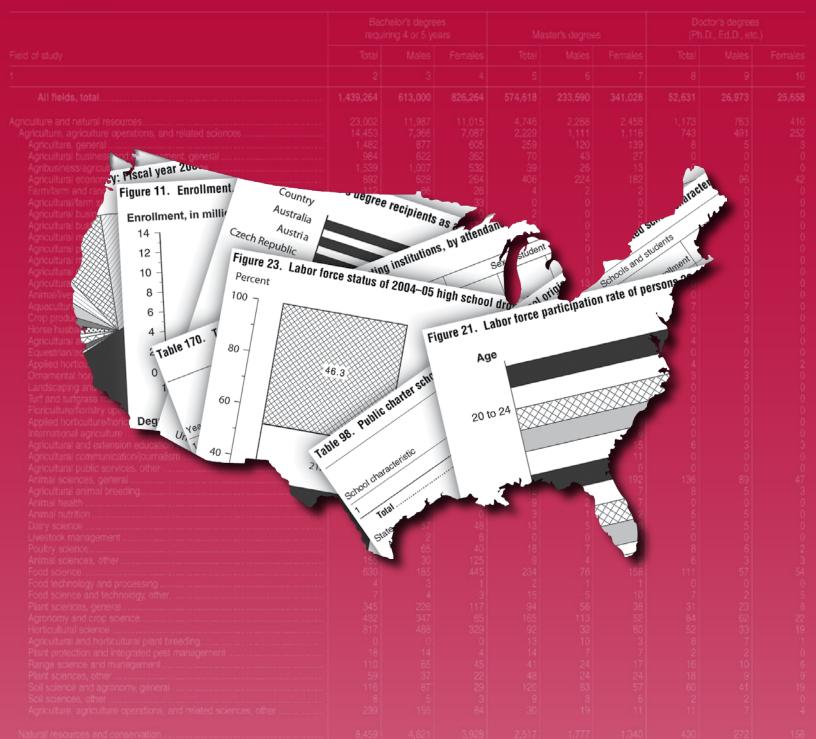


Digest of Education Statistics 2006

U.S. Department of Education Institute of Education Sciences NCES 2007-017

Table 252. Bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex of student and field of study: 2004–05





Digest of Education Statistics 2006

U.S. Department of Education NCES 2007-017

July 2007

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FOREWORD

The 2006 edition of the Digest of Education Statistics is the 42nd in a series of publications initiated in 1962. The Digest has been issued annually except for combined editions for the years 1977-78, 1983-84, and 1985-86. Its primary purpose is to provide a compilation of statistical information covering the broad field of American education from prekindergarten through graduate school. The Digest includes a selection of data from many sources, both government and private, and draws especially on the results of surveys and activities carried out by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). To qualify for inclusion in the Digest, material must be nationwide in scope and of current interest and value. The publication contains information on a variety of subjects in the field of education statistics, including the number of schools and colleges, teachers, enrollments, and graduates, in addition to educational attainment, finances, federal funds for education, libraries, and international comparisons. Supplemental information on population trends, attitudes on education, education characteristics of the labor force, government finances, and economic trends provides background for evaluating education data. Although the Digest contains important information on federal education funding, more detailed information on federal activities is available from federal education program offices.

The *Digest* contains seven chapters: All Levels of Education, Elementary and Secondary Education, Postsecondary Education, Federal Programs for Education and Related Activities, Outcomes of Education, International Comparisons of Education, and Libraries and Educational Technology. Preceding these chapters is an Introduction that provides a brief overview of current trends in American education, which supplements the tabular materials in chapters 1 through 7. The *Digest* concludes with three appendixes. The first appendix, Guide to Sources, provides a brief synopsis of the surveys used to generate the *Digest* tables; the second, Definitions, is included to help readers understand terms used in the *Digest*; and the third, Index of Table Numbers, allows readers to quickly locate tables on specific topics. In addition to updating many of the statistics that have appeared in previous years, this edition contains new material, including

- average base salary for full-time public elementary and secondary school teachers with a bachelor's degree as their highest degree, by years of full-time teaching experience and state (table 73);
- average base salary for full-time public elementary and secondary school teachers with a master's degree as their highest degree, by years of full-time teaching experience and state (table 74);
- averaged freshman graduation rates for public secondary schools, by state (table 101);
- average reading scale scores of 4th- and 8th-graders, by selected student and parent characteristics and school type (table 116);
- average mathematics scale scores of 4th-, 8th-, and 12thgraders, by selected student and parent characteristics and school type (table 127);
- average science scale scores and achievement-level results of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-graders, by selected student characteristics and percentile (table 128);
- number and percentage of students expelled and suspended from public elementary and secondary schools, by sex, race/ ethnicity, and state (tables 148 and 149);
- bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by field of study (table 257); and
- current postsecondary education and employment status, wages earned, and living arrangements of special education students out of secondary school up to 4 years, by type of disability (table 383).

Updates to tables from the next *Digest of Education Statistics* will appear on the NCES website prior to printing the full edition. The *Digest* can be accessed from http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest.

Val Plisko

Associate Commissioner

Early Childhood, International, and Crosscutting Studies Division

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Many people have contributed in one way or another to the development of the *Digest of Education Statistics* 2006. Thomas D. Snyder was responsible for the overall development and preparation of this edition of the *Digest*, which was prepared under the general direction of Valena Plisko. William Sonnenberg provided statistical computing consultation.

Much of the work for this report was performed by staff of the Education Statistics Services Institute (ESSI), which is funded by NCES and composed of staff from the American Institutes for Research (AIR) and a number of partner organizations. Numerous ESSI staff contributed to this work, which was performed under the management of AIR project leader Sally Dillow. Mary Ann Fox of AIR served as overall manager for ESSI annual reports work, which includes the Digest project, and provided statistical consultation and programming support. Also at AIR, Richa Arora played a key role in coordinating the updating and formatting of the Digest tables, with other key players in these tasks including Sanyu Kibuka, Charmaine Llagas, and Mary Jo Metzler. Kevin Bianco and Lauren Drake of MacroSys Research and Technology also worked on updating and formatting the tables. Charlene Hoffman, a consultant, did most of the work on chapter 4 as well as the tables on degrees conferred. At AIR, Tom Nachazel, Robin Gurley, and Martin Hahn provided proofreading and editorial support, while Rachel Dinkes, Beth Jacinto, and Jill Walston contributed programming support. Sze-Wei Tang of Quality Information Partners also supplied programming support. At MacroSys Research and Technology, Qingshu Xie provided programming support and Michael Stock desktopped the volume under the supervision of Kalle Culotta. Outside of ESSI, others who provided data for this edition of the *Digest* included Mary Bowler of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Alison Kennedy of UNESCO Institute for Statistics, and Lynn Newman of SRI International.

This year's edition of the Digest has received extensive reviews by many individuals within and outside the U.S. Department of Education. We wish to thank them for their time and expert advice. Marilyn Seastrom, Chief Statistician of the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), supervised the review of the publication. Duc-Le To of the Institute of Education Sciences reviewed the publication. NCES staff who reviewed portions of the manuscript were Julia Bloom, Stephen Broughman, Kathryn Chandler, Chris Chapman, Steve Gorman, Bernard Greene, Kerry Gruber, Lee Hoffman, Barbara Holton, Frank Johnson, Frank Morgan, Larry Ogle, Jeffrey Owings, Peggy Quinn, Quansheng Shen, Cathy Statham, Bruce Taylor, and John Wirt. Stacey Bielick, Frank Avenilla, and Greg Kienzl of AIR also reviewed the manuscript, as did Sarah Grady of MacroSys Research and Technology. The ESSI technical review team included staff of AIR (Kevin Bromer, Dan McGrath, Stephen Mistler, Alison Slade, Robert Stillwell, Aparna Sundaram, Jed Tank, and Zeyu Xu); Child Trends (Akemi Kinukawa and Siri Warkentien); MacroSys Research and Technology (Matt Adams and Stephen Hocker); the National Institute of Statistical Sciences (Xiaolei Wang); and Quality Information Partners (Alexandra Henning).

Contents

Foreword	iii
Acknowledgments	v
List of Figures	viii
List of Tables	ix
Introduction	1
Guide to Tabular Presentation	5
Chapter 1. All Levels of Education	7
Chapter 2. Elementary and Secondary Education	53
Chapter 3. Postsecondary Education	261
Chapter 4. Federal Programs for Education and Related Activities	523
Chapter 5. Outcomes of Education	555
Chapter 6. International Comparisons of Education.	579
Chapter 7. Libraries and Educational Technology	613
Appendixes	
A. Guide to Sources	633
B. Definitions	671
C. Index of Table Numbers	685

