Section 4: Social Development and Behavioral Health

SD 1.1 Life Goals of High School Seniors

The personal and social life goals of high school students reflect their priorities for the future and provide insights into the positive and negative influences in their lives as they make the transition to adulthood. The percentages of high school seniors who rated selected personal and social goals as extremely important are presented in Tables SD 1.1.A and SD 1.1.B. Personal goals include being successful in their line of work, having a good marriage and *family* life, and having lots of money. Social goals include making a contribution to society, working to correct social and economic inequalities, and being a leader in their community.

From 1976 through 2000, high school seniors have been fairly consistent in the relative importance they assign to various life goals. Specifically, "Being successful in my line of work" and "Having a good marriage and family life" have been cited more often than other values as being extremely important. Since 1992, more than three out of four high school seniors have felt it extremely important to have a good marriage and family life, and nearly two out of three have felt it extremely important to be successful at work (see Table SD 1.1.A). "Having lots of money" and "Making a contribution to society" were the next most likely goals to be considered extremely important by high school seniors. Between 20 and 30 percent of seniors have found these goals extremely important in recent years (see Figures SD 1.1.A and SD 1.1.B). "Working to correct social and economic inequalities" and "Being a leader in my community" are rated as extremely important goals in 2000 for only small percentages of high school seniors rated as: 11 percent and 14 percent, respectively.

Differences by Race. In 2000, Black students were more likely than Whites to rate as extremely important goals such as being successful at work (71 percent versus 60 percent), having lots of money (47 percent versus 23 percent), and correcting social and economic inequalities (19 percent versus 9 percent). The two groups appeared equally likely to attach extreme importance to having a good marriage and family life, a rate that has hovered around 75 percent for both races over time.

Differences by Gender. Across the six goals, rates vary little between male students and female students, with several exceptions. In 2000, females were more likely to indicate that having a good marriage and family life was extremely important (83 percent versus 73 percent) and were less likely to report that having lots of money was an extremely important goal (20 percent versus 34 percent).

¹ Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Table SD 1.1.APercentage of high school seniors in the United States who rate selected personal life goals as being "extremely important," by gender and race: a Selected years, 1976-2000

by gender and race.4 3	electeu y	eurs, i	77 0-200	U									
	1976	1981	1986	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Being successful	in my	y line	of wo	rk									
Total	53	57	61	62	66	65	63	62	65	64	64	63	62
Gender													
Male	53	58	62	60	63	63	61	62	62	65	61	63	61
Female	52	57	60	64	69	67	66	62	68	64	68	64	64
Race ^a													
White	50	55	58	59	65	62	60	59	63	60	61	60	60
Black	67	71	73	75	80	74	79	72	74	81	80	76	71
Having a good n	narria	ge and	l fami	ly life									
Total	73	76	75	76	78	79	76	78	78	76	77	78	77
Gender													
Male	66	71	69	71	72	74	70	73	74	72	72	74	73
Female	80	82	82	83	84	85	81	83	81	81	82	83	83
Race ^a													
White	72	77	76	76	79	79	76	78	78	77	77	79	78
Black	75	73	76	78	75	76	72	76	75	76	77	76	75
Having lots of m	oney												
Total	15	18	27	28	29	26	26	25	25	28	29	26	28
Gender													
Male	20	24	34	37	35	32	32	30	33	33	35	34	34
Female	11	13	18	19	22	18	19	19	16	20	20	17	20
Race ^a													
White	12	15	24	25	24	20	22	21	21	22	22	21	23
Black	33	32	38	39	46	45	47	41	43	45	46	47	47

^a Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Note: 1976–1988 data based on one of five forms, with a resulting sample one-fifth of the total sample size for each year. 1989–2000 data based on one of six forms, with a resulting sample one-sixth of the total sample size for each year. Sources: Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley, 1976, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995, 1996–2000 unpublished tables. Questionnaire Form 1, (items A007A, A007B, and A007C).

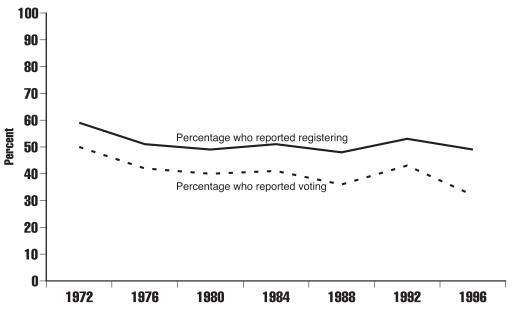
Table SD 1.1.BPercentage of high school seniors in the United States who rate selected social life goals as being "extremely important," by gender and race:^a Selected years, 1976-2000

gender und ruce." Seiet	icu you	3, 1770	2000										
	1976	1981	1986	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Making a contrib	ution	to so	ciety										
Total	18	18	17	21	22	24	24	20	24	22	23	22	20
Gender	10		-,					20			20		20
Male	16	19	18	20	22	25	23	19	23	19	21	22	20
Female	20	17	16	22	23	25	25	21	26	25	24	22	20
Racea													
White	18	18	16	20	22	24	23	19	23	22	23	21	18
Black	23	21	20	27	27	25	29	25	29	24	30	26	28
Working to corre	ct soc	ial an	d eco	nomic	inequ	ıalitie	s						
Total	10	10	9	12	15	15	14	10	12	12	11	10	11
Gender													
Male	8	9	7	11	14	14	12	9	11	10	10	9	11
Female	13	10	11	13	17	16	16	10	12	12	11	10	11
Racea													
White	8	7	7	10	13	12	11	8	9	9	8	8	9
Black	20	21	19	21	26	21	25	18	19	18	20	16	19
Being a leader in	my co	ommu	nity										
Total	7	8	9	11	13	13	14	12	15	15	14	15	14
Gender													
Male	8	8	11	12	14	17	14	14	16	16	14	17	14
Female	6	7	6	10	11	10	13	10	13	13	15	13	13
Race ^a													
White	6	7	8	9	11	12	12	10	14	12	12	13	11

Note: 1976–1988 data based on one of five forms, with a resulting sample one-fifth of the total sample size for each year. 1989–1999 data based on one of six forms, with a resulting sample one-sixth of the total sample size for each year. Sources: Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley, 1976, 1981, 1986, 1991, 1992, 1993, 1994, 1995. 1996–2000 unpublished tables. Questionnaire Form 1, (items A007G, A007H, and A007L).

Figure SD 1.1.A

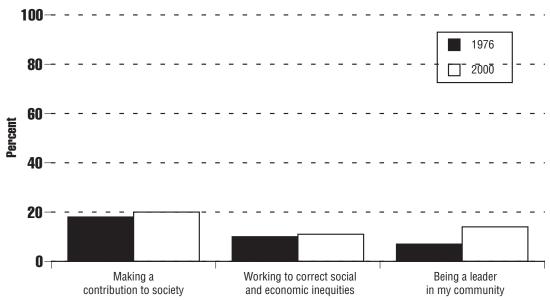
Percentage of high school seniors in the United States who rate selected personal life goals as being "extremely important": 1976-2000



Sources: Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley, 1997 and 2000, Questionnaire Form 1, (items A007A, A007B, and A007C).

Figure SD 1.1.B

Percentage of high school seniors in the United States who rate selected social life goals as being "extremely important": 1976 and 2000



Sources: Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley, 1997 and 2000; Questionnaire Form 1, (items A007G, A007H, and A007L).

