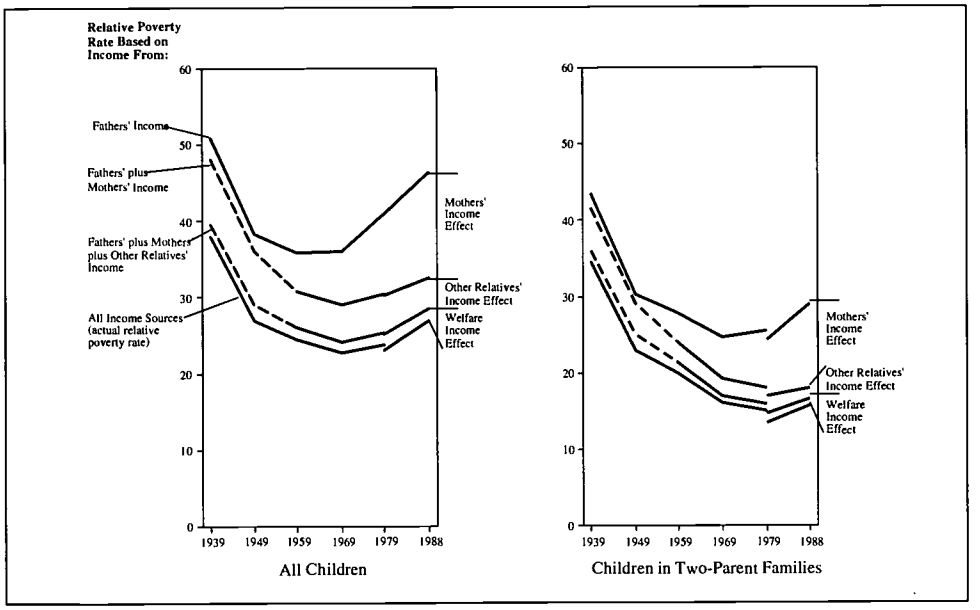
Despite the improvements experienced by both black and white children after the Great depression, the 1970s marked the beginning of a new era in childhood poverty. For white children the relative poverty rate increased during the 1970s and 1980s, and by 1988 it had returned to a level not experienced since the 1940s. For black children, the decline in the relative poverty rate continued during the 1970s. But during the 1980s, the relative poverty rate for black children as a whole appears to have remained stable, and by 1988 it remained at an extraordinary level compared with whites, 52 percent—approximately 19 percentage points larger than the relative poverty rate for white children during the Great Depression year of 1939.

## ACCOUNTING FOR POVERTY CHANGE

To what extent can these changes in childhood relative poverty be accounted for by changes in income provided by fathers, mothers, and family members other than parents in the homes of children, and to what extent can they be accounted for by changes in income received from government welfare programs? Figure 30 provides an answer to these questions, both for children as a whole, and for children in two-parent families.

Figure 30 shows several hypothetical relative poverty rates. The top line shows what the relative poverty rate would have been for children, if only the income of fathers in the home had been available. The second line from the top shows what the relative poverty rate would have been for children, if only the income of fathers and mothers in the home had been available. The third line from the top shows what the relative poverty rate would have been for children, if only the income of fathers, mothers, and other relatives in the home had been available. Finally, the fourth shows the actual relative poverty rate including the income of all relatives in the home, and income received from the welfare programs of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) and Social Security.

**Figure 30. RELATIVE POVERTY RATES AND EFFECTS OF PARENT'S INCOME AND GOVERNMENT WELFARE: 1939 - 1988**




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

The top line in each half of Figure 30 shows the following. If children had available only the income from fathers living in the home, then the relative poverty rate would have fallen sharply during the 1940s, much more slowly or not at all during the 1950s and 1960s, and it would have increased substantially during the 1970s and 1980s.

## ACCOUNTING FOR POVERTY CHANGE (continued)

The difference between the two top lines shows the additional effect of income from mothers living in the homes of children. The results show that increasing mother's labor force participation acted to speed the decline in relative poverty that occurred during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s, and that it tended to slow the subsequent increase in relative poverty that occurred during the 1970s and 1980s.

In fact by 1988, 14 percent of all children depended on their mother's income to lift them out of relative poverty, and 11 percent of children in two-parent families depended on mother's income to life them out of relative poverty.

The difference between the second and third lines from the top shows the additional effect of income from other relatives in the home. The results show that, except during the Great Depression year of 1939, income from relatives other than parents in the home acted to reduce the relative poverty rate by a nearly constant and comparatively small 4-5 percentage points for children as a whole, and by a nearly constant and even smaller 1-2 percentage points for children in two-parent families.

Finally, both for children as a whole and for children in two-parent families, the results indicate that the welfare programs of AFDC and Social Security acted to reduce the relative poverty rate for children by a stable and small 1-2 percentage points in any given year. Hence, the role of these welfare programs in reducing relative poverty among children has been quite limited throughout the era since the Great Depression.

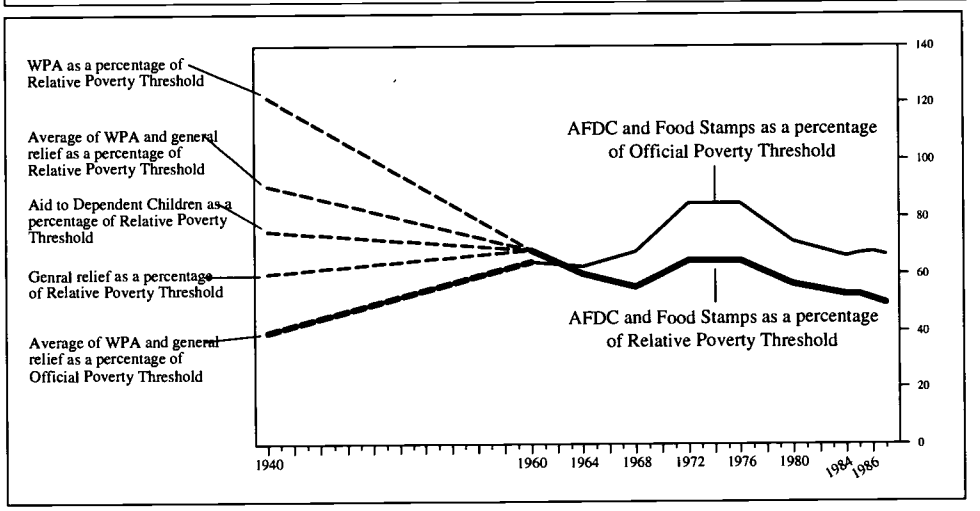
## THE RELATIVE VALUE OF WELFARE BENEFITS

A key reason that the welfare programs of AFDC and Social Security have had a only a small and nearly stable effect on relative poverty rates of children since the Great Depression is that the benefit levels of welfare programs have been well below 50 percent of median family income throughout the era, that is, well below the relative poverty threshold throughout the era.

Combining the cash value of AFDC and Food Stamps, for example, as of 1960 the value of benefits from these two welfare programs was equal to only 64 percent of the official poverty threshold and 68 percent of the relative poverty threshold (Figure 31). Between 1960 and 1972, the value of these benefits as a proportion of the official poverty threshold increased sharply, but as a proportion of the relative poverty threshold their value declined sharply between 1960 and 1968, and the subsequent sharp increase did not offset the earlier decline. The reason for the remarkable differences between these trends is that the American family experienced a large 40 percent increase in median income between 1960 and 1972. Hence, during these 12 years, the combined value of AFDC and Food Stamps increased by 20.7 percentage points as a proportion of the official poverty threshold, but it declined by 3.7 percentage points as a proportion of the relative poverty threshold.

During the subsequent 15 years from 1972 to 1987, sharp declines occurred in both the absolute and relative value of AFDC and Food Stamps. By 1987, the absolute value of these benefits had fallen to nearly the level of 1960, while their value as a proportion of the relative poverty threshold had fallen (by a large 18.4 percentage points) to only 50 percent of the relative poverty threshold.

**Figure 31. VALUE OF AFDC AND FOOD STAMPS WELFARE PROGRAMS AS PERCENTAGE OF RELATIVE AND OFFICIAL POVERTY THRESHOLDS: 1940 - 1987**




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

## THE RELATIVE VALUE OF WELFARE BENEFITS

Even at their peak value in the 1970s, AFDC and Food Stamps together provided an income equal to only about 84 percent of the official poverty threshold and 64 percent of the relative poverty threshold, and by 1987 their combined value had fallen to only 67 and 50 percent of the official and relative thresholds, respectively. Hence, since at least 1959, a family that depended only on these welfare programs for support would, despite changes in benefit levels, have lived substantially below the relative and official poverty thresholds.

Figure 31 also presents crude estimates (for 1940) of the relative value of three different welfare programs that span virtually the entire range of benefit levels of various welfare programs of the time. The results indicate that the General Relief program, the Aid to Dependent Children (ADC) program, and the Work Projects Administration (WPA) program provided incomes that were equal, respectively, to about 60, 75, and 122 percent of the relative poverty threshold for 1940.

The relative value of ADC benefits in 1940, then, was probably somewhat more than the relative value of benefits in its successor program, AFDC, 20 years later in 1960. WPA employment benefits had a value that was about 1.6 to 2.0 times as large as the ADC and General Relief benefits. These comparative benefit values are consistent with the ideas that WPA employment income "was intended to provide a minimum standard of living and to make other relief (welfare) unnecessary," and that it "was not to exceed the earnings paid to corresponding occupational groups in private employment" (Burns and Kerr, 1942: 713, 720). Hence, the value of WPA benefits in 1940 was somewhat above the contemporary relative poverty threshold but well below, about 39 percent below, the median family income of the time.

Since the WPA and General Relief programs were probably the two most important welfare programs from the viewpoint of children in 1940, since approximately equal numbers of persons received benefits from these programs, and since the average benefit level of these two programs was nearly the same as the average benefit level of the two next-largest welfare programs of the time, the average benefit level for all welfare programs in 1940 was roughly equal to the average of WPA and General Relief (National Resources Planning Board, 1942: p. 161, Appendix 9).

In fact, considering the entire series of estimates, the absolute measure suggests that the peak of welfare benefits probably occurred during the mid-1970s, and that the value of welfare benefits had fallen substantially by 1987, but to the comparatively high level of about 1970. The relative measure, quite the contrary, indicates that the relative value of welfare benefits may have fallen to a historic low during the late 1960s. But this was followed by an additional decline, after a sharp but brief increase during the early 1970s, to another historically low level in 1987 that was slightly more than one-half the average level of welfare benefits documented for 1940.

Taken together, these results suggest that the absolute value of welfare benefits grew greatly after 1940 but that this increase did not keep pace with the general rise in the American standard of living—except during 1968-1972—and that by 1987 the relative benefit levels of AFDC and Food Stamps were lower than they had been at any time since the Great Depression.

These results show why welfare programs, historically, had little effect on the relative poverty rate for children; the value of the benefits were not by themselves high enough to lift a family out of relative poverty. These results suggest, in addition, that welfare programs act to lift children out of relative poverty only if they are combined with other sources of income as indicated in the following three examples.

First, if children are in a family earning enough income to lift themselves out of poverty, but family members lose their jobs and turn to welfare income during a specific year, then the combined income from jobs and welfare might be enough to lift the family out of poverty. Second, if children are in a family receiving welfare, but in which family members obtain work that has an income high enough to lift the family out of poverty, then, again, the combined income from work and welfare might be enough to lift the family out of poverty. Third, if family members are working but simply do not earn enough income to lift themselves out of relative poverty, then access to some welfare income might be enough to tip the scales and lift the family out of poverty. In short, these examples suggest that most children living in families which receive welfare benefits are also often living in families which have enough income to lift themselves out of poverty only if they somehow combine welfare with work by one or more family members.

These examples also suggest an important question about the extent to which relatively poor children live in working-poor families, namely, "To what extent do children in relatively poor families live in families which are self-supporting versus welfare-dependent?" Statistics bearing on this question are presented next.

## RELATIVE POVERTY, WORK, AND WELFARE DEPENDENCE

To what extent have relatively poor children historically lived in working-poor or welfare-dependent families? It is not easy to answer this question because income questions asked in the 1940-1980 censuses and in the Current Population Survey (CPS) since 1980 have differed sometimes greatly. Table 20 presents statistics based on new procedures that are maximally comparable to offer a crude answer to this question (Hernandez, 1993, 276-280). In this table, children as classified as being at least partly welfare-dependent if at least one family member in the home received cash income from public assistance programs of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) or Social Security programs.

Estimates for 1979 from the census and CPS differ noticeable, apparently because the CPS asks more detailed income questions that yield a larger, and presumably more accurate, estimate of the number of persons receiving welfare. This census-CPS difference for 1979 suggests that census-based estimates of welfare dependence in 1959 and 1969 may also be somewhat too low. Still, decade-by-decade changes in census-based estimates between 1959 and 1979 should be accurate within a few percentage points.

The results indicate that for relatively poor children in 1939, about 60-70 percent lived in fully self-supporting families, about 10-18 percent lived in fully welfare-dependent families, and about 12-30 percent lived in working-welfare-dependent families whose income was partly earned and partly derived from welfare programs.

Hence, in 1939 about 30-40 percent of relatively poor children lived in families that were at least partly welfare-dependent. However, 17 percent of all relatively poor children lived in families in which at least one member was employed by the Work Projects Administration (WPA) and other government-sponsored "emergency work programs" that provided benefits in return for work. Consequently, perhaps as few as 15-30 percent of relatively poor children lived in families that were at least partly dependent on non-work welfare.

What changes occurred following the Great Depression, when jobs became more plentiful, and the relative poverty rate for children dropped sharply? The census-based estimates for 1959 indicate that of relatively poor children, about 70 percent lived in fully self-supporting families, and about 7 percent lived in fully welfare-dependent families. Subsequently, between 1959 and 1979, the proportion of children who lived in fully self-supporting families declined from about 70 to 50 percent; the proportion living in working-welfare-dependent families increased from 24 to 33 percent; and the proportion in fully welfare-dependent families increased from about 7 to 18 percent. Comparatively little change occurred during the 1980s.

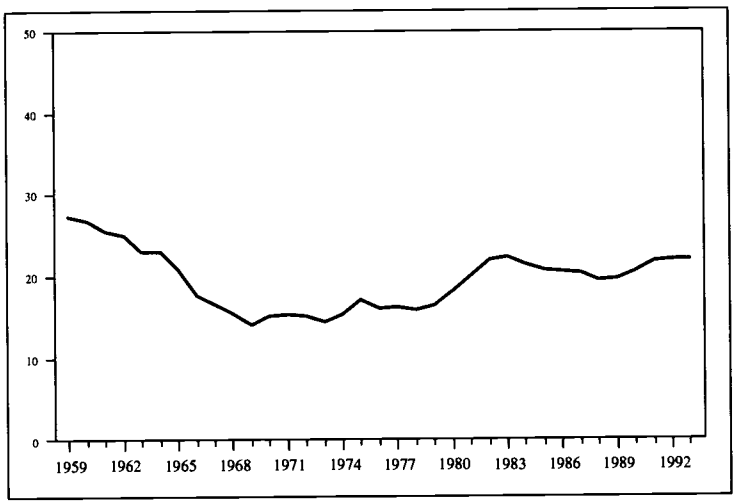
Overall, then, for the era from the Great Depression to 1988, relatively poor children have been much more likely to live in fully self-supporting families than in families fully dependent on AFDC or Social Security. The proportion of relatively poor children in fully self-supporting families declined somewhat from 60-70 percent between 1939 and 1969 to 50 percent during the 1980s, while the proportion living in fully welfare-dependent families increased from about 7 percent in 1959 to about 18 percent during the 1980s. Throughout the era since the Great Depression, then, a large minority of relatively poor children have benefited from welfare programs, yet at least one-half of relatively poor children lived in working-poor families that received no income from the AFDC or Social Security programs.

## OFFICIAL POVERTY, WORK, AND WELFARE DEPENDENCE

Despite the limitations of the official poverty measure for studying historical poverty change since the Great Depression, the estimates based on the official measure are of current interest, because this measure provides the official U.S. benchmark for poverty. (However, the National Academy of Sciences convened a "Panel on Poverty and Family Assistance: Concept, Information Needs, and Measurement Methods" which addressed, among other things, the question of how to most appropriately measure poverty in the U.S. *See* Citro and Michael, 1995.)

Beginning with the earliest estimates published by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, the official poverty rate for children dropped sharply from 27 percent in 1959 to only 14 percent in 1969 (Figure 32). But then official poverty among children increased during the 1970s and especially during the 1980s, and by 1991-1993, 23 percent lived below the official poverty thresholds.

### Figure 32. OFFICIAL POVERTY RATE FOR CHILDREN UNDER 18: 1959 - 1993



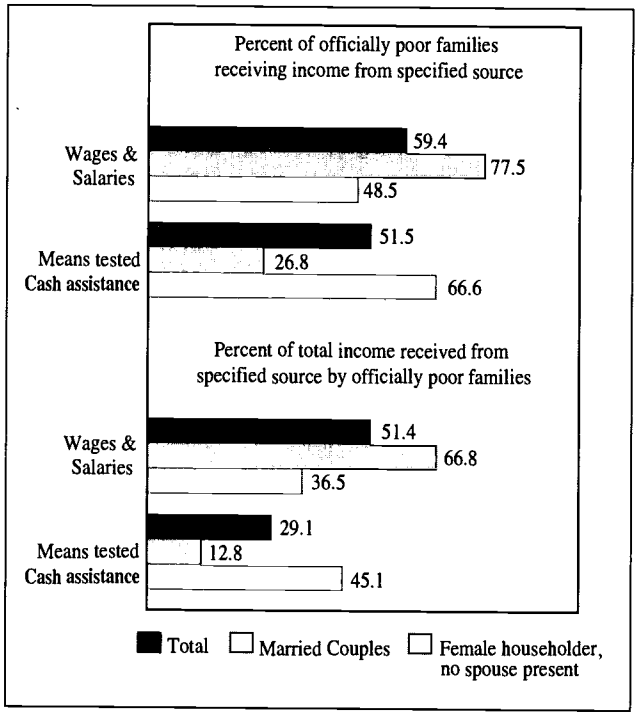

Source: POVPL1, "Poverty Statistics: 1959-1993," Poverty and Health Statistics Branch, Housing and Household Economic Statistics Division, U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1994.

Among officially poor children, as among relatively poor children, a large proportion receive no income from the welfare programs of AFDC and Social Security (Table 20). By this measure, census based-estimates for 1959 indicate that of officially poor children, about 70 percent lived in fully-self-supporting families, and about 6 percent lived in fully welfare-dependent families. Subsequently, between 1959 and 1979, the proportion of children who lived in fully self-supporting families declined from about 70 to 42 percent; the proportion living in working-welfare dependent families increased from 25 to 34 percent; and the proportion in fully welfare-dependent families increased from about 6 to 25 percent. During the 1980s, comparatively little change occurred.

## OFFICIAL POVERTY, WORK, AND WELFARE DEPENDENCE (continued)

Figure 33 focuses more narrowly only on income from wages and salaries and on means-tested cash assistance welfare programs as of 1990, and it uses families with related children as the unit of analysis. These estimates exclude income from self-employment, interest and dividends, social security, and pension, survivor, and disability income. The results show that nearly 60 percent of officially poor families have wage and salary income, nearly 80 percent for two-parent families, and nearly 50 percent for households maintained by females with no spouse present. Hence, overall, a substantial majority of poor families with children are working-poor families.

### Figure 33. INCOME FROM WAGES AND SALARIES AND FROM MEANS TESTED CASH ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS FOR FAMILIES WITH RELATED CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS LIVING IN POVERTY, BY FAMILY TYPE: 1990




Note: Means-tested income transfer programs are those which benefit only families with incomes and resources (assets) low enough to qualify.

Source: Littman, Mark S., "Poverty in the United States: 1990," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P60-175, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C., 1991.

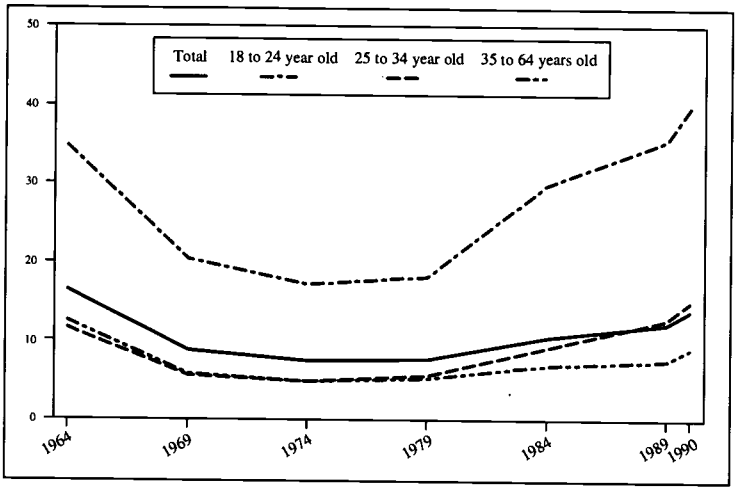
Still, many poor families were eligible to receive cash benefits from means-tested welfare programs. Among officially poor families with children, the proportion of income received from means-tested cash assistance programs was 29 percent overall, at 13 percent for two-parent families and 45 percent for families maintained by female householders. Hence, overall, about one-half of the income of poor families with children is obtained from wages and salaries, and less than one-third is obtained from means-tested cash assistance programs.

As was true with regard to the relative poverty rate for children after 1959, a comparison of changes in the actual official poverty rate and changes in the hypothetical official poverty rate based only on the income of fathers living in the home suggest that changes in fathers income have been very important in influencing poverty change for children, contributing most notably to the large official poverty increase for children after 1979, and that increases in mother's labor force participation tended to speed poverty declines, or to slow poverty increases that would have occurred if only father's incomes had been available, (Hernandez, 1993, p.374-375). Also, the additional effect of income from other relatives in the home was nearly constant at 4-5 percentage points, and the additional effect of the government welfare programs of AFDC and Social Security was comparatively small and varied between 2-3 percentage points.

## WORKING MEN WITH LOW EARNINGS

Analyses in preceding sections suggest that declines in father's incomes have contributed greatly since 1969 to increasing relative poverty and increasing official poverty among children. A recent Census Bureau report (McNeil, 1992) documented that substantial increases have occurred since the early 1970s in the extent to which men have "low earnings", that is, the extent to which the annual earnings of men are less than the official poverty level for a four-person family (Figure 34, Table 21).

### Figure 34. YEAR-ROUND FULL-TIME MALE WORKERS WITH LOW ANNUAL EARNINGS: 1964, 1969, 1974, 1979, 1984, 1989, AND 1990




Source: McNeil, John, "Workers With Low Earnings: 1964 to 1990," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P60-178, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1992.