List of Figures

Figure		Page
1.	The structure of education in the United States	9
2.	Enrollment, total expenditures in constant dollars, and expenditures as a percentage of the gross domestic product (GDP), by level of education: 1960–61 through 2004–05	10
3.	Percentage of persons 25 years old and over, by highest level of educational attainment: 1940 through 2006	11
4.	Percentage of persons 25 through 29 years old, by highest level of educational attainment: 1940 through 2006	11
5.	Highest level of education attained by persons 25 years old and over: March 2006	12
6.	Enrollment, number of teachers, pupil/teacher ratio, and expenditures in public schools: 1960–61 through 2004–05	57
7.	Total and full-day preprimary enrollment of 3- to 5-year-olds: October 1970 through October 2005	58
8.	Percentage change in public elementary and secondary enrollment, by state: Fall 1999 to fall 2004	58
9.	Percentage of revenue for public elementary and secondary schools, by source of funds: 1970–71 through 2003–04	59
10.	Current expenditure per pupil in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools: 1970–71 through 2003–04	59
11.	Enrollment, degrees conferred, and expenditures in degree-granting institutions: 1960–61 through 2004–05	264
12.	Percentage change in total enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by state: Fall 2000 through fall 2005	265
13.	Enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by age: Fall 1970 through fall 2015	265
14.	Full-time-equivalent (FTE) students per staff member in public and private degree-granting institutions: 1976 and 2005	266
15.	Trends in bachelor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions in selected fields of study: 1994–95, 1999–2000, and 2004–05	266
16.	Sources of total revenue of public degree-granting institutions: 2003–04	267
17.	Sources of total revenue of private not-for-profit degree-granting institutions: 2003–04	267
18.	Federal on-budget funds for education, by level or other educational purpose: Selected years, 1965 through 2006	531
19.	Percentage of federal on-budget funds for education, by agency: Fiscal year 2006	531
20.	Department of Education outlays, by type of recipient: Fiscal year 2006	532
21.	Labor force participation rate of persons 20 to 64 years old, by age group and highest level of education: 2005	556
22.	Unemployment rates of persons 25 years old and over, by highest level of education: 2005	557
23.	Labor force status of 2004–05 high school dropouts and completers not enrolled in college: October 2005	557
24.	Median annual income of persons 25 years old and over, by highest level of education and sex: 2005	558
25.	Salaries of recent bachelor's degree recipients 1 year after graduation, by field: 1991, 1994, and 2001	558
26.	Percentage change in enrollment, by selected areas of the world and level of education: 1990 to 2004	581
27.	Bachelor's degree recipients as a percentage of the population of the typical ages of graduation, by country: 2004	581
28.	Public direct expenditures for education as a percentage of the gross domestic product (GDP), by country: 2003	582
29.	Percentage of all public schools and instructional rooms with internet access: Fall 1994 through fall 2003	614

List of Tables

Chapter 1. All Levels of Education

Enrollment, Teachers, and Schools

Table		Page
1.	Projected number of participants in educational institutions, by level and control of institution: Fall 2006.	13
2.	Enrollment in educational institutions, by level and control of institution: Selected years, fall 1980 through fall 2006	13
3.	Enrollment in educational institutions, by level and control of institution: Selected years, 1869–70 through fall 2015	14
4.	Number of teachers in elementary and secondary schools, and instructional staff in postsecondary degree-granting institutions, by control of institution: Selected years, fall 1970 through fall 2015.	16
5.	Number of educational institutions, by level and control of institution: Selected years, 1980–81 through 2004–05	17
Enrollm	ent Rates	
6.	Percentage of the population 3 to 34 years old enrolled in school, by sex, race/ethnicity, and age: Selected years, 1980 through 2005	18
7.	Percentage of the population 3 to 34 years old enrolled in school, by age group: Selected years, 1940 through 2005	20
Educatio	onal Attainment	
8.	Percentage of persons age 25 and over and 25 to 29, by race/ethnicity, years of school completed, and sex: Selected years, 1910 through 2006	22
9.	Number of persons age 18 and over, by highest level of education attained, age, sex, and race/ ethnicity: 2006	24
10.	Persons age 18 and over who hold at least a bachelor's degree in specific fields of study, by sex, race/ethnicity, and age: 2001	25
11.	Educational attainment of persons 18 years old and over, by state: 2000 and 2005	26
12.	Educational attainment of persons 25 years old and over, by race/ethnicity and state: April 1990 and April 2000	27
13.	Educational attainment of persons 25 years old and over for the 25 largest states, by sex: 2004	29
14.	Educational attainment of persons 25 years old and over for the 15 largest metropolitan areas, by sex: 2002	29
Populati	ion	
15.	Estimates of resident population, by age group: 1970 through 2005	30
16.	Estimates of resident population, by race/ethnicity and age group: Selected years, 1980 through 2005.	31
17.	Estimated total and school-age resident populations, by state: Selected years, 1970 through 2005	32
Charact	eristics of Families With Children	
18.	Number and percentage of families, by family status and presence of own children under 18: Selected years, 1970 through 2005	33
19.	Characteristics of families with own children under 18, by race/ethnicity and family structure: 2005	34
20.	Household income and poverty rates, by state: 1990, 2000, and 2003–2005	35

x LIST OF TABLES

Opinions on Education

22.	Average grade that the public would give the public schools in their community and in the nation at large: 1974 through 2006	40
23.	Percentage of elementary and secondary school children whose parents were involved in school activities, by selected child, parent, and school characteristics: 1999 and 2003	41
24.	Percentage of kindergartners through fifth-graders whose parents were involved in education- related activities, by selected child, parent, and school characteristics: 1999 and 2003	42
Finance	95	
25.	Expenditures of educational institutions related to the gross domestic product, by level of institution: Selected years, 1929–30 through 2005–06	43
26.	Expenditures of educational institutions, by level and control of institution: Selected years, 1899–1900 through 2005–06	44
27.	Governmental expenditures, by level of government and function: Selected years, 1970–71 through 2003–04	46
28.	Direct general expenditures of state and local governments for all functions and for education, by level of education and state: 2003–04	47
29.	Direct general expenditures per capita of state and local governments for all functions and for education, by level of education and state: 2003–04	48
30.	Gross domestic product, state and local expenditures, personal income, disposable personal income, median family income, and population: Selected years, 1929 through 2005	49
31.	Gross domestic product price index, Consumer Price Index, education price indexes, and federal budget composite deflator: Selected years, 1919 to 2005	51

Chapter 2. Elementary and Secondary Education

Enrollment

Historical summary of public elementary and secondary school statistics: Selected years, 1869–70 through 2003–04	60
Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by state or jurisdiction: Fall 1990 through fall 2006	62
Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by level, grade, and state or jurisdiction: Fall 2004	64
Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by level, grade, and state or jurisdiction: Fall 2003	66
Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by grade: Fall 1990 through fall 2004	68
Number and percentage of homeschooled students ages 5 through 17 with a grade equivalent of kindergarten through 12th grade, by selected child, parent, and household characteristics: 1999 and 2003	69
Percentage distribution of all students, homeschooled students, and nonhomeschooled students, ages 5 through 17 with a grade equivalent of kindergarten through 12th grade, by selected child, parent, and household characteristics: 1999 and 2003	70
Average daily attendance in public elementary and secondary schools, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1969–70 through 2003–04	71
Percentage distribution of enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by race/ ethnicity and state or jurisdiction: Fall 1994 and fall 2004	72
Enrollment of 3-, 4-, and 5-year-old children in preprimary programs, by level of program, control of program, and attendance status: Selected years, 1965 through 2005	74
Number of preschool children under 6 years old, percentage in center-based programs, average hours in nonparental care, and percentage in various types of primary care arrangements, by selected child and family characteristics: 2005	75
	 1869–70 through 2003–04. Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by state or jurisdiction: Fall 1990 through fall 2006. Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by level, grade, and state or jurisdiction: Fall 2004 . Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by level, grade, and state or jurisdiction: Fall 2003 . Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by grade: Fall 1990 through fall 2004 . Number and percentage of homeschooled students ages 5 through 17 with a grade equivalent of kindergarten through 12th grade, by selected child, parent, and household characteristics: 1999 and 2003 . Percentage distribution of all students, homeschooled students, and nonhomeschooled students, ages 5 through 17 with a grade equivalent of kindergarten through 12th grade equivalent of kindergarten through 12th grade, by selected child, parent, and household characteristics: 1999 and 2003 . Average daily attendance in public elementary and secondary schools, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1969–70 through 2003–04 . Percentage distribution of enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by race/ ethnicity and state or jurisdiction: Fall 1994 and fall 2004 . Enrollment of 3-, 4-, and 5-year-old children in preprimary programs, by level of program, control of program, and attendance status: Selected years, 1965 through 2005 . Number of preschool children under 6 years old, percentage in center-based programs, average hours in nonparental care, and percentage in various types of primary care arrangements, by

43.	Child care arrangements of 3- to 5-year-old children who are not yet in kindergarten, by age and race/ethnicity: Various years, 1991 through 2005	77
44.	Children of prekindergarten through second-grade age, by enrollment status, selected maternal characteristics, and household income: 1995, 2001, and 2005	78
45.	Percentage of 3- to 5-year-olds not yet enrolled in kindergarten who have participated in home literacy activities with a family member, by type of activity and selected child and family characteristics: 1993, 2001, and 2005	79
46.	Percentage distribution of first-time kindergartners, by number of children's books in the home, and number of times each week family members read books to them, by selected child and maternal characteristics: Fall 1998	80
47.	Percentage distribution of kindergarten teachers and parents indicating the importance of various factors for kindergarten readiness, by control: Fall 1998	80
48.	Children 3 to 21 years old served in federally supported programs for the disabled, by type of disability: Selected years, 1976–77 through 2005–06	81
49.	Percentage distribution of students with disabilities 6 to 21 years old receiving education services for the disabled, by educational environment and type of disability: Selected years, fall 1989 through fall 2005	82
50.	Number and percentage of children served under Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Part B, by age group and state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1990–91 through 2005–06	83
51.	Number and percentage of gifted and talented students in public elementary and secondary schools, by sex, race/ethnicity, and state: 2002	85
52.	Enrollment in grades 9 through 12 in public and private schools compared with population 14 to 17 years of age: Selected years, 1889–90 through fall 2006	87
53.	Enrollment in foreign language courses compared with enrollment in grades 9 through 12 in public secondary schools: Selected years, fall 1948 through fall 2000	88
54.	Number and percentage of schools with students enrolled in distance education courses and enrollment in distance education courses, by instructional level and district characteristics: 2002–03	89
Private I	Elementary and Secondary Schools	
55.	Private elementary and secondary enrollment, teachers, and schools, by orientation of school and selected school characteristics: Fall 2003	90
56.	Private elementary and secondary enrollment, number of schools, and average tuition, by school level, orientation, and tuition: 1999–2000 and 2003–04	91
57.	Private elementary and secondary school full-time-equivalent staff and student to full-time-equivalent staff ratios, by orientation of school, school level, and type of staff: 2003–04	92
58.	Enrollment and instructional staff in Catholic elementary and secondary schools, by level: Selected years, 1919–20 through 2005–06	94
59.	Private elementary and secondary schools, enrollment, teachers, and high school graduates, by state: Selected years, 1997 through 2003	95
Teacher	s and Other Staff	
60.	Public elementary and secondary pupil/teacher ratios, by enrollment size, type, and level of school: Fall 1987 through fall 2004	96
61.	Public and private elementary and secondary teachers, enrollment, and pupil/teacher ratios: Selected years, fall 1955 through fall 2015	97
62.	Public elementary and secondary teachers, by level and state or jurisdiction: Fall 1999 through fall 2004	98
00		
63.	Teachers, enrollment, and pupil/teacher ratios in public elementary and secondary schools, by state or jurisdiction: Fall 1999 through fall 2004.	99