SD 1.2 Peer Approval

As children grow older, peer relationships come to play an increasingly important role in determining their own behaviors and attitudes. For example, teenagers reporting that a large proportion of their friends are (or would like to be) sexually active are more likely to become sexually active themselves.²

Two measures of potential peer influence are offered here: the percentage of youth reporting that getting good grades has great or very great importance to their peers, and the percentage reporting that peers would disapprove of intentionally angering a teacher in school. Between 1980 and 2000, the percentage of 12th-graders reporting that their peers value good grades stayed fairly constant, varying between 44 percent and 49 percent (see Figure SD 1.2.A). During that same time period, the percentage reporting peer disapproval of angering a teacher in school decreased from 41 to 32 percent (see Table SD 1.2.B).

Differences by Age. In 2000, 8th-grade students were more likely than either 10th- or 12th-graders to report that their peers consider good grades to be of great or very great importance (54 percent versus 41 percent and 42 percent, respectively). However, more 12th-grade students were likely to report peer disapproval of intentionally angering a teacher in school (see Tables SD 1.2.A and SD 1.2.B).

Differences by Gender. Female students were slightly more likely than males to report that their peers value good grades and that they would disapprove of intentionally angering teachers; for example, among 12th-grade females in 2000, 44 percent reported that peers hold good grades to be of great or very great importance, compared to 39 percent of males (see Table SD 1.2.A). In that same year, 35 percent of 12th-grade females and 29 percent of males reported peer disapproval of intentionally angering a teacher in school (see Table SD 1.2.B).

Differences by Race.³ For all years for which data are presented, Black students in all grades were considerably more likely than their White counterparts to report strong peer support for good grades (see Figure SD 1.2.A); for example, in 2000, 35 percent of White and 63 percent of Black 12th-graders reported that their peers believed that good grades were of great or very great importance. Black students are slightly less likely to report peer disapproval of intentionally angering teachers. The difference by race is largest among high school seniors, in a trend that has been consistent since 1980 (see Figure SD 1.2.B).

² Hayes, C.D. Risking the Future, p. 105; Newcomer, S.F., Gilbert, M., and Udry, J.R. Perceived and Actual Same-Sex Behavior as Determinants of Adolescent Sexual Behavior. Cited in National Commission on Children, 1991; Cvetkovitch, G., and Grote, B. Psychological Development and the Social Problem of Teenage Illegitimacy. In Adolescent Pregnancy and Childbearing: Findings from Research (C. Chilman, ed). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Cited in National Commission on Children, 1991; Beyond Rhetoric: A New American Agenda for Children and Families, Final Report of the National Commission on Children, p. 351. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

³ Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Table SD 1.2.APercentage of 8th-, 10th-, and 12th-grade students in the United States reporting that good grades have great or very great importance to peers, by gender and race:^a Selected years, 1980-2000

illiportulice to peer	s, by goi	iuci ullu	Tuco. J	olociou	, ouis, 12	700 Z00							
	1980	1985	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
8th Grade													
Total	_	_	_	51	52	54	54	55	55	52	51	50	54
Gender													
Male	_	_	_	50	50	54	52	52	54	51	52	49	53
Female	_	_	_	53	53	54	55	56	55	53	50	51	54
Racea													
White	_	—	_	47	47	49	49	48	48	46	46	45	49
Black	_	_	_	72	72	70	70	72	77	71	69	68	70
10th Grade													
Total	_	_	_	44	43	39	42	44	45	43	44	42	41
Gender													
Male	_	_	_	42	42	36	39	43	42	40	43	40	39
Female	_	_	_	46	44	42	45	45	47	45	46	44	42
Racea													
White	_	_	_	38	38	35	38	39	40	38	37	36	35
Black	_	_	_	67	66	59	64	67	65	62	69	66	65
12th Grade													
Total	48	49	48	44	45	46	45	46	46	45	45	47	42
Gender													
Male	48	50	46	41	42	43	44	41	44	41	42	44	39
Female	48	48	51	47	48	48	46	50	49	49	48	49	44
Race ^a													
White	43	43	43	37	39	40	39	40	42	41	40	39	35
Black	78	77	76	71	70	61	67	67	69	59	63	77	63

^a Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Note: Data for 8th- and 10th-grade students are based on one of two questionnaire forms for 1991–1996, and based on two of four forms for 1997–1999, with a resulting sample size one-half of the total sample size for each grade in each year. Data for 12th-grade students are based on one of six questionnaire forms for 1989–1999 and one of five for 1980–1988, resulting in one-sixth, and one-fifth, respectively, of the total sample size for each year. Data for 8th and 10th grades have been available since 1991.

Sources: Bachman, Johnston, and O'Malley, 1980, 1985, 1990, 2000, (Questionnaire Forms 1 and 3).

Table SD 1.2.BPercentage of 8th-, 10th-, and 12th-grade students in the United States reporting peer disapproval of intentionally angering a teacher in school, by gender and race: Selected years, 1980-2000

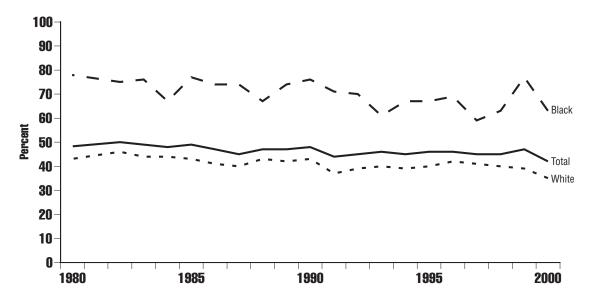
	/ 3			,,,,,	,								
	1980	1985	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
8th Grade													
Total	_	_	_	26	24	24	21	22	23	23	24	22	26
Gender													
Male	_	_	_	22	20	20	18	19	20	21	20	20	23
Female	_	_	_	30	27	26	23	24	26	26	27	24	30
Race ^a													
White	_	_	_	26	24	24	22	22	23	24	24	23	28
Black	_	_	_	23	24	23	22	22	22	20	23	20	21
10th Grade													
Total	_	_	_	26	24	24	26	24	23	23	25	26	27
Gender													
Male	_	_	_	21	19	19	22	21	19	20	23	22	23
Female	_	—	_	31	28	28	30	28	26	27	28	30	31
Race ^a													
White	_	_	_	27	25	25	26	25	23	24	26	27	29
Black	_	_	_	22	21	20	23	19	20	19	24	26	18
12th Grade													
Total	41	42	33	33	34	34	33	36	35	34	33	34	32
Gender													
Male	37	35	29	31	28	30	25	32	29	31	28	30	29
Female	46	48	38	37	39	37	40	41	40	38	38	37	35
Racea													
White	44	43	35	34	35	34	34	36	36	36	35	36	35
Black	29	33	30	29	30	27	25	33	28	30	24	23	25

^a Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Note: Data for 8th- and 10th-grade students are based on one of two questionnaire forms for 1991–1996, and based on two of four forms for 1997–1999, with a resulting sample size one-half of the total sample size for each grade in each year. Data for 12th-grade students are based on one of six questionnaire forms for 1989–1999 and one of five for 1980–1988, resulting in one-sixth, and one-fifth, respectively, of the total sample size for each year. Data for 8th and 10th grades have been available since 1991.

Sources: Bachman, Johnston, and O'Malley, 1980, 1985, 1990, 2000. (Questionnaire Forms 1 and 3).

Figure SD 1.2.A

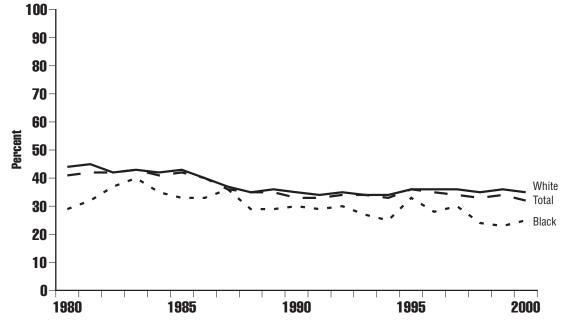
Percentage of high school seniors in the United States reporting that good grades have great or very great importance to peers, by race: 1980-2000



^a This question was not asked in 1981.

