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ABSTRACT

This report summarizes the most recent data on key indicators of progress in American higher education. Eight sections focus on the following: high school completion (African Americans, Hispanics, and high school dropout rates); college participation and educational attainment (African Americans, Hispanics, and educational attainment); college enrollment (African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians); college graduation rates (African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians); degrees conferred (African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians); degrees conferred by field (African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, American Indians, doctoral degrees, and doctoral degrees by field); employment in higher education (general trends, African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians); and admissions in higher education: measuring cognitive and noncognitive variables (cognitive admissions measures, noncognitive variables as supplements to cognitive measures of student success, concerns about the use of noncognitive measures and future research, creativity, and racial, cultural, and gender identity). A set of 25 tables present data on minority students and faculty. (Contains 100 references.) (SM)

Minorities in Higher Education

1997-98

Sixteenth Annual Status Report

Deborah J. Wilds
Reginald Wilson

American Council on Education

The Coca-Cola Foundation

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Foreword

The growing complexity and diversity of our society remind us that all of the nation's citizens must have access to education if the United States is to remain a globally competitive democracy in the 21st century. The successes and challenges of American higher education in expanding access are revealed in this, the *Sixteenth Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education*.

The *Status Report* shows that more African Americans and Hispanics are enrolling in the nation's colleges and universities and that, as a group, students of color (including Asian Americans and American Indians) are earning more undergraduate and graduate degrees. This is welcome news.

The report also reminds us, however, that much remains to be done. Although the enrollment and graduation rates of students of color continue to rise, the rate of growth has slowed compared with previous years. Students of color continue to lag behind whites in educational attainment at all levels, and on too many of our campuses, the makeup of faculty and staff members does not yet reflect the diverse society we serve.

In short, the challenge for higher education to expand access and opportunity must remain high on our collective agenda. The very future of our nation–the health of our economy, the strength of our democracy, our quality of life as a people–depends on broad access to high-quality higher education.

The American Council on Education extends its special thanks to The Coca-Cola Foundation for its significant contributions to expanded opportunity and diversity in American higher education, and especially for its continued support in making possible the publication of the *Status Report*.

Our hope is that educators and policymakers will find the 1998 *Status Report* to be an objective yardstick and a useful resource as they assess the past and chart the future.

Stanley O. Ikenberry
President
American Council on Education

Foreword

We believe the start of a career begins long before a new graduate enters the workplace.

Education provides the tools young people need to reach their goals in life. It nurtures talent, develops skills, and builds self-confidence. That's why The Coca-Cola Foundation is dedicated to supporting education. We believe helping people learn is the best way we can reach out and help build stronger communities.

As this decade draws to a close, The Coca-Cola Foundation is on track to contribute $100 million to education in the 1990s. To date, we've worked with more than 400 colleges, universities, schools, and organizations–our partners who take on and tackle the challenges of advancing excellence in education every day, one student at a time.

We hope several of our national initiatives add to their effort. We've launched a $5 million "Keeping Kids In School" project that links 26 colleges with 23 public school systems to bring more college mentors into schools, helping young people stay and succeed in school. We also recently expanded our Coca-Cola First Generation Scholarship Program, which now provides scholarships on 50 college and university campuses for students who are the first in their family to go to college.

This year, we are proud to again support the American Council on Education and its *Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education*. We salute ACE's leadership in drawing together people who believe in improving access to education.

Ingrid Saunders Jones
Chairperson

The Coca-Cola Foundation

Introduction

This *Sixteenth Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education,* released by the Office of Minorities in Higher Education at the American Council on Education (ACE), summarizes the most recent data available on key indicators of progress in American higher education. The report analyzes high school completion and dropout rates and trends in college participation, educational attainment, college enrollment, degrees conferred, and higher education employment by race and ethnicity. As with previous editions of this report, the primary data resources include the U.S. Bureau of the Census Current Population Reports and the Higher Education General Information and Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System survey reports of the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) of the U.S. Department of Education. For faculty data, this year's report relies primarily on information from the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission and the U.S. Department of Education.

This annual report provides important national data, particularly given the recent legal challenges to affirmative action in higher education. These challenges already have resulted in the reduced enrollment of students of color in both California and Texas. California's Proposition 209 removed race, ethnicity, and gender as factors in admissions, and African-American and Latino undergraduate, law, and medical school enrollments have plummeted in the most selective institutions in the University of California system. In Texas, the *Hopwood* decision forced institutions to amend their admissions policies to remove the consideration of race. To help ensure continued diversity, the state legislature passed legislation that guarantees all in-state high school students who graduate in the top 10 percent of their class admission to the University of Texas. The long-term impact of this policy bears watching. Efforts to promote a diverse student body are under attack in other states including Washington, Georgia, and Michigan.

Unfortunately, national enrollment data may not reflect the results of these activities for several years. The most recent data, cited in this *Sixteenth Annual Status Report,* were collected prior to the *Hopwood* decision in Texas and Proposition 209 in California. Therefore, the recent declines in minority enrollments in those states are not reflected in the data presented in this report. Nevertheless, efforts to dismantle affirmative action underscore the important role of this report in providing educators with annual information about access to–and progress within–higher education for African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians. These trends illustrate the need for closer monitoring of trends in college participation, enrollment, and degree attainment among underrepresented groups.

The special focus section of this report discusses broadening the factors that are considered in college admissions decisions to include noncognitive measures, thereby making such decisions more holistic. The section examines concerns about the predictive value of traditional college entrance measures to adequately evaluate the abilities of students of color to succeed in college. Noncognitive variables that are used in the admissions process at some institutions are presented, and examples of how several institutions utilize these variables in admissions decisions are discussed. □

Executive Summary

HIGH SCHOOL COMPLETION

• African Americans and Hispanics continue to trail whites in terms of high school completion rates. Rates during the 1990s have fluctuated considerably among both minority groups.

• In 1996, 75.3 percent of African Americans ages 18 to 24 had completed high school, a decline of nearly 2 percentage points compared to 1995 and 1990, when the high school completion rate was 77 percent. Despite four years of previous progress, African-American men contributed to the 1996 decline.

• Hispanic high school completion rates declined slightly in 1996, to 57.5 percent. Although Hispanics have made progress during the 1990s, their completion rates remain below those posted during the mid-1980s.

• The gap in high school completion rates between whites and African Americans increased in 1996 to 7 percentage points, the largest difference recorded since 1993. Stagnation in rates for African Americans, coupled with a slight increase in completion rates for whites, accounted for this growth in disparity. The gap between white and Hispanic completion rates remains wide at nearly 25 percentage points.

• The percentage of African-American men ages 25 to 29 with four or more years of high school declined slightly in 1996. Despite year-to-year fluctuations, however, the percentage has increased by nearly 6 points since 1990.

• The proportion of Hispanics ages 25 to 29 with at least four years of high school increased from 57.1 percent in 1995 to 61.1 percent in 1996, with both men and women posting gains. However, Hispanics continue to significantly trail whites and African Americans in this category.

• Twelve percent of youths ages 16 to 24 had dropped out of school in 1995, a slight increase from 1993, but a decline from levels during the 1980s. Gender was not a major factor in the 1995 dropout rates.

• The 12.1 percent dropout rate for African Americans in 1995 was higher than the 8.6 percent dropout rate among whites ages 16 to 24.

• Hispanics had the highest dropout rate (30 percent) among the three groups in 1995. Foreign-born Hispanics and Hispanics who spoke little or no English at home were more likely to have dropped out of school.

COLLEGE PARTICIPATION AND EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

• Nationwide, the number of college-age youths continued to decrease in 1996, primarily because of a decline in the white population. The number of youths in the African-American college-age population has remained fairly constant throughout the 1990s, compared to a 27.7 percent increase in the Hispanic college-age population since 1990.

• College participation rates among all high school graduates ages 18 to 24 continued to climb, increasing to 43.5 percent in 1996. This rate was up by 1 percentage point from the previous high mark in 1995.

• African Americans and Hispanics continued to trail whites in 1996 in terms of the college participation rates for high school graduates ages 18 to 24. The rate for African Americans was up slightly, at 35.9 percent, while the rate for Hispanics remained at approximately 35 percent. In comparison, whites recorded their highest college participation rate ever–44 percent–in 1996.

• The college participation rate for African Americans exceeded 35 percent for the third consecutive year. As a group, African-American

high school graduates have gained nearly 3 percentage points in college participation since 1990.

• From 1990 to 1996, Hispanics achieved gains of approximately 6 percentage points in college participation rates.

• White, African-American, and Hispanic female high school graduates ages 18 to 24 are more likely than their male counterparts to participate in higher education. The gender gap remains greater among Hispanics than among the other two groups, however. The 9 percentage point difference among Hispanics in 1996 was four times as large as the gender gaps among African Americans and whites. The 1996 gender gap among Hispanics also was the largest in five years.

• A higher percentage of African Americans ages 25 to 29 had four or more years of college in 1996 than a decade ago. However, the African-American rate of 14.6 percent in 1996 was far below the 28.1 percent rate for whites.

• Only 10 percent of Hispanics ages 25 to 29 had four or more years of college in 1996. However, this rate reflects an increase from 8.9 percent the previous year.

COLLEGE ENROLLMENT

• Total college enrollment remained largely unchanged from 1995 to 1996. Two-year and four-year institutions showed no enrollment change for the year. Enrollment at independent institutions increased by 1.3 percent during the year, while enrollment at public institutions stayed steady. Continued enrollment declines among whites caused most of the stagnation evident in 1996.

• Enrollment among students of color increased by 3.2 percent in 1996, one of the smallest gains of the 1990s. However, enrollment among students of color has increased by 22.2 percent since 1991 and by 61.3 percent since 1986. From 1995 to 1996, Hispanics achieved the greatest progress of the four major ethnic minority groups, with an increase of 5.3 percent.

• All four major ethnic minority groups posted enrollment increases at two- and four-year institutions from 1995 to 1996. Hispanics recorded the largest gains in both categories, including 4.7 percent at four-year institutions and 5.9 percent at two-year institutions. African Americans had the smallest gains, with increases of 2.1 percent at four-year institutions and 1.3 percent at two-year colleges.

• From 1995 to 1996, students of color achieved their greatest gains in enrollment at the graduate level, where enrollment rose by 5.7 percent. They recorded the smallest gains at the professional school level, where enrollment increased by only 2.9 percent.

• Total enrollment among African Americans increased by 1.7 percent from 1995 to 1996, the smallest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups. However, African-American total enrollment has increased each year during the 1990s, with a cumulative gain of 12.3 percent from 1991 to 1996.

• The 5.3 percent enrollment increase for Hispanics in 1996 continued a period of steady enrollment gains. Hispanic enrollment in higher education increased by 33 percent from 1991 to 1996, the largest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups. Hispanic enrollment increased by 86.4 percent from 1986 to 1996.

• College enrollment among Asian Americans increased by 3.4 percent from 1995 to 1996, continuing an upward trend. From 1991 to 1996, Asian-American college enrollment increased by 29.3 percent.

• American Indians and Alaska Natives recorded some gains in higher education enrollment in 1996, particularly at four-year institutions and graduate schools. However, the numbers remain small. In 1996, only 133,972 American Indians were enrolled in higher education.

• Most students of color (83.7 percent) attended lower-cost, public institutions in 1996, compared with 76.7 percent of white students.

GRADUATION RATES

• African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians have experienced increases in graduation rates at NCAA Division I institutions since 1991. However, no progress was made between 1995 and 1996.

• The six-year graduation rate for African Americans at Division I institutions showed the first annual decline in four years, from 40 percent in 1995 to 38 percent in 1996. However, African Americans still

show overall progress of 5 percentage points since 1991.

• Hispanics lost ground slightly in terms of graduation rates at Division I institutions in 1996. Their graduation rate of 45 percent was down 1 percentage point from the previous year, with both men and women contributing to this decrease. However, data show that Hispanics have experienced a gain of 4 percentage points since 1991.

• American Indians in 1996 again had the lowest graduation rate of the four major ethnic groups at Division I colleges and universities. Their 1996 graduation rate of 37 percent has not changed since 1993.

• Asian Americans had the highest Division I graduation rates of the four ethnic minority groups. Their 1996 rate of 64 percent was 5 percentage points higher than that for whites.

DEGREES CONFERRED

• Students of color achieved progress in all four major degree categories from 1994 to 1995, led by a 9.3 percent increase at the master's degree level. Both men and women of color experienced moderate gains in all four degree categories for the 1994–95 academic year.

• Women of color were awarded more bachelor's and master's degrees than men of color, and they also outgained them in their rate of increase from 1994 to 1995. The largest gain for women of color was 10.2 percent at the master's degree level, while the largest gain for men of color was 9.1 percent at the associate degree level.

• These gains resulted in students of color achieving a small increase in their overall share of degrees conferred in 1995. Minorities earned 18 percent of all bachelor's degrees in 1995, up by about 1 percentage point from 1994 and by nearly 5 percentage points since 1990. Nonetheless, students of color were underrepresented in degree awards compared to their enrollment levels. (Students of color accounted for 25.8 percent of all undergraduates enrolled in higher education in 1995.)

• African Americans experienced small to moderate growth in all four degree categories in 1995, ranging from a low of 3.7 percent at the associate level to a high of 10.2 percent at the master's level. African-American women posted larger one-year increases than African-American men in terms of the percentage of associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees earned in 1995.

• After declining in the late 1980s, the number of African Americans earning bachelor's degrees has increased steadily since 1990. The 42.8 percent increase from 1990 to 1995 was greater than the undergraduate enrollment gain of 16.3 percent for African Americans during the same period.

• Hispanics recorded gains in all four degree categories in 1995, ranging from a low of 3.1 percent of first-professional degrees earned to a high of 12.3 percent of associate degrees earned. Hispanic men achieved larger gains than Hispanic women in terms of the percentage of associate and bachelor's degrees earned in 1995.

• In 1995, Hispanic men recorded a 19 percent increase in the number of associate degrees earned, the largest one-year increase among men of color in any degree category. Other gains for Hispanic men included an 8.2 percent rise in the number of bachelor's degrees earned, a 7.4 percent increase in the number of master's degrees earned, and a 3.1 percent growth in the number of first-professional degrees earned.

• Asian Americans experienced moderate growth in all degree categories from 1994 to 1995, ranging from 8.6 percent in the number of first-professional degrees earned to 12.4 percent in the number of associate degrees earned. Asian Americans recorded the largest gains in bachelor's and master's degrees among the four major ethnic minority groups in 1995.

• Despite progress in 1995, American Indians continued to earn 1 percent or less of degrees in all four major categories. American Indians posted their largest 1994 to 1995 increase at the associate degree level, with a gain of 12.7 percent. But American Indians lost ground at the master's degree level, with a decline of 4.5 percent.

• Students of color achieved progress in all six major fields from 1994 to 1995 at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels. At both levels, the largest increases occurred in the health professions. The number of education degrees earned also increased at both the bachelor's and master's levels.

• Despite growth in other categories, African Americans made

DINE COLLEGE

little or no progress in 1995 at the bachelor's degree level in business and social science, the two fields that traditionally are the most popular among African Americans.

• The number of doctoral degrees earned by students of color remained steady from 1995 to 1996, following moderate growth during the past decade. Overall, students of color have achieved gains of 74.1 percent in the number of doctoral degrees earned during the most recent decade.

EMPLOYMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION

• The number of full-time faculty of color increased by 6.9 percent from 1993 to 1995. Among full professors, the number of faculty of color rose by 6.7 percent, while the rate for whites remained largely unchanged.

• All four major ethnic minority groups achieved moderate gains in terms of the number of full professors from 1993 to 1995, although faculty of color made the greatest progress at the associate and assistant professor levels.

• Tenure rates for faculty of color did not change from 1993 to 1995, while the rate for whites increased slightly. In 1995, 74 percent of white faculty and 62 percent of faculty of color held tenured positions.

• The number of minorities in full-time administrative positions increased by 4.7 percent from 1993 to 1995, primarily because of gains among women.

• Nationwide in 1997, African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians accounted for 11.3 percent of all college and university chief executive officers whose racial and ethnic identity was verified.

• African Americans experienced a 5.3 percent gain at the full professor level from 1993 to 1995, with both men and women contributing to the increase. African Americans exhibited similar gains at the associate and assistant professor levels.

• African Americans continue to have the lowest tenure rate among the four ethnic minority groups. Tenure rates for African-American faculty declined slightly, from 61 percent in 1993 to 59 percent in 1995. In 1995, African Americans trailed whites in tenure rates by 5 percentage points.

• The number of Hispanic full-time faculty increased by 7.2 percent from 1993 to 1995. Hispanic women achieved a 10 percent gain, while the increase for Hispanic men was smaller, at 5.4 percent.

• Faculty-rank data for Hispanics showed wide differences by gender. Hispanic men achieved a 7.7 percent increase at the full professor level from 1993 to 1995, while the rate for Hispanic women declined by nearly 9 percent.

• A 9.1 percent increase in the number of Asian-American full-time faculty was the largest 1993 to 1995 gain among the four ethnic minority groups. A 15.2 percent gain by Asian-American women accounted for much of this progress, although Asian-American women were less likely than Asian-American men to hold tenured positions.

• The number of American Indian full-time faculty exceeded 2,000 in 1995, an increase of 46 percent from a decade ago.

• The tenure rate for American Indians in 1995 was unchanged at 63 percent. However, American Indian men were much more likely than American Indian women to gain tenure. Seventy percent of eligible American Indian professors held tenured positions in 1995, compared to only half of American Indian women.

SPECIAL FOCUS

Admissions in Higher Education: Measuring Cognitive and Noncognitive Variables

What are the Issues Concerning Cognitive Admissions Measures?

• Most colleges and universities make use of multiple criteria in determining whom to admit. The most commonly subscribed to cognitive admissions criteria include high school grade point average (GPA), standardized test scores, high school curriculum, and class rank. Other noncognitive indicators (such as letters of recommendation, extracurricular activities, and essays) also are employed, but they are used less frequently and with less emphasis than test scores and GPAs.

• Students seeking college entrance are products of the educational, social, and economic environments from which they come. For myriad complex reasons, including higher poverty rates, pervasive inequalities in K-12 schooling, lower parental education levels, and differences in sociocultural experiences, African-American, Latino, and American Indian students do not perform as well as whites or Asian Pacific Americans on cognitive admissions measures, especially standardized tests. As admissions competition has grown at institutions nationwide, and as institutions both raise their standards to respond to this competition and continue to rely heavily on cognitive admissions measures, these students face growing challenges in their efforts to pursue higher education opportunities.

• The SAT and the ACT were designed to predict the achievement of students during the first year of college. Retention and graduation potential, in addition to first-year grades, should be an important consideration in making admissions decisions. Relatively few studies on admission tests have used retention and graduation as criteria of success in college; some of those that do show little relationship between standardized test scores and those outcomes, particularly for students of color.

• Grades are used to predict postsecondary success because past performance is believed to indicate future performance. Research demonstrates that the use of past grades in conjunction with test scores is a much better predictor of future performance than test scores or GPA alone. However, the use of prior grades is problematic for some students because it fails to take into consideration the possibility of student improvement and development and because of grade inflation.

• Using an applicant's rank in high school as a measure of potential college performance may be more problematic than using the GPA, because class rank is less comparable from one institution to another than GPA, even in the same school district.

• The importance of exposure to a rigorous college preparatory curriculum in predicting college persistence and degree completion may be undervalued in college admissions decisions. Exposure to an academically intense curriculum that includes trigonometry or higher-level math courses is a better predictor of college completion than GPA or scores on a general learned achievement test (such as the SAT or ACT).

Noncognitive Variables as Supplements to Cognitive Measures of Student Success

• A growing body of research supports the importance of noncognitive variables as factors that should be considered in gauging students' talents and potential to succeed in college. These measures could provide broader insight into an applicant's talent, motivation, coping skills, and other relevant factors that are not measured by such cognitive measures as GPA or test scores.

• Some research suggests that colleges and universities need to develop and utilize broader means of assessing students' abilities to succeed in higher education. Using existing noncognitive assessment measures, while de-emphasizing cognitive measures, might result in a more equitable admissions process.

• Noncognitive variables refer to students' motivation, perceptions, and ability to adjust to circumstances and environments. These

factors, unlike cognitive variables such as verbal and quantitative skills, are not measured by standardized tests. However, they can be useful in evaluating students–particularly students of color and women, who are more likely than white male students to demonstrate their abilities in ways not assessed by standardized tests.

• Noncognitive variables are valid for all students, but they have particular utility for women and students of color. Examples of noncognitive variables include:

Positive Self-Concept (or self-esteem). Successful college students typically possess high levels of confidence and self-esteem, as well as independence and determination. Students who feel confident that they can "make it" through college are more likely to persist in their postsecondary studies and to graduate.

Realistic Self-Appraisal. Realistic self-appraisal refers to a student's ability to accurately assess his or her strengths and weaknesses. Students who are able to realistically assess their abilities, despite obstacles to such assessment, are more likely to do well in postsecondary studies than those who are unable to accurately evaluate their strengths and weaknesses.

Understands and Deals with Racism. For students of color, realistic self-appraisal includes a student's ability to recognize, understand, and deal with racism. Research has consistently shown that students of color who understand racism and are prepared to deal with it perform better academically and are more likely to adjust to predominantly white campuses than those who are not prepared to do so.

Long-Range Goals. Having long-range goals contributes to students' success in college and can be used to help predict persistence. Students of color who have long-range goals are more likely to succeed in college than those who do not have such goals.

Availability of a Strong Support Person. Studies have shown that students who have a mentor, role model, or other person who provides a strong positive influence in their lives are more likely to be successful in postsecondary studies.

Successful Leadership Experiences. Leadership ability appears to be an important predictor of college success for all students. However, students of color may demonstrate their leadership in unique ways. Several studies have shown a correlation between leadership ability and the retention of Latino, American Indian, and African-American students, as well as women.

Community. The presence of a community with which students of color and women can identify and from which they can receive support has proven critical to the academic success of these students. Communities that offer the best benefits to students of color and female students often are formed around racial, cultural, and gender factors and/or concerns.

Nontraditional Knowledge Acquired. Research indicates that students of color who show evidence of using nontraditional learning modes prior to college tend to be more successful in their academic endeavors than those who do not. Learning through community projects or through family-based cultural activities are examples of how students acquire knowledge outside the traditional academic system.

• Some colleges and universities (private more so than public institutions) consider such factors as leadership, community and social orientation, creativity, and motivation in deciding whom to admit. Although a variety of approaches are being used, noncognitive skills can be assessed by three basic methods: interviews, portfolios, and questionnaires.

• Questions may be raised about the reliability of noncognitive measures. Research has shown that noncognitive variables can be measured consistently within an individual and that they can be used to predict college success beyond the first year of college.

• As more institutions try new admissions strategies, and as more researchers and testing companies develop such measures, the validity and reliability of these measures can be studied. Many concerns about the utility, validity, and reliability of noncognitive measures can be addressed through such processes.

Characteristics of a Holistic Admissions Policy

• Colleges and universities that seek to develop more holistic admissions practices would assess a broad range of student attributes, enhancing fairness to all prospective students and increasing the likelihood that students who were admitted would be successful. Such a process would take into account noncognitive variables as well as GPAs, standardized test scores, and high school curricula. The strengths and weaknesses of each measure considered also would be taken into consideration.

• These institutions would employ a variety of assessment methods. Because measuring tools assess different skills and abilities, many assessment methods should be used in the admissions process. In addition to considering test scores, GPA, class rank, and high school curriculum, an admissions process also could involve interviews, questionnaires, and portfolio reviews to assess noncognitive factors.

• Follow-up studies should be conducted to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the admissions procedure. Longitudinal studies should be conducted both of students admitted and, if possible, of those not admitted. Particular attention should be given to how various factors predict the grades, retention, and graduation of students from various ethnic and gender groups.

• A holistic admissions policy is characterized by fairness to all applicants. There should be no systematic prediction bias (over- or underprediction of criteria) for any group. Predictors should relate to retention and graduation as well as grades. A policy that takes into account applicants' high school curricula, standardized test scores, prior grades, and noncognitive variables would accomplish this. □

High School Completion

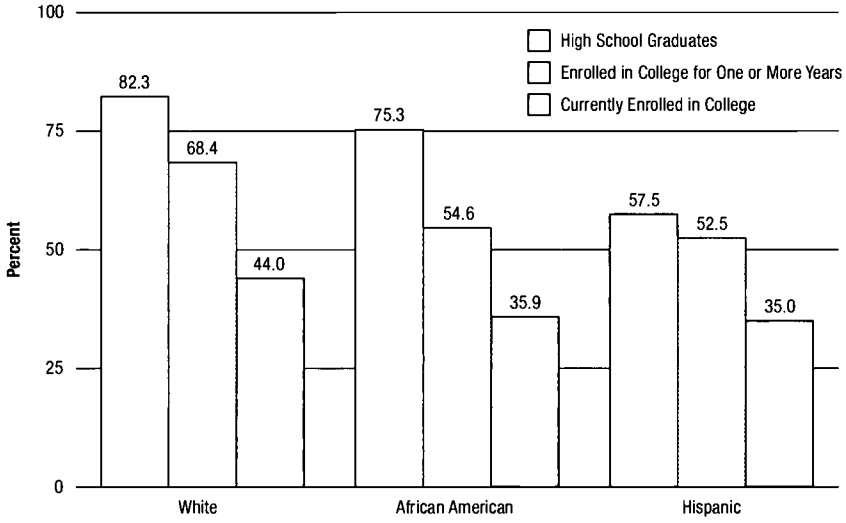
This section examines the most recent high school completion (HSC) rates for white, African-American, and Hispanic 18- to 24-year-olds nationwide, based on the U.S. Census Bureau's 1996 Current Population Survey (CPS). These data report on students who earned either a high school diploma or an equivalency such as the General Educational Development (GED) certificate. CPS does not report year-to-year HSC rates for Asian Americans or American Indians ages 18 to 24 because the survey sample is too small to provide reliable estimates.

CPS data vary widely from year to year, and the figures cited here are national aggregates. High school completion rates for some youths in many urban and rural areas are much lower.

The 1996 CPS data show that African Americans and Hispanics ages 18 to 24 continue to trail whites in terms of high school completion (Figure 1). However, African Americans did achieve a gain of nearly 8 percentage points from 1976 to 1996, reducing the gap with whites during that period (Table 1). Gains made prior to 1990 accounted for all of this progress, however. The 1996 African-American HSC rate of 75.3 percent is nearly 2 percentage points below the rate recorded in 1990.

Figure 1

High School Completion and College Participation Rates for 18- to 24-Year-Olds, by Race and Ethnicity: 1996

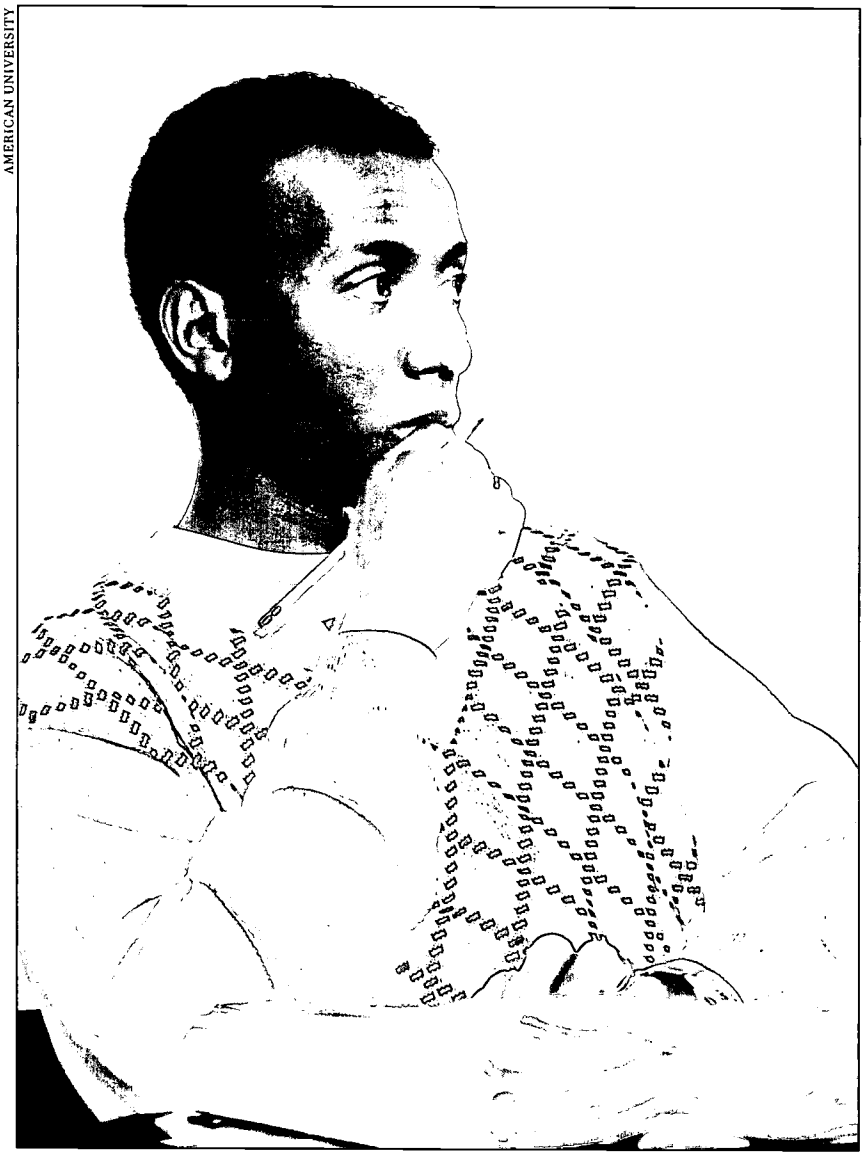


Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1996.* Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1997.

High school completion among Hispanics varied greatly during the past 20 years, and the 57.5 percent rate for 1996 is only slightly higher than those posted in the mid-1970s (Table 1). The 1996 rate reflects an increase of 3 percentage points since 1990, but a decline of 1 percentage point from 1995.

The completion rate for whites ages 18 to 24 increased slightly in 1996 to 82.3 percent, the first gain recorded since 1992. As a result, the gap between the HSC rates of whites and African Americans in 1996 was 7 percentage points, the largest difference since 1993. The 1996 data also ended a period of steady progress for African Americans in reducing the HSC gap with whites. In 1995, this gap was only 5 percentage points, the smallest difference to date based on CPS data.

Women in all three groups posted higher HSC rates in 1996 than men, continuing a trend that has existed for two decades (Table 2). In 1996, these differences continued to be more pronounced among African Americans and Hispanics than among whites, largely because of declines in completion rates among men. The gender gap in 1996 was more than 7 percentage points for African Americans, nearly 6 percentage points for Hispanics, and 3 percentage points for whites.



AMERICAN UNIVERSITY

African Americans

• The 1996 CPS data show that 75.3 percent of African Americans ages 18 to 24 had completed high school, a decline of nearly 2 percentage points compared to 1995 and 1990, when the HSC rate was 77 percent (Table 1).

• A four-year trend of gains by African-American men came to an end in 1996. The 71.3 percent rate for African-American men was down nearly 4 percentage points from the 75.1 percent recorded in 1995 (Table 2). As a result, African-American men posted their lowest high school completion rate in nine years.

• The completion rate for African-American women increased slightly, to 78.7 percent, in 1996. The new rate reflects a slight gain since 1990, but is below those posted in the mid- to late-1980s.

• The one-year decline in HSC rates among men and the slight increase among women increased the gender gap for African Americans from 3.3 percentage points in 1995 to 7.4 percentage points in 1996. This gap is the largest recorded in the 1990s.

Hispanics

• The HSC rates for Hispanics has fluctuated greatly during the past ten years. Hispanics experienced a small decline in 1996, and their completion rates remain far behind those of African Americans and whites (Table 1). The rate for 1996 was 57.5 percent, a decrease of 1 percentage point from the previous year. Although the 1996 figure for Hispanics reflects an increase since 1990, it remains below HSC rates from the mid-1980s, when completion rates hovered between 60 and 63 percent.

• HSC rates for Hispanic men continued to fluctuate (Table 2). The 1996 rate of 54.8 percent was more than 3 percentage points lower than the 1995 rate, eroding the 4 percentage point gain from the previous year. Despite these fluctuations, however, Hispanic men have made slight progress since 1990.

• The high school completion rate for Hispanic women increased by 1 percentage point to 60.6 percent in 1996, the highest rate in three years. Overall, Hispanic women have achieved a gain of more than 5 percentage points since 1990, but the rate is still below those of a decade ago.

• The HSC declines among Hispanic men in 1996 increased the gender gap with Hispanic women. This gap was nearly 6 percentage points in 1996, up from 1.6 percentage points in 1995.

HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUT RATES

While HSC rates include high school graduates and individuals who earn a General Educational Development diploma, high school dropout rates provide a detailed examination of students who left school prior to completion. Dropout rates generally include three types of rates: event rates, or the proportion of students who drop out in a particular year; cohort rates, an appraisal of a single group of students over time; and status rates, a cumulative look at students who have dropped out of school, regardless of their grade level when they left school.

For this section, the report relies on a 1997 U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, study of dropout rates among youths and young adults ages 16 to 24.

This section focuses only on status dropout rates.

General Trends

• Twelve percent of youths ages 16 to 24 had dropped out of school in 1995. This rate has remained relatively stable during the 1990s and is slightly below the 14 percent rate in 1980.

• Gender was not a major factor in 1995 status dropout rates; women accounted for 49 percent of dropouts. Women accounted for a similar proportion of school dropouts in 1993.

• Students in the lowest family income quintile had the highest dropout rate, at 23.2 percent. Youths and young adults in the

middle and highest income ranges had dropout rates of 11.5 percent and 2.9 percent, respectively (Figure 2).

African Americans

- The 12.1 percent dropout rate for African Americans in 1995 was higher than the 8.6 percent dropout rate among whites ages 16 to 24 (Figure 3).

- African Americans posted a slightly lower dropout rate in 1995 compared to 1993, when data showed a dropout rate of 13.6 percent. This progress enabled African Americans to slightly narrow the gap in dropout rates with whites.

- Overall, the dropout rate for African Americans declined from 20 percent in the 1970s to 12.1 percent in 1995.

Hispanics

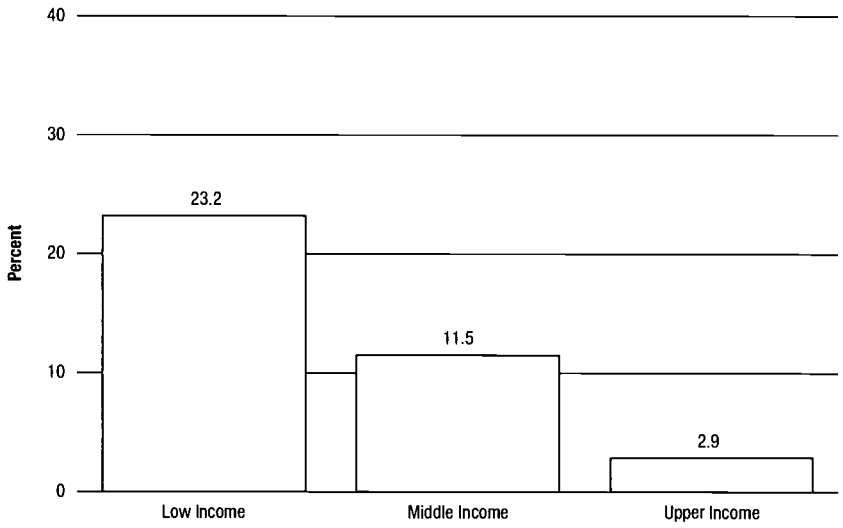
- Hispanics had the highest dropout rate, 30 percent, of the three major ethnic groups in 1995 (Figure 3). This rate was nearly four times the dropout rate for whites.

- Between 1993 and 1995, Hispanic youths and young adults experienced little progress in terms of reducing their high school dropout rate. The 1995 dropout rate for Hispanics was nearly 3 percentage points above the 1993 rate of 27.1 percent.

- Hispanics were overrepresented among dropouts, given their proportion of the 16- to 24-year-old population. Hispanics represented 13.9 percent of the 1995 16- to 24-year-old population, but 34.7 percent of all dropouts.

Figure 2

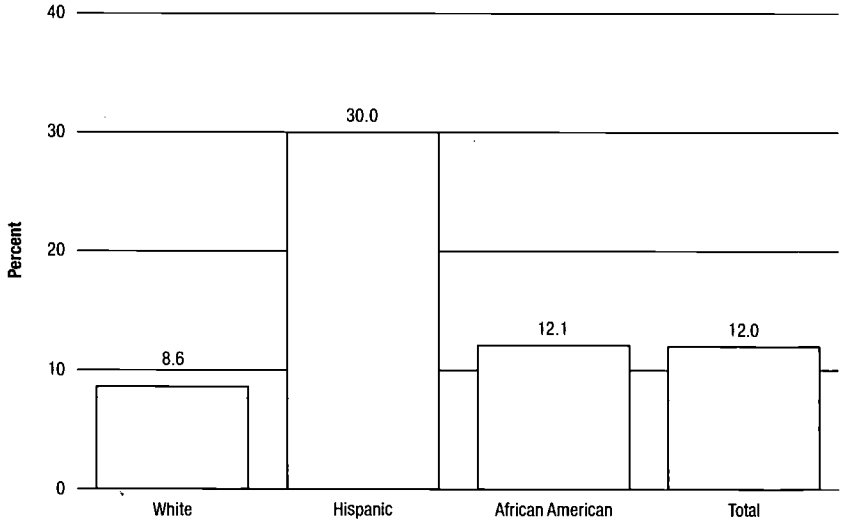
High School Dropout Rates for 16- to 24-Year-Olds, by Income: 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Dropout Rates in the United States: 1995.* Washington, DC: 1997.

Figure 3

High School Dropout Rates for 16- to 24-Year-Olds, by Race and Ethnicity: 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Dropout Rates in the United States: 1995.* Washington, DC: 1997.

- Foreign-born Hispanics and Hispanics who spoke little or no English at home were at higher risk of dropping out of school in 1995. Foreign-born Hispanics ages 16 to 24 posted a dropout rate of 46.2 percent, nearly three times the 17.9 percent rate for Hispanics born in the United States. The dropout rate for Hispanics who spoke only English at home was 20.4 percent, compared to 32.5 percent for families who spoke primarily Spanish at home. □

College Participation and Educational Attainment

College participation rates are an important indicator of progress for students of color in higher education. Unlike enrollment figures, which examine college attendance during a specific period of time, participation rates track both current enrollment and recent college attendance patterns of given age groups, most notably the 18- to 24-year-old population.

Three types of college participation rates are available from the U.S. Census Bureau: the percentage of all 18- to 24-year-olds enrolled in college; the percentage of high school graduates ages 18 to 24 enrolled in college; and the percentage of high school graduates ages 14 to 24 who are enrolled in college or who have completed at least one year of postsecondary education. This third category is referred to as the "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate.

This section focuses primarily on the percentage of 18- to 24-year-old high school graduates who are enrolled in college, but it also includes some discussion of the "ever-enrolled" rate. Readers should interpret this information with caution, however, because it provides only a general profile of participation rates.

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After decreasing during the 1980s, the number of college-age youths has held relatively steady, with only minor fluctuations since 1990 (Table 1). The earlier decrease was caused by drops in the number of white 18- to 24-year-olds.

The number of youths in the African-American college-age population increased slightly (by

3.3 percent) from 1990 to 1996. The Hispanic college-age population has increased by 27.7 percent since 1990, compared with a 3.5 percent decrease for the white college-age population.

