NLWJC - Kagan

DPC - Box 026 - Folder 004

Family - Family Report [1]

Family - family report

PRELIMINARY DRAFT -- NOT FOR CITATION

References need to be completed.
Comments in italics in brackets to be removed.

Families and the Changing Labor Market

An analysis by the
Council of Economic Advisers

September 1998

PRELIMINARY DRAFT -- NOT FOR CITATION

Families and the Changing Labor Market

Executive Summary

American families have been in the midst of change in the last three decades -- changes in time worked for pay; changes in income and who it is earned by; changes in family size; and changes in how child care and household tasks are accomplished. This report assesses these changes and the challenges and opportunities they create.

- The hours American parents work in paid jobs have increased enormously since 1969, due to a dramatic shift of mothers' time from the household to the labor market. Both married mothers and single parents are working more for pay today than 30 years ago.

- Average family income has increased as a result of the increase in paid work hours, so that families can purchase more goods and services than in the past. The average American family is clearly better off economically today than in 1969.

- These gains have not been universal, however. Families with less-educated parents had lower inflation-adjusted incomes in 1996 than their counterparts had in 1969, although their situation has been improving in the strong economic expansion of the 1990s.

- Progress would have been even more striking if the share of families with a single parent had not also grown dramatically since 1969. The typical single parent has less than half as much potential income and only half as much total time as two parents have. The rising number of single parents has increased the proportion of families who are "cash-strapped" and "time-poor."

- At the same time, families are having fewer children. Fewer children take less time and also cost less. As a result, *per-person* family income has risen faster than overall family income and parental non-work time available *per child* has increased even though total time spent in child care has declined somewhat.

- The increase in work among women appears to have produced some reduction in the time parents spend with their children, although the evidence on time use within families is limited. Most of the extra time spent earning income has come at the expense of housework, not child care or leisure activities.

- Increased time in market work among parents raises a key set of policy questions, including the need for flexibility in paid work hours; the need for available and affordable child care; effective ways to support the earnings of families with low-wage earning parents; and the need to encourage two-parent families to form and stay together. In all of these areas, the Clinton Administration has actively worked to improve the situation of American families.

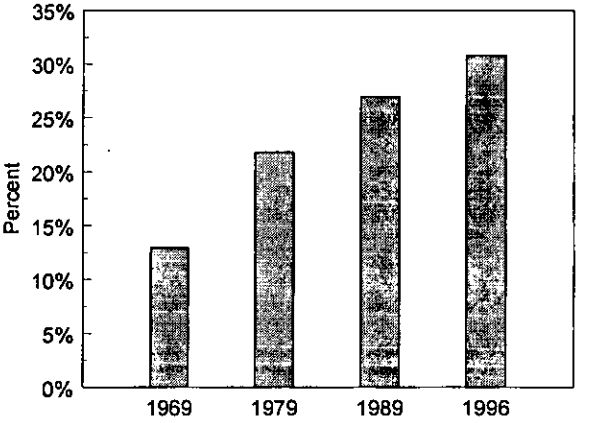
Families and the Changing Labor Market

I. Introduction

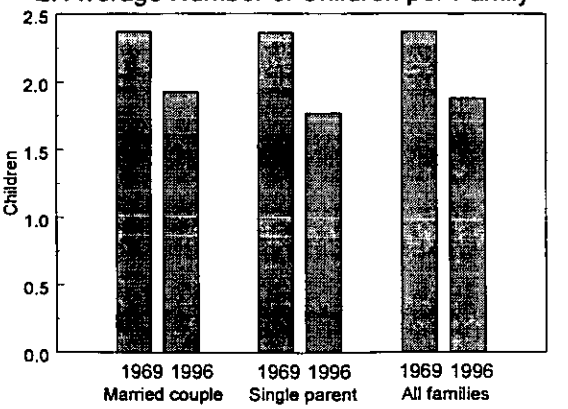
Dramatic changes have occurred over the last thirty years in how families combine work and family life. During the last three decades women have devoted more and more time to market work. Combined with hourly earnings increases among women, this means women's earnings have gone up substantially, while their time available for work in the home has declined. In contrast, men's average hours of paid work and earnings have remained relatively stable. As a result, families have higher incomes, but they have less time for other activities. In short, American families have been in the midst of change -- changes in time worked for pay; changes in income and who it is earned by; changes in family size; and changes in how child care and household tasks are accomplished. This report assesses these changes since 1969 for families with children under age 18.

Two other trends in family life are also likely to affect the well-being of families with children, occurring along with changes in their income and time allocations. First, the share of families with children that are headed by a single parent has increased significantly (see figure 1). Since single parents typically have both lower incomes *and* less total adult time available for work in the home than married-couple families, this trend tends to increase the proportion of families who are "cash-strapped" and "time poor." Second, families have also decreased in size as the average number of children in families with children has declined (see figure 2). This should ease some of the time pressures on parents.

1. Single Parent Families as Share of All Families



2. Average Number of Children per Family



This paper will examine how families with children are faring in the face of all these changes. Key questions to be addressed include:

- How much have hours of market work increased for families?
- How have the extra hours worked by families affected family incomes? How have these trends differentially affected families that differ in skill level, minority status, and number of parents in the household?