Among all male workers, the proportion with low earnings declined from 33 percent in 1964 to 27 percent in 1969-1970. During the 1980s, the gains of the mid-1960s were lost, and by 1990, 33 percent of all male workers earned incomes too low to lift a family of four out of poverty. Among males working year-round, full-time, the changes were quite large. Between 1964 and 1974, the proportion of year-round full-time male workers with low incomes was cut in half, dropping from 17 percent to 8 percent, but most of this gain, too, was lost by 1990, when 14 percent of male, year-round full-time workers earned low incomes.

Especially striking has been the deterioration in the earnings of men who are year-round, full-time workers and who are in the main ages when children are in home. Among year-round full-time workers, the proportion with low earnings dropped for men age 18-24 from 35 to 17 percent between 1964 and 1974, but then jumped to 40 percent by 1990; the proportion with low earnings dropped for men age 25-34 from 12 to only 5 percent, but then jumped to 15 percent; and the proportion of men age 35-54 with low earnings dropped from 13 to 5 percent but then jumped to 9 percent.

The trends were similar for white and black males with year-round full-time work, but the proportion with low earnings was much higher for blacks than for whites. For white, male, year-round full-time workers, the proportion with low earnings dropped from 15 to 7 percent between 1964 and 1974, but then jumped to 13 percent by 1990. Among black, male, year-round full-time workers, the proportion with low earnings dropped from a very high 38 percent to 14 percent between 1964 and 1979, but then jumped to 22 percent by 1990. Among Hispanic origin, male, year-round full-time workers, the proportion with low earnings also jumped between 1974 and 1990, from 12 percent to 28 percent.

Finally, among husbands in married-couple families who were year-round full-time workers, the proportion with low earnings plummeted from 13 percent to 5 percent between 1964 and 1974, and then jumped to 9 percent by 1990.

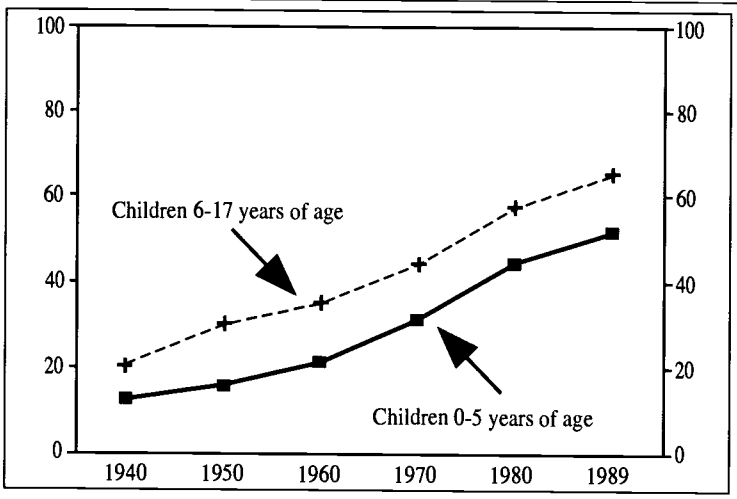
In light of the steep declines during the late 1960s in the proportion of working men and husbands who did not earn enough income to lift a family of four out of poverty, and in light of the steep increases since 1974, but especially since 1979, in the proportion of working men and husbands who did not earn enough income to lift a family of four out of poverty, it is not surprising that trends in relative and official poverty rates for children followed a similar pattern during the past quarter-century, that is, that children have experienced large increases in relative and official poverty since 1969, but especially since 1979.

## THE PRESCHOOL CHILDCARE REVOLUTION

The earlier section on the revolutionary rise educational attainments portrayed the unprecedented increase that occurred during the past 120 years in non-parental care for children age 6-17. During that period, the total time children in this age group spent in school, and hence away from the family, nearly quadrupled, as more and more fathers took jobs away from home, as school attendance became compulsory, and as affluence increased and advanced formal education became increasingly necessary for many jobs.

During the past 50 years, the proportion of younger children age 0-5 who have no specific parent at home on a full-time basis also quadrupled as more and more mothers work away from home. The large reduction in the time that mothers with school-age children need to devote to the care and supervision of their children contributed to the great expansion in mother's labor force participation after 1940. Between 1940 and 1989, the proportion of school-age children who had no specific parent at home full-time more than tripled, from 20 to 66 percent (Table 22, Figure 35).

Figure 35. CHILDREN WITH NO SPECIFIC PARENT HOME FULL-TIME BY AGE: 1940 - 89




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

The historic rise in mother's paid work was not, however, limited only to mothers with school-age children, and among preschool-age children the proportion with no specific parent at home on a full-time basis climbed from 13 to 53 percent between 1940 and 1989. Consequently, the amount of parental time that is potentially available to preschoolers had declined substantially and the need for nonparental care has increased substantially.

Despite the increasing need for non-parental care, however, the proportion of preschoolers who have a relative in the home who might act as a surrogate parent declined between 1940 and 1980, from 19-20 percent to 4-5 percent among preschoolers living in dual-earner families, and from 52-57 percent to 22-25 percent for preschoolers living in one-parent families with an employed parent (Table 23). By 1989, about 48 percent of preschoolers had a specific nonemployed parent at home full-time (usually the mother), and 12 percent had employed parents who personally provided their preschoolers' care (often by working different hours or days). An additional 15 percent of preschoolers were cared for by relatives who often did not live in the preschoolers' home; and 25 percent were cared for by nonrelatives, about half in organized care facilities such as nursery schools (Hernandez, 1993, p. 170; O'Connell and Bachu, 1990, Table C).

What are the consequences for children of these changes in parental care and nonparental care? As described in an earlier section on poverty rates among children, mother's employment has had increasingly important, beneficial effects for the family income of children.

Regarding children's development, the National Academy of Sciences' recent literature review (Hayes, Palmer, and Zaslow, 1990, p. 77) suggests that mothers' employment and nonparental care are not inherently and pervasively harmful to preschoolers; nor is nonparental care a form of maternal deprivation, since children can and do form attachments to multiple caregivers if the number of caregivers is limited, the child-caregiver relationships are long-lasting, and the caregivers are responsive to the child's needs. Available evidence also suggests that the quality of care received by children is important and that some children, especially those from low-income families, are in double jeopardy from psychological and economic stress at home as well as from exposure to low-quality nonparental child care (For a review of literature on the quality of child care, see Phillips and Howe, 1987).

Additional potentially beneficial and detrimental effects of mothers' employment and nonparental care for preschoolers have also been identified, but most of these results must be viewed as both preliminary and tentative (Hernandez, 1993, pp. 170-175). Overall, research on the consequences of nonparental care for preschoolers is in its infancy, and much remains to be done.

Since the proportion of preschoolers who had a specific parent at home on a full-time basis declined from about 79 to 48 percent in the 29 years between 1960 and 1989, it appears that we may be roughly halfway through the preschool child-care revolution and that this second child-care revolution may be complete within 30-40 years, quite possibly before we have gained a detailed understanding of the effects, or lack of effects, that nonparental care has for preschoolers.

## HOUSING FOR FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN

The housing situations of families with children differ substantially depending on the composition and income of the family. Decennial census data record that between 1890 and 1940, the percent of all housing units occupied by owners varied between 44-48 percent. After the Great Depression and World War II, the homeownership rate jumped to 55 percent in 1950, 62-63 percent in 1960 and 1970, and 64 percent in 1980. Data from the Housing Vacancy Survey, which provides a better estimate of change during the 1980s than does the decennial census because of a change in 1990 census question wording, indicates that the homeownership rate declined by about 1.8 percentage points during the 1980s, and that the decline actually occurred between 1980 and 1985. Since 1985 the homeownership rate has increased slightly.

Homeownership rates are quite different depending on the household composition, race and Hispanic origin of the residents. Seventy-four percent of married couples with children own their own home, compared to only 48 percent of families with children including two or more other adults, and only 30 percent of other families with children including only one adult (Figure 36). Homeownership rates for married-couple families with children are quite high, at 77 percent for whites, compared to only 63 percent for blacks, and 48 percent for Hispanics. Similarly, while 38 percent of white families with one adult with children are homeowners, the proportions for such black and Hispanic families are only 16 and 13 percent, respectively.



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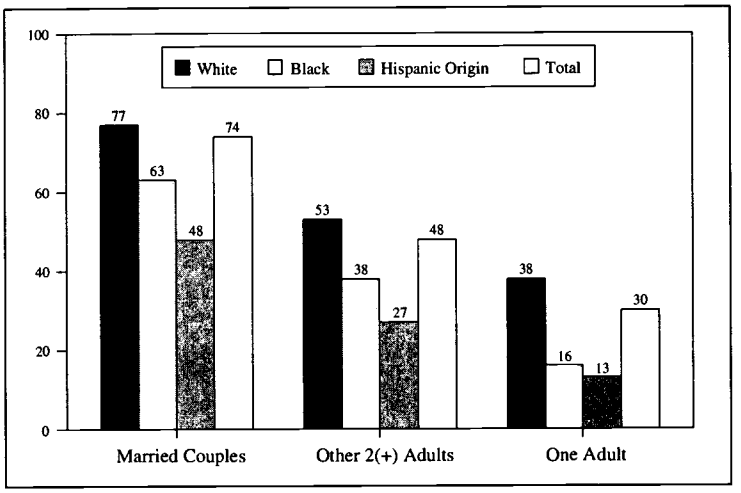
**Figure 36. HOMEOWNERSHIP RATES, HOUSEHOLDS WITH CHILDREN BY TYPE, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN OF HOUSEHOLDER: 1991**




Source: Woodward, Jeanne, "Housing America's Children in 1991," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Housing Reports, H121/93-6, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993.

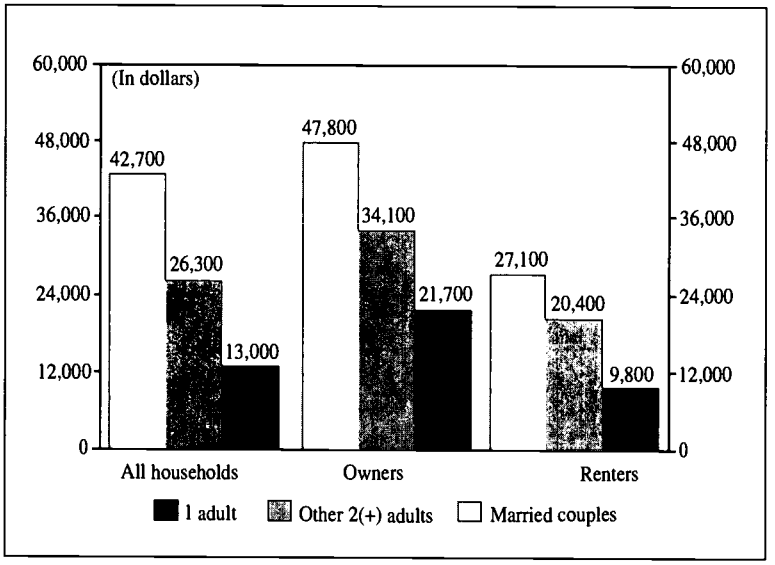
Homeowners tend to have much higher incomes than renters. For example, the median income among married couples is $47,800 for owners, compared to $27,100 for renters, and the median income for households with one adult is $21,700 for owners and $9,800 for renters (Figure 37). Similarly in married-couple families with children, among owners only 5 percent have low incomes, approximately at or below the official poverty levels, compared to 19 percent for renters, among households with children and one adult, 22 percent of owners have low incomes compared to 54 percent of renters (Figure 38).

Regarding housing quality, among households with children, homeowners are only one-half as likely as renters to report living in units with physical problems, 7 versus 13 percent, respectively, and homeowners are only one-third as likely to lived in crowded conditions with 1.01 or more persons per room, 4 versus 12 percent, respectively (Table 24).

## HOUSING FOR FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN (continued)

Most households with children have complete kitchens and complete plumbing, but 89 percent of those maintained by married couples have washing machines, 85 percent have clothes dryers, and 61 percent have dishwashers, compared to households with children and one adult for whom the proportions are 61, 50, and 33 percent, respectively (Table 25). Hence, households with children and only one adult are more likely than households with children maintained by a married-couple to have to go out of the home for laundry and to wash dishes manually. Hence, notwithstanding the smaller number of adults in the home, households with children and only one adult may have to devote more time and effort, on average, to these basic household maintenance activities than do married-couple households with children.

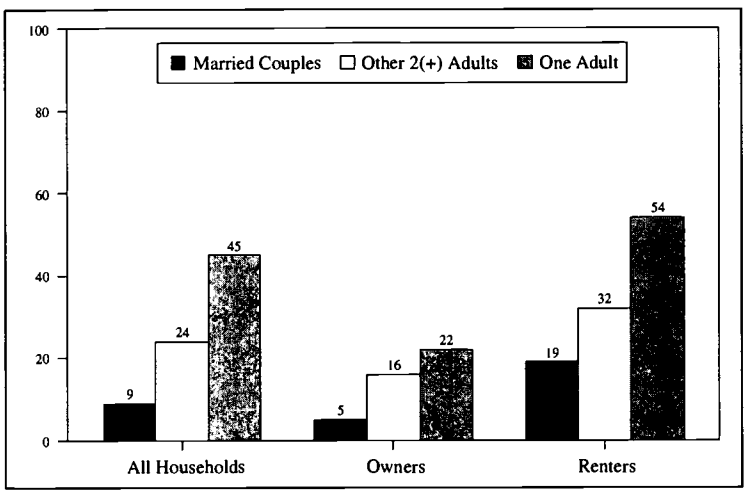
**Figure 37. MEDIAN HOUSEHOLD INCOME, HOUSEHOLDS WITH CHILDREN BY TYPE AND TENURE: 1991 (in dollars)**




Source: Woodward, Jeanne, "Housing America's Children in 1991," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Housing Reports, H121/93-6, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993.

Regarding the quality of the housing structure, the proportion of households reporting an opinion that the structure is in "good" condition ranges from 74 percent for married-couple households, to 60 percent for households with one adult. Similarly, regarding neighborhood quality, the proportion of households with children reporting an overall opinion of the neighborhood as "good" ranges from 72 percent for married-couple families to 54 percent for households with one adult (Table 26).

Figure 38. LOW-INCOME HOUSEHOLDS WITH CHILDREN BY TYPE AND TENURE: 1991

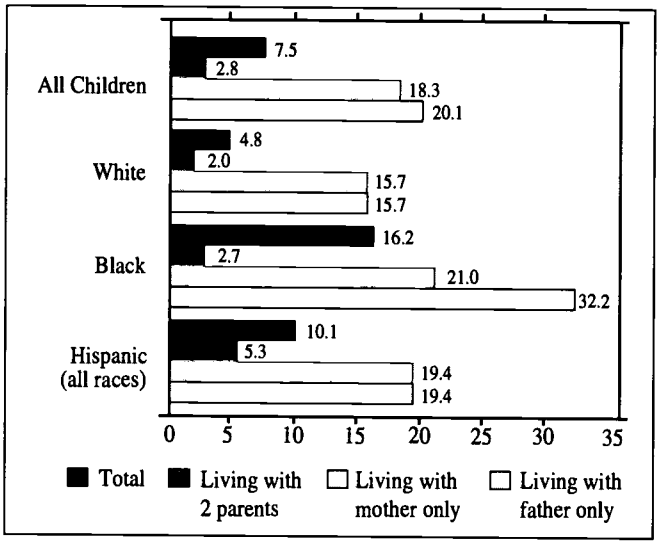



Source: Woodward, Jeanne, "Housing America's Children in 1991," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Housing Reports, H121/93-6, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993.

## CHILDREN LIVING WITH GRANDPARENTS AND IN DOUBLED-UP FAMILIES

Overall, about 8 percent of children have a grandparent in the home, but there are large differences by parental presence (Figure 39). Only 3 percent of children in two-parent families live with a grandparent, compared to 18 percent of children in mother-only families, and 20 percent living in father-only families. Despite this large difference, it is important to emphasize that at least 80 percent of children in one-parent families do not have a grandparent in the home.

### Figure 39. GRANDPARENTS IN THE HOMES OF CHILDREN: 1990




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "We the American Children," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series WE-10 U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.

Living with grandparents is one way in which children and their parent(s) may form a doubled-up household. For various reasons some children and their parents may live doubled-up with other relatives or with non-relatives. The reasons for doubling up seem likely to be closely connected with income, work, poverty, and/or the need for child care.

Some families with children may be doubled-up, because they do not have enough income to pay the down-payment, mortgage, or rent for a decent home of their own, or because they need someone in the home to provide child care. In other words, some children live in doubled-up families because their nuclear family needs some sort of financial or personal assistance. On the other hand, some families with children may be doubled-up because other persons in the home do not have enough income to pay for a decent home of their own, or because these other persons need their available income for some other purpose (such as health care), or because these other persons are themselves in need of personal care, such as elderly grandparents. In other words, some children live in doubled-up families because their nuclear family is providing financial or personal assistance to extended family members or friends.



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It also is possible, of course, that some families live doubled-up out of a sheer personal preference for the joy of living with their extended family or with family friends. It seems likely, though, given the apparently strong preference for nuclear family living arrangements in the U.S., that most doubled-up families with children are doubled-up either because they are in need or because they must provide housing or personal care to others. Insofar as most of these families are in need of assistance, many would probably be living in poverty if they were not doubled-up, or they may be living in poverty despite the fact that they are doubled-up, in some cases because providing housing to other family or non-family members has pulled them below the poverty threshold.

Before discussing statistics on doubling-up presented in Table 27, it is necessary to describe two measurement issues that affect the interpretation of these data (See Appendix I in this chapter for a more complete discussion of these and related measurement issues).

First, estimates for 1939-1979 were calculated from the Decennial Census of the Population, and for 1979-1988 from the Current Population Survey. These two sets of estimates for 1979 differ because of differences between the two data collection systems. In general, trends from one decade to the next are best measured using data from a single data collection system. Second, the Census Bureau implemented improved measurement procedures in the Current Population Survey (CPS) during the early 1980s to better identify parent-child relationships within homes. Preliminary estimates indicate that the result was an artifactual increase in the proportion of children living in mother-child families equal to about 1.67 percent of all children. Since all of these children lived in doubled-up families, the actual increase in doubled-up one-parent families during the 1980s is overestimated with CPS data by approximately this amount.

As a consequence, it seems likely that some of the apparent increase in doubling-up during the 1980s actually occurred during the 1970s. In discussing these results, this is taken into account. In general, for the 1980s and perhaps for the 1970s, the trend in doubling-up for children, that is, changes in the proportion doubled-up, may be indicated best by changes in the combined proportion who are either doubled-up or living with no parent in the home.

Between 1939 and 1969, the proportion of children living in doubled-up families fell from 22 percent to 11 percent (Table 27). Sometime after 1969, the trend reversed, and by 1988 about 13 percent of children lived in doubled-up families. An earlier section showed that the relative poverty rate for children also fell sharply as the Great Depression was replaced by the post World War II economic boom, and that the 1950s and 1960s brought additional, albeit smaller, declines in relative poverty (Figure 28). We also saw that this three-decade trend reversed during the 1970s and 1980s as the relative poverty rate for children increased. Consequently, these results indicate that trends in doubling-up and relative poverty for children have been broadly similar during the past half-century.

The same holds true for white children. Trends in relative poverty and in doubling-up have moved roughly in parallel for white children during the past fifty years. Throughout the era black children have been much more likely than white children to be living in relative poverty and to be living doubled-up or with no parent in the home. Trends in relative poverty rates for black children have not always paralleled trends in doubling-up, however, most notably since 1969, when doubling-up was increasing despite declining or stable relative poverty. These post-1969

CHILDREN LIVING WITH GRANDPARENTS AND IN DOUBLED-UP FAMILIES (continued)

results for black children suggest that poverty per se may have become somewhat less important in doubling-up compared to other reasons for doubling-up, or that doubling-up may have become somewhat more necessary or effective as a family strategy for reducing poverty. Overall, by 1988, the proportion living in doubled-up families or with no parent in the home was about 1-in-7 for white children and nearly 1-in-3 for black children.

In addition to the sheer economic need to pay for housing, a second major reason for doubling-up may be the need for inexpensive assistance with child care. Since mother-child families may be especially likely to need housing assistance for economic reasons as well as easy access to inexpensive child care that may be provided by doubling-up, it seems likely that children in mother-child families would be especially likely to live doubled-up, and that the trends in doubling-up might be broadly similar to trends in the proportion of children living in mother-child families.

Results from a preceding section (Table 19) showed that the proportion of children in mother-child families remained about constant between the Great Depression and 1959, but then increased during each decade from 1959 to 1988. Table 27 shows the proportion of children living in doubled-up one-parent families remained about constant for an additional decade, that is, from 1939 to about 1969. Only during the past two decades has the proportion of children in doubled-up one-parent families increased.

Hence, the overall decline in the proportion of children living doubled-up between 1939 and 1969 can be fully accounted for by the decline in the proportion living in doubled-up two-parent families. The post World War II economic boom brought substantial declines in doubling-up, while the proportion of children living in mother-child families changed little during these decades. The historic increase in mother-child families began after 1959, but it was not until a decade later, that is, after 1969, that the historic trend in doubling-up was reversed. These results suggest that relative poverty declines tend to foster undoubling, while relative poverty increases tend to foster increased doubling-up.

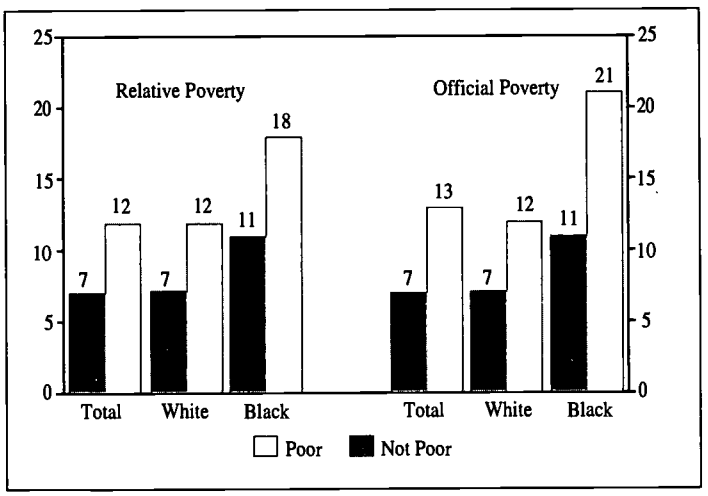
Nevertheless, the post-1969 increases in doubling-up occurred through increases in children living in doubled-up one-parent families, since the proportion of children living in doubled-up two-parent families remained stable or declined during the 1970s and 1980s. Hence, at least during the past two decades it appears that doubling-up may have been especially necessary for families that both lived in poverty and needed easy access to inexpensive child care, that is, families with only one parent in the home.

