The Condition of Education 2009
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Commissioner’s Statement

Introduction
To ensure reliable, accurate, and timely data, which are necessary to monitor the progress of education in the United States, Congress has mandated that the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) produce an annual report, The Condition of Education. This year’s report presents 46 indicators of important developments and trends in U.S. education. These indicators focus on participation and persistence in education, student performance and other measures of achievement, the environment for learning, and resources for education.

This statement summarizes the main findings of the indicators, which are divided into the five sections shown below. Each indicator is referenced by its number in the volume (e.g., indicator 1).

Section 1—Participation in Education
As the U.S. population increases in size, so does enrollment at all levels of education. Because of mandatory enrollment laws at the elementary and secondary levels, growth is due largely to increases in the size of the school-age population. At the postsecondary level, both population growth and increasing enrollment rates help account for rising enrollments in undergraduate, graduate, and first-professional programs. The cohorts of learners have become more diverse over time, with Hispanic students, in particular, and to a lesser extent, students who are members of other racial/ethnic groups (in relation to White students) making up increasing proportions of the school-age population. Similarly, enrollment has risen among students who speak a language other than English at home.

- Between 1970 and 2007, children ages 3–4 (typically preschool ages) experienced the largest increase in enrollment rates, from 20 to 55 percent, of any age group. There was also notable growth in enrollment rates for the 18- to 24-year-old age group, the traditional college-age population. For those ages 18–19, the overall enrollment rate increased from 48 to 67 percent; for those ages 20–21, from 32 to 48 percent; and for those ages 22–24, from 15 to 27 percent (indicator 1).

- According to data from the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B), at about 9 months old, 2 years old, and 4 years old, smaller percentages of children in poverty were read to, told stories, or sung to daily by a family member, compared with children not in poverty. Children with other risk factors, such as having a mother whose highest level of education was less than a high school diploma or having a primary home language other than English, were also less likely to have family members who read to them, told them stories, and sang to them (indicator 2).

- A smaller percentage of children born in 2001 who were in poverty demonstrated proficiency in various cognitive skills when they were about 2 years old and 4 years old, compared with their peers who were at or above poverty, according to data from the ECLS-B. For example, 29 percent of 2-year-olds in poverty demonstrated proficiency in listening comprehension, compared with 39 percent of those at or above poverty. Twenty percent of 4-year-olds in poverty were proficient in letter recognition, compared with 37 percent of children at or above poverty (indicator 3).

- Total public school enrollment is projected to set new enrollment records each year from 2009 through 2018, reaching an estimated high of 53.9 million students in 2018. According to projections, 38.2 million will be enrolled in prekindergarten through grade 8 and 15.8 million in grades 9–12 in 2018. The South is expected to maintain the largest share of enrollment in 2018, with 40 percent of students residing in this region (indicator 4).

- Private school enrollment in prekindergarten through grade 12 increased from 5.9 million in 1995 to 6.3 million in 2001, and then decreased to 5.9 million in 2007. About 11 percent of all elementary and secondary school students were in private schools in 2007. While Roman Catholic schools maintained the largest share of total private school enrollment overall from 1995 to 2007, the percentage of private school students enrolled in nonsectarian schools increased from 20 to 22 percent during this period, and the percentage enrolled in Conservative Christian schools increased from 13 to 15 percent (indicator 5).

- In the spring of 2007, about 1.5 million, or 2.9 percent, of all school-age children in the United States were homeschooled, up from 850,000 (1.7 percent) in 1999 and 1.1 million (2.2 percent) in 2003. The most common reason parents gave as the most important for homeschooling their children in 2007 was a desire to provide religious or moral instruction; 36 percent of parents cited this reason, followed by a concern about school environment (21 percent), dissatisfaction with academic instruction (17 percent), and “other reasons” (14 percent) (indicator 6).
Between 1972 and 2007, the percentage of public school students who were White decreased from 78 to 56 percent. During this period, the percentage of students from other racial/ethnic groups increased from 22 to 44 percent; this increase largely reflects the growth in the percentage of students who were Hispanic. In 2007, the West had the largest combined enrollment of Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native students of any region. Beginning in 2003, the percentage of these students has exceeded the percentage of Whites who are enrolled, and in 2007, these students made up 57 percent of the total enrollment in this region (indicator 7).

Between 1979 and 2007, the number of school-age children (children ages 5–17) who spoke a language other than English at home increased from 3.8 to 10.8 million, or from 9 to 20 percent of the population in this age range. The percentage of school-age children who spoke English with difficulty increased from 3 to 6 percent between 1979 and 2000, but did not change measurably between 2000 and 2007. Of the school-age children who spoke a language other than English at home and who spoke English with difficulty, 75 percent (or 2.1 million) spoke Spanish (indicator 8).

Since the enactment of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1975, the number and percentage of children and youth receiving special education services increased nearly every year until 2004–05. In 1976–77, some 3.7 million children and youth (or about 5 percent) were served under IDEA. By 2006–07, some 6.7 million (or about 9 percent) were receiving services. The percentage receiving special education services for a specific learning disability, the most prevalent disability type among school-age children, was 3 percentage points higher in 2006–07 than in 1976–77 (5 vs. 2 percent) (indicator 9).

From 2000 to 2007, undergraduate enrollment increased 19 percent, from 13.2 to 15.6 million, at both public and private (not-for-profit and for-profit) institutions and is expected to reach 17.5 million in 2018. From 2000 to 2007, there were larger relative gains in female enrollment than male enrollment (20 vs. 16 percent) and in full-time enrollment than part-time enrollment (24 vs. 10 percent). Enrollment in private institutions also increased more than enrollment in public institutions (32 vs. 15 percent) between 2000 and 2007. Undergraduate enrollment at 2-year institutions increased from 5.9 to 6.6 million (11 percent) between 2000 and 2007, while at 4-year institutions it increased from 7.2 to 9.0 million (25 percent) (indicator 10).

Total graduate enrollment was 1.3 million in 1976; enrollment fluctuated between the mid-1970s and mid-1980s before increasing steadily to 2.3 million in 2007. An additional 244,000 students were enrolled in first-professional programs in 1976; enrollment fluctuated during the 1980s before increasing to 351,000 in 2007. Female enrollment in graduate and first-professional programs increased steadily between the mid-1970s and 2007, when it reached nearly 1.4 million at the graduate level and 173,000 at the first-professional level. Male enrollment increased overall at the graduate level to 910,000 in 2007 but decreased overall at the first-professional level to 178,000. For both graduate and first-professional programs, increases in total enrollment are projected to continue through 2018, with enrollment increasing at a faster rate for females than for males (indicator 11).

### Section 2—Learner Outcomes

How well do U.S. students and the American education system perform? Data from national and international assessments of students’ academic achievement can help address this question, as can data on adults’ educational experiences and earnings. In some areas, such as mathematics and reading, the performance of elementary and secondary students has shown some improvement over the past decade, but not on all assessments, in all grades assessed, or equally for all groups of students. The association between education and the earnings and employment of adults helps underscore the importance of education for individuals and society.

Average reading scores of 4th- and 8th-graders, assessed by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), were higher in 2007 than in 1992, by 4 and 3 points, respectively. The reading score of 12th-graders, however, was 6 points lower in 2005 than in 1992. In addition, average scores were higher in 2007 than in 1992 for White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian/Pacific Islander 4th-graders (ranging from 6 to 16 points), as well as for White, Black, and Hispanic 8th-graders (ranging from 5 to 7 points). The reading achievement gap between White and Black 4th-graders was smaller in 2007 than in all previous assessments, but the 2007 White-Hispanic gap was not measurably different from the 2005 or 1992 gap. There were no measurable changes in the 8th-grade White-Black or White-Hispanic reading achievement gaps in 2007 compared with 1992 or 2005 (indicator 12).

Average mathematics scores assessed by NAEP increased 27 points for 4th-graders and 19 points for 8th-graders from 1990 to 2007. Increases in scores were seen for males and females and for
students in most racial/ethnic groups. For example, the average mathematics scores in 2007 for White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian/Pacific Islander 4th-graders were higher than the scores in all previous assessments, as were the scores for White, Black, and Hispanic 8th-graders. At grade 4, the score for American Indian/Alaska Native students increased over time but did not differ measurably between 2005 and 2007; at grade 8, no measurable differences in scores were detected between 1990 and 2007. The mathematics achievement gap between White and Black 8th-graders was smaller in 2007 than in 2005, but there was no measurable change in the White-Hispanic gap between these years (indicator 13).

- Long-term trend results from NAEP indicate that the achievement of 9- and 13-year-olds in reading and mathematics improved between the early 1970s and 2008; however, the 2008 reading and mathematics scores of 17-year-olds were not measurably different from their scores in the early 1970s. In reading, 9-year-olds scored higher in 2008 than in any previous assessment, with an increase of 4 points since 2004 and 12 points since 1971. In mathematics, the average scores of 9- and 13-year-olds in 2008 were the highest of any assessment year (indicator 14).

- The 2007 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) assessed students’ mathematics performance in 36 countries at grade 4 and in 48 countries at grade 8. Results from TIMSS showed that U.S. 4th-graders scored higher in mathematics than their peers in 23 countries and lower than those in 8 countries. U.S. 8th-graders scored higher than their peers in 37 countries and lower than those in 5 countries. At both grades 4 and 8, U.S. students showed improvement in mathematics in 2007 compared with 1995 (indicator 15).

- The 2007 TIMSS assessed students’ science performance in 36 countries at grade 4 and in 48 countries at grade 8. Results from TIMSS showed that U.S. 4th-graders scored higher in science than their peers in 25 countries and lower than those in 4 countries. U.S. 8th-graders scored higher than their peers in 35 countries and lower than those in 9 countries. Compared with 1995, the average science scores for both 4th- and 8th-grade students were not measurably different in 2007 (indicator 16).

- For young adults ages 25–34 who worked full time throughout a full year, higher educational attainment was associated with higher median earnings in each year between 1995 and 2007. In 2007, young adults ages 25–34 with a bachelor’s degree earned 29 percent more than young adults with an associate’s degree and 55 percent more than young adult high school completers. The median earnings of young adults with a bachelor’s degree were $45,000, while the median earnings were $35,000 for those with an associate’s degree, $29,000 for high school completers, and $23,000 for those who did not earn a high school diploma or equivalent certificate. This pattern held for male, female, White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian young adults (indicator 17).

Section 3—Student Effort and Educational Progress

Many factors are associated with a student’s persistence and progress toward a high school diploma, college degree, or other credential. Factors such as the student’s effort and expectations, parents’ educational attainment, and family income are associated with various measures of educational attainment, including graduation and dropout rates, immediate college enrollment rates, and high school and postsecondary degree attainment. Monitoring these factors and tracking educational attainment provide key indicators for describing the progress of students and schooling in the United States.

- In 2007, about 10 percent of students in kindergarten (K) through grade 8 had ever been retained during their school career; this percentage fluctuated between 9 and 11 percent from 1996 to 2007. In 2007, a larger percentage of Black students than White students, Hispanic students, and students of other races/ethnicities had ever been retained; no measurable differences were found in either the White-Black or the White-Hispanic gap in the percentage of students who had ever been retained between 1996 and 2007. In addition, in each survey year, the percentage of students in grades K–8 who had ever been retained was larger among students from poor families than among students from near-poor or nonpoor families. For example, in 2007, some 23 percent of students from poor families had ever been retained, compared with 5 percent of students from nonpoor families (indicator 18).

- Among public high school students in the class of 2005–06, about three-quarters graduated on time, based on an estimate of the percentage of an incoming freshman class that graduates 4 years later. Wisconsin had the highest averaged freshman graduation rate in 2005–06, at 87.5 percent. Thirteen other states had rates of 80 percent or more, and 10 other states had rates below 70
percent. The overall averaged freshman graduation rate increased from 71.7 percent in 2000–01 to 74.7 percent in 2004–05 and then decreased to 73.4 percent in 2005–06 (indicator 19).