- What have these changes in market work and income meant for how families use their time in the home? In particular, how have these changes affected parental time available for children?

Some have argued that Americans are facing more and more of a "time bind" as they work longer and longer hours in order to attain an increasing standard of living.[1] Others have argued that, even with increases in hours of paid work, families are not realizing significant income gains, or that families are working harder and harder "just to stay in the same place."[2] No such "one size fits all" characterization adequately captures the variety of experience in different segments of the population. Different types of families have experienced different changes in paid work time and income.

Overall, we find that parents today are spending more time working to earn income. Time available for children has declined, but parents have protected child-rearing time by spending less time on household chores. The decline in parents' time at home is also mitigated by the decrease in family size. For most groups, family income has increased. With fewer children, parents are able to buy more goods and services for themselves and their children. The average American child -- particularly if he or she is living in a family headed by a married couple -- is better off today than in 1969 by many measures.

There are some groups for whom the picture is not as rosy, however. The continuing increase in the share of children living in single-parent families has substantially diminished the progress that families with children would otherwise have made, limiting both their income and their time. Less educated parents, who have not experienced the wage gains of other families, are working more hours without an increase in income. It is encouraging to note, however, that most of these families have experienced income gains in recent years during the strong economic expansion of the 1990s, making it easier for them to effectively combine work and family life.

Underlying and reinforcing the trends toward more paid work time and smaller families has been the long-term growth of women's wages. Rising wages pull women into the labor market by making it more expensive for them to stay at home, in terms of foregone income. Higher wages also make children more expensive because the time devoted to bearing and rearing children is now more valuable in the labor market. Rising wage levels for women in the labor market, combined with other changes in attitudes toward market work among women, make it unlikely that families will ever return to the way they were in 1969. With both mothers and fathers in the labor market, we have no realistic alternative but to help parents balance paid work and family life as effectively as possible.

---

[1] Hochschild (1998); Schor (1991).

[2] Bluestone and Rose (1997).

II. Trends in Hours of Market Work

The most dramatic change in the time allocation of families has been in time spent at work for pay. Since 1969, both married-couple and single-parent families have substantially increased their annual hours of paid work. These increases have come almost entirely from the women in these families, who are working more outside the home -- more weeks in the year and more hours in the week -- than they did thirty years ago. However, while the increase in paid work time has been widespread, the size of the increase has varied considerably across families, depending on the number of parents, their education, whether they have a preschool-age child, and their race or ethnicity.

The estimates of annual hours of work presented in this section are based on the March Current Population Survey (CPS), a large representative survey of over 50,000 households each year.[3] While the CPS is the only large-scale representative sample which consistently measures hours of work and family incomes on an annual basis and is therefore the standard data set used for labor market analyses, some have argued that the CPS may be inaccurate because individuals may not be able to recall accurately their usual hours of work during the last year.[4] In section IV of this report we discuss alternative estimates of paid work time based upon "time diaries," which require individuals to maintain detailed accounts of how they spent their time during a day.

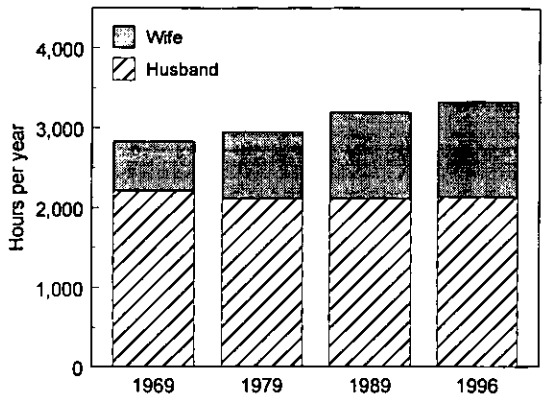
For purposes of this analysis, we use the same definition of a "family" as the Census Bureau: all related individuals living together in the same household. We restrict the analysis to families whose head is at least eighteen years old and where there is a child under age 18. A mother (or couple) and her (their) children living in a household headed by another family member are part of the head's family, and an unmarried parent co-habiting with a domestic partner is classified as a single parent. Throughout this paper, unless otherwise specified, the terms "wives" and "married women" refer only to those with children.

---

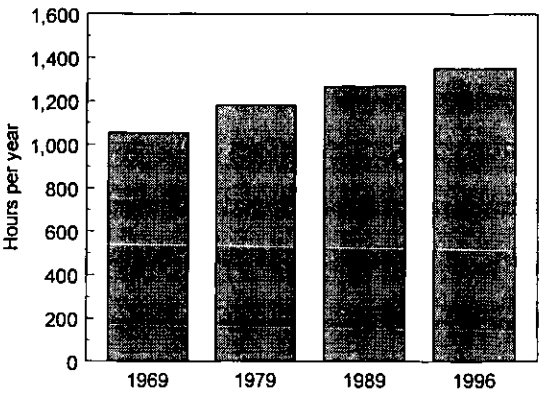
[3] We are using the March 1970, 1980, 1990, and 1997 CPS data sets. The data collected each March refer to the previous calendar year. Thus we refer to data for 1969, 1979, 1989, and 1996. We chose those years because they represent peak years (or upswing, in 1996) in the business cycle and thus permit valid historical comparisons. For 1979, 1989, and 1996, information on annual hours of work was derived from two questions which ask how many weeks each individual worked in the previous year and how many hours they "usually worked" in the weeks they worked. Multiplying weeks worked by usual hours worked per week provides a measure of annual hours of work. The 1969 data are not strictly comparable to later years due to differences in data reporting . We have developed an imputation procedure to make these data more comparable to information in later years.