Figure SD 1.2.B

Percentage of high school seniors in the United States reporting peer disapproval of intentionally angering a teacher in school, by race: a 1980-2000



^a Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Sources: Bachman, Johnston, and O'Malley, 1980, 1985, 1990, 2000. (Questionnaire Forms 1 and 3).

^b Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Sources: Bachman, Johnston, and O'Malley, 1980, 1985, 1990, 2000. (Questionnaire Forms 1 and 3).

SD 1.3 Religious Attendance and Religiosity

Research relating religion to children's day-to-day conduct suggests that teens who are religious are more likely to avoid high-risk behaviors. However, the number of 12th-grade students who report weekly religious attendance has declined from two out of every five students (41 percent) in 1976 to one out of every three students (31-33 percent) since 1991. During that same period, the percentage of 12th-grade students who report that religion plays a very important role in their lives stayed fairly constant, varying between 25 percent and 33 percent (see Figure SD 1.3).

Differences by Age. Data for students in the 8th and 10th grades, available since 1991, indicate that younger adolescents are more likely to report weekly religious attendance but are not more likely to report that religion plays a very important role in their lives (see Tables SD 1.3.A and SD 1.3.B). In 2000, 44 percent of 8th-graders reported weekly religious attendance, versus 39 percent of 10th-grade and 32 percent of 12th-grade students. During 2000, the percentage reporting that religion played an important role in their lives was 32 percent for all three grades.

Differences by Gender. Females in all grades are somewhat more likely than males to report weekly religious attendance and that religion plays a very important role in their lives (see Tables SD 1.3.A and SD 1.3.B).

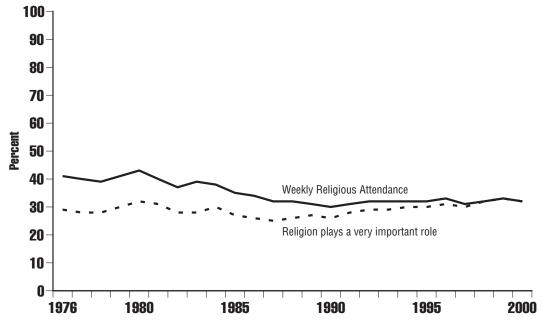
Differences by Race.⁵ Black students across all three grades have consistently been nearly twice as likely as their White counterparts to report that religion plays a very important role in their lives; for example, in 2000, 57 percent of Black 12th-graders reported that religion played such a role, compared with 26 percent of White 12th-grade students.

⁴ National Commission on Children. 1991. *Beyond Rhetoric: A New American Agenda for Children and Families*. Final Report of the National Commission on Children, p. 352. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

⁵ Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Figure SD 1.3

Percentage of high school seniors in the United States reporting weekly religious attendance and reporting religion is important in their lives: 1976-2000



Sources: Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley, 1976-2000, (Questionnaire Forms 1-6).

Table SD 1.3.A

Percentage of 8th-, 10th-, and 12th-grade students in the United States who report weekly religious attendance, by gender and race: Selected years, 1976-2000

Tutte. Jeietieu	, ou.s,	7 0 200											
	1976	1981	1986	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998 ^b	1999 ^b	2000b
8th Grade													
Total	_		_	46	43	42	42	42	43	44	45	43	44
Gender													
Male	_	_	_	44	41	39	40	40	40	42	42	41	41
Female	_	_	_	49	46	45	45	45	46	47	47	46	47
Racea													
White	_		_	48	44	44	44	43	44	46	45	45	45
Black	_	_	_	47	46	42	42	46	45	46	49	46	50
104h C 1-													
10th Grade Total				38	39	40	37	37	38	38	38	38	39
Gender	_	_	_	30	39	40	37	37	30	30	30	30	39
Male				35	37	37	35	35	35	36	35	36	37
Female	_	_	_	42	41	43	39	40	40	41	40	40	41
Racea				72	71	40	0)	40	40	71	40	40	71
White	_			39	39	41	37	37	38	39	37	37	39
Black	_	_		44	45	44	41	44	38	43	45	43	43
				7.7	10	7.7	71	7.7	00	10	10	10	70
12th Grade													
Total	41	40	34	31	32	32	32	32	33	31	32	33	32
Gender													
Male	36	36	31	28	31	29	30	30	30	28	29	33	31
Female	46	44	38	34	34	34	35	35	35	33	34	34	34
Racea													
White	42	41	35	31	32	31	32	32	32	29	31	33	30
Black	37	40	36	38	35	35	39	40	38	40	41	40	43

^a Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Note: Data for 8th and 10th grades available since 1991.

Sources: Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley, 1976-2000. (Questionnaire Forms 1-6).

^b California schools omitted.

Table SD 1.3.B

Percentage of 8th-, 10th-, and 12th-grade students in the United States who report that religion plays a very important role in their lives, by gender and race: Selected years, 1976-2000

illell lives, by go	maor and	<i>a</i> 1 u c o .	30100100	, ouis, i	77 O 20								
	1976	1981	1986	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998 ^b	1999 ^b	2000b
8th Grade													
Total	_	_	_	29	27	30	30	30	32	32	34	33	32
Gender													
Male	_	_	_	27	26	27	29	28	29	30	32	31	28
Female	_	_	_	31	28	32	32	32	34	34	36	36	35
Racea													
White	—	_	_	26	23	26	26	26	27	28	30	29	28
Black	_	_	_	46	46	42	47	45	47	48	52	51	52
10th Grade													
Total	_	_	_	29	28	29	28	29	29	30	31	32	32
Gender													
Male	_	_	_	26	26	26	24	26	26	28	29	28	28
Female	_	_	_	31	29	31	32	31	31	33	34	34	35
Race ^a													
White	_	—	_	24	24	26	24	25	26	27	26	27	26
Black	_	_	_	52	50	50	48	49	47	48	52	55	57
12th Grade													
Total	29	31	26	28	29	29	30	30	31	30	32	33	32
Gender													
Male	24	25	23	24	26	26	27	27	27	26	28	30	28
Female	34	36	30	31	33	33	32	33	35	34	36	35	35
Racea													
White	26	27	23	24	25	24	26	26	27	24	27	29	26
Black	51	51	51	50	51	51	49	52	55	55	57	55	57

^a Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Note: Data for 8th and 10th grades available since 1991.

Sources: Johnston, Bachman, and O'Malley, 1976-2000. (Questionnaire Forms 1-6).

^b California schools were omitted.

SD 1.4 Voting Behavior of Young Adults

Voting is a critical exercise of citizenship in a democracy. Measures of the voting behavior of young adults may be seen as indicators of the level of youth commitment to the democratic process.

Rates of reported voter registration and voting among 18- through 24-year-olds during presidential election years declined between 1972 and 1976 and have stayed rather flat through 1996 (see Table SD 1.4.A). In 1972, 59 percent of young adults ages 18 through 24 reported that they had registered to vote, and 50 percent reported that they had voted. By 1996, 49 percent reported that they had registered, and 32 percent reported that they had voted (see Figure SD 1.4.A).

The percentage of young adults who reported that they had voted in nonpresidential election years since 1974 is substantially lower than the percentage who reported that they had voted during presidential election years (see Table SD 1.4.B). Rates of reported registration and voting have been remarkably stable during such years, across nonpresidential election years, with overall rates varying by only a few percentage points across the years.

Differences by Gender. Reported rates of voter registration and voting are modestly higher among women both over time and within racial and ethnic groups, particularly during presidential election years; for example, in 1996, 51 percent of females and 47 percent of males ages 18 through 24 reported that they had registered to vote (see Table SD 1.4.A).