The status dropout rate represents the percentage of 16- through 24-year-olds who are not enrolled in school and have not earned a high school diploma or equivalent credential, such as a General Educational Development (GED) certificate. In 2007, the status dropout rate was 9 percent, down from 14 percent in 1980. In general, dropout rates for Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics declined between 1980 and 2007, although in each year between 1980 and 2007, the status dropout rate was lower for Whites and Blacks than for Hispanics. In 2007, foreign-born Hispanics dropped out at a higher rate than native-born Hispanics, while the opposite trend by nativity held for Whites and Blacks (indicator 20).

The rate of college enrollment immediately after high school completion increased from 49 percent in 1972 to 67 percent in 1997 and fluctuated between 62 and 69 percent through 2007. For family income, despite an overall narrowing of the gaps, the immediate college enrollment rates of high school completers from low- and middle-income families trailed those of their peers from high-income families by more than 10 percentage points in each year between 1972 and 2007. Differences in the immediate college enrollment rate by race/ethnicity have also persisted over time. For example, enrollment rates for Black and Hispanic high school completers have been lower than for their White peers almost every year since 1985 (indicator 21).

About 58 percent of first-time students seeking a bachelor’s degree or its equivalent and attending a 4-year institution full time in 2000–01 completed a bachelor’s degree or its equivalent at that institution within 6 years. Six-year graduation rates were higher at private not-for-profit 4-year institutions (65 percent) than at public 4-year institutions (55 percent) or private for-profit 4-year institutions (33 percent). Asian/Pacific Islander students had the highest 6-year graduation rate (67 percent), followed by Whites (60 percent), and Hispanics (49 percent). Blacks and American Indians/Alaska Natives had the lowest graduation rates of the five racial/ethnic groups (42 percent and 40 percent, respectively) (indicator 22).

In 2008, some 88 percent of 25- to 29-year-olds had received a high school diploma or equivalency certificate, 31 percent had attained a bachelor’s degree or higher, and 7 percent had completed a master’s degree. The rate of educational attainment in this age group was higher in 2000 than in 1971 at all levels. For example, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds who had completed a bachelor’s degree or higher increased from 17 to 29 percent between 1971 and 2000 and was 31 percent in 2008. The percentage of young adults who had received a high school diploma or equivalency certificate also increased from 78 percent in 1971 to 88 percent in 2008. Although the percentage of young adults with a bachelor’s degree increased for all racial/ethnic groups, the gaps widened between Whites and their Black and Hispanic peers between 1971 and 2008 (indicator 23).

While the number of degrees earned by White students increased between 1996–97 and 2006–07, the number awarded to students from other racial/ethnic groups grew at a faster rate at each degree level. For example, the number of bachelor’s degrees awarded to White students increased by 22 percent while the number awarded to students from other racial/ethnic groups increased by 62 percent. During this period, the percentage of associate’s degrees awarded to students from other racial/ethnic groups increased from 23 to 31 percent, and the percentage of master’s degrees increased from 15 to 23 percent. At each degree level, the number of degrees earned grew at a faster rate for females than for males between 1996–97 and 2006–07 (indicator 24).

Section 4—Contexts of Elementary and Secondary Education

The school environment is described by a number of features, including the characteristics of teachers and staff, student/teacher ratios, the racial/ethnic distribution of students, parental involvement, and the climate for learning. Variations in current expenditures and differences in how expenditures are spent are also important features to consider. Monitoring these and other factors provides a more complete picture of the conditions in schools that can influence education. Society also influences and supports education through means including learning activities that take place outside school, as well as through financial support.

In 2006–07, greater percentages of Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native students attended high-poverty schools—defined as public schools where more than 75 percent of students are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch—than did White or Asian/Pacific Islander students. A similar pattern was found among racial/ethnic groups within different school locales: in each locale (cities,
suburban areas, towns, and rural areas), higher percentages of Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native students attended high-poverty schools than did their White and Asian/Pacific Islander peers (indicator 25).

- In 2006–07, public schools in which 75 percent or more of the students are Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, or American Indian/Alaska Native enrolled 24 percent of all public elementary and secondary school students. However, over half of all Hispanic and Black students attended such schools, compared with 33 percent of Asian/Pacific Islander students, 29 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native students, and 3 percent of White students. A greater percentage of students in cities attended such schools than in suburban areas, towns, or rural areas (indicator 26).

- During the 2005–06 school year, 78 percent of public schools experienced one or more violent incidents, 17 percent of schools experienced at least one serious violent incident, 46 percent experienced one or more thefts, and 68 percent experienced one or more other incidents. There was variation in the number of incidents of violent and serious violent crimes among schools. For example, 46 percent of schools experienced 20 or more violent incidents, compared with 8 percent that experienced 6–9 violent incidents, and 22 percent that experienced no such incidents (indicator 27).

- In 2006, about 7 percent of all public school students, or 1 out of every 14 students, were suspended from school at least once during the year, and about 0.2 percent, or 1 out of every 476 students, were expelled from school. Student suspension and expulsion rates varied by race/ethnicity: in 2006, greater percentages of Black students were suspended and expelled from school than of their White, Asian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native peers. For example, about 15 percent of Black students were suspended, compared with 8 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native students, 7 percent of Hispanic students, 5 percent of White students, and 3 percent of Asian/Pacific Islander students (indicator 28).

- The 2007 TIMSS asked mathematics and science teachers of 4th- and 8th-graders to report on their participation in several areas of professional development in the 2 years before the assessment. In 2007, the percentage of 4th-graders whose mathematics teachers reported participating in professional development in their subject content area ranged from 22 percent in Italy to 60 percent in the United States and 66 percent in the Russian Federation. The percentage of 8th-graders with such teachers ranged from 16 percent in Italy to 81 percent in the United States and 84 percent in the Russian Federation. In the United States, 42 percent of 4th-grade science teachers and 82 percent of 8th-grade science teachers reported participating in professional development in content (indicator 29).

- In 2007, some 89 percent of students had parents who reported attending a general school or PTO/PTA meeting. Other activities included attending parent-teacher conferences (78 percent), participating in school fundraising (65 percent), and volunteering/serving on a school committee (46 percent). Participation in school-related activities was greater for parents of kindergarten (K) students through 8th-graders than for parents of 9th- through 12-graders. Additionally, parental participation in school-related activities was higher for students from nonpoor families than poor families. For example, 58 percent of K through 8th-grade students in nonpoor families had parents who reported volunteering or serving on a school committee, compared with 32 percent of students in poor families (indicator 30).

- The ratio of students to teachers, which is sometimes used as a proxy measure for class size, declined between 1990 and 2006, from 17.6 to 15.9 students per teacher for all regular public schools. In every year during this period, the student/teacher ratios tended to be higher in public schools with larger enrollments than in public schools with smaller enrollments. For example, in 2006, regular secondary schools with enrollments of 1,500 or more enrolled 6.5 more students per teacher, on average, than regular secondary schools with enrollments under 300 students (indicator 31).

- The percentage of children whose parents enrolled them in a public school other than their assigned public school increased from 11 to 16 percent between 1993 and 2007. Some choice among public schools was available to 46 percent of students in 2007, according to their parents’ reports. Among students whose parents reported having public school choice, approximately 25 percent attended a chosen public school, while 67 percent attended their assigned school. The other 9 percent attended a private school (indicator 32).

- From 1989–90 to 2005–06, total elementary and secondary school revenue increased by 59 percent in 2007–08 constant dollars, from $348 to $554 billion. Federal revenue increased 139 percent, compared with increases of 57 percent for state revenue and 51 percent for local revenue. During
this period, the percentage of total revenue for public elementary and secondary education from local sources declined (from 47 to 44 percent), while the percentage of total revenue flowing to public schools from federal sources increased (from 6 to 9 percent), and the percentage from state sources stayed the same (47 percent) (indicator 33).

From 1989–90 to 2005–06, total expenditures per student in public elementary and secondary schools rose by 31 percent in 2007–08 constant dollars, from $8,627 to $11,293, with most of the increase occurring after 1997–98. The various components of expenditures increased at different rates during this time period. Spending on interest on school debt increased the fastest, at a rate of 100 percent, followed by capital outlay (70 percent) and current expenditures (26 percent) (indicator 34).

Across U.S. districts, the total variation in instruction expenditures per student decreased between school years 1989–90 and 1997–98, but increased each year from 1997–98 through 2005–06. In 2005–06, it was greater than it was in the early 1990s. Variations in instruction expenditures due to both between- and within-state differences increased from 1997–98 through 2005–06 (indicator 35).

Between 1995–96 and 2005–06, current expenditures per student in public elementary and secondary schools increased by 25 percent in 2007–08 constant dollars, from $7,619 to $9,553. Current expenditures per student, which include instructional, administrative, and operation and maintenance expenditures, were highest in high-poverty districts ($10,458) and low-poverty districts ($10,447) and were lowest in middle-poverty districts ($8,630). Expenditures increased the most for high-poverty and middle high-poverty districts (30 percent) and the least for middle-poverty districts (21 percent) (indicator 36).

In 2005, U.S. expenditures per student at the postsecondary level were $24,370—more than twice as high as the average of $11,821 for the member countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) who reported data. At the combined elementary and secondary level, the United States spent $9,769 per student, which was 38 percent higher than the OECD average of $7,065 (indicator 37).

In 2007, some 64 percent of college students were White, 13 percent were Black, 11 percent were Hispanic, 7 percent were Asian/Pacific Islander, 1 percent were American Indian/Alaska Native, and 3 percent were students from other countries. About 7 percent of all college students attended institutions in which 75 percent or more of the students were Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, or American Indian/Alaska Native. At public 2-year institutions, 8 percent of enrollment was at such institutions, compared with 6 percent at public 4-year institutions. Larger percentages of students who were Hispanic and Black attended such institutions than students who were White, American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian/Pacific Islander, and nonresident alien (indicator 38).

In the 1969–70 academic year, 135,000 students from other countries were enrolled in postsecondary institutions in the United States. International student enrollment increased each year through 2002–03 to 586,000 students, declined over the next few years to 565,000 in 2005–06, and increased again to 583,000 in 2006–07 and to 624,000 in 2007–08. International students accounted for 3 percent of students at the postsecondary level in 2007–08; this percentage has remained between 3 and 4 percent since 1992–93. The top three countries of origin for international students studying in the United States in 2007–08 were India, China, and South Korea (indicator 39).

Of the 1.5 million bachelor’s degrees awarded in 2006–07, over 50 percent were concentrated in five fields: business (21 percent); social sciences and history (11 percent), education (7 percent), health professions and related clinical sciences (7 percent), and psychology (6 percent). Overall, more bachelor’s degrees were awarded in 2006–07 than in 1996–97 (a 30 percent increase). In addition, in 2006–07, about 57 percent of all bachelor’s degrees conferred were awarded to females; females also earned between 49 and 86 percent of all degrees awarded in the five most prevalent bachelor’s degree fields (indicator 40).
In 2006–07, of the 605,000 master’s degrees awarded, over 50 percent were concentrated in two fields: education (29 percent) and business (25 percent). In these fields, women earned 77 and 44 percent, respectively, of all degrees awarded. Overall, 185,000 more master’s degrees were awarded in 2006–07 than in 1996–97 (a 44 percent increase). The number of doctoral degrees awarded also increased by 32 percent during this period, and there was a 62 percent increase in doctoral degrees awarded to women. Between 1996–97 and 2006–07, there was a 14 percent increase in the number of first-professional degrees awarded (indicator 41).