[4] Juster and Stafford (1991); Robinson and Godbey, chapter 4 (1997).

3. Annual Hours of Work, Married-Couple Families



4. Annual Hours of Work by Single Parents



As shown in figures 3 and 4, annual hours of paid work have increased substantially for both married-couple and single-parent families. (All families with children under 18 are included in figures 3 through 6, including parents with zero hours of paid work.) A person who works forty hours a week for 50 weeks a year (a traditional "full-time" job) will work 2,000 hours in a year. For two-parent families (figure 3) annual hours of paid work increased by 496 hours (18 percent) from 1969 to 1996; for single-parent households (figure 4) they increased by 297 hours (28 percent).

Virtually all of the increase in families' market hours of work has come from increases in women's hours. Conceptually, the increase in women's hours can be divided into three components: more women are employed, employed women are working more hours per week, and employed women are working more weeks per year.

The most dramatic change has been in the percentage of women employed. In 1969, 38 percent of married women with children worked for pay, while in 1996, 68 percent did so -- a 79 percent increase in employment. The increase in employment for single parents has been less dramatic: 53 percent worked for pay in 1969 and 66 percent in 1996.

Average annual hours worked *by those who worked for pay* also increased over time, showing that not all of the increase in hours came simply from more women entering the labor force. This increase was much greater for wives (who experienced a 24 percent increase) than for single parents (who experienced an 8 percent increase). This is not surprising since on average, single parents in 1969 worked more hours per year for pay than wives did in 1996. Both hours worked per week and weeks worked per year increased for wives and single parents, among those who worked for pay. Each of these components of annual hours, like the total, increased more for wives than for single parents. Increases in hours worked per week were more dramatic than increases in weeks worked per year.

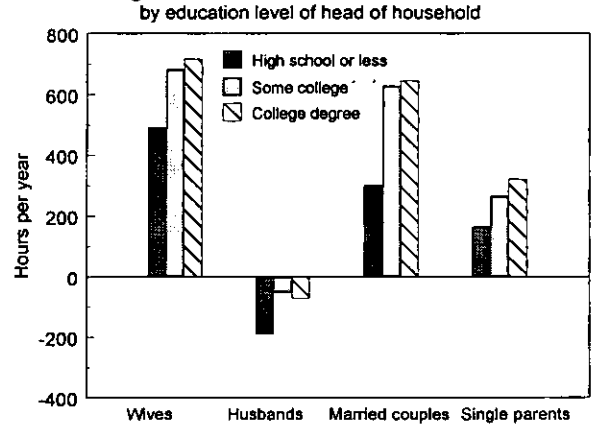
While annual hours of paid work by all wives increased greatly -- by 576 hours, or 93 percent -- husbands' hours of paid work decreased slightly from 1969 to 1996. This is the result of husbands working fewer weeks per year, without significantly changing their usual number of hours worked per week. These trends are consistent with estimates reported elsewhere in the literature, based on a variety of data sources.[5]

The increase in family hours of paid work has been widespread throughout the population. All types of families -- whether defined by the head's education level, spouse's education level, presence of young children, or race or ethnicity of the household head -- have experienced substantial increases in hours of paid work from 1969 to 1996. In virtually every case, the increase in family hours of paid work reflects increases by wives and by single parents, rather than by husbands.

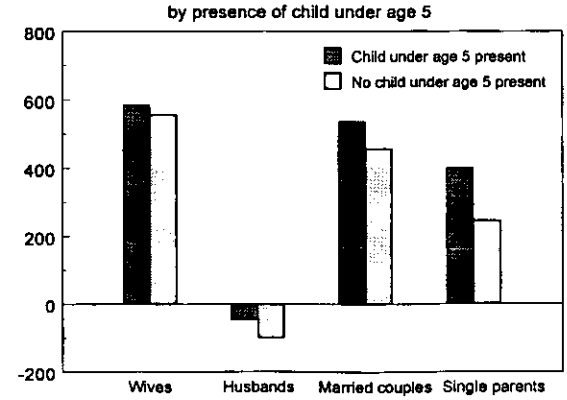
While the basic trends have been similar, however, the magnitude of the increase in hours of paid work has differed substantially across different demographic groups. In part, this is because some groups, such as women with preschool-age children, had lower hours to start with, and therefore more room for expansion, than others.