Differences by Race and Hispanic Origin.⁶ Hispanic young adults are the least likely to report that they register and vote. In 1996, 28 percent of Hispanic young adults reported that they had registered, and 15 percent reported that they had voted. Comparable numbers for Blacks are 49 percent registered and 32 percent voted. Whites were the most likely to report that they had registered (50 percent) and voted (33 percent) in 1996 (see Figure SD 1.4.A). However, it is important to note that we cannot account for how many of the Hispanic population are *foreign-born* and/or noncitizens. It is therefore possible that this decline in the percentage of Hispanics voting may be a function of an increase in the number of immigrants who are ineligible to vote.

⁶ Estimates for Blacks and Whites include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Table SD 1.4.APercentage of persons ages 18 through 24 in the United States who reported that they had registered to vote and percentag who reported that they had voted in presidential election years, by race and Hispanic origin and gender: Selected years, 1972-1996

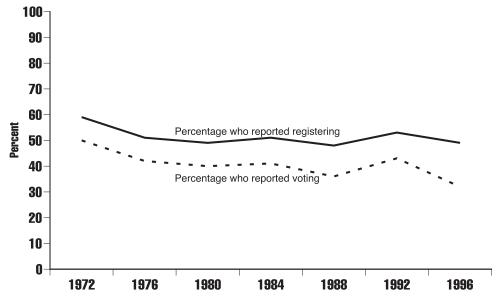
	1972	1976	1980	1984	1988	1992	1996
Registering							
All races total ^a	59	51	49	51	48	52	49
Male	58	51	48	50	45	50	47
Female	59	52	50	53	51	54	51
White total	61	54	51	52	49	55	50
Male	60	53	50	51	46	53	48
Female	61	54	52	53	51	57	52
Black total	48	39	41	54	50	49	49
Male	45	38	39	49	47	46	45
Female	50	40	43	58	53	52	53
Hispanic total	39	29	23	30	25	25	28
Male	38	30	20	27	21	20	25
Female	39	28	25	32	30	30	31
Voting							
All races total ^a	50	42	40	41	36	43	32
Male	49	41	39	39	34	40	30
Female	50	43	41	43	38	45	35
White total	52	45	42	42	37	45	33
Male	51	43	40	40	35	43	31
Female	53	46	43	43	39	47	35
Black total	35	28	30	41	35	37	32
Male	32	27	29	36	32	32	25
Female	37	29	31	45	37	41	38
Hispanic total	31	22	16	22	17	18	15
Male	30	22	13	20	14	14	12
Female	32	22	19	24	20	22	19

^a Estimates for Whites and Blacks include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Note: Current Population Survey figures routinely overestimate voter registration and turnout when compared to the official rates.

Sources: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Nos. 253, 322, 370, 405, 440, 466, 504.

Figure SD 1.4.A

Percentage of persons ages 18 through 24 in the United States who reported that they had registered to vote and percentage who reported that they had voted in presidential election years: Selected years, 1972-1996

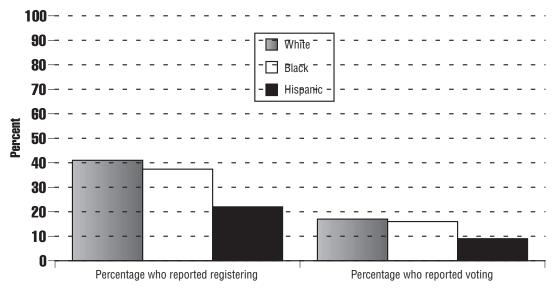


Note: Current Population Survey figures routinely overestimate voter registration and turnout when compared to the official rates.

Sources: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Nos.. 253, 293, 322, 344, 370, 405, 414, 453, 466, and PPL24-RV.

Figure SD 1.4.B

Percentage of persons ages 18 through 24 in the United States who registered to vote and percentage who voted in nonpresidential election year, by race and Hispanic origin^a: 1998



^aEstimates for Whites and Blacks include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Note: Current Population Survey figures routinely overestimate voter registration and turnout when compared to the official rates.

Sources: Casper and Bass, 1998.

Table SD 1.4.BPercentage of persons ages 18 through 24 in the United States who reported that they had registered to vote and percentage who reported that they had voted in nonpresidential election years, by race and Hispanic origin and gender: Selected years, 1974-1998

	1974	1978	1982	1986	1990	1994	1998
Registering							
All races total ^a	41	41	42	42	40	42	39
Male	42	39	42	41	39	41	36
Female	41	42	42	43	40	44	42
White total	43	41	43	42	40	44	41
Male	44	41	44	41	40	43	38
Female	42	42	43	43	41	45	43
Black total	34	37	42	46	40	42	38
Male	31	35	38	43	41	38	33
Female	36	39	45	49	40	45	42
Hispanic total	23	20	24	22	19	20	22
Male	23	22	24	20	18	18	18
Female	23	19	25	24	21	22	27
Voting							
All races total ^a	24	24	25	22	20	20	17
Male	25	23	25	21	20	19	16
Female	23	24	24	23	21	21	18
White total	25	24	25	22	21	21	17
Male	26	24	26	21	20	20	17
Female	24	25	24	22	21	22	18
Black total	16	20	25	25	20	17	16
Male	16	19	24	24	20	14	13
Female	13	21	27	26	20	20	18
Hispanic total	13	11	14	12	9	10	9
Male	14	13	14	10	7	8	6
Female	12	10	14	13	11	13	12

^a Estimates for Whites and Blacks include Hispanics of those races. Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. Note: Current Population Survey figures routinely overestimate voter registration and turnout when compared to the official rates.

Sources: U.S. Census Bureau, *Current Population Reports*, Series P-20, Nos. 253, 293, 322, 344, 370, 405, 414, 453, 466, and PPL24-RV; Reported voting and registration for the United States, 1998, (Table 2).

SD 1.5 Television Viewing Habits

Extensive television viewing in American culture has long been criticized for inducing passivity and for taking time away from more active learning activities. In fact, research studies indicate that excessive television watching is negatively related to the academic attainment of children and youth; for example, at 17, 13, and 9 years of age, students who said they typically watch 6 or more hours of television each day scored lower, on average, than their peers who spent less time watching television. Yet, as depicted in Figure SD 1.5, substantial percentages of students still report watching large amounts of television on a daily basis.

Differences by Age. The percentage of children who report watching 6 or more hours of television declines with age, as indicated in Figure SD 1.5. Among 9-year-olds, 19 percent reported watching 6 or more hours of television each day in 1999, compared to 12 and 7 percent of 13- and 17-year olds.

Differences by Race and Hispanic Origin. For each age group substantially larger proportions of non-Hispanic Black students watch television for 6 or more hours per day than do either non-Hispanic White or Hispanic students. For example, among 9-year-old students, 39 percent of non-Hispanic Black students, compared with 13 percent of non-Hispanic White students and 24 percent of Hispanic students, reported watching television 6 or more hours per day in 1999. This pattern holds for all previous years of data collection (see Table SD 1.5.A).

Differences by Type of School. In general, smaller percentages of children and adolescents who attend private school spend 6 or more hours per day watching television than do students who attend public school (see Tables SD 1.5.A, SD 1.5.B, and SD 1.5.C).