Between 1996–97 and 2006–07, the number of associate’s, bachelor’s, master’s, and doctoral degrees conferred by private for-profit institutions increased by a larger percentage than the number conferred by public and private not-for-profit institutions. For example, during this period, the number of bachelor’s degrees conferred by private for-profit institutions increased from 12,100 to 70,800 degrees, compared with an increase from 776,700 to 975,500 degrees for public institutions, an increase from 384,100 to 477,800 degrees for private not-for-profit institutions. In addition, the number of master’s degrees conferred by private for-profit institutions increased from 5,100 to 50,900 (indicator 42).

Average inflation-adjusted salaries for full-time instructional faculty with academic ranks in colleges and universities were 22 percent higher in 2007–08 than in 1979–80. The increase was greatest for instructors, whose average salary increased by 44 percent, followed by professors, whose average salary increased by 27 percent. The average salary was higher at all types of institutions, ranging from an increase of 7 percent at public 2-year colleges to 38 percent at private doctoral universities. However, after larger increases during the 1980s and 1990s, recent increases in faculty salaries have been relatively small (2 percent between 1999–2000 and 2007–08) (indicator 43).

The percentage of full-time college students ages 16–24 who were employed increased from 34 to 52 percent between 1970 and 2000, decreased to 47 percent in 2001, and fluctuated between 46 and 49 percent during the period of 2001 through 2007. In addition, the number of hours these students worked has increased since 1970. For example, in 1970, about 4 percent of full-time students worked 35 or more hours per week, but for each year between 2000 and 2007, that percentage was between 8 and 9 percent. In contrast to the increase among full-time college students, there was no measurable change in the percentage of part-time college students who were employed between 1970 and 2007. Part-time college students also worked fewer hours in 2007 than they did in 1970 (indicator 44).

Nearly three-quarters (73 percent) of full-time, first-time undergraduates received a student loan or grant in 2006–07. The percentage of students receiving financial aid was higher at private not-for-profit institutions (85 percent) than at public institutions (70 percent) and private for-profit institutions (69 percent). A lower percentage (61 percent) of undergraduates at public 2-year institutions received financial aid than did undergraduates at public 4-year institutions (75 percent). In 2006–07, the average federal grant was $3,841 at not-for-profit institutions, compared with $3,214 at public institutions and $2,878 at for-profit institutions. Average awards for state/local grants followed a similar pattern, while for institutional grants the average award at not-for-profit institutions was $11,122, compared with $3,439 at public institutions and $1,602 at for-profit institutions (indicator 45).

In 2006–07, student tuition accounted for 17 percent of the total revenue for public institutions, 26 percent for private not-for-profit institutions, and 75 percent for private for-profit institutions. State appropriations (24 percent) were the largest source of revenue for public institutions, while tuition and fees (17 percent) were the second largest source. For expenditures in 2006–07, instruction was the largest expenditure category for both public and private not-for-profit institutions. At private for-profit institutions, the largest single expenditure category was student services (indicator 46).

Conclusion

The U.S. education system is expected to continue growing in the years to come. In elementary and secondary education, following population shifts, enrollments are projected to increase each year through 2018 to an all-time high of 54 million, with the South expected to experience the largest increase in enrollments. Enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions at both the undergraduate and graduate levels is projected to increase through 2018, the last year for which projections have been developed.

These increases in enrollment have been accompanied by a growing diversity of students. Between 1972 and 2007,
the percentage of public school students who were White decreased from 78 to 56 percent and the percentage who were of members of other races and ethnicities increased from 32 percent to 44 percent. This increase largely reflects the consistent growth in the percentage of students who were Hispanic, which rose from 6 percent of students to 21 percent of students during this period. The percentage of school-age children who speak a language other than English at home and who speak English with difficulty increased from 3 to 6 percent between 1979 and 2000, but did not change measurably between 2000 and 2007. Although a higher percentage of Black and Hispanic than White students drop out of high school, and a smaller percentage of Black and Hispanic high school completers go to college immediately after high school graduation, there have been changes in the composition of college students and graduates as well. Part of these changes has been driven by population shifts, but part is also the result of greater percentages of people enrolling in college. Between 1996–97 and 2006–07, the number of bachelor’s degrees awarded to Hispanics increased by 84 percent, and the number of master’s degrees awarded to Black and Hispanic students more than doubled.

Over the long-term, there has been improvement in the scores of 9- and 13-year-olds on national reading and mathematics assessments since the early 1970s, reflecting increases for White, Black, and Hispanic students. Although the overall average score of 17-year-olds remained flat between 1971 and 2008, there were increases for White, Black, and Hispanic 17-year-olds. While performance improved for each group of 17-year-olds, the overall average did not reflect that progress because of the shifting composition of students. The percentage of White students (who have traditionally had higher average assessment scores) decreased in proportion to the percentages of students in other racial/ethnic groups, while the percentages of Black and Hispanic students increased. In the short-term, progress on national assessments in reading and mathematics has been made among 4th- and 8th-graders since the early 1990s, but reading scores for 12th-graders have declined. On both mathematics and reading assessments, significant achievement gaps among racial/ethnic groups—particularly in the higher grades—remain. International assessments show that U.S. 4th- and 8th-graders scored above the international averages in science and mathematics in 2007. In mathematics, U.S. students at both grades have shown improvement since 1995. By comparison, performance in science has not measurably changed. Other measures of progress show a decline in the status dropout rate among students in all racial/ethnic groups and increases in rates of postsecondary degree attainment by Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native students.

NCES produces an array of reports each year that present findings about the U.S. education system. The Condition of Education 2009 is the culmination of a yearlong project. It includes data that were available by April 2009. In the coming months, other reports and surveys informing the nation about education will be released. Along with the indicators in this volume, NCES intends these surveys and reports to help inform policymakers and the American public about trends and conditions in U.S. education.
The Condition of Education is available in two forms: this print volume for 2009 and a Web version on the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) website (http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe). The Web version includes the following: the 2009 Commissioner's statement, a user's guide, special analyses from 2000 through 2008, all indicators from this edition, and selected indicators from earlier editions of The Condition of Education. (See page xxvii for a list of all the indicators that appear on The Condition of Education website.)

The print volume of The Condition of Education 2009 is divided into five sections of indicators. Each section begins with a summary of the general topic areas covered by the indicators in the section. Each indicator consists of a page with key findings and technical notes, one or two figures and/or tables on the adjacent page, and one or more supplemental tables, found in appendix A. The supplemental tables feature the estimates used in the indicator discussion as well as additional estimates related to the indicator. Where applicable, tables of standard errors for estimate tables are available on the Web (http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe). Additional information on data sources, analyses conducted, and definitions of variables and measures can be found in the supplemental notes in appendix B. Finally, a glossary of key terms, a bibliography, and an index are featured in appendices C–E.

This icon on the main indicator page lists references for related indicators, supplemental tables, glossary terms, and other sources that provide more information relating to the indicator.

Indicators use the most recent national and international data available from either NCES or other sources that are relevant to the indicator. When the source is an NCES publication, such as the Digest of Education Statistics, 2008 (NCES 2009-020), the publication can be viewed at the NCES website (http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch).

Data Sources and Estimates

The data in this report were obtained from many different sources—including students and teachers, state education agencies, local schools, and colleges and universities—using surveys and compilations of administrative records. Users of The Condition of Education should be cautious when comparing data from different sources. Differences in aspects such as procedures, timing, question phrasing, and interviewer training can affect the comparability of results across data sources.

Most indicators in The Condition of Education summarize data from surveys conducted by NCES or by the Census Bureau with support from NCES. Brief explanations of the major NCES surveys used in this edition of The Condition of Education can be found in supplemental notes 3 and 4 of this volume. More detailed explanations can be obtained on the NCES website (http://nces.ed.gov) under “Surveys and Programs.” Information about the Current Population Survey (CPS), another frequent source of survey data used in The Condition of Education, can be found in supplemental note 2 as well as at http://www.census.gov/cps/.

Data for indicators reported in this volume are obtained primarily from two types of surveys: universe surveys and sample surveys. Some indicators report data taken from entire populations (universe surveys), such as indicator 36 (Public School Expenditures by District Poverty). With this type of survey, information is collected from every member of the population. For example, data for indicator 36 were obtained for each school district in the United States. When data from an entire population are available, estimates of the total population or a subpopulation are made by simply summing the units in the population or subpopulation. A universe survey is usually expensive and time consuming, so researchers often opt to collect data from a sample of the population of interest (sample survey). Other indicators report data from sample surveys, such as indicator 12 (Reading Performance and Achievement Gaps). Indicator 12 reports information from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), which assesses a representative sample of students rather than the entire population of students.

When a sample survey is used, statistical uncertainty is introduced because data come from only a portion of the entire population. This statistical uncertainty must be considered when reporting estimates and making comparisons.

Various types of estimates derived from universe and sample surveys are reported in The Condition of Education. Many indicators report the size of a population or a subpopulation, and often the size of a subpopulation is expressed as a percentage of the total population. In addition, the average (or mean) values of some characteristic of the population or subpopulation may be reported. The average is obtained by summing the values for all members of the population and dividing the sum by the size of the population. An example is the annual average salaries of full-time instructional faculty at degree-granting institutions (indicator 43). Another population measure that is sometimes used is the median. The median is the value of a population characteristic at or above which 50 percent of the population is estimated to fall and at or below which 50 percent of the population is estimated to fall. An example is the median annual earnings of young adults who are full-time, full-year wage and salary workers (indicator 17).

Estimates based on universe and sample survey data may be affected by a wide range of potential data collection...
errors, such as coverage errors, response errors, data coding errors, and data entry errors. Estimates of the size of these types of errors are typically not available.

Using estimates calculated from data based on a sample of the population requires consideration of several factors before the estimates become meaningful. However conscientious an organization may be in collecting data from a sample of a population, some margin of error will always be present in estimations of the size of the actual total population or subpopulation because the data are available from only a portion of the total population. Consequently, data from samples can provide only an approximation of the true or actual value. The margin of error, or the range, of an estimate depends on several factors, including the amount of variation in the responses, the size and representativeness of the sample, and the size of the subgroup for which the estimate is computed. The magnitude of this margin of error is measured by what statisticians call the “standard error” of an estimate.

Standard Errors

When data from sample surveys are reported, as is the case with most of the indicators in The Condition of Education, the standard error is calculated for each estimate. The standard errors for all estimated totals, means, medians, or percentages reported in the supplemental tables of The Condition of Education can be viewed at the NCES website (http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe).

The standard errors of the estimates for different subpopulations in an indicator can vary. As an illustration, indicator 14 reports the average mathematics scores of 13-year-old students between 1973 and 2008. In both 1994 and 1996, the average mathematics score for 13-year-olds was 274 (see table A-14-2). In contrast to the similarity of these scores, the standard errors for these estimates were 0.9 and 1.0, respectively (see table S-14-2). The average score with the smaller standard error provides a more reliable approximation of the true value than does the average score with a higher standard error. In addition, standard errors tend to diminish in size as the size of the sample (or subsample) increases.

For indicator 17, which reports median annual earnings, special procedures are followed for computing the standard errors for these medians. See appendix G of the source and accuracy statement for the Current Population Study (CPS) 2008 Annual Social and Economic supplement (ASEC) for information on how to calculate the standard errors (http://www.census.gov/apsd/techdoc/cps/cpsmar08.pdf).

Data Analysis and Interpretation

When estimates are from a sample, caution is warranted when drawing conclusions about the size of one population estimate in comparison to another, or about whether a time series of population estimates is increasing, decreasing, or staying about the same. Although one estimate may be larger than another, a statistical test may find that there is no measurable difference between the two estimates because of the standard error associated with one or both of the estimates. Whether differences in means or percentages are statistically significant can be determined using the standard errors of the estimates.