## POVERTY, WORK STATUS, AND FAMILY BREAK-UP AND DOUBLING-UP

Using relative poverty thresholds to measure poverty status in the initial month of two-year periods during the mid-1980s, the Census Bureau's Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) provides results showing the chances that a two-parent family household will discontinue within two years. Such family households cease to exist mainly when the parents experience a marital separation (family break-up), or when the family moves into the home of other relatives or non-relatives, in a doubled-up housing situation.

In the mid-1980s, two-parent family households were almost twice as likely to discontinue within two years if they were relatively poor than if they were not relatively poor, at 12 versus 7 percent (Figure 40). Among white two-parent families, the corresponding discontinuation rates were 12 versus 7 percent, but among blacks these rates were substantially larger at 18 versus 11 percent. Estimates based on official poverty rates were quite similar. Officially poor two-parent family households were about twice as likely to discontinue within two years as non-poor ones, at 13 versus 7 percent, and the corresponding estimates were 12 and 7 percent for whites, but 21 and 11 percent for blacks. These results suggest that stresses associated with economic insecurity or need, as reflected in having below-poverty income, contribute substantially to the break-up and doubling-up of two-parent families.

**Figure 40. PERCENT OF TWO-PARENT FAMILIES THAT DISCONTINUED WITHIN TWO YEARS BY POVERTY STATUS: MID-1980s**

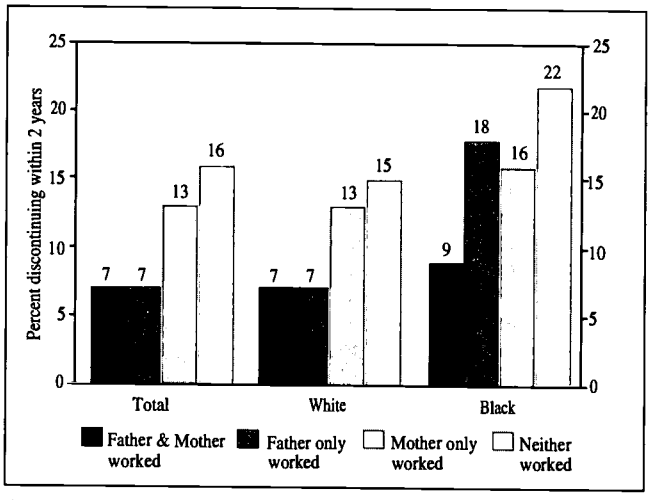



Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "Studies in Household and Family Formation — When Households Continue, Discontinue, and Form," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No.179, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1992; and unpublished estimates.

## POVERTY, WORK STATUS, AND FAMILY BREAK-UP AND DOUBLING-UP (continued)

Joblessness among fathers, also measured in the initial month of two-year periods, has a similar effect on family discontinuation (Figure 41). The two-year discontinuation rate is 7 percent in families where only the father worked, or where both the father and mother worked, but it climbed to 13-16 percent among families where the mother only worked or where neither parent worked. The pattern was similar for whites. Seven percent of two-parent families with a working father discontinued within two years, compared to 13-15 percent if the father did not work. Among blacks, however, the pattern was notably different, since a two-year discontinuation rate as low as 9 percent was found only if both the husband and the wife worked. The Black two-year discontinuation rates were 16-22 percent if only one parent worked or if neither parent worked (Differences between 16, 18, and 22 percent are not statistically significant, and the difference between 9 and 16 percent is not statistically significant).

### Figure 41. PERCENT OF TWO-PARENT FAMILIES THAT DISCONTINUED WITHIN TWO YEARS BY WHETHER FATHERS AND MOTHERS WORKED: MID-1980s




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "Studies in Household and Family Formation — When Households Continue, Discontinue, and Form," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No.179, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1992.



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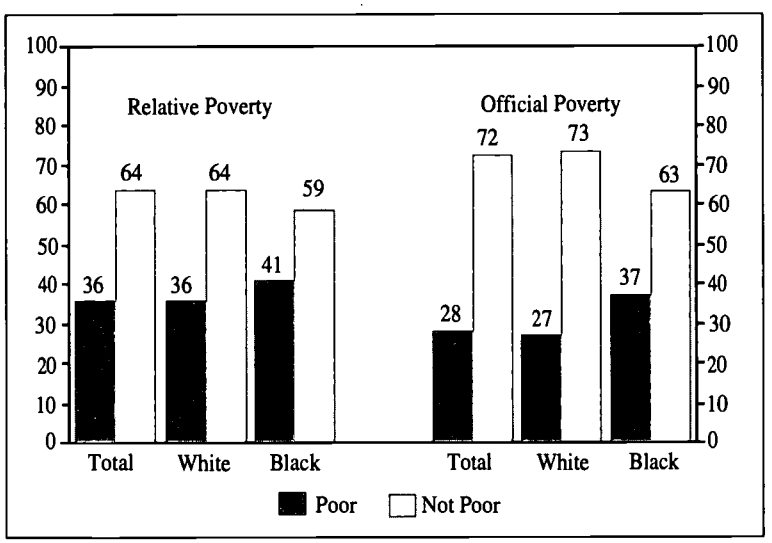
In so far as stresses associated with economic insecurity or need contribute to the discontinuation of two-parent families, these results suggest the level of security achieved by white two-parent households where only the husband works may not have been reached by black two-parent households, on average, unless both the black husband and wife worked. If so, the reasons may be that black men had a much lower average income than white men. For example, among married, spouse present, men who worked year-round full-time in 1990, the median income of blacks was 23 percent less than for whites, at $24,960 versus $32,464, respectively (DeNavas and Welniak, 1991).

Because poor two-parent families are much more likely to discontinue than non-poor ones, many children in poor mother-child family households newly-formed through marital separation have mothers who lived in poverty before the marital separation. Using relative poverty thresholds to measure poverty status in the initial and final months of one-year periods in the mid-1980s indicates the following (Figure 42).

**Figure 42. CHILDREN IN POOR MOTHER-CHILD FAMILIES FORMED WITHIN THE LAST YEAR THROUGH MARITAL SEPARATION, PERCENT OF MOTHERS WHO WERE POOR ONE YEAR EARLIER IN PREVIOUS TWO-PARENT FAMILY: MID-1980s**



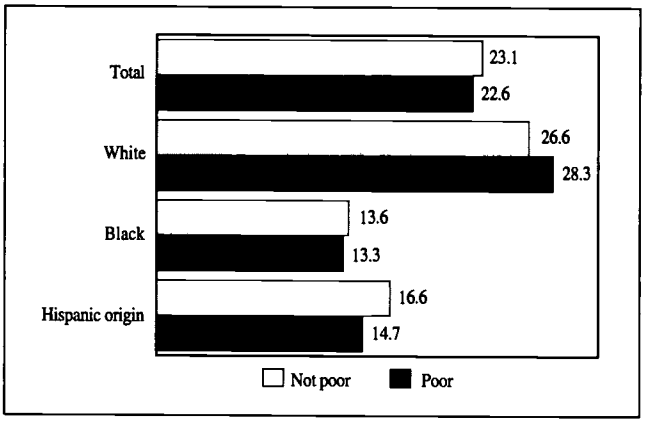

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "Studies in Household and Family Formation — When Households Continue, Discontinue, and Form," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No.179, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1992; and unpublished estimates.

## POVERTY, WORK STATUS, AND FAMILY BREAK-UP AND DOUBLING-UP (continued)

For children in relatively poor mother-child family households that were formed within the past year through a marital separation, the proportion whose mothers also had been relatively poor in their two-parent family household one year earlier was 36 percent overall, 36 percent for whites, and 41 percent for blacks. Corresponding estimates for officially poor children are somewhat smaller but still substantial in magnitude, at 28 percent overall, 27 percent for whites, and 37 percent for blacks. In short, a large proportion of children in poor mother-child families newly-formed through marital separation were already poor in their two-parent family prior to the marital separation, because the father and mother did not earn enough income to lift the family out of poverty.

Having discussed discontinuation rates among two-parent families, it also is valuable to focus on discontinuation rates among one-parent, mother-child families (Figure 43). These families discontinue mainly when the mother marries, or when the family moves into a doubled-up family situation. Overall, the two-year discontinuation rate for mother-child families was 23 percent regardless of whether or not the family was officially poor. Among whites, two-year discontinuation rates were essentially identical at 27-28 percent, for officially poor and not poor mother-child families, and among blacks the two-year discontinuation rates also were essentially identical at 13-14 percent for officially poor and not poor mother-child families.

Figure 43. PERCENT OF POOR AND NON-POOR MOTHER-CHILD FAMILIES DISCONTINUING WITHIN TWO YEARS, BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN: MID-1980s



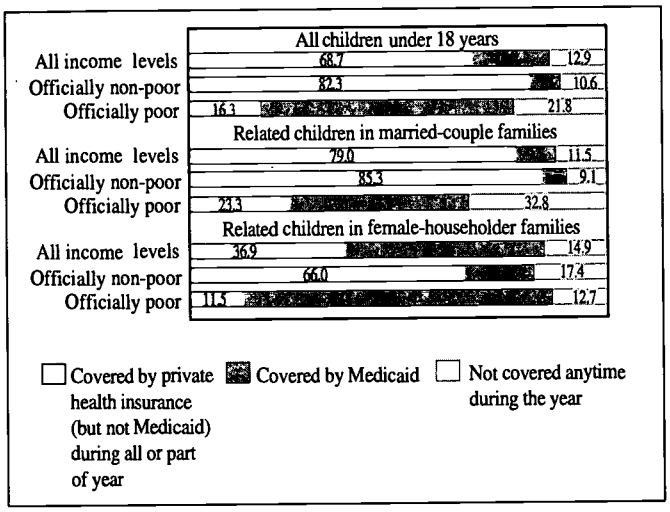

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "Studies in Household and Family Formation — When Households Continue, Discontinue, and Form," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No.179, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1992.

Although official poverty status is not related to the chances that mother-child families will discontinue, it is important to note the large size of these dissolution rates. Over a two-year period, nearly 1-in-4 existing mother-child family households discontinue, either through marriage or doubling-up, only to be replaced by newly-formed mother-child households. Among whites more than 1-in-4 existing mother-child family households discontinue and are replaced by new ones within two years, and among blacks nearly 1-in-7 mother-child family households are replaced by new ones within two years. In short, the turnover rate for mother-child family households is quite high; at any given time nearly 1-in-4 were formed during the preceding two years, and nearly 1-in-4 will cease to exist during the subsequent two years.

## OFFICIAL POVERTY AND HEALTH INSURANCE COVERAGE

As health care costs rise, health insurance coverage has become increasingly important for children. Despite the substantial work among all parents, 13 percent of children in 1990 were not covered by health insurance anytime during the year (Figure 44). Among officially poor children, a large 22 percent were not covered anytime during the year, and even among officially non-poor children, 11 percent were not covered.

### Figure 44. HEALTH INSURANCE COVERAGE, BY OFFICIAL POVERTY STATUS AND FAMILY TYPE FOR CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS: 1990




Source: Littman, Mark S., "Poverty in the United States: 1990," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P60-175, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C., 1991.

Many children who were covered by health insurance depended at least partly on government-supported Medicaid, 18 percent overall, 44 percent for officially poor children in married-couple families, and 76 percent for officially poor children in female-householder families. Despite Medicaid, however, 13 percent of officially poor children in female-householder families were not covered by health insurance at all during the year, and a large 33 percent of officially poor children in two-parent families were not covered. These last results suggest the possibility that, at least among poor two-parent families with medical problems, the need for health care and Medicaid eligibility rules may act as an incentive for family break-up.

## CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES

Questions about the disability status of children were asked of parents or guardians of children less than 22 years of age in the 1990 and 1991 panels of the Survey of Income and Program Participation (This disability section is drawn directly from, McNeil, 1993, pp. 13-14). Questions about "any limitations at all in the usual kind of activities done by most children their age" and "received therapy or diagnostic services designed to meet their developmental needs" were asked about children 0 to 6 years of age. A question about "limitations in their ability to do regular school work" was asked about children 6 to 21 years of age, and a question about "a long lasting condition that limits their ability to walk, run, or use stairs" was asked about children 3 to 14 years of age.

The disability rate among children 0 to 2 years old was 2.2 percent [Tables 28]. The proportion with a limitation in usual kind of activity was 1.3 percent, and 1.6 percent received therapy or services for developmental needs. (The latter figure is not statistically different from either of the two preceding figures). The proportion identified as having a severe disability (a limitation caused by autism, cerebral palsy, or mental retardation) was 0.4 percent (Table 30).

The disability rate among children 3 to 5 years was 5.2 percent. The proportion with a limitation in usual kind of activity was 2.6 percent, and 4.3 percent had received therapy or services for developmental needs (The latter figure is not statistically different from the overall figure of 5.2 percent). The proportion identified as "limited in their ability to walk, run, or use stairs" was 1.3 percent. The proportion with a severe disability was 0.7 percent, not statistically different from the rate for children 0-2 years old.

Children 6 to 14 years of age had a disability rate of 6.3 percent. The proportion who were limited in their ability to do regular school work was 5.4 percent, and 1.6 were limited in their ability to walk, run, or use stairs. (The latter figure is not statistically different from the comparable figure for children 3 to 5 years old.) The proportion with a severe disability was 1.3 percent. (The latter figure is not statistically different from the preceding figure).

The disability status of persons 15 to 21 years of age was measured by direct questions about functional limitation, ADL limitations, IADL limitations, and the use of special aids. If the person lived with a parent or guardian, disability status was also measured by a question of the parent or guardian concerning the child's ability to do regular school work. The overall disability rate among persons 15 to 17 years of age (as determined both by direct questions and questions asked of parents) was 9.3 percent. The proportion identified as having a limitation of their ability to do regular school work was 4.4 percent.



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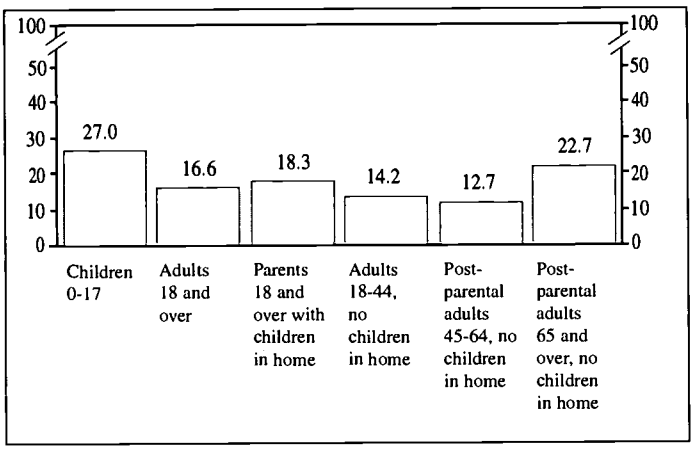
## CHILDREN AS THE UNIT OF STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Through much of this chapter, children have been used as the unit of analysis, and it may seem obvious that research about children should be conducted in this fashion. Until very recently, however, most social, economic, and demographic studies involving children actually have used parents, adults, or families as the unit of statistical analysis, an approach which in some situations can be quite misleading if the interest actually is in children (Hernandez, 1986, Qvortrup, 1993).

Figure 45 shows, for example, the relative poverty rates in 1988 for (1) children age 0-17, (2) adults 18 and over, (3) parents 18 and over with children in the home, (4) adults age 18-44 with no children in the home, (5) post-parental adults age 45-64 with no children in the home, and (6) post-parental adults 65 years and over with no children in the home. The results show that 27 percent of children lived in relative poverty, compared to only 18 percent of parents. For most other adults, the relative poverty rate was still lower at 13-14 percent for adults age 18-64 with no children in the home.

At the opposite economic extreme, Figure 46 shows the percent living in luxury (with family incomes at least 50 percent higher than the median, with family size adjustments). In 1988, 22 percent of children lived in luxury, compared to 30 percent of parents, and 45-50 percent of adults age 18-64 with no children. These statistics show that distribution of economic living levels of children is quite different from that of parents, and even more different from that of adults without children in the home.

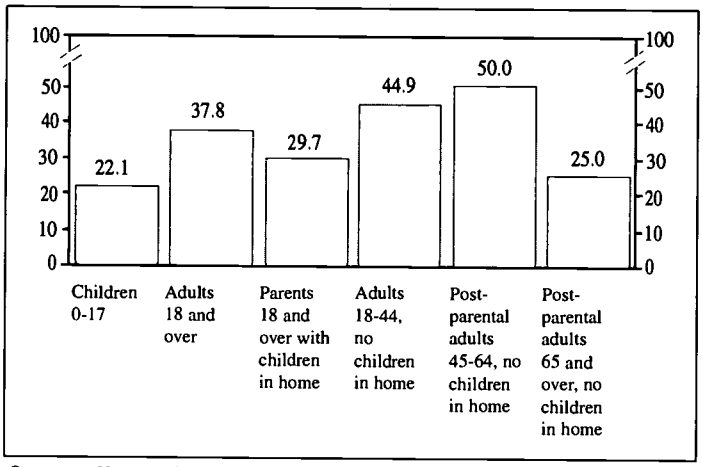
**Figure 45. PERCENT IN RELATIVE POVERTY FOR CHILDREN AND ADULTS: 1988**




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

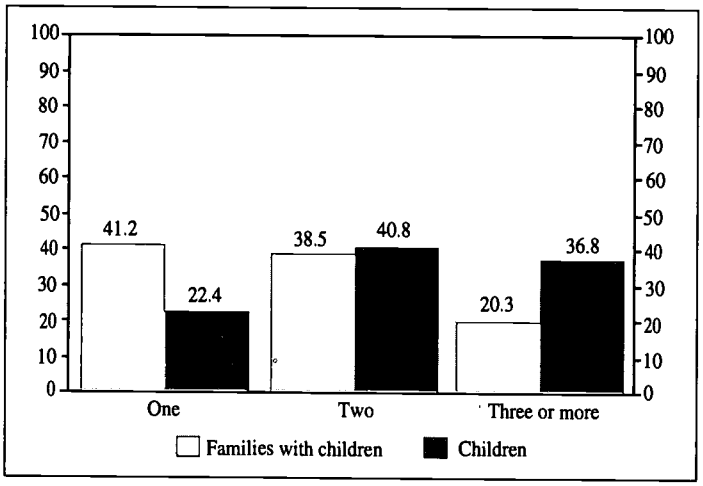
Figure 47 shows, for families with children and for children themselves, the proportions which have specific numbers of children in the home. In 1991, 41 percent of families with children included exactly one child, but only 22 percent of children lived in families where they were the lone child. At the opposite extreme, only 20 percent of families with children had three or more children present, but 37 percent of children lived in families with a total of at least three children.

Figure 46. PERCENT WITH LUXURY LEVEL INCOME FOR CHILDREN AND ADULTS: 1988




Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993.

Figure 47. PERCENT WITH ONE, TWO, AND THREE OR MORE CHILDREN IN THE HOME FOR CHILDREN AND FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN: 1993




Source: Rawlings, Steve W., "Household and Family Characteristics: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P20-477, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1994.

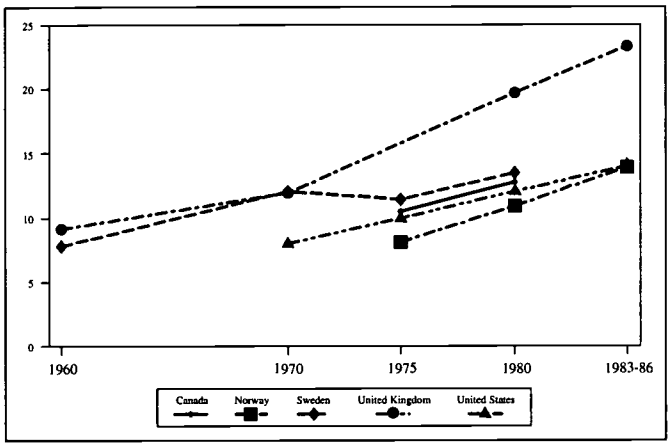
These statistics show clearly that at least for some topics of research, it makes an enormous difference whether the unit of analysis is children or some other adult-based measure.

In order to provide the public with basic annual statistics on the living arrangements of children, the U.S. Bureau of the Census in 1984 began publishing a table of statistics from the Current Population Survey using children as the unit of analysis. The most recent published table presents statistics for children by age, race, and Hispanic origin on number of siblings in the home, age, education, and employment status of parents in the home, the presence of other adults in the home, family income, poverty, geographic area of residence, tenure of housing unit, and whether the unit is a public housing unit (Saluter, 1994).

## CHILDREN AND PUBLIC POLICY

One example of the critical importance of public policy for children is reflected in a series of international comparisons. Figure 48 shows that the proportion of children living in single-parent families has been increasing substantially not only in the U.S. but in a range of developed countries. Similarly, Figure 49 shows there have been wide-spread increases in the percentage of births occurring to unmarried mothers, although there are large differences in levels across countries.

### Figure 48. PERCENTAGE OF CHILDREN IN SINGLE-PARENT FAMILIES: 1960 TO 1986



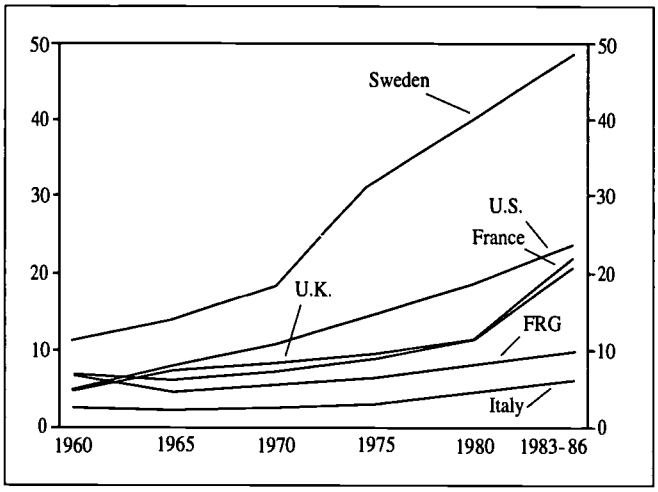

Note: All data for the United Kingdom refer to Great Britain. Data for 1983 to 1986 for the United Kingdom refer to 1986, to 1983 for Norway, and 1985 for the United States. Children are defined as follows: Canada - age 0 to 24 years; Norway - under age 20; Sweden - 18 years and under for 1960, 1970 and 1975, and 15 years and under for 1980; United Kingdom under age 16 or aged 16 to 18 and in full-time education; United States - under age 18.

Source: Hobbs, Frank and Laura Lippman, "Children's Well-Being: An International Comparison," U.S. Bureau of the Census, International Population Reports, Series P95, 80. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1990.