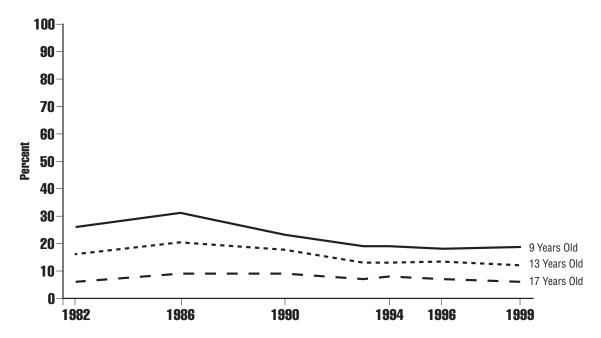
Differences by Parents' Education Level. Children's television viewing habits also vary by parents' educational level. In general, as parents' educational levels increase, the percentages of children watching 6 or more hours of television decline. In 1999, 19 percent of 13-year-olds whose parents had less than a high school education were watching 6 or more hours of television per day, compared with 16 percent of students with parents who graduated from high school and 9 percent of students whose parents graduated from college (see Table SD 1.5.B).

⁸ Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

⁷ U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2000.) National Assessment of Educational Progress, 1999 Long Term Assessment. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Figure SD 1.5

Percentage of students in the United States who watch 6 or more hours of television per day, by age: Selected years, 1982-1999



Sources: Unpublished tables, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1992, 1994, 1996, and 1999 Long-Term Trend Results, Math Assessment data; and unpublished Almanacs, 1978-1990.

Table SD 1.5.APercentage of 9-year-old students in the United States who watch 6 or more hours of television per day, by gender, race, and Hispanic origin and type of school: Selected years, 1982-1999

	1982	1986	1990	1992	1994	1996	1999
Total	26	31	23	19	19	18	19
Gender							
Male	30	34	27	22	23	20	22
Female	23	27	20	17	16	15	16
Race and Hispanic origina							
White, non-Hispanic	23	26	18	14	14	13	13
Black, non-Hispanic	43	53	47	41	40	39	39
Hispanic	28	33	26	25	22	21	24
Type of school							
Public	27	32	24	21	19	19	20
Private	21	24	18	5	11	7	11

^a Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Note: Parents' education is not reported for 9-year-olds because approximately one-third of these students did not know their parents' education level.

Sources: Unpublished tables, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1992, 1994, 1996, and 1999 Long-Term Trend Results; and unpublished Almanacs, 1978-1990.

Table SD 1.5.BPercentage of 13-year-old students in the United States who watch 6 or more hours of television per day, by gender, race, and Hispanic origin, type of school and parents' education level: Selected years, 1982-1999

1 3771	1000	1006	1000	1002	1004	1006	1000
	1982	1986	1990	1992	1994	1996	1999
Total	16	20	17	13	13	13	12
Gender							
Male	18	21	18	14	15	15	13
Female	15	19	15	11	12	11	11
Race and Hispanic origina							
White, non-Hispanic	13	17	12	8	8	7	7
Black, non-Hispanic	32	40	35	31	35	35	33
Hispanic	19	21	18	19	19	17	15
Type of school							
Public	17	20	17	14	14	13	12
Private	13	_	11	6	4	3	7
Parents' education level							
Less than high school	23	32	24	21	23	18	19
Graduated high school	18	22	19	16	17	13	16
More than high school	13	18	12	9	13	13	12
Graduated college	12	15	13	9	9	10	9

^{— =}Too few observations for a reliable estimate.

Sources: Unpublished tables, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1992, 1994, 1996, and 1999 Long-Term Trend Results, and unpublished Almanacs, 1978-1990.

^a Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Table SD 1.5.CPercentage of 17-year-old students in the United States who watch 6 or more hours of television per day, by gender, race, and Hispanic origin, type of school and parents' education level: Selected years, 1978-1999

	1978	1982	1986	1990	1992	1994	1996	1999
Total	5	6	9	9	7	8	7	7
Gender								
Male	5	7	10	9	7	10	7	8
Female	5	6	8	8	7	7	7	6
Race and Hispanic origina								
White, non-Hispanic	4	5	6	6	4	5	4	3
Black, non-Hispanic	13	14	22	23	21	24	21	23
Hispanic	7	6	12	8	6	9	9	6
Type of school								
Public	5	7	9	9	7	8	7	7
Private	3	3	_	—	3	3	6	0
Parents' education level								
Less than high school	8	10	17	11	10	14	15	9
Graduated high school	5	8	10	11	10	12	9	10
More than high school	4	4	9	8	5	8	6	6
Graduated college	3	4	4	5	5	5	6	5

^{— =}Too few observations for a reliable estimate.

Sources: Unpublished tables, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1992, 1994, 1996, and 1999 Long-Term Trend Results, and unpublished Almanacs, 1978-1990.

^a Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

SD 1.6 Detached Youth: Not in School and Not Working

"Detached youth" refers to young people ages 16 through 19 who are neither enrolled in school nor working. This detachment, particularly if it lasts for several years, increases the risk that a young person, over time, will have lower earnings and a less stable employment history than his or her peers who stayed in school and/or secured jobs. 9

Since 1985, the percentage of detached youth has fluctuated between 8 and 11 percent (see Table SD 1.6). In 2000, 8 percent of all youth ages 16 through 19 were detached.

Differences by Gender. Young women are slightly more likely than young men to be detached from both school and employment. In 2000, 9 percent of young women, and 7 percent of young men experienced detachment.

Differences by Race and Hispanic Origin. Black, non-Hispanic and Hispanic youth are more likely than White, non-Hispanic youth to be detached from school and employment. In 2000, 13 percent of Black, non-Hispanic youth and 13 percent of Hispanic youth experienced detachment. The corresponding rate for White, non-Hispanic youth was 6 percent.

Differences by Age. Youth ages 16 or 17 are more likely than 18- or 19-year-olds to be in school or working. In 2000, 12 percent of 18- and 19-year-olds were detached, while only 4 percent of their younger peers were detached.

⁹ Brown, B. 1996. Who Are America's Disconnected Youth? Report prepared for the American Enterprise Institute.

¹⁰ Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Table SD 1.6Percentage of 16- through 19-year-olds in the United States who are neither enrolled in school nor working, by gender and by race and Hispanic origin and by age: Selected years, 1985-2000

	1985	1990	1995 ^c	1996 ^c	1997 ^c	1998 ^c	1999 ^c	2000°
Total	11	10	9	9	9	8	8	8
Gender								
Male	9	8	8	8	8	8	7	7
Female	13	12	11	11	10	9	9	9
Race and Hispanic origin ^b								
White, non-Hispanic	9	8	7	7	7	6	6	6
Black, non-Hispanic	18	15	14	15	14	13	13	13
Hispanic	17	17	16	16	14	14	14	13
Age								
16-17	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4
18-19	17	15	15	15	14	13	13	12

^a The figures represent a yearly average based on responses for the 9 months youth typically are in school (September through May). Youth are asked about their activities for the week prior to the survey. Results are based on uncomposited estimates and are not comparable to data from published tables.

Source: Special tabulations of the Current Population Survey prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, as published in *America's Children: Key National Indicators of Well-Being. 2001*. Federal Interagency Forum on Child and Family Statistics, Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, (Table ED6.A).

^b Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

^c Data for 1994 and subsequent years are not strictly comparable with data for prior years because of major revisions in the Current Population Survey questionnaire and data collection methodology, and because of the inclusion of the 1990 census-based population controls in the estimation process.

SD 1.7 Youth Violent Crime Arrest Rates

The Federal Bureau of Investigation's *Violent Crime* Index includes murder, forcible rape, robbery, and aggravated assault. Throughout the 1980s the number of juvenile arrests¹¹ for those Index crimes varied with the size of the juvenile population; the arrest rate remained fairly constant. In 1990 however, the arrest rate jumped and continued to climb each year until it reached a peak in 1994. In this nine year period between 1985 and 1994, the rate of juvenile arrests for violent crime increased by 74 percent (see Table SD 1.7). After 1994, the rate declined and had returned to pre-1990 levels by 1998. The rate in 1999 was 339 arrests for every 100,000 youth between 10 and 17 years of age. Even in the unlikely event that each of these arrests involved a different juvenile, then no more than 1 in every 290 youths were arrested for a Violent Crime Index offense in 1999. This is the lowest number of juvenile arrests since 1988 for all Index offenses combined and the lowest since 1984 for murder.