65.	Highest degree earned and years of full-time teaching experience for teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools, by selected teacher characteristics: 1999–2000 and 2003–04.	101
66.	Selected characteristics of public school teachers: Selected years, spring 1961 through spring 2001	103
67.	Percentage of public school teachers of grades 9 through 12, by field of main teaching assignment and selected demographic and educational characteristics: 2003–04	104
68.	Teachers' perceptions about serious problems in their schools, by control and level of school: 1993–94, 1999–2000, and 2003–04	106
69.	Teachers' perceptions about teaching and school conditions, by control and level of school: 1993–94, 1999–2000, and 2003–04	107
70.	Mobility of public and private elementary and secondary teachers, by selected teacher and school characteristics: Selected years, 1987–88 through 2000–01	108
71.	Average base salary for full-time teachers in public elementary and secondary schools, by highest degree earned and years of full-time teaching: Selected years, 1990–91 through 2003–04	109
72.	Average salaries for full-time teachers in public and private elementary and secondary schools, by selected characteristics: 2003–04	111
73.	Average base salary for full-time public elementary and secondary school teachers with a bachelor's degree as their highest degree, by years of full-time teaching experience and state: 1993–94, 1999–2000, and 2003–04	113
74.	Average base salary for full-time public elementary and secondary school teachers with a master's degree as their highest degree, by years of full-time teaching experience and state: 1993–94, 1999–2000, and 2003–04	114
75.	Estimated average annual salary of teachers in public elementary and secondary schools: Selected years, 1959–60 through 2004–05	115
76.	Estimated average annual salary of teachers in public elementary and secondary schools, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1969–70 through 2004–05	116
77.	Staff employed in public elementary and secondary school systems, by functional area: Selected years, 1949–50 through fall 2004	117
78.	Staff employed in public elementary and secondary school systems, by type of assignment and state or jurisdiction: Fall 2004	118
79.	Staff employed in public elementary and secondary school systems, by type of assignment and state or jurisdiction: Fall 2003	119
80.	Staff and teachers in public elementary and secondary school systems, by state or jurisdiction: Fall 1998 through fall 2004	120
81.	Staff, enrollment, and pupil/staff ratios in public elementary and secondary school systems, by state or jurisdiction: Fall 1997 through fall 2004	121
82.	Principals in public and private elementary and secondary schools, by selected characteristics: 1993–94, 1999–2000, and 2003–04	122

Schools and School Districts

83.	Number of public school districts and public and private elementary and secondary schools: Selected years, 1869–70 through 2004–05	123
84.	Number of regular public school districts, by enrollment size of district: Selected years, 1990–91 through 2004–05	124
85.	Number of public elementary and secondary education agencies, by type of agency and state or jurisdiction: 2003–04 and 2004–05	125
86.	Public elementary and secondary students, schools, pupil/teacher ratios, and finances, by type of locale: 2003–04 and 2004–05	126
87.	Selected statistics on enrollment, teachers, dropouts, and graduates in public school districts enrolling more than 15,000 students, by state: 1990, 2000, 2001–02, 2003–04, and 2004	128
88.	Revenues, expenditures, poverty rate, and Title I allocations of public school districts enrolling more than 15,000 students, by state: 2003–04 and fiscal year 2006	139

89.	Enrollment, poverty, and federal funds for the 100 largest school districts, by enrollment size: 2003–04 and fiscal year 2006	150
90.	Public elementary and secondary schools, by type of school: Selected years, 1967–68 through 2004–05	152
91.	Number and percentage distribution of public elementary and secondary schools and enrollment, by type and enrollment size of school: 2004–05	153
92.	Average enrollment and percentage distribution of public elementary and secondary schools, by type and size: Selected years, 1982–83 through 2004–05	154
93.	Public elementary and secondary school students, by racial/ethnic enrollment concentration of school: Fall 1999 and fall 2004.	155
94.	Public elementary and secondary schools, by type and state or jurisdiction: 1990–91, 2000–01, and 2004–05	156
95.	Public elementary schools, by grade span, average school size, and state or jurisdiction: 2004–05	157
96.	Public secondary schools, by grade span, average school size, and state or jurisdiction: 2004–05	158
97.	Number and enrollment of traditional public and public charter elementary and secondary schools and percentages of students, teachers, and schools, by selected characteristics: 2003–04	159
98.	Percentage of public schools with building deficiencies and renovation plans, by level, enrollment size, metropolitan status, and free lunch eligibility: 1999	161
High S	chool Completers and Dropouts	
00	High school graduates, by say and control of school: Sciented years, 1960, 70 through 2006, 07	162

00.		100
100.	Public high school graduates, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1980–81 through 2004–05.	164
101.	Averaged freshman graduation rates for public secondary schools, by state: 1990–91 through 2003–04	165
102.	Public high school graduates and dropouts, by race/ethnicity and state or jurisdiction: 2001–02 and 2003–04	166
103.	General Educational Development (GED) test takers and credentials issued, by age: 1971 through 2004	167
104.	Percentage of high school dropouts (status dropouts) among persons 16 through 24 years old, by sex and race/ethnicity: Selected years, 1960 through 2005	168
105.	Percentage of high school dropouts (status dropouts) among persons 16 through 24 years old, by income level, and percentage distribution of dropouts, by labor force status and educational attainment: 1970 through 2005	169
106.	Number of students with disabilities exiting special education, by basis of exit, age, and type of disability: United States and other jurisdictions, 2003–04 and 2004–05	170

Educational Achievement

107.	Percentage of young children born in 2001 demonstrating specific cognitive and motor skills, by child's age at assessment: 2001 through 2003	171
108.	Mean reading scale scores and specific reading skills of fall 1998 first-time kindergartners, by time of assessment and selected characteristics: Selected years, fall 1998 through spring 2004	172
109.	Mean mathematics and science scale scores and specific mathematics skills of fall 1998 first-time kindergartners, by time of assessment and selected characteristics: Selected years, fall 1998 through spring 2004	173
110.	Average reading scale score, by age and selected student and school characteristics: Selected years, 1971 through 2004	174
111.	Student scale score in reading, by age and percentile: Selected years, 1971 through 2004	176
112.	Average reading scale score, by age and amount of time spent on reading and homework: Selected years, 1984 through 2004	177
113.	Percentage of students at or above selected reading score levels, by age, sex, and race/ethnicity: Selected years, 1971 through 2004	178

114.	Average scale score in reading and percentage of 4th-graders in public schools attaining reading achievement levels, by race/ethnicity and state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1994 through 2005	180
115.	Average scale score in reading and percentage of 8th-graders in public schools attaining reading achievement levels, by locale and state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1998 through 2005	182
116.	Average reading scale scores of 4th- and 8th-graders, by selected student and parent characteristics and school type: Various years, 2000 through 2005	184
117.	Percentage of students at or above selected writing proficiency levels, by grade level and selected student characteristics: 2002	185
118.	Percentage of students at or above selected U.S. history proficiency levels, by grade level and selected student characteristics: 2001	186
119.	Average student scale score in geography and U.S. history, by grade level and selected student characteristics: 2001	187
120.	Percentage of students at or above selected geography achievement levels, by grade level and selected student characteristics: 2001	188
121.	Average scale score in mathematics, by age and selected student and school characteristics: Selected years, 1973 through 2004	189
122.	Percentage of students at or above selected mathematics proficiency levels, by age, sex, and race/ ethnicity: Selected years, 1978 through 2004	190
123.	Mathematics performance of 17-year-olds, by highest mathematics course taken, sex, and race/ ethnicity: Selected years, 1978 through 2004	192
124.	Average scale score in mathematics, percentage attaining mathematics achievement levels, and selected statistics on mathematics education of 4th-graders in public schools, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1992 through 2005	193
125.	Average scale score in mathematics and percentage attaining mathematics achievement levels of 8th-graders in public schools, by level of parental education and state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1990 through 2005	194
126.	Selected statistics on mathematics education for public school students, by state or jurisdiction: 2000, 2003, and 2004	196
127.	Average mathematics scale scores of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-graders, by selected student and parent characteristics and school type: 2000, 2003, and 2005	198
128.	Average science scale scores and percentage of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-graders attaining science achievement levels, by selected student characteristics and percentile: 1996, 2000, and 2005	199
129.	Average scale score in science for 8th-graders in public schools, by selected student characteristics and state or jurisdiction: 1996, 2000, and 2005	200
130.	Average arts scale score of 8th-grade students, by topic and selected student characteristics: 1997	202
131.	SAT score averages of college-bound seniors, by race/ethnicity: Selected years, 1986–87 through 2005–06	203
132.	SAT score averages of college-bound seniors, by sex: 1966–67 through 2005–06	204
133.	SAT score averages of college-bound seniors, by selected student characteristics: Selected years, 1995–96 through 2005–06.	205
134.	SAT score averages of college-bound seniors and percent of graduates taking SAT, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1987–88 through 2005–06	207
135.	ACT score averages and standard deviations, by sex and race/ethnicity, and percentage of ACT test takers, by selected composite score ranges and planned fields of study: Selected years, 1995 through 2005	208
136.	Percentage distribution of elementary and secondary school children, by average grades and selected child and school characteristics: 1996, 1999, and 2003	209
137.	Average number of Carnegie units earned by public high school graduates in various subject fields, by selected student characteristics: Selected years, 1982 through 2005	210
138.	Average number of Carnegie units earned by public high school graduates in vocational education courses, by selected student characteristics: Selected years, 1982 through 2005	213