## CHILDREN AND PUBLIC POLICY (continued)

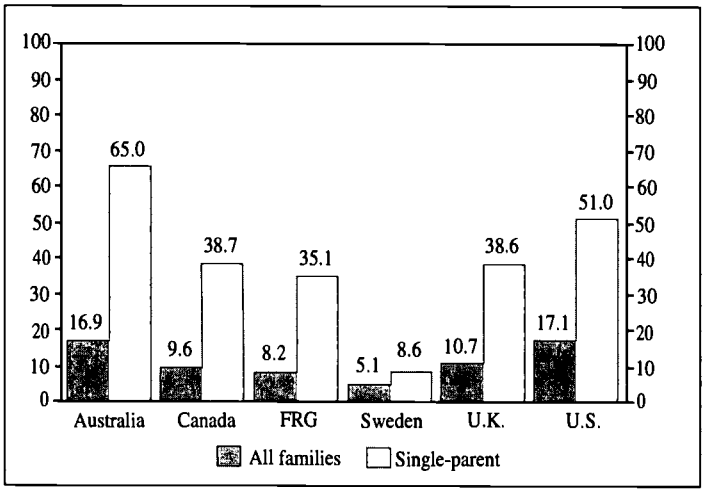
Figure 50 shows there also are enormous differences in poverty (measured in a fashion differing slightly from the official U.S. poverty concept). For example, U.S. children around 1980 were more than three times as likely as Swedish children to be living in poverty (17 versus 5 percent), and U.S. children in single-parent families were more than five times as likely as corresponding Swedish children to be living in poverty (51 versus 9 percent).

### Figure 49. PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL BIRTHS TO UNMARRIED WOMEN: 1960 TO 1986




Source: Hobbs, Frank and Laura Lippman, "Children's Well-Being: An International Comparison," U.S. Bureau of the Census, International Population Reports, Series P95, 80, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1990.

### Figure 50. POVERTY AMONG CHILDREN, BY FAMILY TYPE: CIRCA 1980

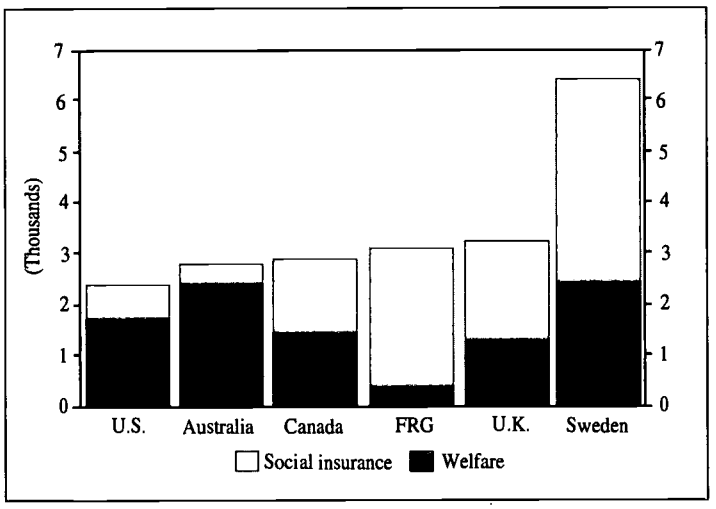



Source: Hobbs, Frank and Laura Lippman, "Children's Well-Being: An International Comparison," U.S. Bureau of the Census, International Population Reports, Series P95, 80, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1990.

What accounts for these differences in poverty rates? Part of the difference is no doubt due to the low levels of support provided by government transfers to poor families with children in the U.S. compared to Sweden. In the U.S. around 1980, the average poor family with children received only about $2400 per year in government transfers compared to $6400 in Sweden (Figure 51). An additional part of the difference is no doubt due to the low proportion of poor families with children receiving any government transfers. Among the countries included in Figure 52, only 73 percent of poor families with children in the U.S. received government transfers—27 percent received none—while in all the other countries 99-100 percent of poor families with children received government transfers.

These comparisons suggest the enormously important effect that social policies may have on the economic welfare of children. It is not difficult to imagine that a wide range of additional policies also have important consequences for the intellectual, physical, and socio-emotional development and functioning of children.

**Figure 51. GOVERNMENT TRANSFERS TO POOR FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN: CIRCA 1980 (in 1979 U.S. Dollars (thousands))**



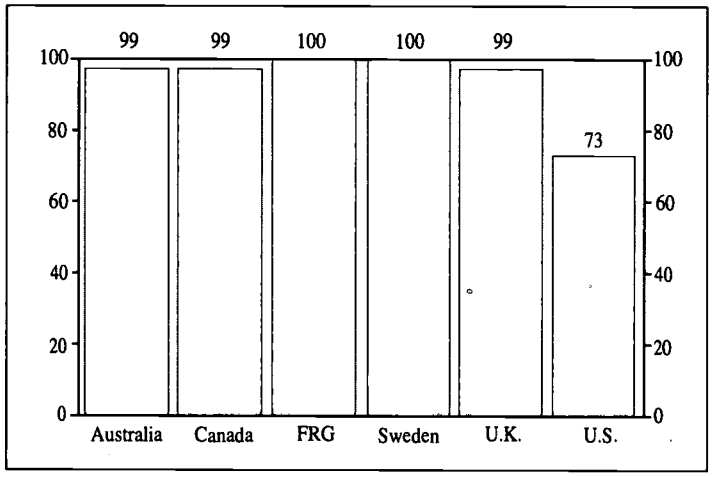

Note: Poverty determined before taxes.

Source: Hobbs, Frank and Laura Lippman, "Children's Well-Being: An International Comparison," U.S. Bureau of the Census, International Population Reports, Series P95, 80, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1990.

## CHILDREN AND PUBLIC POLICY (continued)

For example, the economic situation of children, and hence the development and functioning of children, may be affected greatly by tax laws (depending on how progressive or regressive tax rates are), by minimum wage laws (which set a lower limit on wages that can be paid to adults, and hence to parents), and by a wide range of economic policies that influence the amount of inequality in the income distribution, and hence the economic inequality experienced by children. The physical and interpersonal living situation of children also may be affected greatly by government policies concerning the quality and cost of housing, the time available for parental or family leave, the quality and cost of pre-school education, and the quality, cost, and access to health care.

### Figure 52. PERCENT OF PRE-TAX TRANSFER POOR WHO RECEIVE TRANSFERS




Source: Hobbs, Frank and Laura Lippman, "Children's Well-Being: An International Comparison." U.S. Bureau of the Census, International Population Reports, Series P95, 80. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1990.

In short, although most public policies are developed, implemented, and evaluated with little attention to their consequences for children, it seems likely that an extremely wide range of public policies may, in fact, have important consequences for the current well-being and future development of children. This suggests that statistics on children may be of great value both to scholars and to policy-makers interested in how public policies interact with other social and economic changes and in the consequences of public policies themselves.

## HISTORICAL AND IMPORTANT FUTURE STATISTICS ON CHILDREN

As a practical matter, how can statistics on children be obtained? Many important questions about children can be answered by re-analyzing existing data bases (censuses, registration systems, surveys) using children as the unit of analysis. This is how the research for *America's Children: Resources from Family, Government, and the Economy* (Hernandez, 1993) was conducted (See Appendix II). This research became possible only a decade ago with the advent of microdata files for the 1940 and 1950 U.S. censuses.

Analyzing existing data can be very valuable, but it has limits, because it depends on the kinds of data already collected, and very little data have been collected on children themselves. To help improve this situation and to provide a basis for assessing welfare and health care reforms that may occur in the U.S. in the near future, the U.S. Bureau of the Census is planning a new Survey of Program Dynamics (SPD) collecting panel data for all the persons in a 20,000 household national sample on an annual basis for the period 1993-2002.

Extremely detailed data would be collected on the timing and income received from participation in the full range of government welfare programs, on the timing and income received from paid work by parents and other household members, and on changes in family composition. Most important for the current report, plans are being considered for collecting data on children's school enrollment, math and reading skills, social development, positive behaviors and behavior problems, health status, etc.

If major welfare and health care reforms are implemented during the coming years, these data can be a valuable vehicle for assessing the success of the reforms along a variety of dimensions, including their consequences for the development and well-being of children. With data collection beginning in 1993, this survey can provide baseline data for several years before major reforms occur, it can provide a "moving picture" of dynamic changes as they occur in parental employment, welfare program participation, and children's outcomes, and it can provide the basis for assessing short-term and medium-term consequences of such changes for the well-being and development of children.

## CONCLUDING OBSERVATIONS

The past 10-15 years brought rapid and wide-spread increases in social science interest and research regarding the circumstances of children and the nature of childhood (Hernandez, 1986; Qvortrup, 1993; Qvortrup, Bardy, Sgritta, and Wintersberger, 1994). This blossoming of children and childhood as an object of scientific study goes hand-in-hand with increasing interest in the consequences for children of a wide range of social, economic, and demographic changes, and of social welfare and health policies.

In closing this chapter, then, it seems appropriate to highlight two reasons for policy-makers and researchers to direct attention toward children. First, although most past research and policy interest has focused on adults, children are people too. Hence, insofar as policy-makers and researchers are interested in human welfare, children also should be an explicit focus of their research and policy deliberations. Second, the children of today are the adults of tomorrow. Hence, insofar as research and social policy are concerned with the quality of future citizens, future workers, and future parents, they should focus explicitly on the development and well-being of today's children.

## APPENDIX I

It is necessary to define doubling-up as measured in this chapter and to discuss three methodological issues (Table 27). This chapter uses children as the unit of analysis and classifies them as living in a not doubled-up family if the other members of the household consist only of one or both of the child's parents, and any of the child's siblings under age 25. On the other hand, children are classified as living in a doubled-up family if they have at least one parent in the home, but there is also at least one additional relative other than parents or over-age-25-siblings living in the household. Finally, children with no parents in the home are classified and distinguished as such.

The first methodological issue concerns historical analyses and changes in data collection procedures. Results for 1939-1979 are derived from censuses conducted during the following year ending in "0" (because poverty measures are based on income data pertaining to the year prior to data collection, the convention followed here is to designate estimates as pertaining to years ending in 9). Results for the 1980s, however, are obtained from the Current Population Survey (CPS). Because of differences in data collection procedures, results from population censuses and surveys can differ in important ways. Consequently, to provide a bridge across data collection methods, results are presented for 1979 based on both the 1980 Census and the 1980 CPS.

The second methodological issue is that children living in "secondary" or "unrelated" subfamilies (with one or both parents in the home) in 1940 and 1950 are classified here as having no parents in the home. Overall, these children probably amount to no more than 1 percent of all white children and 2 percent of all black children during these two years.

The third methodological issue concerns improved measurement in the CPS in the early the 1980s. During 1982 and 1983 the Census Bureau implemented improved methods for identifying parent-child relationships within households. Preliminary estimates indicate that this improvement in measurement procedures produced an artifactual increase in the proportion of children living in mother-child families amounting to approximately 1.67 percent of all children. Since these children also had someone other than parents in the home, there was also artifactual increase in the proportion of children living in doubled-up families of approximately this magnitude.

To ascertain the size of this artifact for more limited universes of children, and its effect on trends spanning the 1980s, it would be useful to analyze changes for those universes for 1980-1981, and 1983 through the end of the 1980s. Such analyses are planned but have not yet been conducted. Consequently, the current best estimates of changes in doubling-up for children during the 1980s may be made as the following: the changes in the total proportion living either in doubled-up families as measured here or in households with no parents present. Furthermore, it is plausible that much of the difference between this total and the component consisting only of measured changes in doubling-up, actually occurred sometime before 1980 or 1981, most likely during the 1970s and 1960s when there were general increases in one-parent family living for children.



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## APPENDIX II

The research for *America's Children: Resources from Family, Government, and the Economy* (Hernandez, 1993) and for much of the SIPP data in this chapter (Hernandez, 1992) required the creation of three distinct sets of microdata bases, each of which was a large and complex undertaking.

The first set consisted of data bases with children as the unit of organization and analysis, based on the population censuses of 1940, 1950, 1960, 1970, and 1980. Since the Public Use Microdata Samples (PUMS) for each census consisted of household records with household data, and person records with individual person data, the following steps were required: (1) select the person record for each child, (2) identify all the other persons in the child's household, (3) use data on family and subfamily relationships to identify each child's parent(s) in the home, each child's sibling(s) in the home and each child's additional relative(s) and non-relative(s) in the home, (4) obtain and merge data for these other persons and for the household onto the child's record, (5) calculate family and household income for each child, (6) calculate poverty measure, etc.

Since family relationship data are reported according to how each person in the household is related to a householder or reference person, and in terms of any subfamilies in the home, the identification of how a child was related to each person in the household required an extremely complex computer program mapping possible relationships through the householder. The 1940 and 1950 censuses involved additional tailored programming, because certain characteristics were originally collected in these censuses only for "sample line" persons. The specific variables collected and the response categories differed somewhat from census to census, necessitating additional specially tailored programming for each census to insure conceptual consistency of results spanning the forty years of the data collection period. All together, the creation of these data bases involved processing about 7,000,000 records.

The second set consisting of data bases from the 1980 and 1989 Current Population Survey (CPS) followed a similar, but somewhat more complicated series of steps, since these public use files consist of three, instead of two, types of records, namely, household records, family records, and person records. More than 500,000 records were processed.

The third set consisting of data bases from the 1984, 1985, 1986, and 1987 panels of the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) involved an additional level of complexity, because data were collected on a month-by-month basis for each sample person for a period of about two years for each panel. If the data from each census and CPS are akin to a still photograph capturing reality at a single point in time, then data from the SIPP are akin to a motion picture consisting of a large number of photographs which taken together portray ongoing changes in reality. Hence, the analysis of SIPP data involved extremely sophisticated computer programming. Approximately 100,000 records were processed.

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## DETAILED HISTORICAL TABLES

Table 1. ESTIMATES AND PROJECTIONS OF THE POPULATION BY AGE, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN: 1900 - 2050
(Numbers in thousands)

| | 1900 | 1910 | 1920 | 1930 | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total, All ages | 76,094 | 92,407 | 106,461 | 123,077 | 132,122 | 151,684 | 180,671 | 204,879 |
| White | 66,900 | 82,137 | 95,510 | 110,559 | 118,629 | 135,984 | 160,023 | 179,491 |
| White non hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Black | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 19,006 | 22,787 |
| Hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Under 18 | 30,715 | 35,061 | 39,622 | 43,008 | 40,359 | 47,060 | 64,525 | 69,702 |
| White | 26,496 | 30,609 | 35,150 | 38,162 | 35,459 | 41,289 | 55,745 | 59,197 |
| White non hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Black | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 8,102 | 9,537 |
| Hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 18 to 64 | 42,280 | 53,360 | 61,910 | 73,364 | 82,732 | 92,262 | 99,471 | 115,092 |
| White | 37,581 | 47,823 | 55,775 | 66,090 | 74,731 | 83,219 | 88,873 | 101,923 |
| White non hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Black | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 9,715 | 11,694 |
| Hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 65 and over | 3,099 | 3,986 | 4,929 | 6,705 | 9,031 | 12,362 | 16,675 | 20,085 |
| White | 2,823 | 3,705 | 4,585 | 6,307 | 8,439 | 11,476 | 15,405 | 18,371 |
| White non hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Black | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 1,189 | 1,556 |
| Hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| | | | | | | | | |
| PERCENT | | | | | | | | |
| Total, All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Under 18 | 40.4 | 37.9 | 37.2 | 34.9 | 30.5 | 31.0 | 35.7 | 34.0 |
| 18 to 64 years old | 55.6 | 57.7 | 58.2 | 59.6 | 62.6 | 60.8 | 55.1 | 56.2 |
| 65 and over | 4.1 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 5.4 | 6.8 | 8.1 | 9.2 | 9.8 |
| Total, All ages | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| White | 87.9 | 88.9 | 89.7 | 89.8 | 89.8 | 89.6 | 88.6 | 87.6 |
| White non hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Black | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 10.5 | 11.1 |
| Hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Under 18 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| White | 86.3 | 87.3 | 88.7 | 88.7 | 87.9 | 87.7 | 86.4 | 84.9 |
| White non hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Black | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 12.6 | 13.7 |
| Hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 18 to 64 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| White | 88.9 | 89.6 | 90.1 | 90.1 | 90.3 | 90.2 | 89.3 | 88.6 |
| White non hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Black | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 9.8 | 10.2 |
| Hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 65 and over | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| White | 91.1 | 93.0 | 93.0 | 94.1 | 93.4 | 92.8 | 92.4 | 91.5 |
| White non hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| Black | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 7.1 | 7.7 |
| Hispanic | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |

(na) not available.

Sources: "Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970" Bicentennial Edition, Part 1, Series A29-42, U S. Bureau of the Census, Washington D.C. 1975.

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Table 1. CONTINUED

| 1980 | 1990 | 2000 | 2010 | 2020 | 2030 | 2040 | 2050 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 227,726 | 249,924 | 276,241 | 300,431 | 325,942 | 349,993 | 371,505 | 392,031 |
| 195,556 | 209,516 | 226,267 | 240,297 | 254,791 | 267,457 | 277,232 | 285,591 |
| 181,493 | 188,904 | 197,872 | 203,441 | 208,280 | 210,480 | 209,148 | 205,849 |
| 26,890 | 30,747 | 35,469 | 40,224 | 45,409 | 50,596 | 55,917 | 61,586 |
| 14,887 | 22,578 | 31,166 | 40,525 | 51,217 | 62,810 | 75,130 | 88,071 |
| 63,685 | 64,185 | 71,789 | 73,618 | 77,776 | 83,038 | 86,794 | 91,754 |
| 52,492 | 51,336 | 55,887 | 55,282 | 56,761 | 59,163 | 60,071 | 62,084 |
| 47,125 | 44,146 | 45,949 | 42,978 | 41,842 | 41,375 | 39,622 | 38,827 |
| 9,464 | 9,895 | 11,481 | 12,474 | 13,779 | 15,195 | 16,621 | 18,262 |
| 5,682 | 7,886 | 10,938 | 13,543 | 16,473 | 19,654 | 22,623 | 25,754 |
| 138,334 | 154,515 | 169,130 | 186,709 | 194,818 | 196,780 | 207,697 | 220,168 |
| 119,762 | 130,038 | 139,023 | 150,048 | 152,282 | 148,999 | 153,303 | 158,525 |
| 111,750 | 117,701 | 122,34 | 128,178 | 125,033 | 116,772 | 115,017 | 113,425 |
| 17,264 | 18,347 | 21,069 | 24,315 | 26,767 | 28,574 | 31,557 | 34,956 |
| 8,482 | 13,527 | 18,303 | 24,064 | 29,997 | 35,540 | 42,287 | 49,865 |
| 25,707 | 31,224 | 35,322 | 40,104 | 53,348 | 70,175 | 77,014 | 80,109 |
| 23,302 | 28,142 | 31,357 | 34,967 | 45,748 | 59,295 | 63,858 | 64,982 |
| 22,618 | 27,057 | 29,575 | 32,285 | 41,405 | 52,333 | 54,509 | 53,597 |
| 162 | 2,505 | 2,919 | 3,435 | 4,863 | 6,827 | 7,739 | 8,368 |
| 723 | 1,165 | 1,925 | 2,918 | 4,747 | 7,616 | 10,220 | 12,452 |
| | | | | | | | |
| 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 28.0 | 25.7 | 26.0 | 24.5 | 23.9 | 23.7 | 23.4 | 23.4 |
| 60.7 | 61.8 | 61.2 | 62.1 | 59.8 | 56.2 | 55.9 | 56.2 |
| 11.3 | 12.5 | 12.8 | 13.3 | 16.4 | 20.1 | 20.7 | 20.4 |
| 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 85.9 | 83.8 | 81.9 | 80.0 | 78.2 | 76.4 | 74.6 | 72.8 |
| 79.7 | 75.6 | 71.6 | 67.7 | 63.9 | 60.1 | 56.3 | 52.5 |
| 11.8 | 12.3 | 12.8 | 13.4 | 13.9 | 14.5 | 15.1 | 15.7 |
| 6.5 | 9.0 | 11.3 | 13.5 | 15.7 | 17.9 | 20.2 | 22.5 |
| 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 82.4 | 80.0 | 77.8 | 75.1 | 73.0 | 71.2 | 69.2 | 67.7 |
| 74.0 | 68.8 | 64.0 | 58.4 | 53.8 | 49.8 | 45.7 | 42.3 |
| 14.9 | 15.4 | 16.0 | 16.9 | 17.7 | 18.3 | 19.1 | 19.9 |
| 8.9 | 12.3 | 15.2 | 18.4 | 21.2 | 23.7 | 26.1 | 28.1 |
| 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 86.6 | 84.2 | 82.2 | 80.4 | 78.2 | 75.7 | 73.8 | 72.0 |
| 80.8 | 76.2 | 72.3 | 68.7 | 64.2 | 59.3 | 55.4 | 51.5 |
| 12.5 | 11.9 | 12.5 | 13.0 | 13.7 | 14.5 | 15.2 | 15.9 |
| 6.1 | 8.8 | 10.8 | 12.9 | 15.4 | 18.1 | 20.4 | 22.6 |
| 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| 90.6 | 90.1 | 88.8 | 87.2 | 85.8 | 84.5 | 82.9 | 81.1 |
| 88.0 | 86.7 | 83.7 | 80.5 | 77.6 | 74.6 | 70.8 | 66.9 |
| 0.6 | 8.0 | 8.3 | 8.6 | 9.1 | 9.7 | 10.0 | 10.4 |
| 2.8 | 3.7 | 5.4 | 7.3 | 8.9 | 10.9 | 13.3 | 15.5 |

By Age, Sex, and Race: April 1, 1960 to July 1, 1973", U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1974.
U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 1095, "U.S. Population Estimates, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1980 to 1991," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993.
Day, Jennifer Cheeseman, "Population Projections of the United States, by Age, Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1993 to 2050," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P25-1104, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington D.C. 1993.

**Table 2: RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN OF CHILDREN, 1990 (Percent distribution of children under 18 years old)**

| | |
|---|---|
| White, not Hispanic | 69.1 |
| Black, not Hispanic | 14.7 |
| American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut | 1.0 |
| Asian and Pacific Islander | 3.1 |
| Pacific Islander | 7.1 |
| Other Asian | 15.5 |
| Vietnamese | 9.5 |
| Korean | 12.1 |
| Asian Indian | 11.2 |
| Japanese | 7.8 |
| Filipino | 18.7 |
| Chinese | 18.9 |
| Hispanic (of any race) | 12.0 |
| Other Hispanic origin | 8.1 |
| South American | 3.3 |
| Central American | 4.9 |
| Dominican Republic | 2.2 |
| Cuban | 2.6 |
| Puerto Rican | 12.2 |
| Mexican | 66.7 |

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "We the American Children," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series WE-10, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993.