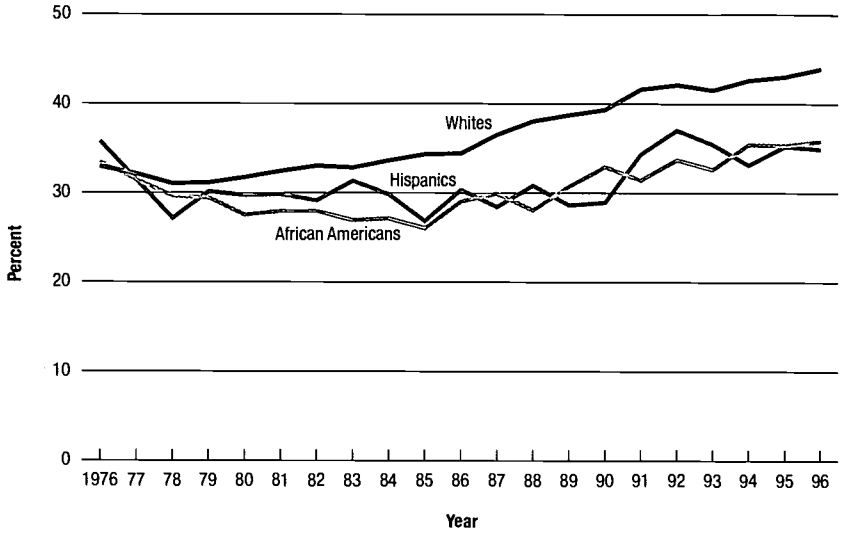
During the past two decades, the college participation rate for whites has increased by more than 10 percentage points. African Americans posted a decline in their college-going rate during the 1980s, a drop that has been offset by overall gains during the 1990s. A similar trend is evident among Hispanics, whose current college participation rate also is at approximately the same level as 20 years ago (Figure 4).

College participation rates among all high school graduates ages 18 to 24 increased slightly in 1996, reaching another new high. The 1996 rate of 43.5 percent is an increase of 1 percentage point from 1995 (Figure 5). Overall, rates have increased by more than 4 percentage points since 1990 and by more than 9 percentage points during the past ten years.

African Americans and Hispanics both held steady in terms of their college participation rates during 1996 (35.9 percent and 35 percent, respectively). Both groups, however, continued to trail whites, who recorded their highest college participation rate ever, at 44 percent (Table 1).

Figure 4

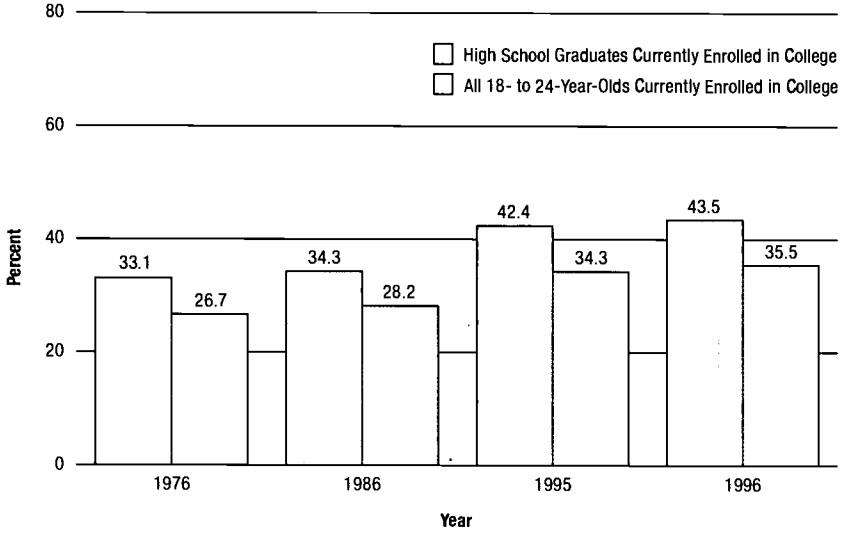
College Participation Rates for 18- to 24-Year-Old High School Graduates, by Race and Ethnicity: 1976 to 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *School Enrollment–Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1996.* Current Population Reports, Series P-20, 1997.

Figure 5

College Participation Rates of 18- to 24-Year-Olds, by High School Completion Status: 1976, 1986, 1995, and 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *School Enrollment–Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1996.* Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1997.

African Americans

• The 35.9 percent participation rate for African Americans represented a slight increase from 1995. As a group, African-American high school graduates have posted a nearly 3 percentage point increase in their college participation rate since 1990, and a nearly 7 percentage point increase over the past ten years.

• Between 1995 and 1996, college participation by African-American male high school graduates increased slightly, from 34.4 percent to 35.2 percent (Table 2).

During the past decade, this rate has fluctuated widely from year to year. Nevertheless, the 1996 rate is slightly greater than the 1990 rate and is more than 6 percentage points above the rate ten years ago.

• College participation rates for African-American female high school graduates remained roughly the same in 1996, at 36.4 percent. Despite frequent year-to-year fluctuations during the past decade, the rate has remained steady for the past three years. The 1996 rate also represented an increase of nearly 5 percentage points since 1990 and 7 percentage points from a decade ago.

• African-American men and women experienced slight declines in the "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate for 1996. CPS data show that 54.6 percent of African Americans ages 14 to 24 reported enrolling in college at some point in their lives, down from 58 percent in 1995 and a record high of 59.2 percent the previous year (Table 1). Nevertheless, African Americans have made progress since 1990 and 1986. (Note that these rates vary considerably from year to year, and small changes should be viewed with caution.)

• The number of African-American male high school graduates ages 14 to 24 who attended college at some point in their lives declined from 56.2 percent in 1995 to 53.7 percent in 1996 (Table 2). The 1996 rate represented the second consecutive annual decrease for African-American men, although these declines followed a sharp increase of more than 7 percentage points in 1994.

• In 1996, more than 55 percent of African-American female high school graduates ages 14 to 24 reported attending college at some point in their lives. This rate is down more than 4 percentage points from 1995, although African-American women have achieved a gain of 8 percentage points since 1990.

Hispanics

• The college participation rates of Hispanic high school graduates ages 18 to 24 remained nearly constant at 35 percent in 1996 (Table 1). However, Hispanics have achieved gains of 6 percentage points since 1990.

• Hispanic women posted an increase in their college participation rate for 1996, while Hispanic

men did not. The rate for Hispanic women increased by more than 1 percentage point, to 39.6 percent, while the rate for Hispanic men decreased by 2 percentage points, to 30.2 percent (Table 2).

• The gender gap in higher education participation remains larger among Hispanics than among the other two groups. In 1996, participation rates among Hispanic women were 9.4 percentage points higher than those for Hispanic men, and this gap was four times as large as the gender differences among African Americans and whites. The 1996 gender gap in Hispanics' higher education participation rates also was the largest in five years.

• Hispanics in 1996 registered a decline of 3.3 percentage points in their "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate. Their 52.5 percent rate in 1996 is the lowest since 1991 (Table 1).

• The "ever-enrolled-in-college" rate showed significant differences by gender among Hispanics in 1996 (Table 2). The "ever-enrolled" rate for females declined from 59.6 percent in 1995 to 58 percent in 1996, and the rate for men decreased by a larger margin, from 52.3 percent in 1995 to 48.8 percent in 1996. These declines left a gender gap of nearly 10 percentage points in the "ever-enrolled" rate. The 48.8 percent "ever-enrolled" rate for Hispanic men also represented the first time this figure has dipped below 50 percent since 1991.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Data on educational attainment offer important insights on the economic well-being of Americans, as higher levels of achievement typically contribute to greater socioeconomic success. This section highlights educational attainment of those ages 25 and older, particularly members of the 25- to 29-year-old population who attended high school and college during the previous ten-year period. The report uses data from the Census Bureau's March 1996 Current Population Survey on Educational Attainment.

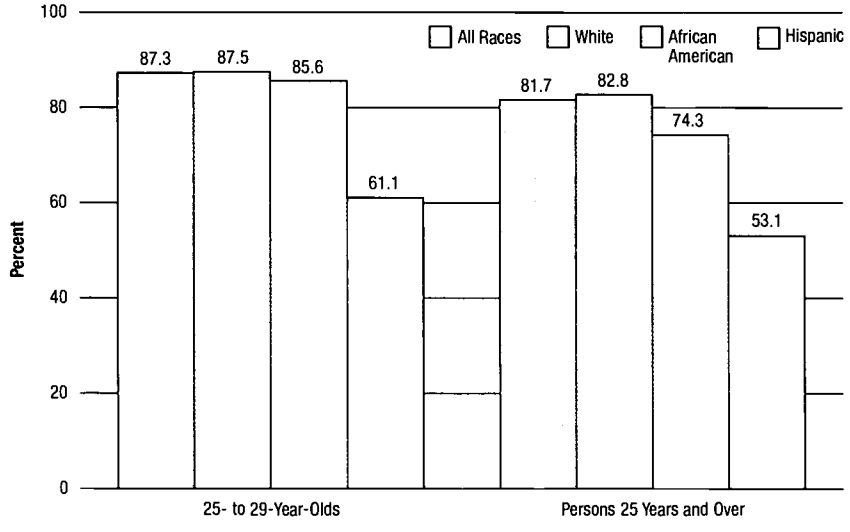
Nationwide, the proportion of adults ages 25 to 29 who had completed high school in 1996 was largely unchanged from a decade ago (Table 3). In 1996, more than 87 percent of Americans in this age group had completed four or more years of high school, 1 percentage point higher than the rate in 1986. African Americans have narrowed the gap with whites in terms of high school completion, despite year-to-year fluctuations. In 1986, African Americans trailed whites by 3 percentage points, a gap that increased to 6 percentage points by 1992. During the last two years, however, the two groups have posted similar high school completion rates for 25- to 29-year-olds.

With a rate of 61.1 percent, Hispanics trail the other two groups significantly in the number of 25- to 29-year-olds who have completed four or more years of high school. Despite progress by Hispanics in 1996, they trail African Americans and whites by more than 20 percentage points (Figure 6).

High school completion rates for 25- to 29-year-olds differ from CPS data on high school completion rates for those ages 18 to 24. The difference is most striking among African Americans. Nearly 86 percent of African Americans ages 25 to 29 had completed four or more years of high school in 1996 (Table

Figure 6

High School Completion Rates for 25- to 29-Year-Olds and for Persons 25 Years and Over, by Race and Ethnicity: 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Educational Attainment in the United States.* Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1997.

3), compared to a high school completion rate of 75.3 percent among African Americans ages 18 to 24 (Table 1). The higher figure among the 25- to 29-year-old population may reflect the number of African Americans who complete high school requirements later in life.

This same trend also was evident among Hispanics, but to a much lesser extent. Sixty-one point one percent of Hispanics ages 25 to 29 had completed four or more years of high school in 1996 (Table 3), compared to 57.5 percent of 18- to 24-year-old Hispanics (Table 1).

CPS data indicate that 27.1 percent of all persons ages 25 to 29 had completed four or more years of college as of 1996 (Table 3). This is the highest rate ever recorded and reflects progress of more than 2 percentage points since 1995. This rate had remained fairly stable, ranging from 21 percent to 25 percent, for the past two decades.

African Americans and Hispanics trailed whites in the percentage of adults ages 25 to 29 with four or more years of college. Approximately 28 percent of whites in this age group had completed four or more years of college in 1996, compared to only 14.6 percent of African Americans and 10 percent of Hispanics (Figure 7).

Among all Americans ages 25 and older, 81.7 percent had completed four or more years of high school as of 1996, a rate that was unchanged from the previous year (Table 3). The percentage of African Americans in this age group who had completed four or more years of high school increased slightly in 1996, while the percentages of whites and Hispanics who had done so declined. Among Americans ages 25 and older, 13.6 percent had completed four or more years of college by 1996, which represented a small increase from the previous year. African Americans and whites registered one-year gains in 1996, while the rate for Hispanics was unchanged.

African Americans

- The percentage of African-American men ages 25 to 29 with four or more years of high school declined slightly in 1996, from 88.1 percent to 87.2 percent. Despite year-to-year fluctuations, however, the rate for African-American men has increased by nearly 6 percentage points since 1990.

- The percentage of African-American women ages 25 to 29 with four or more years of high school declined slightly to 84.2 percent in 1996. However, this figure reflects a gain of nearly 3 percentage points since 1990, although the 1996 attainment rate for women is slightly below the corresponding rate for African-American men.

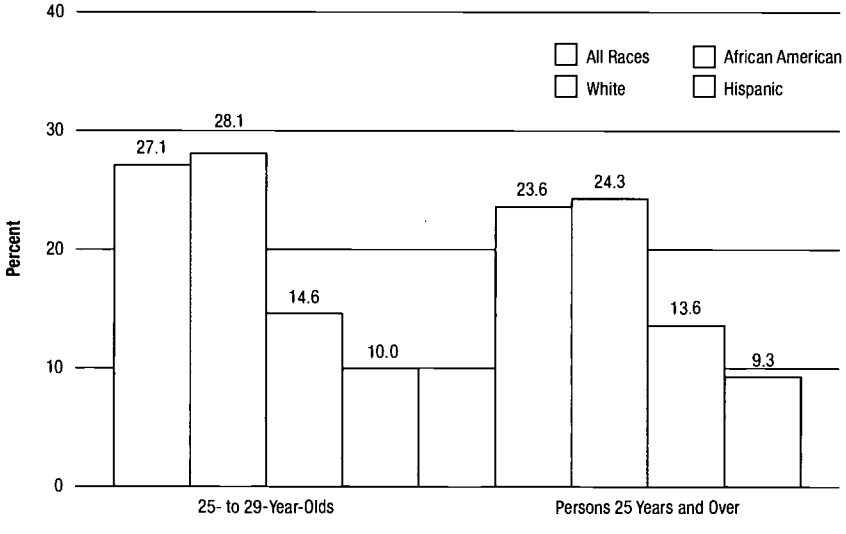
- A higher percentage of African Americans ages 25 to 29 had four or more years of college in 1996 than a decade ago. The 1996 rate of 14.6 percent reflects an increase of nearly 3 percentage points since 1986, and a gain of just over 1 percentage point since 1990.

- Despite decade-long progress, African Americans in 1996 continued to trail whites in terms of the number of 25- to 29-year-olds with four or more years of college. The African-American rate of 14.6 percent in 1996 is approximately half of the 28.1 percent rate for whites.

- The proportion of African-American men ages 25 to 29 who have completed four or more years

Figure 7

College Completion Rates for 25- to 29-Year-Olds and for Persons 25 Years and Over, by Race and Ethnicity: 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Educational Attainment in the United States.* Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1997.

of college declined from 17.2 percent in 1995 to 12.4 percent in 1996. An opposite trend was evident among African-American women ages 25 to 29; their rate increased from 13.6 percent in 1995 to 16.4 percent in 1996. (Readers should view this data cautiously because of wide year-to-year fluctuations.)

• More than 74 percent of African Americans ages 25 and older have completed four or more years of high school, according to 1996 data. This rate (74.3 percent) reflects an increase of approximately half a percentage point since 1995.

• Men accounted for most of the increase in the percentage of African Americans ages 25 and older who have completed four or more years of high school. The rate for African-American men increased by nearly 1 percentage point, while the rate for African-American women remained largely unchanged. As a result, African-American men had a higher completion rate than African-American women for the first time since 1988.

• Among those ages 25 and older, overall, the proportion of African Americans with four or more years of college remained relatively unchanged, 13.2 percent in 1995 compared with 13.6 percent in 1996. However, the rate for women increased by nearly 2 percentage points, while the rate for men declined by 1.2 percentage points.

• African Americans continue to trail whites in the proportion of individuals ages 25 and older who have completed four or more years of college. The 13.6 percent rate for African Americans in 1996 was slightly more than half of the 24.3 percent registered by whites that year.

Hispanics

• The proportion of Hispanics ages 25 to 29 with at least four years of high school increased from 57.1 percent in 1995 to 61.1 percent in 1996. However, Hispanics continue to trail whites and African Americans in this category, and the 1996 completion rate for Hispanics is comparable to those of the late 1980s.

• The percentage of 25- to 29-year-old Hispanic males with four or more years of high school increased by 4 percentage points, to 59.7 percent, in 1996. This progress ends a three-year period of declines.

• The percentage of 25- to 29-year-old Hispanic females with four or more years of high school also increased by 4 percentage points in 1996, to 62.9 percent. Overall, the 1996 rate is up slightly from that posted in 1990, but is similar to those of the mid-1980s.

• The proportion of Hispanics ages 25 to 29 with four or more years of college increased slightly, from 8.9 percent in 1995 to 10 percent in 1996, marking the first time since 1989 that the Hispanic rate has reached 10 percent. Nonetheless, this rate remains disappointingly low.

• Approximately 10 percent of Hispanic men ages 25 to 29 had completed four or more years of college in 1996, an increase of more than 2 percentage points from the previous year. As a result, Hispanic men posted their highest rate since 1989.

• In 1996, Hispanic women ages 25 to 29 had slightly lower rates of college completion than Hispanic men for the first time since 1988. The 9.8 percent completion rate for Hispanic women in 1996 was slightly below the rate posted the previous year.

• Among Hispanics ages 25 and older, 53.1 percent had completed four years of high school or more as of 1996; the rate trailed those for whites and African Americans by at least 20 percentage points. The 1996 rate also was down slightly from the previous year.

• The proportion of Hispanic women and men ages 25 and older who had completed four or more years of college remained the same between 1995 and 1996.

• Fewer than 10 percent of Hispanics ages 25 and older had completed four or more years of college as of 1996, a rate that trailed those for both whites and African Americans. Rates for Hispanic men and women showed little change from 1995 to 1996. Hispanic men remained more likely than Hispanic women to complete college. □

College Enrollment

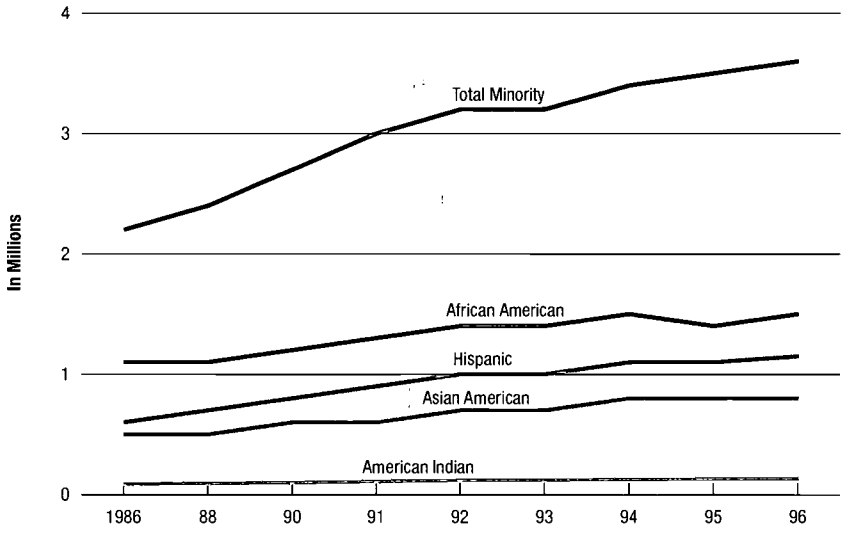
Students of color have posted steady increases in college enrollment since the mid-1980s (Figure 8). Enrollment among students of color increased by 61.3 percent from 1986 to 1996, including an increase of 22.2 percent since 1991 (Table 4). This rate of increase has slowed during the past several years, however. From 1995 to 1996, students of color registered an enrollment gain of 3.2 percent.

Overall college enrollment remained largely unchanged from 1995 to 1996, although it has declined slightly since 1991. The main reason for this trend is a continuing enrollment decrease among whites, whose college-age population declined during the 1980s and 1990s. Since 1991, the college enrollment rate among whites has decreased by 6.9 percent, including a slight decrease for 1996 (Table 4). Nationwide, total enrollment was largely unchanged at both two- and four-year institutions.

Both men and women of color recorded enrollment gains in higher education in 1996 (Figure 9), though at somewhat lower rates than in recent years. Enrollment among minority women increased by 3.6 percent in 1996, which was similar to the gain the previous year but below the 5.3 percent increase in 1994. A similar trend occurred among men of color, for whom a 2.7 percent increase in 1996 was less than increases posted earlier in the decade.

Figure 8

Minority Enrollment in Higher Education, by Race and Ethnicity: 1986 to 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

Enrollment among students of color increased in 1996 at each of the three major levels of higher education (Table 6). The largest gain–5.7 percent–occurred at the graduate level, although students of color also posted enrollment increases of 3 percent at the undergraduate level and of 2.9 percent at the professional school level.

Students of color recorded a 3.8 percent enrollment gain for 1996 at independent institutions (Table 5), which was slightly higher than the 3.1 percent increase at public institutions that year. However, most students of color–83.7 percent–attended public institutions in 1996, compared with 76.7 percent of white students.

African Americans

• Since 1991, enrollment of African Americans has increased by 12.3 percent, the smallest gain among the nation's four major ethnic minority groups (Table 4). In 1996, African Americans represented 10.5 percent of all college students, up from 9.3 percent in 1991.

• The 1.7 percent increase in enrollment for African Americans was the smallest one-year gain among the four major ethnic minority groups in 1996. However, African Americans have achieved gains at four-year institutions each year throughout the 1990s, with an increase of 14.8 percent since 1991.

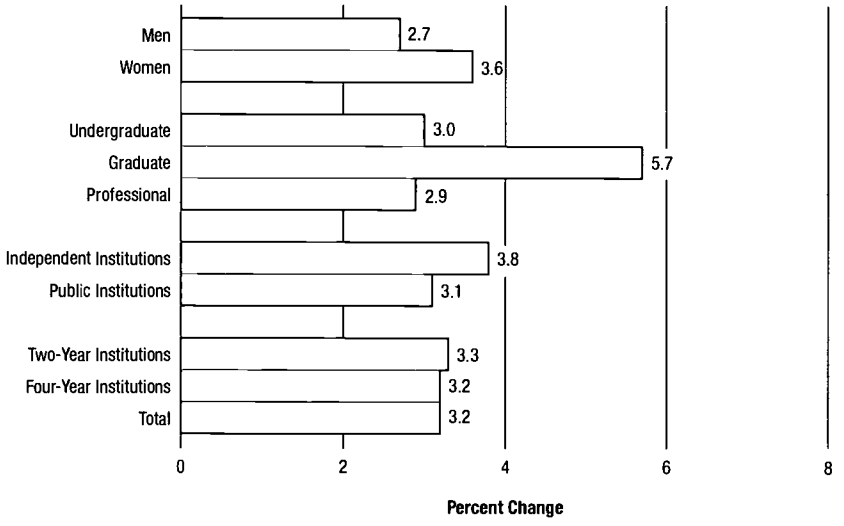
• A 2 percent enrollment increase for African-American women was slightly above the 1.4 percent increase for African-American men in 1996 (Figure 10). Since 1991, African-American women have achieved gains of 14.3 percent, compared to 9 percent for African-American men.

• For the third consecutive year, African Americans registered larger one-year enrollment gains at independent institutions than at public institutions (Table 5). The 2.9 percent increase at independent colleges and universities was double the 1.4 percent gain at public institutions. However, most African Americans continue to enroll at lower-cost public colleges and universities.

• A 1.4 percent increase in African-American enrollment at the undergraduate level in 1996 continued the upward trend of the 1990s (Table 6). However, this one-year increase was the smallest among the four major ethnic minority groups. Since 1991, African-American undergraduate enrollment has increased by 10 percent–an increase smaller than those for Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians.

Figure 9

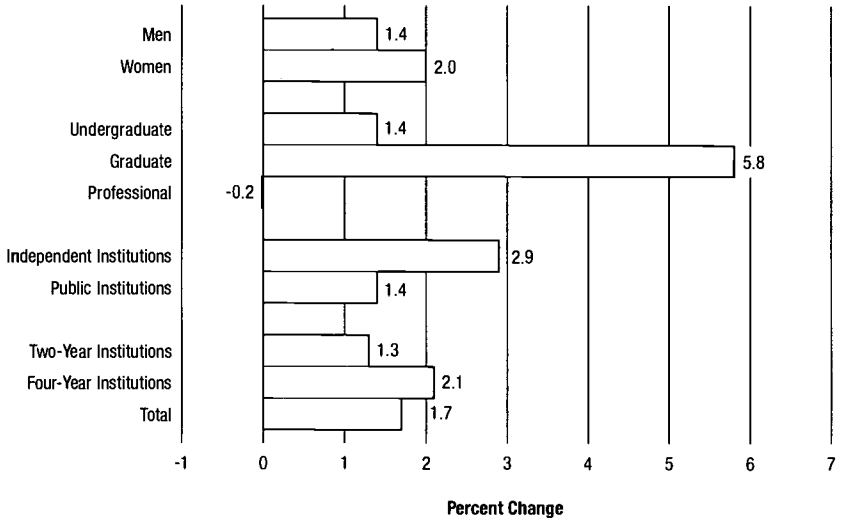
Changes in Minority Enrollments, by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1995 to 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

Figure 10

Changes in African-American Enrollments, by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1995 to 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

• African Americans registered a 5.8 percent enrollment increase at the graduate level in 1996. This exceeded the increases for Asian Americans and American Indians and trailed only the 6.8 percent increase for Hispanics that year.

• African Americans showed no progress in professional-school enrollments for 1996. Nevertheless, the number of African Americans enrolled at professional schools has increased by 24.4 percent since 1991.

• Enrollment of African Americans at historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) declined slightly, by 1.9 percent, in 1996, the second decrease in three years (Table 7). Since 1986, however, African Americans posted enrollment gains at HBCUs of 27.9 percent (Figure 11).

• For the third consecutive year, HBCUs enrolled a smaller percentage of African Americans in higher education. HBCUs enrolled 15 percent of all African Americans at U.S. colleges and universities in 1996, down from 15.6 percent in 1995 and 16.6 percent in 1990.

• Both African-American men and women posted enrollment declines at HBCUs in 1996 (Table 8). The number of men dropped by 2.9 percent, compared to a 1.3 percent decline for women. African-American men and women showed enrollment decreases at both public and independent HBCUs.

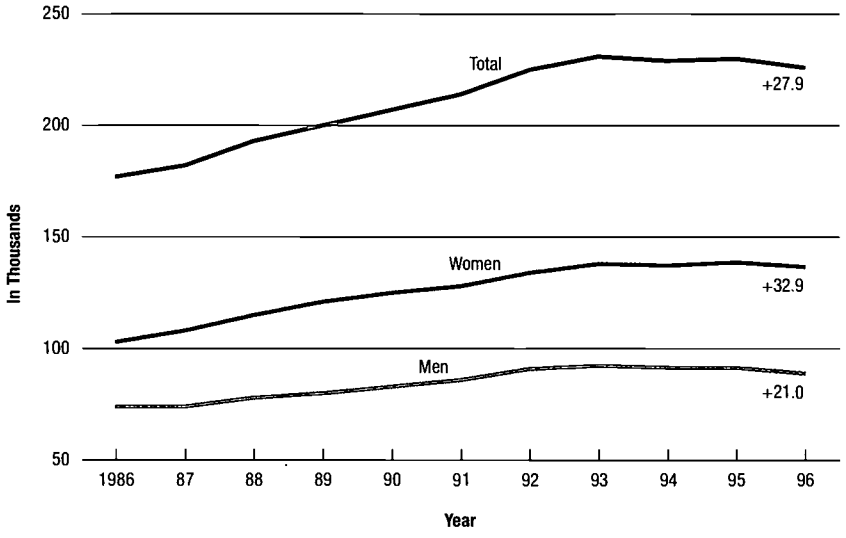
Hispanics

• The number of Hispanics enrolled in higher education increased by 86.4 percent from 1986 to 1996; this increase was the largest among the four major ethnic minority groups (Table 4). Hispanic enrollment has increased by 33 percent since 1991.

• A 5.3 percent increase in Hispanic enrollment from 1995 to 1996 was the largest one-year gain among the four major ethnic minority groups. Hispanics also recorded the largest one-year enrollment gains at both two- and four-year institutions.

Figure 11

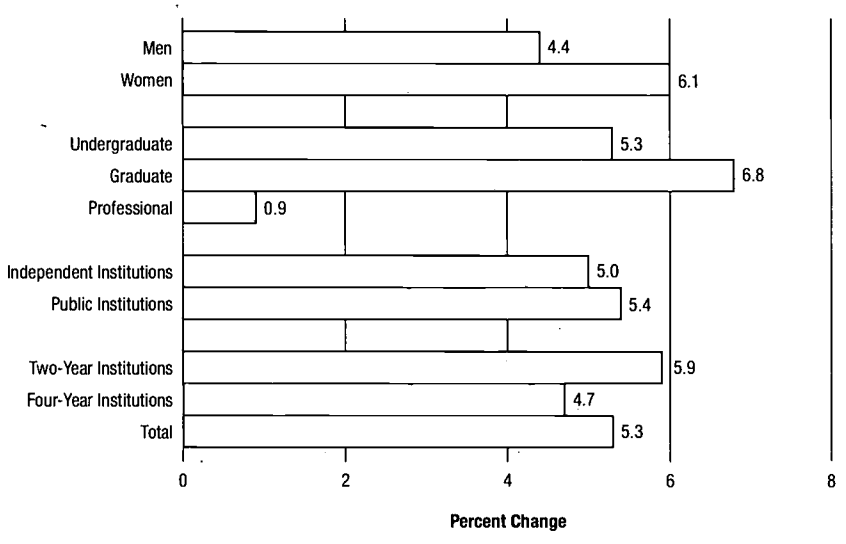
African-American Enrollment at Historically Black Colleges and Universities: 1986 to 1996



Source: National Association for Equal Opportunity Research Institute. Annual Fall Enrollment Surveys, 1986-1996.

Figure 12

Changes in Hispanic Enrollments, by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1995 to 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

• The number of Hispanics attending two-year colleges and universities increased by 5.9 percent in 1996, compared to 4.7 percent at four-year institutions (Figure 12). Most Hispanic students–56 percent–attended two-year colleges in 1996.

• Hispanic women and men experienced one-year enrollment increases of 6.1 percent and 4.4 percent, respectively, in 1996 (Table 5). These increases were the largest among the four major ethnic minority groups.

• The 5.3 percent enrollment increase at the undergraduate level for Hispanics in 1996 was the largest one-year increase among the four major ethnic minority groups (Table 6). Since 1991, Hispanics have experienced the greatest long-term growth in undergraduate enrollment–32.5 percent–of all four major ethnic minority groups.

• Hispanic enrollment at graduate schools increased by 6.8 percent in 1996, again the largest increase among the four major ethnic groups. However, Hispanics recorded a less than 1 percent gain in professional school enrollments that year.

• Despite enrollment growth, Hispanics in 1996 represented only 8.7 percent of undergraduate students, 4.2 percent of graduate students, and 4.7 percent of first-professional students. Hispanics represent 14.2 percent of the traditional college-age population.

• Hispanics achieved nearly identical gains at public and independent institutions in 1996 (Table 5). However, lower-cost, public institutions continue to enroll most Hispanic students (85.8 percent in 1996).

Asian Americans

• The number of Asian Americans enrolled in higher education increased by 3.4 percent from 1995

to 1996 (Table 4). Asian Americans have achieved a total enrollment gain of 29.3 percent since 1991 and 83.8 percent since 1986. Nationwide, Asian Americans represented 5.8 percent of all college students in 1996, up from 3.6 percent in 1986.

• The number of Asian Americans at four-year institutions increased by 3.8 percent in 1996, an increase greater than the 2.5 percent gain they recorded at two-year colleges. Since 1991, Asian-American enrollment has increased by 31.2 percent at four-year institutions and by 26.3 percent at two-year institutions.

• Asian-American women recorded an enrollment gain of 3.9 percent from 1995 to 1996, which was slightly above the 2.6 percent increase among Asian-American men (Table 5). Since 1991, enrollments of Asian-American women and men have increased by 34.6 percent and 24.1 percent, respectively.

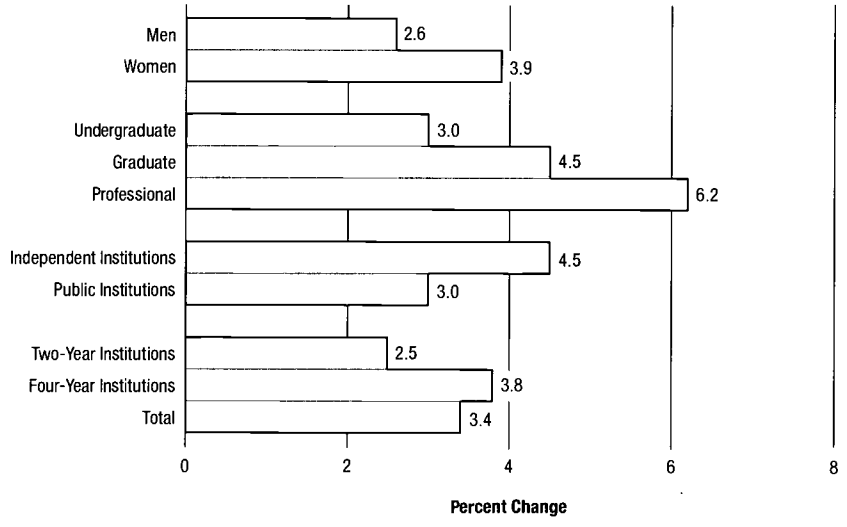
• The number of Asian Americans attending independent institutions increased by 4.5 percent from 1995 to 1996 (Figure 13). This was greater than the 3 percent increase Asian Americans registered at public institutions that year.

• Asian Americans experienced gains of 4.5 percent and 3 percent in graduate and undergraduate enrollments, respectively, in 1996 (Table 6). Since 1991, Asian-American enrollment has increased by 37.2 percent at the graduate level and by 27.7 percent at the undergraduate level.

• A 6.2 percent increase in Asian-American professional-school enrollment was the largest gain among the four major ethnic minority groups for 1996. Asian-American enrollment at professional schools has increased by 51 percent since 1991, and has nearly tripled since 1986.

Figure 13

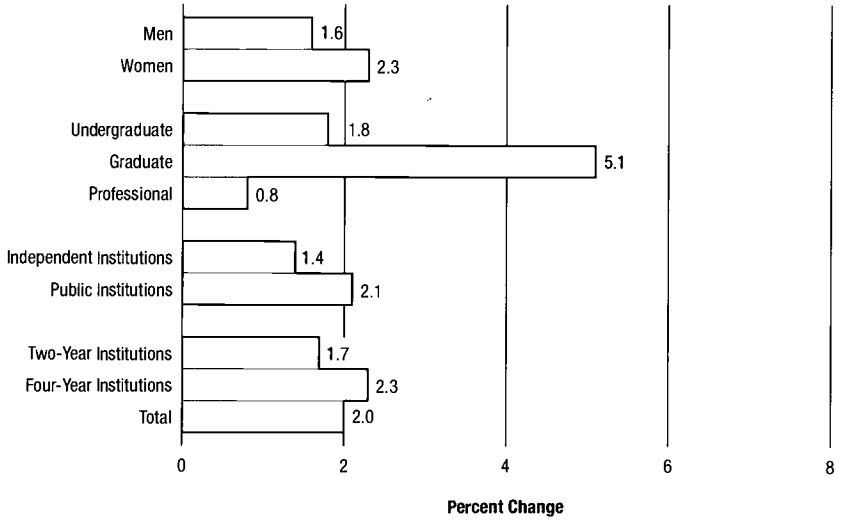
Changes in Asian-American Enrollments, by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1995 to 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

Figure 14

Changes in American Indian Enrollments, by Gender, Degree Level, and Type of Institution: 1995 to 1996



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

American Indians

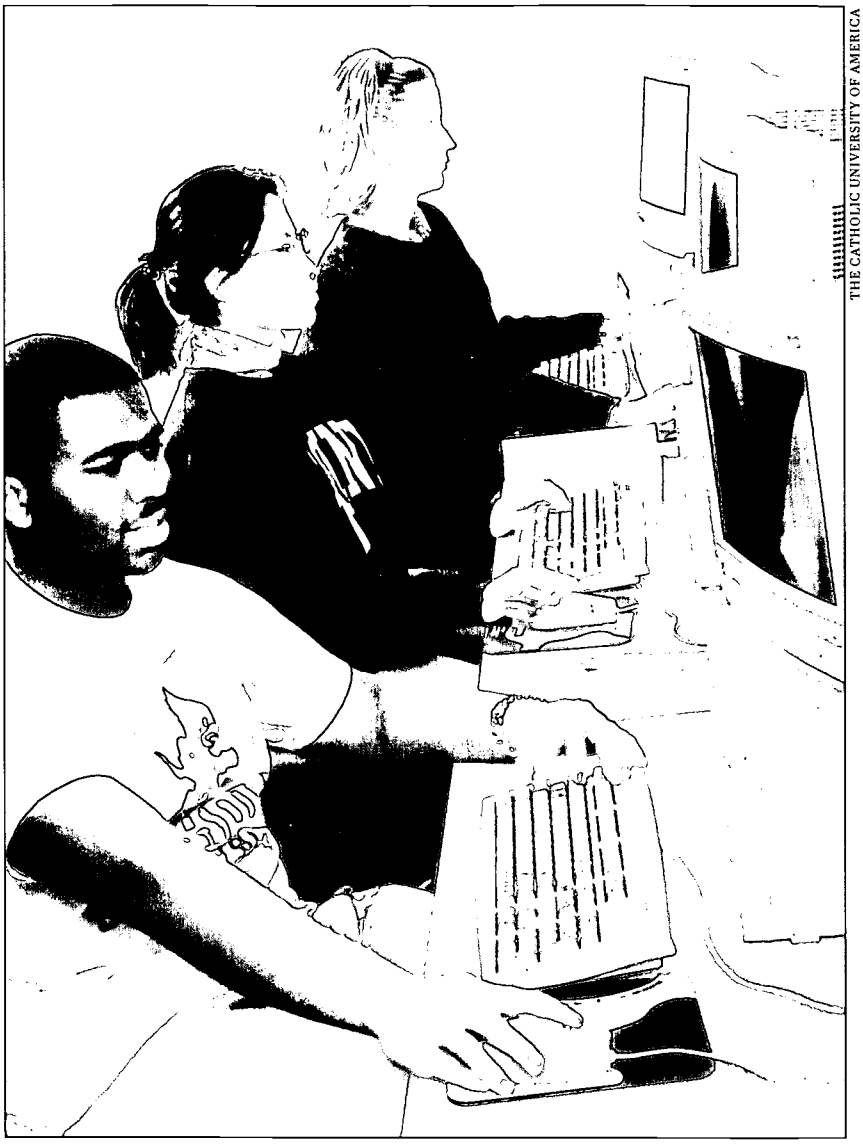
• The number of American Indians enrolled in higher education increased slightly in 1996, but it remains small. American Indians accounted for less than 1 percent of all higher education students in 1996, with approximately 134,000 American Indians attending college (Table 4).

• American Indian student enrollments are evenly divided between two-year and four-year institutions. In 1996, the number of American Indians at four-year colleges and universities increased by 2.3 percent, compared to a 1.7 percent increase at two-year colleges (Figure 14).

• American Indian women experienced slightly larger one-year gains than American Indian men in 1996. Enrollment among American Indian women and men increased by 2.3 percent and 1.6 percent, respectively (Table 5).

• Only 17,695 American Indians attended independent institutions in 1996, and these institutions enrolled 13.2 percent of American Indians in higher education. One-year enrollment changes show a 2.1 percent gain for American Indians at public institutions and a 1.4 percent increase at independent colleges and universities.

• More American Indians enrolled in all three sectors of higher education in 1996 than in 1995; undergraduate and graduate increases



THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA

amounted to 1.8 percent and 5.1 percent, respectively (Table 6). The increase at the professional-school level was less than 1 percent.