Differences by Gender. In 1980, the female juvenile Violent Crime Index arrest rate was 12 percent of the male rate. When the overall arrest rate peaked in 1994, the female rate had increased to 18 percent of the male rate. However, as the overall arrest rate declined in the latter half of the 1990s, the rate for females did not fall as sharply as their male counterparts. Thus, by 1999 the violent crime arrest rate for females was 23 percent of the male rate (see Figure SD 1.7).

Differences by Age. Very young offenders present unique service needs to the juvenile justice system. Between 1980 and 1994, the violent crime arrest rate for youth under age 13 nearly doubled. Furthermore, despite the fact that the arrest rate for these very young juveniles has been decreasing since 1994, the rate for 1999 is still 67 percent greater than the 1980 rate (see Table SD 1.7).

¹¹ Arrests for violent crimes were chosen in preference to other arrest measures as an indicator both because of the particular hazards that violent crime represents to our society and because arrests for violent crimes are less likely to be affected over time by changes in police practice and policy than other types of crime.

Table SD 1.7Violent crime arrest rates for youth ages 10 through 17^a in the United States, by gender and age (per 100,000): Selected years, 1980-1999

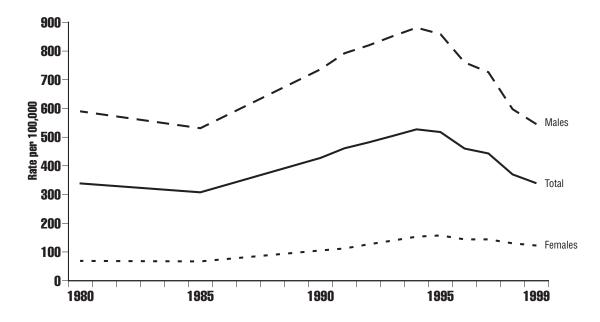
7-22-7												
	1980	1985	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Total	334	303	428	461	482	504	527	518	460	443	370	339
10-12	46	56	71	79	85	86	92	91	80	83	76	77
13-14	261	252	368	405	444	460	493	469	405	398	329	319
15	504	446	670	732	768	826	855	823	723	667	547	512
16	639	566	876	935	993	1,026	1,053	1,031	896	869	696	626
17	740	651	983	1,066	1,056	1,109	1,111	1,113	1,013	944	814	701
Male total	587	528	736	792	819	851	881	859	760	726	597	545
10-12	81	99	119	134	144	144	153	149	132	137	124	_
13-14	445	425	601	664	720	739	787	744	640	622	507	_
15	876	769	1,136	1,241	1,280	1,373	1,406	1,337	1,173	1,072	865	_
16	1,131	994	1,521	1,620	1,711	1,755	1,785	1,730	1,500	1,440	1,135	_
17	1,322	1,159	1,740	1,888	1,853	1,930	1,922	1,914	1,722	1,600	1,356	_
Female total	70	67	105	112	127	140	153	158	144	144	130	122
10-12	10	12	19	21	23	25	27	29	26	26	26	_
13-14	70	71	123	132	153	167	183	181	159	163	143	_
15	117	108	177	195	228	248	272	279	248	239	211	_
16	125	117	192	207	230	252	274	287	254	261	229	_
17	130	116	178	191	205	232	246	257	254	242	234	

^a Rates of arrests of persons 10-17 per 100,000 persons ages 10-17 in the resident population. The violent Crime Index includes the offenses of murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggrevated assault.

Note: Estimates in this table may not be comparable to estimates provided in previous issues of *Trends in the Well-Being of America's Children and Youth* due to changes in the population estimates provided by the U.S. Bureau of the Census. Source: Snyder, H. 2000. *Statistical Briefing Book*. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

Figure SD 1.7

Violent crime arrest rates for youth ages 10 through 17a in the United States, by gender: 1980-1999



a Rates of arrests of persons 10-17 per 100,000 persons ages 10-17 in the resident population. The Violent Crime Index includes the offenses of murder and nonnegligent manslaughter, forcible rape, robbery, and aggrevated assault.
 Note: Estimates in this figure may not be comparable to estimates provided in previous issues of *Trends in the Well-Being of America's Children and Youth* due to changes in the population estimates provided by the U.S. Census Bureau.
 Source: Snyder, H. 2000. *Statistical Briefing Book*. Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention.

SD 1.8 Low-Risk Teen Cumulative Risk Index

Statistics often show rates of individual problem behaviors among adolescents, such as drug or alcohol use, school dropout, or early sexual activity. Yet youth engaged in one problem behavior are often engaged in others as well; their risk of immediate and long-term harm increases as the number of risky behaviors increases.¹²

The Low-Risk Teen Cumulative Risk Index¹³ is designed to identify the degree to which adolescents avoid a set of key problem behaviors simultaneously. This measure is created from 1995 youth-report data for five behaviors, where a youth is defined as having no risks if he or she: (1) Has not been suspended or expelled from school, (2) Has never had sexual intercourse, (3) Has never used illegal drugs (including marijuana, cocaine, *inhalants*, heroin, PCP, ecstasy, amphetamines, LSD, mushrooms, and pills), (4) Has never drunk alcohol unsupervised by adults, and (5) Has never smoked cigarettes regularly (at least once a day for 30 days).

Across the adolescent years, more girls than boys report being free of any of the five *risk behaviors*. Similarly, children from *two-parent* families are more likely than children in single-mother families to avoid risky behaviors. *Family income* is another mitigating factor, with children in mid- to high-income families somewhat more likely than others to report that they avoid risk behaviors (see Table SD 1.8).

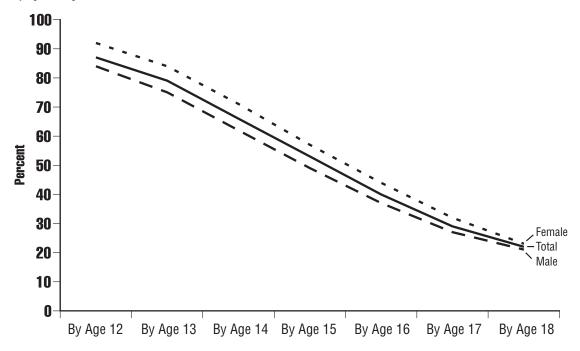
Differences by Age. The proportion of young people who report avoiding all risk behaviors decreases with age (see Figure SD 1.8). By age 15 (by the 15th birthday), slightly more than half of responding young people (53 percent) have avoided all five risk behaviors, and 32 percent have experienced two or more risks. By age 17 (by the 17th birthday), an age at which most young people are still in high school, the proportion with no risks drops to 29 percent, and nearly half (45 percent) have now experienced two or more risk behaviors. Once youth reach their 18th birthday, only 22 percent report having engaged in no risk behaviors, while 48 percent report two or more such behaviors. Table SD 1.8 presents additional data on the percentage who report only one, and two or more, risk behaviors.

¹² Moore, K.A., and Glei, D.A. 1994. Taking the Plunge: An Examination of Positive Youth Development. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 10(11):15-40.

¹³ Risks are drawn from youth reports of selected behaviors in the 1995 National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health. The behaviors examined for this cumulative index are suspension or expulsion from school, engaging in sexual intercourse, use of illegal drugs, unsupervised consumption of alcohol, and regular smoking of tobacco cigarettes. A status of "no risks" indicates that a youth reported involvement in none of the five tracked behaviors for each of the age periods specified.