Readers who wish to compare two sample estimates to see if there is a statistical difference will need to estimate the precision of the difference between the two sample estimates. This would be necessary if one wanted to compare, for example, the mean proficiency scores between groups assessed in the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). To estimate the precision of the difference between two sample estimates, one must find the standard error of the difference between the two sample estimates ($E_A$ and $E_B$). Expressed mathematically, the difference between the two is $E_A - E_B$. The standard error of the difference ($se_{A-B}$) can be calculated by taking the square root of the sum of the two standard errors associated with each of the two sample estimates ($se_A$ and $se_B$) after each has been squared. This relationship can be expressed as

$$se_{A-B} = \sqrt{se_A^2 + se_B^2}$$

After finding the standard error of the difference, one divides the difference between the two sample estimates by this standard error to determine the “$t$ value,” or “$t$ statistic,” of the difference between the two estimates. This $t$ statistic measures the precision of the difference between two independent sample estimates. The formula for calculating this ratio is expressed mathematically as

$$t = \frac{E_A - E_B}{se_{A-B}}$$

Assuming a normal distribution, the next step is to compare this $t$ statistic to 1.96, the statistically determined value for making a decision at a 95 percent confidence level as to whether there is a statistical difference between two estimates. A 95 percent confidence level means that if a test is conducted 100 times, only 5 times out of 100 would it be expected that the difference between the two sample estimates ($E_A$ and $E_B$) is due to chance alone. Therefore, if the $t$ statistic is greater than 1.96, then there is evidence that a difference exists between the two populations. If the $t$ statistic is equal to or less than 1.96, then there is less certainty that the observed difference is a real difference and is not
simply due to sampling error. This level of certitude, or significance, is commonly referred to as the “.05 level of (statistical) significance.”

As an example of a comparison between two sample estimates to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the two, consider the data on the performance of 12th-grade students in the 1992 and 2005 NAEP reading assessments (see table A-12-1). The average scale score in 1992 was 292 and the average scale score in 2005 was 286. Is the difference of 6 scale points between these two different samples statistically significant? The standard errors of these estimates are 0.6 and 0.6, respectively (see table S-12-1). Using the formula above, the standard error of the difference is 0.85. The statistic of the estimated difference of 6 scale points to the standard error of the difference is 7.07. This value is greater than 1.96—the critical value of the t distribution for a .05 level of significance with a large sample. Thus, one can conclude that there was a statistically significant difference in the performance of 12th-graders between 1992 and 2005 in reading and that the reading score for 12th-graders in 2005 was lower than the reading score for 12th-graders in 1992.

For all indicators in The Condition of Education that report estimates based on samples, differences between estimates (including increases or decreases) are stated only when they are statistically significant. To determine whether differences reported are statistically significant, two-tailed t tests at the .05 level are typically used. The t test formula for determining statistical significance is adjusted when the samples being compared are dependent. The t test formula is not adjusted when performing multiple comparisons. When the difference between estimates is not statistically significant, tests of equivalence are often used. An equivalence test determines the probability (generally at the .15 level) that the estimates are statistically equivalent, that is, within the margin of error that the two estimates are not substantively different. When the difference is found to be equivalent, language such as “x” and “y” “were similar” or “about the same” has been used; otherwise, the data will be described as having “no measurable difference.” When the variables to be tested are postulated to form a trend, the relationship may be tested using linear regression, logistic regression, or ANOVA trend analysis instead of a series of t tests. These other methods of analysis test for specific relationships (e.g., linear, quadratic, or cubic) among variables.

A number of considerations influence the ultimate selection of data years featured in The Condition of Education. To make analyses as timely as possible, the latest year of data is shown if it is available during report production. The choice of comparison years is often also based on the need to show the earliest available survey year, as in the case of the NAEP and the international assessment surveys. In the case of surveys with long time frames, such as for enrollment, the decade’s beginning year (e.g., 1980 or 1990) often starts the trend line. In the figures and tables of the indicators, intervening years are selected in increments in order to show the general trend. The narrative for the indicators typically compares the most current year’s data with those from the initial year and then with those from a more recent period. Where applicable, the narrative may also note years in which the data begin to diverge from previous trends.

Variations in Population

In considering the estimates in the tables and figures shown in this volume and on the NCES website, it is important to keep in mind that there may be considerable variation among the members of a population in the characteristic or variable represented by the population estimate. For example, the estimated average mathematics score of U.S. 4th-graders in 2007 was 529 (see table A-15-1). In reality, many U.S. students scored above 529 points, and many scored below 529 points. Likewise, not all faculty salaries, benefits, and total compensation at postsecondary institutions were the same at each type of institution in 2007–08 (indicator 43). Because of this variation, there may be considerable overlap among the members of two populations that are being compared. Although the difference in the estimated means of the two populations may be statistically significant, many members of the population with the lower estimated mean may be above the estimated mean of the other population, and vice versa. For example, there may be a percentage of young adults with a high school diploma or equivalent that have higher earnings than young adults with a bachelor’s degree or higher (indicator 17).

The extent of such overlap is not generally considered in the indicators in this volume. Estimates of the extent of variation in such population characteristics can be computed from the NCES survey datasets or are available in published reports. For example, estimates of the variation in students’ assessment scores can be found using the NAEP Data Explorer at http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/nde/ or in the appendices to most NAEP reports.

Rounding and Other Considerations

All calculations within The Condition of Education are based on unrounded estimates. Therefore, the reader may find that a calculation, such as a difference or a percentage change, cited in the text or figure may not be identical to the calculation obtained by using the rounded values shown in the accompanying tables. Although values
reported in the supplemental tables are generally rounded
to one decimal place (e.g., 76.5 percent), values reported
in each indicator are generally rounded to whole numbers
(with any value of 0.50 or above rounded to the next
highest whole number). Due to rounding, cumulative
percentages may sometimes equal 99 or 101 percent
rather than 100 percent.

Indicators in this volume that use the Current Price Index
(CPI) use a base academic year of 2007–08 and a base
calendar year of 2007 for constant dollar calculations. For
more information on the CPI, see supplemental note 10.

Race and ethnicity

The categories denoting race and ethnicity in The
Condition of Education are in accordance with the 1997
Office of Management and Budget (OMB) standard
classification scheme. These classifications are based
primarily on the respondent’s self-identification, as is
the case with data collected by the U.S. Census Bureau,
or, in rare instances, on observer identification. Under
the OMB standards, race and ethnicity are considered
separate concepts. “Hispanic or Latino” is an ethnicity
category, not a racial category. Race categories presented
in The Condition of Education 2009 exclude persons of
Hispanic ethnicity; thus, the race/ethnicity categories are
mutually exclusive.

Ethnicity is categorized as follows:

- Hispanic or Latino: A person of Cuban, Mexican,
  Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other
  Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race.

Racial groupings are as follows:

- American Indian or Alaska Native: A person having
  origins in any of the original peoples of North
  and South America (including Central America)
  who maintains tribal affiliation or community
  attachment.

- Asian: A person having origins in any of the original
  peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, and the
  Indian subcontinent, including, for example,
  Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia,
  Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam.

- Black: A person having origins in any of the Black
  racial groups of Africa.

- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander: A person
  having origins in any of the original peoples of
  Hawai‘i, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands.

- White: A person having origins in any of the
  original peoples of Europe, North Africa, or the
  Middle East.

- More than one race: A person who selected two
  or more of the following racial categories when
  offered the option of selecting one or more racial
designations: White, Black, Asian, Native Hawaiian
  or Other Pacific Islander, or American Indian or
  Alaska Native.

In The Condition of Education, the following terms are
typically used to represent the above categories: White,
Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American
Indian/Alaska Native, and More than one race. Not
all categories are shown in all indicators. For more
information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1.

Symbols

In accordance with the NCES Statistical Standards, many
tables in this volume use a series of symbols to alert the
reader to special statistical notes. These symbols, and their
meanings, are as follows:

- Not available. Data were not collected or not
  reported.
- † Not applicable. Category does not exist.
- # Rounds to zero. The estimate rounds to zero.
- ! Interpret data with caution. Estimates are
  unstable.
- ‡ Reporting standards not met. Did not meet
  reporting standards.
- * \( p < .05 \) Significance level.\(^1\)

Notes

\(^1\) This level of significance means that the chance is less than 5 out
of 100 that a difference was found between two estimates when no
real difference exists.
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The indicators in this section of *The Condition of Education* report trends in enrollments across all levels of education. There are 16 indicators in this section: 11, prepared for this year's volume, appear on the following pages, and all 16, including indicators from previous years, appear on the Web (see the List of Indicators on *The Condition of Education* website in the Contents section for a full list of the indicators). Enrollment is a key indicator of the scope of and access to educational opportunities and is a basic descriptor of American education. Changes in enrollment have implications for the demand for educational resources, such as qualified teachers, physical facilities, and funding levels, which are required to provide a high-quality education for our nation's students.

The indicators in this section are organized into an overview subsection, which is made up of an indicator on enrollment rates reported by age group, and a series of subsections organized by level of the education system. These levels are preprimary education, elementary and secondary education, undergraduate education, graduate and professional education, and adult education.

The indicator in the first subsection compares rates of enrollment in formal education programs across certain age groups in the population. Looking at trends in the enrollment rates of individuals provides a perspective on the education of the U.S. population at different points in the life cycle and over time.

An indicator on the website describes participation in center-based early childhood care and education programs, such as Head Start, nursery school, and prekindergarten, which can help to prepare children for elementary school and can also serve as child care for parents. Two of the indicators on the following pages present aspects of family involvement in cultivating certain developmental areas in the preprimary years, which also plays a role in preparing children for formal education. Elementary and secondary education provide knowledge and skills that prepare students for further learning and productive membership in society. Because enrollment at the elementary and secondary levels is mandatory in most states until at least age 16, and in a number of states until age 17 or 18, changes in enrollment are driven primarily by shifts in the size and composition of the school-age population, as well as by shifts in the types of schools students attend, including public schools, private schools, and homeschooling. These factors are examined in indicators on the following pages. Postsecondary education offers students opportunities to gain advanced knowledge and skills either immediately after high school or later in life. Because postsecondary education is voluntary, changes in total undergraduate enrollments typically reflect fluctuations in enrollment rates and the perceived availability and value of postsecondary education, as well as the size of college-age populations. Graduate and professional enrollments constitute an important segment of postsecondary education, allowing students to pursue advanced coursework in a variety of areas. Indicators on postsecondary enrollment are found in this volume. An indicator on the Web describes adult education, which includes formal education activities in which adults participate in order to upgrade their work skills, to change careers, or to expand personal interests.

Some of the indicators in these subsections provide information about the characteristics of the students who are enrolled and, in some cases, how enrollment for different types of students varies across schools. For example, indicators that appear in this volume describe the racial/ethnic distributions of public school students, the number and characteristics of children who speak a language other than English at home, and the number and percentage of children with disabilities.

The indicators on participation in education from previous editions of *The Condition of Education*, which are not included in this volume, are available at [http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe).
Changes in enrollment patterns may reflect changes in attendance requirements, the perceived value or cost of education, as well as the time taken to complete degrees. Changes in the total enrollment rates varied by age group between 1970 and 2007: these rates increased for those ages 3–4, 5–6, 18–19, 20–24, 25–29, and 30–34, remained around 100 percent for those ages 7–13, and fluctuated between 93 and 96 percent for those ages 14–17.