139.	Percentage of public and private high school graduates taking selected mathematics and science courses in high school, by sex and race/ethnicity: Selected years, 1982 through 2005	216
140.	Percentage of public and private high school graduates earning minimum credits in selected combinations of academic courses, by sex and race/ethnicity: Selected years, 1982 through 2005	217
141.	Public high schools that offered and students enrolled in dual credit, Advanced Placement, and International Baccalaureate courses, by school characteristics: 2003	218
Student	Activities and Behavior	
142.	Percentage of high school seniors who say they engage in various activities, by selected student and school characteristics: 1992 and 2004	219
143.	Percentage of high school sophomores who participate in various school-sponsored extracurricular activities, by selected student characteristics: 1990 and 2002	220
144.	Percentage distribution of 4th-graders, by time spent on homework and television viewing each day and selected student and school characteristics: Selected years, 1992 through 2000	221
145.	Tenth-graders' attendance patterns, by selected student and school characteristics: 1990 and 2002	222
146.	Percentage of schools with various security measures, by control and selected characteristics: 2003–04	223
147.	Number and percentage of public schools reporting crime incidents, by school characteristics and seriousness of crime incidents reported: 1999–2000 and 2003–04	224
148.	Number and percentage of students expelled from public elementary and secondary schools, by sex, race/ethnicity, and state: 2002	228
149.	Number and percentage of students suspended from public elementary and secondary schools, by sex, race/ethnicity, and state: 2002	229
150.	Percentage of students in grades 9 through 12 who reported experience with drugs and violence on school property, by race/ethnicity, grade, and sex: Selected years, 1997 through 2005	230
151.	Percentage of 12- to 17-year-olds reporting substance abuse during the past 30 days and the past year, by drug used: Selected years, 1982 through 2005	231
152.	Percentage of high school seniors reporting drug use, by type of drug and reporting period: Selected years, 1975 through 2005	232
State Re	gulations	
153.	Age range for compulsory school attendance, special education services, year-round schools, and kindergarten programs, by state: 1997, 2000, 2002, and 2004	233
154.	State requirements for high school graduation, in Carnegie units: 2004	234
155.	States that use criterion-referenced assessments aligned to state standards, by subject area and level: 2005–06	237
156.	States using minimum-competency testing, by grade levels assessed, expected uses of standards, and state or jurisdiction: 2001–02	238
157.	States requiring testing for initial certification of elementary and secondary teachers, by skills or knowledge assessment and state: 2005 and 2006	239
Revenue	es and Expenditures	
158.	Revenues for public elementary and secondary schools, by source of funds: Selected years, 1919–20 through 2003–04	240
159.	Revenues for public elementary and secondary schools, by source and state or jurisdiction: 2003–04.	241
160.	Revenues for public elementary and secondary schools, by source and state or jurisdiction: 2002–03.	242
161.	Summary of expenditures for public elementary and secondary education, by purpose: Selected years, 1919–20 through 2003–04	243

162.	Current expenditures for public elementary and secondary education, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1969–70 through 2003–04	244
163.	Total expenditures for public elementary and secondary education, by function and state or jurisdiction: 2003–04	246
164.	Total expenditures for public elementary and secondary education, by function and state or jurisdiction: 2002–03	248
165.	Total expenditures for public elementary and secondary education, by function and subfunction: Selected years, 1990–91 through 2003–04	250
166.	Expenditures for instruction in public elementary and secondary schools, by subfunction and state or jurisdiction: 2002–03 and 2003–04	252
167.	Total and current expenditures per pupil in public elementary and secondary schools: Selected years, 1919–20 through 2003–04	253
168.	Total and current expenditures per pupil in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary education, by function and state or jurisdiction: 2003–04	254
169.	Total and current expenditures per pupil in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary education, by function and state or jurisdiction: 2002–03	255
170.	Current expenditure per pupil in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1969–70 through 2003–04	256
171.	Current expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance in public elementary and secondary schools, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1959–60 through 2003–04	258
172.	Students transported at public expense and current expenditures for transportation: Selected years, 1929–30 through 2003–04	260

Chapter 3. Postsecondary Education

Enrollment

173.	Enrollment, staff, and degrees conferred in postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV programs, by level and control of institution, sex of student, and type of degree: 2004–05 and fall 2005	268
174.	Historical summary of faculty, students, degrees, and finances in degree-granting institutions: Selected years, 1869–70 through 2004–05	269
175.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex of student, and control of institution: Selected years, 1947 through 2005	270
176.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by control and type of institution: 1963 through 2005	271
177.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, age, and sex: Selected years, 1970 through 2015	272
178.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by level, sex, age, and attendance status of student: 2005	273
179.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by control and type of institution, age, and attendance status of student: 2005	274
180.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by level of enrollment, sex, attendance status, and type and control of institution: 2005	275
181.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by level of enrollment, sex, attendance status, and type and control of institution: 2004	276
182.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex of student, and type and control of institution: Selected years, 1970 through 2005	277
183.	Fall enrollment and number of degree-granting institutions, by control and affiliation of institution: Selected years, 1980 through 2005	278
184.	Total first-time freshmen fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex of student, and type and control of institution: 1955 through 2005	280

185.	Total first-time freshmen fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex, control of institution, and state or jurisdiction: 2000 through 2005	281
186.	College enrollment and enrollment rates of recent high school completers, by sex: 1960 through 2005	282
187.	College enrollment and enrollment rates of recent high school completers, by race/ethnicity: 1960 through 2005	283
188.	Graduation rates of previous year's 12th-graders and college attendance rates of those who graduated, by selected high school characteristics: 1999–2000 and 2003–04	285
189.	Enrollment rates of 18- to 24-year-olds in degree-granting institutions, by sex and race/ethnicity: 1967 through 2005	286
190.	Total undergraduate fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex of student, and control of institution: 1969 through 2005	287
191.	Total graduate fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex of student, and control of institution: 1969 through 2005	288
192.	Total first-professional fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex of student, and control of institution: 1969 through 2005	289
193.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1970 through 2005	290
194.	Total fall enrollment in public degree-granting institutions, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1970 through 2005	291
195.	Total fall enrollment in private degree-granting institutions, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1970 through 2005	292
196.	Total fall enrollment in all degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex, and state or jurisdiction: 2004 and 2005	293
197.	Total fall enrollment in public degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex, and state or jurisdiction: 2004 and 2005	294
198.	Total fall enrollment in private degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex, and state or jurisdiction: 2004 and 2005	295
199.	Total fall enrollment in private not-for-profit degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex, and state or jurisdiction: 2004 and 2005	296
200.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by control and type of institution and state or jurisdiction: 2004 and 2005	297
201.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by level of enrollment and state or jurisdiction: 2004 and 2005	298
202.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by control, level of enrollment, type of institution, and state or jurisdiction: 2005	299
203.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by control, level of enrollment, type of institution, and state or jurisdiction: 2004	300
204.	Full-time-equivalent fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by control and type of institution: 1969 through 2005	301
205.	Full-time-equivalent fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by control and type of institution and state or jurisdiction: 2000, 2004, and 2005	302
206.	Full-time-equivalent fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by control and state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1980 through 2005	303
207.	Residence and migration of all freshmen students in degree-granting institutions, by state or jurisdiction: Fall 2004	304
208.	Residence and migration of all freshmen students in degree-granting institutions who graduated from high school in the previous 12 months, by state or jurisdiction: Fall 2004	305
209.	Residence and migration of all freshmen students in 4-year degree-granting institutions who graduated from high school in the previous 12 months, by state or jurisdiction: Fall 2004	306
210.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity, sex, attendance status, and level of student: Selected years, 1976 through 2005	307

211.	Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity of student and type and control of institution: Selected years,1976 through 2005
212.	Fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity of student and by state or jurisdiction: 2005
213.	Fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity of student and by state or jurisdiction: 2004
214.	Total number of institutions and fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by type and control of institution and percentage of minority enrollment: 2005
215.	Number and percentage of students enrolled in postsecondary institutions, by level, disability status, and selected student characteristics: 2003–04
216.	Enrollment in postsecondary education, by student level, type of institution, age, and major field of study: 2003–04
217.	Graduate enrollment in science and engineering programs in degree-granting institutions, by field of study: Fall 1991 through fall 2003
218.	Number of institutions and enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by size, type, and control of institution: Fall 2005
219.	Enrollment of the 120 largest degree-granting college and university campuses, by selected characteristics and institution: Fall 2005
220.	Selected statistics for degree-granting institutions enrolling more than 15,000 students in 2005: Selected years, 1990 through 2005
221.	Enrollment and degrees conferred in degree-granting women's colleges, by selected characteristics and institution: Fall 2005 and 2004–05
222.	Enrollment and degrees conferred in degree-granting institutions that serve large proportions of Hispanic students, by selected characteristics and institution: Fall 2005 and 2004–05
223.	Enrollment and degrees conferred in degree-granting tribally controlled institutions, by institution: Fall 2000 through fall 2005, and 2003–04 and 2004–05
224.	Fall enrollment, degrees conferred, and expenditures in degree-granting historically Black colleges and universities, by institution: 2003, 2003–04, 2004, and 2004–05
225.	Selected statistics on degree-granting historically Black colleges and universities: Selected years, 1980 through 2005
226.	Fall enrollment in degree-granting historically Black colleges and universities, by type and control of institution: 1976 through 2004
Staff	
227.	Total and full-time-equivalent staff in degree-granting institutions, by employment status, control of institution, and occupation: Fall 1976, fall 1995, and fall 2005
228.	Employees in degree-granting institutions, by employment status, sex, control and type of institution, and primary occupation: Fall 2005
229.	Employees in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity and residency status, sex, employment status, control and type of institution, and primary occupation: Fall 2005
230.	Number of full-time-equivalent staff and faculty, and full-time-equivalent staff and faculty/student ratios in degree-granting institutions, by control and type of institution and state or jurisdiction: Fall 2005
231.	Number of instructional faculty in degree-granting institutions, by employment status and control and type of institution: Selected years, fall 1970 through fall 2005
232.	Full-time instructional faculty in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity and residency status, sex, and academic rank: Fall 2003 and fall 2005
233.	Percentage distribution of full-time instructional faculty and staff in degree-granting institutions, by type and control of institution, selected instruction activities, and number of classes taught for credit: Fall 2003
234.	Percentage distribution of part-time instructional faculty and staff in degree-granting institutions, by type and control of institution, selected instruction activities, and number of classes taught for
	credit: Fall 2003

e and
e/
l and
e/
s, by)03–04 370
utions, 371
utions, 374
utions,
utions,
ting 5–06 377
ting 4–05 378
e- hrough
ı, by 381
ough
383
lected
386
386 387 utions,
386 387 utions, 388 ed