• Fewer than 9,000 American Indians were enrolled in graduate schools in 1996, and approximately 2,100 were enrolled at professional schools. □

College Graduation Rates

This section analyzes college graduation rates for African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians using 1996 data prepared by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA). Division I colleges and universities gathered information in an effort to compile graduation rate data and compare the graduation rates of students and student athletes at their institutions. Data are broken down by race and gender as well as by institutional status.

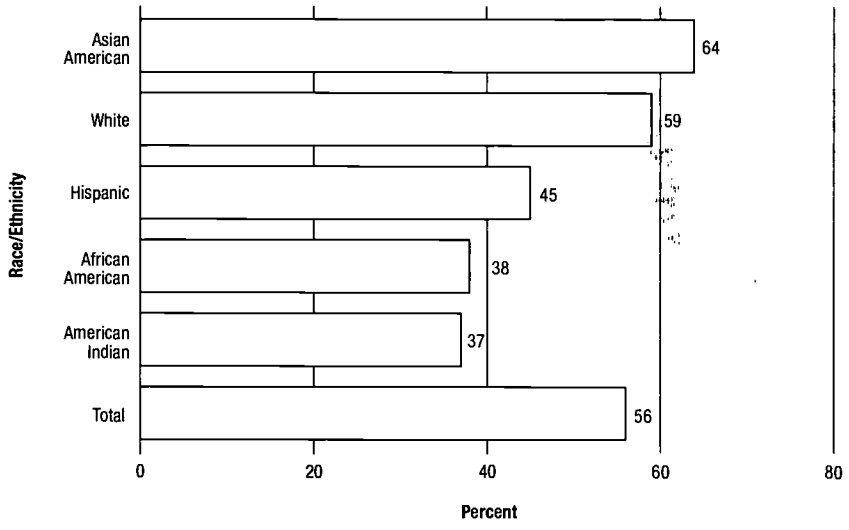
Nationwide, students at Division I institutions made no progress in terms of graduation rates from 1995 to 1996, ending an upward trend dating back to 1991 (Table 9). Asian Americans again had the highest graduation rate–64 percent–in 1996, although this rate was down 1 percentage point from the previous year. The graduation rate for white students followed next, at 59 percent. Hispanics, African Americans, and American Indians trailed these two groups (Figure 15). African Americans, Asian Americans, and Hispanics showed a small decline in graduation rates from 1995 to 1996, while the rates for whites and American Indians remained unchanged (Figure 16).

COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY

Data for this section are based on the percentage of students who graduated from college within six years of the time they enrolled as freshmen. The most recent data are based on students who were freshmen during the 1990-91 academic year and tracks those who had graduated by August 1996.

Figure 15

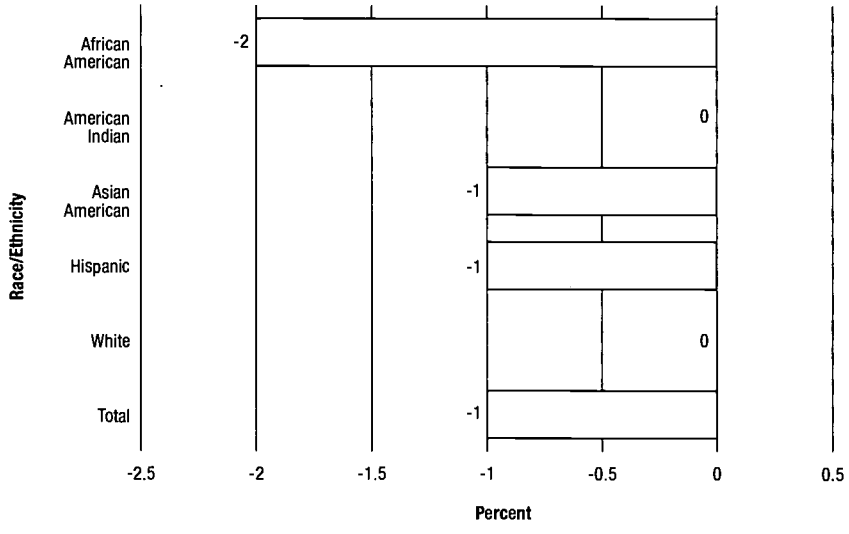
NCAA Division I Six-Year Graduation Rates, by Race and Ethnicity: 1996



Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. Division I Graduation Rates Report, 1997.

Figure 16

Changes in NCAA Division I Six-Year Graduation Rates: 1995 to 1996



Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. Division I Graduation Rates Reports, 1996 and 1997.

African Americans

• The six-year graduation rate for African Americans at Division I institutions declined for the first time in four years, from 40 percent in 1995 to 38 percent in 1996 (Table 9). However, African Americans still show an overall increase of 5 percentage points since 1991.

• In 1996, African-American women continued to post higher graduation rates than African-American men at NCAA Division I institutions. The graduation rate for African-American women was 42 percent in 1996, compared to 33 percent for African-American men. This gender gap was even greater than that recorded in 1994.

• The graduation rate for African-American women increased by 6 percentage points from 1991 to 1996, the largest gain for women among the four major ethnic minority groups. In comparison, the graduation rate for African-American men was up 3 percentage points for this period, an increase that exceeded only the change in the graduation rate for white men.

• Despite year-to-year differences, African Americans continue to post higher graduation rates at independent institutions than at public institutions. Fifty-one percent of African Americans at Division I independent institutions in 1996 graduated within the NCAA's six-year time frame, compared to only 35 percent of those at public colleges and universities.

Hispanics

• Hispanics had a slight decrease in their graduation rate from Division I institutions in 1996 (Table 9). Their 45 percent graduation rate was down 1 percentage point from the previous year, although long-range data show a gain of 4 percentage points since 1991.

• The graduation rates of Hispanic men and women both decreased slightly in 1996. Hispanic women posted a 48 percent graduation rate that year, compared to a 42 percent graduation rate for Hispanic men. Each of these rates was down 1 percentage point from the previous year.

• Like other ethnic minority groups, Hispanics continue to show significantly higher graduation rates at independent than at public institutions. The graduation rate for Hispanics at independent institutions was 64 percent in 1996, while their rate at public colleges and universities was 40 percent. This 24 percentage point difference was the largest among the four ethnic minority groups.

• Despite their higher graduation rates at independent institutions, Hispanics at public colleges and universities actually had slightly lower graduation rates in 1996 than they did in 1991. This decline was the only one recorded across all categories and among the four ethnic minority groups for this period.

Asian Americans

• In 1996, Asian Americans had a 64 percent graduation rate at Division I institutions (Table 9). Although the rate represented a slight decline from the previous year, it exceeded the rates for whites and the remaining three major ethnic minority groups.

• Asian-American women had the highest six-year graduation rate of any group in 1996, with 66 percent earning a degree. However, this rate represented a decline of 3 percentage points from 1995.

• The graduation rate for Asian-American men in 1996 was 61 percent, the highest rate among males in the ethnic groups surveyed. Since 1991, the graduation rate for Asian-American men is up 3 percentage points.

• Fewer Asian Americans graduated from public institutions and approximately the same number graduated from independent colleges and universities in 1996. Graduation rates for Asian Americans were 77 percent at independent institutions and 60 percent at public colleges and universities.

American Indians

• American Indians in 1996 again had the lowest graduation rate among the four major ethnic minority groups at Division I colleges and universities (Table 9). The 1996 rate of 37 percent has not changed since 1993, although American Indians have achieved a 6 percentage point gain during the most recent five-year period.

• The graduation rate for American Indian women declined by 3 percentage points from 1994 to 1996, from a high of 40 percent to 37 percent. However, moderate increases in the early 1990s attest to the progress American Indian women have made during the past five years.

• American Indian men experienced a decline of 2 percentage points in their graduation rates from 1995 to 1996. Their 35 percent graduation rate represents a 7 percentage point increase since 1991.

• Fewer American Indians graduated from both public and independent colleges and universities in 1996 than in 1995. Their graduation rate at public institutions fell from 35 percent to 33 percent, and their rate at independent colleges and universities declined from 56 percent to 54 percent.

• The 1996 graduation rate for American Indians at public institutions was the lowest among the four ethnic minority groups. □

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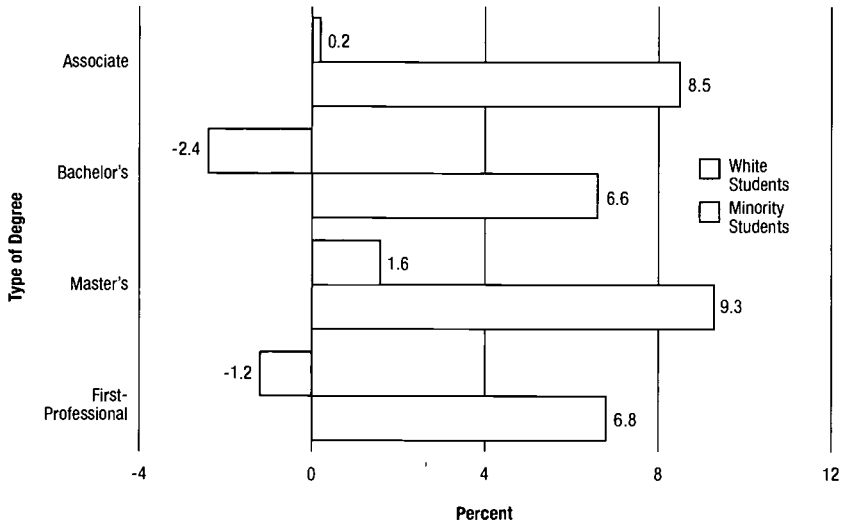
Degrees Conferred

Previous editions of the *Annual Status Report* documented important gains achieved by students of color in the late 1980s and early 1990s. However, the rate of growth varied considerably among the four major ethnic minority groups. Such trends continued in 1995, the most recent year for which data are available. This year's report provides updated information based on new data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) and other sources. Data for associate, bachelor's, master's, and first-professional degrees are from NCES. Data on doctoral degrees are provided through the National Research Council's (NRC) Survey on Earned Doctorates.

As a group, students of color achieved progress in all four degree categories from 1994 to 1995, led by a 9.3 percent increase at the master's degree level (Figure 17). Minority students also experienced combined increases of 8.5 percent in the number of associate degrees earned, 6.6 percent in the number of bachelor's degrees earned, and 6.8 percent in the number of first-professional degrees earned. During this one-year period, the increases at all four levels in the number of degrees awarded to students of color far exceeded those for white students. Whites earned fewer bachelor's and first-professional degrees in 1995 than in 1994, slightly more master's degrees, and approximately the same number of associate degrees.

Figure 17

Changes in Degrees Awarded to Minority and White Students, by Type of Degree: 1994 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997.

Both men and women of color experienced moderate gains in all four degree categories for the 1994-1995 academic year. Women in 1995 recorded the largest gains in the number of bachelor's degrees and master's degrees earned, while men of color had the greatest increases at the associate and first-professional levels.

Students of color achieved a moderate increase in the share of bachelor's degrees earned in 1995, compared with the previous year. Minorities earned 18 percent of all bachelor's degrees in 1995, up by just over 1 percentage point from 1994 and by nearly 5 percentage points since 1990 (Table 11).

However, students of color accounted for 22.1 percent of all four-year undergraduates in 1995 (Figure 18). The discrepancy between these figures indicates that minority representation among degree recipients remains below their share of total four-year undergraduate enrollments.

Similar trends also were evident at all other degree levels. Students of color earned 19.5 percent of all first-professional degrees in 1995, a steady increase from 18.4 percent in 1994 and 13.4 percent in 1990 (Table 13). Minorities represented 22.5 percent of all first-professional students enrolled in 1995 (Figure 18).

At the master's level, students of color also have made gains throughout the 1990s. They earned 14 percent of all master's degrees awarded in 1995, up from 13.2 percent in 1994 and 10.9 percent in 1990 (Table 12). Minorities accounted for 15.6 percent of enrollments at the graduate level in 1995 (Figure 18).

At the associate degree level, students of color in 1995 for the first time represented more than 20 percent of all degree recipients. The 20.3 percent rate was up by more than 1 percentage point from 1994 and by nearly 4 percentage points from 1990. Despite this progress, students of color accounted for a larger share of the two-year enrollments–29.3 percent.

African Americans

• African Americans experienced small to moderate growth in all four degree categories in 1995, ranging from a low of 3.7 percent at the associate level to a high of 10.2 percent at the master's level.

• The 4.3 percent increase at the bachelor's level in 1995 was the smallest rate of growth among the four major ethnic groups, a trend that also was evident in 1993 and 1994 (Table 11). The 4.3 percent gain in 1995 also was below the 7.3 percent increase African Americans achieved the previous year.

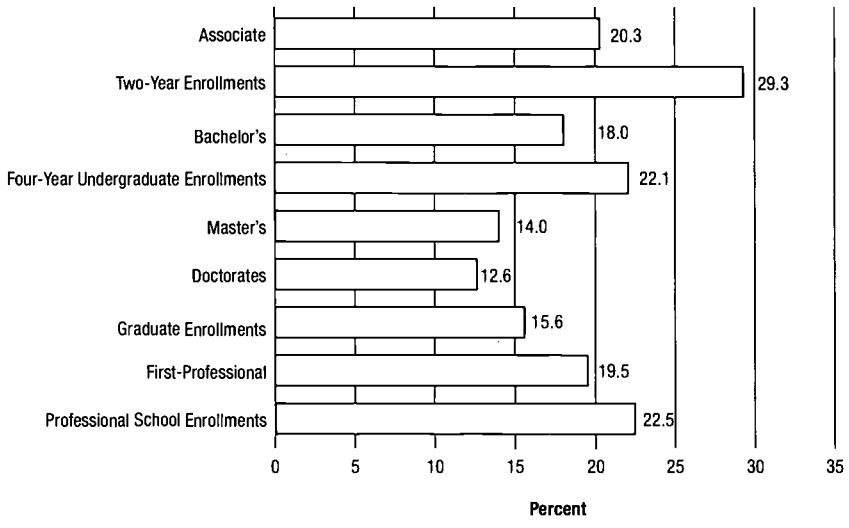
• African-American women posted larger one-year increases than African-American men in the numbers of associate, bachelor's, and master's degrees earned in 1995. The gains by African-American women ranged from 4.7 percent at the bachelor's level to 10.6 percent at the master's level. African-American men made their greatest progress–a more than 9 percent increase–at the master's and first-professional degree levels, though they showed a decrease at the associate degree level. African-American men earned 3.7 percent more bachelor's degrees in 1995 than in 1994.

• After declining slightly between 1985 and 1987, the number of African Americans earning bachelor's degrees has increased steadily since 1990 (Figure 19). The 42.8 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees earned from 1990 to 1995 is greater than the undergraduate enrollment increase of 16.3 percent for African Americans during this period. Despite this progress, however, African Americans received only 7.5 percent of all bachelor's degrees awarded in 1995, though they represented nearly 11 percent of all undergraduates.

• African Americans at historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) posted gains in all degree categories except associate degrees from 1994 to 1995 (Table 14). These gains amounted to 2.2 percent at the bachelor's level, 8.6 per-

Figure 18

Minority Share of Enrollments and Degrees Conferred, by Degree Level: 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997, and National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, 1995.

cent at the master's level, and 17.8 percent at the first-professional level. Nationwide, HBCUs awarded 28.1 percent of all bachelor's degrees, 15.1 percent of all master's degrees, and 17.4 percent of all first-professional degrees earned by African Americans in 1995.

Hispanics

• Hispanics recorded gains in all four degree categories in 1995 (Figure 20), ranging from a low of 3.1 percent more first-professional degrees earned to a high of 12.3 percent more associate degrees earned than in 1994. Over the past decade, gains in the number of Hispanic degree awards range from 71.5 percent at the first-professional level to 109.5 percent at the baccalaureate level.

• The 3.1 percent increase in the number of first-professional degrees earned in 1995 was the smallest among the four ethnic minority groups (Table 13). However, Hispanics have recorded gains amounting to 33 percent at this level since 1990.

• Hispanic men achieved larger gains than Hispanic women in the number of associate and bachelor's degrees earned in 1995. Hispanic women recorded larger gains at the master's degree level, while growth rates at the first-professional level showed no gender differences.

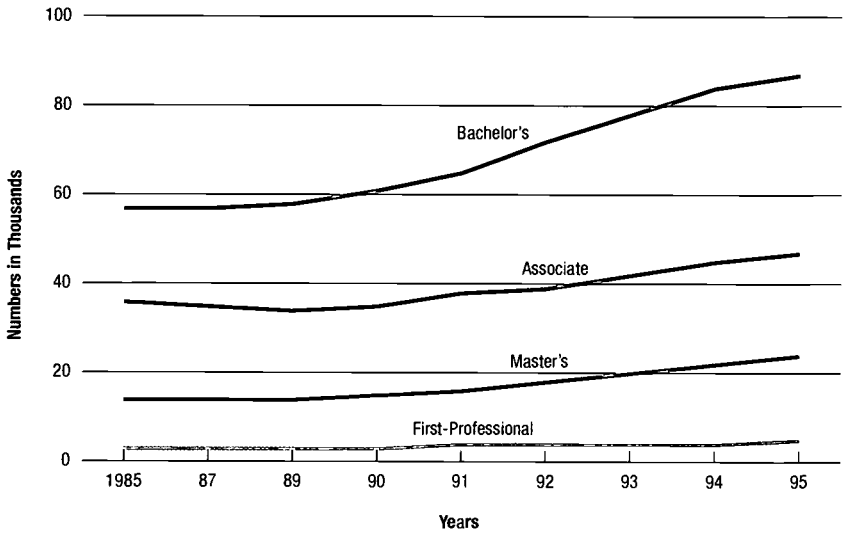
• Hispanic men recorded a 19 percent gain in the number of associate degrees earned from 1994 to 1995, the largest one-year increase among men of color in any degree category. Hispanic men also earned 8.2 percent more bachelor's degrees, 7.4 percent more master's degrees, and 3.1 percent more first-professional degrees in 1995 than in 1994.

• Hispanic women achieved their largest percentage increase, 9.1 percent, in the number of master's degrees earned in 1995. Hispanic women also registered increases of 7.6 percent at both the associate and bachelor's degree levels that year.

• Despite progress, a disparity remains between the number of degrees earned by Hispanics and their college enrollments. They earned 6.7 percent of associate

Figure 19

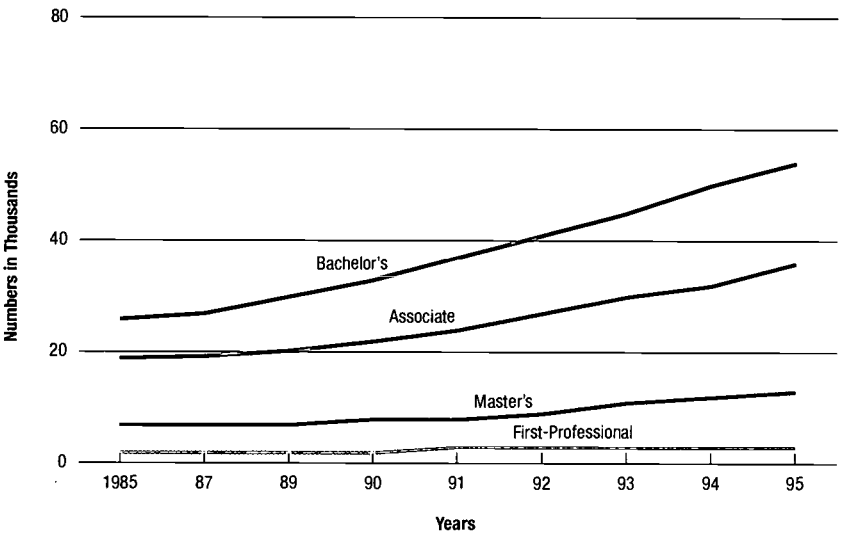
Degrees Awarded to African Americans, by Type of Degree: 1985 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997.

Figure 20

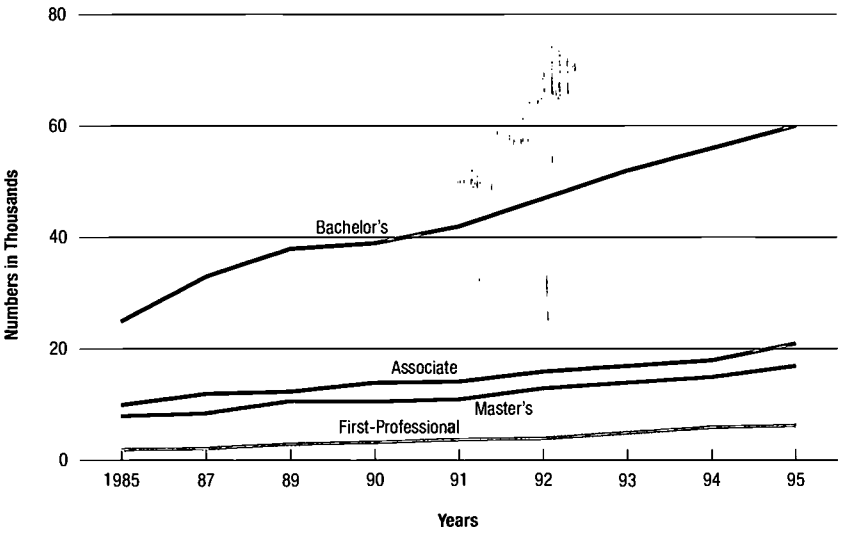
Degrees Awarded to Hispanic Americans, by Type of Degree: 1985 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997.

Figure 21

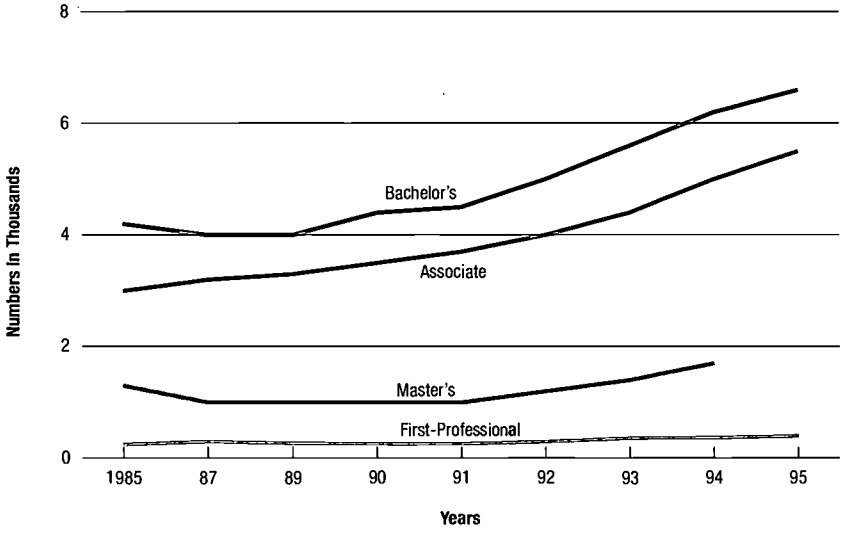
Degrees Awarded to Asian Americans, by Type of Degree: 1985 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997.

Figure 22

Degrees Awarded to American Indians, by Type of Degree: 1985 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997.

degrees, 4.7 percent of bachelor's degrees, 3.3 percent of master's degrees, and 4.3 percent of first-professional degrees in 1995, yet they represented 8.3 percent of undergraduate students, 4 percent of graduate students, and 4.7 percent of professional students that same year.

• Hispanic students attending Hispanic-serving institutions (HSIs)–colleges and universities with undergraduate enrollments that are 25 percent or more Hispanic–achieved gains in all degree categories from 1994 to 1995 (Table 15). The number of Hispanics earning degrees at these institutions increased by 6.9 percent at the associate degree level, by 14.1 percent at the bachelor's level, and by 24.4 percent at the master's level in 1995. It is noteworthy that the number of institutions classified as HSIs has increased by more than 20 percent since 1993.

• Overall, HSIs awarded 40.2 percent of the associate degrees earned by Hispanics in 1995, a small decrease from the previous year. HSIs also awarded 19.9 percent of bachelor's degrees and 17.8 percent of master's degrees earned by Hispanics in 1995. However, HSIs awarded only 4 percent of the first-professional degrees earned by Hispanics that year.

Asian Americans

• Asian Americans experienced moderate growth in all degree categories from 1994 to 1995, ranging from an 8.6 percent increase in the number of first-professional degrees earned to a 12.4 percent increase in the number of associate degrees earned. However, since 1985, the number of degrees awarded to Asian Americans has more than doubled at all degree levels (Figure 21).

• Asian Americans recorded the largest gains at the bachelor's and master's degree levels among the four major ethnic minority groups in 1995. Asian Americans earned 10.3 percent more master's degrees and 8.7 percent more bachelor's degrees in 1995 than in 1994.

• Asian-American women in 1995 recorded more progress than Asian-American men in all categories except first-professional degrees, where women and men posted similar gains.

• In 1995, Asian Americans accounted for 10.4 percent of all first-professional students and earned 8.4 percent of all professional degrees. Asian Americans also accounted for 5.8 percent of undergraduate students and earned 5.2 percent of bachelor's degrees and 3.8 percent of associate degrees awarded in 1995. Asian Americans represented 4.5 percent of all graduate students and earned 4.2 percent of master's degrees that year.

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN COLORADO

American Indians

• Between 1985 and 1995, American Indians achieved substantial growth in all four degree categories, ranging from a low of 29.1 percent at the master's level to a high of 86 percent at the associate level (Figure 22). Despite progress in 1995, American Indians continued to earn 1 percent or less of degrees conferred in all four major categories.

• American Indians had their largest increase from 1994 to 1995 at the associate degree level, with 12.7 percent more degrees earned (Table 10). This was the largest percentage gain among the four major ethnic groups at this level. American Indians also recorded an increase of 11.1 percent at the first-professional level in 1995, although they earned only a tiny fraction of degrees awarded nationwide.

• American Indians lost ground at the master's degree level in 1995, posting a decline of 4.5 percent. This decrease was the only one among the four major ethnic groups in any degree category that year.

• American Indian women outgained American Indian men in the number of bachelor's and first-professional degrees earned from 1994 to 1995.

• A 14.7 percent increase in the number of associate degrees earned in 1995 enabled American Indian men to post the larger gain in that category. American Indian women also showed steady growth of 11.6 percent at that level for the same year.

• Only 412 American Indians earned first-professional degrees in 1995, and only 1,621 earned master's degrees. □

Degrees Conferred by Field

Students of color made progress in all six major fields of study from 1994 to 1995, at both the bachelor's and master's degree levels. At both levels, the largest percentage gains were in the health professions. Gains in this category included a 16.9 percent increase at the bachelor's level (Table 16) and a 26.9 percent increase at the master's level (Table 17). The increase in the number of master's degrees includes a 50.6 percent increase in the number of health professions master's degrees awarded to minority men from 1994 to 1995.

Minorities also achieved progress in the social sciences and education from 1994 to 1995. Students of color made larger gains at the master's level, with one-year increases of 11.5 percent in the number of education degrees earned and 10.4 percent in the number of social sciences degrees earned. At the bachelor's level, students of color earned 7.3 percent more education degrees and 2 percent more social science degrees in 1995 than in 1994.

It was in the social sciences that the four major ethnic groups showed the slowest growth rate, 2 percent, at the bachelor's degree level. The smallest gain at the master's level was the 2.2 percent increase in the number of business degrees earned.

African Americans

- Despite gains in 1995 in other categories, African Americans made little or no progress at the bachelor's degree level in the areas of business and social science, the two fields that traditionally confer the largest number of degrees to African Americans (Table 16).

- In 1995, African Americans recorded an 18.6 percent gain in the number of social sciences degrees earned and a 12 percent increase in the number of engineering degrees earned at the master's level. In both of these categories, African Americans posted the largest percentage gains among the four ethnic minority groups, with the exception of the increase posted by American Indians in social sciences master's degrees.

- African Americans posted a 13.4 percent increase in the number of education degrees earned at the master's level from 1994 to 1995, led by a 19.1 percent gain by men.

- At the bachelor's degree level, African Americans had the smallest increase in the percentage of social sciences degrees earned, but the largest percentage increase in health professions degrees earned among the four major ethnic groups.

- African-American women posted larger percentage gains than African-American men in engineering and life sciences degrees earned at the bachelor's level. However, African-American men had larger increases in education and health professions degrees earned at the bachelor's level.

- At the bachelor's level, African-American men experienced a decline in social sciences degrees earned in 1995, while African-American women posted a decrease in business degrees earned. These declines ended a period of steady growth in both categories.

- African Americans achieved progress in all master's degree categories except business from 1994 to 1995. Education, social sciences, health professions, and engineering degree earnings all increased by at least 12 percent (Table 17).

- African-American men posted larger percentage gains than women in education, social sciences, health professions, and public affairs degrees earned at the master's level in 1995. However,


UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA

they earned nearly 3.7 percent fewer business degrees.

Hispanics

• At the bachelor's level, Hispanics achieved progress in all major degree fields. A 2.2 percent increase in the number of social sciences degrees earned was the smallest gain in 1995, while health professions was the area in which Hispanics had the largest increase–14.4 percent (Table 16).

• Hispanics in 1995 registered small to moderate gains in all categories of master's degrees except business, where the number of degrees conferred changed little from 1994. Increases at the master's level ranged from a low of 2.7 percent in engineering to a high of 19.6 percent in the health professions (Table 16).

• Among the four major ethnic minority groups, Hispanics recorded the highest growth in the number of engineering degrees awarded in 1995 at the bachelor's level. However, they also posted the smallest percentage gains among the four groups in education, life sciences, and health professions degrees.

• A 4.1 percent increase in education degrees earned by Hispanics at the bachelor's level included a 10.3 percent gain by men. Hispanic men also outgained Hispanic women in bachelor's degrees earned in business and health professions.

• Hispanic women continue to surpass Hispanic men in the number of bachelor's degrees earned in life sciences. The 14.4 percent increase in degrees earned by Hispanic women in 1995 was nearly four times the increase for Hispanic men that year.

• Education remains the most popular master's degree choice among Hispanics, and men and women each posted a gain of 12.4 percent in the number of such degrees awarded in 1995.

Asian Americans

• At the bachelor's level, Asian Americans in 1995 achieved the largest gains of the four ethnic groups in education and life sciences degrees. A 3.7 percent increase in the number of engineering degrees awarded was the smallest gain among the four groups (Table 16).

• Asian-American men at the bachelor's level posted increases of 41.5 percent and 28.3 percent in education and the health professions, respectively, two categories in which Asian-American women traditionally earn the majority of degrees.

• For the first time in four years, Asian-American women in 1995 earned slightly more bachelor's

degrees in life sciences than Asian-American men. Asian-American women recorded a 20.8 percent gain from 1994 to 1995, while the increase for Asian-American men was 16.2 percent.

• At the master's level, Asian Americans posted a 57.9 percent increase in the number of health professions degrees earned in 1995 (Table 17). The number of health professions degrees earned by men nearly doubled, while the number of such degrees awarded to women increased by 41.3 percent.

• At the master's degree level, Asian-American women posted larger gains than men in education, business, and engineering. However, Asian-American women lost ground in the social sciences in 1995, earning 2.1 percent fewer degrees than in 1994.

• Education continued to grow as a field of concentration for Asian-American students. In 1995, 23.1 percent more bachelor's degrees and 11.2 percent more master's degrees were earned in this field.

American Indians

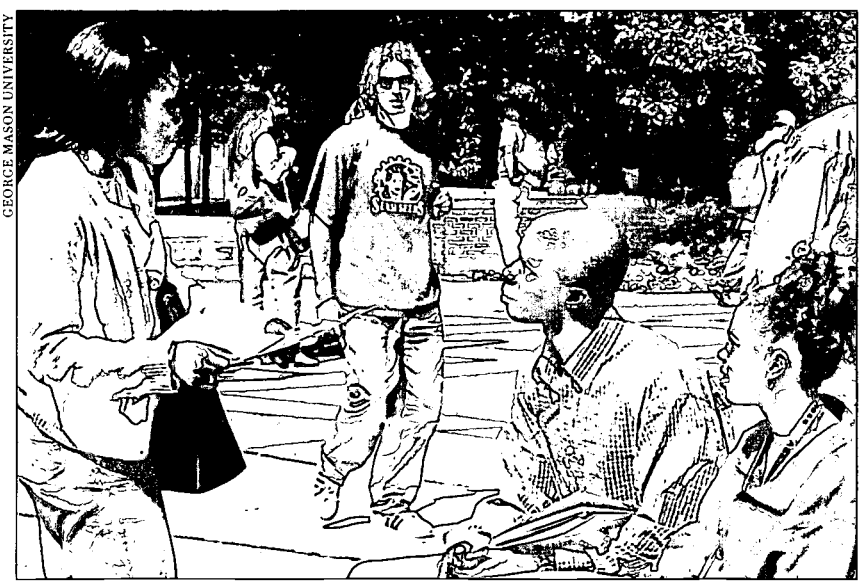
• American Indians in 1995 registered solid increases of approximately 15 percent more degrees earned in education, health professions, and life sciences at the bachelor's level (Table 16).

• A 3.6 percent decline for American Indians in the number of business degrees earned was the largest in any degree category among the four major ethnic minority groups at the bachelor's level. The decline resulted from a 7.3 percent decrease in business degrees earned by American Indian women that year. The number of degrees awarded to men was virtually unchanged.

• American Indian women in 1995 outgained men by a two-to-one margin in the percentage increase in bachelor's degrees earned in education. Women also posted larger increases than men in health professions, life sciences, engineering, and social sciences.

• At the master's degree level, American Indians recorded a 15 percent decline in the number of education degrees earned, with men and women both posting double-digit decreases. American Indians also recorded a 21.5 percent decline in the number of engineering degrees earned at the master's level, though the numbers were small to begin with.

• Only five American Indian women earned master's degrees in engineering in 1995, down from 14 the previous year. The number of American Indian men earning engineering degrees at this level declined from 51 to 46 during this same period.



GEORGE MASON UNIVERSITY

DOCTORAL DEGREES

General Trends

The number of doctoral degrees earned by students of color remained steady from 1995 to 1996, following a period of moderate growth during the past decade (Figure 23). Overall, students of color have achieved gains of 74.1 percent in the number of doctoral degrees earned during the most recent decade, with Asian Americans making larger gains at this level than other ethnic minorities.

Among all students, women continued to achieve more progress than men at the doctoral level. The number of women earning doctoral degrees was up 3.2 percent from 1995 to 1996, while the number of men earning degrees remained largely unchanged (Table 18). Since 1986, the number of doctoral degrees earned by women has increased by 49.9 percent, compared with a 22.7 percent increase for men. However, men still earn the

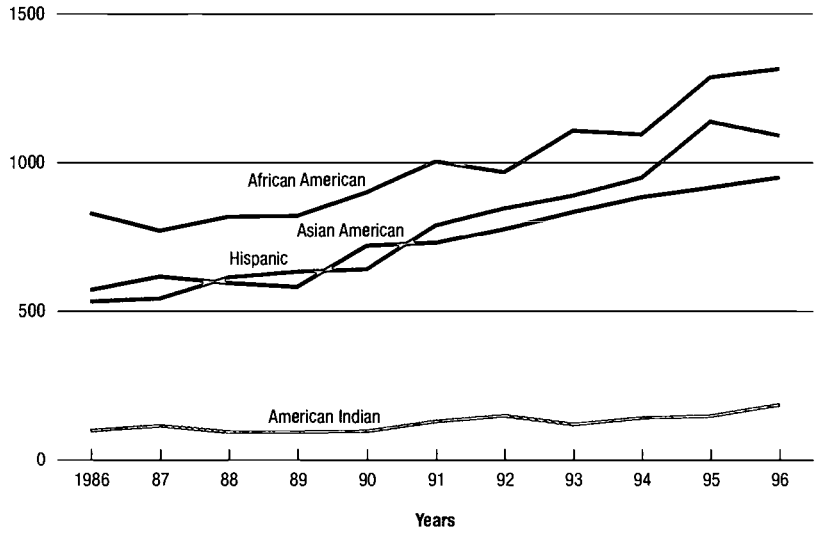
majority of doctoral degrees–59.6 percent of those awarded in 1996.

The steady progress achieved by women is most evident among U.S. citizens. The number of doctoral degrees earned by male U.S. citizens increased by only 7.8 percent from 1986 to 1996, primarily because of limited increases among white men. In contrast, the number of doctoral degrees earned by women increased by 38 percent during the decade. Women earned 2.1 percent more doctoral degrees in 1996 than in 1995, while the number of doctoral degrees men earned fell by nearly 2 percent.

Non-citizens earned slightly more doctoral degrees in 1996 than in 1995, although growth rates have slowed following a decade of steady increases. This slowdown is particularly evident among men, who make up the majority of non-citizens earning doctoral degrees. The number of non-citizen men earning doctoral degrees increased by only 1.2 percent in 1996, compared to a 4 percent increase in the number of non-citizen women earning such degrees. Growth rates have slowed, but the number of non-citizens who earned doctorates in 1996 was nearly double the number of a decade ago.

Figure 23

Doctoral Degrees Awarded to Minorities, by Race and Ethnicity: 1986 to 1996



Source: National Research Council, Publication Records File, 1986-1996.

African Americans

• The number of African Americans earning doctoral degrees in 1996 was largely unchanged from the previous year. However, African Americans had experienced a 17.5 percent increase in the number of doctoral degrees earned in 1995, and the 1996 data confirm that this increase was not an aberration.

• Although African-American men earned more doctorates in 1996, African-American women did not. The number of men earning doctoral degrees increased by 9.2 percent in 1996, but the rate for women declined by nearly 5 percent (Figure 24).

• The number of doctoral degrees awarded to African Americans by historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) increased by 9.2 percent in 1995, the most recent year for which data are available (Table 14). African Americans earned 11 percent of their doctoral degrees at HBCUs in 1995, a slight decline from the previous year.

Hispanics

• The 3.4 percent increase in the number of doctorates earned by Hispanics in 1996 is consistent with recent trends in doctoral degrees earned by this group (Table 18). However, Hispanics have achieved progress of 66.1 percent in the number of doctorates earned during the past decade.

• Hispanic men earned more doctoral degrees than Hispanic women in 1996 for the second consecutive year. Nearly 4 percent more Hispanic men earned doctoral degrees in 1996 than in 1995, while the increase for Hispanic women was 2.8 percent (Figure 24).

• Hispanics earned 5.2 percent of their doctoral degrees at Hispanic-serving institutions in 1995, the most recent year for which comparisons are available (Table 15). This is a slight increase from the 4.4 percent recorded in 1994.

Asian Americans

• The number of Asian Americans earning doctoral degrees declined by 4.3 percent in 1996, ending a period of steady growth dating to

the mid-1980s. Nevertheless, the number of Asian Americans earning doctorates has more than doubled since 1986.

• Asian-American men earned 8.4 percent fewer degrees in 1996. The number of Asian-American women earning doctoral degrees increased by 1.5 percent (Figure 24).

American Indians

• American Indians earned nearly 25 percent more doctoral degrees in 1996, with both men and women contributing to the increase. The growth ends a period of stagnation over the previous four years.

• American Indians earned only 186 doctoral degrees in 1996, less than one-half of 1 percent of all such degrees awarded that year.

DOCTORAL DEGREES BY FIELD

U.S. citizens achieved only modest gains in two major fields of doctoral study in 1996. The greatest progress–8.6 percent–occurred in engineering (Table 19). The number of social sciences and education degrees awarded increased by 2.8 percent and 1.5 percent, respectively, but U.S. citizens earned the same number of degrees or fewer in physical sciences, life sciences, and the humanities.