- *Families whose head had gone to college have increased their hours of paid work much more than those whose head had less education* (see figure 5). For married couples with a college-educated husband, annual hours of paid work increased by 644 hours (23 percent) -- more than twice the increase for couples in which the husband had a high school diploma or less. The difference was due to the wives' hours increasing more and the husbands' hours decreasing less in the college-educated families. For single parents with a college degree, hours of paid work increased by 322 hours (20 percent), compared to 165 hours (16 percent) for single parents with a high

5. Change in Annual Hours Worked, 1969-96
by education level of head of household



6. Change in Annual Hours Worked, 1969-96
by presence of child under age 5



[5] Rones, Ilg and Gardner (1997) and Leete and Schor (1994) used CPS data, Bluestone and Rose (1997) used data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics, and McGrattan and Rogerson (1998) used decennial Census data. All of these studies show increases in hours of work for women (or wives and single parents), and decreasing or stable hours of work for men (or husbands) when nonemployment is taken into account.

school diploma or less.

- *Families with a young child increased their hours of paid work more than those with only school-age children* (see figure 6). For single parents with a child under age five, hours of paid work increased by 400 hours (50 percent), compared to 246 hours (21 percent) for single parents without a young child. For married couples, hours of paid work increased by 537 hours (20 percent) for families with a child under age five, compared to 457 hours (15 percent) for families without a young child.

- *Married couples with a white or black husband increased their hours of paid work nearly twice as much as married couples with a Hispanic husband.* By contrast, single Hispanic parents increased their hours slightly more than either white or black single parents.[6]

Why have parents changed their hours of paid work? Trends in wages and trends in paid work hours influence each other. Rising wages tend to draw more individuals into the labor force, while falling wages (especially relative to the rewards from other activities) tend to reduce participation. In turn, more work experience leads to faster wage growth, and vice versa. As a result, wages and paid work time tend to move up (or down) together, in a virtuous (or vicious) cycle.

Trends in hours of paid work for both men and women have roughly paralleled the trends in their wages since 1969, discussed below (in section III-A).[7] However, the magnitudes of the changes in paid work time are still not completely understood, as they are not easily "explained" by changes in key economic variables.[8] The increases in paid work among women seem to be much more closely related to increases in their own wages than to the changes in their husband's wages over this period. Declining male wages do not appear to be the main reason why women are increasing their market work.[9] Increased work among women may also be affected by such hard-to-measure things like changes in assumptions about women's role in the family, diminished discrimination against women in the workplace, or falling barriers to women entering non-traditional occupations. Highly educated women have benefitted more from diminished discrimination than have women with less education, as higher-level professional and management jobs have opened up to them. Whatever the reason, large increases in market work hours among women have substantially changed the time allocation and income of families.

---

[6] Trends for Hispanic families are difficult to interpret because changing immigration patterns resulted in significant changes in the composition of the Hispanic population over this time period.

[7] Blank, chapter 3 (1997); Juhn & Murphy (1997).

[8] Blau (1998), Danziger and Reed (1997).

[9] Juhn and Murphy (1997).

Are there constraints in the labor market that have led workers to choose more work hours than they would want? For instance, perhaps more full-time workers would rather work part-time. A worker's decision about how many hours to work on a job is determined by a number of factors. When workers accept a job, they are agreeing to a formal contract of hours and wages as well as to implicit contract about career development. They are *jointly* choosing the type of work they do, the environment in which they do it, the wages and benefits they earn, the job's future prospects, and the hours they work. It is possible that employees are working more hours than they would like, but that they value the other characteristics of their jobs sufficiently to work those extra hours.

III. Trends in Family Income

The upward trend in hours of market work raises questions about trends in family well-being. A family's economic well-being is typically measured by its income. Earnings are the largest part of family income, which also includes transfer payments such as welfare and unemployment insurance, interest, dividends, and other unearned income such as child support. Earnings, in turn, are equal to hours worked for pay multiplied by the hourly wage. Rising work hours should lead to rising incomes, but the magnitude of this effect depends on changes in wages and other income sources that might be occurring at the same time.

A. Wages

During the same period in which women's hours of paid work have increased, inflation-adjusted wages have been increasing for women on average. Female college graduates' wages have risen more than wages among the less educated. In fact, female high school dropouts' wages have stagnated or even declined slightly. Men's wages have grown very little on average. They have fallen for men without college degrees and remained virtually constant for men with at least a BA.[10] Because fringe benefits have grown since 1969, workers' hourly compensation (including the value of fringe benefits) has improved more than their wages alone.

As we discussed above, these wage changes are positively related to changes in hours of work. More educated women have shown the largest increase in their market work, and their earnings have gone up even faster as wages and hours of work rose together. Less educated men have experienced both declining wages and declining hours of work (due to decreased labor force participation and increased unemployment), leading to earnings reductions.

---

[10] Blau (1998). These are the trends in mean weekly earnings of full-time workers aged 25-64. Other wage measures such as average hourly earnings or median weekly earnings show slightly different trends, but all show a similar relationship between education levels.