257.	Bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by field of study and year: Selected years, 1970–71 through 2004–05	392
258.	Bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex of student and field of study: 2004–05	393
259.	Degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by control of institution and level of degree: 1969–70 through 2004–05	408
260.	Degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by control of institution, level of degree, and discipline division: 2004–05	409
261.	Number of degree-granting institutions conferring degrees, by control, level of degree, and discipline division: 2004–05	410
262.	First-professional degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions in dentistry, medicine, and law, by number of institutions conferring degrees and sex of student: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	411
263.	First-professional degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex of student, control of institution, and field of study: Selected years, 1985–86 through 2004–05	412
264.	Associate's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity and sex of student: Selected years, 1976–77 through 2004–05	413
265.	Associate's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2004–05.	414
266.	Associate's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2003–04	415
267.	Bachelor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity and sex of student: Selected years, 1976–77 through 2004–05	416
268.	Bachelor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2004–05	417
269.	Bachelor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2003–04	418
270.	Master's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity and sex of student: Selected years, 1976–77 through 2004–05	419
271.	Master's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2004–05	420
272.	Master's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2003–04	421
273.	Doctor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity and sex of student: Selected years, 1976–77 through 2004–05	422
274.	Doctor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2004–05	423
275.	Doctor's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2003–04	424
276.	First-professional degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity and sex of student: Selected years, 1976–77 through 2004–05	425
277.	First-professional degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2004–05	426
278.	First-professional degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by sex, race/ethnicity, and major field of study: 2003–04	426
279.	Degrees in agriculture and natural resources conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: 1970–71 through 2004–05	427
280.	Degrees in architecture and related services conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	428
281.	Degrees in the biological and biomedical sciences conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1951–52 through 2004–05	429

282.	Degrees in biology, microbiology, and zoology conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree: 1970–71 through 2004–05	430
283.	Degrees in business conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1955–56 through 2004–05	431
284.	Degrees in communication, journalism, and related programs and in communications technologies conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: 1970–71 through 2004–05.	432
285.	Degrees in computer and information sciences conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: 1970–71 through 2004–05	433
286.	Degrees in education conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	434
287.	Degrees in engineering and engineering technologies conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	435
288.	Degrees in chemical, civil, electrical, and mechanical engineering conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree: 1970–71 through 2004–05	436
289.	Degrees in English language and literature/letters conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	437
290.	Degrees in modern foreign languages and literatures conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	438
291.	Degrees in French, German, and Spanish conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	439
292.	Degrees in the health professions and related sciences conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: 1970–71 through 2004–05	440
293.	Degrees in mathematics and statistics conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	441
294.	Degrees in the physical sciences and science technologies conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1959–60 through 2004–05	442
295.	Degrees in chemistry, geology, and physics conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree: 1970–71 through 2004–05	443
296.	Degrees in psychology conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	444
297.	Degrees in public administration and social services conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: 1970–71 through 2004–05	445
298.	Degrees in the social sciences and history conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: 1970–71 through 2004–05	446
299.	Degrees in economics, history, political science and government, and sociology conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree: Selected years, 1949–50 through 2004–05	447
300.	Degrees in visual and performing arts conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and sex of student: 1970–71 through 2004–05	448
301.	Statistical profile of persons receiving doctor's degrees, by field of study and selected characteristics: 2003–04	449
302.	Statistical profile of persons receiving doctor's degrees in education: Selected years, 1979–80 through 2003–04	450
303.	Statistical profile of persons receiving doctor's degrees in engineering: Selected years, 1979–80 through 2003–04	451
304.	Statistical profile of persons receiving doctor's degrees in the humanities: Selected years, 1979–80 through 2003–04	452
305.	Statistical profile of persons receiving doctor's degrees in the life sciences: Selected years, 1979–80 through 2003–04	453
306.	Statistical profile of persons receiving doctor's degrees in the physical sciences: Selected years, 1979–80 through 2003–04	454

307.	Statistical profile of persons receiving doctor's degrees in the social sciences and psychology: Selected years, 1979–80 through 2003–04	455
308.	Degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by control, level of degree, and state or jurisdiction: 2004–05	456
309.	Bachelor's and master's degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by field of study and state or jurisdiction: 2004–05	457
310.	Degrees conferred by degree-granting institutions, by level of degree and state or jurisdiction: 2003–04 and 2004–05	459
311.	Doctor's degrees conferred by the 60 institutions conferring the most doctor's degrees: 1995–96 through 2004–05	460
Outcom	es	
010	Deventory distribution of 1000 bish school conformation by highest level of education	

312.	completed through 2000 and selected student characteristics: 1990, 1992, and 2000	461
313.	Mean number of semester credits completed by bachelor's degree recipients, by course area and major: 1976, 1984, and 1992–93	462
314.	Number and percentage of degree-granting institutions with first-year undergraduates using various selection criteria for admission, by type and control of institution: Selected years, 2000–01 through 2005–06	463
315.	Number of applications, admissions, and enrollees; their distribution across institutions accepting various percentages of applications; and SAT and ACT scores of applicants, by type and control of institution: 2004–05	464
316.	Percentage of degree-granting institutions offering remedial services, by type and control of institution: 1989–90 through 2005–06	465
317.	Percentage distribution of enrollment and completion status of first-time postsecondary students starting during the 1995–96 academic year, by type of institution and other student	400
	characteristics: 2001	466
318.	Scores on Graduate Record Examination (GRE) general and subject tests: 1965 through 2005	468

Student Charges and Student Financial Assistance

319.	Average undergraduate tuition and fees and room and board rates charged for full-time students in degree-granting institutions, by type and control of institution: 1964–65 through 2005–06	470
320.	Average undergraduate tuition and fees and room and board rates charged for full-time students in degree-granting institutions, by type and control of institution and state or jurisdiction: 2004–05 and 2005–06	473
321.	Average undergraduate tuition and fees and room and board rates of degree-granting institutions, by control and type of institution and percentile of students: 2004–05 and 2005–06	474
322.	Average graduate and first-professional tuition and required fees in degree-granting institutions, by first-professional discipline and control of institution: 1987–88 through 2005–06	475
323.	Percentage of undergraduates receiving aid, by type and source of aid and selected student characteristics: 2003–04	476
324.	Average amount of financial aid awarded to full-time, full-year undergraduates, by type and source of aid and selected student characteristics: 2003–04	477
325.	Average amount of financial aid awarded to part-time or part-year undergraduates, by type and source of aid and selected student characteristics: 2003–04	478
326.	Amount borrowed, aid status, and sources of aid for full-time and part-time undergraduates, by control and type of institution: 2003–04	479
327.	Percentage of full-time, full-year undergraduates receiving aid, by type and source of aid received and control and type of institution: Selected years, 1992–93 through 2003–04	480
328.	Percentage of part-time or part-year undergraduates receiving aid, by type and source of aid received and control and type of institution: Selected years, 1992–93 through 2003–04	481

329.	Percentage of full-time and part-time undergraduates receiving federal aid, by aid program and control and type of institution: 2003–04	482
330.	Amount borrowed, aid status, and sources of aid for full-time, full-year postbaccalaureate students, by level of study and control and type of institution: Selected years, 1992–93 through 2003–04.	483
331.	Amount borrowed, aid status, and sources of aid for part-time or part-year postbaccalaureate students, by level of study and control and type of institution: Selected years, 1992–93 through 2003–04	484
332.	Percentage of full-time, full-year postbaccalaureate students receiving aid, by type of aid, level of study, and control and type of institution: Selected years, 1992–93 through 2003–04	485
333.	Percentage of part-time or part-year postbaccalaureate students receiving aid, by type of aid, level of study, and control and type of institution: Selected years, 1992–93 through 2003–04	486
334.	State awards for need-based undergraduate scholarship and grant programs, by state: Selected years, 1989–90 through 2004–05	487