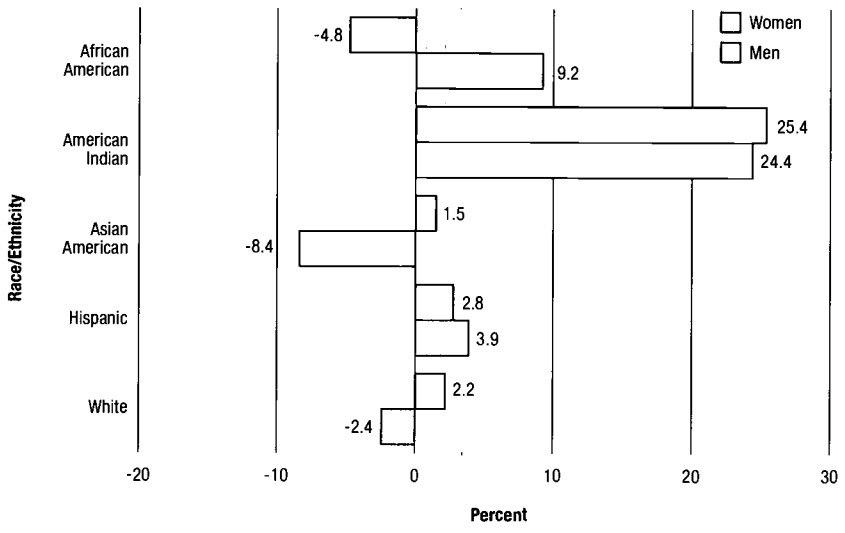
African Americans

• In 1996, African Americans earned more doctorates in all major fields except life sciences and education.

• African Americans experienced the greatest progress–32.7 percent–in the number of physical sciences doctorates earned in 1996. The number of doctoral degrees earned in humanities and engineering also increased, by 12.3 percent and 9.3 percent, respectively.

Figure 24

Changes in Doctoral Degrees, by Race, Ethnicity, and Gender: 1995 to 1996



Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, 1995 to 1996.

Hispanics

• Hispanics recorded gains in 1996 in all major fields except physical sciences and education. A 13.2 percent decrease in the number of education degrees earned was the largest decline among the four ethnic minority groups.

• The 41 percent increase in engineering doctoral degrees earned by Hispanics was the largest among the four ethnic minority groups in this field.

Asian Americans

• Following steady gains during the past decade, Asian Americans experienced declines of 24.4 percent in social sciences and 21.1 percent in physical sciences doctorates in 1996. These declines were by far the largest among the four major ethnic minority groups.

• Asian Americans recorded increases in life sciences, engineering, and education doctoral degrees earned in 1996.

American Indians

• American Indians in 1996 achieved gains in all major doctoral degree categories, including a 46.3 percent increase in the number of education doctorates earned.

• American Indians earned only 14 doctoral degrees in engineering and 13 such degrees in physical sciences in 1996. Education again was the most popular area of advanced study for American Indians, with 60 doctoral degrees earned in that field. □

Employment in Higher Education

Last year's *Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education* documented significant increases in the number of faculty of color employed since the mid-1980s. As Table 20 shows, the number of full-time faculty of color increased by 47.7 percent from 1985 to 1995, compared with a 9.9 percent increase for whites, according to employment and faculty surveys of the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) and the *1995 Fall Staff Survey* of the National Center for Education Statistics and the U.S. Department of Education. Although faculty of color made the greatest progress at the associate and assistant professor levels, all four major ethnic minority groups achieved moderate gains at the full professor level from 1993 to 1995 (Table 21).

Despite this progress, persons of color remain severely underrepresented among college and university faculty. They accounted for only 12.9 percent of all full-time faculty and 9.6 percent of full professors in 1995 (Table 20 and Table 21). Tenure rates for tenure-track faculty are also much lower for faculty of color than for white faculty (Table 22).

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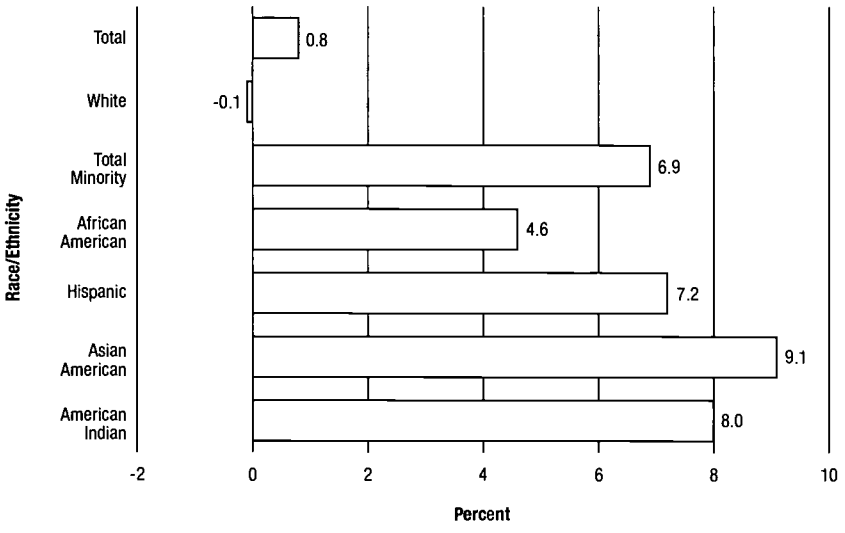
General Trends

Nationwide, the number of full-time faculty at America's colleges and universities increased slightly in 1995, to more than 538,000. The number of full-time faculty of color was up 6.9 percent from 1993 to 1995, according to Department of Education data (Figure 25). With the number of white faculty

Figure 25

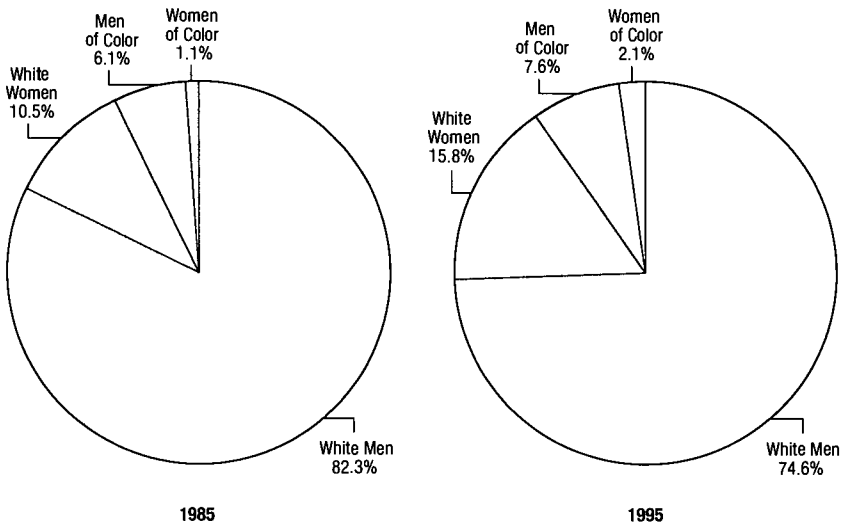
Change in Full-Time Faculty, by Race and Ethnicity: 1993 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Fall Staff Survey,* 1993 and 1995. Washington, DC: 1996 and 1998.

Figure 26

Minority and White Share of Full Professor Positions, by Gender: 1985 and 1995



Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. "EEO-6 Higher Education Staff Information" Survey, 1985, and U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Fall Staff Survey,* 1995. Washington, DC: 1998.

holding relatively steady during this period, the numerical gains by faculty of color translated into proportional gains among full-time faculty. As a result, faculty of color represented nearly 13 percent of all faculty in 1995, up slightly from 12.2 percent in 1993 and 9.9 percent a decade ago.

More faculty of color served as full professors in 1995 than in 1993 (Table 21). The number of minorities employed as full professors increased by nearly 7 percent from 1993 to 1995, while the rate for whites remained largely unchanged. Women and men of color both contributed to this trend, with increases of 8.5 percent and 6.2 percent, respectively. Among women of color, the number of full professors more than doubled from 1985 to 1995, compared to a 51.3 percent increase for men of color. Despite this progress in 1995, women of color accounted for only 2.1 percent of all full professors, compared with 74.6 percent for white men, 15.8 percent for white women, and 7.6 percent for minority men (Figure 26).

Faculty of color made larger gains between 1993 and 1995 at the associate and assistant professor levels than at the full professor level. A 10 percent gain by faculty of color at the associate professor level was the largest increase at any faculty level, while the number of minorities at the assistant professor level increased by 8.6 percent during the two-year period. The four major ethnic minority groups also recorded gains at the instructor/lecturer and other faculty levels from 1993 to 1995.

Tenure rates for faculty of color, as a group, did not change from 1993 to 1995, while the rates for whites increased slightly (Table 22). As a result, a larger gap in tenure rates existed between white and minority faculty. In 1995, 74 percent of white faculty and 62 percent of faculty of color held tenured positions (Figure 27). Men of color were much more likely than women of color to have tenure in 1995. Approximately 66 percent of men of color held tenured positions that year, compared to 54 percent of women of color.

The number of minorities in full-time administration increased by 4.7 percent from 1993 to 1995, primarily because of gains by women (Table 23). Women of color recorded progress of 9.3 percent during this period, while the number of minority male administrators was virtually unchanged (Figure 28). Whites experienced a 1.3 percent increase in the number of full-time administrative positions held during the same period. As a result, minorities accounted for 14.1 percent of all full-time administrators in higher education in 1995, compared with 13.7 percent two years previously.

Nationwide, African Americans, Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians accounted for 11.3 percent of all college and university chief executive officers in 1997 (Table 24). CEOs of color accounted for 12.4 percent of leaders at two-year institutions and 10.7 percent of leaders at four-year institutions. Seventy-five percent of CEOs of color were men.

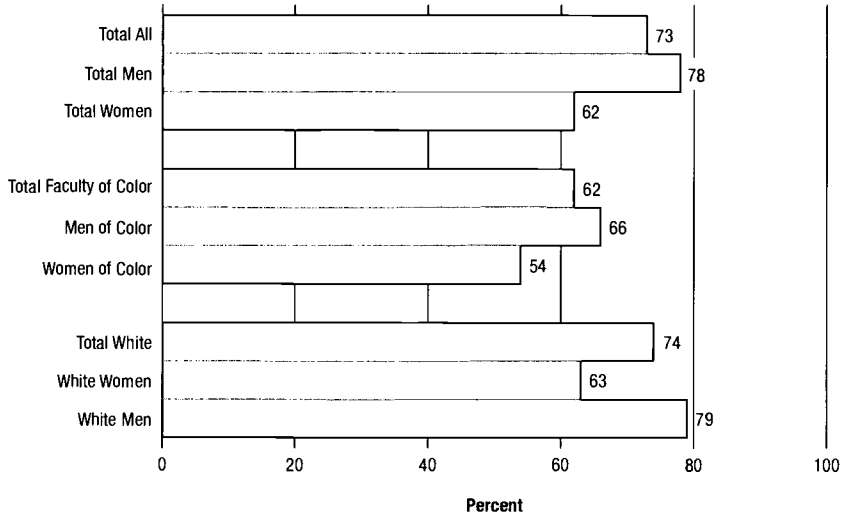
African Americans

• The 4.6 percent increase in the number of African-American full-time faculty from 1993 to 1995 was the smallest among the four major ethnic groups. The number of full-time, African-American female faculty rose by 5.8 percent during this period, compared to a 3.5 percent gain for African-American men.

• From 1985 to 1995, the number of African-American full-time faculty increased by 37.2 percent, with women outgaining men. However, this rate of growth trails gains made by Hispanics, Asian Americans, and American Indians.

Figure 27

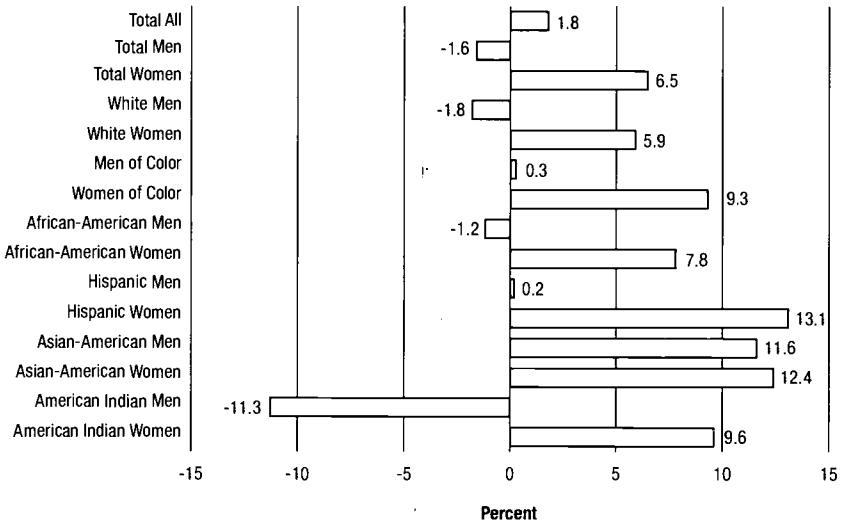
Tenure Rates for Minority and White Tenure-Track Faculty, by Gender: 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Fall Staff Survey,* 1995. Washington, DC: 1998.

Figure 28

Changes in Full-Time Administrators in Higher Education: 1993 to 1995



Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Fall Staff Survey,* 1993 and 1995. Washington, DC: 1996 and 1998.

• African Americans represented 5 percent of all full-time faculty at colleges and universities in 1995; this is approximately the same share they held in 1993.

• African Americans experienced a 5.3 percent gain at the full professor level from 1993 to 1995, with both men and women contributing to this upward trend. African Americans exhibited similar gains at the associate and assistant professor levels. A 1.9 percent increase for African Americans at the instructor level

was the smallest increase among the four ethnic minority groups.

• Tenure rates for African-American faculty declined slightly, from 61 percent in 1993 to 59 percent in 1995 (Table 22). African Americans continue to have the lowest tenure rate among the four ethnic minority groups. African Americans in 1995 also trailed whites in tenure rates by 5 percentage points.

• African Americans continue to show a gender gap in tenure rates. In 1995, 62 percent of men had tenure, compared to 55 percent of women.

• The number of African-American full-time administrators in higher education increased by 3.5 percent from 1993 to 1995 (Table 23). However, a 7.8 percent gain among women accounted for this progress. African-American men lost ground, posting a decline of 1.2 percent for this period. From 1985 to 1995, the number of female African-American administrators increased by 65.5 percent, four times the increase among African-American men.

• Nearly 200 African Americans served as CEOs of colleges and universities in 1997, accounting for 6.3 percent of all higher education CEOs. Two-thirds of these served at four-year institutions, many of which are HBCUs. Women accounted for only 25 percent of African-American CEOs and were more likely to head two-year institutions.

Hispanics

• The number of Hispanic full-time faculty increased by 7.2 percent from 1993 to 1995 (Table 20). Hispanic women achieved a 10 percent gain, while Hispanic men achieved a 5.4 percent gain. From 1985 to 1995, the number of female Hispanic faculty more than doubled, compared to a growth rate for Hispanic men of 44.1 percent.

• Despite progress during the 1990s, Hispanics represented only 2.4 percent of all full-time faculty in 1995, up only slightly since 1993.

• Hispanics achieved more progress at the associate, assistant, and instructor levels than at the full professor level from 1993 to 1995 (Table 21). A 3.5 percent gain at the full professor level was approximately one-third the rates of increase Hispanics experienced at the other faculty levels.

• Data on Hispanics' faculty rankings showed wide differences by gender. Hispanic men achieved a 7.7 percent increase at the full professor level from 1993 to 1995, while the number of female full professors declined by nearly 9 percent. However, at the associate professor level, Hispanic women had a gain of 26.1 percent for the two-year period, more than three times the gain for Hispanic men. Hispanic women also outgained Hispanic men at the assistant professor and instructor levels.

• Tenure rates for Hispanics remained nearly steady at 62 percent in 1995. However, Hispanic men were more likely to have tenure than Hispanic women. Nationwide, 66 percent of Hispanic men had tenure in 1995, compared to 55 percent of Hispanic women (Table 22).

• The number of Hispanic administrators in higher education increased by 6 percent from 1993 to 1995, the second-largest gain among the four ethnic minority groups (Table 23). A 13.1 percent gain by Hispanic women accounted for this progress; the number of Hispanic male administrators showed no change for the two-year period. Despite numerical gains, however, Hispanics represented only 2.7 percent of all administrators in 1995.

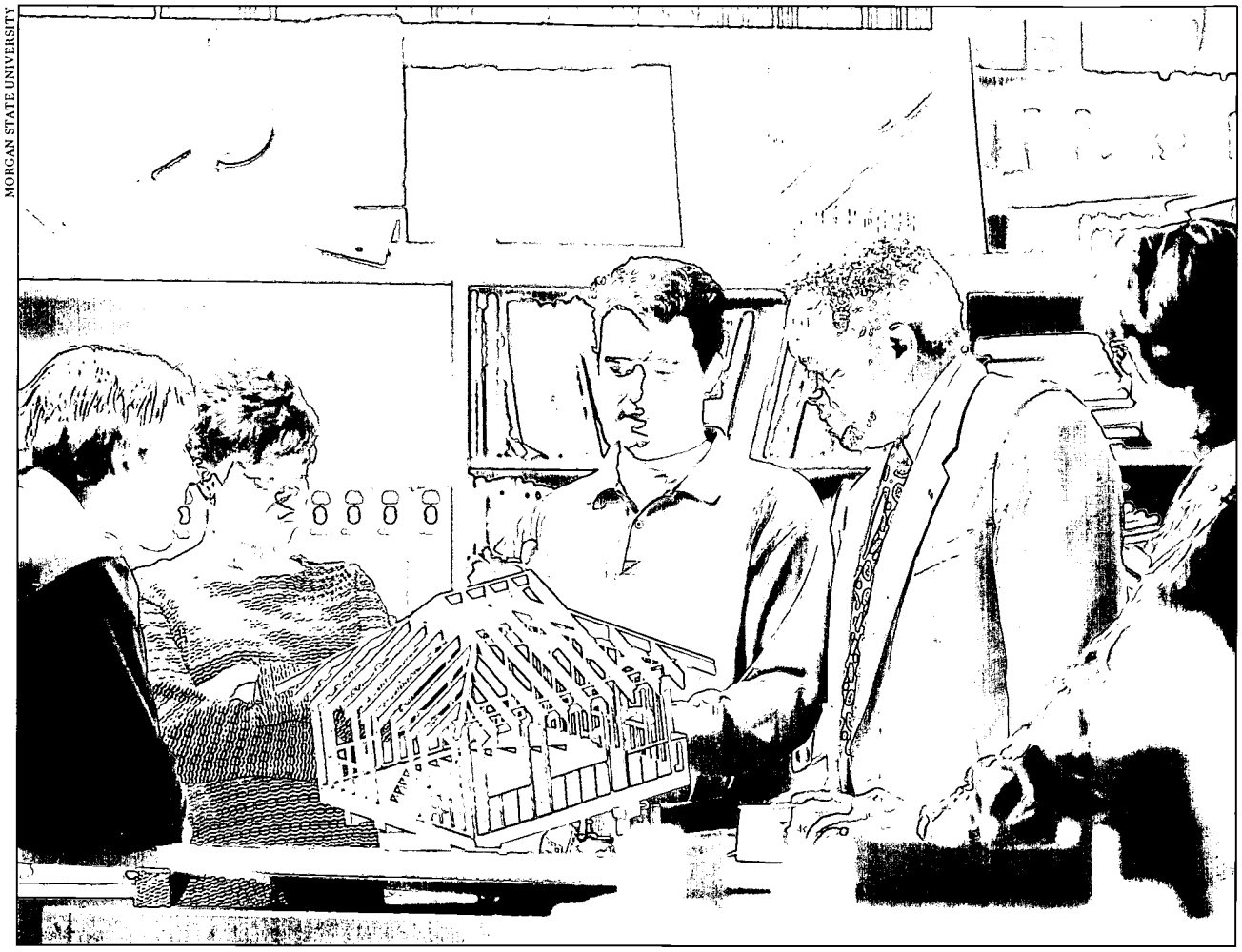
• In 1997, Hispanics accounted for 3.6 percent of all higher education CEOs. Of the 110 Hispanic CEOs, nearly half served at two-year institutions, and 29 percent were women (Table 24).

Asian Americans

• The 9.1 percent rise in the number of Asian-American full-time faculty from 1993 to 1995 was the largest increase among the four ethnic minority groups (Table 20). A 15.2 percent increase in the number of faculty posts held by Asian-American women accounted for much of the progress, though Asian-American men also recorded an increase of 7.1 percent.

• Despite gains by women, men represent the majority of full-time Asian-American faculty in higher education. Women accounted for only 26 percent of Asian-American full-time faculty in 1995; this is the lowest female representation among the four ethnic minority groups.

• The number of Asian Americans serving as full professors increased by 8.7 percent from 1993 to 1995, as both men and women achieved moderate gains (Table 21). Asian Americans also recorded progress of more than 11 percent at the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associate professor and assistant professor levels.

• A 64 percent tenure rate for Asian Americans in 1995 was the highest among the four ethnic minority groups (Table 22). However, Asian Americans had a significant gender gap in tenure rates. In 1995, 68 percent of Asian-American men had achieved tenure, compared to 52 percent of Asian-American women.

• The number of Asian-American college administrators increased by 11.9 percent from 1993 to 1995, surpassing percentage gains by African Americans, Hispanics, and American Indians (Table 23). However, Asian Americans in 1995 represented less than 2 percent of all administrators in higher education.

• Only 19 Asian Americans served as CEOs in higher education, the lowest figure among the four ethnic minority groups (Table 24). Only two of the CEOs were women.

American Indians

• The number of American Indian full-time faculty surpassed 2,000 in 1995, an 8 percent increase from 1993 and a 46 percent increase over the past decade (Table 20). However, American Indians represented less than one-half of 1 percent of full-time faculty in higher education that year.

• A 17.6 percent increase in the number of faculty positions held by American Indian women was the major factor behind the gains in full-time faculty positions from 1993 to 1995. American Indian men registered only a 2 percent increase for the period.

• American Indians achieved a 6 percent gain in the number of full professor posts held from 1993 to 1995 (Table 21). However, American Indians experienced more progress at the associate and assistant professor levels, with gains of 23.7 percent and 20.4 percent, respectively.

• A 42.2 percent gain by American Indian women at the associate professor level was the largest increase

among the four ethnic minority groups. However, the overall number of American Indian female faculty remained small.

• The tenure rate for American Indians was unchanged in 1995, at 63 percent (Table 22). As with other racial and ethnic groups, American Indian men are much more likely to gain tenure than American Indian women. Seventy percent of American Indian men had tenure in 1995, compared to only half of American Indian women.

• The number of American Indian administrators in higher education declined by 2.3 percent from 1993 to 1995, largely due to an 11.3 percent decrease in administrative posts held by men (Table 23). In comparison, the number of American Indian female administrators increased by 9.6 percent during this period. From 1985 to 1995, the number of American Indian female administrators more than doubled, while the number of male administrators only slightly increased.

• The 22 American Indian CEOs in higher education represented less than 1 percent of all higher education CEOs in 1997 (Table 24). Only seven American Indian CEOs served at four-year colleges and universities. □

THE CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA

SPECIAL FOCUS

Admissions in Higher Education: Measuring Cognitive and Noncognitive Variables

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INTRODUCTION

This year's special focus section discusses concerns about college admissions practices and explores criteria that could be included in the admissions process to more broadly, and perhaps better, indicate students' abilities to succeed in college. How important are noncognitive variables in predicting student success? Could such variables be useful in admissions decisions? These and related questions are considered in depth in this special focus section of the *Sixteenth Annual Status Report on Minorities in Higher Education*. The intent of this essay is to spark discussion and dialogue, and to prompt more exploration into how colleges and universities can continue to improve their admissions practices.

Most colleges and universities make use of multiple criteria in determining whom to admit. The most commonly subscribed to admissions criteria include high school grade point average (GPA), standardized test scores, high school curriculum, and class rank (all cognitive variables). Letters of recommendation, extracurricular activities, campus interviews, essays, special talents (including athletic abilities), gender, disabilities, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, leadership abilities, and other noncognitive factors also are considered by admissions officers.

Studies conducted in 1979, 1985, and 1992, cosponsored by the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO), American College Testing (ACT), The College Board, Educational Testing Service (ETS), and the National Association of College Admission Counselors (NACAC), show that test scores and high school GPA are the factors most often included in student selection, followed by high school course work (Table 25). In 1992, approximately two-thirds of all four-year institutions reported routinely using test scores to determine the admissibility of applicants (Breland, et al., 1995). Other indicators (such as letters of recommendation, extracurricular activities, and essays) also are employed, but they are used less frequently and with less emphasis than test scores and GPAs.

Students seeking college entrance are products of the educational, social, and economic environments from which they come. For myriad complex reasons, including higher poverty rates, pervasive inequalities in K-12 schooling, lower parental education levels, and differences in sociocultural experiences (Kozol, 1991), African-American, Latino, and American Indian students do not perform as well as whites or Asian

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Pacific Americans on cognitive admissions measures, especially standardized tests. As admissions competition has grown at institutions nationwide, and as institutions both raise their standards to respond to this competition (Breland, et al., 1995) and continue to rely heavily on cognitive admissions measures, these students face growing challenges in their efforts to pursue higher education opportunities.

Significant differences in mean test scores among racial and ethnic groups reflect drastic inequalities that exist in the United States and in the K-12 education system. The persistent underlying racial and socioeconomic inequalities in elementary and secondary education must be remedied in order to "level the playing field" in the college admissions process. However, remedying K-12 inequities in the future is of little immediate consequence to the college applicant who is a product of the current system and is rejected because of his or her test scores.

Higher education institutions (particularly public colleges and universities) have a greater societal responsibility than to simply admit students who have the highest test scores and grades. Their admissions processes should be aligned with their institutional missions. Given the growing diversity of the U.S. population, postsecondary institutions must do a better job of educating the nation's diverse citizenry. To do so is both an economic and a social imperative.

Since the 1960s, institutions' over-reliance on standardized test scores has come under increasing criticism. Some educators have called for the development of new approaches that would de-emphasize standardized test scores and broaden admissions criteria beyond those factors that currently are emphasized (Cole, 1997; Gardner, 1995; Kornhaber, 1997; Latino Eligibility Task Force, 1997; Tapia, 1998).

Criticism of over-reliance on these scores has increased in recent years in response to widespread efforts to eliminate affirmative action in college admissions decisions. As part of their affirmative action policies, many highly selective colleges and universities have lessened the weight given to test scores in order to achieve racial and ethnic diversity in their entering classes. As a result, Latino,

American Indian, and African-American students often have lower SAT and ACT scores than Asian-American and white students who are admitted to the same institution (Nettles, et al., 1997).

Critics charge that over-reliance on test scores in the absence of affirmative action policies and diversity considerations has increased the number of students of color being denied entry into the nation's selective colleges and universities. Consider the University of California, Berkeley, where as a result of a ban on affirmative action, the fall 1998 enrollment of African-American and Latino students was down by more than 50 percent (University of California, Office of the President, 1998). Some opponents of standardized exams argue that as affirmative action is currently practiced, it serves as a supplement to a college selection process that needs fundamental revision (Sturm and Guinier, 1996).

WHAT ARE THE ISSUES CONCERNING COGNITIVE ADMISSIONS MEASURES?

Standardized Tests

Standardized tests provide a relatively simple, convenient, cost-efficient, valid, and reliable means of determining and comparing academic achievement against a standard measure. However, they are not necessarily an accurate predictor of future performance, particularly for students of color.

With the exception of approximately 300 colleges and universities, most four-year colleges and universities require that applicants submit their standardized test scores as part of the admissions process (*FairTest*, 1997). For most students, the scores correlate with first-year grades. Research from The College Board shows that the SAT predicts about 18 percent of the variance in first-year college grades; high school GPA explains about 23 percent of the variance; and the SAT and GPA combined account for about 30 percent of the variance of first-year college grades. Other research from The College Board shows that test scores and high school grades better predict college performance in the sciences and mathematics (quantitative areas that make use of the skills measured by the SAT math score) and less well in areas that make less use of the verbal or mathematical skills measured by the test (Ramist, Lewis, and McCamley-Jenkins, 1994).

Standardized tests also are popular because they provide a convenient and relatively inexpensive means of evaluating the academic achievement of a large and diverse pool of postsecondary education candidates. Tests are easy to acquire, easy to administer, and easy to score. Test scores provide a relatively simple means of comparing prospective students' academic achievement.

In addition, many college administrators (and members of the public) use test scores to assess the quality of colleges and universities. Administrators, trustees, and regents often boast of increases in the mean test scores of entering classes and bemoan decreases in such scores. Various institutional rankings and rating processes emphasize standardized test scores. Parents, students, and faculty often believe that high standardized test scores equate with high institutional quality and academic merit. A related belief is that students with high scores are smart and capable of learning on their own, while those with low scores are less capable and may require additional support in order to succeed in college. Neither conclusion is based on the quality of the institution or how well it educates students.

Standardized tests also are believed to provide a legal basis for admission. The prevailing argument is that as long as one uses the same measure, all students are being evaluated equally. Higher education officials are confident that reliance on a combination of test scores and high school GPA provides strong justification for their decisions to admit or reject certain students. Finally, institutions may be required to rely on applicants' standardized test scores by state legislatures or other agencies, such as the National Collegiate Athletic Association (Sedlacek, 1998a).

Despite the widespread use and popularity of standardized tests, they often are relied upon too heavily in admissions decisions (see Sidebar 1). As Nancy Cole, president of the Educational Testing Service, notes, the myth of standardized tests is that they will provide an unequivocal yardstick by which all persons can be measured (Cole, 1997). The higher education community should aim to develop additional methods of assessment that will allow them to more accurately evaluate the potential of all college applicants and should real-

Sidebar 1
COMMON QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS ABOUT STANDARDIZED TESTS

Q: Do admissions tests such as the SAT and ACT measure everything important to know in an applicant?

A: Admissions tests measure only one of the three areas important for academic success: problem solving. Two areas not measured by admissions tests are creativity and ability to negotiate a system.

Q: Are admissions tests equally fair for all candidates?

A: Nontraditional applicants (e.g., some racial groups and older applicants) often show their abilities in ways not measured by admissions tests.

Q: Is it possible to assess abilities not covered in the admissions tests?

A: It is difficult, but not impossible. Additional variables can be systematically and inexpensively measured.

Q: Is achievement more important than potential aptitude in college admissions?

A: While both are important, some assessment of a candidate's potential or aptitude is critical in teaching and learning.

Q: Should we abandon the use of standardized tests in deciding whom to admit to college?

A: No. We should recognize the purpose and limitations of admissions tests and add measures that would provide a broader indication of applicants' skills and potential aptitude.

Q: Why have admissions tests become so widely used by colleges and universities?

A: They allow candidates to be compared by a common yardstick, they are easy to obtain, and they provide useful information about candidates.

ize that any single measure will reveal more about certain applicants than others. Thus, if higher education officials are truly interested in determining which individuals from an increasingly diverse population will succeed in college beyond the first year, they should examine and employ additional selection methods and assessment techniques that would enable them to broaden their criteria for college admissions.

The admissions policies, standards, processes, and measures of a college or university should reflect its academic and societal mission; its fundamental reason for being. Tests, no matter how good they are, can do that only in part. Success at the end of the freshman year is relevant, but only in part. There are broader issues. Public institutions need to take into account the needs of the state that supports them. Public and private institutions need to take into account a host of broader societal issues. Achievement test scores provide only a partial, and arguably limited, answer to the question of how well admissions policies align with institutional mission.

The irony of the current admissions debate is that the SAT and other standardized tests were never intended to serve as the primary factor for determining admittance (Angoff, 1971; Sedlacek, 1998a). Testing organizations discourage heavy reliance on test scores and assert that their instruments were designed to be used in conjunction with other factors in the admissions process.

Researchers have studied the extent to which standardized tests can predict grades, retention, and graduation for various groups of students (see Sidebar 2). The SAT and the ACT were designed to predict the academic achievement of students during the first year of college. If institutions are concerned solely with the first-year academic performance of most students, then they should continue to rely heavily on standardized test scores. If, however, the goal is to predict success beyond the first year of college for all students, and particularly for students of color, then other measures need to be weighted more heavily in admissions decisions. Standardized tests do not measure many important skills and abilities that can contribute to students' success in college.

Retention and graduation potential, in addition to first-year grades, should be important considerations in making admissions decisions. Relatively few studies on admission tests have used retention and graduation as criteria of success in college; some of those that do show little relationship between standardized test scores and those outcomes, particularly for students of color (Sedlacek, 1989, 1991, 1996b; Tracey and Sedlacek, 1987; Sternberg and Williams, 1997; Willingham, 1985). On the other hand, a recent analysis conducted

by the Educational Testing Service found a strong relationship between baccalaureate attainment and SAT scores (Educational Testing Service, 1998). However, this study did not separately analyze the relationship between SAT scores and baccalaureate attainment for each racial/ethnic group.

Long-term determination of academic success is particularly important for students of color, because it often takes these students longer to adjust to the college or university environment (Neville, Heppner, and Wang, 1997). Immediate academic success for these students can be hampered by hostile and racist environments, as well as by the varying quality of education they may have received at the elementary and secondary levels. Trippi and Cheatham (1989) argue that because of adjustments some students of color at predominantly white universities must make (particularly early in their first year), counseling and support programs often are needed to ease their transition.

Students of color also may experience greater test anxiety than other students (Sedlacek and Brooks, 1976). Steele's (1995) research shows that taking standardized tests in subject areas in which African Americans' and women's abilities are "negatively stereotyped" can create higher than normal anxiety within them that may dramatically depress their performance. If tests have been perceived historically by a group (e.g., African Americans) as limiting rather than providing opportunities for them, a residual anxiety may develop and be passed on to future generations (Westbrook and Sedlacek, 1991).

Sidebar 2
EXTENT TO WHICH STANDARDIZED ADMISSIONS TESTS PREDICT GRADES, RETENTION, AND GRADUATION (e.g., SAT, ACT)

- They predict first-year grades fairly well for traditional students (e.g., white middle- and upper-class males).
- They predict first-year grades less well for nontraditional students (e.g., cultural/racial/gender groups).
- They do not predict grades well beyond the first year for any students.
- They do not predict retention or graduation well for any students in any year.

More research is needed that pertains directly to the ability of standardized tests to predict academic success for members of different racial and cultural groups, as well as for students with disabilities. Current studies of standardized tests typically show *overprediction* of college grades for racial and cultural groups (Noble, Crouse, and Schulz, 1996; Sedlacek, 1996a) and for students with learning disabilities (Ziomek and Andrews, 1996). Sedlacek argues that this might be caused in part by sampling bias (Sedlacek, 1994, 1997).

It is worth noting that women's college grades are often *underpredicted* by standardized tests (Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Gamache and Novick, 1985; Johnson, 1993; Rosser, 1989). Potential causes for the overprediction and underprediction of standardized test scores for racial/cultural groups, women, and persons with disabilities are not entirely clear and therefore warrant further study.

Nevertheless, *overprediction* indicates a lack of validity of a measure as much as *underprediction*. If a group performs differently on a criterion measure (e.g., college grades) than they were expected to, it is evidence that the predictor is not measuring what it purports to measure. Either situation gives women and students of color confusing messages about their ability. These mixed messages "feed into" decisions that students, parents, and counselors make about what type of college or university the student should apply to based on the test scores and grades they believe are necessary to gain admission to, and to succeed at, a particular institution. This self-selection process shapes colleges' and universities' applicant pools.

High School GPA

Research on the use of high school GPA, class rank, and high school course-taking patterns to predict college success reveals both advantages and disadvantages. However, more research has been conducted on the value of using prior grades in admissions decisions than on the importance of high school course work or class rank.

High school grade point average has long been held to be a significant predictor of undergraduate persistence, particularly for students of color. A sizable body of research supports this view. For

example, Astin (1982) found that high school GPA and/or class rank proved the most significant predictor of undergraduate persistence for whites, Mexican Americans, American Indians, and African Americans. Astin also found that completing a college preparatory curriculum was an important contributor to college persistence for African-American and Mexican-American students.

Grades are used to predict postsecondary success because past performance is believed to indicate future performance. In fact, research demonstrates that the use of past grades in conjunction with test scores is a much better predictor of future performance than test scores or GPA alone. The correlation between a weighted combination of GPA and test scores and first-year college grades is fairly high (Carnevale, Haghighat, and Kimmel, 1998). However, Carnevale suggests that both high school and college freshman grades reflect variations in the rigor of the same course taken at different schools and the variability in grading practices of different instructors and institutions. For example, "students in a high-poverty high school (where more than 75 percent of students receive free or reduced-price lunch) who received mostly A's in English got about the same reading score on the SAT as did C and D students in the most affluent school" (p. 2).

"Grade inflation" is another factor that raises questions about the use of high school GPA in admissions decision-making processes. Data from The College Board show that during the last decade, the percentage of college-bound students who had an A average (A+, A, A-) has increased from 28 percent to 37 percent, with no corresponding increase in postsecondary achievement (see Sidebar 3). Ziomek and Svec (1995) also report that students (particularly those who are high academic achievers) often receive inflated grades in high school. Although some colleges take grade inflation into consideration in weighting high school GPAs, its prevalence in recent years may lessen the usefulness of prior grades as an indicator of success in college.

Sidebar 3
PERCENTAGE OF COLLEGE-BOUND STUDENTS REPORTING DIFFERENT GRADE POINT AVERAGES, 1987 AND 1997

High School GPA		1987	1997
A+	(97-100)	4	6
A	(93-96)	11	15
A-	(90-92)	13	16
B	(80-89)	57	49
C	(70-79)	19	14

Source: Rigol, G., and E. Kimmel. 1997. *A Picture of Admissions in the United States.* New York: College Entrance Examination Board. Unpublished paper.

Class Rank

The correlation between class rank and high school GPA is high, indicating that they measure virtually the same abilities (Astin, 1982). However, Carnevale, Haghighat, and Kimmel (1998) argue that using an applicant's rank in high school as a measure of potential college performance may be more problematic than using the GPA, because class rank is less comparable from one school to another than GPA, even in the same school district. The top students in an affluent school that offers a wide range of advanced and demanding courses will be much better prepared for college-level work than their counterparts at a high-poverty school that offers a less rigorous college preparatory curriculum. The likelihood that the latter students will need additional academic support is much greater than for their counterparts who attend affluent schools.

In addition, student interest in and competition for college admission varies from school to school. Consequently, being ranked in the top 10 or 15 percent of one's class may be a relatively easy achievement if the number of students with college aspirations in a given school is relatively low; the situation may be quite different at a school in which 85 percent of the students plan to attend a selective four-year college.

Finally, it is important to note that nearly 20 percent of all high schools no longer compute class rank, and 10 percent no longer calculate GPAs. Of those that do calculate GPAs, 57 percent include non-academic courses in the figure (The College Board, 1998).

Intensity and Quality of Curriculum

The importance of exposure to a rigorous college preparatory curriculum in predicting college persistence and degree completion may be

undervalued in college admissions decisions. As Table 25 shows, most institutions rate "high school course work" and "college-level work in high school" as less important than high school GPA/rank and test scores. This is particularly true of public colleges and universities. However, other studies underscore Astin's (1982) finding that a college preparatory curriculum is a positive contributor to college persistence for African-American and Chicano students. Astin found that among African Americans and Chicanos, those who had taken a number of science and foreign language courses in high school were more likely to earn bachelor's degrees than those who did not enroll in such classes. Similarly, in analyzing National Longitudinal Survey data, Hilton and Schrader (1987) found that being in a college preparatory curriculum increased the likelihood that African-American and Mexican-American students would complete college.