Figure SD 1.8

Percentage of youth by their 12th through 18th birthdays in the United States with no risks^a on cumulative risk measure, by age^b and gender: 1995



^a Risks are drawn from youth reports of selected behaviors in the 1995 National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health. The behaviors examined for this cumulative index are suspension or expulsion from school, engaging in sexual intercourse, use of illegal drugs, unsupervised consumption of alcohol, and regular smoking of tobacco cigarettes. A status of "no risks" indicates that a youth reported involvement in none of the five tracked behaviors for each of the age periods specified.

Source: Unpublished tabulations from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health Wave 1, 1995.

^b Age breaks for this indicator represent percentages of youth who have engaged (or not engaged) in the specified behaviors by the indicated birthdays.

Table SD 1.8Percentage of youth by their 12th through 18th birthdays in the United States who have engaged in selected risk^a behaviors, by age, b gender, family structure, and family income: 1995

	By Age 12	By Age 13	By Age 14	By Age 15	By Age 16	By Age 17	By Age 18
All respondents							
No risks	87	79	66	53	40	29	22
Only one risk	3	5	10	15	21	26	30
Two or more risks	10	16	24	32	39	45	48
Respondents							
with no risks							
Gender							
Male	84	75	62	49	37	27	21
Female	92	84	71	57	44	32	23
Family structure ^c							
Two parents	91	85	73	61	48	36	28
Single-mother	84	73	58	43	32	23	16
Other	82	72	57	42	31	20	15
Family income							
\$15,000	05	76	60	40	37	27	20
and under	85	76	63	48	5/	27	20
\$15,001-\$35,000	85	76	62	52	39	28	22
\$35,001-\$50,000	90	82	70	57	43	31	26
\$50,001 and over	92	85	72	58	45	33	23

^a Risks are drawn from youth reports of selected behaviors in the 1995 National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health. The behaviors examined for this cumulative index are suspension or expulsion from school, engaging in sexual intercourse, use of illegal drugs, unsupervised consumption of alcohol, and regular smoking of tobacco cigarettes. A status of "no risks" indicates that a youth reported involvement in none of the five tracked behaviors for each of the age periods specified.

Source: Unpublished tabulations from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health Wave 1, 1995.

^b Age breaks for this indicator represent percentages of youth who have engaged (or not engaged) in the specified behaviors by the indicated birthdays.

^c "Two parents" includes biological and adoptive parents only. The "other" category includes all family types that are not households with two biological or adoptive parents from birth, or female single-parent households. Stepfamilies, single-father families, and children living with their grandparents are included as "other" families in Table SD 1.8.

SD 1.9 Closeness With Parents

The quality of relationships that youth have with parents is important for several aspects of their development; for example, a positive parent-child relationship can promote an adolescent's ability to handle stress. ¹⁴ Recent research suggests that closeness with parents serves as a protective factor against emotional distress, substance use, early sexual activity, and suicide thoughts or attempts. ¹⁵

Differences by Age. More young adolescents report feeling very close to parents than do older adolescents; for example, more youth ages 12 through 14 (78 percent) report a very close relationship with their resident biological mother than do youth ages 15 through 17 (66 percent). Similar patterns are found for reports of closeness to resident and nonresident biological fathers, as well as resident nonbiological parents (see Figure SD 1.9).

Differences by Gender. Males report feeling closer to their parents than do females; for example, 74 percent of adolescent males compared with 65 percent of adolescent females report feeling very close to their resident biological mothers. Similarly, 64 percent of adolescent males report feeling very close to their resident biological fathers, compared with 51 percent of female youth.

Differences by Race and Hispanic Origin.¹⁶ More Black, non-Hispanic and Hispanic youth than White, non-Hispanic youth report feeling very close to their mothers or mother figures; for example, 78 percent of Black, non-Hispanic adolescents and 74 percent of Hispanic adolescents report feeling very close to their resident biological mother, while 68 percent of White, non-Hispanic adolescents report a similar relationship with their resident biological mother. Feelings of closeness with fathers followed the same pattern, with Black, non-Hispanic and Hispanic youth reporting closer relationships than White, non-Hispanic youth. However, the variations by race or *Hispanic origin* were not as pronounced for fathers as for mothers (see Table SD 1.9).

Differences by Family Income. Generally speaking, youth from *low-income* families were more likely to report being very close to their resident parents (biological and nonbiological); for example, youth whose parents earned between \$5,000 and \$9,999 per year were more likely to report very close relationships with their resident biological mother (78 percent) than were youth whose parents earned \$25,000 to \$34,999 per year (68 percent) (see Table SD 1.9).

Differences by Parent Type. More adolescents report feelings of closeness with resident than with nonresident biological parents. Furthermore, adolescents report feeling closer to nonbiological resident parents than nonresident biological parents. For example, 70 percent of youth report feeling very close to their resident biological mother, compared with 61 percent who report feeling very close to their resident nonbiological mother and 37 percent who report feeling very close to their nonresident biological mother. Similar patterns exist for fathers and father figures.

¹⁴ Hawes, D. 1996. Who Knows Who Best: A Program to Stimulate Parent-Teen Interaction. School Counselor, 44(2):115-121.

¹⁵ Resnick, M.D., et al. 1997. Protecting Adolescents from Harm: Findings from the National Longitudinal Study on Adolescent Health. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 278(10):823-832.

¹⁶ Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Table SD 1.9

Percentage of youth ages 12 through 17 in the United States who report feeling very close to their parents, by parent type and by age, gender, race and Hispanic origin, parents' education, and socioeconomic status: 1995

	Resident Biological Mother	Resident Non- biological Mother	Nonresident Biological Mother	Resident Biological Father	Resident Non- biological Father	Nonresident Biological Father
Total	70	61	37	58	34	21
Age						
12-14	78	71	38	68	44	29
15-17	66	58	37	53	29	18
Gender						
Male	74	64	41	64	40	25
Female	65	57	32	51	29	17
Race and Hispanic						
origin ^a						
White, non- Hispanic	68	58	31	58	34	20
Black, non-	78	65	55	61	33	22
Hispanic						
Hispanic	74	67	41	59	35	24
Other ^b	64	63	29	53	43	20
Education of most						
educated parent						
Less than	75	68	38	60	47	19
high school						
High school	72	63	42	59	36	20
Some college	67	59	27	54	24	18
College graduate	67	56	37	57	34	24
Annual household						
income	70	7.4	40	77	70	0.4
Less than \$5,000	78	74 57	48	77	72	31
\$5,000 - \$9,999	78 75	57	36	66 5.6	54	23
\$10,000 - \$14,999	75 78	71	44	56	36	15
\$15,000 - \$24,999	73	72	38	60 50	43	20
\$25,000 - \$34,999	68 70	49	42	59	32	17
\$35,000 - \$49,999	72	51	33	62 57	34	24
\$50,000 - \$74,999	67	53	47	57	28	23
\$75,000 - \$99,999	65	61	36	56	33	20
\$100,000 +	64	56	20	53	33	27

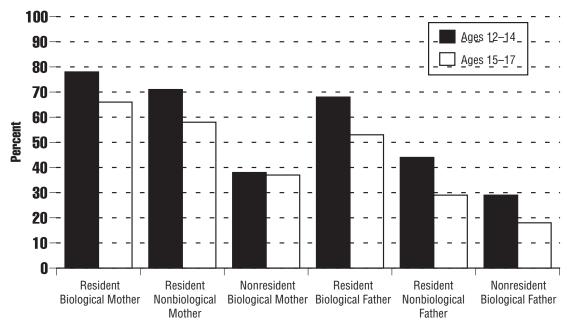
^a Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: Unpublished tabulations from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health Wave 1, 1995.

b "Other" race category includes respondents who chose Asian, American Indian, or other race and also did not identify themselves (in a separate question) as Hispanic.