Revenue

335.	Current-fund revenue of degree-granting institutions, by source of funds: Selected years, 1919–20 through 1995–96	489
336.	Current-fund revenue of public degree-granting institutions, by source of funds: Selected years, 1980–81 through 2000–01	490
337.	Revenues of public degree-granting institutions, by type of institution and source of revenue: 2003–04	491
338.	Revenues of public degree-granting institutions, by source of revenue and state or jurisdiction: 2003–04	492
339.	Appropriations from state and local governments for public degree-granting institutions, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1990–91 through 2003–04	493
340.	Total revenue of private not-for-profit degree-granting institutions, by source of funds and type of institution: 1996–97 through 2003–04	494
341.	Total revenue of private not-for-profit degree-granting institutions, by source of funds and type of institution: 2003–04	496
342.	Total revenue of private for-profit degree-granting institutions, by source of funds and type of institution: 1997–98 through 2003–04	497
343.	Total revenue of private for-profit degree-granting institutions, by source of funds and type of institution: 2002–03 and 2003–04	498
344.	Current-fund revenue received from the federal government by the 120 degree-granting institutions receiving the largest amounts, by control and rank order: 2003–04	499

Expenditures

345.	Current-fund expenditures and current-fund expenditures per full-time-equivalent student in degree-granting institutions, by type and control of institution: Selected years, 1970–71 through 2000–01.	500
346.	Current-fund expenditures and educational and general expenditures of degree-granting institutions, by purpose and per student: Selected years, 1929–30 through 1995–96	502
347.	Expenses of public degree-granting institutions, by type of expense and type of institution: 2003–04.	504
348.	Current-fund expenditures of public degree-granting institutions, by purpose: Selected years, 1980–81 through 2000–01	505
349.	Current-fund expenditures of public degree-granting institutions, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1980–81 through 2000–01	506
350.	Educational and general expenditures of public degree-granting institutions, by state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 1980–81 through 2000–01	507
351.	Voluntary support for degree-granting institutions, by source and purpose of support: Selected years, 1959–60 through 2004–05	508

352.	Total expenditures of private not-for-profit degree-granting institutions, by purpose and type of institution: 1996–97 through 2003–04	509
353.	Total expenditures of private not-for-profit degree-granting institutions, by purpose and type of institution: 2003–04	511
354.	Total expenditures of private for-profit degree-granting institutions, by purpose and type of institution: 2002–03 and 2003–04	512
355.	Total expenditures of private not-for-profit and for-profit degree-granting institutions, by level and state or jurisdiction: 1997–98 through 2003–04.	513
Property	V	
356.	Value of property and liabilities of degree-granting institutions: Selected years, 1899–1900 through 1995–96.	514
357.	Endowment funds of the 120 colleges and universities with the largest amounts, by rank order: 2004 and 2005	515

Adult Education

358.	Participants in adult basic and secondary education programs, by type of program and state or jurisdiction: Selected fiscal years, 1990 through 2005	516
359.	Participation of employed persons, 17 years old and over, in career-related adult education during the previous 12 months, by selected characteristics of participants: Various years, 1995 through 2005	517
360.	Participation of persons, 17 years old and over, in adult education during the previous 12 months, by selected characteristics of participants: Selected years, 1991 through 2005	520

Vocational Education

361.	Number of non-degree-granting Title IV institutions offering postsecondary education, by control	
	and state or jurisdiction: Selected years, 2000–01 through 2005–06	522

Chapter 4. Federal Programs for Education and Related Activities

362.	Federal support and estimated federal tax expenditures for education, by category: Selected fiscal years, 1965 through 2006	533
363.	Federal on-budget funds for education and related programs, by agency: Selected fiscal years, 1970 through 2006	535
364.	Federal on-budget funds for education, by level/educational purpose, agency, and program: Selected fiscal years, 1970 through 2006	536
365.	Estimated federal support for education, by type of ultimate recipient and agency: Fiscal year 2006	543
366.	U.S. Department of Education outlays, by type of recipient and level of education: Selected fiscal years, 1980 to 2006	544
367.	U.S. Department of Education appropriations for major programs, by state or jurisdiction: Fiscal year 2005	545
368.	Appropriations for Title I, No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, by program and state or jurisdiction: Fiscal years 2005 and 2006	546
369.	U.S. Department of Agriculture obligations for child nutrition programs, by state or jurisdiction: Fiscal years 2004 and 2005	547
370.	U.S. Department of Health and Human Services allocations for Head Start and enrollment in Head Start, by state or jurisdiction: Fiscal years 2002 through 2005	548
371.	Federal science and engineering obligations to colleges and universities, by agency and state or jurisdiction: Fiscal year 2004	550

372.	Federal obligations for research, development, and R&D plant, by performers, fields of science, and category of obligation: Fiscal years 1998 through 2006	551
373.	Federal obligations for research and development and R&D plant, by agency and state or jurisdiction: Fiscal year 2004	553

Chapter 5. Outcomes of Education

Educational Characteristics of the Workforce

374.	Labor force participation rates and employment to population ratios of persons 16 to 64 years old, by highest level of education, age, sex, and race/ethnicity: 2005	559
375.	Unemployment rate of persons 16 years old and over, by age, sex, race/ethnicity, and educational attainment: 2003, 2004, and 2005	560
376.	Occupation of employed persons 25 years old and over, by educational attainment and sex: 2005	561
377.	Median annual income of year-round, full-time workers 25 years old and over, by highest level of educational attainment and sex: 1990 through 2005	562
378.	Distribution of income and median income of persons 25 years old and over, by highest level of educational attainment and sex: 2005	565
379.	Literacy skills of adults, by type of literacy, proficiency levels, and selected characteristics: 1992 and 2003	567
380.	Percentage of 12th-graders working different numbers of hours per week, by selected student characteristics and school locale type: 1992 and 2004	568

Recent High School and College Graduates

381.	College enrollment and labor force status of 2003, 2004, and 2005 high school completers, by sex and race/ethnicity: 2003, 2004, and 2005	569
382.	Labor force status of high school dropouts, by sex and race/ethnicity: Selected years, 1980 through 2005	571
383.	Current postsecondary education and employment status, wages earned, and living arrangements of special education students out of secondary school up to 4 years, by type of disability: 2005.	572
384.	Full-time employment status of bachelor's degree recipients 1 year after graduation, by field of study: Selected years, 1976 through 2001	572
385.	Percentage distribution of 1999–2000 bachelor's degree recipients 1 year after graduation, by field of study, time to completion, enrollment status, employment status, occupational area, job characteristics, and annual salaries: 2001.	573
386.	Enrollment in postbaccalaureate certificate or advanced degree programs and highest degree attained by 1992–93 bachelor's degree recipients, by education characteristics: 2003	574
387.	Average annual salary of bachelor's degree recipients employed full time 1 year after graduation, by field of study: Selected years, 1976 through 2001	575
388.	Percentage of 1988 8th-graders who volunteered in various capacities in a 12-month period ending in 2000, by selected young adult characteristics: 2000	576
389.	Percentage of 18- to 25-year-olds reporting drug use during the past 30 days and the past year, by drug used: Selected years, 1982 through 2005	577
390.	Percentage of 1972 high school seniors, 1992 high school seniors, and 2004 high school seniors who felt that certain life values were "very important," by sex: Selected years, 1972 through 2004	578
391.	Percentage of employed 1988 8th-graders satisfied with various aspects of their job, by educational attainment: 2000	578

Chapter 6. International Comparisons of Education

392.	Selected population and finance statistics, school enrollment, and teachers, by major areas of the world: Selected years, 1980 through 2004	583
393.	Selected population and enrollment statistics for countries with populations over 10 million, by continent: Selected years, 1980 through 2004	584
394.	School-age populations as a percentage of total population, by age group and country: Selected years, 1985 through 2002	586
395.	Percentage of population enrolled in secondary and postsecondary institutions, by age group and country: Selected years, 1985 through 2003	587
396.	Pupils per teacher in public and private elementary and secondary schools, by level of education and country: Selected years, 1985 through 2004	588
397.	Average mathematics literacy, reading literacy, science literacy, and problem-solving scores of 15- year-olds, by sex and country: 2003	589
398.	Mean scores and percentage distribution of 15-year-olds scoring at each mathematics literacy proficiency level, by country: 2003	590
399.	Average fourth-grade mathematics scores, by content areas, index of time students spend doing mathematics homework in a normal school week, and country: 2003	591
400.	Average eighth-grade mathematics scores, by content areas, index of time students spend doing mathematics homework in a normal school week, and country: 2003	592
401.	Percentage of lesson time spent on various mathematics activities, yearly mathematics instructional time, and mathematics instructional time as a percentage of total instructional time in eighth grade, by country: 2003.	594
402.	Average size and scores of eighth-grade mathematics classes and Index of Teachers' Emphasis on Mathematics Homework (EMH), by country: 2003	596
403.	Eighth-grade students' perceptions about mathematics and hours spent on leisure activities, by country: 2003	598
404.	Average mathematics scores at the end of secondary school, by sex, average time spent studying mathematics out of school, and country: 1995	599
405.	Average fourth-grade science scores in content areas and average time spent teaching science in school, by country: 2003	600
406.	Average eighth-grade science scores in content areas and average time spent studying out of school, by country: 2003	601
407.	Instructional practices and time spent teaching science in eighth grade, by country: 2003	603
408.	Average science scores at the end of secondary school, by sex, average time spent studying science out of school, and country: 1995	605
409.	Number of bachelor's degree recipients per 100 persons of the typical age of graduation, by sex and country: 2002, 2003, and 2004	605
410.	Percentage of bachelor's degrees awarded in science, by field and country: Selected years, 1985 through 2003	606
411.	Percentage of graduate degrees awarded in science, by field and country: Selected years, 1985 through 2003	607
412.	Public and private education expenditures per student, by level of education and country: 2000 through 2003	608
413.	Total public direct expenditures on education as a percentage of the gross domestic product, by level and country: Selected years, 1985 through 2003	610
414.	Foreign students enrolled in institutions of higher education in the United States and other jurisdictions, by continent, region, and selected countries of origin: Selected years, 1980–81 through 2004–05	611