Findings from a recent study conducted by Adelman (1998b) on the importance of the academic intensity and quality of the high school experience as a predictor of college completion are even more compelling. He reports that exposure to an academically intense curriculum that includes trigonometry or higher-level math courses is a better predictor of college completion than GPA or scores on a general learned achievement test (such as the SAT or ACT).

Using an academic curriculum intensity measure instead of GPA or test scores also significantly reduces the college completion gap between

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African-American and white students (Adelman, 1998a). For example, of the African Americans who were ranked in the top 40 percent of an academic curriculum intensity scale and who took trigonometry or a higher math course, 72 percent completed college, compared with 84 percent of whites with the same qualifications. This difference was significantly less than the gap in college completion when GPA and test scores were used as predictors. Adelman's research points to the superiority of curriculum over GPA and test scores as a predictor of academic success and to the critical need to engage all college-bound students of color in academically challenging courses (particularly in math and science) (Adelman, 1997, 1998a).

NONCOGNITIVE VARIABLES AS SUPPLEMENTS TO COGNITIVE MEASURES OF STUDENT SUCCESS

Although the study of noncognitive personal and social characteristics in college admissions has a long history (e.g., Fredericksen, 1954; Wilson, 1955; Ward, 1955), only a few personal characteristics (such as leadership abilities) have been assessed through letters of recommendation and weighted in admissions decisions. As noted above, such variables have been given relatively little weight compared to grades and test scores. The area is revisited in this publication for several reasons. More students of color are applying to U.S. colleges and universities than ever before. Evidence suggests that noncognitive variables may serve as valid indicators of their performance in higher education (Sedlacek, 1996b). Earlier research on noncognitive variables generally did not examine race- and gender-related dimensions.

Research conducted by Sternberg (1985, 1986) offers compelling reasons for colleges and universities to look beyond cognitive predictors of academic performance when making admissions decisions. It indicates that people demonstrate intelligence in at least three ways. **Componential or analytical intelligence** is the ability to interpret information in a hierarchical and taxonomic fashion in a well-defined and unchanging context and is associated with traditional educational and social experiences. People who do well on standardized tests tend to have this type of intelligence. **Experiential intelligence** involves the ability to interpret information in changing contexts. **Contextual intelligence** involves the ability to adapt to a changing environment, i.e., the ability to handle one's environment and "negotiate the system." According to Sternberg's research, the latter two forms of intelligence are not measured by standardized tests.

Most college admissions procedures concentrate on componential intelligence. African Americans, Latinos, and American Indians tend to score below average on these tests. This may be because these examinations fail to measure achievement in areas that require other types of intelligence.

Intelligence may be thought of as a person's ability to learn in his or her particular circumstances. Noncognitive variable research suggests that African Americans tend to score higher on evaluations that assess experiential and contextual intelligence rather than componential intelligence (Sedlacek, 1996b). Hence, African Americans are just as "smart" as other racial groups, but may demonstrate their intelligence in a different manner. This difference is not the result of persons in this group choosing to channel their abilities away from componential intelligence; rather, environmental circumstances often make it necessary for African Americans to develop experiential and contextual intelligence in order to succeed. Individuals who experience discrimination often are forced to be "bicultural," to examine issues from various perspectives, and to negotiate a system that was not designed for their advancement. As a result, these persons may learn to rely more on experiential and contextual intelligence than on componential intelligence.

The Noncognitive Questionnaire (NCQ), developed by this author, appears to measure experiential and contextual intelligence (see page 67). Studies on the NCQ suggest that women and persons from various racial and cultural groups are more apt to demonstrate their abilities through this type of assessment than through standardized tests (Ancis and Sedlacek, 1997; Boyer and Sedlacek, 1988; Sedlacek, 1989, 1991, 1997; Sedlacek and Adams-Gaston, 1992; Tracey and Sedlacek, 1984, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1989; White and Sedlacek; 1986; Fuertes and Sedlacek, 1994; Fuertes, Sedlacek, and Liu, 1994). Similarly, portfolios and interviews have been used to include experiential and contextual intelligence in admissions decision making.

Studies on the NCQ should not be interpreted to mean that women and members of racial or cultural groups do not have componential intelligence. Rather, these studies suggest that experiential and contextual abilities are prerequisites for these individuals to express their componential abilities (Westbrook and Sedlacek, 1988).

The higher education community must begin to view intelligence more broadly and use various types of student assessment measures if it is to achieve more equitable admissions practices. Over-reliance on standardized test scores and GPAs reflects a persistent oxymoronic belief that diverse experiences can be measured using narrowly defined assessment tools.

Examples of Noncognitive Variables

Noncognitive variables refer to students' motivation, perceptions, and ability to adjust to circumstances and environments. These factors, unlike cognitive variables such as verbal and quantitative skills, are not measured by achievement tests. The use of noncognitive variables in admissions decisions could provide a more accurate assessment of the ability of students of color and women to succeed in postsecondary studies. These variables may be assessed through a variety of measures including those previously mentioned–interviews, portfolios, and an instrument such as the NCQ. Some of the variables that can be assessed include the following:

• **Positive Self-Concept (or self-esteem).** Successful students typically possess high levels of confidence and self-esteem as well as independence and determination. Students who feel confident that they can "make it" through college are more likely to persist in their postsecondary studies and to graduate. Although it is important for all students to possess strong self-esteem, it is even more critical for women and students of color because they must negotiate a system that was not designed for them. In addition to the usual pressures of college, these students often face racial, cultural, and gender biases and must learn to relate their past experiences to their present experiences within the prevailing collegiate culture. Those students who are most determined usually succeed in bridging the two cultures and in persisting to graduation. Studies show that students of color who have a positive perception of themselves and strongly believe they will complete college are more likely than those without these traits to adjust to college environments and to succeed in postsecondary studies (DiCesare, Sedlacek, and Brooks, 1972; Neville, Heppner, and Wang, 1997; Trippi and Cheatham, 1989).

Studies also have indicated that self-esteem relates to academic success in much different ways for students of color (particularly African Americans) from the way it does for white students. Pfeifer and Sedlacek (1974) report that African Americans who received high academic marks had personalities that were very different from and, to some extent, opposite to the personalities of academically successful white students. For example, African Americans who believed that factors beyond their control sometimes affected their lives tended to do better in college than those who did not, while white high achievers typically believed that outside factors did not greatly affect their lives.

Other studies confirm the value of positive self-concept as an indicator of potential academic success for other groups of students. Boyer and Sedlacek (1988) identify self-concept as predictive of grades and retention of international students, while Sedlacek and Adams-Gaston (1992) find positive self-concept to be related to the grades of student-athletes. Stericker and Johnson (1977), Betz and Fitzgerald (1987), and Ancis and Sedlacek (1997) conclude that women's positive self-concept is related to their academic success. White and Sedlacek (1986) report positive self-concept to be predictive of the success of students in special academic support programs. Overall, research on self-concept and academic success points to the importance of using self-concept as a noncognitive measure to evaluate students' abilities to succeed in college.

• **Realistic Self-Appraisal.** Realistic self-appraisal refers to a student's ability to accurately assess his or her strengths and weaknesses. DiCesare et al. (1972) found that African Americans who are better able to assess their strengths and weaknesses are more likely to remain in school than those who are less realistic. Other research indicates that realistic self-appraisal correlates with the grades, retention, and graduation of African-American students (Tracey and Sedlacek, 1984, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1989) and with college grades earned by African-American and female medical students (Webb, et al., 1997).

Several researchers have found that the attitudes and behavior of faculty members can have a significant influence (often negative) on a student's ability to make realistic self-appraisals (Allen, Bobo, and Fleuranges, 1984; Sedlacek and Brooks, 1976; Sedlacek, 1996b). Stereotypes of African Americans can result in some faculty grading these students more leniently than white students and consequently can lead African-American students to inaccurately appraise themselves and their abilities (Christensen and Sedlacek, 1974; Carter, 1996). Research also reveals that poor

Figure 29

Characteristics of High and Low Scores on Noncognitive Variables

Scale:	High Score:	Low Score:
Positive self-concept or confidence. Strong self-feeling, strength of character. Determination, independence.	Feels confident of graduating. Makes positive statements about him/herself. Expects to do well in academic and nonacademic areas. Assumes he/she can handle new situations or challenges.	Expresses reason(s) why he/she might have to leave school. Not sure he/she has ability to make it. Feels other students are better than he/she is. Expects to get marginal grades. Feels he/she will have trouble balancing personal and academic life. Avoids new challenges or situations.
Realistic self-appraisal, especially academic. Recognizes and accepts any deficiencies and works hard at self-development. Recognizes need to broaden his/her individuality.	Appreciates and accepts rewards as well as consequences of performance. Understands that reinforcement is imperfect and does not overreact to positive or negative feedback. Has developed a system of using feedback to alter behavior.	Not sure how evaluations are done in school. Overreacts to most recent reinforcement (positive or negative) rather than seeing it in context. Does not know how he/she is doing in class until grades are out. Does not have a good idea of how peers would rate his/her performance.
Understands and deals with racism. Realist based upon personal experience of racism. Is committed to fighting to improve existing system. Not submissive to existing wrongs, or hostile to society, or a "cop-out." Able to handle racist system. Asserts school or organization role to fight racism.	Understands the role of the "system" in life and how it treats nontraditional persons, often unintentionally. Has developed a method of assessing the cultural/racial demands of the system and responding accordingly (assertively) if the gain is small or the situation is ambiguous. Does not blame others for their problems or appear as a "Pollyanna" who does not see racism.	Not sure how the "system" works. Preoccupied with racism or does not believe racism exists. Blames others for problems. Reacts with same intensity to large and small issues concerned with race/culture. Does not have a method of handling racism so it does not interfere with personal and academic development.
Prefers long-range to short-term or immediate needs. Able to defer gratification.	Can set goals and proceed for some time without reinforcement. Shows patience. Can see partial fulfillment of a longer-term goal. Is future and past oriented and does not just see immediate issues or problems. Shows evidence of planning in academic and nonacademic areas.	Lack of evidence of setting and accomplishing goals. Likely to proceed without clear direction; relies on others to determine goals. Does not have a plan for approaching a course, school in general, an activity, etc. Goals that are stated are vague and unrealistic.
Availability of strong support person.	Has identified and received help, support, and encouragement from one or more specific individuals. Does not rely solely on his/her own resources to solve problems. Is not a "loner." Is willing to admit that he/she needs help when appropriate.	No evidence of turning to others for help. No single support person, mentor, or close advisor can be identified. Does not talk about his/her problems. Feels he/she can handle things on his/her own. Access to previous support person may be reduced or eliminated. Is not aware of the importance of a support person.
Successful leadership experience in any area pertinent to his/her background (gang, church, sports, noneducational groups, etc.).	Has shown evidence of influencing others in academic areas. Is comfortable providing advice and direction to others. Has served as mediator in disputes or disagreements among colleagues. Is comfortable taking action where called for.	No evidence that others turn to him/her for advice or direction. Is nonassertive. Does not take initiative. Is overly cautious. Avoids controversy. Is not well known by peers.
Demonstrated community service. Is involved in his/her cultural community.	Identifies with a group that is cultural, racial, and/or geographic. Has specific and long-term relationships in a community. Has been active in community activities over a period of time. Has accomplished specific goals in community setting.	No involvement in cultural, racial, or geographic group or community. Limited activities of any kind. Fringe member of group(s). Engages more in solitary than in group activities (academic or nonacademic).
Knowledge acquired in a field. Unusual and/or culturally related ways of obtaining information and demonstrating knowledge. (Field itself may be nontraditional.)	Knows about a field or area that he/she has not studied formally in school. Has a nontraditional, possibly culturally or racially based, view of a field. Has developed innovative ways to acquire information about a given subject or field.	Appears to know little about areas he/she has not studied in school. Shows no evidence of learning from community or nonacademic activities. Is traditional in approach to learning. Has not received/is not aware of credit-by-examination possibilities.

communication between faculty and African-American and Asian-American students can make it more difficult for such students to gain feedback that would allow them to realistically assess their abilities (Helm, Sedlacek, and Prieto, 1998).

Abundant evidence supports the fact that academic climates often make it difficult for women to conduct realistic appraisals of their academic abilities (Ancis and Phillips, 1996; Brush, 1991; Fitzgerald, et al., 1988; and Sandler, 1987). Studies also show that lack of support for female students results in a decrease in academic achievement and career aspirations for some college women (El-Khawas, 1980; Ossana, Helms, and Leonard, 1992).

How does realistic self-appraisal relate to the college admissions process? Research indicates that the ability to adequately assess one's own strengths and weaknesses can be effectively evaluated and that realistic self-assessment correlates with college grades and retention. Thus, accurate assessment of oneself may serve as a valuable noncognitive measure of potential academic success.

• **Understands and Deals with Racism.** For students of color, realistic self-appraisal includes a student's ability to recognize, understand, and deal with racism. Research has consistently shown that students of color who understand racism and are prepared to deal with it perform better academically and are more likely to adjust to predominantly white campuses than those who are not prepared to do so (Bandalos and Sedlacek, 1989; Barbarin, 1981; DiCesare, Sedlacek, and Brooks, 1972; Tracey and Sedlacek, 1984, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1989; White and Sedlacek, 1986). Tracey and Sedlacek (1987) point to the uniqueness of this variable for students of color and for African Americans in particular. This has also been reported in other studies (Deslonde, 1971; Garcia and Levenson, 1975; Webster, Sedlacek, and Miyares, 1979; Sedlacek, 1987; O'Callaghan and Bryant, 1990).

Other studies have shown that women, who often confront systemic obstacles such as discouraging comments, differential opportunities, and sexual harassment, are more successful in college if they learn how to work within the system (Ancis and Phillips, 1996; Brush, 1991; Fitzgerald, et al., 1988; and Sandler, 1987).

Learning to "work" the system is important for all students, but the overlay of racism and sexism upon that system makes it more difficult for students of color and women to understand and negotiate; hence, the ability to do so is critical to their success in college. Those students who have demonstrated their ability to use the system to their advantage prior to college have more success once they get there than those who have not shown that ability.

• **Long-Range Goals.** Having long-range goals contributes to students' success in college and can be used to help predict persistence. Students of color who have long-range goals are more likely to succeed in college than those who do not have such goals.

Astin (1975) found that African-American students with lower aspirations and vague goals were more likely than other African Americans to leave school. Tracey and Sedlacek (1984, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1989) found evidence that having long-term goals predicted college grades, retention, and graduation for African-American students. Boyer and Sedlacek (1988) found a significant relationship between setting long-range goals and grades and retention for international students. These studies point to the importance of long-range goals as a helpful indicator for determining which students are most likely to persist in college.

• **Availability of a Strong Support Person.** Studies have shown that students who have a mentor, role model, or other person who provides a strong positive influence in their lives are more likely to be successful in post-secondary studies (Blackwell, 1981). Unfortunately, students of color are less likely than some of their white counterparts to have access to those who can serve as mentors and provide support while they are in college (Allen, 1992).

Many students of color, particularly first-generation college students, lack immediate family members or friends who have attended college or who have attended the particular college in which they are enrolled; thus, they have no one to help them understand the nuances of the college or university system. In addition, it often is more difficult for students of color to develop close, supportive relationships with faculty and staff on campus. Many white faculty and staff do not have high expectations for students of color and therefore

do not encourage or support these students in their academic endeavors (Trippi and Cheatham, 1989).

A series of negative circumstances on campus or in the personal lives of students of color may cause them to fail a course or drop out of college and never return to continue their studies (Mallinckrodt, 1988). However, white students who drop out are more likely to have a supportive person (or persons) who encourages and/or pressures them to return to college and helps them succeed in school (Allen, 1992). The presence of a supportive person has been shown to correlate significantly with the grades, retention, and graduation of students of color and women (Tracey and Sedlacek, 1984, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1989; Ancis and Sedlacek, 1997; Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987; Tidball, 1986). Consequently, if students realize that they need the support of others and are willing to seek that support, they will be more likely to succeed in college than students who rely on their own resources to solve problems.

• **Successful Leadership Experiences.** Leadership ability also appears to be an important predictor of college success for all students. However, students of color may demonstrate their leadership in unique ways. Several studies have shown a correlation between leadership ability and the retention of Latino, American Indian, and African-American students, as well as females (Tracey and Sedlacek, 1984, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1989; White and Shelley, 1996; Webb, et al., 1997; Ancis and Sedlacek, 1997; Astin, 1977; Betz and Fitzgerald, 1987).

Although leadership ability among students of color and women has been directly related to the success of these students, most traditional means of gathering information on leadership activities fail to allow minority students to demonstrate this ability. Nontraditional means may be necessary to discover the leadership ability of students of color. Often, application forms and interviews are designed in such a way that they yield less useful information about the backgrounds of nontraditional students. Most white applicants are more familiar than minority applicants with the need to present themselves as well-rounded student leaders; in doing so, they list a variety of offices held in traditional school organizations. Many students of color will not have had the time, the inclination, or the opportunity for such activities (Allen, 1992).

Some of the most promising students of color may have demonstrated their leadership ability in less typical ways, such as working within their communities, churches, individual families, or even as street gang leaders in high school (Allen, 1992). It is important to pursue the culture-relevant activities of applicants, rather than assume that they all come from a homogeneous environment. If an applicant succeeded in his or her community, this should be taken as evidence that the student has the potential to succeed in higher education.

A key component in leadership as a predictor of success is assertiveness (Sedlacek, 1987, 1996a, 1996b). Students of color with a passive operational style often will miss opportunities for advancement and/or achievement in a system that is not optimally designed for them. For students of color, seeking out resources (human and environmental) correlates with academic success.

In summary, students of color and women who show evidence of leadership ability–often in race- or gender-related forms–prior to college matriculation are more likely to succeed in college than those who do not have leadership experiences.

• **Community.** The presence of a community with which students of color and women can identify and from which they can receive support has proven critical to the academic success of these students. Communities that offer the best benefits to students of color and female students often are formed around racial, cultural, and gender factors and/or concerns. Students who are involved in such groups often exhibit leadership abilities, develop positive self-concepts, and learn how to handle societal systems. Mallinckrodt and Sedlacek (1987) found that African-American students who used campus athletic facilities and certain student union programs were more likely to remain in college than those who did not. Thus, data indicate that developing communities on campuses helps students of color achieve academically.

Other studies have demonstrated that the presence of a community predicts academic success for African-American (Allen, 1992; Oberlin College, 1997; Tracey and

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Sedlacek, 1984, 1989; White and Shelley, 1996), Asian-American (Fuertes, Sedlacek, and Liu, 1994), international (Boyer and Sedlacek, 1988), and female students (Ancis and Sedlacek, 1997). The presence of a community also contributed to the retention of Latino and American Indian students (White and Shelley, 1996). These studies show the importance of supportive communities to the educational success of students of color and women.

• **Nontraditional Knowledge Acquired.** Persons of color and women are more apt than white males to learn by using methods that are less traditional and that are "outside" the education system. Learning through community projects or through family-based cultural activities are examples of how students acquire knowledge outside the traditional academic system.

Studies have revealed that African-American, Latino, international, and female students who have had nontraditional learning experiences prior to college are more likely to be successful in postsecondary studies than those who have not had such experiences. Studies conducted by Tracey and Sedlacek (1984, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1989) on African Americans; by Fuertes and Sedlacek (1994) on Latinos; by Boyer and Sedlacek (1988) on international students; by Ting (1997) on special program students; and by Ancis and Sedlacek (1997) on women all showed the predictive value of nontraditional learning to the academic success of those groups.

In summary, research indicates that students of color who show evidence of using nontraditional learning modes prior to college tend to be more successful in their academic endeavors than those who do not. Consequently, a student's ability to acquire knowledge through nontraditional and/or cultural learning modes could be factored into admissions decisions as a valid indicator of potential academic success.

Examples of Admissions Practices That Use Noncognitive Variables

A growing body of research supports the importance of noncognitive variables as factors that should be considered in gauging students' talents and potential to succeed in college. These measures could provide broader insight into an applicant's talent, motivation, coping skills, and other relevant factors that

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are not measured by such cognitive measures as GPA or test scores.

Some colleges and universities (private more so than public institutions) consider such factors as leadership, community and social orientation, creativity, and motivation in deciding whom to admit. Although a variety of approaches are being used, noncognitive skills can be assessed by three basic methods: interviews, portfolios, and questionnaires.

• **Interviews.** Noncognitive variables can be assessed through interviews. However, interviewers must be trained to identify students' performance in various areas.

In the late 1980s, the Louisiana State University (LSU) Medical School in New Orleans began using interviews in its admissions process. The number of students of color enrolled in the medical program has doubled, to 21 percent. These students have a retention rate of 87 percent.

Members of the LSU Medical School's admissions committee were trained to interview students and to assess their noncognitive skills. More than 80 percent of the committee believed that noncognitive variables were useful in the admissions process, and a significant majority believed that self-concept (97 percent), realistic self-appraisal (95 percent), leadership (84 percent), support persons (83 percent), and handling racism (81 percent) were useful indicators of the potential success of students of color. However, only 61 percent of committee members believed that GPAs were useful in evaluating students of color for admittance, and only 57 percent viewed Medical College Admission Test (MCAT) scores as helpful (Helm, Prieto, and Sedlacek, 1997).

• **Portfolios and Profiles.** Portfolios are yet another way to assess noncognitive variables (LaMahieu, Gitomer, and Eresch, 1995). Portfolios are commonly required for admission to art schools, and they have proven valuable in assessing students' talents and their ability to succeed in college.

The School of Design at North Carolina State University in Raleigh requires its applicants to submit portfolios of design-related materials they have produced. In an attempt to use the content of the portfolios to assess noncognitive variables, faculty evaluators were

trained to identify noncognitive variable skills. Training was necessary to avoid a common problem in portfolio assessment: slanting evaluations unfairly to middle-class students, who usually benefit the most from such assessments (Koretz, 1993). Institution officials were interested in capturing information on self-concept, long-term goals, and how prospective students overcame obstacles and challenges. They believed this type of information would be beneficial in assessing applicants–particularly those of color.

The University of California, Irvine (UCI), uses a Personal Achievement Profile in addition to test scores, grades, and high school course work in its admissions process (Wilbur and Bonous-Hammarth, 1998). Approximately 60 percent of the students admitted to the university are selected on the basis of their academic profile alone, while the remaining 40 percent are selected on the basis of their academic and personal profiles.

Each personal profile score reflects the following seven factors: leadership and initiative, honors and awards, personal challenges, geographic challenges (including the quality of the academic profile relative to available educational opportunities), self-awareness (evidence of active commitment based on self-identified values), civic and cultural awareness, and specialized knowledge (Wilbur and Bonous-Hammarth, 1998, p. 115). The personal profile was designed to include evidence of the applicant's curricular, co-curricular, and experiential skills, knowledge, and abilities that might contribute to success at UCI.

In fall 1997, the admissions applications of 7,500 freshman applicants who were not selected solely on the basis of their academic profiles were given at least two, and in some cases three, double-blind readings by a staff of 23 readers. All staff who participated in the personal profile review received training that included discussions about evaluating evidence in different parts of the application and personal statement, as well as practice in using multiple criteria to assign one personal profile score per applicant. Of the 7,500 applicants, some 4,100 were offered admission.

Race and ethnicity were not used as factors in the admissions formula at UCI because of the 1997 affirmative action ban approved by the University of California Board of Regents. Nonetheless, use of this expanded selection process resulted in the admission of a freshman class of approximately the same racial and ethnic composition as the year before, when race and ethnicity were part of the admissions formula. However, university officials cautioned that "no one model can predict selection outcomes from year to year because of changes in application numbers and enrollment needs, as well as in other factors" (Wilbur and Bonous-Hammarth, 1998).

• **Questionnaires.** An example of the questionnaire approach for broadening admissions processes is the Noncognitive Questionnaire (NCQ). The NCQ has been successful in assessing the eight noncognitive variables discussed earlier. Following are some examples of how the NCQ has been used at various institutions.

North Carolina State University in Raleigh (NCSU) uses the NCQ in its general undergraduate admissions process. All applicants to the university are required to complete the questionnaire, and the results, along with high school grades and test scores, are considered in the admissions decision-making process. The instrument is administered in paper and pencil format to all undergraduate applicants and is computer scored. The university sent out more than 70,000 questionnaires to prospective applicants for the fall 1998 entering class. Approximately 10 percent of the entering class are African American and 6 percent are "other minorities" (Asian American, Latino, American Indian, and other).

According to William Grant, associate provost and facilitator of African American Affairs at NCSU, the NCQ has been shown to have validity in predicting grades and retention for students of color at the university. Studies by Hill (1995) and Ting (1997) showed that the NCQ significantly increased the variance accounted for in the first-year spring grades of all NCSU students, regardless of racial group. Predictions were particularly good for students in the College of Humanities and Social Sciences, for whom the NCQ accounted for 19 percent of the variance in spring first-year grades; high school GPA accounted for only 8 percent of the variance.

Hoey (1997) also studied retention from the first to second year at NCSU using the NCQ. He found that for African-American students

a combination of first-year fall college GPA and the NCQ scale of long-range goals could correctly predict 92 percent of retention in the second year. For other students of color (Asian American, Latino, American Indian, and other), a combination of fall first-year credit hours enrolled and the NCQ could correctly predict 91.5 percent of retention from the first to the second year.

The NCQ has also been used in the general admissions process at St. John Fisher College, a liberal arts college in Rochester, New York. Over a three-year period, the college increased the number of students of color who were admitted by approximately 5 percent to 8 percent of the entering class each year. According to Larry Roper, vice president for student services and admissions, students of color who were admitted because of their high NCQ scores would not have been admitted under the cognitive measures of grades and test scores.

Along with prior grades, the Community College of Southern Nevada (CCSN) in Las Vegas uses the NCQ in its admissions process for its allied health program, which includes specialty areas such as physical therapy, medical technology, and medical information systems. Approximately 1,000 persons applied to the allied health program in 1997, and more than 90 percent of the applicants were white. Although the college has open enrollment, it has had to reject students in the past because of space limitations within the program. Many applicants have high high school GPAs, so GPAs had little predictive utility. The NCQ has aided the admissions process because it enables the school to assess applicants' noncognitive variables.

An internal study of the NCQ conducted by CCSN revealed that variables such as community, support person, and leadership correlated significantly with the grades of current students (Sedlacek, 1998b). The NCQ results also are used to provide academic advising to students who are admitted to the school and to provide additional feedback to students who are denied entry into the program.

Prairie View A&M University, a historically black institution in Texas, uses the NCQ in combination with telephone interviews and recommendation letters to identify and provide educational opportunities to students who are considered "at risk" of dropping out of college. The questionnaire is administered to about 75 students each year and is hand scored.

An institutional study at Prairie View showed that incoming high school seniors selected through use of the NCQ to participate in a summer program received higher grades and completed more credit hours during their first year of college than students who were selected without the NCQ. In addition, students selected through use of the NCQ had higher completion rates than other students. Overall, 90 percent of students selected with the NCQ completed their academic program at the university.

School officials minimized the use of standardized test scores and prior grades as admissions criteria, because they realized that such measures have limited value in predicting the future performance of the type of students Prairie View serves. Officials in the school's academic program believe the high retention rate was a direct result of using the NCQ in the admissions process.

CONCERNS ABOUT THE USE OF NONCOGNITIVE VARIABLES AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Given the topic of this paper–creating a more holistic college admissions process that provides a broader assessment of students' abilities and potential to succeed in college, particularly for students of color–two questions arise: (1) Will the use of noncognitive variables increase the number of students of color in higher education; and (2) How will the use of such factors affect minority admissions at highly selective institutions? As evidenced above, colleges and universities that have used noncognitive variables in tandem with cognitive measures have increased the number of students of color they enroll.

Theoretically, if an institution employs admissions measures that have been shown to have more validity for students of color, the likelihood is increased that those measures will reveal more attributes that are associated with students of color succeeding in college. As a consequence, more students of color who could succeed in college would be identified and admitted. Without this type of expanded admissions process, these students of color would more than likely be passed over. However, to definitively answer these questions, more institutions (particularly highly selective

institutions) need to test and systematically track the use and effect of these variables on minority enrollments.

Questions also may be raised about the reliability of these measures. For example, what evidence is there that each of these traits is stable within an individual (i.e., will a given student respond in the same way on different occasions)? Research has shown that noncognitive variables can be measured consistently within an individual and that they can be used to predict college success beyond the first year of college. The findings from Hoey's (1997) study at North Carolina State University showed that these variables can be used to predict retention from the first to the second year of college.

"Fakeability," or accurate assessment, may also be of concern with the use of noncognitive measures. How can these measures be collected in such a way that the responses truly and accurately reflect students' attitudes, self-perceptions, etc.? Will such personal and social indicators fail once the preferred responses become known? After all, students might fake the most desirable response, especially if they were properly coached. "Fakeability," or "learning how to answer" the test, is a thorny issue for any assessment measure, old or new. Cheating and coaching responses are issues to be addressed with any measurement.

This should not discourage the use of more innovative approaches to admissions. As more institutions try new admissions strategies, and as more researchers and testing companies develop such measures, the validity and reliability of these measures under potentially changing circumstances can be studied. Many concerns about the utility, validity, and reliability of noncognitive measures can be addressed through such processes. Until then, they should not be summarily dismissed as too "fuzzy" to be of use in assessing the abilities and potential of students to succeed in higher education.

TOWSON STATE UNIVERSITY

Further research in several areas could provide valuable information on potential alternative admissions tools that could better assess the abilities of students of color. Two of these areas–creativity and racial, cultural, and gender identity–are discussed below.

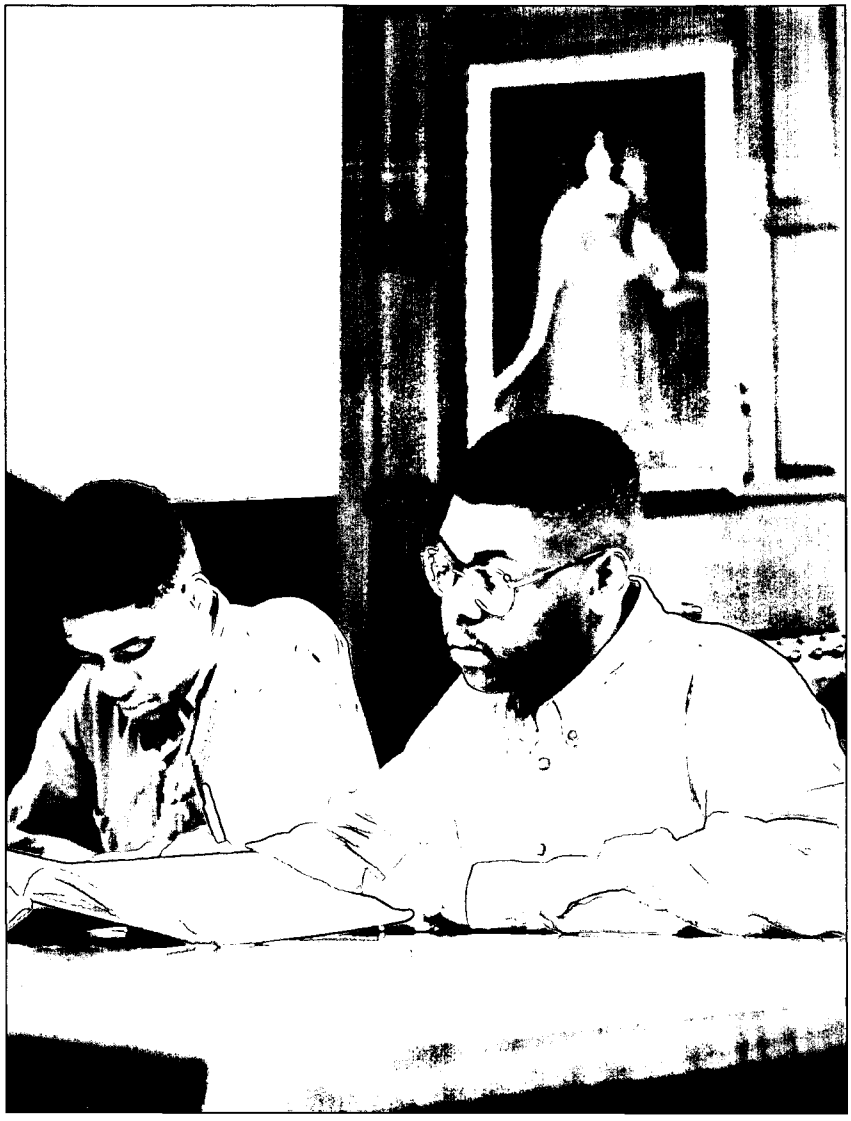
CREATIVITY

Sternberg (1985, 1986), in his triarchic theory of intelligence, identifies creativity as one of the key elements in experiential intelligence. Despite the potential importance of creativity in understanding how students with less traditional or culturally related experiences demonstrate their abilities, relatively little research has been done in this area.

Creativity often is viewed as "mystical" rather than measurable. We may marvel at the outstanding abilities of some students, but we often fail to take the next step: to attempt to understand those abilities. In addition, no instruments have been developed that adequately gauge creativity. Another reason for the dearth of research on creativity is that we tend to focus on pragmatic approaches to generating creative ideas without actually understanding how creativity works.

Sternberg and Lubart (1996) call for a multidisciplinary study of creativity within psychology. However, the concept of multidisciplinary research should be expanded to include researchers in many fields, including those concerned with higher education, and to specifically include racial, cultural, and gender-related variables.

Sternberg and Lubart also discuss the numerous problems related to measuring creativity. Confluence theory suggests that a combination of cognitive and personality elements must be present in order for an individual to demonstrate creativity. Some of these attributes include the ability to connect ideas and see similarities and differences, and the tendency to be flexible and unorthodox. Each of these attributes is relevant to one or more of the noncognitive variables discussed earlier, suggesting that creativity attributes could be measured and used as part of a more equitable admissions process.



COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY

RACIAL, CULTURAL, AND GENDER IDENTITY

Expanding and refining definitions and measurements that pertain to self-concept might yield useful information that could be used in admissions. Data show that self-concept is a predictor of the educational performance of students, particularly students of color and women. Self-concept, as measured by the NCQ, relates to the ability of students of color and women to view themselves as "different from" or "unlike" those for whom the academic system was designed. If we could better measure racial identity as a part of self-concept, we might better predict the academic success of students of color.

Researchers have created models of racial identity development

for whites and people of color. Helms's model (1992) identifies stages of racial identity for people of color. The first stage is "conformity" and refers to an individual who conforms with prevailing standards of merit and perspectives on social issues. The second stage is "dissonance" and refers to ambivalence and confusion within one's racial group. It includes "immersion/emersion," which refers to the idealization of one's socioracial group and a negative reaction to the majority or white culture. As one moves toward the third stage, the process of "internalization" occurs, which refers to commitment to one's socioracial group while recognizing both the positive and negative aspects of the dominant culture. The final stage, "integrative awareness," refers to the process of attempting to interact with people from other races in a positive manner while maintaining and valuing a commitment to one's own socioracial group. Miville, Molla, and Sedlacek (1992) have called this "universal orientation," a perspective in which diversity is truly valued and a positive climate for diversity exists.

By conducting more and better research on racial identity and "universal orientation," we might be able to identify subgroups of students of color and women at different identity development stages for whom certain noncognitive variables would better predict academic success. For example, self-concept may be a good predictor of academic success only for students of color in the early stages in Helms's model; the potential success of students who have "worked through" their racial identities might be better predicted by other measures.

CONCLUSION

Evidence suggests that there is a great need to develop and utilize broader means of assessing students' abilities to succeed in higher education and that these tools must be incorporated into college and university admissions processes. Using existing noncognitive assessment measures, while de-emphasizing cognitive measures, might result in a more equitable admissions process, a result of which might be an increase in the number of students of color being admitted to higher education institutions and an increase in the likelihood that these students would succeed. Following is a description of a holistic admissions process based on the factors discussed above.

Characteristics of a Holistic Admissions Policy

• **A broad range of attributes is assessed.** An equitable admissions process would assess a wide range of abilities, enhancing fairness to all prospective students. Such a process would take into account noncognitive variables as well as GPAs, standardized test scores, and high school curricula. The strengths and weaknesses of each measure considered also would be taken into consideration.

By assessing a wide range of achievements, institutions could expand their recruiting efforts to attract students with different types of backgrounds and experiences. Increasing the applicant pool in this way would decrease problems of sample bias in admissions research because a wider range of students would be studied; the likelihood of developing unfair prediction equations also would be minimized.

• **A variety of assessment methods are employed.** Because measuring tools assess different skills and abilities, many assessment methods should be used in the admissions process. For example, in addition to considering test scores, GPA, class rank, and high school curriculum, an admissions process also could involve interviews, questionnaires, and portfolios.

Different assessment methods might be used at different stages of the admissions process. For example, candidates could receive an initial screening in which cognitive measures were used; noncognitive measurements could be used in a second round. Alternatively, noncognitive measures could be used in the first round and cognitive measures in the second. In addition, because the goal is to gather information that will most accurately describe a student's ability, certain measuring tools might be weighted more heavily for some students than for others. For example, portfolios may be a useful means of assessing students applying to art school, but might not be as relevant for students seeking admittance to other programs.

• **Follow-up studies are conducted.** To assess the strengths and weaknesses of the admissions procedure, longitudinal studies

should be conducted both of students admitted and, if possible, of those not admitted. Particular attention should be given to how various factors predict the grades, retention, and graduation of students from various ethnic and gender groups.

• **The rationale for admissions decisions is clear.** The logic underlying admissions decisions and an explanation of assessment measurements should be made available to applicants, parents, students, faculty, staff, and other interested individuals.

• **A review of literature and the experiences of others are considered.** Admissions policies and procedures should be reviewed and altered in accordance with new research and/or the successes and failures of other higher education institutions.

• **Fairness to all applicants is determined.** There should be no systematic prediction bias (over- or underprediction of criteria) for any group. Predictors should relate to retention and graduation as well as grades. A policy that took into account applicants' high school curricula, standardized test scores, prior grades, and noncognitive variables would accomplish this.

We can do much more in admissions practice and research than has been done. Reginald Wilson (1997) aptly summarizes the need to look anew at our testing and admissions practices: "This history of aptitude testing arises out of the same background as that of intelligence testing. We believed we were branded with a scarlet number that we must wear forever. We have now come to believe (or at least some of us have) that not only is intelligence much more than what intelligence tests say, but that it is not fixed and immutable. Having freed ourselves from that concept, we will be able to look at all people in their complexity, with their strengths and weaknesses, and see them as whole human beings, rather than as numbers. We will be much better for it" (p. 13). □

THE NONCOGNITIVE QUESTIONNAIRE (NCQ)

(Name of institution) is trying to improve its admissions procedures by studying additional information about students. Results will be reported for groups only; no individuals will be identified. Please mark your responses on this sheet.

Please fill in the blank or circle the appropriate answer.

1. **Your social security number:** _____

2. **Your sex is:** 1. Male 2. Female

3. **Your age is:** _____ years.

4. **Your father's occupation:** _____

5. **Your mother's occupation:** _____

6. **Your race is:**
   1. Black (African American)
   2. White (not of Hispanic origin)
   3. Asian (Pacific Islander)
   4. Hispanic (Latino)
   5. American Indian (Alaska Native)
   6. Other

7. **How much education do you expect to get during your lifetime?**
   1. College, but less than a bachelor's degree
   2. Bachelor's or equivalent
   3. 1 or 2 years of graduate or professional study (master's degree)
   4. Doctoral degree such as M.D., Ph.D., etc.