Between 1970 and 2007, the enrollment rate for children ages 3–4 (the ages at which children are typically enrolled in nursery school) increased from 20 to 55 percent. Some of the increase between 1970 and 2007 may reflect changes to the data collection method in 1994; however, by 1994, the rate of nursery school attendance had already doubled from the 1970 rate. As of September 2008, of the 50 states and the District of Columbia, there were 33 states that did not require kindergarten attendance (see table A-1-2). The enrollment rate for children ages 5–6 (the ages at which children are typically enrolled in kindergarten or 1st grade) increased from 90 percent in 1970 to 96 percent in 1976 and has since remained stable (see table A-1-1). For youth ages 7–13, the enrollment rate has remained at nearly 100 percent over the past 37 years, reflecting states’ minimum compulsory age requirements for school attendance (see table A-1-2). The enrollment rate for 14- to 17-year olds has been slightly lower during this period (between 93 and 96 percent), with no measurable differences during the past 5 years (see table A-1-1). The maximum compulsory age of school attendance varies between the ages of 16 and 18 (see table A-1-2).

Young adults ages 18–19 are typically transitioning into postsecondary education or the workforce. Between 1970 and 2007, the overall enrollment rate for young adults ages 18–19 increased from 48 to 67 percent (see table A-1-1). During this time period, the enrollment rate for 18- to 19-year-olds at the elementary/secondary level increased from 10 to 18 percent, while enrollment for 18- to 19-year-olds at the postsecondary level rose from 37 to 49 percent. There were no measurable differences in these rates at either level during the past 5 years, although in 2007 the postsecondary enrollment rate for young adults ages 18–19 was among the highest recorded.

Adults ages 20–34 who are enrolled in school are usually enrolled in postsecondary education. Between 1970 and 2007, the enrollment rate for young adults ages 20–21 increased from 32 to 48 percent, and the rate for those ages 22–24 increased from 15 to 27 percent. Despite these increases in enrollment rates for young adults over time, during the past 5 years, there were few measurable differences in enrollment for these age groups. The enrollment rate for adults ages 25–29 increased from 8 percent in 1970 to 12 percent in 2007, while enrollment for adults ages 30–34 increased from 4 percent in 1970 to 6 percent in 1974 and has remained relatively stable (between 6 and 7 percent) from 1975 to 2007.

For more information: Tables A-1-1 and A-1-2
Glossary: Elementary/secondary school, Nursery school, Postsecondary education, Private school, Public school
Education Commission of the States (2007).

Technical Notes
For this indicator, estimates include enrollment in any type of graded public, parochial, or other private school. These include enrollment in nursery schools, kindergartens, elementary schools, high schools, colleges, universities, and professional schools. Attendance may be on either a full-time or part-time basis and during the day or night. Beginning in 1994, new procedures were used to collect preprimary enrollment data. As a result, pre-1994 data may not be comparable to data from 1994 or later. Excluded are enrollments in less-than-2-year postsecondary institutions and enrollments in “special” schools, such as trade schools, business colleges, or correspondence schools. The age groupings used in this indicator reflect the different schooling stages that are typical for students given their age. For example, students at ages 18–19 are typically transitioning from elementary/secondary education into postsecondary education or the workforce. For more information on the Current Population Survey (CPS), see supplemental note 2.
Figure 1-1. Percentage of the population ages 3–34 enrolled in school, by age group: October 1970–2007

Beginning in 1994, new procedures were used to collect preprimary enrollment data. As a result, pre-1994 data may not be comparable to data from 1994 or later.

NOTE: Includes enrollment in any type of graded public, parochial, or other private schools. Includes nursery schools, kindergartens, elementary schools, high schools, colleges, universities, and professional schools. Attendance may be on either a full-time or part-time basis and during the day or night. Excludes enrollments in less-than-2-year postsecondary institutions and enrollments in “special” schools, such as trade schools, business colleges, or correspondence schools. For more information on the Current Population Survey (CPS), see supplemental note 2.


Figure 1-2. Percentage of the population ages 3–34 enrolled in school, by age group: October 2007

NOTE: Includes enrollment in any type of graded public, parochial, or other private schools. Includes nursery schools, kindergartens, elementary schools, high schools, colleges, universities, and professional schools. Attendance may be on either a full-time or part-time basis and during the day or night. Excludes enrollments in less-than-2-year postsecondary institutions and enrollments in “special” schools, such as trade schools, business colleges, or correspondence schools. For more information on the Current Population Survey (CPS), see supplemental note 2.

When they were about 9 months, 2 years, and 4 years old, a smaller percentage of children in poverty were read to, told stories, or sung to daily by a family member, compared with children at or above poverty.

The Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B) collected information on a cohort of children who were born in 2001 and focused on several aspects of early childhood development, including interactions between young children and their families and the ways by which parents raise, nurture, and prepare their children for school. For the first three waves, data were collected on the children as infants (at about 9 months old), then as toddlers (at about 2 years old), and again as preschoolers (at about 4 years old). At each age, between one-third and one-half of these children were read to daily by a family member (see table A-2-1). In addition, approximately one-fourth of children at each of these ages were told stories daily, and between one-half and three-quarters were sung to daily.

In general, at all ages, a higher percentage of White children had family members who read to them daily than did children of other races/ethnicities. Also, a higher percentage of Asian children were read to than Hispanic and American Indian/Alaska Native children at all ages, and than Black children at ages 2 and 4 (with rates not measurably different at 9 months of age). Forty-one percent of White, 26 percent of Asian, 23 percent of Black, 21 percent of Hispanic, and 18 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native 9-month-olds had family members who read to them daily. At 2 years of age, 59 percent of White and 42 percent of Asian children had family members who read to them daily, compared with 25 percent of Black, 27 percent of Hispanic, and 30 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native children. At 4 years of age, 50 percent of White and 42 percent of Asian children were read to daily, compared with 21 percent of Black, 23 percent of Hispanic, and 25 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native children.

Overall, a smaller percentage of children in poverty were read to, told stories, or sung to daily by a family member than children at or above poverty. For example, 22 percent of 9-month-olds, 28 percent of 2-year-olds, and 21 percent of 4-year-olds in poverty were read to daily, compared with 36 percent of 9-month-olds, 51 percent of 2-year-olds, and 44 percent of 4-year-olds at or above poverty. Similarly, 24 percent of 9-month-olds, 23 percent of 2-year-olds, and 21 percent of 4-year-olds in poverty were told stories daily, compared with 28 percent of 9-month-olds, 30 percent of 2-year-olds, and 24 percent of 4-year-olds at or above poverty. Additionally, 67 percent of 9-month-olds, 63 percent of 2-year-olds, and 47 percent of 4-year-olds in poverty were sung to daily, compared with 76 percent of 9-month-olds, 69 percent of 2-year-olds, and 50 percent of 4-year-olds at or above poverty.

In general, levels of maternal education were positively related to the percentage of children who were read to, told stories, or sung to daily. For example, 20 percent of 4-year-olds whose mothers had not completed high school were read to daily, compared with 29 percent whose mothers completed high school, 39 percent whose mothers completed some college, and 61 percent whose mothers had at least a bachelor’s degree. Additionally, 22 percent of 2-year-olds whose mothers did not complete high school were told stories daily, compared with 29 percent whose mothers completed some college and 36 percent whose mothers had at least a bachelor’s degree. A smaller percentage of 9-month-olds whose mothers did not complete high school were read to daily, compared with 29 percent whose mothers completed some college and 36 percent whose mothers had at least a bachelor’s degree. A smaller percentage of children whose families spoke a language other than English in the home were read to, told stories, or sung to daily than children whose families spoke primarily English in the home. For example, 18 percent of 9-month-olds, 24 percent of 2-year-olds, and 22 percent of 4-year-olds whose families spoke a language other than English in the home were read to daily, compared with 36 percent of 9-month-olds, 50 percent of 2-year-olds, and 42 percent of 4-year-olds whose families spoke primarily English in the home.

Variables correspond with the year of the estimate. For examples and for more information on the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B) in general, see supplemental note 3. High school completers include those who earned a high school diploma or its equivalent (e.g., a General Educational Development [GED] certificate). Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on parents’ education, race/ethnicity, and poverty, see supplemental note 1.
Figure 2-1. Percentage of 9-month-olds, 2-year-olds, and 4-year-olds read to, told stories, and sung to daily in a typical week by a family member, by mother’s education: 2001-02, 2003-04, and 2005-06

NOTE: The Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B) sampled children born in 2001. Each age variable corresponds with the year of the estimate. For example, the 9-month estimates for “Read to” reflect the percentage of children whose parents read to them daily in a typical week at the time of the 9-month data collection. For more information on parents’ education, see supplemental note 1; for more information on the ECLS-B, see supplemental note 3.


Figure 2-2. Percentage of 9-month-olds, 2-year-olds, and 4-year-olds read to daily in a typical week by a family member, by poverty status: 2001-02, 2003-04, and 2005-06

NOTE: The Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B) sampled children born in 2001. Each age variable corresponds with the year of the estimate. For example, the 9-month estimates for “Read to” reflect the percentage of children whose parents read to them daily in a typical week at the time of the 9-month data collection. For more information on parents’ education, see supplemental note 1; for more information on the ECLS-B, see supplemental note 3.

Using the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B), this indicator provides information on children when they were infants (at about 9 months old), when they were toddlers (at about 2 years old), and again when they were preschoolers (at about 4 years old). The assessments for 9-month-olds provide information on cognitive skills, including exploration, verbalizations, making simple gestures, and problem solving, and on motor skills, including coordination, sitting, prewalking, standing alone, skillful walking, and balance. The assessments for 2-year-olds provide information on cognitive skills, such as communication, listening comprehension, object discrimination, and knowledge of counting words or quantities; and on motor skills, such as skillful walking, balance, fine motor control, walking up and down stairs, alternating balance, and motor planning. Preschool-age assessments provide information on language, literacy, mathematics, color identification, and fine motor skills.

Nine-month-olds in poverty had lower proficiency levels in three of five cognitive skills, compared with children at or above poverty, although observed differences were less than 4 percentage points. For example, 81 percent of children in poverty were proficient in exploring purposefully, compared with 84 percent of those at or above poverty (see table A-3-1). For motor skills, no measurable differences were found between 9-month-olds in poverty and those at or above poverty.

In contrast to patterns found among 9-month-olds by poverty status, significant differences in all cognitive skills were found for 2-year-olds. For example, 29 percent of 2-year-olds in poverty demonstrated proficiency in listening comprehension, compared with 49 percent of those at or above poverty (see table A-3-2). Concerning proficiency in motor skills among 2-year-olds, however, no measurable differences were found by poverty status.

Differences in proficiency in cognitive skills by poverty status observed when children were 2 years old held when they were 4 years old. Twenty percent of 4-year-olds in poverty were proficient in letter recognition, compared with 37 percent of their peers at or above poverty (see table A-3-3). Forty-five percent of 4-year-olds in poverty demonstrated proficiency in numbers and shapes, compared with 72 percent of their peers at or above poverty.

For 9-month-olds, there were few differences in cognitive skill proficiencies for most racial/ethnic groups. While differences were found for motor skills among 9-month-olds by race/ethnicity, no single group demonstrated consistently higher proficiency than others across all skills. In contrast, smaller percentages of Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native 2-year-olds demonstrated proficiency in all cognitive skills than did their peers who were White, Asian, or of more than one race. For example, 56 percent of Blacks, 54 percent of Hispanics, and 50 percent of American Indians/Alaska Natives used expressive vocabulary, compared with 71 percent of Whites, 62 percent of Asians, and 64 percent of children of more than one race (see table A-3-2). For motor skills among 2-year-olds, few differences were found by race/ethnicity.

Generally, smaller percentages of Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native 4-year-olds demonstrated proficiency in various cognitive skills than did their peers who were White, Asian, or of more than one race. For example, 28 percent of Blacks, 23 percent of Hispanics, and 19 percent of American Indians/Alaska Natives were proficient at letter recognition, compared with 37 percent of Whites, 49 percent of Asians, and 35 percent of children of more than one race (see table A-3-3). Additionally, smaller percentages of 4-year-old Blacks (55 percent), Hispanics (51 percent), and American Indians/Alaska Natives (40 percent) showed proficiency in numbers and shapes, compared with Whites (73 percent), Asians (81 percent), and children of more than one race (65 percent).