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**Table 3: FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION BY COUNTRY OF BIRTH, 1900 - 1990 (numbers in thousands)**

| Census Year | Total | Foreign-born Population | Percent of Total Population |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1900 | 76,212 | 10,445 | 13.7 |
| 1910 | 92,229 | 13,630 | 14.8 |
| 1920 | 106,022 | 14,020 | 13.2 |
| 1930 | 123,203 | 14,283 | 11.6 |
| 1940 | 132,165 | 11,657 | 8.8 |
| 1950 | 150,845 | 10,431 | 6.9 |
| 1960 | 179,326 | 9,738 | 5.4 |
| 1970 | 203,210 | 9,619 | 4.7 |
| 1980 | 226,546 | 14,080 | 6.2 |
| 1990 | 248,710 | 19,767 | 7.9 |

**Largest Foreign-Born Groups by Country of Birth: 1990 Census**

| Country | Number | Percent of total foreign-born |
|---|---|---|
| Mexico | 4,298 | 21.7 |
| Philippines | 913 | 4.6 |
| Canada | 745 | 3.8 |
| Cuba | 737 | 3.7 |
| Germany | 712 | 3.6 |
| United Kingdom | 640 | 3.2 |
| Italy | 581 | 2.9 |
| Korea | 568 | 2.9 |
| Vietnam | 543 | 2.7 |
| China | 530 | 2.7 |
| El Salvador | 465 | 2.4 |
| Other | 9,035 | 45.7 |
| Total | 19,767 | 100.0 |

Note: 1910-50 shown for the foreign-born white population.

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1970, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, Part 1, United States Summary Section 1, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1973, Table 68.
U.S. Bureau of the Census, Census of Population: 1980, Vol. I, Characteristics of the Population, PC80-1-C1, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1981, Table 79.
Lapham, Susan J., "We the American Foreign Born," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series WE-7, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993, Figure 3.

Table 4: PERCENT OF THE POPULATION RESIDING IN URBAN, RURAL, RURAL FARM, AND RURAL NONFARM AREAS: 1790 - 1990 (numbers in thousands)

| Year | Urban | Rural | Farm | Nonfarm |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1790 | 5.1 | 94.9 | (na) | (na) |
| 1800 | 6.1 | 93.9 | (na) | (na) |
| 1810 | 7.3 | 92.7 | (na) | (na) |
| 1820 | 7.2 | 92.8 | (na) | (na) |
| 1830 | 8.8 | 91.2 | (na) | (na) |
| 1840 | 10.8 | 89.2 | (na) | (na) |
| 1850 | 15.3 | 84.7 | (na) | (na) |
| 1860 | 19.8 | 80.2 | (na) | (na) |
| 1870 | 25.7 | 74.3 | (na) | (na) |
| 1880 | 28.2 | 71.8 | (na) | (na) |
| 1890 | 35.1 | 64.9 | 39.3 | 25.6 |
| 1900 | 39.6 | 60.4 | 39.2 | 21.2 |
| 1910 | 45.6 | 54.4 | 34.8 | 19.6 |
| 1920 | 51.2 | 48.8 | 30.2 | 18.7 |
| 1930 | 56.1 | 43.9 | 24.8 | 19.1 |
| 1940 | 56.5 | 43.5 | 23.1 | 20.4 |
| 1950 | 64.0 | 36.0 | 15.2 | 20.8 |
| 1960 | 69.9 | 30.1 | 7.5 | 22.6 |
| 1970 | 73.6 | 26.4 | 4.1 | 22.3 |
| 1980 | 73.7 | 26.3 | 2.5 | 23.8 |
| 1990 | 72.8 | 27.2 | 1.9 | 25.3 |

(na) Not available.
Note: For current and previous urban and farm definitions see appendix A, Current Population Report, P20-457.
Source: Dahmann, Donald C. and Dacquel, Laarnit, "Residents of Farms and Rural Areas: 1990, " U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20-457, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1992, Tables 1 and 2.

**Table 5: PERCENT OF THE POPULATION INSIDE AND OUTSIDE METROPOLITAN AREAS BY RACE, HISPANIC ORIGIN, AND AGE, 1990**

| | Total persons (000) | Outside metropolitan areas | | | Inside metropolitan areas | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Urban | Rural | In Central Cities | Not in Central Cities |
| ALL RACES | | | | | | |
| Total | 248,710 | 22.5 | 8.4 | 14.1 | 31.3 | 46.2 |
| Under 18 years | 63,605 | 23.5 | 8.3 | 15.1 | 30.2 | 46.4 |
| 18-64 years | 153,863 | 21.3 | 7.9 | 13.4 | 31.8 | 46.8 |
| 65 years and over | 31,242 | 26.4 | 10.7 | 15.6 | 30.9 | 42.8 |
| WHITE | | | | | | |
| Total | 199,686 | 24.4 | 8.8 | 15.7 | 25.8 | 49.8 |
| Under 18 years | 47,628 | 26.1 | 8.7 | 17.4 | 22.6 | 51.3 |
| 18-64 years | 124,206 | 23.2 | 8.3 | 14.9 | 26.6 | 50.2 |
| 65 years and over | 27,852 | 27.2 | 11.0 | 16.2 | 27.7 | 45.1 |
| BLACK | | | | | | |
| Total | 29,986 | 16.2 | 7.3 | 8.9 | 57.3 | 26.5 |
| Under 18 years | 9,584 | 17.0 | 7.9 | 9.1 | 56.7 | 26.3 |
| 18-64 years | 17,893 | 15.1 | 6.8 | 8.3 | 57.3 | 27.6 |
| 65 years and over | 2,509 | 20.9 | 9.1 | 11.8 | 59.4 | 19.7 |
| WHITE, NOT HISPANIC | | | | | | |
| Total | 188,128 | 25.3 | 9.0 | 16.4 | 24.4 | 50.3 |
| Under 18 years | 43,807 | 27.4 | 8.9 | 18.5 | 20.5 | 52.1 |
| 18-64 years | 117,270 | 24.0 | 8.5 | 15.5 | 25.3 | 50.7 |
| 65 years and over | 27,051 | 27.7 | 11.1 | 16.5 | 27.0 | 45.3 |
| HISPANIC* | | | | | | |
| Total | 22,354 | 9.6 | 5.6 | 4.0 | 51.5 | 38.9 |
| Under 18 years | 7,758 | 10.5 | 6.1 | 4.4 | 50.6 | 38.9 |
| 18-64 years | 13,435 | 8.9 | 5.2 | 3.8 | 51.8 | 39.2 |
| 65 years and over | 1,161 | 11.4 | 6.8 | 4.6 | 53.3 | 35.3 |

Note: *Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990 Census of Population, "General Population Characteristics, United States," 1990 CP-1-1, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1992, Tables 15, 17, 18, 21 and 22.

## Table 6: MEDIAN AGE AT FIRST MARRIAGE, BY SEX, 1890 - 1993

| Year | Men | Women | Year | Men | Women |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1993 | 26.5 | 24.5 | 1964 | 23.1 | 20.5 |
| 1992 | 26.5 | 24.4 | 1963 | 22.8 | 20.5 |
| 1991 | 26.3 | 24.1 | 1962 | 22.7 | 20.3 |
| 1990 | 26.1 | 23.9 | 1961 | 22.8 | 20.3 |
| 1989 | 26.2 | 23.9 | 1960 | 22.8 | 20.3 |
| 1988 | 25.9 | 23.6 | 1959 | 22.5 | 20.2 |
| 1987 | 25.8 | 23.6 | 1958 | 22.6 | 20.2 |
| 1986 | 25.7 | 23.1 | 1957 | 22.6 | 20.3 |
| 1985 | 25.5 | 23.3 | 1956 | 22.5 | 20.1 |
| 1984 | 25.4 | 23.0 | 1955 | 22.6 | 20.2 |
| 1983 | 25.4 | 22.8 | 1954 | 23.0 | 20.3 |
| 1982 | 25.2 | 22.5 | 1953 | 22.8 | 20.2 |
| 1981 | 24.8 | 22.3 | 1952 | 23.0 | 20.2 |
| 1980 | 24.7 | 22.0 | 1951 | 22.9 | 20.4 |
| 1979 | 24.4 | 22.1 | 1950 | 22.8 | 20.3 |
| 1978 | 24.2 | 21.8 | 1949 | 22.7 | 20.3 |
| 1977 | 24.0 | 21.6 | 1948 | 23.3 | 20.4 |
| 1976 | 23.8 | 21.3 | 1947 | 23.7 | 20.5 |
| 1975 | 23.5 | 21.1 | 1940 | 24.3 | 21.5 |
| 1974 | 23.1 | 21.1 | 1930 | 24.3 | 21.3 |
| 1973 | 23.2 | 21.0 | 1920 | 24.6 | 21.2 |
| 1972 | 23.3 | 20.9 | 1910 | 25.1 | 21.6 |
| 1971 | 23.1 | 20.9 | 1900 | 25.9 | 21.9 |
| 1970 | 23.2 | 20.8 | 1890 | 26.1 | 22.0 |
| 1969 | 23.2 | 20.8 | | | |
| 1968 | 23.1 | 20.8 | | | |
| 1967 | 23.1 | 20.6 | | | |
| 1966 | 22.8 | 20.5 | | | |
| 1965 | 22.8 | 20.6 | | | |

Note: Figures for 1947 to 1990 are based on Current Population Survey data, whereas those for earlier dates are from decennial censuses. A standard error of 0.1 years is appropriate to measure sampling variability for any of the above median ages at first marriage, based on Current Population Survey data.
Source: Saluter, Arlene F., "Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20-478, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1994, Table B, and earlier reports.

## Table 7: PERCENT NEVER MARRIED, BY AGE, SEX, RACE, AND HISPANIC ORIGIN: 1940, 1950, 1960, 1970, 1980, AND 1993

| | Women | | | | | | Men | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1993 | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 | 1993 |
| ALL RACES | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20 to 24 years | 47.2 | 32.3 | 28.4 | 35.8 | 50.2 | 66.8 | 72.2 | 59.1 | 53.1 | 54.7 | 68.8 | 81.0 |
| 25 to 29 years | 22.8 | 13.3 | 10.5 | 10.5 | 20.9 | 33.1 | 36.0 | 23.8 | 20.8 | 19.1 | 33.1 | 48.4 |
| 30 to 34 years | 14.7 | 9.3 | 6.9 | 6.2 | 9.5 | 19.3 | 20.7 | 13.2 | 11.9 | 9.4 | 15.9 | 30.1 |
| 35 to 39 years | 11.2 | 8.4 | 6.1 | 5.4 | 6.2 | 12.5 | 15.3 | 10.1 | 8.8 | 7.2 | 7.8 | 19.7 |
| 40 to 44 years | 9.5 | 8.3 | 6.1 | 4.9 | 4.8 | 9.0 | 12.6 | 9.0 | 7.3 | 6.3 | 7.1 | 10.8 |
| 45 to 54 years | 8.7 | 7.8 | 7.0 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 5.4 | 11.1 | 8.5 | 7.4 | 7.5 | 6.1 | 6.9 |
| 55 to 64 years | 9.0 | 7.9 | 8.0 | 6.8 | 4.5 | 4.3 | 10.7 | 8.4 | 8.0 | 7.8 | 5.3 | 6.6 |
| 65 years and over | 9.3 | 8.9 | 8.5 | 7.7 | 5.9 | 4.4 | 9.8 | 8.4 | 7.7 | 7.5 | 4.9 | 4.4 |
| WHITE | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20 to 24 years | 48.4 | 32.4 | 27.4 | 34.6 | 47.2 | 63.8 | 73.5 | 59.5 | 52.5 | 54.4 | 67.0 | 79.0 |
| 25 to 29 years | 23.2 | 13.2 | 9.8 | 9.2 | 18.3 | 28.7 | 36.7 | 23.6 | 20.0 | 17.8 | 31.4 | 46.2 |
| 30 to 34 years | 15.0 | 9.3 | 6.6 | 5.5 | 8.1 | 15.5 | 20.7 | 13.1 | 11.3 | 9.2 | 14.2 | 27.3 |
| 35 to 39 years | 11.5 | 8.5 | 5.9 | 4.6 | 5.2 | 9.9 | 15.1 | 10.1 | 8.3 | 6.1 | 6.6 | 17.1 |
| 40 to 44 years | 9.8 | 8.6 | 6.0 | 4.8 | 4.3 | 7.3 | 12.5 | 9.0 | 7.1 | 5.7 | 6.7 | 9.8 |
| 45 to 54 years | 9.0 | 8.2 | 7.2 | 4.9 | 4.4 | 4.6 | 11.1 | 8.6 | 7.2 | 7.1 | 5.6 | 6.1 |
| 55 to 64 years | 9.3 | 8.2 | 8.2 | 7.0 | 4.4 | 3.7 | 10.8 | 8.6 | 7.8 | 7.6 | 5.2 | 5.9 |
| 65 years and over | 9.7 | 9.3 | 8.8 | 8.0 | 6.1 | 4.4 | 10.1 | 8.6 | 7.8 | 7.4 | 4.8 | 4.4 |
| BLACK | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20 to 24 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 43.5 | 68.5 | 81.2 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 56.1 | 79.3 | 89.6 |
| 25 to 29 years. | (na) | (na) | (na) | 18.8 | 37.2 | 57.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 28.4 | 44.2 | 61.1 |
| 30 to 34 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 10.8 | 19.0 | 43.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 9.2 | 30.0 | 48.3 |
| 35 to 39 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 12.1 | 12.2 | 29.7 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 15.8 | 18.5 | 38.7 |
| 40 to 44 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.9 | 9.0 | 21.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 11.2 | 10.8 | 20.4 |
| 45 to 54 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 4.4 | 7.7 | 11.9 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 10.4 | 11.7 | 14.4 |
| 55 to 64 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 4.7 | 5.7 | 8.9 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 9.1 | 5.9 | 14.6 |
| 65 years and over | (na) | (na) | (na) | 4.2 | 4.5 | 4.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 5.7 | 5.5 | 5.8 |
| HISPANIC ORIGIN* | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 20 to 24 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 33.4 | 42.8 | 55.2 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 49.9 | 61.8 | 71.3 |
| 25 to 29 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 13.7 | 22.5 | 30.9 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 19.4 | 28.9 | 46.2 |
| 30 to 34 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 8.4 | 11.2 | 17.9 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 11.0 | 12.1 | 28.9 |
| 35 to 39 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.9 | 6.6 | 12.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 7.6 | 5.8 | 21.5 |
| 40 to 44 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.3 | 7.9 | 9.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 7.1 | 6.5 | 12.4 |
| 45 to 54 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.1 | 7.1 | 7.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.2 | 6.4 | 10.9 |
| 55 to 64 years | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.7 | 7.8 | 6.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.0 | 4.3 | 5.9 |
| 65 years and over | (na) | (na) | (na) | 7.7 | 5.4 | 8.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 8.8 | 9.7 | 3.9 |

Note: *Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
(na) Not available.
Source: Saluter, Arlene, "Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P20-478. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1994.

Table 8. DIVORCE RATE, 1860 TO 1988 (rate per thousand married women)

| Year | Rate | Year | Rate | Year | Rate | Year | Rate |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1860 | 1.2 | 1893 | 3.1 | 1926 | 7.5 | 1959 | 9.3 |
| 1861 | 1.1 | 1894 | 3.0 | 1927 | 7.8 | 1960 | 9.2 |
| 1862 | 1.0 | 1895 | 3.2 | 1928 | 7.8 | 1961 | 9.6 |
| 1863 | 1.1 | 1896 | 3.3 | 1929 | 8.0 | 1962 | 9.4 |
| 1864 | 1.4 | 1897 | 3.4 | 1930 | 7.5 | 1963 | 9.6 |
| 1865 | 1.6 | 1898 | 3.6 | 1931 | 7.1 | 1964 | 10.0 |
| 1866 | 1.8 | 1899 | 3.7 | 1932 | 6.1 | 1965 | 10.6 |
| 1867 | 1.5 | 1900 | 4.0 | 1933 | 6.1 | 1966 | 10.9 |
| 1868 | 1.5 | 1901 | 4.2 | 1934 | 7.5 | 1967 | 11.2 |
| 1869 | 1.6 | 1902 | 4.2 | 1935 | 7.8 | 1968 | 12.5 |
| 1870 | 1.5 | 1903 | 4.3 | 1936 | 8.3 | 1969 | 13.4 |
| 1871 | 1.6 | 1904 | 4.3 | 1937 | 8.7 | 1970 | 14.9 |
| 1872 | 1.7 | 1905 | 4.3 | 1938 | 8.4 | 1971 | 15.8 |
| 1873 | 1.7 | 1906 | 4.4 | 1939 | 8.5 | 1972 | 17.0 |
| 1874 | 1.8 | 1907 | 4.5 | 1940 | 8.8 | 1973 | 18.2 |
| 1875 | 1.8 | 1908 | 4.4 | 1941 | 9.4 | 1974 | 19.3 |
| 1876 | 1.8 | 1909 | 4.5 | 1942 | 10.1 | 1975 | 20.3 |
| 1877 | 1.9 | 1910 | 4.5 | 1943 | 11.0 | 1976 | 21.1 |
| 1878 | 1.9 | 1911 | 4.8 | 1944 | 12.0 | 1977 | 21.1 |
| 1879 | 2.0 | 1912 | 4.9 | 1945 | 14.4 | 1978 | 21.9 |
| 1880 | 2.2 | 1913 | 4.7 | 1946 | 17.9 | 1979 | 22.8 |
| 1881 | 2.3 | 1914 | 5.0 | 1947 | 13.6 | 1980 | 22.6 |
| 1882 | 2.4 | 1915 | 5.1 | 1948 | 11.2 | 1981 | 22.6 |
| 1883 | 2.4 | 1916 | 5.5 | 1949 | 10.6 | 1982 | 21.7 |
| 1884 | 2.4 | 1917 | 5.7 | 1950 | 10.3 | 1983 | 21.3 |
| 1885 | 2.3 | 1918 | 5.4 | 1951 | 9.9 | 1984 | 21.5 |
| 1886 | 2.5 | 1919 | 6.5 | 1952 | 10.1 | 1985 | 21.7 |
| 1887 | 2.7 | 1920 | 8.0 | 1953 | 9.9 | 1986 | 21.2 |
| 1888 | 2.7 | 1921 | 7.2 | 1954 | 9.5 | 1987 | 20.8 |
| 1889 | 2.9 | 1922 | 6.6 | 1955 | 9.3 | 1988 | 20.7 |
| 1890 | 3.0 | 1923 | 7.1 | 1956 | 9.4 | | |
| 1891 | 3.1 | 1924 | 7.2 | 1957 | 9.2 | | |
| 1892 | 3.1 | 1925 | 7.2 | 1958 | 8.9 | | |

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Advance Report of Final Divorce Statistics, 1988," Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol. 39, No. 12, Supplement 2, May 21, 1991, Hyattsville, Maryland 1991.

Table 9: GENERAL AND TOTAL FERTILITY RATES, 1800 - 1988 ( general fertility rate per thousand women age 15-44)

| Year | General fertility rate | Total fertility rate | Year | General fertility rate | Total fertility rate |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1988 | 67.2 | 1932.0 | 1942 | 91.5 | 2554.8 |
| 1987 | 65.7 | 1871.0 | 1941 | 83.4 | 2331.5 |
| 1986 | 65.4 | 1836.0 | 1940 | 79.9 | 2229.0 |
| 1985 | 66.2 | 1842.5 | 1939 | 77.6 | 2171.7 |
| 1984 | 65.4 | 1805.5 | 1938 | 79.1 | 2221.7 |
| 1983 | 65.8 | 1802.5 | 1937 | 77.1 | 2173.3 |
| 1982 | 67.3 | 1828.5 | 1936 | 75.8 | 2145.6 |
| 1981 | 67.4 | 1815.0 | 1935 | 77.2 | 2188.7 |
| 1980 | 68.4 | 1839.5 | 1934 | 78.5 | 2232.0 |
| 1979 | 67.2 | 1808.0 | 1933 | 76.3 | 2172.0 |
| 1978 | 65.5 | 1760.0 | 1932 | 81.7 | 2318.6 |
| 1977 | 66.8 | 1789.5 | 1931 | 84.6 | 2401.7 |
| 1976 | 65.0 | 1738.0 | 1930 | 89.2 | 2532.5 |
| 1975 | 66.0 | 1774.0 | 1929 | 89.3 | 2532.0 |
| 1974 | 67.8 | 1835.0 | 1928 | 93.8 | 2659.8 |
| 1973 | 68.8 | 1879.0 | 1927 | 99.8 | 2824.3 |
| 1972 | 73.1 | 2010.0 | 1926 | 102.6 | 2900.7 |
| 1971 | 81.6 | 2266.5 | 1925 | 106.6 | 3011.6 |
| 1970 | 87.9 | 2480.0 | 1924 | 110.9 | 3120.7 |
| 1969 | 86.1 | 2455.5 | 1923 | 110.5 | 3101.2 |
| 1968 | 85.2 | 2464.2 | 1922 | 111.2 | 3109.4 |
| 1967 | 87.2 | 2557.7 | 1921 | 119.8 | 3326.2 |
| 1966 | 90.8 | 2721.4 | 1920 | 117.9 | 3263.3 |
| 1965 | 96.3 | 2912.6 | 1919 | 111.2 | 3067.7 |
| 1964 | 104.7 | 3190.5 | 1918 | 119.8 | 3312.2 |
| 1963 | 108.3 | 3318.8 | 1917 | 121.0 | 3333.3 |
| 1962 | 112.0 | 3461.3 | 1916 | 123.4 | |
| 1961 | 117.1 | 3620.3 | 1915 | 125.0 | |
| 1960 | 118.0 | 3653.6 | 1914 | 126.6 | |
| 1959 | 118.8 | 3638.2 | 1913 | 124.7 | |
| 1958 | 120.0 | 3628.9 | 1912 | 125.8 | |
| 1957 | 122.7 | 3682.4 | 1911 | 126.3 | |
| 1956 | 121.0 | 3604.7 | 1910 | 126.8 | |
| 1955 | 118.3 | 3498.3 | 1909 | 126.8 | |
| 1954 | 117.9 | 3461.2 | 1910 | 123.8 | |
| 1953 | 115.0 | 3349.4 | 1900 | 130.0 | |
| 1952 | 113.8 | 3286.5 | 1890 | 137.0 | |
| 1951 | 111.4 | 3199.1 | 1880 | 155.0 | |
| 1950 | 106.2 | 3028.0 | 1870 | 167.0 | |
| 1949 | 107.1 | 3036.2 | 1860 | 184.0 | |
| 1948 | 107.3 | 3026.2 | 1850 | 194.0 | |
| 1947 | 113.3 | 3181.2 | 1840 | 222.0 | |
| 1946 | 101.9 | 2857.9 | 1830 | 240.0 | |
| 1945 | 85.9 | 2421.8 | 1820 | 260.0 | |
| 1944 | 88.8 | 2494.5 | 1810 | 274.0 | |
| 1943 | 94.3 | 2640.2 | 1800 | 278.0 | |

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children. Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Table 2.1.