Figure SD 1.9

Percentage of youth ages 12 through 17 in the United States who report feeling very close to their parents, by age and parent type: 1995



Source: Unpublished tabulations from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health Wave 1, 1995.

SD 1.10 Parents' Activities With Children

Mothers and fathers are active in children's lives in a variety of ways. In addition to providing for children's basic care and protection, parents also serve as important teachers, mentors, role models, playmates, companions, and confidantes. Recent research indicates that positive interactions between parents and children foster positive developmental outcomes for children. Furthermore, there is a growing interest in identifying ways that fathers' involvement in children's lives uniquely contributes to child well-being. 18

Data from the first and second waves of the National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH 1988 and 1995) were used to examine mothers' and fathers' interactions with their children (ages 5 through 17) in daily activities. Activities included eating meals together, spending time in activities away from home, working on a project together, having private talks, and helping with reading or homework. Data show that over half of mothers (55 percent) and 42 percent of fathers eat dinner with their child every day of the week. Mothers are also frequently helping their children with homework and reading. Forty percent report this type of interaction on an almost daily basis, with an additional 29 percent reporting helping their child with homework several times a week. One-third (33 percent) of fathers also report helping with homework several times a week, with a smaller group (13 percent) reporting helping almost every day (see Table 1.10.A).

There was a significant drop in high levels of parent-child activity between 1988 and 1995 in most activities (see Table SD 1.10.A); for example, 62 percent of mothers reported eating dinner with their child on a daily basis in 1988, but in 1995 only 55 percent reported doing so. Similarly, 50 percent of fathers ate a daily dinner with their child in 1988, but in 1995 this rate dropped to 42 percent. Decreases in the amount of time parents spend in activities outside the home and working on projects inside the home were also found.

Differences by Race and Hispanic Origin. ¹⁹ In 1995, White, non-Hispanic (55 percent) and Hispanic mothers (65 percent) were more likely than Black, non-Hispanic mothers (49 percent) to report eating dinner with their child every day. Other racial/ethnic differences were also evident; for example, Hispanic mothers (17 percent) were more likely than White, non-Hispanic mothers (6 percent) to go on outings with their children almost every day in 1995 (see Table SD 1.10.B). On the other hand, Black, non-Hispanic mothers (50 percent) were more likely than White, non-Hispanic mothers (38 percent) to help their children with homework or reading almost every day (see Figure SD 1.10). In general, father involvement in 1995 did not appear to vary by race and Hispanic origin; however, Black, non-Hispanic fathers (11 percent) were more likely than White, non-Hispanic fathers (4 percent) to take their children on outings almost every day (see Table SD 1.10.B).

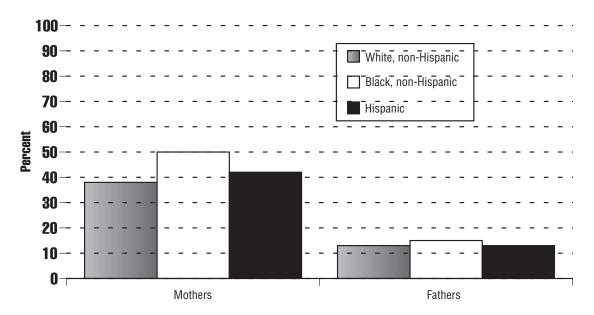
¹⁷ Hawes, D., 1996.

¹⁸ Lamb, M.E. 1997. Fathers and Child Development: An Introductory Overview and Guide. In M.E. Lamb (Ed.), *The Role of the Father in Child Development*, pp. 1-18. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

¹⁹ Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Figure SD 1.10

Percentage of parents in the United States with children ages 5 through 17 who help their child with homework almost every day, by gender of parent and race and Hispanic origin: a 1995



^a Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: The National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH), Wave 2, 1995, unpublished tabulations by Dr. Randal Day.

Table SD 1.10.APercentage of parents in the United States who engage in selected activities with their children ages 5 through 17, by parent and type of activity: 1988 and 1995

	Mothers		Fathers		
	1988	1995	1988	1995	
Days per week eat dinner					
with at least one child					
0 days	2	2	4	3	
1-3 days	9	10	13	15	
4-6 days	27	33	33	39	
Every day	62	55	50	42	
Time spent with children in					
activities away from home					
Never or rarely	6	5	6	5	
Once a month or less	15	20	18	24	
Several times a month	25	29	25	29	
About once a week	23	22	26	20	
Several times a week	18	17	15	18	
Almost every day	13	7	9	5	
Time spent with children					
t home working on a project					
Never or rarely	4	4	5	3	
Once a month or less	9	9	10	13	
Several times a month	14	17	17	27	
About once a week	14	18	17	17	
Several times a week	28	32	33	28	
Almost every day	31	20	18	12	
Time spent with children					
naving private talks	2	0	0	_	
Never or rarely	2	2	8	7	
Once a month or less	7	7	17	19	
Several times a month	14	17	20	23	
About once a week	18	22	22	24	
Several times a week	29	31	21	21	
Almost every day	29	22	11	6	
Time spent with children					
nelping with reading or homework					
Never or rarely	9	7	15	10	
Once a month or less	6	6	13	13	
Several times a month	9	8	17	16	
About once a week	11	11	16	16	
Several times a week	27	29	26	33	
Almost every day	38	40	14	13	

Source: The National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH), Wave 1, 1988, and Wave 2, 1995, unpublished tabulations by Dr. Randal Day.

Table SD 1.10.BPercentage of parents in the United States who engage in selected activities with their children ages 5 through 17, by parent, race and Hispanic origin,^a and type of activity: 1995

	Mothers				Fathers		
	White, non- Hispanic	Black, non- Hispanic	Hispanic ^a	White, non- Hispanic	Black, non- Hispanic	Hispanic ^a	
Days per week eat dinner with at least one child							
0 days	1	5	1	3	9	2	
1-3 days	9	15	9	14	23	19	
4-6 days	34	32	24	40	35	37	
Every day	55	49	65	43	34	43	
Time spent with children in							
activities away from home							
Never or rarely	4	9	11	4	11	8	
Once a month or less	19	22	19	22	26	28	
Several times a month	30	27	20	31	26	22	
About once a week	23	21	21	21	12	24	
Several times a week	19	12	12	19	15	12	
Almost every day	6	9	17	4	11	5	
Time spent with children at home working on a project							
Never or rarely	3	5	7	2	7	2	
Once a month or less	9	8	8	11	23	12	
Several times a month	17	21	14	29	18	27	
About once a week	18	22	17	18	13	18	
Several times a week	34	24	25	28	25	32	
Almost every day	19	20	29	12	14	8	
Time spent with children							
having private talks							
Never or rarely	2	2	5	6	10	7	
Once a month or less	7	9	7	20	17	17	
Several times a month	17	15	18	23	19	23	
About once a week	22	22	18	24	26	23	
Several times a week	31	30	29	21	22	23	
Almost every day	21	22	23	6	7	7	
Fime spent with children							
helping with reading or							
homework							
Never or rarely	7	6	7	9	19	9	
Once a month or less	6	5	6	14	9	9	
Several times a month	9	7	9	16	14	16	
About once a week	11	9	16	15	13	21	
Several times a week	31	23	20	33	31	32	
Almost every day	38	50	42	13	15	13	

^a Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

Source: The National Survey of Families and Households (NSFH), Wave 2, 1995, unpublished tabulations by Dr. Randal Day.