8. **Please list three goals that you have for yourself right now:**
   1. _____
   2. _____
   3. _____

9. **About 50 percent of students in higher education typically leave before receiving a degree. If this should happen to you, what would be the most likely cause?**
   1. Absolutely certain that I will obtain a degree
   2. To accept a good job
   3. To enter military service
   4. It would cost more than my family could afford
   5. Marriage
   6. Disinterest in study
   7. Lack of academic ability
   8. Insufficient reading or study skills
   9. Other

10. Please list three things that you are proud of having done:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following items. Respond to the statements below with your feelings at present or with your expectations of how things will be. Write in your answer to the left of each item.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

_____ **11. The institution should use its influence to improve social conditions in the state.**

_____ **12. It should not be very hard to get a B (3.0) average at (name of institution).**

_____ **13. I get easily discouraged when I try to do something and it doesn't work.**

_____ **14. I am sometimes looked up to by others.**

_____ **15. If I run into problems concerning school, I have someone who would listen to me and help me.**

_____ **16. There is no use in doing things for people; you only find that you get it in the neck in the long run.**

_____ **17. In groups where I am comfortable, I am often looked to as leader.**

_____ **18. I expect to have a harder time than most students at (name of institution).**

_____ **19. Once I start something, I finish it.**

_____ **20. When I believe strongly in something, I act on it.**

_____ **21. I am as skilled academically as the average applicant to (name of institution).**

_____ **22. I expect I will encounter racism at (name of institution).**

_____ **23. People can pretty easily change me even though I thought my mind was already made up on the subject.**

_____ **24. My friends and relatives don't feel I should go to college.**

_____ **25. My family has always wanted me to go to college.**

_____ **26. If course tutoring is made available on campus at no cost, I would attend regularly.**

_____ **27. I want a chance to prove myself academically.**

_____ **28. My high school grades don't really reflect what I can do.**

_____ **29. Please list offices held and/or groups belonged to in high school or in your community.**

_____ _____

_____ _____

For more information and/or permission to use the NCQ, contact: William Sedlacek, Professor of Education and Assistant Director of the Counseling Center, University of Maryland at College Park, Shoemaker Hall, Room 1101B, College Park, MD 20742, or ws12@umail.UMD.edu.

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Table 1

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates, by Race/Ethnicity: 1976 to 1996

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds: All Persons (thousands)	18- to 24-Year-Olds: Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	18- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Number Completed (thousands)	18- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Completion Rate (percent)	18- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	18- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: High School Graduates: Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
ALL RACES							
1976	26,919	26.7	21,677	80.5	7,181	33.1	53.4
1977	27,331	26.1	22,008	80.5	7,142	32.5	52.0
1978	27,647	25.3	22,309	80.7	6,995	31.4	51.4
1979	27,974	25.0	22,421	80.1	6,991	31.2	51.6
1980	28,957	25.6	23,413	80.9	7,400	31.6	51.1
1981	28,965	26.2	23,343	80.6	7,575	32.5	51.7
1982	28,846	26.6	23,291	80.7	7,678	33.0	52.7
1983	28,580	26.2	22,988	80.4	7,477	32.5	52.8
1984	28,031	27.1	22,870	81.6	7,591	33.2	53.0
1985	27,122	27.8	22,349	82.4	7,537	33.7	54.3
1986	26,512	28.2	21,768	82.1	7,477	34.3	55.0
1987	25,950	29.6	21,118	81.4	7,693	36.4	56.5
1988	25,733	30.3	20,900	81.2	7,791	37.3	57.5
1989	25,261	30.9	20,461	81.0	7,804	38.1	57.9
1990	24,852	32.0	20,311	82.3	7,964	39.1	58.9
1991	24,572	33.3	19,883	80.9	8,172	41.1	60.7
1992	24,278	34.4	19,921	82.1	8,343	41.9	65.6
1993	25,522	33.8	20,844	81.7	8,630	41.4	65.3
1994	25,254	34.6	20,581	81.5	8,729	42.4	66.9
1995	24,900	34.3	20,125	80.8	8,539	42.4	67.1
1996	24,671	35.5	20,131	81.6	8,767	43.5	67.1
WHITE							
1976	23,119	27.1	19,045	82.4	6,276	33.0	53.5
1977	23,430	26.5	19,291	82.3	6,209	32.2	52.1
1978	23,650	25.7	19,526	82.6	6,077	31.1	51.3
1979	23,895	25.6	19,616	82.1	6,120	31.2	51.7
1980	24,482	26.2	20,214	82.6	6,423	31.8	51.4
1981	24,486	26.7	20,123	82.2	6,549	32.5	52.1
1982	24,206	27.2	19,944	82.4	6,694	33.1	53.1
1983	23,899	27.0	19,643	82.2	6,463	32.9	53.4
1984	23,347	28.0	19,373	83.0	6,256	33.7	53.8
1985	22,632	28.7	18,916	83.6	6,500	34.4	55.3
1986	22,020	28.6	18,291	83.1	6,307	34.5	55.5
1987	21,493	30.2	17,689	82.3	6,483	36.6	57.1
1988	21,261	31.3	17,491	82.3	6,659	38.1	58.6
1989	20,825	31.8	17,089	82.1	6,631	38.8	58.9
1990	20,393	32.5	16,823	82.5	6,635	39.4	60.1
1991	19,980	34.1	16,324	81.7	6,813	41.7	62.3
1992	19,671	35.2	16,379	83.3	6,916	42.2	67.0
1993	20,493	34.5	16,989	82.9	7,074	41.6	66.5
1994	20,171	35.3	16,670	82.6	7,118	42.7	67.6
1995	19,866	35.3	16,269	81.9	7,011	43.1	68.3
1996	19,676	36.2	16,199	82.3	7,123	44.0	68.4

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Note: College participation rates were calculated using the total population and high school graduates as the bases. The ever-enrolled-in-college participation rate includes 14- to 24-year-olds who either were enrolled in college or had completed one or more years of college. The change in the educational attainment question and the college completion categories from "four or more years of college" to "at least some college" in 1992 caused an increase of approximately 5 percentage points in the proportion of 14- to 24-year-old high school graduates who had enrolled in or who had completed one or more years of college. The high school completion rates were calculated using the total population as the base. High school graduates are persons who have completed four years of high school or more for 1976 to 1991. Beginning in 1992, they were persons whose highest degree was a high school diploma (including equivalency) or higher. Data for 1986 and later use a revised tabulation system. Improvements in edits and population estimation procedures caused slight changes in estimates for 1986. Data for 1980 through 1992 use 1980 Census-based estimates, and data for 1993 and later use 1990 Census-based estimates.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1996.* Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1997.

Table 1 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates, by Race/Ethnicity: 1976 to 1996

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
AFRICAN AMERICAN							
1976	3,315	22.6	2,239	67.5	749	33.5	50.4
1977	3,387	21.3	2,286	67.5	721	31.5	46.9
1978	3,452	20.1	2,340	67.8	694	29.7	47.8
1979	3,510	19.8	2,356	67.1	696	29.5	48.4
1980	3,721	19.2	2,592	69.7	715	27.6	45.9
1981	3,778	19.9	2,678	70.9	750	28.0	44.8
1982	3,872	19.8	2,744	70.9	767	28.0	45.5
1983	3,865	19.2	2,740	70.9	741	27.0	45.0
1984	3,862	20.4	2,885	74.7	786	27.2	45.2
1985	3,716	19.8	2,810	75.6	734	26.1	43.8
1986	3,653	22.2	2,795	76.5	812	29.1	47.8
1987	3,603	22.8	2,739	76.0	823	30.0	48.7
1988	3,568	21.1	2,680	75.1	752	28.1	46.6
1989	3,559	23.5	2,708	76.1	835	30.8	49.1
1990	3,520	25.4	2,710	77.0	894	33.0	48.0
1991	3,504	23.6	2,630	75.1	828	31.5	46.0
1992	3,521	25.3	2,625	74.6	886	33.8	53.3
1993	3,666	24.5	2,747	74.9	897	32.7	54.0
1994	3,661	27.3	2,818	77.0	1,001	35.5	59.2
1995	3,625	27.3	2,788	76.9	988	35.4	58.0
1996	3,637	27.0	2,738	75.3	983	35.9	54.6
HISPANIC [a]							
1976	1,551	19.9	862	55.6	309	35.8	48.9
1977	1,609	17.2	880	54.7	277	31.5	43.8
1978	1,672	15.2	935	55.9	254	27.2	43.2
1979	1,754	16.6	968	55.2	292	30.2	45.7
1980	2,033	16.1	1,099	54.1	327	29.8	47.3
1981	2,052	16.7	1,144	55.8	342	29.9	45.8
1982	2,001	16.8	1,153	57.6	337	29.2	47.3
1983	2,025	17.2	1,110	54.8	349	31.4	48.4
1984	2,018	17.9	1,212	60.1	362	29.9	46.0
1985	2,221	16.9	1,396	62.9	375	26.9	46.7
1986	2,514	18.2	1,507	59.9	458	30.4	45.6
1987	2,592	17.6	1,597	61.6	455	28.5	44.2
1988	2,642	17.0	1,458	55.2	450	30.9	47.1
1989	2,818	16.1	1,576	55.9	453	28.7	43.6
1990	2,749	15.8	1,498	54.5	435	29.0	44.7
1991	2,874	18.0	1,498	52.1	516	34.4	47.6
1992	2,754	21.3	1,578	57.3	586	37.1	55.0
1993	3,663	21.6	2,049	60.9	728	35.5	55.6
1994	3,523	18.8	1,995	56.6	662	33.2	54.3
1995	3,603	20.7	2,112	58.6	745	35.3	55.8
1996	3,510	20.1	2,019	57.5	706	35.0	52.5

[a] Hispanics may be of any race.

Table 2 000000 000082

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1976 to 1996

	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
Year	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
ALL RACES							
MEN							
1976	13,012	28.2	10,312	79.2	3,673	35.6	55.7
1977	13,218	28.1	10,440	79.0	3,712	35.6	54.2
1978	13,385	27.1	10,614	79.3	3,621	34.1	52.6
1979	13,571	25.8	10,657	78.5	3,508	32.9	52.4
1980	14,107	26.3	11,125	78.9	3,717	33.4	51.4
1981	14,127	27.1	11,052	78.2	3,833	34.7	52.1
1982	14,083	27.2	11,120	79.0	3,837	34.5	53.0
1983	14,003	27.3	10,906	77.9	3,820	35.0	52.7
1984	13,744	28.6	10,914	79.4	3,929	36.0	53.6
1985	13,199	28.4	10,614	80.4	3,749	35.3	54.6
1986	12,921	28.7	10,338	80.0	3,702	35.8	54.4
1987	12,626	30.6	10,030	79.4	3,867	38.6	56.3
1988	12,491	30.2	9,832	78.7	3,770	38.3	56.6
1989	12,325	30.2	9,700	78.7	3,717	38.3	57.2
1990	12,134	32.3	9,778	80.6	3,922	40.1	58.0
1991	12,036	32.9	9,493	78.9	3,954	41.7	59.2
1992	11,965	32.7	9,576	80.0	3,912	40.9	64.1
1993	12,712	33.3	10,142	79.8	4,237	41.8	63.9
1994	12,557	33.1	9,970	79.4	4,152	41.6	64.9
1995	12,351	33.1	9,789	79.3	4,089	41.8	64.2
1996	12,285	34.1	9,815	80.0	4,187	42.6	65.6
WOMEN							
1976	13,907	25.2	11,365	81.7	3,508	30.9	51.4
1977	14,113	24.3	11,569	82.0	3,431	29.7	50.0
1978	14,262	23.7	11,694	82.0	3,373	28.8	50.3
1979	14,403	24.2	11,763	81.7	3,482	29.6	50.8
1980	14,851	24.8	12,287	82.7	3,682	30.0	50.8
1981	14,838	25.2	12,290	82.8	3,741	30.4	51.3
1982	14,763	26.0	12,171	82.4	3,841	31.6	52.4
1983	14,577	25.1	12,082	82.9	3,657	30.3	52.8
1984	14,287	25.6	11,956	83.7	3,662	30.6	52.4
1985	13,923	27.2	11,736	84.3	3,788	32.3	54.0
1986	13,591	27.8	11,430	84.1	3,775	33.0	55.5
1987	13,324	28.7	11,086	83.2	3,826	34.5	56.7
1988	13,242	30.4	11,068	83.6	4,021	36.3	58.3
1989	12,936	31.6	10,758	83.2	4,085	38.0	58.6
1990	12,718	31.8	10,533	82.8	4,042	38.4	59.8
1991	12,536	33.6	10,391	82.9	4,218	41.0	62.1
1992	12,313	36.0	10,344	84.0	4,429	42.8	66.9
1993	12,810	34.3	10,702	83.5	4,393	41.0	66.6
1994	12,696	36.0	10,611	83.6	4,576	43.1	68.7
1995	12,548	35.5	10,338	82.4	4,452	43.1	69.8
1996	12,386	37.0	10,317	83.3	4,582	44.4	68.6

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Note: College participation rates were calculated using the total population and high school graduates as the bases. The ever-enrolled-in-college participation rate includes 14- to 24-year-olds who either were enrolled in college or had completed one or more years of college. The change in the educational attainment question and the college completion categories from "four or more years of college" to "at least some college" in 1992 caused an increase of approximately 5 percentage points in the proportion of 14- to 24-year-old high school graduates who had enrolled in or who had completed one or more years of college. The high school completion rates were calculated using the total population as the base. High school graduates are persons who have completed four years of high school or more for 1976 to 1991. Beginning in 1992, they were persons whose highest degree was a high school diploma (including equivalency) or higher. Data for 1986 and later use a revised tabulation system. Improvements in edits and population estimation procedures caused slight changes in estimates for 1986. Data for 1980 through 1992 use 1980 Census-based estimates, and data for 1993 and later use 1990 Census-based estimates.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *School Enrollment—Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1996.* Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1997.

Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1976 to 1996

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds: All Persons (thousands)	18- to 24-Year-Olds: Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	High School Graduates: Number Completed (thousands)	High School Graduates: Completion Rate (percent)	High School Graduates: Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	High School Graduates: Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	14- to 24-Year-Olds: Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
WHITE							
MEN							
1976	11,279	28.8	9,186	81.4	3,250	35.4	55.9
1977	11,445	28.7	9,263	80.9	3,286	35.5	54.5
1978	11,572	27.6	9,438	81.6	3,195	33.9	52.5
1979	11,721	26.5	9,457	80.7	3,104	32.8	52.7
1980	12,011	27.3	9,686	80.6	3,275	33.8	51.8
1981	12,040	27.7	9,619	79.9	3,340	34.7	52.8
1982	11,874	27.9	9,611	80.9	3,308	34.4	53.2
1983	11,787	28.3	9,411	79.8	3,335	35.4	53.5
1984	11,521	29.6	9,348	81.1	3,406	36.4	54.2
1985	11,108	29.3	9,077	81.7	3,254	35.8	55.5
1986	10,814	29.3	8,780	81.2	3,168	36.1	55.1
1987	10,549	31.2	8,498	80.6	3,289	38.7	56.7
1988	10,380	31.4	8,268	79.7	3,260	39.4	57.9
1989	10,240	31.5	8,177	79.9	3,223	39.4	58.5
1990	10,053	32.7	8,157	81.1	3,292	40.3	58.7
1991	9,896	33.0	7,843	79.3	3,270	41.9	59.9
1992	9,744	33.8	7,911	81.2	3,291	41.6	65.8
1993	10,294	34.0	8,338	81.0	3,498	42.0	65.1
1994	10,123	33.6	8,168	80.7	3,406	41.7	65.4
1995	9,980	34.0	8,001	80.2	3,398	42.5	65.3
1996	9,897	34.5	8,000	80.8	3,419	42.7	66.0
WOMEN							
1976	11,840	25.6	9,860	83.3	3,026	30.7	51.3
1977	11,985	24.4	10,029	83.7	2,923	29.1	50.0
1978	12,078	23.9	10,088	83.5	2,882	28.6	50.3
1979	12,174	24.8	10,157	83.4	3,015	29.7	50.8
1980	12,471	25.2	10,528	84.4	3,147	29.9	50.9
1981	12,446	25.8	10,504	84.4	3,208	30.5	51.6
1982	12,332	26.6	10,333	83.8	3,285	31.8	52.9
1983	12,112	25.8	10,233	84.5	3,129	30.6	53.4
1984	11,826	26.4	10,026	84.8	3,120	31.1	53.4
1985	11,524	28.2	9,840	85.4	3,247	33.0	55.2
1986	11,205	28.0	9,509	84.9	3,139	33.0	55.8
1987	10,944	29.2	9,189	84.0	3,192	34.7	57.5
1988	10,881	31.2	9,223	84.8	3,399	36.9	59.2
1989	10,586	32.2	8,913	84.2	3,409	38.2	59.2
1990	10,340	32.3	8,666	83.8	3,344	38.6	61.4
1991	10,119	35.0	8,481	83.8	3,544	42.1	64.5
1992	9,928	36.5	8,468	85.3	3,625	42.8	68.1
1993	10,199	35.1	8,651	84.8	3,576	41.3	67.9
1994	10,048	37.0	8,503	84.6	3,714	43.7	69.7
1995	9,886	36.6	8,271	83.7	3,615	43.7	71.3
1996	9,778	37.9	8,200	83.9	3,705	45.2	70.7

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Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1976 to 1996

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
AFRICAN AMERICAN							
MEN							
1976	1,503	22.0	936	62.3	331	35.4	50.3
1977	1,528	20.2	970	63.5	309	31.9	47.6
1978	1,554	19.6	956	61.5	305	31.9	49.3
1979	1,577	19.3	973	61.7	304	31.2	46.7
1980	1,690	17.3	1,115	66.0	293	26.3	44.1
1981	1,730	18.8	1,154	66.7	325	28.2	42.3
1982	1,786	18.5	1,171	65.6	331	28.3	44.5
1983	1,807	18.3	1,202	66.5	331	27.5	43.6
1984	1,811	20.3	1,272	70.2	367	28.9	45.2
1985	1,720	20.1	1,244	72.3	345	27.7	43.6
1986	1,687	20.7	1,220	72.3	349	28.6	44.4
1987	1,666	22.6	1,188	71.3	377	31.7	48.3
1988	1,653	18.0	1,189	71.9	297	25.0	42.8
1989	1,654	19.6	1,195	72.2	324	27.1	45.8
1990	1,634	26.1	1,240	75.9	426	34.4	48.9
1991	1,635	23.1	1,174	71.8	378	32.2	47.3
1992	1,676	21.2	1,211	72.3	356	29.7	49.4
1993	1,703	22.7	1,240	72.8	387	31.2	50.1
1994	1,733	25.4	1,277	73.7	440	34.5	57.9
1995	1,660	25.9	1,247	75.1	430	34.4	56.2
1996	1,682	25.1	1,199	71.3	422	35.2	53.7
WOMEN							
1976	1,813	23.0	1,302	71.8	417	32.0	50.3
1977	1,859	22.2	1,317	70.8	413	31.4	46.2
1978	1,897	20.6	1,384	73.0	390	28.2	46.7
1979	1,934	20.3	1,383	71.5	392	28.3	49.8
1980	2,031	20.8	1,475	72.6	422	28.6	47.4
1981	2,049	20.7	1,526	74.5	424	27.8	46.6
1982	2,086	20.9	1,572	75.4	436	27.7	46.3
1983	2,058	20.0	1,539	74.8	411	26.7	46.3
1984	2,052	20.4	1,613	78.6	419	26.0	45.1
1985	1,996	19.5	1,565	78.4	389	24.9	44.0
1986	1,966	23.5	1,576	80.1	462	29.4	50.4
1987	1,937	23.0	1,550	80.0	445	28.7	48.9
1988	1,915	23.8	1,492	77.9	455	30.5	49.6
1989	1,905	26.8	1,511	79.3	511	33.8	51.8
1990	1,886	24.8	1,468	77.8	467	31.8	47.3
1991	1,869	24.1	1,455	77.8	460	30.9	45.2
1992	1,845	28.8	1,417	76.8	531	37.5	56.6
1993	1,965	26.0	1,508	76.7	511	33.9	57.2
1994	1,928	29.1	1,542	80.0	561	36.4	60.3
1995	1,965	28.4	1,541	78.4	558	36.2	59.5
1996	1,956	28.7	1,539	78.7	561	36.4	55.3

Continued on next page

Table 2 - Continued

High School Completion Rates and College Participation Rates, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1976 to 1996

Year	18- to 24-Year-Olds						14- to 24-Year-Olds
			High School Graduates				
	All Persons (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Number Completed (thousands)	Completion Rate (percent)	Number Enrolled in College (thousands)	Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)	Ever-Enrolled-in-College Rate (percent)
HISPANIC[a]							
MEN							
1976	701	21.4	378	53.9	150	39.7	51.8
1977	754	18.4	396	52.5	139	35.1	46.5
1978	781	16.1	420	53.8	126	30.0	46.3
1979	837	18.3	454	54.2	153	33.7	49.5
1980	1,012	15.8	518	51.2	160	30.9	49.5
1981	988	16.6	498	50.4	164	32.9	48.6
1982	944	14.9	519	55.0	141	27.2	44.8
1983	968	15.7	476	49.2	152	31.9	47.4
1984	956	16.1	549	57.4	154	28.1	45.7
1985	1,132	14.8	659	58.2	168	25.5	44.9
1986	1,339	17.4	769	57.4	233	30.3	44.4
1987	1,337	18.5	795	59.5	247	31.1	45.1
1988	1,375	16.6	724	52.7	228	31.5	48.4
1989	1,439	14.7	756	52.5	211	27.9	42.7
1990	1,403	15.3	753	53.7	214	28.4	46.5
1991	1,503	14.0	719	47.8	211	29.3	42.2
1992	1,384	17.8	720	52.0	247	34.3	52.2
1993	1,710	19.8	1,005	58.8	338	33.6	51.2
1994	1,896	16.5	1,021	53.8	312	30.6	52.7
1995	1,907	18.7	1,106	58.0	356	32.2	52.3
1996	1,815	16.5	994	54.8	300	30.2	48.8
WOMEN							
1976	850	18.8	483	56.8	160	33.1	46.5
1977	855	16.3	483	56.5	139	28.8	41.6
1978	891	14.4	516	57.9	128	24.8	40.0
1979	917	15.3	516	56.3	140	27.1	42.3
1980	1,021	16.2	579	56.7	165	28.5	45.4
1981	1,064	16.7	646	60.7	178	27.6	43.4
1982	1,056	18.6	634	60.0	196	30.9	49.2
1983	1,057	18.7	634	60.0	198	31.2	49.7
1984	1,061	19.5	661	62.3	207	31.3	46.6
1985	1,091	18.8	734	67.3	205	27.9	48.0
1986	1,175	19.2	739	62.9	226	30.6	46.8
1987	1,256	16.6	801	63.8	208	26.0	43.2
1988	1,267	17.7	736	58.1	224	30.4	46.0
1989	1,377	17.7	823	59.8	244	29.6	44.5
1990	1,346	16.4	745	55.3	221	29.7	43.0
1991	1,372	22.2	780	56.9	305	39.1	52.4
1992	1,369	24.8	860	62.8	339	39.4	57.4
1993	1,652	23.6	1,045	63.3	390	37.3	60.1
1994	1,628	21.5	973	59.8	350	36.0	55.9
1995	1,696	22.9	1,011	59.6	389	38.4	59.6
1996	1,694	24.0	1,026	60.6	406	39.6	58.0

[a] Hispanics may be of any race.

Table 3

Educational Attainment Rates for Persons 25 to 29 Years Old and Persons 25 Years Old and Over, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1976 to 1996

(percent)

Year and Age	ALL RACES			WHITE			AFRICAN AMERICAN			HISPANIC [a]		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
25 TO 29 YEARS OLD – Completed Four or More Years of High School												
1976	84.7	86.0	83.5	85.9	87.3	84.6	73.8	72.5	74.9	58.1	57.6	58.4
1977	85.4	86.6	84.2	86.8	87.6	86.0	74.4	77.5	72.0	58.1	62.1	54.8
1978	85.3	86.0	84.6	86.3	86.8	85.8	77.3	78.5	76.3	56.6	58.5	54.7
1979	85.6	86.3	84.9	87.0	87.7	86.4	74.8	73.9	75.4	57.0	55.5	58.5
1980	85.4	85.4	85.5	86.9	86.8	87.0	76.6	74.8	78.1	58.6	58.3	58.8
1981	86.3	86.5	86.1	87.6	87.6	87.6	77.3	78.4	76.4	59.8	59.1	60.4
1982	86.2	86.3	86.1	86.9	87.0	86.8	80.9	80.5	81.3	60.9	60.7	61.2
1983	86.0	86.0	86.0	86.9	86.9	86.9	79.4	78.9	79.8	58.3	57.8	58.9
1984	85.9	85.6	86.3	86.9	86.8	87.0	78.9	75.9	81.5	58.6	56.8	60.2
1985	86.1	85.9	86.4	86.8	86.4	87.3	80.6	80.8	80.4	60.9	58.6	63.1
1986	86.1	85.9	86.4	86.5	85.6	87.4	83.4	86.5	80.6	59.1	58.2	60.0
1987	86.0	85.5	86.4	86.3	85.6	87.0	83.3	84.8	82.1	59.8	58.6	61.0
1988	85.7	84.4	87.0	86.5	84.8	88.2	80.7	80.6	80.7	62.0	59.4	65.0
1989	85.5	84.4	86.5	86.0	84.8	87.1	82.2	80.6	83.6	61.0	61.0	61.0
1990	85.7	84.4	87.0	86.3	84.6	88.1	81.7	81.5	81.8	58.2	56.6	59.9
1991	85.4	84.9	85.8	85.8	85.1	86.6	81.7	83.5	80.1	56.7	56.4	57.1
1992	86.3	86.1	86.5	87.0	86.5	87.6	80.9	82.5	79.5	60.9	61.1	60.6
1993	86.7	86.0	87.4	87.3	86.1	88.5	82.8	85.0	80.9	60.9	58.3	64.0
1994	86.1	84.5	87.6	86.5	84.7	88.3	84.1	82.9	85.0	60.3	58.0	63.0
1995	86.8	86.3	87.4	87.4	86.6	88.2	86.5	88.1	85.1	57.1	55.7	58.7
1996	87.3	86.5	88.1	87.5	86.3	88.8	85.6	87.2	84.2	61.1	59.7	62.9
25 TO 29 YEARS OLD – Completed Four or More Years of College												
1976	23.7	27.5	20.1	24.6	28.7	20.6	13.0	12.0	13.6	7.4	10.3	4.8
1977	24.0	27.0	21.1	25.3	28.5	22.1	12.6	12.8	12.4	6.7	7.2	6.4
1978	23.3	26.0	20.6	24.5	27.6	21.4	11.8	10.7	12.6	9.6	9.6	9.7
1979	23.1	25.6	20.5	24.3	27.1	21.5	12.4	13.3	11.7	7.3	7.9	6.8
1980	22.5	24.0	21.0	23.7	25.5	22.0	11.6	10.5	12.5	7.7	8.4	6.9
1981	21.3	23.1	19.6	22.4	24.3	20.5	11.6	12.1	11.1	7.5	8.6	6.5
1982	21.7	23.3	20.2	22.7	24.5	20.9	12.6	11.8	13.2	9.7	10.7	8.7
1983	22.5	23.9	21.1	23.4	25.0	21.8	12.9	13.1	12.8	10.4	9.6	11.1
1984	21.9	23.2	20.7	23.1	24.3	21.9	11.6	12.9	10.5	10.6	9.6	11.6
1985	22.2	23.1	21.3	23.2	24.2	22.2	11.5	10.3	12.6	11.1	10.9	11.2
1986	22.4	22.9	21.9	23.5	24.1	22.9	11.8	10.1	13.3	9.0	8.9	9.1
1987	22.0	22.3	21.7	23.0	23.3	22.8	11.4	11.6	11.1	8.7	9.2	8.2
1988	22.5	23.2	21.9	23.5	24.0	22.9	12.2	12.6	11.9	11.4	12.1	10.6
1989	23.4	23.9	22.9	24.4	24.8	24.0	12.7	12.0	13.3	10.1	9.6	10.6
1990	23.2	23.7	22.8	24.2	24.2	24.3	13.4	15.1	11.9	8.1	7.3	9.1
1991	23.2	23.0	23.4	24.6	24.1	25.0	11.0	11.5	10.6	9.2	8.1	10.4
1992	23.6	23.2	24.0	25.0	24.2	25.7	11.3	12.0	10.6	9.5	8.8	10.3
1993	23.7	23.4	23.9	24.7	24.4	25.1	13.2	12.6	13.8	8.3	7.1	9.8
1994	23.3	22.5	24.0	24.2	23.6	24.8	13.7	11.7	15.4	8.0	6.6	9.8
1995	24.7	24.5	24.9	26.0	25.4	26.6	15.3	17.2	13.6	8.9	7.8	10.1
1996	27.1	26.1	28.2	28.1	27.2	29.1	14.6	12.4	16.4	10.0	10.2	9.8

Continued on next page

[a] Hispanics may be of any race.

Note: High school completion rates were calculated using the total population as the base. High school graduates are persons who have completed four years of high school or more for 1975 to 1991. Beginning in 1992, "persons with four or more years of college" was changed to "persons with a bachelor's degree or higher." Data for 1986 and later use a revised tabulation system. Improvements in edits and population estimation procedures caused slight changes in estimates for 1986. Data for 1980 through 1992 use 1980 Census-based estimates, and data for 1993 and later use 1990 Census-based estimates.

Source: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Educational Attainment in the United States.* Current Population Reports, P-20 Series, 1997.

Educational Attainment Rates for Persons 25 to 29 Years Old and Persons 25 Years Old and Over, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1976 to 1996 (percent)

Year and Age	ALL RACES			WHITE			AFRICAN AMERICAN			HISPANIC[a]		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
25 YEARS OLD AND OVER – Completed Four or More Years of High School												
1976	64.1	64.7	63.5	66.1	66.7	65.5	43.8	42.3	45.0	39.3	41.4	37.3
1977	64.9	65.6	64.4	67.0	67.5	66.5	45.5	45.6	45.4	39.6	42.3	37.2
1978	65.9	66.8	65.2	67.9	68.6	67.2	47.6	47.9	47.3	40.8	42.2	39.6
1979	67.7	68.4	67.1	69.7	70.3	69.2	49.4	49.2	49.5	42.0	42.3	41.7
1980	85.4	85.4	85.5	86.9	86.8	87.0	76.6	74.8	78.1	58.6	58.3	58.8
1981	69.7	70.3	69.1	71.6	72.1	71.2	52.9	53.2	52.6	44.5	45.5	43.6
1982	71.0	71.7	70.3	72.8	73.4	72.3	54.9	55.7	54.3	45.9	48.1	44.1
1983	72.1	72.7	71.5	73.8	74.4	73.3	56.8	56.5	57.1	46.2	48.6	44.2
1984	73.3	73.7	73.0	75.0	75.4	74.6	58.5	57.1	59.7	47.1	48.6	45.7
1985	73.9	74.4	73.5	75.5	76.0	75.1	59.8	58.4	60.8	47.9	48.5	47.4
1986	74.7	75.1	74.4	76.2	76.5	75.9	62.3	61.5	63.0	48.5	49.2	47.8
1987	75.6	76.0	75.3	77.0	77.3	76.7	63.4	63.0	63.7	50.9	51.8	50.0
1988	76.2	76.4	76.0	77.7	77.7	77.6	63.5	63.7	63.4	51.0	52.0	50.0
1989	76.9	77.2	76.6	78.4	78.6	78.2	64.6	64.2	65.0	50.9	51.0	50.7
1990	77.6	77.7	77.5	79.1	79.1	79.0	66.2	65.8	66.5	50.8	50.3	51.3
1991	78.4	78.5	78.3	79.9	79.8	79.9	66.7	66.7	66.7	51.3	51.4	51.2
1992	79.4	79.7	79.2	80.9	81.1	80.7	67.7	67.0	68.2	52.6	53.7	51.5
1993	80.2	80.5	80.0	81.5	81.8	81.3	70.4	69.6	71.1	53.1	52.9	53.2
1994	80.9	81.0	80.7	82.0	82.1	81.9	72.9	71.7	73.8	53.3	53.4	53.2
1995	81.7	81.7	81.6	83.0	83.0	83.0	73.8	73.4	74.1	53.4	52.9	53.8
1996	81.7	81.9	81.6	82.8	82.7	82.8	74.3	74.3	74.2	53.1	53.0	53.3
25 YEARS OLD AND OVER – Completed Four or More Years of College												
1976	14.7	18.6	11.3	15.4	19.6	11.6	6.6	6.3	6.8	6.1	8.6	4.0
1977	15.4	19.2	12.0	16.1	20.2	12.4	7.2	7.0	7.4	6.2	8.1	4.4
1978	15.7	19.7	12.2	16.4	20.7	12.6	7.2	7.3	7.1	7.0	8.6	5.7
1979	16.4	20.4	12.9	17.2	21.4	13.3	7.9	8.3	7.5	6.7	8.2	5.3
1980	17.0	20.9	13.6	17.8	22.1	14.0	7.9	7.7	8.1	7.9	9.7	6.2
1981	17.1	21.1	13.4	17.8	22.2	13.8	8.2	8.2	8.2	7.7	9.7	5.9
1982	17.7	21.9	14.0	18.5	23.0	14.4	8.8	9.1	8.5	7.8	9.6	6.2
1983	18.8	23.0	15.1	19.5	24.0	15.4	9.5	10.0	9.2	7.9	9.2	6.8
1984	19.1	22.9	15.7	19.8	23.9	16.0	10.4	10.4	10.4	8.2	9.5	7.0
1985	19.4	23.1	16.0	20.0	24.0	16.3	11.1	11.2	11.0	8.5	9.7	7.3
1986	19.4	23.2	16.1	20.1	24.1	16.4	10.9	11.2	10.7	8.4	9.5	7.4
1987	19.9	23.6	16.5	20.5	24.5	16.9	10.7	11.0	10.4	8.6	9.7	7.5
1988	20.3	24.0	17.0	20.9	25.0	17.3	11.2	11.1	11.4	10.1	12.3	8.1
1989	21.1	24.5	18.1	21.8	25.4	18.5	11.8	11.7	11.9	9.9	11.0	8.8
1990	21.3	24.4	18.4	22.0	25.3	19.0	11.3	11.9	10.8	9.2	9.8	8.7
1991	21.4	24.3	18.8	22.2	25.4	19.3	11.5	11.4	11.6	9.7	10.0	9.4
1992	21.4	24.3	18.6	22.1	25.2	19.1	11.9	11.9	12.0	9.3	10.2	8.5
1993	21.9	24.8	19.2	22.6	25.7	19.7	12.2	11.9	12.4	9.0	9.5	8.5
1994	22.2	25.1	19.6	22.9	26.1	20.0	12.9	12.8	13.0	9.1	9.6	8.6
1995	23.0	26.0	20.2	24.0	27.2	21.0	13.2	13.6	12.9	9.3	10.1	8.4
1996	23.6	26.0	21.4	24.3	26.9	21.8	13.6	12.4	14.6	9.3	10.3	8.3

[a] Hispanics may be of any race.