B. Total Family Income

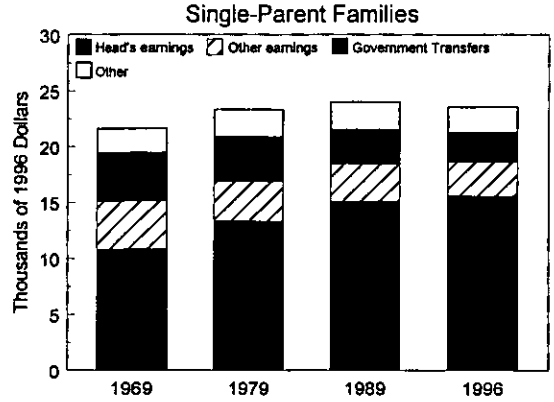
Putting the trends in wages and hours together, to what extent have increases in hours of paid work within families translated into increases in family income -- the measure we ultimately care about? To answer this question, we present estimates of average family incomes, by income component, to provide one assessment of how the changes in hours have affected the standard of living of families in the United States.[11] Our income measure, as described earlier, is based upon before-tax cash income only, including cash benefits such as welfare and unemployment insurance benefits, and does not include other family resources, such as fringe benefits, food stamps, and the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC). While these other resources and taxes are important, they are difficult to measure accurately or consistently for individual families. Because food stamp use grew rapidly in the 1970s and the EITC expanded greatly in the 1990s, the income measure we use omits more of the resources available to low-income families today than in the 1960s. Our estimates therefore understate the gains made by low-income families since 1969.[12]

Trends in income and in the various components of income (earnings, government transfers, other sources of income) have varied across different types of families.[13]

1. Trends in Income by Family Structure

Both married-couple families and single-parent families achieved increases in inflation-adjusted income from 1969 to 1996 (see figures 7 and 8). However, even though single parents had substantially higher rates of growth in paid work hours, married-couple families experienced a much larger average increase in income.

8. Average Family Income of Single-Parent Families

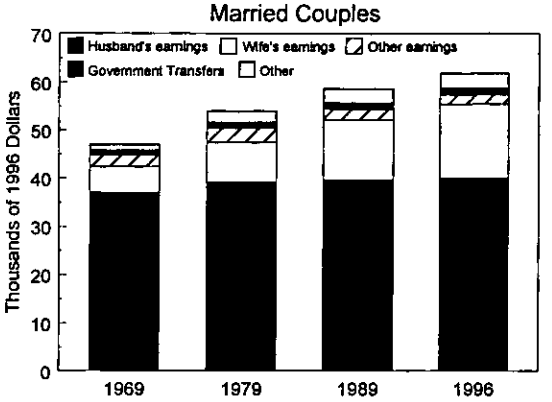


[11] To adjust for changes in prices over time, these estimates use the CPI-U-X1 price index measure, which is commonly used in federal statistics such as the current poverty threshold. Some have argued that this measure overestimates the actual rate of change in price levels over time. Estimates that assume a lower rate of inflation produce higher estimates of inflation-adjusted income growth over time.

[12] For estimates of changes in family incomes using a broader definition of income, see Levy (1996).

[13] Throughout the following analysis we use mean (that is, average) income, rather than the median or another indicator of the distribution. Changes in mean income can be decomposed into changes in means of the components of income, whereas changes in the median cannot. There has been a more positive change in mean income than in median income, as disproportionate growth in the upper tail of the income distribution pulls up the mean without affecting the median.

7. Average Family Income of Married Couples



- *The incomes of married-couple families increased by more than their increase in paid work time.* Their average family income increased by almost a third from 1969 to 1996 ($14,800 in 1996 dollars), while their annual hours of paid work increased by less than a fifth.

- *For single-parent families, incomes increased by much less than paid work time.* They also increased much less than the incomes of married-couple families over this period, after adjusting for inflation. Average income of single-parent families increased by less than ten percent ($1,900 in 1996 dollars) from 1969 to 1996, while their paid work hours increased by more than a quarter.

Increases in the earnings of wives and single parents generated most of the income growth from 1969 to 1996. Single parents' earnings increased more than their total family incomes did, as earnings increases were offset by a forty percent decline in average government cash transfer payments. For two-parent families, increases in the wives' earnings represented two thirds of the increase in family income, with the remainder attributable to an increase in the husbands' earnings and an increase in unearned income from sources other than government transfer payments.

Among both wives and single parents, their increased earnings reflect an increase in hours of work and an increase in hourly earnings rates. Rising earnings among wives reflected a startling 93 percent increase in their hours and a 53 percent increase in their earnings per hour. For single parents, hours of work increased by 28 percent, while hourly earnings increased by 18 percent.

2. Trends in Income by Other Demographic Characteristics

As with hours of paid work, trends in average family incomes differ substantially across groups of families classified by education, race or ethnicity, or presence of young children.

Income growth has been greater for families whose head is highly skilled, for families headed by a white person, and for families with preschool-age children.

- *More-educated families had greater income growth from 1969 to 1996.* Married couples' income grew by almost a third if the husband had a college education, but less than ten percent if the husband had a high school diploma or less. For single parents, inflation-adjusted incomes grew by eight percent if they had a college degree, but incomes *fell* by five percent for single parents with a high school diploma or less. Much of this difference in income growth reflects larger earnings increases for highly skilled wives and single parents, and larger earnings declines for low skilled husbands. Erosion of the purchasing power of cash welfare benefits also helps explain why the inflation-adjusted incomes of less-educated single parents fell.