## Table 10: NUMBER OF CHILDREN EVER BORN AND LIFETIME BIRTHS EXPECTED FOR WOMEN BORN 1835 - 1969

| Year of birth of women | Children per 1,000 women | Year of birth of women | Children per 1,000 women |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1963-69 | 2,045 | 1885-89 | 3,146 |
| 1958-62 | 2,116 | 1880-84 | 3,301 |
| 1953-57 | 2,057 | 1875-79 | 3,462 |
| 1948-52 | 2,088 | 1870-74 | 3,700 |
| 1943-57 | 2,297 | 1865-69 | 3,901 |
| 1935-39 | 2,918 | 1860-64 | 4,744 |
| 1930-34 | 3,106 | 1855-59 | 4,972 |
| 1925-29 | 2,978 | 1850-54 | 5,218 |
| 1920-24 | 2,738 | 1845-49 | 5,266 |
| 1915-19 | 2,496 | 1840-44 | 5,364 |
| 1910-14 | 2,402 | 1835-39 | 5,395 |
| 1905-09 | 2,355 | | |
| 1900-04 | 2,492 | | |
| 1895-99 | 2,706 | | |
| 1890-94 | 2,998 | | |

Note: Data for ever-married women born 1835-1914 and for all women born 1915-1969. Women born 1943-69 were aged 18-24, 30-34 in 1988 aged 30-34 in 1983 and 1978. Women born 1915-29 were aged 40-44, 45-49, 50-54, 55-59, and 60-64 in 1980.

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Table 2.2.

## Table 11: RATIO OF BIRTHS TO UNMARRIED WOMEN, BY RACE OF CHILD: 1940 - 1991

| Ratio per 1,000 live births | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Race of child | | | Race of child | | |
| | | | All other | | | All other | |
| Year | All races 1/ | White | Total | Black | White | Total | Black |
| 1991 | 295.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) | 218.3 | 582.2 | 679.4 |
| 1990 | 280.3 | 200.7 | 553.3 | 652.3 | 203.5 | 571.1 | 665.3 |
| 1989 | 270.8 | 189.6 | 550.1 | 644.9 | 192.2 | 565.4 | 657.2 |
| 1988 | 257.1 | 177.2 | 539.3 | 634.9 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1987 | 244.9 | 166.6 | 531.7 | 622.1 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1986 | 233.9 | 157.1 | 523.7 | 612.1 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1985 | 220.2 | 144.7 | 513.8 | 601.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1984 | 210.0 | 134.1 | 507.5 | 592.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1983 | 202.8 | 127.7 | 499.5 | 582.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1982 | 194.3 | 120.7 | 487.5 | 566.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1981 | 189.2 | 115.9 | 485.1 | 559.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1980 | 184.3 | 110.4 | 484.5 | 552.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1979 | 171.1 | 93.6 | 488.1 | 546.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1978 | 163.2 | 87.1 | 475.6 | 532.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1977 | 155.0 | 81.8 | 464.9 | 517.4 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1976 | 147.8 | 76.8 | 451.5 | 503.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1975 | 142.5 | 73.0 | 441.7 | 487.9 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1974 | 132.3 | 65.4 | 427.3 | 470.9 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1973 | 129.8 | 63.9 | 416.9 | 457.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1972 | 123.7 | 60.4 | 402.6 | 439.1 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1971 | 112.9 | 56.1 | 373.3 | 405.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1970 | 106.9 | 56.6 | 349.3 | 375.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1969 | 100.2 | 54.7 | 325.1 | 348.7 | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1968 | 96.9 | 53.3 | 312.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1967 | 90.3 | 48.7 | 293.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1966 | 83.9 | 44.4 | 276.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1965 | 77.4 | 39.6 | 263.2 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1964 | 68.5 | 33.9 | 245.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1963 | 63.3 | 30.4 | 235.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1962 | 58.8 | 27.0 | 227.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1961 | 56.3 | 25.3 | 223.4 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1960 | 52.7 | 22.9 | 215.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1959 | 52.0 | 22.1 | 218.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1958 | 49.6 | 20.9 | 212.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1957 | 47.4 | 19.6 | 206.7 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1956 | 46.5 | 19.0 | 204.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1955 | 45.3 | 18.6 | 202.4 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1954 | 44.0 | 18.2 | 198.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1953 | 41.2 | 16.9 | 191.1 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1952 | 39.1 | 16.3 | 183.4 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1951 | 39.1 | 16.3 | 182.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1950 | 39.8 | 17.5 | 179.6 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1949 | 37.4 | 17.3 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1948 | 36.7 | 17.8 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1947 | 35.7 | 18.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1946 | 38.1 | 21.1 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1945 | 42.9 | 23.6 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1944 | 37.6 | 20.2 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1943 | 33.4 | 16.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1942 | 34.3 | 16.9 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1941 | 38.1 | 19.0 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1940 | 37.9 | 19.5 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |

(na) Not available

1/ Includes races other than white and black

Note: Race of mother only available for 1989, 1990 and 1991. In 1991 race of child was not collected. For 42 states and the District of Columbia, marital status of mother is reported on the birth certificate; for 8 states, mothers marital status is inferred.

Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the U.S., 1991," Vol. I, Natality. Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (publication in preparation) Table 1-76.

## Table 12: EXPECTATION OF LIFE AT BIRTH BY RACE AND SEX, 1900 - 1991

| | | White | | Black | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| At birth: | | | | | |
| 1991 | 75.5 | 72.9 | 79.6 | 64.6 | 73.8 |
| 1990* | 75.4 | 72.7 | 79.4 | 64.5 | 73.6 |
| 1989* | 75.1 | 72.5 | 79.2 | 64.3 | 73.3 |
| 1988* | 74.9 | 72.2 | 78.9 | 64.4 | 73.2 |
| 1987* | 74.9 | 72.1 | 78.9 | 64.7 | 73.4 |
| 1979-81 | 73.88 | 70.82 | 78.22 | 64.10 | 72.88 |
| 1969-71 | 70.75 | 67.94 | 75.49 | 60.00 | 68.32 |
| 1959-61 | 69.89 | 67.55 | 74.19 | (na) | (na) |
| 1900-1902 | 49.24 | 48.23 | 51.08 | 32.54 | 35.04 |

Note: Life table values are revised and may differ from those published in Advance Report of Final Mortality Statistics
(na) Not available.
Source: National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the United States, 1989," Vol. II - Mortality, part A, Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Tables 6-4 and 6-5.
1990-91, National Center for Health Statistics, Monthly Vital Statistics Report, "Advance Report of Final Mortality Statistics, 1991" Vol. 42, No. 2, Supplement August 31, 1993.



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## Table 13: PERCENT SURVIVING FROM BIRTH TO SELECTED AGES, 1900 - 1989

| | | White | | Black | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| To age 1 year: | | | | | |
| 1989 | 99.0 | 99.1 | 99.3 | 98.0 | 98.3 |
| 1988 | 99.0 | 99.0 | 99.3 | 98.1 | 98.4 |
| 1987 | 99.0 | 99.0 | 99.2 | 98.0 | 98.4 |
| 1979-81 | 98.7 | 98.8 | 99.0 | 97.7 | 98.1 |
| 1969-71 | 98.0 | 98.0 | 98.5 | 96.4 | 97.1 |
| 1959-61 | 97.4 | 97.4 | 98.0 | (na) | (na) |
| 1900-1902 | 87.6 | 86.7 | 88.9 | 74.7 | 78.5 |
| To age 20 years: | | | | | |
| 1989 | 98.1 | 98.1 | 99.3 | 96.4 | 97.5 |
| 1988 | 98.1 | 98.0 | 98.7 | 96.5 | 97.6 |
| 1987 | 98.1 | 98.0 | 98.7 | 96.6 | 97.6 |
| 1979-81 | 97.7 | 97.5 | 98.4 | 96.1 | 97.2 |
| 1969-71 | 96.7 | 96.5 | 97.6 | 94.1 | 95.7 |
| 1959-61 | 96.1 | 95.9 | 97.1 | (na) | (na) |
| 1900-1902 | 77.2 | 76.4 | 79.0 | 56.7 | 59.1 |
| To age 40 years: | | | | | |
| 1989 | 95.3 | 94.5 | 97.4 | 88.0 | 94.3 |
| 1988 | 95.3 | 94.5 | 97.4 | 88.3 | 94.4 |
| 1987 | 95.4 | 94.5 | 97.3 | 88.7 | 94.5 |
| 1979-81 | 94.9 | 94.0 | 97.0 | 88.5 | 94.1 |
| 1969-71 | 93.3 | 92.6 | 95.8 | 83.4 | 90.8 |
| 1959-61 | 93.1 | 92.4 | 95.3 | (na) | (na) |
| 1900-1902 | 65.9 | 65.0 | 67.9 | 43.0 | 46.1 |

(na) Not available.
Sources: National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the United States, 1989," Vol. II - Mortality, Part A, Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Table 6-4.
National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the United States, 1988," Vol. II - Mortality, Part A, Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Table 6-4.
National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the United States, 1987," Vol. II - Mortality, Part A, Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Table 6-4.

Table 14: DEATH RATES BY AGE AND RACE: 1900 - 1990 (Number of deaths, excluding fetal deaths, per 1,000 population for specified group. Prior to 1933, for death-registration only)

| | Total | Under 1 Year | 1-4 Years | 5-14 Years | 15-24 Years | 25-34 Year | 35-44 Years | 45-54 Years | 55-64 Years | 65-74 Year | 75-84 Years | 85 + Years |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All races | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1900 | 17.2 | 162.4 | 19.8 | 3.9 | 5.9 | 8.2 | 10.2 | 15.0 | 27.2 | 56.4 | 123.3 | 260.9 |
| 1910 | 14.7 | 131.8 | 14.0 | 2.9 | 4.5 | 6.5 | 9.0 | 13.7 | 26.2 | 55.6 | 122.2 | 250.3 |
| 1920 | 13.0 | 92.3 | 9.9 | 2.6 | 4.9 | 6.8 | 8.1 | 12.2 | 23.6 | 52.5 | 118.9 | 248.3 |
| 1930 | 11.3 | 69.0 | 5.6 | 1.7 | 3.3 | 4.7 | 6.8 | 12.2 | 24.0 | 51.4 | 112.7 | 228.0 |
| 1940 | 10.8 | 54.9 | 2.9 | 1.0 | 2.0 | 3.1 | 5.2 | 10.3 | 22.2 | 48.4 | 112.0 | 235.7 |
| 1950 | 9.6 | 33.0 | 1.4 | 0.6 | 1.3 | 1.8 | 3.6 | 8.5 | 19.0 | 41.0 | 93.3 | 202.0 |
| 1960* | 9.5 | 27.0 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 3.0 | 7.6 | 17.4 | 38.2 | 87.5 | 198.6 |
| 1970 | 9.5 | 21.4 | 0.8 | 0.4 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 3.1 | 7.3 | 16.6 | 35.8 | 80.0 | 163.4 |
| 1980 | 8.8 | 12.9 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 2.3 | 5.8 | 13.5 | 29.9 | 66.9 | 159.8 |
| 1990 | 8.6 | 9.4 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 2.2 | 4.6 | 11.8 | 26.1 | 60.8 | 147.8 |
| White | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1900 | 17.0 | 159.4 | 19.4 | 3.8 | 5.7 | 8.1 | 10.1 | 14.8 | 27.0 | 56.2 | 123.3 | 262.0 |
| 1910 | 14.5 | 129.3 | 13.7 | 2.9 | 4.4 | 6.3 | 8.7 | 13.5 | 26.0 | 55.4 | 122.5 | 252.5 |
| 1920 | 12.6 | 87.3 | 9.4 | 2.5 | 4.3 | 6.2 | 7.5 | 11.5 | 23.0 | 52.1 | 119.3 | 249.8 |
| 1930 | 10.8 | 63.9 | 5.2 | 1.6 | 2.8 | 3.8 | 5.9 | 10.8 | 22.8 | 50.6 | 113.2 | 230.5 |
| 1940 | 10.4 | 50.3 | 2.6 | 1.0 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 4.4 | 9.5 | 21.1 | 47.7 | 113.0 | 242.0 |
| 1950 | 9.5 | 29.9 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 3.1 | 7.7 | 18.0 | 40.2 | 94.2 | 206.8 |
| 1960* | 9.5 | 23.6 | 1.0 | 0.4 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 2.6 | 6.9 | 16.3 | 37.4 | 88.3 | 203.5 |
| 1970 | 9.5 | 18.7 | 0.8 | 0.4 | 1.2 | 1.3 | 2.7 | 6.7 | 15.8 | 34.9 | 80.4 | 168.9 |
| 1980 | 8.9 | 11.0 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 1.1 | 1.2 | 2.0 | 5.3 | 12.8 | 29.2 | 66.6 | 162.2 |
| 1990 | 8.9 | 8.1 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 4.3 | 11.3 | 25.7 | 60.8 | 150.9 |
| Black | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1900 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1910 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1920 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1930 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1940 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1950 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1960* | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1970 | 10.0 | 38.4 | 1.4 | 0.6 | 2.1 | 3.8 | 7.2 | 13.8 | 25.7 | 47.2 | 78.6 | 113.0 |
| 1980 | 8.8 | 23.6 | 1.0 | 0.4 | 1.4 | 2.7 | 4.9 | 10.9 | 21.5 | 39.3 | 73.8 | 136.1 |
| 1990 | 8.2 | 16.5 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 1.6 | 2.8 | 4.7 | 8.3 | 17.7 | 33.2 | 68.7 | 127.1 |

(na) Not available.
*White only race shown
Source: "Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970," Bicentennial Edition, Part 1, Series B181-192, U.S. Bureau of th Census, Washington, D.C. 1975.
National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the United States, 1950," Vol. I, Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1954. Table 8.40.
National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the United States, 1962," Vol. II, - Mortality, part A, Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1964.
National Center for Health Statistics, "Vital Statistics of the United States, 1988," Vol. II - Mortality, part A, Public Health Service, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. Table 1-4.
National Center for Health Statistics, "Annual Summary of Births, Marriages, Divorces, and Deaths: US, 1990," Monthly vital

## Table 15: HOUSEHOLDS BY NUMBER OF PERSONS, 1790 - 1993 (Numbers in thousands)

| Year | Number of households | Average size | Percent distribution of number of households | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | 1 person | 2 persons | 3 persons | 4 persons | 5 persons | 6 persons | 7+persons |
| 1790 | 558 | 5.79 | 3.7 | 7.8 | 11.7 | 13.8 | 13.9 | 13.2 | 35.8 |
| 1890* | 12,690 | 4.93 | 3.6 | 13.2 | 16.7 | 16.8 | 15.1 | 11.6 | 23.0 |
| 1900 | 15,964 | 4.76 | 5.1 | 15.0 | 17.6 | 16.9 | 14.2 | 10.9 | 20.4 |
| 1920 | 24,352 | 4.34 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1930 | 29,905 | 4.11 | 7.9 | 23.4 | 20.8 | 17.5 | 12.0 | 7.6 | 10.9 |
| 1940 | 34,949 | 3.67 | 7.1 | 24.8 | 22.4 | 18.1 | 11.5 | 6.8 | 9.3 |
| 1950 | 43,554 | 3.37 | 10.9 | 28.8 | 22.6 | 17.8 | 10.0 | 5.1 | 4.9 |
| 1960[a] | 52,799 | 3.33 | 13.1 | 27.8 | 18.9 | 17.6 | 11.5 | 5.7 | 5.4 |
| 1970 | 63,401 | 3.14 | 17.0 | 28.8 | 17.3 | 15.8 | 10.4 | 5.6 | 5.1 |
| 1980[b] | 80,467 | 2.76 | 22.6 | 31.2 | 17.3 | 15.4 | 7.9 | 5.5 | (na) |
| 1990[b] | 91,947 | 2.63 | 24.6 | 32.0 | 17.4 | 15.1 | 6.7 | 2.5 | 1.7 |
| 1993[c] | 96,391 | 2.63 | 24.5 | 32.3 | 18.5 | 15.5 | 6.6 | 2.3 | 1.3 |

| Year | Persons in Households | Percent distribution of persons by household size | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | | | | |
| 1790* | 3,929 | 0.5 | 2.2 | 5.0 | 7.8 | 9.9 | 11.3 | 63.2 |
| 1890* | 62,622 | 0.7 | 5.3 | 10.2 | 13.6 | 15.3 | 14.1 | 40.7 |
| 1900** | 73,411 | 1.1 | 6.5 | 11.5 | 14.7 | 15.4 | 14.2 | 36.5 |
| 1920 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| 1930** | 119,812 | 2.0 | 11.7 | 15.6 | 17.5 | 14.9 | 11.4 | 27.0 |
| 1940 | 128,427 | 1.9 | 13.5 | 18.3 | 19.7 | 15.6 | 11.1 | 19.8 |
| 1950 | 144,552 | 3.3 | 17.3 | 20.4 | 21.4 | 15.1 | 9.1 | 13.5 |
| 1960 | 174,373 | 3.9 | 16.8 | 17.1 | 21.3 | 17.4 | 10.2 | 13.3 |
| 1970 | 197,400 | 5.4 | 18.4 | 16.6 | 20.1 | 16.5 | 10.7 | 12.3 |
| 1980[b] | 220,796 | 8.2 | 22.8 | 19.0 | 22.5 | 14.3 | 13.2 | 0.0 |
| 1990[b] | 242,012 | 9.3 | 24.3 | 19.8 | 22.9 | 12.8 | 5.7 | 5.1 |
| 1993[c] | 253,924 | 9.3 | 24.6 | 20.0 | 23.5 | 12.5 | 5.2 | 5.0 |

(na) Not available.
[a]first year for which figures include Alaska and Hawaii.
[b]1980 Census of Population, PC80-1-C1, "General Social and Economic Characteristics." Table 98. 1990 Census of Population. CP-1-1, "General Population Characteristics," Table 36.
[c]Current Population Survey (see source)
*Total population in households not available.
**Population in private families.
Sources: "Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970," Bicentennial Edition, Part 1, Series A288-319 and A335-349, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C., 1975.
Rawlings, Steve W., "Household and Family Characteristics: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P20-477, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1994, Table A1.

## Table 16. AVERAGE POPULATION PER HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY: 1940 - 1993

| Year | Population per household | | | Population per family | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | All ages | Under 18 years | 18 years and over | All ages | Under 18 years | 18 years and over |
| 1993 | 2.63 | 0.70 | 1.94 | 3.16 | 0.96 | 2.20 |
| 1992 | 2.62 | 0.69 | 1.93 | 3.17 | 0.97 | 2.22 |
| 1991 | 2.63 | 0.69 | 1.94 | 3.18 | 0.96 | 2.22 |
| 1990 | 2.63 | 0.69 | 1.94 | 3.17 | 0.96 | 2.21 |
| 1989 | 2.62 | 0.69 | 1.93 | 3.16 | 0.96 | 2.20 |
| 1988 | 2.64 | 0.70 | 1.94 | 3.17 | 0.96 | 2.21 |
| 1987 | 2.66 | 0.71 | 1.96 | 3.19 | 0.96 | 2.22 |
| 1986 | 2.67 | 0.71 | 1.96 | 3.21 | 0.98 | 2.23 |
| 1985 | 2.69 | 0.72 | 1.97 | 3.23 | 0.98 | 2.24 |
| 1984 | 2.71 | 0.73 | 1.98 | 3.24 | 0.99 | 2.25 |
| 1983 | 2.73 | 0.74 | 1.99 | 3.26 | 1.00 | 2.26 |
| 1982 | 2.72 | 0.75 | 1.97 | 3.25 | 1.01 | 2.24 |
| 1981 | 2.73 | 0.76 | 1.96 | 3.27 | 1.03 | 2.23 |
| 1980 | 2.76 | 0.79 | 1.97 | 3.29 | 1.05 | 2.23 |
| 1979 | 2.78 | 0.81 | 1.97 | 3.31 | 1.08 | 2.23 |
| 1978 | 2.81 | 0.83 | 1.98 | 3.33 | 1.10 | 2.23 |
| 1977 | 2.86 | 0.87 | 1.99 | 3.37 | 1.13 | 2.24 |
| 1976 | 2.89 | 0.89 | 2.00 | 3.39 | 1.15 | 2.23 |
| 1975 | 2.94 | 0.93 | 2.01 | 3.42 | 1.18 | 2.23 |
| 1974 | 2.97 | 0.96 | 2.00 | 3.44 | 1.21 | 2.23 |
| 1973 | 3.01 | 1.00 | 2.02 | 3.48 | 1.25 | 2.23 |
| 1972 | 3.06 | 1.03 | 2.03 | 3.53 | 1.29 | 2.25 |
| 1971 | 3.11 | 1.07 | 2.04 | 3.57 | 1.32 | 2.25 |
| 1970 | 3.14 | 1.09 | 2.05 | 3.58 | 1.34 | 2.25 |
| 1969 | 3.16 | 1.11 | 2.05 | 3.60 | 1.36 | 2.24 |
| 1968 | 3.20 | 1.14 | 2.06 | 3.63 | 1.38 | 2.25 |
| 1967 | 3.26 | 1.17 | 2.08 | 3.67 | 1.41 | 2.27 |
| 1966 | 3.27 | 1.19 | 2.08 | 3.69 | 1.42 | 2.27 |
| 1965 | 3.29 | 1.21 | 2.09 | 3.70 | 1.44 | 2.26 |
| 1964 | 3.33 | 1.23 | 2.10 | 3.70 | 1.44 | 2.25 |
| 1963 | 3.33 | 1.22 | 2.10 | 3.68 | 1.43 | 2.25 |
| 1962 | 3.31 | 1.21 | 2.10 | 3.67 | 1.42 | 2.25 |
| 1961 | 3.34 | 1.22 | 2.13 | 3.70 | 1.42 | 2.27 |
| 1960 | 3.33 | 1.21 | 2.12 | 3.67 | 1.41 | 2.26 |
| 1959 | 3.34 | 1.20 | 2.14 | 3.65 | 1.39 | 2.26 |
| 1958 | 3.34 | 1.19 | 2.15 | 3.64 | 1.37 | 2.27 |
| 1957 | 3.33 | 1.17 | 2.16 | 3.60 | 1.34 | 2.27 |
| 1956 | 3.32 | 1.15 | 2.17 | 3.58 | 1.31 | 2.27 |
| 1955 | 3.33 | 1.14 | 2.19 | 3.59 | 1.30 | 2.29 |
| 1954 | 3.34 | 1.13 | 2.20 | 3.59 | 1.30 | 2.29 |
| 1953 | 3.28 | 1.09 | 2.19 | 3.53 | 1.24 | 2.29 |
| 1952 | 3.32 | 1.12 | 2.20 | 3.54 | 1.25 | 2.29 |
| 1951 | 3.34 | 1.10 | 2.23 | 3.54 | 1.23 | 2.31 |
| 1950 | 3.37 | 1.06 | 2.31 | 3.54 | 1.17 | 2.37 |
| 1949 | 3.42 | 1.09 | 2.33 | 3.58 | 1.19 | 2.39 |
| 1948 | 3.49 | 1.10 | 2.48 | 3.64 | 1.19 | 2.44 |
| 1947 | 3.56 | (na) | (na) | 3.67 | (na) | (na) |
| 1940 | 3.67 | 1.14 | 2.53 | 3.76 | 1.24 | 2.52 |

(na) Not Available

Source: Rawlings, Steve W., "Household and Family Characteristics: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P20-477, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1994, Table A1.