Table 4

Total Enrollment in Higher Education, by Type of Institution and Race/Ethnicity: Selected Years, Fall 1986 to Fall 1996

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1986	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1986–96	Percent Change 1991–96	Percent Change 1995–96
ALL INSTITUTIONS	12,504	13,820	14,359	14,486	14,305	14,279	14,262	14,300	14.4	-0.4	0.3
White (non-Hispanic)	9,921	10,723	10,990	10,875	10,600	10,427	10,311	10,226	3.1	-6.9	-0.8
Total Minority	2,238	2,706	2,953	3,164	3,248	3,396	3,496	3,609	61.3	22.2	3.2
African American (non-Hispanic)	1,082	1,247	1,335	1,393	1,413	1,449	1,474	1,499	38.6	12.3	1.7
Hispanic	618	783	867	955	989	1,046	1,093	1,152	86.4	33.0	5.3
Asian American[a]	448	573	637	697	724	774	797	824	83.8	29.3	3.4
American Indian[b]	90	103	114	119	122	127	131	134	48.9	17.8	2.0
Nonresident Alien	345	391	416	448	457	457	454	465	34.8	11.7	2.3
FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	7,824	8,579	8,707	8,764	8,739	8,749	8,769	8,803	12.5	1.1	0.4
White (non-Hispanic)	6,337	6,769	6,791	6,744	6,639	6,565	6,517	6,483	2.3	-4.5	-0.5
Total Minority	1,195	1,486	1,573	1,663	1,734	1,819	1,886	1,946	62.9	23.7	3.2
African American (non-Hispanic)	615	723	758	791	814	834	852	870	41.5	14.8	2.1
Hispanic	278	358	383	410	432	463	485	508	82.8	32.7	4.7
Asian American[a]	262	357	381	407	429	462	482	501	91.1	31.2	3.8
American Indian[b]	40	48	51	55	59	61	66	67	68.1	31.6	2.3
Nonresident Alien	292	324	343	357	366	365	366	373	27.9	8.9	2.0
TWO-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	4,681	5,240	5,652	5,722	5,566	5,530	5,493	5,497	17.4	-2.7	0.1
White (non-Hispanic)	3,584	3,954	4,199	4,131	3,961	3,862	3,794	3,743	4.4	-10.9	-1.3
Total Minority	1,044	1,218	1,381	1,500	1,514	1,577	1,610	1,663	59.3	20.6	3.3
African American (non-Hispanic)	467	524	578	602	599	615	621	629	34.7	8.9	1.3
Hispanic	340	424	484	545	557	583	608	644	89.5	33.2	5.9
Asian American[a]	186	215	256	289	295	313	315	323	73.6	26.3	2.5
American Indian[b]	51	55	63	64	63	66	66	67	30.9	6.6	1.7
Nonresident Alien	53	67	74	91	91	91	88	91	72.6	24.5	3.8

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: Due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1995 to 1996 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1995 have been revised from previously published figures.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992.* Washington, DC: January 1994.
U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

Table 5

Total Enrollment in Higher Education, by Gender, Race/Ethnicity, and Control of Institution: Selected Years, Fall 1986 to Fall 1996

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1986	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1986–96	Percent Change 1991–96	Percent Change 1995–96
MEN	5,885	6,284	6,502	6,524	6,428	6,372	6,343	6,344	7.8	-2.4	0.02
White (non-Hispanic)	4,647	4,861	4,962	4,884	4,757	4,651	4,594	4,553	-2.0	-8.2	-0.9
Total Minority	1,004	1,177	1,281	1,366	1,395	1,452	1,484	1,524	51.8	19.1	2.7
African American (non-Hispanic)	436	485	517	537	540	550	556	564	29.3	9.0	1.4
Hispanic	290	354	391	428	441	464	480	501	72.9	28.4	4.4
Asian American[a]	239	295	325	351	363	385	393	404	68.9	24.1	2.6
American Indian[b]	39	43	48	50	51	53	55	56	42.9	17.1	1.6
Nonresident Alien	233	246	259	273	276	270	264	267	14.5	2.8	0.9
WOMEN	6,619	7,535	7,857	7,963	7,878	7,907	7,919	7,956	20.2	1.3	0.5
White (non-Hispanic)	5,273	5,862	6,028	5,991	5,849	5,776	5,717	5,673	7.6	-5.9	-0.8
Total Minority	1,234	1,529	1,672	1,797	1,846	1,944	2,012	2,085	69.0	24.7	3.6
African American (non-Hispanic)	646	762	818	856	866	899	918	936	44.9	14.3	2.0
Hispanic	328	429	476	527	548	582	614	651	98.4	36.7	6.1
Asian American[a]	209	278	312	345	361	389	404	420	101.0	34.6	3.9
American Indian[b]	51	60	66	69	71	74	76	78	53.4	18.4	2.3
Nonresident Alien	112	145	157	175	184	186	190	198	77.0	26.3	4.3
PUBLIC	9,714	10,845	11,310	11,385	11,189	11,134	11,092	11,090	14.2	-1.9	-0.02
White (non-Hispanic)	7,654	8,385	8,622	8,493	8,227	8,056	7,945	7,848	2.5	-9.0	-1.2
Total Minority	1,836	2,198	2,411	2,591	2,657	2,776	2,850	2,938	60.0	21.8	3.1
African American (non-Hispanic)	854	976	1,053	1,100	1,114	1,145	1,161	1,177	37.9	11.8	1.4
Hispanic	532	671	742	822	851	899	937	988	85.6	33.1	5.4
Asian American[a]	371	461	516	566	586	622	638	657	77.1	27.3	3.0
American Indian[b]	79	90	100	103	106	111	114	116	47.2	16.0	2.1
Nonresident Alien	224	260	275	300	304	301	297	304	35.6	10.3	2.1
INDEPENDENT	2,790	2,975	3,049	3,102	3,116	3,145	3,169	3,210	15.1	5.3	1.3
White (non-Hispanic)	2,267	2,338	2,368	2,382	2,373	2,371	2,366	2,378	4.9	0.4	0.5
Total Minority	402	506	542	572	589	620	647	671	66.9	24.1	3.8
African American (non-Hispanic)	228	271	282	292	298	304	313	322	41.3	14.3	2.9
Hispanic	86	111	125	133	138	147	157	165	91.5	32.3	5.0
Asian American[a]	77	112	121	131	138	152	159	167	116.3	37.7	4.5
American Indian[b]	11	12	14	16	15	17	17	18	60.9	30.1	1.4
Nonresident Alien	120	131	141	148	153	155	157	161	34.4	14.4	2.8

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: Due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1995 to 1996 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1995 have been revised from previously published figures.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992.* Washington, DC: January 1994. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

Table 6

Undergraduate, Graduate, and Professional School Enrollment in Higher Education, by Race/Ethnicity: Selected Years, Fall 1986 to Fall 1996

(Numbers in Thousands)

	1986	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1986–96	Percent Change 1991–96	Percent Change 1995–96
UNDERGRADUATE TOTAL	10,798	11,959	12,439	12,537	12,323	12,263	12,232	12,259	13.5	-1.4	0.2
White (non-Hispanic)	8,558	9,273	9,508	9,387	9,100	8,916	8,806	8,731	2.0	-8.2	-0.8
Total Minority	2,036	2,468	2,698	2,892	2,955	3,077	3,159	3,254	59.8	20.6	3.0
African American (non-Hispanic)	996	1,147	1,229	1,280	1,290	1,317	1,334	1,353	35.8	10.0	1.4
Hispanic	563	725	804	888	918	968	1,012	1,066	89.3	32.5	5.3
Asian American[a]	393	501	559	613	634	674	692	713	81.5	27.7	3.0
American Indian[b]	83	95	106	111	113	117	121	123	48.1	16.2	1.8
Nonresident Alien	205	219	234	258	268	269	268	274	33.7	17.4	2.4
GRADUATE TOTAL	1,435	1,586	1,639	1,669	1,688	1,721	1,732	1,743	21.5	6.3	0.6
White (non-Hispanic)	1,133	1,228	1,258	1,267	1,274	1,287	1,282	1,274	12.4	1.3	-0.7
Total Minority	167	190	205	218	232	255	271	286	71.3	40.1	5.7
African American (non-Hispanic)	72	84	89	94	102	111	119	125	74.3	41.1	5.8
Hispanic	46	47	51	55	58	64	68	73	57.9	42.7	6.8
Asian American[a]	43	53	58	62	65	73	76	79	83.7	37.2	4.5
American Indian[b]	5	6	7	7	7	8	8	9	77.6	34.5	5.1
Nonresident Alien	136	167	177	184	182	180	180	183	34.7	3.5	2.1
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL TOTAL	270	281	281	281	292	295	298	298	10.3	6.1	0.5
White (non-Hispanic)	231	222	224	221	226	224	223	221	-4.3	-1.3	-1.0
Total Minority	36	47	50	54	60	64	67	69	91.4	35.7	2.9
African American (non-Hispanic)	14	16	17	18	20	21	21	21	52.8	24.4	-0.2
Hispanic	9	11	11	12	13	13	14	14	55.2	22.5	0.9
Asian American[a]	11	19	21	23	25	28	30	31	185.4	51.0	6.2
American Indian[b]	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	115.6	65.8	0.8
Nonresident Alien	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	8	91.6	32.1	5.0

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: Due to rounding, details may not add to totals. Percent changes for 1995 to 1996 were calculated prior to rounding. Data for fall 1995 have been revised from previously published figures.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Trends in Enrollment in Higher Education by Racial/Ethnic Category: Fall 1982 through Fall 1992.* Washington, DC: January 1994.
U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Enrollment in Higher Education.* Washington, DC: 1998.

Table 7

Enrollment at Historically Black Colleges and Universities, by Race/Ethnicity: Fall 1986 to Fall 1996

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1986–96	Percent Change 1995–96
Number of HBCUs[a]	104	104	106	104	104	102	107	107	107	107	106		
Total Enrollment	213,114	217,670	230,758	238,946	248,697	258,509	277,261	284,247	280,915	284,951	277,974	30.4	-2.4
African American[b]	176,610	182,020	192,848	199,974	207,547	213,904	224,946	230,078	229,046	230,279	225,886	27.9	-1.9
White[c]	22,784	23,227	25,767	26,962	29,601	31,085	36,203	37,375	36,045	38,936	37,013	62.5	-4.9
Hispanic	1,486	1,590	1,746	1,859	1,797	2,131	4,755	5,021	5,186	5,105	5,593	276.4	9.6
Asian American[d]	1,207	1,187	1,473	1,568	1,724	2,009	2,151	2,357	2,374	2,251	2,520	108.8	12.0
American Indian[e]	482	449	254	307	338	388	447	518	586	598	622	29.0	4.0
Nonresident Alien	10,545	8,897	8,671	8,273	7,690	7,489	7,360	6,757	6,262	5,985	6,340	-39.9	5.9

[a] These figures represent the number of institutions reporting their enrollments each year.

[b] African American (non-Hispanic).

[c] White (non-Hispanic).

[d] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[e] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: Detail does not add to total because the race/ethnicity unknown data are included in the total. The total number of HBCUs in 1996 was 106, of which 102 are members of the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO).

Source: National Association for Equal Opportunity Research Institute. Annual Fall Enrollment Surveys, 1986–1996.

Table 8

African-American Enrollment at Historically Black Colleges and Universities, by Control of Institution and Gender: Fall 1986 to Fall 1996

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1986–96	Percent Change 1995–96
NUMBER OF HBCUs	104	104	106	104	104	102	107	107	107	107	106		
ALL HBCUs	176,610	182,020	192,848	199,974	207,547	213,904	224,946	230,078	229,046	230,279	225,886	27.9	-1.9
Men	73,495	74,447	77,741	79,462	82,587	85,713	90,831	92,397	91,667	91,546	88,896	21.0	-2.9
Women	103,115	107,573	115,107	120,512	124,960	128,191	134,115	137,681	137,379	138,733	136,990	32.9	-1.3
PUBLIC HBCUs	120,930	124,749	132,067	137,190	143,763	150,707	156,623	159,581	158,888	159,492	156,111	29.1	-2.1
Men	50,592	51,177	53,206	54,400	57,070	60,147	63,389	63,890	63,702	63,607	61,484	21.5	-3.3
Women	70,338	73,572	78,861	82,790	86,693	90,560	93,234	95,691	95,186	95,885	94,627	34.5	-1.3
INDEPENDENT HBCUs	55,680	57,271	60,781	62,784	63,784	63,197	68,323	70,497	70,158	70,787	69,775	25.3	-1.4
Men	22,903	23,270	24,535	25,062	25,517	25,566	27,442	28,507	27,965	27,939	27,412	19.7	-1.9
Women	32,777	34,001	36,246	37,722	38,267	37,631	40,881	41,990	42,193	42,848	42,363	29.2	-1.1

Note: The total number of HBCUs in 1996 was 106, of which 102 are members of the National Association for Equal Opportunity in Higher Education (NAFEO).

Source: National Association for Equal Opportunity Research Institute. Annual Fall Enrollment Surveys, 1986–1996.

Table 9

NCAA Division I Graduation Rates, by Type of Institution, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender: 1991 to 1996

	1991[a] (percent)	1992[b] (percent)	1993[c] (percent)	1994[d] (percent)	1995[e] (percent)	1996[f] (percent)	Percentage Change 1991–96	Percentage Change 1995–96
ALL INSTITUTIONS								
Total	54	55	56	57	57	56	2	-1
White	56	58	59	59	59	59	3	0
African American	33	34	37	38	40	38	5	-2
Hispanic	41	44	45	45	46	45	4	-1
Asian American[g]	61	65	66	65	65	64	3	-1
American Indian[h]	31	32	36	37	37	37	6	0
WOMEN								
Total	55	57	58	58	59	58	3	-1
White	58	60	61	61	61	61	3	0
African American	36	36	41	41	43	42	6	-1
Hispanic	44	46	48	48	49	48	4	-1
Asian American[g]	64	67	70	67	69	66	2	-3
American Indian[h]	33	32	38	40	38	37	4	-1
MEN								
Total	52	54	54	55	55	54	2	-1
White	55	56	57	57	57	57	2	0
African American	30	30	33	34	35	33	3	-2
Hispanic	39	41	42	42	43	42	3	-1
Asian American[g]	58	63	63	62	62	61	3	-1
American Indian[h]	28	32	33	34	37	35	7	-2
PUBLIC								
Total	50	52	53	53	53	53	3	0
White	53	54	55	56	56	55	2	-1
African American	30	31	34	36	37	35	5	-2
Hispanic	36	39	41	41	42	40	4	-2
Asian American[g]	57	62	63	60	61	60	3	-1
American Indian[h]	28	30	33	34	35	33	5	-2
INDEPENDENT								
Total	69	70	71	70	69	70	1	1
White	71	72	73	72	71	72	1	1
African American	51	52	56	51	49	51	0	2
Hispanic	65	64	66	66	65	64	-1	-1
Asian American[g]	77	77	80	78	77	77	0	0
American Indian[h]	52	45	57	58	56	54	2	-2

[a] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 298 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1985–86 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1991.

[b] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 298 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1986–87 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1992.

[c] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 301 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1987–88 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1993.

[d] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 302 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1988–89 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1994.

[e] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 305 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1989–90 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1995.

[f] Graduation rates are based on full-time degree-seeking students at 306 NCAA Division I institutions. This six-year completion rate is based on the 1990–91 freshman cohort and includes all students who graduated by August 1996.

[g] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[h] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association, Division I Graduation Rates Report, 1991–92, 1992–93, and 1993 through 1996.

Table 10

Associate Degrees, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: Selected Years, 1985 to 1995

	1985		1990		1993		1994		1995		Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1990–95	Percent Change 1994–95
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent			
Total	429,815	100.0	450,263	100.0	508,154	100.0	529,106	100.0	538,545	100.0	25.3	19.6	1.8
Men[a]	190,409	44.3	188,602	41.9	209,051	41.1	214,462	40.5	217,730	40.4	14.3	15.4	1.5
Women[b]	239,406	55.7	261,632	58.1	299,103	58.9	314,644	59.5	320,815	59.6	34.0	22.6	2.0
White[c]	355,343	82.7	369,580	82.1	405,883	79.9	418,301	79.1	419,323	77.9	18.0	13.5	0.2
Men[d]	157,278	82.6	154,719	82.0	167,312	80.0	170,137	79.3	169,475	77.8	7.8	9.5	-0.4
Women[e]	198,065	82.7	214,832	82.1	238,571	79.8	248,164	78.9	249,848	77.9	26.1	16.3	0.7
Minority	68,065	15.8	74,534	16.6	93,342	18.4	100,839	19.1	109,364	20.3	60.7	46.7	8.5
Men	29,443	15.5	30,916	16.4	37,961	18.2	40,245	18.8	43,892	20.2	49.1	42.0	9.1
Women	38,630	16.1	43,618	16.7	55,381	18.5	60,594	19.3	65,472	20.4	69.5	50.1	8.1
African American	35,799	8.3	35,327	7.8	42,340	8.3	45,461	8.6	47,142	8.8	31.7	33.4	3.7
Men	14,192	7.5	13,147	7.0	15,497	7.4	16,917	7.9	16,786	7.7	18.3	27.7	-0.8
Women	21,607	9.0	22,180	8.5	26,843	9.0	28,544	9.1	30,356	9.5	40.5	36.9	6.3
Hispanic	19,407	4.5	22,195	4.9	29,991	5.9	32,074	6.1	36,013	6.7	85.6	62.3	12.3
Men	8,561	4.5	9,859	5.2	12,924	6.2	13,204	6.2	15,717	7.2	83.6	59.4	19.0
Women	10,846	4.5	12,336	4.7	17,067	5.7	18,870	6.0	20,296	6.3	87.1	64.5	7.6
Asian American[f]	9,914	2.3	13,482	3.0	16,632	3.3	18,433	3.5	20,717	3.8	109.0	53.7	12.4
Men	5,492	2.9	6,477	3.4	7,877	3.8	8,288	3.9	9,283	4.3	69.0	43.3	12.0
Women	4,422	1.8	7,005	2.7	8,755	2.9	10,145	3.2	11,434	3.6	158.6	63.2	12.7
American Indian[g]	2,953	0.7	3,530	0.8	4,379	0.9	4,871	0.9	5,492	1.0	86.0	55.6	12.7
Men	1,198	0.6	1,433	0.8	1,663	0.8	1,836	0.9	2,106	1.0	75.8	47.0	14.7
Women	1,755	0.7	2,097	0.8	2,716	0.9	3,035	1.0	3,386	1.1	92.9	61.5	11.6
Nonresident Alien	6,407	1.5	6,149	1.4	8,929	1.8	9,966	1.9	9,858	1.8	53.9	60.3	-1.1
Men	3,696	1.9	2,967	1.6	3,778	1.8	4,080	1.9	4,363	2.0	18.0	47.1	6.9
Women	2,711	1.1	3,182	1.2	5,151	1.7	5,886	1.9	5,495	1.7	102.7	72.7	-6.6

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all associate degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group and field of study were not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: 1997.

Table 11

Bachelor's Degrees, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: Selected Years, 1985 to 1995

	1985		1990		1993		1994		1995		Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1990–95	Percent Change 1994–95
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent			
Total	968,311	100.0	1,048,631	100.0	1,159,931	100.0	1,165,973	100.0	1,158,788	100.0	19.7	10.5	-0.6
Men[a]	476,148	49.2	490,317	46.8	530,541	45.7	530,804	45.5	525,174	45.3	10.3	7.1	-1.1
Women[b]	492,163	50.8	558,314	53.2	629,390	54.3	635,169	54.5	633,614	54.7	28.7	13.5	-0.2
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	826,106	85.3	884,376	84.3	947,309	81.7	936,227	80.3	913,377	78.8	10.6	3.3	-2.4
Men[d]	405,085	85.1	413,573	84.3	435,084	82.0	429,121	80.8	417,006	79.4	2.9	0.8	-2.8
Women[e]	421,021	85.5	470,803	84.3	512,225	81.4	507,106	79.8	496,371	78.3	17.9	5.4	-2.1
Minority	112,988	11.7	137,547	13.1	180,382	15.6	195,666	16.8	208,488	18.0	84.5	51.6	6.6
Men	50,972	10.7	59,783	12.2	76,490	14.4	82,009	15.4	87,084	16.6	70.8	45.7	6.2
Women	62,106	12.6	77,764	13.9	103,892	16.5	113,657	17.9	121,404	19.2	95.5	56.1	6.8
African American (non-Hispanic)	57,473	5.9	61,063	5.8	77,872	6.7	83,576	7.2	87,203	7.5	51.7	42.8	4.3
Men	23,018	4.8	23,262	4.7	28,883	5.4	30,648	5.8	31,775	6.1	38.0	36.6	3.7
Women	34,455	7.0	37,801	6.8	48,989	7.8	52,928	8.3	55,428	8.7	60.9	46.6	4.7
Hispanic	25,874	2.7	32,844	3.1	45,376	3.9	50,241	4.3	54,201	4.7	109.5	65.0	7.9
Men	12,402	2.6	14,941	3.0	19,865	3.7	21,807	4.1	23,600	4.5	90.3	58.0	8.2
Women	13,472	2.7	17,903	3.2	25,511	4.1	28,434	4.5	30,601	4.8	127.1	70.9	7.6
Asian American[f]	25,395	2.6	39,248	3.7	51,463	4.4	55,660	4.8	60,478	5.2	138.1	54.1	8.7
Men	13,554	2.8	19,721	4.0	25,293	4.8	26,938	5.1	28,973	5.5	113.8	46.9	7.6
Women	11,841	2.4	19,527	3.5	26,170	4.2	28,722	4.5	31,505	5.0	166.1	61.3	9.7
American Indian[g]	4,246	0.4	4,392	0.4	5,671	0.5	6,189	0.5	6,606	0.6	55.6	50.4	6.7
Men	1,998	0.4	1,859	0.4	2,449	0.5	2,616	0.5	2,736	0.5	36.9	47.2	4.6
Women	2,248	0.5	2,533	0.5	3,222	0.5	3,573	0.6	3,870	0.6	72.2	52.8	8.3
Nonresident Alien	29,217	3.0	26,708	2.5	32,240	2.8	34,080	2.9	36,923	3.2	26.4	38.2	8.3
Men	20,091	4.2	16,961	3.5	18,967	3.6	19,674	3.7	21,084	4.0	4.9	24.3	7.2
Women	9,126	1.9	9,747	1.7	13,273	2.1	14,406	2.3	15,839	2.5	73.6	62.5	9.9

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all bachelor's degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group and field of study were not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997.

Table 12

Master's Degrees, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: Selected Years, 1985 to 1995

	1985		1990		1993		1994		1995		Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1990–95	Percent Change 1994–95
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent			
Total	280,421	100.0	322,465	100.0	368,701	100.0	385,419	100.0	397,052	100.0	41.6	23.1	3.0
Men[a]	139,417	49.7	152,926	47.4	168,754	45.8	175,355	45.5	178,123	44.9	27.8	16.5	1.6
Women[b]	141,004	50.3	169,539	52.6	199,947	54.2	210,064	54.5	218,929	55.1	55.3	29.1	4.2
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	223,628	79.7	251,690	78.1	278,829	75.6	288,288	74.8	292,784	73.7	30.9	16.3	1.6
Men[d]	106,059	76.1	112,877	73.8	120,225	71.2	123,854	70.6	123,809	69.5	16.7	9.7	-0.04
Women[e]	117,569	83.4	138,813	81.9	158,604	79.3	164,434	78.3	168,975	77.2	43.7	21.7	2.8
Minority	29,841	10.6	35,074	10.9	45,718	12.4	50,814	13.2	55,541	14.0	86.1	58.4	9.3
Men	13,684	9.8	15,590	10.2	19,686	11.7	21,442	12.2	23,172	13.0	69.3	48.6	8.1
Women	16,157	11.5	19,484	11.5	26,032	13.0	29,372	14.0	32,369	14.8	100.3	66.1	10.2
African American (non-Hispanic)	13,939	5.0	15,446	4.8	19,780	5.4	21,937	5.7	24,171	6.1	73.4	56.5	10.2
Men	5,200	3.7	5,539	3.6	6,821	4.0	7,413	4.2	8,103	4.5	55.8	46.3	9.3
Women	8,739	6.2	9,907	5.8	12,959	6.5	14,524	6.9	16,068	7.3	83.9	62.2	10.6
Hispanic	6,864	2.4	7,950	2.5	10,665	2.9	11,913	3.1	12,907	3.3	88.0	62.4	8.3
Men	3,059	2.2	3,586	2.3	4,735	2.8	5,113	2.9	5,490	3.1	79.5	53.1	7.4
Women	3,805	2.7	4,364	2.6	5,930	3.0	6,800	3.2	7,417	3.4	94.9	70.0	9.1
Asian American[f]	7,782	2.8	10,577	3.3	13,866	3.8	15,267	4.0	16,842	4.2	116.4	59.2	10.3
Men	4,842	3.5	6,002	3.9	7,544	4.5	8,225	4.7	8,920	5.0	84.2	48.6	8.4
Women	2,940	2.1	4,575	2.7	6,322	3.2	7,042	3.4	7,922	3.6	169.5	73.2	12.5
American Indian[g]	1,256	0.4	1,101	0.3	1,407	0.4	1,697	0.4	1,621	0.4	29.1	47.2	-4.5
Men	583	0.4	463	0.3	586	0.3	691	0.4	659	0.4	13.0	42.3	-4.6
Women	673	0.5	638	0.4	821	0.4	1,006	0.5	962	0.4	42.9	50.8	-4.4
Nonresident Alien	26,952	9.6	35,701	11.1	44,154	12.0	46,317	12.0	48,727	12.3	80.8	36.5	5.2
Men	19,674	14.1	24,459	16.0	28,843	17.1	30,059	17.1	31,142	17.5	58.3	27.3	3.6
Women	7,278	5.2	11,242	6.6	15,311	7.7	16,258	7.7	17,585	8.0	141.6	56.4	8.2

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all master's degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group and field of study were not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997.

Table 13

First-Professional Degrees, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: Selected Years, 1985 to 1995

	1985		1990		1993		1994		1995		Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1990–95	Percent Change 1994–95
	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent	Total	Percent			
Total	71,057	100.0	70,744	100.0	74,960	100.0	75,418	100.0	75,800	100.0	6.7	7.1	0.5
Men[a]	47,501	66.8	43,778	61.9	44,821	59.8	44,707	59.3	44,853	59.2	-5.6	2.5	0.3
Women[b]	23,556	33.2	26,966	38.1	30,139	40.2	30,711	40.7	30,947	40.8	31.4	14.8	0.8
White (non-Hispanic)[c]	63,219	89.0	60,240	85.2	60,830	81.1	60,140	79.7	59,402	78.4	-6.0	-1.4	-1.2
Men[d]	42,630	89.7	37,850	86.5	37,157	82.9	36,573	81.8	36,146	80.6	-15.2	-4.5	-1.2
Women[e]	20,589	87.4	22,390	83.0	23,673	78.5	23,567	76.7	23,256	75.1	13.0	3.9	-1.3
Minority	6,977	9.8	9,456	13.4	12,612	16.8	13,841	18.4	14,787	19.5	111.9	56.4	6.8
Men	4,190	8.8	5,220	11.9	6,587	14.7	7,119	15.9	7,626	17.0	82.0	46.1	7.1
Women	2,787	11.8	4,236	15.7	6,025	20.0	6,722	21.9	7,161	23.1	156.9	69.1	6.5
African American (non-Hispanic)	3,029	4.3	3,410	4.8	4,100	5.5	4,444	5.9	4,747	6.3	56.7	39.2	6.8
Men	1,623	3.4	1,672	3.6	1,777	4.0	1,902	4.3	2,077	4.6	28.0	24.2	9.2
Women	1,406	6.0	1,738	6.4	2,323	7.7	2,542	8.3	2,670	8.6	89.9	53.6	5.0
Hispanic	1,884	2.7	2,427	3.4	2,984	4.0	3,134	4.2	3,231	4.3	71.5	33.1	3.1
Men	1,239	2.6	1,450	3.3	1,762	3.9	1,781	4.0	1,836	4.1	48.2	26.6	3.1
Women	645	2.7	977	3.6	1,222	4.1	1,353	4.4	1,395	4.5	116.3	42.8	3.1
Asian American[f]	1,816	2.6	3,362	4.8	5,160	6.9	5,892	7.8	6,397	8.4	252.3	90.3	8.6
Men	1,152	2.4	1,963	4.5	2,858	6.4	3,214	7.2	3,491	7.8	203.0	77.8	8.6
Women	664	2.8	1,399	5.2	2,302	7.6	2,678	8.7	2,906	9.4	337.7	107.7	8.5
American Indian[g]	248	0.3	257	0.4	368	0.5	371	0.5	412	0.5	66.1	60.3	11.1
Men	176	0.4	135	0.3	190	0.4	222	0.5	222	0.5	26.1	64.4	0.0
Women	72	0.3	122	0.5	178	0.6	149	0.5	190	0.6	163.9	55.7	27.5
Nonresident Alien	861	1.2	1,048	1.5	1,518	2.0	1,437	1.9	1,611	2.1	87.1	53.7	12.1
Men	681	1.4	708	1.6	1,077	2.4	1,015	2.3	1,081	2.4	58.7	52.7	6.5
Women	180	0.8	340	1.3	441	1.5	422	1.4	530	1.7	194.4	55.9	25.6

[a] Degrees awarded to men as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[b] Degrees awarded to women as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[c] Degrees awarded to this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded that year.

[d] Degrees awarded to men in this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded to men that year.

[e] Degrees awarded to women in this group as a percentage of all first-professional degrees awarded to women that year.

[f] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[g] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: As of academic year 1989, data on degrees conferred by race/ethnicity were released annually instead of biannually. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group and field of study were not available.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics.* Washington, DC: 1997.

Table 14

Degrees Conferred by Historically Black Colleges and Universities, by Race/Ethnicity and Level: Selected Years, 1986–87 to 1994–95

ASSOCIATE DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Associate Degrees						
Year	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien	Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien
1986–87	2,612	796	1,571	174	26	9	36	0.6	0.2	4.4	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.8
1988–89	2,526	825	1,487	134	17	3	60	0.6	0.2	4.3	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.9
1989–90	2,489	793	1,477	153	11	13	42	0.6	0.2	4.2	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.7
1990–91	2,613	847	1,498	133	23	1	111	0.6	0.2	4.0	0.5	0.2	0.0	1.7
1991–92	2,489	838	1,465	111	25	3	47	0.5	0.2	3.7	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.6
1992–93	2,771	1,083	1,456	173	21	4	34	0.5	0.3	3.4	0.6	0.1	0.1	0.4
1993–94	2,820	1,147	1,466	148	22	6	31	0.5	0.3	3.2	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.3
1994–95	2,805	1,186	1,319	202	17	10	50	0.5	0.3	2.9	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.5

BACHELOR'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Bachelor's Degrees						
1986–87	20,270	1,819	16,589	121	135	54	1,552	2.0	0.2	29.3	0.4	0.4	1.4	5.3
1988–89	19,518	2,016	16,162	92	113	33	1,102	1.9	0.2	27.8	0.3	0.3	0.8	4.1
1989–90	19,734	2,212	16,325	111	176	19	891	1.9	0.3	26.7	0.3	04	0.4	3.3
1990–91	21,439	2,282	17,930	130	175	37	885	2.0	0.3	27.4	0.4	0.4	0.8	3.0
1991–92	23,425	2,576	19,693	150	185	35	786	2.1	0.3	27.2	0.4	0.4	0.7	2.8
1992–93	26,003	2,880	22,020	142	219	48	724	2.2	0.3	28.3	0.3	0.4	0.8	2.2
1993–94	27,391	2,955	23,434	154	197	44	607	2.3	0.3	28.0	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.8
1994–95	28,327	3,060	23,953	231	184	51	767	2.4	0.3	28.1	0.3	0.3	0.8	2.1

MASTER'S DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Master's Degrees						
1986–87	4,012	844	2,443	25	155	10	535	1.4	0.4	17.6	0.4	1.8	0.9	1.8
1988–89	3,904	885	2,388	37	119	8	467	1.3	0.4	16.9	0.5	1.2	0.7	1.4
1989–90	4,036	1,103	2,352	34	117	13	417	1.3	0.4	15.2	0.4	1.1	1.2	1.2
1990–91	4,139	1,087	2,505	41	132	5	369	1.3	0.4	15.5	0.5	1.2	0.4	1.0
1991–92	4,202	1,053	2,619	43	104	8	375	1.2	0.4	14.5	0.5	0.8	0.6	1.0
1992–93	4,600	1,167	2,766	39	158	7	463	1.2	0.4	14.0	0.4	1.1	0.5	1.0
1993–94	4,950	1,140	3,187	33	186	9	395	1.3	0.4	14.5	0.3	1.2	0.5	0.9
1994–95	5,560	1,348	3,462	44	193	14	436	1.4	0.5	15.1	0.3	1.2	0.9	0.9

DOCTORAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total Doctoral Degrees						
1986–87	194	23	114	0	7	0	50	0.6	0.1	10.8	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.8
1988–89	187	11	128	0	4	0	44	0.5	a	12.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.6
1989–90	207	20	143	1	0	0	43	0.5	0.1	12.4	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.5
1990–91	200	30	131	0	3	1	35	0.5	0.1	10.8	0.0	0.2	1.0	0.4
1991–92	205	46	119	2	2	0	36	0.5	0.2	9.7	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.3
1992–93	213	31	128	1	6	0	47	0.5	0.1	9.5	0.1	0.4	0.0	0.4
1993–94	210	32	130	5	3	0	40	0.5	0.1	9.3	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.3
1994–95	230	38	142	3	3	0	44	0.5	0.1	8.8	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.4

FIRST-PROFESSIONAL DEGREES

	Number of Degrees Conferred							Degrees from Historically Black Colleges and Universities as a Percent of Total First-Professional Degrees						
1986–87	872	142	618	15	23	20	54	1.2	0.2	18.1	0.7	1.0	6.6	6.1
1988–89	693	132	478	10	16	1	56	1.0	0.2	15.2	0.4	0.5	0.4	5.7
1989–90	820	149	552	33	18	4	64	1.2	0.2	16.2	1.4	0.5	1.6	6.1
1990–91	798	173	509	46	15	0	55	1.1	0.3	14.2	1.8	0.4	0.0	5.1
1991–92	756	172	449	43	16	1	75	1.0	0.3	12.6	1.6	0.4	0.3	6.0
1992–93	966	185	627	55	19	0	80	1.3	0.3	15.3	1.8	0.4	0.0	5.3
1993–94	1,011	169	688	48	33	1	72	1.3	0.3	15.5	1.5	0.6	0.3	5.0
1994–95	1,147	185	811	40	35	2	74	1.5	0.3	17.4	1.0	0.6	0.5	4.6

Note: Data in this table exclude persons whose racial/ethnic identification was not available. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

Source: Hoffman, Charlene, Thomas D. Snyder, and Bill Sonnenberg. *Historically Black Colleges and Universities, 1976–90.* Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC: July 1992. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS). "Completions" surveys, 1990–91 through 1994–95.

Table 15

Degrees Conferred by Hispanic-Serving Institutions, by Race/Ethnicity and Level: 1990–91 to 1994–95

ASSOCIATE DEGREES

Year	Number of Degrees Conferred: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien	Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Associate Degrees: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien
1990–91	26,720	8,602	3,838	10,231	1,544	193	778	5.5	2.3	10.2	41.1	10.4	5.1	11.2
1991–92	26,110	8,189	3,996	10,324	1,478	150	958	5.2	2.1	10.8	39.5	9.8	3.9	12.0
1992–93	33,459	11,535	5,214	12,678	1,947	243	1,233	6.5	2.9	12.7	43.7	12.1	5.8	13.7
1993–94	37,991	14,015	5,274	13,569	2,548	337	1,382	7.0	3.3	11.6	42.7	13.9	7.2	13.6
1994–95	37,964	13,630	4,995	14,508	2,615	329	1,292	7.0	3.4	10.9	41.4	13.0	6.1	13.1

BACHELOR'S DEGREES

Year	Number of Degrees Conferred: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien	Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Bachelor's Degrees: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien
1990–91	19,099	7,764	1,504	7,182	1,037	91	852	1.7	0.9	2.3	19.7	2.5	2.0	2.9
1991–92	21,757	9,419	1,810	7,872	1,205	165	766	1.9	1.0	2.5	19.6	2.6	3.2	2.7
1992–93	23,886	10,076	1,211	8,853	1,520	153	869	2.0	1.1	2.8	19.9	3.0	2.7	2.7
1993–94	24,103	9,732	2,179	9,442	1,468	219	876	2.1	1.1	2.7	19.2	2.7	3.6	2.6
1994–95	28,315	11,089	2,853	10,773	1,798	266	1,114	2.4	1.2	3.4	20.4	3.0	4.1	3.0

MASTER'S DEGREES

Year	Number of Degrees Conferred: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien	Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Master's Degrees: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien
1990–91	5,730	2,802	406	1,205	248	37	533	1.7	1.1	2.6	14.2	2.2	3.3	1.4
1991–92	7,139	4,054	526	1,390	271	46	691	2.0	1.6	3.0	15.4	2.2	3.8	1.8
1992–93	8,171	4,347	591	1,706	328	55	1,033	2.2	1.6	3.1	16.8	2.5	4.1	2.3
1993–94	8,692	4,662	610	1,851	437	90	938	2.2	1.7	2.9	16.4	3.0	5.6	2.0
1994–95	10,756	5,514	944	2,303	464	70	1,232	2.7	2.0	4.1	18.9	2.9	4.5	2.5

DOCTORAL DEGREES

Year	Number of Degrees Conferred: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien	Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total Doctoral Degrees: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien
1990–91	98	57	1	18	1	0	21	0.2	0.2	0.1	2.5	0.1	0.0	0.2
1991–92	253	155	2	36	4	2	54	0.6	0.6	0.2	4.5	0.3	1.7	0.5
1992–93	275	189	8	30	2	1	43	0.7	0.7	0.6	3.7	0.1	0.9	0.4
1993–94	285	195	6	38	19	1	25	0.7	0.7	0.4	4.4	1.0	0.8	0.2
1994–95	351	217	5	49	6	1	72	0.8	0.8	0.3	5.2	0.2	0.8	0.6

FIRST-PROFESSIONAL DEGREES

Year	Number of Degrees Conferred: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien	Degrees from Hispanic-Serving Institutions as a Percent of Total First-Professional Degrees: Total	White (non-Hispanic)	African American	Hispanic	Asian American	American Indian	Non-resident Alien
1990–91	272	239	4	23	1	1	0	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.9	0.0	0.4	0.0
1991–92	540	418	8	90	4	8	0	0.7	0.7	0.2	3.2	0.1	2.7	0.0
1992–93	665	523	11	77	22	16	0	0.9	0.9	0.3	2.6	0.4	4.4	0.0
1993–94	588	420	17	112	19	10	3	0.8	0.7	0.4	3.7	0.3	2.8	0.2
1994–95	761	517	21	129	48	6	11	1.0	0.9	0.5	4.1	0.8	1.5	0.7

Note: Hispanic-serving institutions are those two-year and four-year institutions at which Hispanics constitute a minimum of 25 percent of the undergraduate enrollment. Data exclude persons whose racial/ethnic group was not available. Therefore, the sum of the details may not equal the total.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS). "Completions" surveys, unpublished data.

Table 16

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1994, and 1995

	TOTAL					WHITE				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95
EDUCATION										
Total	87,788	107,600	106,079	20.8	-1.4	77,531	95,482	93,033	20.0	-2.6
Men	21,146	24,450	25,641	21.3	4.9	18,119	21,549	22,347	23.3	3.7
Women	66,642	83,150	80,436	20.7	-3.3	59,412	73,933	70,686	19.0	-4.4
BUSINESS										
Total	231,308	246,654	234,323	1.3	-5.0	196,915	191,111	176,471	-10.4	-7.7
Men	126,762	129,161	121,898	-3.8	-5.6	109,130	103,573	95,039	-12.9	-8.2
Women	104,546	117,493	112,425	7.5	-4.3	87,785	87,538	81,432	-7.2	-7.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	90,795	133,680	128,154	41.1	-4.1	77,117	105,776	99,544	29.1	-5.9
Men	50,789	72,006	68,139	34.2	-5.4	43,787	58,555	54,659	24.8	-6.7
Women	40,006	61,674	60,015	50.0	-2.7	33,330	47,221	44,885	34.7	-4.9
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	63,289	74,421	79,855	26.2	7.3	55,501	62,756	66,402	19.6	5.8
Men	9,534	13,062	14,443	51.5	10.6	8,114	10,861	11,757	44.9	8.2
Women	53,755	61,359	65,412	21.7	6.6	47,387	51,895	54,645	15.3	5.3
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	38,115	51,383	55,984	46.9	9.0	31,807	38,736	41,573	30.7	7.3
Men	19,905	25,050	26,687	34.1	6.5	16,805	19,298	20,276	20.7	5.1
Women	18,210	26,333	29,297	60.9	11.3	15,002	19,438	21,297	42.0	9.6
ENGINEERING[a]										
Total	94,560	78,043	77,975	-17.5	-0.1	76,438	58,321	57,067	-25.3	-2.2
Men	82,095	66,421	65,779	-19.9	-1.0	66,478	50,370	48,915	-26.4	-2.9
Women	12,465	11,622	12,196	-2.2	4.9	9,960	7,951	8,152	-18.2	2.5

Continued on next page

[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Note: Some institutions did not report racial/ethnic data for earned degrees. Data for some of these nonreporting institutions were imputed. Data represent programs, not organizational units, within institutions. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Race/Ethnicity Trends in Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education: 1984–85 through 1990–91*. Washington, DC: August 1993; and National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: 1997.