For more information: Tables A-3-1 through A-3-3; Indicator 2
Glossary: Cognitive development, Motor development
NCES 2009-020, Tables 112–114
Bayley, N. (1993)
Figure 3-1. Percentage of children demonstrating proficiency in various cognitive skills, by poverty status and age: 2001–02, 2003–04, and 2005–06

NOTE: Percentages reflect children who demonstrated mastery or “proficiency” by achieving a set threshold within a subscale measuring specific skills or abilities. The Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B) sampled children born in 2001. While ECLS-B assessed some infants as young as 6 months and as old as 22 months, estimates reflect information collected on infants around 9 months old (6 to 10 months). Estimates for 2-year-olds pertain to children assessed between 22 and 25 months old. Estimates for 4-year-olds pertain to children assessed between 48 and 57 months old. For more information on poverty, see supplemental note 1, and for more information on ECLS-B, see supplemental note 3.


Figure 3-2. Percentage of children proficient in letter recognition and numbers and shapes at about 4 years old, by race/ethnicity: 2005–06

NOTE: Percentages reflect children who demonstrated mastery or “proficiency” by achieving a set threshold within a subscale measuring specific skills or abilities. The Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Birth Cohort (ECLS-B) sampled children born in 2001. Estimates for 4-year-olds pertain to children assessed between 48 and 57 months old. Data on Pacific Islanders are not shown as reporting standards were not met. For more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1, and for more information on ECLS-B, see supplemental note 3.

Public elementary and secondary enrollment is projected to increase to 54 million in 2018. Over the period of 2006 to 2018, the South is the region of the country projected to experience the largest increase (18 percent) in the number of students enrolled.

In 2006, about 49.3 million students were enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools. Of these students, 34.2 million were enrolled in prekindergarten (preK) through grade 8, and 15.1 million were enrolled in grades 9 through 12.

Public school enrollment declined during the 1970s and early 1980s and increased in the latter part of the 1980s. Enrollment continued to increase throughout the 1990s and early 2000s. Between 2000 and 2006, public school enrollment increased by 2.1 million students, reaching 49.3 million students in 2006 (see table A-4-1). Total public school enrollment is projected to set new enrollment records each year from 2007 through 2018, reaching an estimated high of 53.9 million students in 2018 (the last year for which projected data are available).

Enrollment trends in grades preK–8 and 9–12 have differed over time as successive cohorts of students have moved through the public school system. For example, enrollment in grades preK–8 decreased throughout the 1970s and early 1980s, while enrollment in grades 9–12 decreased in the late 1970s and throughout the 1980s. Enrollments at both grade levels increased from 1990 through 2006. Public school enrollment in grades preK–8 is projected to increase from 34.2 million in 2006 to 38.2 million in 2018. Enrollment in grades 9–12 is projected to increase to 15.1 million in 2007 before decreasing to 14.6 million in 2011; it is then expected to increase again to 15.8 million in 2018.

Since 1970, the South has been the region of the country with the largest share of public school enrollment in the United States. However, the regional distribution of students in public schools has not remained static. The share of total public school enrollment in the Northeast and the Midwest decreased between 1970 and 2000 (from 21 to 17 percent and 28 to 23 percent, respectively), while the share for both the South and the West increased during this period (from 32 to 37 percent and 18 to 24 percent, respectively). The number of students enrolled followed a similar pattern between 2000 and 2006, decreasing slightly in both the Northeast and Midwest, but increasing by one-half million students in the West and 1.0 million students in the South. According to projections, by 2018, some 14 percent of public school students will be in the Northeast, 20 percent will be in the Midwest, 25 percent will be in the West, and 40 percent will be in the South.

From 2006 to 2018, public school enrollment in grades preK through 12 in the United States is projected to increase by 9 percent (see table A-4-2). The rate of increase in overall U.S. enrollment is not expected to be evenly distributed by grade level or among states. For example, enrollment in grades preK–8 is projected to increase more than enrollment in grades 9–12 during this period (12 vs. 4 percent). In grades preK–8, enrollment is expected to increase by more than 30 percent in Arizona, Nevada, and Texas, but to decrease by more than 5 percent in Rhode Island and New York. Projections indicate that enrollment in grades 9–12 will experience a wider range of percent change than enrollment in grades preK–8 between 2006 and 2018: enrollment in Arizona, Nevada, and Texas is projected to increase by more than 30 percent, while enrollment in Rhode Island, Vermont, and the District of Columbia is projected to decrease by more than 20 percent.

For more information: Tables A-4-1 and A-4-2; Indicators 10 and 11
Glossary: Elementary/secondary school, Public school

Technical Notes
The most recent year of actual data is 2006, and 2018 is the last year for which projected data are available. For more information on projections, see NCES 2009-062. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. For a list of the states in each region, see supplemental note 1.
Figure 4-1. Actual and projected public school enrollment in grades prekindergarten (preK) through 12, by grade level: Fall 1970–2018

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Grades preK–8</th>
<th>Grades 9–12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fall of year</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>49,299</td>
<td>49,299</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>34,221</td>
<td>34,221</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>15,078</td>
<td>15,078</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1990</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Projected Enrollment (in thousands)

NOTE: The most recent year of actual data is 2006, and 2018 is the last year for which projected data are available. For more information on projections, see NCES 2009-062. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.


Figure 4-2. Projected percent change in public school enrollment in grades prekindergarten through 12, by state: Between fall 2006 and fall 2018

NOTE: The most recent year of actual data is 2006, and 2018 is the last year for which projected data are available. For more information on projections, see NCES 2009-062. For a list of states in each region, see supplemental note 1.

Private school enrollment in prekindergarten through grade 12 increased from 5.9 million in 1995 to 6.3 million in 2001, and then decreased to 5.9 million in 2007. About 11 percent of all elementary and secondary school students were in private schools in 2007.

Between 1995 and 2003, Roman Catholic schools maintained the largest share of total private school enrollment, but the percentage of all private school students enrolled in Roman Catholic schools decreased from 45 percent in 1995 to 39 percent in 2007 (see table A-5-1). This decrease stemmed from the decline in the percentage of these students enrolled in parochial schools (those run by a parish, not by a diocese or independently). In contrast, the percentage of students in Conservative Christian schools increased from 13 to 15 percent of all private school students between 1995 and 2007. The percentage of students enrolled in nonsectarian schools increased from 20 to 22 percent during this period.

In 2007, most private school students were enrolled in schools with a regular program emphasis (85 percent; see table A-5-3). Of the remaining students, 5 percent were enrolled in early childhood schools, 4 percent in Montessori schools, 2 percent in schools with a special program emphasis, 2 percent in special education schools, and 1 percent in alternative schools. The student composition of private schools varied by type of program emphasis. Private schools with a special education or an alternative emphasis had the highest percentages of enrollment (39 and 35 percent, respectively) coming from one or more of the Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, or American Indian/Alaska Native racial/ethnic groups. About 25 percent of students in private schools with a regular program emphasis were from these groups.

In 2007, the percentage of all students who were enrolled in private schools was higher in the Northeast (15 percent) than in the Midwest (11 percent), the South (10 percent), and the West (9 percent) (see table A-5-2). Looking at changes over time, in the Midwest and West, the percentage of students enrolled in private schools was lower in 2007 than in 1995. The percentage of students in the Northeast who were enrolled in private schools in 2007 (15 percent) was similar to the percentage enrolled in 1995 (16 percent). In the South, the percentages of students enrolled in private schools remained around 10 percent from 1995 to 2007.

There were differences in the racial/ethnic composition of private school enrollments (data from 2007) compared with public school enrollments (data from 2006). Whites made up a greater share of private school enrollment than of public school enrollment (75 vs. 57 percent), while the opposite was true for Blacks (10 vs. 17 percent) and Hispanics (10 vs. 20 percent) (see table A-5-3 and NCES 2008-022, table 41). Asians/Pacific Islanders made up 5 percent of both public and private school enrollments, and American Indians/Alaska Natives made up 1 percent of each.

Other religious schools are those with a religious orientation or purpose, but are not Roman Catholic. Conservative Christian schools are those with membership in at least 1 of 4 associations, and affiliated schools are those with membership in 1 of 12 associations. Unaffiliated schools are those that have a more general religious orientation or purpose, but are not classified as Conservative Christian or affiliated with a specific religion. Nonsectarian schools do not have a religious orientation or purpose. Vocational schools are included with special program emphasis schools. Calculations were revised and estimates may differ from previously published data. Estimates from the Private School Survey (PSS) may differ from those derived from the National Household Education Survey (NHES) because of differences in survey methodology. For more information on private schools, private school program emphases, NHES, and the PSS, see supplemental note 3. The distribution of private school students by race/ethnicity excludes prekindergarten students. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on geographic region and race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.
Figure 5-1. Percentage distribution of private school students in prekindergarten through grade 12, by school type: Various years, fall 1995 through fall 2007

NOTE: Affiliated religious schools have a specific religious orientation or purpose, but are not Roman Catholic. Nonsectarian schools do not have a religious orientation or purpose. Calculations were revised and estimates may differ from previously published data. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. For more information on the Private School Universe Survey (PSS), see supplemental note 3.

Figure 5-2. Percentage distribution of public and private school enrollments, by race/ethnicity: Fall 2007

NOTE: Private school distribution excludes prekindergarten students. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Data on public schools are for fall 2006. For more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1, and for more information on the Private School Universe Survey (PSS) and the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3.
This indicator examines the number and characteristics of homeschooled students in the United States. Homeschooled students are school-age children (ages 5–17) in a grade equivalent to at least kindergarten and not higher than 12th grade who receive instruction at home instead of at a public or private school either all or most of the time.

In 2007, the number of homeschooled students was about 1.5 million, an increase from 850,000 in 1999 and 1.1 million in 2003 (see table A-6-1). The percentage of the school-age population that was homeschooled increased from 1.7 percent in 1999 to 2.9 percent in 2007. The increase in the percentage of homeschooled students from 1999 to 2007 represents a 74 percent relative increase over the 8-year period and a 36 percent relative increase since 2003. In 2007, the majority of homeschooled students received all of their education at home (84 percent), but some attended school up to 25 hours per week. Eleven percent of homeschooled students were enrolled in school less than 9 hours per week, and 5 percent were enrolled between 9 and 25 hours per week.

More White students were homeschooled than Black or Hispanic students or students from other racial/ethnic groups, and White students constituted the majority of homeschooled students (77 percent). White students (3.9 percent) had a higher homeschooling rate than Blacks (0.8 percent) and Hispanics (1.5 percent), but were not measurably different from students from other racial/ethnic groups (3.4 percent). Students in two-parent households made up 89 percent of the homeschooled population, and those in two-parent households with one parent in the labor force made up 54 percent of the homeschooled population. The latter group of students had a higher homeschooling rate than their peers: 7 percent, compared with 1 to 2 percent of students in other family circumstances. In 2007, students in households earning between $25,001 and $75,000 per year had higher rates of homeschooling than their peers from families earning $25,000 or less a year.

Parents give many different reasons for homeschooling their children. In 2007, the most common reason parents gave as the most important was a desire to provide religious or moral instruction (36 percent of students) (see table A-6-2). This reason was followed by a concern about the school environment (such as safety, drugs, or negative peer pressure) (21 percent), dissatisfaction with academic instruction (17 percent), and “other reasons” including family time, finances, travel, and distance (14 percent). Parents of about 7 percent of homeschooled students cited the desire to provide their child with a nontraditional approach to education as the most important reason for homeschooling, and the parents of another 6 percent of students cited a child’s health problems or special needs.