Chapter 7. Libraries and Educational Technology

Libraries

415.	Selected statistics on school libraries/media centers, by control and level of school: 1999–2000 and 2003–04	615
416.	Selected statistics on public school libraries/media centers, by level and enrollment size of school: 2003–04	616
417.	Selected statistics on public school libraries/media centers, by state: 2003–04	617
418.	Collections, staff, and operating expenditures of degree-granting institution libraries: Selected years, 1976–77 through 2001–02	618
419.	Collections, staff, and operating expenditures of the 60 largest college and university libraries: 2001–02	619
420.	Selected statistics of public libraries, by population size of legal service area: Fiscal year 2004	620
421.	Public libraries, books and serial volumes, library visits, circulation, and reference transactions, by state: Fiscal year 2004	621

Computers and Technology

422.	Public schools and instructional rooms with access to the Internet, by selected school characteristics: 1994 through 2003	622
423.	Use of the Internet by persons 3 years old and over, by type of use and selected characteristics of students and other users: 2003	625
424.	Number and percentage of home computer users, by type of application and selected characteristics: 1997 and 2003	627
425.	Number and percentage of student home computer users, by type of application and selected characteristics: 2003	628
426.	Student use of computers, by level of enrollment, age, and student and school characteristics: 1993, 1997, and 2003	629
427.	Percentage of workers, 18 years old and over, using computers on the job, by type of computer application and selected characteristics: 1993, 1997, and 2003	631

Appendix A. Guide to Sources

A-1.	Respondent counts for selected High School and Beyond surveys: 1982, 1984, and 1986	667
A-2.	Design effects (DEFF) and root design effects (DEFT) for selected High School and Beyond surveys and subsamples: 1984 and 1986	668
A-3.	Respondent counts of full-time workers from the Recent College Graduates survey: Selected years, 1976 to 1991	668
A-4.	Sampling errors (95 percent confidence level) for percentages estimated from the Gallup Poll: 1992, 1993, and 1996 through 2006	669
A-5.	Sampling errors (95 percent confidence level) for the difference in two percentages estimated from the Gallup Poll: 1992, 1993, and 1996 through 2006	669
A-6.	Maximum differences required for significance (90 percent confidence level) between sample subgroups from the "Status of the American Public School Teacher" survey: 2000–01	669

INTRODUCTION

In the fall of 2006, about 72.7 million persons were enrolled in American schools and colleges (table 1). About 4.5 million persons were employed as elementary and secondary school teachers and as college faculty, in full-time equivalents (FTE). Other professional, administrative, and support staff at educational institutions numbered 5.0 million. All data for 2006 in this Introduction are projected. Some data for other years are projected or estimated as noted.

Elementary/Secondary Education

Enrollment

Enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools rose 24 percent between 1985 and 2006 (table 2). The fastest public school growth occurred in the elementary grades (prekindergarten through grade 8), where enrollment rose 25 percent over this period, from 27.0 million to 33.9 million. Public secondary school enrollment declined 8 percent from 1985 to 1990, but then rose 33 percent from 1990 to 2006, for a net increase of 21 percent. Private school enrollment grew more slowly than public school enrollment from 1985 to 2006, rising 10 percent, from 5.6 million to 6.1 million. As a result, the proportion of students enrolled in private schools declined from 12.4 percent in 1985 to 11.1 percent in 2006. Since the enrollment rates of kindergarten, elementary, and secondary school-age children did not change substantially between 1985 and 2005 (table 7), increases in public and private elementary school enrollment have been driven primarily by increases in the number of children in this age group.

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) forecasts record levels of total elementary and secondary enrollment through at least 2015, as the school-age population continues to rise. The projected fall 2006 public school enrollment is expected to be a new record, but new records are expected every year through 2015, the last year for which NCES enrollment projections have been developed (table 3). Public elementary school enrollment (prekindergarten through grade 8) is projected to show a slight decline of 1 percent between 2003 and 2005, and then increase, so that the fall 2015 projected enrollment is 7 percent higher than the 2006 projected enrollment. Public secondary school enrollment (grades 9 through 12) is expected to show a net decline of 2 percent between 2006 and 2015.

Teachers

A projected 3.6 million elementary and secondary school teachers were engaged in classroom instruction in the fall of 2006 (table 4). This number has risen 19 percent since 1996. The 2006 projected number of teachers includes 3.2 million public school teachers and 0.5 million private school teachers.

The number of public school teachers has risen faster than the number of public school students over the past 10 years, resulting in declines in the pupil/teacher ratio (table 61). In the fall of 2006, there were a projected 15.4 public school pupils per teacher, compared with 17.1 public school pupils per teacher 10 years earlier.

The salaries of public school teachers lost purchasing power in the 1970s due to inflation, but increased at a greater rate than inflation in the 1980s, and since 1990–91 the salaries have generally maintained pace with inflation (table 75). The average salary for teachers in 2004–05 was \$47,750, about 2 percent higher than in 1994–95, after adjustment for inflation.

Student Performance

Most of the student performance data in the *Digest* are drawn from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). NAEP conducts assessments using three basic designs: long-term trend NAEP, national NAEP, and state NAEP. These three basic designs are described in the paragraphs that follow.

NAEP long-term trend assessments provide information on changes in the basic achievement of America's youth since the early 1970s. They are administered nationally and report student performance at ages 9, 13, and 17 in reading and mathematics. Measuring trends of student achievement or change over time requires the precise replication of past procedures. For example, students of specific ages are sampled in order to maintain consistency with the original sample design. Similary, the long-term trend instrument does not evolve based on changes in curricula or in educational practices.

The main NAEP assessments provide current information for the nation and specific geographic regions. They include students drawn from both public and private schools and report results for student achievement at grades 4, 8, and 12. The main NAEP assessments follow the frameworks developed by the National Assessment Governing Board and use the latest advances in assessment methodology. The NAEP frameworks are designed to reflect changes in educational objectives and curricula. Because the assessment items reflect curricula associated with specific grade levels, the main NAEP uses samples of students at those grade levels. The differences in procedures between the main NAEP and the long-term trend NAEP mean that their results cannot be compared directly.

Since 1990, NAEP assessments have also been conducted at the state level. Participating states receive assessment results that report on the performance of students in that state. The state assessment is identical in content to the assessment conducted nationally. However, because the national NAEP samples prior to 2002 were not designed to support the reporting of accurate and representative state-level results, separate representative samples of students were selected for each participating jurisdiction/state. From 1990 through 2001, the national sample was a subset of the combined sample of students assessed in each participating state, plus an additional sample from the states that did not participate in the state assessment. Since 2002, a combined sample of public schools has been selected for both state and national NAEP.

Reading

Overall achievement scores on the NAEP long-term trend reading assessment for the country's 9-, 13-, and 17-year-old students are mixed. The average reading scores at ages 9 and 13 were higher in 2004 than in 1971 (table 110). The average score for 17-year-olds in 2004 was similar to that in 1971.

For Black 9-, 13-, and 17-year-olds, average reading scores in 2004 were higher than in 1971. At age 9, Black students scored higher on average in 2004 than in any previous administration year. For Blacks ages 13 and 17, scores increased between 1971 and 2004 (table 110). For White students, the average scores for 9- and 13-year-olds were also higher in 2004 than in 1971. Separate data for Hispanics were not gathered in 1971, but as with the other racial/ethnic groups, the average reading score for Hispanic students at age 9 was higher in 2004 than in any other assessment year. The average score for Hispanic students at age 13 shows an increase between 1975 and 2004. The scores for 17-year-old Hispanic students also increased between 1975 and 2004, but no measurable changes were seen between 1999 and 2004.

The 2005 main NAEP reading assessment of states found that reading proficiency varied among public school fourthgraders in the 53 participating jurisdictions (50 states, Department of Defense overseas and domestic schools, and the District of Columbia) (table 114). The U.S. average score was 217. The scores for the participating jurisdictions ranged from 191 in the District of Columbia and 204 in Mississippi to 231 in Massachusetts.

Mathematics

Results from NAEP long-term trend assessments of mathematics proficiency indicate that the scores of 9- and 13-yearold students were higher in 2004 than in 1973 (table 121). For White, Black, and Hispanic 9-, 13-, and 17-year-olds, average mathematics scale scores were higher in 2004 than in 1973. The 2005 main NAEP assessment of states found that mathematics proficiency varied among public school eighth-graders in the 53 participating jurisdictions (50 states, Department of Defense overseas and domestic schools, and the District of Columbia) (table 125). Overall, 68 percent of these eighth-grade students performed at or above the *Basic* level in mathematics, and 29 percent performed at or above the *Proficient* level.

International Comparisons

In 2003, the performance of U.S. 15-year-olds, as measured by the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), in mathematics literacy and problem solving was lower than the average performance for most Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries (table 397). Along with the scale scores, PISA also used seven proficiency levels (below level 1 and levels 1 through 6, with level 6 being the highest level of proficiency) to describe student performance in mathematics literacy (table 398). In mathematics literacy, the United States had greater percentages of students below level 1 and at levels 1 and 2 than the OECD average percentages. The United States also had a lower percentage of students at levels 4, 5, and 6 than the OECD average percentages.

High School Graduates and Dropouts

The projected number of high school graduates in 2006-07 was 3,232,000 (table 99), including 2,912,000 public school graduates and 321,000 private school graduates. High school graduates include only recipients of diplomas, not recipients of equivalency credentials. The 2006-07 record number of high school graduates is higher than the former high points in 2005-06, when a projected 3,176,000 students earned diplomas, and in 1976-77, when 3,152,000 students earned diplomas. In 2003-04, an estimated 74.3 percent of public high school students graduated on time-that is, received a diploma 4 years after beginning their freshman year (table 101). The number of General Educational Development (GED) credentials issued rose from 332,000 in 1977 to 648,000 in 2001, before falling to 406,000 in 2004 (table 103). The status dropout rate-that is, the proportion of 16- to 24-year-olds who are not enrolled in school and have received neither a diploma nor an equivalency credential-declined over this period, from 14 percent in 1977 to 9 percent in 2005 (table 104).