- *Average income growth for whites was substantially higher than for blacks or Hispanics.* Among families headed by a white person, average incomes grew by almost twenty percent for both married couples (19 percent) and single parents (17 percent) from 1979 to 1996.[14] For blacks, average incomes grew by less than ten percent for both two-parent families (9 percent) and single-parent families (6 percent). Finally, for Hispanics, average incomes *fell* by almost five percent for married couples (4 percent) and single parents (3 percent). These results are striking, given the relatively large increases in hours worked for pay by Hispanic single parents over this period. Declining wages as well as declining cash welfare benefits help explain why Hispanics' incomes fell. In addition, an increasing share of the Hispanic population were recent immigrants with lower education and wage levels.

- *Families with a child under age five had greater average income growth than families with older children.* For married couples, average incomes increased by 38 percent for families with a child under age five, compared to 27 percent for families with only older children. For single parent families, mean incomes increased by 17 percent for those with young children, but by just 6 percent for families with only older children.[15]

3. Recent Trends in Family Income

Trends in family income from 1992 to 1996 are considerably more favorable than the longer term trend since 1969. Even families headed by single parents with a high school diploma or less, whose income deteriorated from 1969 through 1992, made income gains from 1992 to 1996 during the sustained period of economic expansion under the Clinton Administration.

---

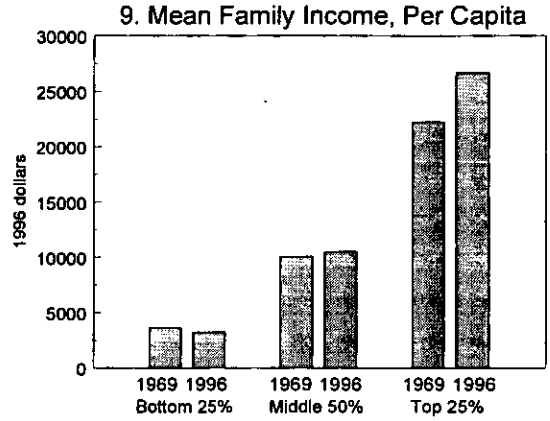
[14] Our race and ethnicity comparisons begin in 1979 because the CPS did not identify Hispanics in 1969.

[15] Of course, having a younger child often implies being a younger parent. We do not control for the age of the parent in this analysis.

C. The Distribution of Family Per Capita Income

To assess the implications of income growth for families with children, we need to take account of the increasing share of single-parent families, whose incomes are lower and grew much less than the incomes of married-couple families (see section III-B above). We also need to consider the decrease in family size, because a given family income provides more resources per child when there are fewer children in the family. Moreover, because less-skilled, lower-income parents have had slower income growth than highly skilled, higher-income parents, it is important to consider the trends in income for lower-income and higher-income families, not just the average family.

Figure 9 presents estimates which incorporate the combined effects of the increasing share of single-parent families and decreasing average family size, to assess changes in incomes for families with children. To reflect changes in the share of single-parent families, the diagram shows changes for the *combined* family income distribution of single-parent and two-parent families. In addition, as a crude way of adjusting for the differences in family size between two-parent and one-parent families and for the decreases in family size over time, family incomes are presented in per-capita terms. (This is a crude measure because two people do not cost twice as much as one. On the other hand, two do cost more than one. The true measure of equivalent income for different family sizes lies somewhere between per capita and total income.) The chart shows the change in average income per person for the lowest quarter, the highest quarter, and the middle half of the distribution of all families' per-capita incomes.



These estimates indicate that while there has been substantial per-capita income growth for high-income families, incomes have been either stable or decreasing for lower-income families when 1996 is compared with 1969. During the economic expansion from 1992 to 1996, however, lower-income families also experienced rising per-capita incomes.

- *Since 1969, the top quarter of families gained, while the lower quarter lost and the middle half remained nearly constant in per-capita income terms, after adjusting for inflation.* The top quarter gained 20 percent ($4,400 in 1996 dollars) from 1969 to 1996, while families in the lower quarter of the income distribution had declines of 11 percent ($410). For families in the middle half of the family per-capita income distribution, average family incomes have remained relatively constant, with income gains of 4 percent ($452).

Since family size has been decreasing, it follows logically that increases in mean income are less dramatic, and decreases are more dramatic, when calculated on a family basis rather than on a per capita basis.

IV. How Do Families Respond? Implications for Family Time Use Outside the Job

The trends in hours of paid work and family incomes described above have had a major impact on family life. Increasing hours of paid work may mean higher incomes, which provide more resources for parents and children. But increasing paid work time also means less time for other activities. The evidence on time allocation to non-market activities is much more limited than the data on hours of paid work and income and therefore conclusions must be more tentative.