For more information: Table A-6-1 and A-6-2; Indicator 32

Technical Notes

Students are considered to be homeschooled if (1) they are ages 5–17 in a grade equivalent to at least kindergarten and no higher than 12th grade; (2) their parents report them as being schooled at home instead of at a public or private school for at least part of their education; and (3) their part-time enrollment in public or private schools does not exceed 25 hours per week. Students who are schooled at home primarily because of a temporary illness are not considered to be homeschooled students. For more information on the National Household Education Program (NHES), see supplemental note 3. For more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1.
Figure 6-1. Number and distribution of school-age children who were homeschooled, by amount of time spent in schools: 1999, 2003, and 2007

Figure 6-2. Percentage of school-age children who were homeschooled, by reasons parents gave as the most important reason for homeschooling: 2007

NOTE: Homeschooled students are school-age children (ages 5–17) in a grade equivalent to at least kindergarten and not higher than 12th grade. Excludes students who were enrolled in public or private school more than 25 hours per week and students who were homeschooled only because of temporary illness. For more information on the National Household Education Surveys Program (NHES), see supplemental note 3.


1 “Other reasons” parents gave for homeschooling include family time, finances, travel, and distance.

NOTE: Homeschooled students are school-age children (ages 5–17) in a grade equivalent to at least kindergarten and not higher than 12th grade. Excludes students who were enrolled in public or private school more than 25 hours per week and students who were homeschooled only because of temporary illness. For more information on the National Household Education Surveys Program (NHES), see supplemental note 3.

Between 1972 and 2007, the percentage of public school students who were White decreased from 78 to 56 percent. During this period, the percentage of students from other racial/ethnic groups increased from 22 to 44 percent; this increase largely reflects growth in the percentage of Hispanic students.

The shifting racial and ethnic distribution of public school students enrolled in kindergarten through 12th grade is one aspect of change in the composition of school enrollment. Between 1972 and 2007, the percentage of public school students who were White decreased from 78 to 56 percent (see table A-7-1). Accordingly, the percentage of public school students who were part of other racial/ethnic groups increased to 44 percent in 2007, up from 22 percent in 1972 and 32 percent in 1987. This increase over time largely reflects the consistent growth in the percentage of students who were Hispanic. In 2007, Hispanic students represented 21 percent of public school enrollment, up from 6 percent in 1972 and 11 percent in 1987. Since 1987, the percentage of public school students who were Hispanic has increased more than the percentage of students who were White, Black, or members of other racial/ethnic groups. During this period, the percentage of students who were Black decreased from 17 percent in 1987 to 15 percent in 2007, with the percentage of Hispanic enrollment measurably surpassing that of Black enrollment for the first time in 2002. Students from other racial/ethnic groups—Asian (4.1 percent), Pacific Islander (0.3 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (0.8 percent) students, and students of more than one race (2.6 percent)—made up about 7.8 percent of public school enrollment in 2007.

The racial/ethnic composition of public schools differed by region, though the combined enrollment of Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Native Alaska students generally increased as a percentage of the total enrollment in all regions between 1987 and 2007 and during the broader period of 1972 and 2007 (see table A-7-2). In each year from 1972 to 2007, the West and South had larger enrollments of these students than the Northeast and Midwest did.

In 2007, the West had the largest enrollment of Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Native Alaska students of any region. Beginning in 2003, the percentage of these students exceeded the percentage of Whites in the total enrollment, and by 2007, enrollment for these students comprised 57 percent of the total in this region. In the West, Hispanic enrollment has been the largest, aside from White enrollment, since 1972, with the percentage of students who were Hispanic more than doubling (from 15 to 39 percent) by 2007. Between 1972 and 2007, the percentage of Blacks enrolled generally remained stable (between 5 and 7 percent), while the percentage of Whites enrolled decreased from 73 to 43 percent.

In the South, the combined enrollment of Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Native Alaska students increased from 30 percent in 1972 to 49 percent in 2007. The majority of this growth was due to an increase in the percentage of Hispanics enrolled. Although Blacks have maintained the largest percentage of enrollment in the South, aside from Whites, the percentage of Black enrollment generally remained at around 25 percent between 1972 and 2007. During this period, the percentage of Hispanic enrollment grew from 5 to 19 percent, while White enrollment decreased from 70 to 51 percent.

Between 1972 and 2007, the combined enrollment of Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Native Alaska students increased from 19 to 36 percent. The percentage of Hispanic enrollment increased from 6 to 15 percent from 1972 to 2007, while the percentage of Blacks enrolled in 1972 was not measurably different than the percentage in 2007. White enrollment decreased from 81 to 64 percent during this period.

In the Midwest, the combined enrollment of Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Native Alaska students increased from 12 to 28 percent between 1972 and 2007. Black students have remained the largest group—aside from White students—in the region, but Hispanic enrollment increased more than Black enrollment during this period. Between 1972 and 2007, the percentage of Black students enrolled increased from 11 to 13 percent, while Hispanic enrollment increased from 2 to 9 percent. Although White enrollment decreased from 88 percent in 1972 to 72 percent in 2007, among all regions, the Midwest has maintained the highest percentage of Whites enrolled during this period.

For more information: Tables A-7-1 and A-7-2
Glossary: Public school

Technical Notes

Estimates include all public school students enrolled in kindergarten through 12th grade. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on race/ethnicity and region, see supplemental note 1. For more information on the Current Population Survey (CPS), see supplemental note 2.
Figure 7-1. Percentage distribution of the race/ethnicity of public school students enrolled in kindergarten through 12th grade: Selected years, October 1972–October 2007

1 “Other” includes all students who identified themselves as being Asian, Hawaiian, American Indian, or two or more races. NOTE: Estimates include all public school students enrolled in kindergarten through 12th grade. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Over time, the Current Population Survey (CPS) has had different response options for race/ethnicity. For more information on the Current Population Survey (CPS), see supplemental note 2; for more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1.


Figure 7-2. Percentage distribution of the race/ethnicity of public school students enrolled in kindergarten through 12th grade, by region: October 1987–October 2007

1 “Other” includes all students who identified themselves as being Asian, Hawaiian, American Indian, or two or more races.
NOTE: Estimates include all public school students enrolled in kindergarten through 12th grade. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Over time, the Current Population Survey (CPS) has had different response options for race/ethnicity. For more information on the Current Population Survey (CPS), see supplemental note 2; for more information on race/ethnicity and region, see supplemental note 1.

Between 1979 and 2007, the number of school-age children (children ages 5–17) who spoke a language other than English at home increased from 3.8 to 10.8 million, or from 9 to 20 percent of the population in this age range (see table A-8-1). An increase was also evident during the more recent period of 2000 through 2007 (from 18 to 20 percent). The percentage of school-age children who spoke a language other than English at home and spoke English with difficulty increased from 3 to 6 percent between 1979 and 2000, but did not change measurably between 2000 and 2007, remaining between 5 and 6 percent.

Among school-age children who spoke a non-English language at home, the percentage who spoke English with difficulty has decreased over time. For example, of the school-age children who spoke a language other than English at home, 34 percent spoke English with difficulty in 1979, compared with 31 percent in 2000, and 25 percent in 2007.

The percentage of school-age children who spoke a language other than English at home and who spoke English with difficulty varied by demographic characteristics in 2007, including race/ethnicity, poverty status, and age (see table A-8-2). Among school-age children, 18 percent of Hispanics and 16 percent of Asians spoke a non-English language at home and spoke English with difficulty, compared with 7 percent of Pacific Islanders, 3 percent of American Indians/Alaska Natives, and 1 percent each of Whites, Blacks, and children of more than one race. Differences were also seen among racial/ethnic subgroups of Hispanic and Asian school-age children. For example, 21 percent of Mexican school-age children spoke a non-English language at home and spoke English with difficulty versus 8 percent each of Puerto Rican and Other Hispanic school-age children.

For Asians, 24 percent of Vietnamese 5- to 17-year-olds spoke a non-English language at home and spoke English with difficulty, compared with 8 percent of their Filipino peers. In terms of poverty status, higher percentages of poor (10 percent) and near-poor (8 percent) 5- to 17-year-olds spoke a non-English language at home and spoke English with difficulty than did nonpoor 5- to 17-year-olds (3 percent). Concerning differences by age, a greater percentage of 5- to 9-year-olds spoke a language other than English at home and spoke English with difficulty than did 10- to 17-year-olds (7 vs. 4 percent). This pattern by age held across most demographic characteristics.

In terms of language spoken, in 2007, of the school-age children who spoke a language other than English at home and who spoke English with difficulty, about 2.1 million (or 75 percent) spoke Spanish; 320,000 (or 12 percent) of these children spoke Asian/Pacific Islander languages; 287,000 (or 10 percent) spoke other Indo-European languages; and 72,000 (or 3 percent) spoke another language (see table A-8-3).

English-speaking ability also varied by state and region of the country in 2007. The percentage of 5- to 17-year-olds who spoke a non-English language and who spoke English with difficulty was about 1 percent in several states, including Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, South Dakota, Mississippi, West Virginia, Montana, and Wyoming, but was higher in the southern state of Texas (10 percent) and in certain western states, including Arizona (9 percent) and California (11 percent).

Respondents were asked whether each child in the household spoke a language other than English at home. If they answered “yes,” they were asked how well each child could speak English using the following categories: “very well,” “well,” “not well,” and “not at all.” All those who reported speaking English less than “very well” were considered to have difficulty speaking English. Spanish-language versions of both the Current Population Survey (CPS) and the American Community Survey (ACS) were available to respondents. Due to differences between the CPS and the ACS, use caution when comparing data before 2000 (CPS) with data from 2000 onward (ACS). For more information on the CPS and the ACS, see supplemental notes 2 and 3, respectively. Asian/Pacific Islander languages include any native languages spoken by Asians or Pacific Islanders, which linguists classify variously as Sino-Tibetan, Austroasiatic, or Austronesian languages. Other Indo-European includes Indo-European languages other than Spanish (e.g., French, German, Portuguese, etc.). Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on race/ethnicity, poverty status, and geographic region, see supplemental note 1.
Figure 8-1. Percentage of children ages 5–17 who spoke a language other than English at home and who spoke English with difficulty: Selected years, 1979–2007

NOTE: Respondents were asked whether each child in the household spoke a language other than English at home. If they answered “yes,” they were asked how well each child could speak English using the following categories: “very well,” “well,” “not well,” and “not at all.” All those who reported speaking English less than “very well” were considered to have difficulty speaking English. For more information on the American Community Survey (ACS), see supplemental note 3.


Figure 8-2. Percentage of children ages 5–17 who spoke a language other than English at home and who spoke English with difficulty, by state: 2007

NOTE: Respondents were asked whether each child in the household spoke a language other than English at home. If they answered “yes,” they were asked how well each child could speak English using the following categories: “very well,” “well,” “not well,” and “not at all.” All those who reported speaking English less than “very well” were considered to have difficulty speaking English. For more information on the American Community Survey (ACS), see supplemental note 3.

The Condition of Education 2009

The number and percentage of children and youth receiving special education services increased nearly every year between 1976–77 and 2004–05. Since 2004–05, the number and percentage of students served declined each year through 2006–07.

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), enacted in 1975, mandates that children and youth ages 3–21 with disabilities be provided a free and appropriate public school education. Data collection activities to monitor compliance with IDEA began in 1976.

The number and percentage of children and youth ages 3–21 receiving special education services increased nearly every year since the inception of IDEA up until 2004–05 (see table A-9-1). Since 2004–05, the number and percentage of students served have declined each year through 2006–07. In 1976–77, some 3.7 million children and youth were served under IDEA, representing 5 percent of all children and youth ages 3–21. By 2006–07, some 6.7 million children and youth received IDEA services, corresponding to about 9 percent of all children and youth ages 3–21. Among students served under IDEA in 2006–07, about 59 percent were White, 20 percent were Black, 17 percent were Hispanic, 2 percent were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1 percent were American Indian/Alaska Native (data not shown).