Educational Technology

There has been widespread introduction of computers into the schools in recent years. In 2003, the average public school contained 136 instructional computers (table 422). One important technological advance that has come to classrooms following the introduction of computers has been connections to the Internet. The proportion of instructional rooms with access to the Internet increased from 51 percent in 1998 to 93 percent in 2003 (figure 29). Nearly all schools had access to the Internet in 2003 (table 422).

Postsecondary Education

College Enrollment

College enrollment hit a record level of 17.5 million in fall 2005. Another record of 17.6 million is anticipated for fall 2006 (table 3). Enrollment is expected to increase by an additional 13 percent between 2006 and 2015. Despite decreases in the traditional college-age population during the late 1980s and early 1990s, total enrollment increased during the late 1980s and early 1990s (tables 7, 15, 177, and 187). The traditional college-age population (18 to 24 years old) rose 15 percent between 1995 and 2005, which was reflected by an increase in college enrollment. Between 1995 and 2005, the number of full-time students increased by 33 percent compared to a 9 percent increase in part-time students (table 175). During the same time period, the number of men enrolled increased 18 percent, while the number of women enrolled increased 27 percent.

Faculty and Staff

In the fall of 2005, degree-granting institutions—defined as postsecondary institutions that grant an associate's or higher degree and are eligible for Title IV federal financial aid programs—employed 1.3 million faculty members, including 0.7 million full-time and 0.6 million part-time faculty (table 228). About 19 percent of full-time faculty taught 15 or more hours per week, compared with 8 percent of part-time faculty (tables 233 and 234). About 9 percent of full-time faculty taught 150 or more students, compared with 2 percent of parttime faculty.

Postsecondary Degrees

The projections of the number of postsecondary degrees conferred during the 2005–06 school year by degree level show 682,000 associate's degrees; 1,456,000 bachelor's degrees; 584,000 master's degrees; 85,100 first-professional degrees; and 49,500 doctor's degrees (table 251).

Educational Attainment

The U.S. Census Bureau collects annual statistics on the educational attainment of the population. Between 1996 and 2006, the proportion of the adult population 25 years of age and over who had completed high school rose from 82 percent to 85 percent, and the proportion of adults with a bachelor's degree increased from 24 percent to 28 percent (table 8). High school completers include those persons who graduated from high school with a diploma, as well as those who completed high school through equivalency programs. The proportion of young adults (25- to 29-year-olds) who had completed high school in 2006 (86 percent) was about the same as it was in 1996 (87 percent). Also, the proportion of young adults who had completed a bachelor's degree in 2006 (28 percent) was not substantively different from the proportion in 1996 (27 percent).

Education Expenditures

Expenditures for public and private education, from kindergarten through graduate school (excluding postsecondary schools not awarding associate's or higher degrees), are estimated at \$922 billion for 2005–06 (table 25). Expenditures of elementary and secondary schools are expected to total \$558 billion, while those of degree-granting postsecondary institutions are expected to total \$364 billion. Total expenditures for education are expected to amount to 7.4 percent of the gross domestic product in 2005–06, about 0.5 percentage points higher than in 1995–96.

Interpreting Statistics

Readers should be aware of the limitations of statistics. These limitations vary with the exact nature of a particular survey. For example, estimates based on a sample of institutions will differ somewhat from the figures that would have been obtained if a complete census had been taken using the same survey procedures. Standard errors are available for sample survey data appearing in this report. In most cases, standard errors for all items appear in the printed table. In some cases, only standard errors for key items appear in the printed table. Standard errors that do not appear in the tables are available from NCES upon request. Although some of the surveys conducted by NCES are census or universe surveys (which attempt to collect information from all potential respondents), all surveys are subject to design, reporting, and processing errors and errors due to nonresponse. Differences in sampling, data collection procedures, coverage of target population, timing, phrasing of questions, scope of nonresponse, interviewer training, data processing, coding, and so forth mean that the results from the different sources may not be strictly comparable. More information on survey methodologies can be found in the Guide to Sources (appendix A).

Unless otherwise noted, all data in this report are for the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Unless otherwise noted, all financial data are in current dollars, not adjusted for changes in the purchasing power of the dollar. Price indexes for inflation adjustments can be found in table 31.

Common data elements are collected in different ways in different surveys. Since the *Digest* relies on a number of data sources, there are discrepancies in definitions and data across tables in the volume. For example, several different surveys collect data on public school enrollment, and while similar, the estimates are not identical. The definitions of racial/ethnic groups also differ across surveys, particularly with respect to whether Hispanic origin is considered an ethnic group regardless of race, or counted separately as a racial/ethnic group. Individual tables note the definitions used in the given studies.

All statements cited in the text about differences between two or more groups or changes over time were tested for statistical significance and are statistically significant at the .05 level. Various test procedures were used, depending on the nature of the statement tested. The most commonly used test procedures were t tests, equivalence tests, and linear trend tests. Equivalence tests were used to determine whether two statistics are substantively equivalent or substantively different. This was accomplished by using a hypothesis test to determine whether the confidence interval of the difference between sample estimates is substantively significant (i.e., greater or less than a preset substantively important difference). In most cases involving percentages, a difference of 3.0 was used to determine substantive equivalence or difference. In some comparisons involving only very small percentages, a lower difference was used. In cases involving only relatively large values, a larger difference was used, such as \$1,000 in the case of annual salaries. Linear trend tests were conducted by evaluating the significance of the slope of a simple regression of the data over time, and a t test comparing the end points.

GUIDE TO TABULAR PRESENTATION

This section is intended to assist the reader in following the basic structure of the Digest tables and to provide a legend for some of the common symbols and indexes used throughout the book. Unless otherwise noted, all data are for the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Table Components

Title Describes the table content concisely.

Unit indicator Informs the reader of the measurement unit in the table—"In thousands," "In millions of dollars," etc.

Example of Table Structure

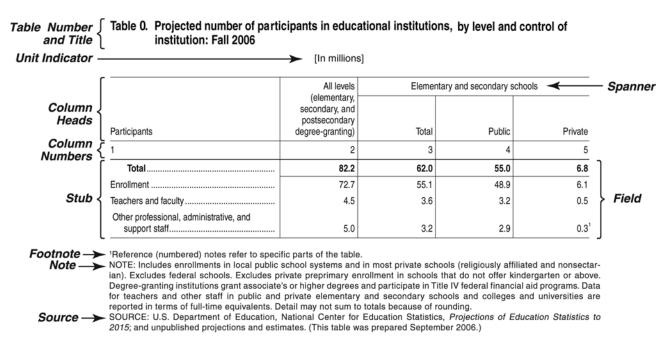
Noted below the title unless several units are used, in which case the unit indicators are generally given in the spanner or individual column heads.

Spanner Describes a group of two or more columns.

Column head Describes a specific column.

Stub Describes a row or a group of rows. Each stub row is followed by a number of dots (leaders).

Field The area of the table which contains the data elements.



Special notes Symbols used to indicate why data do not appear in designated cell.

-Not available.

- † Not applicable.
- # Rounds to zero.
- ! Interpret data with caution.
- ‡ Reporting standards not met.

Footnote Describes a unique circumstance relating to a specific item within the table.

Note Furnishes general information that relates to the entire table.

Source The document or reference from which the data are drawn. This note may also include the organizational unit responsible for preparing the data.

Descriptive Terms

Measures of central tendency A number that is used to represent the "typical value" of a group of numbers. It is regarded as a measure of "location" or "central tendency" of a group of numbers.

Arithmetic mean (average) is the most commonly used average. It is derived by summing the individual item values of a particular group and dividing that sum by the number of items. This value is often referred to simply as the "mean" or "average."

Median is the measure of central tendency that occupies the middle position in a rank order of values. It generally has the same number of items above it as below it. If there is an even number of items in the group, the median is the average of the middle two items.

Average per capita, or per person, figure represents an average computed for every person in a specified group, or population. It is derived by dividing the total for an item (such as income or expenditures) by the number of persons in the specified population.

Index number A value that provides a means of measuring, summarizing, and communicating the nature of changes that occur from time to time or from place to place. An index is used to express changes in prices over periods of time, but may also be used to express differences between related subjects at a single point in time.

The *Digest* most often uses the Consumer Price Index to compare purchasing power over time.

To compute a price index, a base year or period is selected. The base-year price is then designated as the base or reference price to which the prices for other years or periods are related.

A method of expressing the price relationship is:

Index number =

 $\frac{\text{Price of a set of one or more items for related year}}{\text{Price of the same set of items for base year}} \times 100$

When 100 is subtracted from the index number, the result equals the percent change in price from the base year.

Current and constant dollars are used in a number of tables to express finance data. Unless otherwise noted, all figures are in current dollars, not adjusted for inflation. Constant dollars provide a measure of the impact of inflation on the current dollars.

Current dollar figures reflect actual prices or costs prevailing during the specified year(s).

Constant dollar figures attempt to remove the effects of price changes (inflation) from statistical series reported in dollar terms.

The constant dollar value for an item is derived by dividing the base-year price index (for example, the Consumer Price Index for 1999) by the price index for the year of data to be adjusted and multiplying by the price of item to be adjusted. The result is an adjusted dollar value as it would presumably exist if prices were the same as the base year—in other words, as if the dollar had constant purchasing power. Any changes in the constant dollar amounts would reflect only changes in the real values.

In the 2006 edition of the *Digest*, the following 19 tables include finance data that are adjusted to school year 2005–06 dollars: tables 26, 32, 71, 75, 76, 82, 167, 170, 171, 172, 239, 240, 246, 340, 342, 345, 346, 352, and 418. Data adjusted to calendar year 2005 dollars appear in tables 20, 377, 387, and 412. Table 362 includes adjustments to fiscal year (FY) 2006 dollars.

NOTE: Tables may not include data for all years implied in table titles. When this is the case, the title will include the term "Selected years."