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1994, and 1995

	ALL MINORITIES					AFRICAN AMERICAN				
Field of Study	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95
EDUCATION										
Total	9,242	11,472	12,315	33.3	7.3	5,456	6,316	6,658	22.0	5.4
Men	2,571	2,692	3,059	19.0	13.6	1,569	1,477	1,640	4.5	11.0
Women	6,671	8,780	9,256	38.7	5.4	3,887	4,839	5,018	29.1	3.7
BUSINESS										
Total	26,965	44,152	45,212	67.7	2.4	14,999	20,366	20,286	35.2	-0.4
Men	12,569	19,056	19,756	57.2	3.7	6,442	7,966	7,991	24.0	0.3
Women	14,396	25,096	25,456	76.8	1.4	8,557	12,400	12,295	43.7	-0.8
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	11,427	24,502	24,988	118.9	2.0	6,100	10,460	10,586	73.1	1.0
Men	5,566	11,514	11,453	105.8	-0.5	2,778	4,543	4,466	60.8	-1.7
Women	5,861	12,988	13,535	130.9	4.2	3,322	5,917	6,096	83.5	3.0
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	6,969	10,638	12,437	78.5	16.9	3,836	4,896	5,806	51.4	18.6
Men	1,140	1,934	2,417	112.0	25.0	484	674	869	79.5	28.9
Women	5,829	8,704	10,020	71.9	15.1	3,352	4,222	4,937	47.3	16.9
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	5,397	11,494	13,133	143.3	14.3	2,045	3,022	3,303	61.5	9.3
Men	2,598	5,179	5,790	122.9	11.8	806	944	1,004	24.6	6.4
Women	2,799	6,315	7,343	162.3	16.3	1,239	2,078	2,299	85.6	10.6
ENGINEERING[a]										
Total	10,727	14,704	15,576	45.2	5.9	3,159	3,902	4,170	32.0	6.9
Men	8,765	11,633	12,123	38.3	4.2	2,435	2,774	2,925	20.1	5.4
Women	1,962	3,071	3,453	76.0	12.4	724	1,128	1,245	72.0	10.4

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[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1994, and 1995

Field of Study	HISPANIC 1985 Total	HISPANIC 1994 Total	HISPANIC 1995 Total	HISPANIC Percent Change 1985–95	HISPANIC Percent Change 1994–95	ASIAN AMERICAN[a] 1985 Total	ASIAN AMERICAN[a] 1994 Total	ASIAN AMERICAN[a] 1995 Total	ASIAN AMERICAN[a] Percent Change 1985–95	ASIAN AMERICAN[a] Percent Change 1994–95
EDUCATION										
Total	2,533	3,295	3,430	35.4	4.1	977	1,122	1,381	79.4	23.1
Men	597	746	823	37.9	10.3	246	270	382	59.2	41.5
Women	1,936	2,549	2,607	34.7	2.3	731	852	999	88.5	17.3
BUSINESS										
Total	5,771	10,264	10,753	86.3	4.8	5,274	12,486	13,174	149.8	5.5
Men	2,988	4,997	5,258	76.0	5.2	2,644	5,619	6,029	128.0	7.3
Women	2,783	5,267	5,495	97.4	4.3	2,630	6,867	7,145	171.7	4.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	2,846	6,851	7,002	146.0	2.2	2,034	6,408	6,626	225.8	3.4
Men	1,557	3,453	3,462	122.4	0.3	1,002	3,133	3,136	213.0	0.1
Women	1,289	3,398	3,540	174.6	4.2	1,032	3,275	3,490	238.2	6.6
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	1,550	2,274	2,601	67.8	14.4	1,310	3,070	3,563	172.0	16.1
Men	309	469	543	75.7	15.8	298	709	910	205.4	28.3
Women	1,241	1,805	2,058	65.8	14.0	1,012	2,361	2,653	162.2	12.4
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	1,241	2,137	2,331	87.8	9.1	1,950	6,083	7,208	269.6	18.5
Men	681	1,063	1,102	61.8	3.7	1,022	3,057	3,553	247.7	16.2
Women	560	1,074	1,229	119.5	14.4	928	3,026	3,655	293.9	20.8
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	2,242	3,103	3,412	52.2	10.0	5,013	7,378	7,653	52.7	3.7
Men	1,935	2,587	2,813	45.4	8.7	4,132	6,004	6,106	47.8	1.7
Women	307	516	599	95.1	16.1	881	1,374	1,547	75.6	12.6

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[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Bachelor's Degrees for Selected Fields, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1994, and 1995

Field of Study	AMERICAN INDIAN[a] 1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–94	Percent Change 1994–95	NONRESIDENT ALIEN 1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95
EDUCATION										
Total	483	739	846	75.2	14.5	1,015	646	731	-28.0	13.2
Men	165	199	214	29.7	7.5	456	209	235	-48.5	12.4
Women	318	540	632	98.7	17.0	559	437	496	-11.3	13.5
BUSINESS										
Total	921	1,036	999	8.5	-3.6	7,428	11,391	12,640	70.2	11.0
Men	495	474	478	-3.4	0.8	5,063	6,532	7,103	40.3	8.7
Women	426	562	521	22.3	-7.3	2,365	4,859	5,539	134.1	14.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	447	783	798	78.5	1.9	2,251	3,402	3,622	60.9	6.5
Men	229	385	389	69.9	1.0	1,436	1,937	2,027	41.2	4.6
Women	218	398	409	87.6	2.8	815	1,465	1,595	95.7	8.9
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	273	398	467	71.1	17.3	819	1,027	1,016	24.1	-1.1
Men	49	82	95	93.9	15.9	280	267	269	-3.9	0.7
Women	224	316	372	66.1	17.7	539	760	747	38.6	-1.7
BIOLOGICAL/LIFE SCIENCES										
Total	161	252	291	80.7	15.5	911	1,153	1,278	40.3	10.8
Men	89	115	131	47.2	13.9	502	573	621	23.7	8.4
Women	72	137	160	122.2	16.8	409	580	657	60.6	13.3
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	313	321	341	8.9	6.2	7,395	5,018	5,332	-27.9	6.3
Men	263	268	279	6.1	4.1	6,852	4,418	4,741	-30.8	7.3
Women	50	53	62	24.0	17.0	543	600	591	8.8	-1.5

[a] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 17

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1994, and 1995

Field of Study	TOTAL 1985 Total	TOTAL 1994 Total	TOTAL 1995 Total	TOTAL Percent Change 1985–95	TOTAL Percent Change 1994–95	WHITE 1985 Total	WHITE 1994 Total	WHITE 1995 Total	WHITE Percent Change 1985–95	WHITE Percent Change 1994–95
EDUCATION										
Total	98,380	98,938	101,242	2.9	2.3	63,302	83,065	83,656	32.1	0.7
Men	28,079	23,008	23,806	-15.2	3.5	17,047	19,031	19,303	13.2	1.4
Women	70,301	75,930	77,436	10.1	2.0	46,255	64,034	54,343	39.1	0.5
BUSINESS										
Total	57,541	93,437	93,809	63.0	0.4	54,663	67,669	66,553	21.8	-1.6
Men	43,045	59,335	59,109	37.3	-0.4	37,256	43,591	42,711	14.6	-2.0
Women	14,496	34,102	34,700	139.4	1.8	17,407	24,078	23,842	37.0	-1.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	11,917	14,561	14,845	24.6	2.0	7,333	10,247	10,299	40.4	0.5
Men	7,442	8,152	8,207	10.3	0.7	4,326	5,712	5,636	30.3	-1.3
Women	4,475	6,409	6,638	48.3	3.6	3,007	4,535	4,663	55.1	2.8
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	16,515	28,025	31,243	89.2	11.5	14,565	23,175	25,244	73.3	8.9
Men	4,316	5,814	6,754	56.5	16.2	3,170	4,446	4,879	53.9	9.7
Women	12,199	22,211	24,489	100.7	10.3	11,395	18,729	20,365	78.7	8.7
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	17,130	21,833	23,501	37.2	7.6	13,849	16,891	18,056	30.4	6.9
Men	6,704	6,406	6,870	2.5	7.2	5,254	4,848	5,030	-4.3	3.8
Women	10,426	15,427	16,631	59.5	7.8	8,595	12,043	13,026	51.6	8.2
ENGINEERING [a]										
Total	16,358	29,754	29,663	81.3	-0.3	12,600	16,147	15,494	23.0	-4.0
Men	14,998	25,154	24,832	65.6	-1.3	11,012	13,651	12,972	17.8	-5.0
Women	1,360	4,600	4,831	255.2	5.0	1,588	1,496	1,522	58.8	1.0

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[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Note: Some institutions did not report racial/ethnic data for earned degrees. Data for some of these nonreporting institutions were imputed. Data represent programs, not organizational units, within institutions. Because of rounding, details may not add to totals.

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Race/Ethnicity Trends in Degrees Conferred by Institutions of Higher Education: 1984–85 through 1990–91*. Washington, DC: August 1993; and National Center for Education Statistics. *Digest of Education Statistics*. Washington, DC: 1997.

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1994, and 1995

	ALL MINORITIES					AFRICAN AMERICAN				
	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95
EDUCATION										
Total	9,600	12,939	14,431	50.3	11.5	5,812	7,199	8,163	40.5	13.4
Men	2,370	3,063	3,451	45.6	12.7	1,325	1,574	1,875	41.5	19.1
Women	7,230	9,876	10,980	51.9	11.2	4,487	5,625	6,288	40.1	11.8
BUSINESS										
Total	6,117	12,705	12,990	112.4	2.2	2,601	5,213	5,165	98.6	-0.9
Men	4,024	7,036	7,149	77.7	1.6	1,574	2,519	2,427	54.2	-3.7
Women	2,093	5,669	5,841	179.1	3.0	1,027	2,694	2,738	166.6	1.6
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	1,065	1,748	1,929	81.1	10.4	422	737	874	107.1	18.6
Men	649	857	938	44.5	9.5	234	336	403	72.2	19.9
Women	416	891	991	138.2	11.2	188	401	471	150.5	17.5
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	1,652	3,350	4,252	157.4	26.9	819	1,496	1,682	105.4	12.4
Men	456	770	1,160	154.4	50.6	179	232	293	63.7	26.3
Women	1,196	2,580	3,092	158.5	19.8	640	1,264	1,389	117.0	9.9
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	2,577	4,134	4,560	76.9	10.3	1,600	2,506	2,702	68.9	7.8
Men	958	1,115	1,339	39.8	20.1	592	612	739	24.8	20.8
Women	1,619	3,019	3,221	98.9	6.7	1,008	1,894	1,963	94.7	3.6
ENGINEERING [a]										
Total	2,322	4,070	4,312	85.7	5.9	360	682	764	112.2	12.0
Men	2,039	3,198	3,363	64.9	5.2	300	493	536	78.7	8.7
Women	283	872	949	235.3	8.8	60	189	228	280.0	20.6

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[a] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1994, and 1995

	HISPANIC					ASIAN AMERICAN[a]				
	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95
EDUCATION										
Total	2,519	3,601	4,048	60.7	12.4	801	1,534	1,706	113.0	11.2
Men	668	918	1,032	54.5	12.4	238	405	411	72.7	1.5
Women	1,851	2,683	3,016	62.9	12.4	563	1,129	1,295	130.0	14.7
BUSINESS										
Total	1,175	2,568	2,590	120.4	0.9	2,070	4,625	4,924	137.9	6.5
Men	812	1,590	1,621	99.6	1.9	1,449	2,752	2,902	100.3	5.5
Women	363	978	969	166.9	-0.9	621	1,873	2,022	225.6	8.0
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	272	459	483	77.6	5.2	328	481	485	47.9	0.8
Men	159	237	248	56.0	4.6	231	246	255	10.4	3.7
Women	113	222	235	108.0	5.9	97	235	230	137.1	-2.1
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	296	710	849	186.8	19.6	476	1,007	1,590	234.0	57.9
Men	89	200	233	161.8	16.5	174	311	606	248.3	94.9
Women	207	510	616	197.6	20.8	302	696	984	192.7	41.3
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	617	990	1,128	82.8	13.9	271	495	593	118.8	19.8
Men	221	300	357	61.5	19.0	112	161	205	83.0	27.3
Women	396	690	771	94.7	11.7	159	334	388	144.0	16.2
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	340	700	719	111.5	2.7	1,573	2,623	2,778	76.6	5.9
Men	299	572	588	96.7	2.8	1,395	2,082	2,193	57.2	5.3
Women	41	128	131	219.5	2.3	178	541	585	228.7	8.1

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[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Master's Degrees for Selected Fields, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1994, and 1995

	AMERICAN INDIAN[a]					NONRESIDENT ALIEN				
	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95	1985 Total	1994 Total	1995 Total	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1994–95
EDUCATION										
Total	468	605	514	9.8	-15.0	2,919	2,934	3,165	8.4	7.9
Men	139	166	133	-4.3	-19.9	1,427	914	1,052	-26.3	15.1
Women	329	439	381	15.8	-13.2	1,492	2,020	2,113	41.6	4.6
BUSINESS										
Total	271	299	311	14.8	4.0	5,816	13,063	14,266	145.3	9.2
Men	189	175	199	5.3	13.7	4,604	8,708	9,249	100.9	6.2
Women	82	124	112	36.6	-9.7	1,212	4,355	5,017	313.9	15.2
SOCIAL SCIENCES										
Total	43	71	87	102.3	22.5	1,825	2,566	2,617	43.4	2.0
Men	25	38	32	28.0	-15.8	1,323	1,583	1,633	23.4	3.2
Women	18	33	55	205.6	66.7	502	983	984	96.0	0.1
HEALTH PROFESSIONS										
Total	61	137	131	114.8	-4.4	845	1,500	1,747	106.7	16.5
Men	14	27	28	100.0	3.7	426	598	715	67.8	19.6
Women	47	110	103	119.1	-6.4	419	902	1,032	146.3	14.4
PUBLIC AFFAIRS										
Total	89	143	137	53.9	-4.2	704	808	885	25.7	9.5
Men	33	42	38	15.2	-9.5	492	443	501	1.8	13.1
Women	56	101	99	76.8	-2.0	212	365	384	81.1	5.2
ENGINEERING[b]										
Total	49	65	51	4.1	-21.5	5,813	9,537	9,857	69.6	3.4
Men	45	51	46	2.2	-9.8	5,454	8,305	8,497	55.8	2.3
Women	4	14	5	25.0	-64.3	359	1,232	1,360	278.8	10.4

[a] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[b] Engineering includes engineering technologies.

Table 18

Doctoral Degrees, by U.S. Citizenship, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender: 1986 to 1996

	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1986–96	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	31,902	32,370	33,501	34,326	36,067	37,522	38,856	39,771	41,017	41,610	42,415	33.0	1.6
Men	20,594	20,938	21,682	21,813	22,962	23,652	24,436	24,658	25,211	25,277	25,267	22.7	0.0
Women	11,307	11,432	11,819	12,513	13,105	13,870	14,420	15,113	15,806	16,333	16,945	49.9	3.2
U.S. CITIZENS[b]													
All U.S. Citizens	23,086	22,984	23,291	23,400	24,905	25,561	25,977	26,420	27,129	27,603	27,741	20.2	0.0
Men	13,638	13,574	13,725	13,395	14,166	14,379	14,501	14,497	14,730	14,909	14,700	7.8	-1.8
Women	9,448	9,410	9,566	10,005	10,739	11,182	11,476	11,923	12,399	12,694	13,041	38.0	2.1
White	20,640	20,468	20,787	20,894	22,172	22,419	22,875	23,237	23,805	23,811	23,856	15.6	-0.3
Men	12,314	12,169	12,345	11,987	12,690	12,679	12,828	12,852	13,052	13,003	12,744	3.5	-2.4
Women	8,326	8,299	8,442	8,907	9,482	9,740	10,057	10,385	10,753	10,808	11,112	33.5	2.2
African American	830	771	818	821	900	1,004	968	1,108	1,095	1,287	1,315	58.4	0.5
Men	325	318	317	327	351	417	394	439	409	482	535	64.6	9.2
Women	505	453	501	494	549	587	574	669	686	805	780	54.5	-4.8
Hispanic	572	617	595	582	721	731	778	834	884	916	950	66.1	3.4
Men	302	332	321	307	380	370	410	423	438	460	478	58.3	3.9
Women	270	285	274	275	341	361	368	411	446	456	472	74.8	2.8
Asian American[c]	533	543	614	633	641	789	846	889	949	1,138	1,091	104.7	-4.3
Men	349	369	414	446	427	483	530	551	591	670	614	75.9	-8.4
Women	184	174	200	187	214	306	316	338	358	468	477	159.2	1.5
American Indian[d]	99	115	94	94	97	130	149	120	142	148	186	87.9	24.8
Men	58	62	52	49	52	74	82	60	71	81	102	75.9	24.4
Women	41	53	42	45	45	56	67	60	71	67	84	104.9	25.4
NON-U.S. CITIZENS													
Total	6,709	7,190	7,817	8,274	9,791	11,169	11,932	12,189	13,154	13,113	13,375	99.4	1.9
Men	5,482	5,839	6,298	6,583	7,822	8,742	9,255	9,332	9,968	9,759	9,867	80.0	1.2
Women	1,227	1,351	1,519	1,691	1,969	2,427	2,677	2,857	3,186	3,354	3,497	185.0	4.0

[a] Includes doctorates earned by persons with unknown citizenship status and unknown race/ethnicity.

[b] Includes doctorates earned by persons with unknown race/ethnicity.

[c] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[d] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, 1986 through 1996.

Doctoral Degrees, by Field, U.S. Citizenship, and Race/Ethnicity: 1986, 1994, 1995, and 1996

TOTAL

	1986	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	31,902	41,017	41,743	42,415	1.6
American Indian	100	145	149	189	26.8
Asian	3,730	9,366	9,708	9,821	1.2
Black	1,277	1,677	1,825	1,837	0.7
Hispanic	1,056	1,534	1,541	1,623	5.3
White	22,783	27,095	27,107	27,166	0.2
U.S. Citizens[b]	23,086	27,129	27,740	27,741	0.0
American Indian[c]	99	142	149	186	24.8
Asian American[d]	533	949	1,140	1,091	-4.3
African American	830	1,095	1,309	1,315	0.5
Hispanic	572	884	919	950	3.4
White	20,640	23,805	23,920	23,856	-0.3

PHYSICAL SCIENCES

	1986	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	4,807	6,822	6,808	6,675	-2.0
American Indian	8	11	11	12	27.3
Asian	953	2,304	2,293	2,212	-3.5
Black	66	114	102	126	23.5
Hispanic	147	201	178	203	14.0
White	3,167	3,986	3,969	3,796	-4.4
U.S. Citizens[b]	3,004	3,635	3,653	3,446	-5.7
American Indian[c]	8	10	11	13	18.2
Asian American[d]	108	180	223	176	-21.1
African American	26	52	52	69	32.7
Hispanic	53	99	86	83	-3.5
White	2,719	3,260	3,223	3,037	-5.8

ENGINEERING

	1986	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	3,376	5,822	6,008	6,305	4.9
American Indian	6	7	10	15	50.0
Asian	1,104	2,709	2,836	2,910	2.6
Black	49	88	102	115	12.7
Hispanic	95	159	149	199	33.6
White	1,710	2,620	2,640	2,764	4.7
U.S. Citizens[b]	1,383	2,215	2,386	2,591	8.6
American Indian[c]	6	6	10	14	40.0
Asian American[d]	80	202	255	271	6.3
African American	14	44	54	59	9.3
Hispanic	25	49	61	86	41.0
White	1,229	1,886	1,956	2,123	8.5

LIFE SCIENCES

	1986	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	5,734	7,736	7,918	8,255	4.3
American Indian	24	24	27	31	14.8
Asian	618	1,973	2,142	2,347	9.6
Black	173	286	293	288	-1.7
Hispanic	186	332	333	326	-2.1
White	4,279	4,916	4,885	4,967	1.7
U.S. Citizens[b]	4,350	4,950	5,001	5,014	0.3
American Indian[c]	23	24	27	31	14.8
Asian American[d]	154	246	266	289	8.6
African American	64	116	158	141	-10.8
Hispanic	72	147	145	150	3.4
White	3,964	4,367	4,353	4,335	-0.4

SOCIAL SCIENCES

	1986	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	5,893	6,614	6,635	6,814	2.7
American Indian	20	27	29	38	31.0
Asian	391	915	985	908	-7.8
Black	253	317	329	327	-0.6
Hispanic	218	263	291	335	5.1
White	4,445	4,867	4,788	4,919	2.7
U.S. Citizens[b]	4,579	4,992	5,052	5,195	2.8
American Indian[c]	20	27	29	38	31.0
Asian American[d]	70	132	168	127	-24.4
African American	168	200	242	247	2.1
Hispanic	132	176	214	235	9.8
White	4,110	4,405	4,356	4,495	3.2

HUMANITIES

	1986	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	3,461	4,745	5,061	5,116	1.1
American Indian	7	24	19	21	10.5
Asian	149	426	453	458	1.1
Black	104	144	159	171	7.5
Hispanic	122	245	240	251	4.6
White	2,732	3,779	4,020	4,008	-0.3
U.S. Citizens[b]	2,732	3,714	3,981	3,959	-0.6
American Indian[c]	7	23	19	20	5.3
Asian American[d]	30	68	91	91	0.0
African American	71	102	106	119	12.3
Hispanic	76	138	130	140	7.7
White	2,500	3,349	3,581	3,540	-1.1

EDUCATION

	1986	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	6,649	6,695	6,649	6,772	1.8
American Indian	26	36	41	60	46.3
Asian	258	485	459	467	1.7
Black	543	585	689	679	-1.5
Hispanic	249	271	284	237	-16.5
White	5,066	5,178	4,994	5,068	1.5
U.S. Citizens[b]	5,629	5,8451	5,777	5,866	1.5
American Indian[c]	26	36	41	60	46.3
Asian American[d]	60	80	82	92	12.2
African American	423	484	585	582	-0.5
Hispanic	190	226	235	204	-13.2
White	4,852	4,980	4,801	4,879	1.6

PROFESSIONAL-OTHER

	1986	1994	1995	1996	Percent Change 1995–96
Total Doctorates[a]	1,982	2,583	2,664	2,478	-7.0
American Indian	9	16	12	10	-16.7
Asian	257	554	540	519	-3.9
Black	89	143	151	131	-13.2
Hispanic	39	63	66	72	9.1
White	1,384	1,749	1,811	1,644	-9.2
U.S. Citizens[b]	1,409	1,772	1,890	1,670	-11.6
American Indian[c]	9	16	12	10	-16.7
Asian American[d]	31	41	55	45	-18.2
African American	64	97	112	98	-12.5
Hispanic	24	49	48	52	8.3
White	1,266	1,558	1,650	1,447	-12.3

[a] Total doctorates figure includes persons who did not report their citizenship at time of doctorate and those who did not report their racial/ethnic background.

[b] Includes persons who did not report their racial/ethnic background.

[c] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

[d] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

Source: National Research Council, Doctorate Records File, various years.

Table 20

Full-Time Faculty in Higher Education, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1993, and 1995

	1985 Total	Percent	1993 Total	Percent	1995 Total	Percent	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95
TOTAL	473,537	100.0	533,770	100.0	538,023	100.0	13.6	0.8
Men	342,916	72.4	354,302	66.4	350,756	65.2	2.3	-1.0
Women	130,621	27.6	179,468	33.6	187,267	34.8	43.4	4.3
White (non-Hispanic)	426,468	90.1	468,770	87.8	468,518	87.1	9.9	-0.1
Men	311,018	90.7	313,278	88.4	307,498	87.7	-1.1	-1.8
Women	115,450	88.4	155,492	86.6	161,020	86.0	39.5	3.6
TOTAL MINORITY	47,069	9.9	65,000	12.2	69,505	12.9	47.7	6.9
Men	31,898	9.3	41,024	11.6	43,258	12.3	35.6	5.4
Women	15,171	11.6	23,976	13.4	26,247	14.0	73.0	9.5
African American (non-Hispanic)	19,559	4.1	25,658	4.8	26,835	5.0	37.2	4.6
Men	10,631	3.1	13,385	3.8	13,847	3.9	30.3	3.5
Women	8,928	6.8	12,273	6.8	12,988	6.9	45.5	5.8
Hispanic	7,788	1.6	12,076	2.3	12,942	2.4	66.2	7.2
Men	5,458	1.6	7,459	2.1	7,864	2.2	44.1	5.4
Women	2,330	1.8	4,617	2.6	5,078	2.7	117.9	10.0
Asian American[a]	18,245	3.9	25,269	4.7	27,572	5.1	51.1	9.1
Men	14,682	4.3	18,943	5.3	20,285	5.8	38.2	7.1
Women	3,563	2.7	6,326	3.5	7,287	3.9	104.5	15.2
American Indian[b]	1,477	0.3	1,997	0.4	2,156	0.4	46.0	8.0
Men	1,127	0.3	1,237	0.3	1,262	0.4	12.0	2.0
Women	350	0.3	760	0.4	894	0.5	155.4	17.6

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: Details may not add to totals because of rounding. Includes full-time faculty who are in nontenured-earning positions, tenured faculty, and faculty who are nontenured but in positions that lead to consideration for tenure. Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions each year: 2,868 in 1985; 3,385 in 1993; and 3,480 in 1995. Data were imputed for nonreporting institutions for 1993 and 1995. Figures shown here may not agree with tables showing tenure data because some respondents provided total faculty counts by race but did not further categorize by tenure status.

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" Surveys, 1985 and 1993. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Fall Staff Survey*, 1995.

Full-Time Faculty by Academic Rank, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1993, and 1995

FULL PROFESSOR

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95
Total	129,269	156,146	158,073	22.3	1.2	114,258	129,594	129,831	13.6	0.2	15,011	26,552	28,242	88.1	6.4
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			88.4	83.0	82.1			11.6	17.0	17.9		
White (non-Hispanic)	119,868	141,848	142,819	19.1	0.7	106,335	118,308	117,844	10.8	-0.4	13,533	23,540	24,975	84.5	6.1
Participation Rate (%)	92.7	90.8	90.4			82.3	75.8	74.6			10.5	15.1	15.8		
Total Minority	9,401	14,298	15,254	62.3	6.7	7,923	11,286	11,987	51.3	6.2	1,478	3,012	3,267	121.0	8.5
Participation Rate (%)	7.3	9.2	9.6			6.1	7.2	7.6			1.1	1.9	2.1		
African American	2,859	4,526	4,768	66.8	5.3	2,058	2,982	3,085	49.9	3.5	801	1,544	1,683	110.1	9.0
Participation Rate (%)	2.2	2.9	3.0			1.6	1.9	2.0			0.6	1.0	1.1		
Hispanic	1,455	2,387	2,470	69.8	3.5	1,206	1,776	1,912	58.5	7.7	249	611	558	124.1	-8.7
Participation Rate (%)	1.1	1.5	1.6			0.9	1.1	1.2			0.2	0.4	0.4		
Asian American[a]	4,788	7,033	7,643	59.6	8.7	4,395	6,245	6,691	52.2	7.1	393	788	952	142.2	20.8
Participation Rate (%)	3.7	4.5	4.8			3.4	4.0	4.2			0.3	0.5	0.6		
American Indian[b]	299	352	373	24.7	6.0	264	283	299	13.3	5.7	35	69	74	111.4	7.2
Participation Rate (%)	0.2	0.2	0.2			0.2	0.2	0.2			0.03	0.04	0.05		

ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95
Total	111,092	119,388	123,663	11.3	3.6	85,156	83,430	84,145	-1.2	0.9	25,936	35,958	39,518	52.4	9.9
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			76.7	69.9	68.0			23.3	30.1	32.0		
White (non-Hispanic)	100,630	106,017	108,953	8.3	2.8	77,483	74,191	74,160	-4.3	0.0	23,147	31,826	34,793	50.3	9.3
Participation Rate (%)	90.6	88.8	88.1			69.7	62.1	60.0			20.8	26.7	28.1		
Total Minority	10,462	13,371	14,710	40.6	10.0	7,673	9,239	9,985	30.1	8.1	2,789	4,132	4,725	69.4	14.4
Participation Rate (%)	9.4	11.2	11.9			6.9	7.7	8.1			2.5	3.5	3.8		
African American	4,201	5,326	5,634	34.1	5.8	2,595	3,089	3,214	23.9	4.0	1,606	2,237	2,420	50.7	8.2
Participation Rate (%)	3.8	4.5	4.6			2.3	2.6	2.6			1.4	1.9	2.0		
Hispanic	1,727	2,291	2,607	51.0	13.8	1,280	1,590	1,723	34.6	8.4	447	701	884	97.8	26.1
Participation Rate (%)	1.6	1.9	2.1			1.2	1.3	1.4			0.4	0.6	0.7		
Asian American[a]	4,130	5,471	6,119	48.2	11.8	3,451	4,367	4,826	39.8	10.5	679	1,104	1,293	90.4	17.1
Participation Rate (%)	3.7	4.6	4.9			3.1	3.7	3.9			0.6	0.9	1.0		
American Indian[b]	404	283	350	-13.4	23.7	347	193	222	-36.0	15.0	57	90	128	124.6	42.2
Participation Rate (%)	0.4	0.2	0.3			0.3	0.2	0.2			0.05	0.1	0.1		

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95
Total	111,308	124,181	124,762	12.1	0.5	71,463	70,946	69,532	-2.7	-2.0	39,845	53,235	55,230	38.6	3.7
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			64.2	57.1	55.7			35.8	42.9	44.3		
White (non-Hispanic)	97,496	105,091	104,037	6.7	-1.0	62,582	59,709	57,580	-8.0	-3.6	34,914	45,382	46,457	33.1	2.4
Participation Rate (%)	87.6	84.6	83.4			56.2	48.1	46.2			31.4	36.5	37.2		
Total Minority	13,812	19,090	20,725	50.1	8.6	8,881	11,237	11,952	34.6	6.4	4,931	7,853	8,773	77.9	11.7
Participation Rate (%)	12.4	15.4	16.6			8.0	9.0	9.6			4.4	6.3	7.0		
African American	5,895	7,686	8,011	35.9	4.2	2,923	3,801	3,897	33.3	2.5	2,972	3,885	4,114	38.4	5.9
Participation Rate (%)	5.3	6.2	6.4			2.6	3.1	3.1			2.7	3.1	3.3		
Hispanic	1,968	3,387	3,736	89.8	10.3	1,316	1,951	2,068	57.1	6.0	652	1,436	1,668	155.8	16.2
Participation Rate (%)	1.8	2.7	3.0			1.2	1.6	1.7			0.6	1.2	1.3		
Asian American[a]	5,469	7,586	8,459	54.7	11.5	4,240	5,277	5,734	35.2	8.7	1,229	2,309	2,725	121.7	18.0
Participation Rate (%)	4.9	6.1	6.8			3.8	4.2	4.6			1.1	1.9	2.2		
American Indian[b]	480	431	519	8.1	20.4	402	208	253	-37.1	21.6	78	223	266	241.0	19.3
ate (%)	0.4	0.3	0.4			0.4	0.2	0.2			0.1	0.2	0.2		

Continued on next page

Full-Time Faculty by Academic Rank, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1993, and 1995

INSTRUCTOR AND LECTURER

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95
Total	86,953	79,787	77,805	-10.5	-2.5	49,313	39,959	37,897	-23.2	-5.2	37,640	39,828	39,908	6.0	0.2
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			56.7	50.1	48.7			43.3	49.9	51.3		
White (non-Hispanic)	76,749	68,192	65,744	-14.3	-3.6	43,866	34,271	32,048	-26.9	-6.5	32,883	33,921	33,696	2.5	-0.7
Participation Rate (%)	88.3	85.5	84.5			50.4	43.0	41.2			37.8	42.5	43.3		
Total Minority	10,204	11,595	12,061	18.2	4.0	5,447	5,688	5,849	7.4	2.8	4,757	5,907	6,212	30.6	5.2
Participation Rate (%)	11.7	14.5	15.5			6.3	7.1	7.5			5.5	7.4	8.0		
African American	5,290	5,551	5,655	6.9	1.9	2,450	2,471	2,505	2.2	1.4	2,840	3,080	3,150	10.9	2.3
Participation Rate (%)	6.1	7.0	7.3			2.8	3.1	3.2			3.3	3.9	4.0		
Hispanic	2,084	2,678	2,959	42.0	10.5	1,280	1,404	1,538	20.2	9.5	804	1,274	1,421	76.7	11.5
Participation Rate (%)	2.4	3.4	3.8			1.5	1.8	2.0			0.9	1.6	1.8		
Asian American[a]	2,278	2,700	2,880	26.4	6.7	1,372	1,390	1,485	8.2	6.8	906	1,310	1,395	54.0	6.5
Participation Rate (%)	2.6	3.4	3.7			1.6	1.7	1.9			1.0	1.6	1.8		
American Indian[b]	552	666	567	2.7	-14.9	345	423	321	-7.0	-24.1	207	243	246	18.8	1.2
Participation Rate (%)	0.6	0.8	0.7			0.4	0.5	0.4			0.2	0.3	0.3		

OTHER FACULTY

	TOTAL					MEN					WOMEN				
	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95	1985	1993	1995	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95
Total	28,566	54,268	53,720	88.1	-1.0	17,416	30,373	29,351	68.5	-3.4	11,150	23,895	24,369	118.6	2.0
Participation Rate (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0			61.0	56.0	54.6			39.0	44.0	45.4		
White (non-Hispanic)	24,550	47,622	46,965	91.3	-1.4	14,863	26,799	25,866	74.0	-3.5	9,687	20,823	21,099	117.8	1.3
Participation Rate (%)	85.9	87.8	87.4			52.0	49.4	48.1			33.9	38.4	39.3		
Total Minority	4,016	6,646	6,755	68.2	1.6	2,553	3,574	3,485	36.5	-2.5	1,463	3,072	3,270	123.5	6.4
Participation Rate (%)	14.1	12.2	12.6			8.9	6.6	6.5			5.1	5.7	6.1		
African American	1,203	2,569	2,767	130.0	7.7	526	1,042	1,146	117.9	10.0	677	1,527	1,621	139.4	6.2
Participation Rate (%)	4.2	4.7	5.2			1.8	1.9	2.1			2.4	2.8	3.0		
Hispanic	541	1,333	1,170	116.3	-12.2	318	738	623	95.9	-15.6	223	595	547	145.3	-8.1
Participation Rate (%)	1.9	2.5	2.2			1.1	1.4	1.2			0.8	1.1	1.0		
Asian American[a]	2,160	2,479	2,471	14.4	-0.3	1,633	1,664	1,549	-5.1	-6.9	527	815	922	75.0	13.1
Participation Rate (%)	7.6	4.6	4.6			5.7	3.1	2.9			1.8	1.5	1.7		
American Indian[b]	112	265	347	209.8	30.9	76	130	167	119.7	28.5	36	135	180	400.0	33.3
Participation Rate (%)	0.4	0.5	0.6			0.3	0.2	0.3			0.1	0.2	0.3		

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions each year: 2,868 in 1985; 3,385 in 1993; and 3,480 in 1995. Data for 1985 are based on reported counts and were not imputed for nonreporting institutions, while 1993 and 1995 data were imputed for nonreporting institutions.

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" Surveys, 1985 and 1993. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Fall Staff Survey*, 1995.

Table 22 000000 000097

Tenure Rates of Tenure-Track Faculty, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1993, and 1995

(Percentages with tenure)

	1985			1993			1995		
	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL	MEN	WOMEN
Total	71	75	60	71	76	60	73	78	62
White (non-Hispanic)	72	76	60	73	78	61	74	79	63
Total Minority	63	64	58	62	66	56	62	66	54
African American (non-Hispanic)	62	65	58	61	63	58	59	62	55
Hispanic	67	69	62	63	66	57	62	66	55
Asian American[a]	61	62	56	64	67	52	64	68	52
American Indian[b]	65	66	62	63	72	49	63	70	50

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: Details may not add to totals due to rounding. Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions for each year: 2,868 in 1985; 3,385 in 1993; and 3,480 in 1995. Data for 1993 and 1995 were imputed for nonreporting institutions.

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" Surveys, 1985 and 1993. U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. *Fall Staff Survey*, 1995.

Table 23

Full-Time Administrators in Higher Education, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender: 1985, 1993, and 1995

	1985 Total	Percent	1993 Total	Percent	1995 Total	Percent	Percent Change 1985–95	Percent Change 1993–95
TOTAL	120,585	100.0	137,432	100.0	139,914	100.0	16.0	1.8
Men	78,252	65.0	79,829	58.2	78,579	56.0	0.4	-1.6
Women	42,333	35.6	57,603	42.4	61,335	44.0	44.9	6.5
White (non-Hispanic)	107,162	88.9	118,651	86.3	120,242	85.9	12.2	1.3
Men	70,472	90.1	70,303	88.1	69,022	87.8	-2.1	-1.8
Women	36,690	86.7	48,348	83.9	51,220	83.5	39.6	5.9
TOTAL MINORITY	13,423	11.1	18,781	13.7	19,672	14.1	46.6	4.7
Men	7,780	9.9	9,526	11.9	9,557	12.2	22.8	0.3
Women	5,643	13.3	9,255	16.1	10,115	16.5	79.2	9.3
African American (non-Hispanic)	9,124	7.6	12,232	8.9	12,657	9.0	38.7	3.5
Men	5,003	6.4	5,904	7.4	5,835	7.4	16.6	-1.2
Women	4,121	9.7	6,328	11.0	6,822	11.1	65.5	7.8
Hispanic	2,401	2.0	3,580	2.6	3,795	2.7	58.1	6.0
Men	1,553	2.0	1,963	2.5	1,966	2.5	26.6	0.2
Women	848	2.0	1,617	2.8	1,829	3.0	115.7	13.1
Asian American[a]	1,398	1.2	2,243	1.6	2,511	1.8	79.6	11.9
Men	873	1.1	1,244	1.6	1,388	1.8	59.0	11.6
Women	525	1.2	999	1.7	1,123	1.8	113.9	12.4
American Indian[b]	500	0.4	726	0.5	709	0.5	41.8	-2.3
Men	351	0.4	415	0.5	368	0.5	4.8	-11.3
Women	149	0.4	311	0.5	341	0.6	128.9	9.6

[a] Asian American includes Pacific Islanders.

[b] American Indian includes Alaska Natives.

Note: Details may not add to totals due to rounding. Employment counts are based on the following number of higher education institutions for each year: 2,868 in 1985; 3,385 in 1993; and 3,480 in 1995. Data for 1985 are based on reported counts and are not imputed for nonreporting institutions, while 1993 and 1995 data were imputed.

Source: U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. "EEO–6 Higher Education Staff Information" Surveys, 1985 and 1993. U.S. Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. *Fall Staff Survey*, 1995.

Table 24

College and University Chief Executive Officers, by Institutional Type, Race/Ethnicity, and Gender: 1997

	ALL INSTITUTIONS	FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS	TWO-YEAR INSTITUTIONS
TOTAL CEOs	2,995	1,894	1,101
WHITE CEOs			
Female	440	267	173
Male	1,861	1,208	653
TOTAL	2,301	1,475	826
AFRICAN-AMERICAN CEOs			
Female	48	22	26
Male	141	106	35
TOTAL	189	128	61
HISPANIC CEOs [a]			
Female	32	15	17
Male	78	42	36
TOTAL	110	57	53
ASIAN-AMERICAN CEOs			
Female	2	0	2
Male	17	11	6
TOTAL	19	11	8
AMERICAN INDIAN CEOs			
Female	4	1	3
Male	18	6	12
TOTAL	22	7	15
UNKNOWN ETHNICITY CEOs			
Female	14	6	8
Male	340	210	130
TOTAL	354	216	138

[a] This total includes the CEOs that head 31 Puerto Rican institutions. Consequently, 68 Hispanic CEOs head two- and four-year regionally accredited institutions on the mainland.

Note: CEO of a regionally accredited, degree-granting institution in the U.S. or its outlying areas (e.g., Puerto Rico). The term CEO is defined within the American Council on Education's Corporate Database as the president, chancellor, superintendent, executive director, campus dean, etc., including interim/acting CEOs heading regionally accredited institutions, branches, and affiliates. The CEO total of 2,995 does not include seven presidents whose gender is unknown and eight whose race/ethnicity is unknown.

Source: American Council on Education Corporate Database. Numbers compiled in February 1997.

Table 25

Importance of Various Factors in Admissions Decisions at Four-year Institutions: 1979, 1985, and 1992

FACTOR	FOUR-YEAR PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS			FOUR-YEAR PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS		
	Average Importance of Factor[a]					
Factor	**1979**	**1985**	**1992**	**1979**	**1985**	**1992**
High school GPA or rank	4.0	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.0	4.0
Admissions test scores	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.4	3.4	3.4
Achievement test scores	1.7	1.6	1.6	2.4	2.1	1.9
Letters of recommendation	2.1	1.9	1.9	2.9	3.0	3.0
Interviews	2.0	1.7	1.7	2.9	2.8	2.7
Essays	1.6	1.6	1.7	2.3	2.6	2.6
Health statement	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.5	1.4
State of residence	1.6	1.8	1.8	1.3	1.2	1.2
County of residence			1.6			1.4
Portfolios, auditions, etc.	1.8	1.9	1.7	2.1	2.1	1.9
High school course work	2.5	2.9	3.2	3.1	3.3	3.3
College-level work in high school[b]			2.7			2.9
Declaration of major	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.7
Minority group membership[b]			2.2			1.8
Gender[b]			1.2			1.4
Disability group membership[b]			1.4			1.2
Full/part-time status[b]			1.2			1.4
Financial need	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.3	1.3
Number of institutions	333	412	366	648	823	784

[a] Average importance was computed as a mean where:

1=Not considered

2=A minor factor

3=A moderately important factor (in 1979, "one of several factors")

4=A very important factor

5=The single most important factor

[b] Not surveyed in 1979 and 1985.

Source: Breland, H.M., et al. 1995. *Challenges in College Admissions.* Washington, DC: AACRAO, ACT, The College Board, ETS, and NACAC, p. 75.

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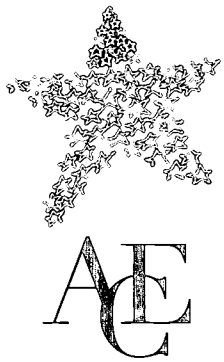

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