Since 1980–81, a larger percentage of children and youth ages 3–21 have received special education services for specific learning disabilities than for any other disability type (see table A-9-2). A specific learning disability is a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations. These disorders include conditions such as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The percentage of children and youth ages 3–21 receiving special education services for a specific learning disability was 3 percentage points higher in 2006–07 than in 1976–77 (5 vs. 2 percent). In comparison, the next most prevalent disability type, speech or language impairments, remained fairly constant around 3 percent, with variations of less than 1 percentage point during this period.

In 2006–07, about 40 percent of all children and youth receiving services under IDEA had specific learning disabilities, and 22 percent had speech or language impairments. Students with disabilities such as other health impairments, mental retardation, emotional disturbances, developmental delay, and autism accounted for between 4 and 10 percent each. Children and youth with multiple disabilities; hearing, orthopedic, and visual impairments; traumatic brain injury; and deaf-blindness each accounted for less than 2 percent of children with disabilities.

For more information: Tables A-9-1 and A-9-2

Technical Notes

Special education services through the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) are available for eligible children and youth identified by a team of qualified professionals as having a disability that adversely affects their academic performance and as being in need of special education and related services. The estimates include children and youth receiving special education services through IDEA in early education centers and public schools in the 50 states and the District of Columbia and in Bureau of Indian Education (BIE) schools through 1993–94. Beginning in 1994–95, numbers and percentages exclude BIE schools. For more information about the student disabilities presented here, see supplemental note 7. The four race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1.
Figure 9-1. Percentage of 3- to 21-year-olds in early education centers or public schools receiving services under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), by primary disability type: Selected school years, 1976–77 through 2006–07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Specific learning disabilities¹</th>
<th>Speech or language impairments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1976–77</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980–81</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006–07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations, including conditions such as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia.

NOTE: For years prior to 1994–95, data included children and youth from birth to age 21, and estimates included Bureau of Indian Education (BIE) schools. Increases since 1987–88 are due in part to legislation enacted in fall 1986, which added a mandate for public school special education services for 3- to 5-year-old children with disabilities. For more information about student disabilities, see supplemental note 7.


Figure 9-2. Percentage distribution of 3- to 21-year-olds served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), by primary disability type: School year 2006–07

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Disability Type</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Specific learning disabilities¹</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech or language impairments</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other health impairments</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental retardation</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional disturbance</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental delay</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autism</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple disabilities</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hearing impairments</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthopedic impairments</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual impairments</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traumatic brain injury</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Rounds to zero.

¹ A disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations, including conditions such as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia.

NOTE: Includes children and youth in the 50 states and the District of Columbia and excludes Bureau of Indian Education (BIE) schools. Detail may not sum to total because of rounding. For more information about student disabilities, see supplemental note 7.

From 2000 to 2007, undergraduate enrollment rose by 19 percent. During this period, there were larger relative gains in female enrollment, full-time enrollment, and enrollment in private institutions than in male enrollment, part-time enrollment, and enrollment in public institutions.

Total undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions increased from 7.4 million in 1970 to 13.2 million in 2000 and to 15.6 million in 2007. According to projections, enrollment in undergraduate institutions is expected to reach 17.5 million in 2018 (the last available year of projected data).

Undergraduate enrollment grew at a faster rate during the 1970s (42 percent) than in more recent decades (see table A-10-1). It was during the 1970s that female enrollment, part-time enrollment, and enrollment in public institutions increased most rapidly (by 76, 97, and 50 percent, respectively) and contributed to the large increases in these enrollments since 1970. Undergraduate enrollment of male and female students, part- and full-time students, and students at both public and private (not-for-profit and for-profit) institutions continued to increase throughout the 1980s and 1990s, though at slower rates than they had during the 1970s. From 2000 to 2007, undergraduate enrollment rose by 19 percent. During this period, there were larger relative gains in female enrollment (20 percent), full-time enrollment (24 percent), and enrollment in private institutions (32 percent) than in male enrollment (16 percent), part-time enrollment (10 percent), and enrollment in public institutions (15 percent).

Undergraduate enrollment at 2-year institutions increased from 5.9 to 6.6 million (11 percent) from 2000 to 2007 and is expected to reach 7.5 million students by 2018 (see table A-10-2). Between 2000 and 2007, 2-year college enrollment rose at a faster rate for females (13 percent) than for males (8 percent). According to projections, this pattern will continue, with female enrollment at 2-year institutions approaching nearly 4.5 million in 2018 and male enrollment reaching 3.0 million in 2018.

Between 2000 and 2007, full-time undergraduate enrollment in 2-year institutions increased at a faster rate (21 percent) than part-time enrollment at 2-year institutions (5 percent). Projections indicate that this pattern will continue, with full-time enrollment reaching 3.1 million in 2018 and part-time enrollment reaching 4.3 million in 2018. Enrollment in private 2-year institutions rose at a faster rate (17 percent) than enrollment in public 2-year institutions (also referred to as community colleges) (11 percent) between 2000 and 2007. According to projections, in 2018, enrollment at private 2-year institutions will reach 344,000, compared with 7.1 million for public 2-year institutions.

Undergraduate enrollment at 4-year institutions increased from 7.2 to 9.0 million (25 percent) from 2000 to 2007 and is expected to reach 10.0 million students in 2018. Female enrollment at 4-year institutions increased at a faster rate (26 percent) than male enrollment (23 percent) during this period. According to projections, this pattern will continue, with female enrollment at 4-year institutions reaching nearly 5.8 million in 2018 and male enrollment reaching 4.2 million in 2018.

Between 2000 and 2007, full-time undergraduate enrollment in 4-year institutions increased at a faster rate than part-time enrollment at 4-year institutions (25 vs. 22 percent). Projections indicate that this pattern will continue, and in 2018, full-time enrollment at 4-year institutions will reach 8.1 million and part-time enrollment will reach 2.0 million. Enrollment in private 4-year institutions rose at a faster rate (34 percent) than enrollment in public 4-year institutions (20 percent) from 2000 to 2007. According to projections, in 2018, enrollment at private 4-year institutions will reach 3.5 million, while enrollment at public 4-year institutions will reach 6.5 million.

For more information: Tables A-10-1 and A-10-2; Indicators 4 and 11
Glossary: Four-year postsecondary institution, Private institution, Public institution, Two-year postsecondary institution, Undergraduate

Technical Notes

Projections are based on data through 2007 and middle alternative assumptions concerning the economy. The most recent year of actual data is 2007, and 2018 is the last year for which projected data are available. For more information on projections, see NCES 2009-062. Data for 1999 were imputed using alternative procedures. For more information, see NCES 2001-083, appendix E. For more information on the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), see supplemental note 3. For more information about the Classification of Postsecondary Education Institutions, see supplemental note 8.
Figure 10-1. Actual and projected total undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by sex and attendance status: Fall 1970–2018

Figure 10-2. Undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control of institution: Fall 2000 and 2007
Graduate and First-Professional Enrollment

Enrollment in both graduate and first-professional programs increased between 2000 and 2007. For both program types, increases in enrollment are projected to continue through 2018, with enrollment increasing at a faster rate for females than for males.

In 1976, some 1.3 million students were enrolled in graduate programs: 715,000 males and 619,000 females (see table A-11-1). Graduate enrollment fluctuated between the mid-1970s and mid-1980s but increased between 1985 and 2007 to nearly 2.3 million. For females, enrollment increased between the mid-1970s and 2007 to nearly 1.4 million, while for males, enrollment decreased between the mid- and late 1970s and fluctuated in the early 1980s, before increasing through 2007 to 910,000.

An additional 244,000 students were enrolled in first-professional programs in 1976: 190,000 males and 54,000 females. First-professional enrollment fluctuated during the 1980s before increasing between 1990 and 2007 to 351,000. For males, enrollment decreased between the mid-1970s and the late 1980s and fluctuated through 2000; between 2001 and 2007, male enrollment increased to 178,000, the highest point since the mid-1990s. Enrollment for females increased between the mid-1970s and 2007 to 173,000.

Projections indicate that enrollment increases in graduate and first-professional programs will persist, with graduate enrollment exceeding 2.7 million and first-professional enrollment reaching 422,000 in 2018. Increases for males and females are also expected at both levels through 2018; however, female enrollment is expected to increase faster than male enrollment.

From 2000 to 2007, graduate and first-professional enrollment increased for each racial/ethnic group (see table A-11-2). Whites held the greatest share of enrollment at both levels during this period but experienced the least growth. White graduate enrollment increased by 16 percent (from 1.3 to 1.5 million students) from 2000 to 2007, and first-professional enrollment increased by 11 percent (220,000 to 245,000). In comparison, total graduate enrollment for students in all other racial/ethnic groups (Blacks, Hispanics, Asians/Pacific Islanders, and American Indians/Alaska Natives) increased by 53 percent (359,000 to 548,000), and first-professional enrollment increased by 25 percent (78,000 to 97,000) during this period. Among these graduate students, growth was greatest for Blacks (67 percent) and least for Asians/Pacific Islanders (33 percent). At the first-professional level, among these students, Asians/Pacific Islanders saw the greatest growth (30 percent) from 2000 to 2007, and American Indians/Alaska Natives saw the least growth (13 percent). In 2007, students in all other racial/ethnic groups represented 24 percent of graduate enrollment, up from 19 percent in 2000, and 28 percent of first-professional enrollment, up from 25 percent in 2000.

Differences in enrollment patterns for males and females were also found by race/ethnicity. At the graduate level, male enrollment increased in each racial/ethnic group from 2000 to 2007. For White males, graduate enrollment increased by 11 percent (from 503,000 to 560,000) during this period. In comparison, graduate enrollment for males in all other racial/ethnic groups increased by 38 percent (from 135,000 to 186,000). Among these males at the graduate level, Blacks experienced the greatest growth (50 percent) from 2000 to 2007, while Asians/Pacific Islanders experienced the least growth (25 percent). For females at the graduate level, enrollment increases also occurred for each racial/ethnic group from 2000 to 2007, with the least growth occurring for White females (20 percent), from 756,000 to 905,000. Among females in all other racial/ethnic groups, Blacks experienced the greatest growth in graduate enrollment (74 percent) from 2000 to 2007, while Asians/Pacific Islanders experienced the least growth (41 percent). In 2007, at the graduate level, males in all other racial/ethnic groups made up 20 percent of male enrollment, up from 17 percent in 2000, and their female counterparts made up 26 percent of female enrollment, up from 21 percent in 2000. At the first-professional level, from 2000 to 2007, enrollment trends for males and females by race/ethnicity were generally similar to those at the graduate level.

For more information: Tables A-11-1 and A-11-2; Indicators 4 and 10
Glossary: First-professional degree, Nonresident alien
NCES 2009-020

Technical Notes

The most recent year of actual data is 2007, and 2018 is the last year for which projected data are available. For more information on projections, see NCES 2009-062. Because of underreporting and nonreporting of racial/ethnic data, some estimates are slightly lower than corresponding data in other published tables.

Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Nonresident aliens are shown separately since information about their race/ethnicity is not available. For more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1. For more information on the Classification of Postsecondary Education Institutions, see supplemental note 8.
Figure 11-1. Actual and projected graduate enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by sex: 1976–2018

Table 11-1. Graduate enrollment in degree-granting institutions and percent change in enrollment, by sex and race/ethnicity: 2000 and 2007

NOTE: The most recent year of actual data is 2007, and 2018 is the last year for which projected data are available. For more information on the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), see supplemental note 3.


NOTE: Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.