## Table 17: HOUSEHOLD AND FAMILY UNITS BY TYPE, 1910 - 1993 (numbers in thousands)

| | Total Households | Family Households | Married-Households | Other family Male Householder | Other family Female Householder | Nonfamily Total | Nonfamily Male Householder | Nonfamily Female Householder |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| March 1993 | 96391 | 70.7 | 55.2 | 3.1 | 12.4 | 29.3 | 12.7 | 16.6 |
| March 1992 | 95669 | 70.2 | 54.8 | 3.2 | 12.2 | 29.8 | 13.0 | 16.8 |
| March 1991 | 94312 | 70.3 | 55.3 | 3.1 | 11.9 | 29.7 | 12.9 | 16.8 |
| March 1990 | 93347 | 70.8 | 56.0 | 3.1 | 11.7 | 29.2 | 12.4 | 16.8 |
| March 1989 | 92830 | 70.9 | 56.1 | 3.1 | 11.7 | 29.1 | 12.8 | 16.3 |
| March 1988[a] | 91124 | 71.6 | 56.7 | 3.1 | 11.7 | 28.4 | 12.4 | 16.1 |
| March 1988 | 91066 | 71.5 | 56.9 | 3.0 | 11.6 | 28.5 | 12.4 | 16.1 |
| March 1987 | 89479 | 72.1 | 57.6 | 2.8 | 11.7 | 27.9 | 11.9 | 16.0 |
| March 1986 | 88458 | 71.9 | 57.6 | 2.7 | 11.5 | 28.1 | 12.0 | 16.1 |
| March 1985 | 86789 | 72.3 | 58.0 | 2.6 | 11.7 | 27.7 | 11.7 | 16.1 |
| March 1984[b] | 85290 | 72.7 | 58.7 | 2.4 | 11.6 | 27.3 | 11.4 | 15.9 |
| March 1984 | 85407 | 72.6 | 58.6 | 2.4 | 11.6 | 27.4 | 11.4 | 16.0 |
| March 1983 | 83918 | 73.2 | 59.5 | 2.4 | 11.3 | 26.8 | 11.3 | 15.5 |
| March 1982 | 83527 | 73.1 | 59.4 | 2.4 | 11.3 | 26.9 | 11.3 | 15.6 |
| March 1981 | 82368 | 73.2 | 59.8 | 2.3 | 11.0 | 26.8 | 11.3 | 15.5 |
| March 1980[c] | 80776 | 73.7 | 60.8 | 2.1 | 10.8 | 26.3 | 10.9 | 15.4 |
| March 1980 | 79108 | 73.9 | 60.9 | 2.2 | 10.8 | 26.1 | 10.9 | 15.3 |
| March 1979 | 77330 | 74.4 | 61.6 | 2.1 | 10.6 | 25.6 | 10.4 | 15.2 |
| March 1978 | 76030 | 74.9 | 62.3 | 2.1 | 10.6 | 25.1 | 10.3 | 14.8 |
| March 1977 | 74142 | 76.2 | 64.0 | 2.0 | 10.2 | 23.8 | 9.4 | 14.4 |
| March 1976 | 72867 | 76.9 | 64.9 | 2.0 | 10.1 | 23.1 | 9.0 | 14.1 |
| March 1975 | 71120 | 78.1 | 66.0 | 2.1 | 10.0 | 21.9 | 8.3 | 13.6 |
| March 1974 | 69859 | 78.6 | 67.0 | 2.0 | 9.6 | 21.4 | 8.1 | 13.3 |
| March 1973 | 68251 | 79.5 | 67.8 | 2.1 | 9.6 | 20.5 | 7.5 | 13.0 |
| March 1972 | 66676 | 79.7 | 68.6 | 2.0 | 9.2 | 20.3 | 7.3 | 13.0 |
| March 1971 | 64778 | 80.4 | 69.4 | 1.9 | 9.1 | 19.6 | 6.8 | 12.8 |
| March 1970 | 63401 | 81.2 | 70.5 | 1.9 | 8.7 | 18.8 | 6.4 | 12.4 |
| March 1969 | 62214 | 81.5 | 70.9 | 2.0 | 8.7 | 18.5 | 6.3 | 12.2 |
| March 1968 | 60813 | 82.2 | 71.5 | 2.0 | 8.7 | 17.8 | 6.0 | 11.7 |
| March 1967 | 59236 | 82.9 | 72.2 | 2.0 | 8.7 | 17.1 | 5.8 | 11.4 |
| March 1966 | 58406 | 82.9 | 72.4 | 2.0 | 8.5 | 17.1 | 5.6 | 11.5 |
| March 1965 | 57436 | 83.3 | 72.6 | 2.0 | 8.7 | 16.7 | 5.7 | 11.0 |
| March 1964 | 56149 | 84.4 | 73.6 | 2.1 | 8.6 | 15.6 | 5.3 | 10.3 |
| March 1963 | 55270 | 84.8 | 74.0 | 2.3 | 8.5 | 15.2 | 5.1 | 10.1 |
| March 1962 | 54764 | 84.5 | 73.8 | 2.3 | 8.4 | 15.5 | 5.4 | 10.2 |
| March 1961 | 53557 | 84.7 | 74.0 | 2.2 | 8.5 | 15.3 | 5.2 | 10.1 |
| March 1960 | 52799 | 85.0 | 74.3 | 2.3 | 8.4 | 15.0 | 5.1 | 9.8 |
| March 1959 | 51435 | 85.5 | 74.7 | 2.5 | 8.3 | 14.5 | 4.8 | 9.8 |
| March 1958 | 50474 | 86.0 | 75.1 | 2.5 | 8.4 | 14.0 | 4.6 | 9.3 |
| March 1957 | 49673 | 87.1 | 75.9 | 2.5 | 8.7 | 12.9 | 4.1 | 8.8 |
| March 1956 | 48902 | 87.1 | 75.8 | 2.9 | 8.5 | 12.9 | 4.2 | 8.7 |
| April 1955 | 47874 | 87.2 | 75.7 | 2.8 | 8.7 | 12.8 | 4.3 | 8.5 |
| April 1954 | 46962 | 87.3 | 76.5 | 2.8 | 8.0 | 12.7 | 4.1 | 8.6 |
| April 1953 | 46385 | 87.4 | 76.7 | 2.6 | 8.1 | 12.6 | 4.1 | 8.5 |
| April 1952 | 45538 | 88.4 | 77.2 | 2.5 | 8.7 | 11.6 | 3.9 | 7.8 |
| April 1951 | 44673 | 88.4 | 77.0 | 2.6 | 8.9 | 11.6 | 3.9 | 7.7 |
| April 1950 | 43554 | 89.2 | 78.2 | 2.7 | 8.3 | 10.8 | 3.8 | 7.0 |
| April 1949 | 42182 | 90.3 | 78.8 | 2.8 | 8.6 | 9.7 | 3.1 | 6.6 |
| April 1948 | 40532 | 90.4 | 78.7 | 2.5 | 9.2 | 9.6 | 3.0 | 6.7 |
| April 1947 | 39107 | 89.4 | 78.3 | 2.9 | 8.2 | 10.6 | 3.5 | 7.0 |
| April 1940[d] | 34949 | 90.1 | 76.0 | 4.3 | 9.8 | 9.9 | 4.6 | 5.3 |
| April 1930 | 29905 | (na) | 79.1 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| June 1920 | 24352 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |
| June 1910 | 20256 | (na) | 80.2 | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) |

Note: [a]Data based on 1988 revised processing.
[b]Incorporates Hispanic-origin population controls.
[c]Revised using population controls based on the 1980 census.
[d]Based on 1940 census.
(na) Not available.

Sources: Rawlings, Steve W., "Household and Family Characteristics: March 1993," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P20-477, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1994, Table A2.
"Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970," Bicentennial Edition, Part 1, Series A288-319, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C., 1975.

## Table 18. CHILDREN BY FATHER'S AND MOTHER'S LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION, BY RACE: 1940 - 80
(numbers in thousands)

| YEARS | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ALL RACES | | | | | |
| Father's Presence in Household, Father's Weeks Worked Last Year, Father's Hours Worked Last Week, | | | | | |
| Intact Family Status, and Mother's Labor Force Status | | | | | |
| Total | 40,035 | 45,190 | 64,782 | 70,129 | 64,586 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Father worked full-time last week and year, intact family | 38.9 | 44.1 | 49.3 | 47.4 | 41.3 |
| Father worked full-time last wk & yr, intact family, mother not in labor force | 36.3 | 38.1 | 37.8 | 30.9 | 20.6 |
| Father worked full-time last week and year, not intact family | 8.3 | 11.3 | 10.5 | 11.6 | 13.8 |
| Father did not work full-time last week and year | 39.5 | 31.7 | 28.5 | 25.3 | 23.5 |
| Father not in household | 13.4 | 12.9 | 11.7 | 15.7 | 21.4 |
| Mother's Labor Force Participation and Number of Parents in the Home | | | | | |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Mother employed, nonemergency work | 8.6 | 14.9 | 24.0 | 33.9 | 45.0 |
| Two-parent family | 6.3 | 12.0 | 20.3 | 27.8 | 36.0 |
| Mother unemployed | 1.0 | 0.7 | 1.7 | 2.2 | 3.7 |
| Two-parent family | 0.5 | 0.5 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 2.4 |
| Mother not in labor force | 81.5 | 76.8 | 69.2 | 58.0 | 44.2 |
| Two-parent family | 77.7 | 73.3 | 65.6 | 52.9 | 38.2 |
| Father but not mother in household | 2.1 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.8 | 2.0 |
| Neither parent in household | 6.7 | 6.2 | 3.9 | 4.0 | 5.1 |
| WHITE | | | | | |
| Father's Presence in Household, Father's Weeks Worked Last Year, Father's Hours Worked Last Week, | | | | | |
| Intact Family Status, and Mother's Labor Force Status | | | | | |
| Total | 35,487 | 39,786 | 56,648 | 60,422 | 54,879 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Father worked full-time last week and year, intact family | 41.0 | 47.1 | 53.2 | 51.8 | 46.0 |
| Father worked full-time last week and year, intact family, mother not in labor force | 38.6 | 41.0 | 41.2 | 34.3 | 23.4 |
| Father worked full-time last week and year, not intact family | 7.9 | 11.0 | 10.4 | 11.6 | 14.1 |
| Father did not work full-time last week and year | 39.8 | 31.7 | 27.6 | 24.7 | 23.7 |
| Father not in household | 11.3 | 10.2 | 8.9 | 11.9 | 16.2 |
| Mother's Labor Force Participation and Number of Parents in the Home | | | | | |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Mother employed, nonemergency work | 7.5 | 14.5 | 23.2 | 33.1 | 44.8 |
| Two-parent family | 5.6 | 12.0 | 20.2 | 28.2 | 37.4 |
| Mother unemployed | 1.0 | 0.6 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 3.1 |
| Two-parent family | 0.5 | 0.4 | 1.2 | 1.6 | 2.4 |
| Mother not in labor force | 84.3 | 79.2 | 71.7 | 60.2 | 46.1 |
| Two-parent family | 80.7 | 76.2 | 68.8 | 56.7 | 42.1 |
| Father but not mother in household | 1.9 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 1.6 | 1.9 |
| Neither parent in household | 5.3 | 4.5 | 2.7 | 3.1 | 4.0 |

Table 18. (continued)

| YEARS | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BLACK | | | | | |
| Father's Presence in Household, Father's Weeks Worked Last Year, Father's Hours Worked Last Week, Intact Family Status, and Mother's Labor Force Status | | | | | |
| Total | 4,548 | 5,403 | 8,134 | 9,707 | 9,707 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Father worked full-time last week and year, intact family | 22.4 | 21.5 | 21.9 | 20.1 | 15.1 |
| Father worked full-time last week & year, intact family, mother not in labor force | 18.5 | 16.8 | 14.3 | 9.8 | 4.9 |
| Father worked full-time last week and year, not intact family | | | | | |
| Father did not work full-time last week and year | 11.9 | 13.4 | 11.3 | 11.7 | 12.3 |
| Father not in household | 29.7 | 32.8 | 31.3 | 39.9 | 50.4 |
| Mother's Labor Force Participation and Number of Parents in the Home | | | | | |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Mother employed, nonemergency work | 17.5 | 18.2 | 30.3 | 38.9 | 45.5 |
| Two-parent family | 11.3 | 12.3 | 21.5 | 25.7 | 27.7 |
| Mother unemployed | 1.9 | 1.2 | 3.2 | 4.4 | 6.7 |
| Two-parent family | 0.6 | 0.8 | 2.2 | 2.6 | 2.7 |
| Mother not in labor force | 59.5 | 59.2 | 52.2 | 43.9 | 33.7 |
| Two-parent family | 55.2 | 51.6 | 42.8 | 28.8 | 16.4 |
| Father but not mother in household | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.2 | 2.9 | 2.8 |
| Neither parent in household | 18.1 | 18.8 | 12.1 | 9.8 | 11.2 |

NOTES: Estimates from 1940-80 Census PUMS. Full-time work last week is 35 hours or more during the week. Full-time work last year is 48 weeks or more during the year. Intact family is one in which all the children were born after the parent's only marriage. In all years, father did not work full-time included those who worked less than full-time and those who did not work at all.

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Tables 4.1 and 4.2.

## Table 19. LIVING ARRANGEMENTS OF CHILDREN AGED 0 -17 BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN: 1940 - 1980

| | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ALL RACES | | | | | |
| Total Number (in thousands) | 40,035 | 46,306 | 64,782 | 70,129 | 64,586 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Two-Parent Family | 84.6 | 86.1 | 87.2 | 82.5 | 76.6 |
| Children born after marriage (one or both parents married only once) | 75.2 | 74.5 | 77.7 | 72.0 | 63.0 |
| Parents married once (intact two-parent family) | 69.6 | 69.8 | 70.6 | 65.5 | 56.8 |
| Father remarried, mother married once | (na) | (na) | 4.8 | 4.5 | 4.6 |
| Mother remarried, father married once | 5.6 | 4.7 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 1.6 |
| At least one stepchild in family | 9.4 | 11.5 | 6.0 | 6.5 | 8.2 |
| Mother married once | 8.2 | 6.2 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.8 |
| Mother remarried | 1.2 | 5.4 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 4.4 |
| Both parents remarried | (na) | (na) | 3.6 | 4.0 | 5.5 |
| One-Parent Family | 8.8 | 7.8 | 8.7 | 13.6 | 18.3 |
| Mother-only family | 6.7 | 6.4 | 7.7 | 11.8 | 16.2 |
| Mother never married | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 1.1 | 3.0 |
| Mother separated or married spouse absent | 2.1 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 4.7 | 4.4 |
| Mother divorced | 0.9 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 3.5 | 7.2 |
| Mother widowed | 3.6 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 2.5 | 1.6 |
| Father only family | 2.1 | 1.4 | 1.0 | 1.8 | 2.1 |
| Father never married | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.3 |
| Father separated or married spouse absent | 0.6 | 0.6 | 0.6 | 1.0 | 0.5 |
| Father divorced | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 1.0 |
| Father widowed | 1.3 | 0.6 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| No Parent in Home | 6.7 | 6.0 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 5.1 |
| Grandparent family | 2.0 | 1.9 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 1.5 |
| Child is married householder or householder's spouse | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| Child is unmarried householder | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 |
| Child is other relative of householder | 2.1 | 1.7 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.7 |
| Child not related to householder | 1.2 | 0.8 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 1.1 |
| Child in group quarters | 1.2 | 1.3 | 0.7 | 0.6 | 0.4 |

Table 19. (continued)

| | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| WHITE | | | | | |
| Total Number (in thousands) | 35,487 | 40,808 | 56,648 | 60,422 | 54,788 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Two-Parent Family | 86.7 | 88.8 | 90.1 | 86.5 | 81.9 |
| Children born after marriage (one or both parents married only once) | 78.0 | 78.2 | 81.4 | 76.6 | 68.6 |
| Parents married once (intact two-parent family) | 72.6 | 73.5 | 74.5 | 70.2 | 62.1 |
| Father remarried, mother married once | (na) | (na) | 4.6 | 4.4 | 4.8 |
| Mother remarried, father married once | 5.4 | 4.7 | 2.3 | 2.0 | 1.7 |
| At least one stepchild in family | 8.7 | 10.6 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 7.4 |
| Mother married once | 7.6 | 5.6 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 2.8 |
| Mother remarried | 1.1 | 5.0 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 4.6 |
| Both parents remarried | (na) | (na) | 3.5 | 4.2 | 5.9 |
| One-Parent Family | 8.0 | 6.9 | 6.9 | 10.4 | 14.0 |
| Mother-only family | 6.0 | 5.7 | 6.2 | 8.8 | 12.1 |
| Mother never married | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 1.0 |
| Mother separated or married spouse absent | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.1 |
| Mother divorced | 0.9 | 1.4 | 1.9 | 3.2 | 6.7 |
| Mother widowed | 3.2 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 2.2 | 1.3 |
| Father only family | 2.0 | 1.2 | 0.7 | 1.6 | 1.9 |
| Father never married | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Father separated or married spouse absent | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 0.4 |
| Father divorced | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 1.0 |
| Father widowed | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| No Parent in Home | 5.2 | 4.4 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 4.1 |
| Grandparent family | 1.3 | 1.1 | 0.7 | 0.9 | 1.0 |
| Child is married householder or householder's spouse | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| Child is unmarried householder | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 |
| Child is other relative of householder | 1.6 | 1.2 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.3 |
| Child not related to householder | 1.0 | 0.7 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 1.1 |
| Child in group quarters | 1.1 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 0.4 |

Table 19. (Continued)

| | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BLACK | | | | | |
| Total Number (in thousands) | 4,548 | 5,497 | 8,134 | 9,707 | 9,707 |
| Percent | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Two-Parent Family | 67.2 | 65.3 | 66.5 | 57.3 | 46.7 |
| Children born after marriage (one or both parents married only once) | 52.8 | 47.4 | 51.1 | 42.1 | 30.7 |
| Parents married once (intact two-parent family) | 46.0 | 42.8 | 43.3 | 35.9 | 26.5 |
| Father remarried, mother married once | (na) | (na) | 6.1 | 4.6 | 3.4 |
| Mother remarried, father married once | 6.8 | 4.6 | 1.7 | 1.6 | 0.8 |
| At least one stepchild in family | 14.4 | 17.9 | 11.1 | 12.2 | 13.1 |
| Mother married once | 12.1 | 10.5 | 7.7 | 8.5 | 9.5 |
| Mother remarried | 2.3 | 7.4 | 3.4 | 3.7 | 3.6 |
| Both parents remarried | (na) | (na) | 4.3 | 3.0 | 2.9 |
| One-Parent Family | 14.5 | 16.2 | 21.4 | 33.0 | 42.0 |
| Mother-only family | 11.5 | 13.7 | 19.1 | 30.1 | 39.2 |
| Mother never married | 0.6 | 0.7 | 1.4 | 5.4 | 14.0 |
| Mother separated or married spouse absent | 3.7 | 7.8 | 11.1 | 14.8 | 11.7 |
| Mother divorced | 0.7 | 1.9 | 2.4 | 5.2 | 10.0 |
| Mother widowed | 6.5 | 3.3 | 4.2 | 4.7 | 3.5 |
| Father only family | 3.0 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.9 | 2.8 |
| Father never married | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.6 | 0.9 |
| Father separated or married spouse absent | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.3 | 1.6 | 1.0 |
| Father divorced | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.6 |
| Father widowed | 1.7 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.3 |
| No Parent in Home | 18.1 | 18.3 | 12.0 | 9.9 | 11.1 |
| Grandparent family | 7.6 | 7.6 | 6.2 | 4.9 | 4.8 |
| Child is married householder or householder's spouse | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.1 |
| Child is unmarried householder | 0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 |
| Child is other relative of householder | 5.8 | 5.8 | 3.4 | 2.5 | 4.2 |
| Child not related to householder | 2.4 | 1.9 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 1.5 |
| Child in group quarters | 1.8 | 2.7 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 0.5 |

Table 19. (continued)

| | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| HISPANIC* | | | | | |
| Total Number (in thousands) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 5,724 |
| Percent | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 100.0 |
| Two-Parent Family | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 71.1 |
| Children born after marriage (one or both | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 57.1 |
| parents married only once) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | |
| Parents married once (intact two-parent family) | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 52.2 |
| Father remarried, mother married once | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 3.7 |
| Mother remarried, father married once | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 1.2 |
| At least one stepchild in family | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 10.9 |
| Mother married once | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.6 |
| Mother remarried | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 4.3 |
| Both parents remarried | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 3.1 |
| One-Parent Family | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 21.5 |
| Mother-only family | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 19.9 |
| Mother never married | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 3.9 |
| Mother separated or married spouse absent | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 6.9 |
| Mother divorced | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 7.7 |
| Mother widowed | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 1.4 |
| Father only family | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 1.6 |
| Father never married | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 0.5 |
| Father separated or married spouse absent | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 0.6 |
| Father divorced | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 0.3 |
| Father widowed | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 0.2 |
| No Parent in Home | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 7.6 |
| Grandparent family | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 1.8 |
| Child is married householder or householder's spouse | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 0.4 |
| Child is unmarried householder | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 0.1 |
| Child is other relative of householder | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 3.4 |
| Child not related to householder | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 1.5 |
| Child in group quarters | (na) | (na) | (na) | (na) | 0.4 |

(na) Not available
Note: *Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Tables 3.1, 3.6, 3.11.