Before we even look at the data, it is intuitively clear that the increase in hours of mothers' paid work would not necessarily translate fully into a decrease in time spent with children. There are other non-market activities -- cooking, cleaning, shopping, exercising, entertainment, watching TV, sleeping -- that may be reduced by working mothers in order to devote time to their children. Fathers and grandparents may spend more time with the children when their mother works. Husbands may do more of the household chores. Goods and services may be purchased with some of the extra income, so that less of the parents' time is required to produce meals, clean clothes and rooms, and do other things that contribute to the quality of family life. Household appliances (microwave ovens, dishwashers) also reduce the time required for household tasks. Standards of housekeeping, styles of entertaining, and even types of housing (condos without private lawns and gardens) may change in time-saving ways -- though these new conditions may be less satisfying to families in some ways. While parents can minimize the loss of time spent with children when they work more hours for pay by spending less time on other activities, these changes in lifestyle may induce stress. In particular, even if time spent with children does not decrease for a particular family, if hours spent on leisure or sleep decrease, or if the overall pace of household activity is speeded up, the family may feel increased stress.

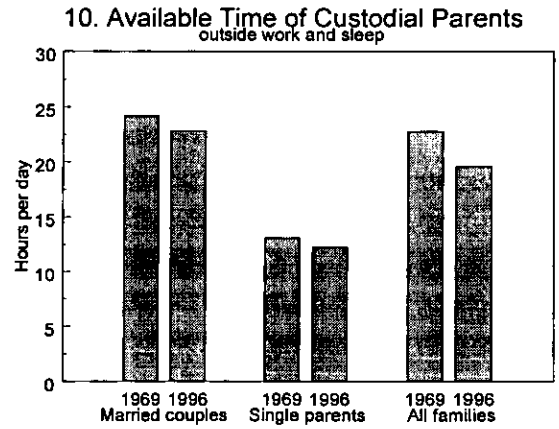
The CPS, with its larger sample size, only allows us to examine hours spent on paid work (and therefore hours available for other activities) along with changes in family size and structure. We have limited data on what people actually do with the time they do not spend on paid work, mainly from time-use diary studies. These studies have complete data only for a small sample of people. We begin with the CPS data regarding basic trends and then discuss the more detailed time-use diary data.

A. Trends in Current Population Survey Data

What can the CPS tell us about how the changes of the past several decades have affected the number of home hours that families have available for caring for children and maintaining a household? On the one hand, families may have less time available for child care because they are spending more time in the labor market and because there is a growing share of single parent families. On the other hand, the number of children per family has fallen, which would tend to increase parental time per child.

While it is impossible to precisely determine exactly how much time parents spend with a given child, it seems logical to assume that raising two children takes more time than one child, but not twice as much time. By considering how parental time not spent on paid work has changed both on a per-family and on a per-child basis, we can see the range of possibilities without needing to decide exactly how much more time each additional child requires. We discuss the two extreme cases -- *total* parental time available and parental time available *per child* -- in order to establish upper and lower limits to the impact on children. Neither measures the actual impact, which lies somewhere between the two extremes.

Figure 10 shows the trends in non-market time that custodial parents potentially had available to spend with all their children, after subtracting time spent at paid work and allowing eight hours per day for sleep. We emphasize the fact that this is only time *potentially available* in the home; there is no information in the CPS on how parents actually spend their non-market work time. Figure 10 illustrates the extreme case of comparing time available in the home regardless of the number of children (as if one child required as much time as two). It shows that from 1969 to 1996, both married couple and single parent families experienced a decrease in time not spent on paid work. The overall decrease is greater than the decreases within either family type because the proportion of single-parent families increased over this period.



The other extreme is to assess changes in total parental time potentially available *per child.* The per-child calculation assumes that two children take twice as much time as one. In other words, it assumes that if one child receives attention from a parent, a sibling cannot receive any parental attention at the same time. While this assumption is clearly false, it gives us a lower limit to the impact on children. Despite increases in paid work hours for each type of family, the amount of non-market time available *per child* has *increased* for both married-couple and single-parent families since 1969. When single-parent and married-couple families are added together, however, the amount of family time per child has remained relatively constant. This reflects the fact that a shift toward more single parents tends to decrease parental time available to children, because it reduces the number of custodial parents available to spend time with children.

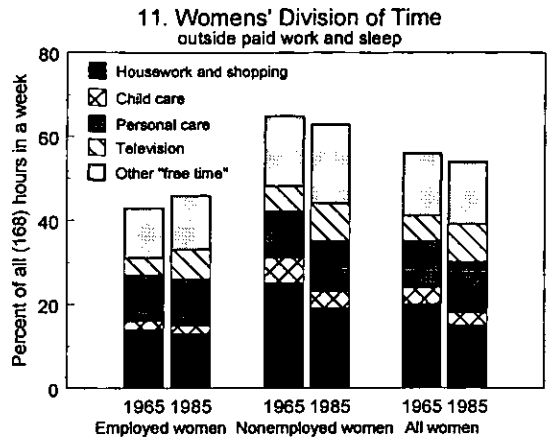
This extreme case suggests that, *at best*, parents have about as much time available to spend with their children as before, while under more realistic scenarios, the time potentially available for them to be at home with their children has declined. Interpreting what these changes in potential time available at home mean for actual time spent with children is difficult however.