## Table 20. RELATIVELY POOR AND OFFICIALLY POOR CHILDREN AGE 0-17 BY FAMILY WORK AND WELFARE STATUS: 1939 - 1988

| | 1939 | 1949 | 1959 | 1969 | 1979 | CPS 1979 | CPS 1988 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Percent by Family Work and Welfare Status | | | Relatively Poor Children | | | | |
| Total number (in thousands) | 11,385 | (na) | 14,864 | 14,938 | 14,425 | 14,295 | 16,852 |
| Fully self-supporting | 60-70 | (na) | 69.9 | 66.5 | 58.6 | 49.5 | 52.5 |
| Mainly self-supporting | 12-30 | (na) | 17.3 | 13.5 | 14.4 | 16.3 | 13.5 |
| Mainly welfare-dependent | | (na) | 6.4 | 8.6 | 9.7 | 16.6 | 15.7 |
| Fully welfare-dependent | 10-18 | (na) | 6.5 | 11.5 | 17.3 | 17.7 | 18.4 |
| Total | | (na) | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Percent by Family Work and Welfare Status | | | Officially Poor Children | | | | |
| Total number (in thousands) | 21,348 | (na) | 15,714 | 10,350 | 9,629 | 9,953 | 12,209 |
| Fully self-supporting | 75-80 | (na) | 69.8 | 61.8 | 51.0 | 42.0 | 44.0 |
| Mainly self-supporting | 9-17 | (na) | 18.6 | 12.5 | 12.8 | 14.0 | 12.6 |
| Mainly welfare-dependent | | (na) | 5.9 | 9.9 | 11.5 | 20.0 | 18.7 |
| Fully welfare-dependent | 8-11 | (na) | 5.7 | 15.8 | 24.7 | 24.0 | 24.7 |
| Total | | (na) | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

(na) Not available

Notes: Welfare income and hence welfare dependence is measured as cash income received from the Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) and Social Security programs. All other cash income is classified as self-support. This approach allows for consistent measurement across all census and CPS years. For additional discussion of welfare programs see footnote 1, and Chapters 7 and 11. Fully self- supporting families receive no AFDC or Social Security income. Mainly self-supporting families receive less than 50 percent of their income from AFDC or Social Security. Mainly welfare-dependent families receive at least 50 percent but less than 100 percent of their income from AFDC or Social Security. Fully welfare-dependent families receive 100 percent of their income from AFDC or Social Security. See Chapter 7 for measurement of relative poverty and official poverty.

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Table 8.1.

**Table 21. MALE WORKERS WITH LOW ANNUAL EARNINGS, BY WORK EXPERIENCE: 1964, 1969, 1974, 1979, 1984, 1989, AND 1990**

| Characteristic | 1964 | 1969 | 1974 | 1979 | 1984 | 1989 | 1990 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| All workers | 32.9 | 27.1 | 27.4 | 27.2 | 30.5 | 30.8 | 32.5 |
| With year-round, full-time attachment | (na) | (na) | 12.7 | 13.3 | 18.5 | 18.3 | 21.2 |
| Year-round, full-time worker | 16.5 | 8.8 | 7.4 | 7.7 | 10.5 | 12.1 | 13.9 |
| Wage and salary worker | 12.9 | 6.6 | 5.5 | 6.0 | 8.4 | 11.0 | 12.6 |
| Age: | | | | | | | |
| 18 to 64 years | 15.4 | 7.8 | 6.6 | 7.3 | 10.1 | 11.8 | 13.6 |
| 18 to 24 years | 34.7 | 20.4 | 17.1 | 18.1 | 29.8 | 35.5 | 39.7 |
| 25 to 34 years | 11.6 | 5.6 | 4.9 | 5.7 | 9.1 | 12.7 | 14.9 |
| 35 to 54 years | 12.5 | 5.8 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 7.0 | 7.5 | 8.9 |
| 55 to 64 years | 20.6 | 10.8 | 7.7 | 7.3 | 8.9 | 9.5 | 11.7 |
| 65 years and over | 42.9 | 36.2 | 33.9 | 25.5 | 26.5 | 22.2 | 26.5 |
| Race: | | | | | | | |
| White | 14.7 | 7.6 | 6.9 | 7.2 | 9.9 | 11.5 | 13.0 |
| Black | 38.0 | 21.6 | 13.8 | 14.0 | 17.5 | 17.1 | 22.4 |
| Hispanic origin (of any race) | (na) | (na) | 12.1 | 13.4 | 18.7 | 24.3 | 28.2 |
| Household relationship: | | | | | | | |
| Husband | 12.5 | 5.6 | 4.6 | 5.1 | 7.1 | 7.7 | 9.1 |

(na) Not available
Note: Year-round, full-time attachment includes persons who spent at least 50 weeks during the year at work or looking for work and who either worked 35 hours a week or more or worked fewer hours for nonvoluntary reasons. Year-round, full-time, indicates 50 or more weeks of full-time employment during the previous calendar year.
Source: McNeil, John. "Workers With Low Earnings: 1964 to 1990," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-60, No. 178, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1992, Tables B, C, D, and E.



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## Table 22. CHILDREN AGED 0-5 AND 6-17, BY PARENTAL PRESENCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS: 1940 - 1989

| | 1940 | | 1950 | | 1960 | | 1970 | | 1980 | | 1989 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Age 0-5 | Age 6-17 | Age 0-5 | Age 6-17 | Age 0-5 | Age 6-17 | Age 0-5 | Age 6-17 | Age 0-5 | Age 6-17 | Age 0-5 | Age 6-17 |
| Total Number (in thousands) | 12,384 | 27,651 | 18,801 | 27,505 | 24,808 | 39,974 | 20,895 | 49,234 | 19,719 | 44,867 | 22,303 | 41,598 |
| Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Breadwinner-homemaker total | 82.9 | 71.9 | 78.3 | 59.9 | 72.9 | 58.3 | 60.7 | 46.7 | 45.5 | 32.1 | 31.6 | 21.5 |
| Breadwinner-homemaker intact | 70.7 | 58.6 | 65.6 | 48.0 | 61.0 | 47.5 | 50.4 | 37.7 | 35.2 | 24.2 | (na) | (na) |
| Breadwinner-homemaker blended | 12.2 | 13.3 | 12.7 | 11.9 | 11.9 | 10.8 | 10.3 | 9.0 | 10.3 | 7.8 | (na) | (na) |
| Two-parent, father not breadwinner | 2.1 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 5.7 | 1.8 | 2.6 | 2.5 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 3.7 | 4.9 | 4.7 |
| One-parent family, not a breadwinner | 2.3 | 4.6 | 2.9 | 3.9 | 3.9 | 3.7 | 5.6 | 5.1 | 7.2 | 5.8 | 11.0 | 7.5 |
| Dual-earner family, employed full time | 2.5 | 3.3 | 4.5 | 3.9 | 6.6 | 12.5 | 10.1 | 15.3 | 13.8 | 20.8 | 17.5 | 23.1 |
| One-parent family, employed full time | 1.4 | 3.6 | 1.7 | 2.6 | 2.4 | 4.3 | 4.4 | 6.3 | 5.6 | 9.5 | 7.0 | 11.8 |
| Dual-earner family, employed part time | 2.9 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 14.0 | 8.4 | 12.3 | 11.7 | 16.1 | 17.0 | 19.1 | 20.8 | 22.7 |
| One-parent family, employed part time | 0.9 | 2.4 | 0.7 | 3.1 | 1.2 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 5.5 | 5.5 |
| No parent in home | 5.0 | 7.5 | 4.7 | 6.9 | 2.9 | 4.5 | 3.0 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 5.2 | 1.7 | 3.3 |

Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government, and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Tables 5.1 and 5.2.

**Table 23. PERCENT OF CHILDREN AGED 0-5 WITH SURROGATE PARENT IN HOME, BY PARENTAL PRESENCE AND WORK SITUATION: 1940 - 1980**

| | 1940 | 1950 | 1960 | 1970 | 1980 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total Number (in thousands) | 12,384 | 18,801 | 24,808 | 20.895 | 19,719 |
| Percent with Surrogate Parent in Home | | | | | |
| Breadwinner-homemaker total | 15.1 | 11.8 | 6.3 | 4.7 | 3.6 |
| Breadwinner-homemaker intact | 14.9 | 11.4 | 5.7 | 4.4 | 3.2 |
| Breadwinner-homemaker blended | 16.1 | 13.9 | 9.4 | 6.4 | 4.9 |
| Two-parent, father not breadwinner | 25.6 | 15.7 | 18.3 | 10.0 | 6.4 |
| One-parent family, not a breadwinner | 51.6 | 44.3 | 31.2 | 24.5 | 21.6 |
| Dual-earner family, employed full time | 18.8 | 22.9 | 11.1 | 7.4 | 4.9 |
| One-parent family, employed full time | 57.1 | 50.0 | 43.3 | 32.3 | 20.1 |
| Dual-earner family, employed part time | 20.4 | 15.8 | 8.7 | 6.3 | 4.0 |
| One-parent family, employed part time | 51.2 | 54.8 | 34.6 | 21.4 | 25.1 |
| Total | 16.5 | 14.0 | 9.0 | 7.8 | 6.7 |

Note: Surrogate parent is any relative (other than the parents) who (1) lives in the home with preschoolers and their parents, (2) is at least 18 years of age, (3) is not enrolled in school, and (4) either is not in the labor force or works less than full-time.
Source: Hernandez, Donald J., "America's Children, Resources from Family, Government, and the Economy," Russell Sage Foundation, New York, N.Y. 1993, Table 5.4.

## Table 24. SELECTED INDICATORS OF HOUSING QUALITY, ALL HOUSEHOLDS AND HOUSEHOLDS WITH CHILDREN: 1991

| Characteristics | All Households | Households with children | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Married Couples | Other Households with two or more Adults | Households with one adult |
| Percent of units with physical problems | | | | | |
| Total | 8 | 9 | 7 | 14 | 13 |
| Owners | 6 | 7 | 6 | 10 | 9 |
| Renters | 11 | 13 | 10 | 17 | 14 |
| Percent of units with 1.01 or more persons per room | | | | | |
| Total | 3 | 7 | 7 | 13 | 3 |
| Owners | 1 | 4 | 4 | 6 | 1 |
| Renters | 5 | 12 | 15 | 18 | 4 |

Source: Woodward, Jeanne, "Housing America's Children in 1991," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Housing Reports, Series H121/93-6. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993, Table 1.

## Table 25: PERCENT WITH SELECTED EQUIPMENT, ALL HOUSEHOLDS AND HOUSEHOLDS WITH CHILDREN: 1991

| Characteristics | All Households | Households with children | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Married Couples | Other Households with two or more Adults | Households with one adult |
| All occupied | 93,147 | 34,588 | 24,034 | 4,724 | 5,830 |
| Percent with: | | | | | |
| Complete kitchen | 99 | 99 | 99 | 99 | 99 |
| Complete plumbing facilities | 98 | 98 | 98 | 98 | 98 |
| Washing machines | 76 | 82 | 89 | 74 | 61 |
| Clothes dryers | 69 | 76 | 85 | 62 | 50 |
| Dishwashers | 50 | 53 | 61 | 37 | 33 |
| Garbage disposals | 41 | 40 | 43 | 33 | 33 |
| Central heating equipment | 88 | 87 | 88 | 86 | 88 |
| Air conditioning: Central | 42 | 42 | 46 | 33 | 33 |
| Room units | 29 | 28 | 27 | 31 | 28 |

Source: Woodward, Jeanne, "Housing America's Children in 1991," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Housing Reports, Series H121/93-6, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993, Table 4.



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## Table 26: OPINION OF HOME AND NEIGHBORHOOD, ALL HOUSEHOLDS AND HOUSEHOLDS WITH CHILDREN: 1991

| Characteristics | All Households | Households with children | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Married Couples | Other Households with two or more Adults | Households with one adult |
| Overall Opinion of Structure | | | | | |
| Households reporting | 92,397 | 34,426 | 23,939 | 4,698 | 5,789 |
| Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Poor (3 or less) | 2 | 2 | 1 | 5 | 4 |
| Fair (4-7) | 25 | 28 | 24 | 34 | 36 |
| Good (8-10) | 74 | 70 | 74 | 61 | 60 |
| Overall Opinion of neighborhood | | | | | |
| Households Reporting | 91,296 | 34,036 | 23,648 | 4,653 | 5,734 |
| Percent | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Poor (3 or less) | 4 | 5 | 3 | 8 | 11 |
| Fair (4-7) | 26 | 27 | 25 | 32 | 35 |
| Good (8-10) | 70 | 68 | 72 | 61 | 54 |

Source: Woodward, Jeanne, "Housing America's Children in 1991," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Housing Reports, Series H121/93-6, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993, Table J.

Table 27: PERCENT OF CHILDREN LIVING DOUBLED-UP, BY RACE AND PARENTAL PRESENCE, 1939-1988

| Total | 1939 | 1949 | 1959 | 1969 | 1979 | 1979 CPS | 1988 CPS |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ALL RACES | | | | | | | |
| Doubled-up or with no parent | 26.7 | 22.2 | 16.3 | 14.1 | 15.2 | 14.8 | 15.9 |
| Doubled-up Total | 21.8 | 17.6 | 13.4 | 11.0 | 11.3 | 11.0 | 13.4 |
| Two-parent family | 17.9 | 14.3 | 10.2 | 7.4 | 5.8 | 5.9 | 4.9 |
| One-parent family | 4.0 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 8.4 |
| WHITE | | | | | | | |
| Doubled-up or with no parent | 24.7 | 19.6 | 13.6 | 11.6 | 12.3 | 12.0 | 13.0 |
| Doubled-up Total | 21.1 | 16.5 | 11.7 | 9.4 | 9.4 | 9.7 | 11.3 |
| Two-parent family | 17.7 | 13.9 | 9.4 | 6.9 | 5.6 | 5.9 | 5.0 |
| One-parent family | 3.4 | 2.6 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 3.8 | 3.7 | 6.4 |
| BLACK | | | | | | | |
| Doubled-up or with no parent | 43.6 | 41.5 | 35.2 | 29.5 | 31.9 | 30.6 | 31.7 |
| Doubled-up Total | 27.5 | 26.0 | 25.0 | 21.3 | 2.2 | 18.9 | 24.5 |
| Two-parent family | 18.7 | 17.5 | 19.1 | 10.8 | 13.1 | 5.9 | 4.8 |
| One-parent family | 8.8 | 8.5 | 6.0 | 10.5 | 15.2 | 13.0 | 19.7 |

Source: Estimates derived from 1940-1980 Census Pums and March 1980 and 1989 CPS.



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Table 28. DISABILITY STATUS OF CHILDREN 0 TO 17 YEARS OLD, BY SEX: 1991 - 92 (numbers in thousands)

| Characteristic | Both sexes | | Males | | Females | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| Children less than 3 years | 11,791 | 100.0 | 6,000 | 100.0 | 5,791 | 100.0 |
| With a disability | 254 | 2.2 | 133 | 2.2 | 121 | 2.1 |
| Limited in usual kind of activities | 149 | 1.3 | 72 | 1.2 | 76 | 1.3 |
| Received services for developmental needs | 183 | 1.6 | 106 | 1.8 | 77 | 1.3 |
| With a severe disability | 41 | 0.4 | 32 | 0.5 | 8 | 0.1 |
| Children 3 to 5 years | 11,511 | 100.0 | 5,946 | 100.0 | 5,565 | 100.0 |
| With a disability | 597 | 5.2 | 370 | 6.2 | 228 | 4.1 |
| Limited in usual kind of activities | 294 | 2.6 | 184 | 3.1 | 110 | 2.0 |
| Received services for developmental needs | 498 | 4.3 | 323 | 5.4 | 176 | 3.2 |
| Limited in ability to walk, run, or use stairs | 147 | 1.3 | 76 | 1.3 | 71 | 1.3 |
| With a severe disability | 75 | 0.7 | 54 | 0.9 | 21 | 0.4 |
| Children 6 to 14 years | 32,766 | 100.0 | 16,761 | 100.0 | 16,005 | 100.0 |
| With a disability | 2,062 | 6.3 | 1,373 | 8.2 | 689 | 4.3 |
| Limited in ability to do regular school work | 1,764 | 5.4 | 1,197 | 7.1 | 567 | 3.5 |
| Limited in ability to walk, run or use stairs | 524 | 1.6 | 301 | 1.8 | 223 | 1.4 |
| With a severe disability | 412 | 1.3 | 250 | 1.5 | 163 | 1.0 |
| Children 15 to 17 years | 10,067 | 100.0 | 5,172 | 100.0 | 4,895 | 100.0 |
| With a disability | 933 | 9.3 | 558 | 10.8 | 374 | 7.7 |
| Limited in ability to do regular school work | 438 | 4.4 | 321 | 6.2 | 116 | 2.4 |
| With a severe disability | 309 | 3.1 | 159 | 3.1 | 150 | 3.1 |

Source: McNeil, John M., "Americans With Disabilities: 1991-92," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P70-33, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993, Table 34.

**Table 29. DISABILITY STATUS OF CHILDREN 0 TO 17 YEARS OLD, BY RACE AND HISPANIC ORIGIN: 1991 - 92**
(numbers in thousands)

| Characteristic | White | | Black | | Hispanic origin | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| Children less than 3 years | 9,426 | 100.0 | 1,815 | 100.0 | 1,437 | 100.0 |
| With a disability | 203 | 2.2 | 45 | 2.5 | 17 | 1.2 |
| Limited in usual kind of activities | 119 | 1.3 | 27 | 1.5 | 10 | 0.8 |
| Received services for developmental needs | 148 | 1.6 | 32 | 1.8 | 15 | 1.0 |
| With a severe disability | 32 | 0.3 | 9 | 0.5 | 2 | 0.2 |
| Children 3 to 5 years | 9,136 | 100.0 | 1,888 | 100.0 | 1,381 | 100.0 |
| With a disability | 498 | 5.5 | 80 | 4.3 | 35 | 2.5 |
| Limited in usual kind of activities | 229 | 2.5 | 52 | 2.7 | 18 | 1.3 |
| Received services for developmental needs | 430 | 4.7 | 57 | 3.0 | 25 | 1.8 |
| Limited in ability to walk, run, or use stairs | 105 | 1.2 | 41 | 2.2 | 10 | 0.7 |
| With a severe disability | 62 | 0.7 | 7 | 0.4 | 2 | 0.2 |
| Children 6 to 14 years | 26,143 | 100.0 | 5,165 | 100.0 | 3,688 | 100.0 |
| With a disability | 1,702 | 6.5 | 302 | 5.9 | 151 | 4.1 |
| Limited in ability to do regular school work | 1,452 | 5.6 | 260 | 5.0 | 128 | 3.5 |
| Limited in ability to walk, run, or use stairs | 421 | 1.6 | 88 | 1.7 | 39 | 1.1 |
| With a severe disability | 357 | 1.4 | 44 | 0.8 | 22 | 0.6 |
| Children 15 to 17 years | 7,886 | 100.0 | 1,700 | 100.0 | 1,230 | 100.0 |
| With a disability | 702 | 8.9 | 184 | 10.9 | 104 | 8.5 |
| Limited in ability to do regular school work | 334 | 4.2 | 88 | 5.2 | 36 | 2.9 |
| With a severe disability | 207 | 2.6 | 94 | 5.5 | 28 | 2.3 |

Source: McNeil, John M., "Americans With Disabilities: 1991-92," U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P70-33, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993, Table 35.



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## Table 30. CONDITIONS REPORTED AS CAUSE OF DISABILITY: CHILDREN 0 TO 17 YEARS OLD: 1991 - 92 (numbers in thousands)

| | Number of times reported as - | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | First, second or third condition | | First condition | | Second condition | | Third condition | |
| | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent | Number | Percent |
| TOTAL | 4,858 | 100.0 | 3,357 | 100.0 | 965 | 100.0 | 536 | 100.0 |
| Asthma | 311 | 6.4 | 281 | 8.4 | 18 | 1.9 | 12 | 2.2 |
| Autism | 48 | 1.0 | 37 | 1.1 | 11 | 1.1 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Blindness or vision problems | 144 | 3.0 | 95 | 2.8 | 41 | 4.2 | 8 | 1.5 |
| Cancer | 26 | 0.5 | 16 | 0.5 | 10 | 1.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Cerebral Palsy | 129 | 2.7 | 110 | 3.3 | 16 | 1.7 | 3 | 0.6 |
| Deafness or serious trouble hearing | 116 | 2.4 | 74 | 2.2 | 35 | 3.6 | 7 | 1.3 |
| Diabetes | 14 | 0.3 | 14 | 0.4 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Drug or alcohol problem or disorder | 48 | 1.0 | 42 | 1.3 | 6 | 0.6 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Epilepsy of seizure disorder | 128 | 2.6 | 103 | 3.1 | 23 | 2.4 | 2 | 0.4 |
| Hay fever or other respiratory allergies | 76 | 1.6 | 24 | 0.7 | 26 | 2.7 | 26 | 4.9 |
| Head or spinal cord injury | 45 | 0.9 | 31 | 0.9 | 14 | 1.5 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Heart trouble | 44 | 0.9 | 22 | 0.7 | 18 | 1.9 | 4 | 0.7 |
| Impairment or deformity of back, side, foot, or leg | 121 | 2.5 | 89 | 2.7 | 27 | 2.8 | 5 | 0.9 |
| Impairment or deformity of finger, hand, or arm | 27 | 0.6 | 10 | 0.3 | 17 | 1.8 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Learning disability | 1,435 | 29.5 | 1,160 | 34.6 | 187 | 19.4 | 88 | 16.4 |
| Mental or emotional problem or disorder | 305 | 6.3 | 175 | 5.2 | 108 | 11.2 | 22 | 4.1 |
| Mental retardation | 331 | 6.8 | 201 | 6.0 | 70 | 7.3 | 60 | 11.2 |
| Missing legs, feet, toes, arms, hands, or fingers | 70 | 1.4 | 66 | 2.0 | 4 | 0.4 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Paralysis of any kind | 73 | 1.5 | 41 | 1.2 | 15 | 1.6 | 17 | 3.2 |
| Speech problems | 634 | 13.1 | 359 | 10.7 | 141 | 14.6 | 134 | 25.0 |
| Tonsillitis or repeated ear infections | 80 | 1.6 | 15 | 0.4 | 32 | 3.3 | 33 | 6.2 |
| Other | 653 | 13.4 | 392 | 11.7 | 146 | 15.1 | 115 | 21.5 |

Source: McNeil, John M., "Americans With Disabilities: 1991-92." U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P70-33. U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 1993, Table 36.



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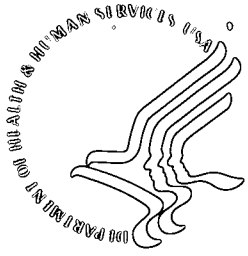

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