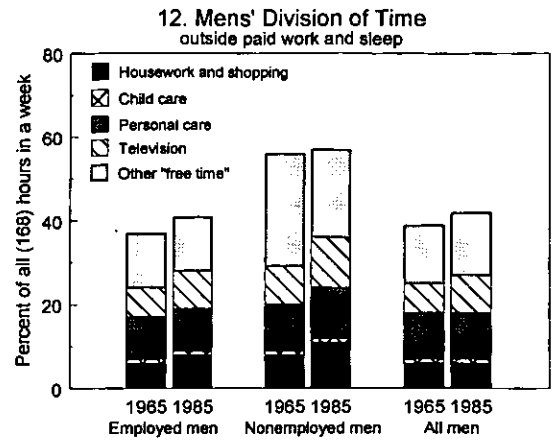
B. Time Use in the Home Estimated from Time-use Diaries

Fortunately, we have an alternative -- and somewhat more informative -- source of data: time-use diary surveys, which ask respondents to keep a detailed diary recording how they spend their time during a specific day. These surveys provide an alternative, more accurate method of measuring paid work time, as well as time spent in various kinds of unpaid activity, such as commuting, housework, child care, shopping, recreation, and personal care. The trends in hours of paid work time and non-market time described above are based on data which report individuals' estimates of their usual hours worked per week in the previous year. Such estimates may not accurately portray the actual hours worked for pay because the question is somewhat ambiguous and respondents may not be able to report accurately on a "usual" week in the few minutes allowed during the CPS interview. Time-use diary measures tend to show shorter paid work hours and sometimes even different trends than the CPS.[16]

Unfortunately, such time-use diary surveys are conducted much less frequently and with much smaller samples than the CPS. The latest available data were collected in 1985; results of a survey done in 1992-94 are not yet available. Because of the small samples, time-use diary surveys cannot be used to examine trends for smaller subgroups of the population, such as single parents or blacks. Moreover, the individuals who complete the diaries may not represent the U.S. population as well as the CPS sample does. These surveys do, however, provide information about how much time is spent in different types of unpaid work at home, such as child care and housework, in leisure pursuits, and sleep.

[16] Robinson and Godbey (1997), chapter 4.

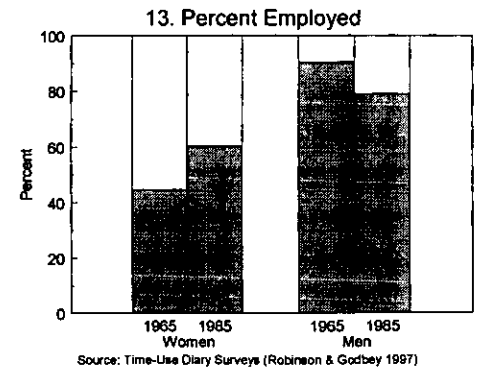




1. Averages

Time-use diary surveys show that most of the increase in women's formal working hours between 1965 and 1985 was offset by decreases in time spent on household chores (see figure 11). These decreases were coupled with increases in time spent on household chores by both employed and nonemployed men over this period (see figure 12). There was very little reduction in time spent with children, and "free time" spent watching TV actually increased.[17] These trends are rather surprising, since they are not consistent with the feeling by many that leisure time has become less available.

One possible way to reconcile these numbers with a general sense of "time stress" may be to note that many women have moved from the "nonemployed" to the "employed" category, which dramatically changes their time use patterns. In any single year, employed women spend about 45 percent less time on both child care and household tasks than women without paid jobs, but still have less free time.[18] Time-use surveys conducted in the U.S. in 1965, 1975, and 1985 show that employed mothers spent virtually the same amount of time taking care of children in 1985 (6.7 hours per week) as in 1965 (6.3 hours per week). Mothers without paid jobs spent 12 hours a week on child care in both years. (But note that nonemployed women are more likely to have young children.) This is consistent with other analyses of these time-use surveys, which show no decline in child care time within mothers' employment category.



[17] Robinson and Godbey (1997), chapters 6 & 8.

[18] Robinson and Godbey (1997), pp.102-3.

When the shift of women into employment (shown in figure 13) is taken into account, however, mothers' time in child care declined by 10 percent overall, from ten to nine hours per week (see figure 11). Fathers did not make up the difference; their child care time remained about 2.5 hours per week from 1965 to 1985 (see figure 12). This suggests that the increase in market work among women has reduced their time with children. There are, however, some major caveats to these numbers.

- *These estimates of parents' child care time include only "primary" care, when the child is the sole focus of the parent's attention.* They omit "secondary" or "shared" time spent with children, when the child is present and perhaps participating with the parent in another activity, such as eating or watching TV. Thus, the total amount of time spent with children is estimated to be almost four times greater than the numbers shown above.[19]

We have no information on how total contact time -- primary time and secondary time -- has changed between parents and children.

- *In many cases parental time with children has been replaced by the time of other adult child-care providers.* It is not at all clear that this is "worse" in any sense; it is simply a different way of raising children. In fact, studies of children in child care suggest that these children show no negative developmental effects.[20]

Time spent in personal care and commuting to work did not change much. The time-use diary estimates of commuting time are corroborated by Census department data. Surprisingly, "free time" activities *increased* by 4 to 5 hours per week for both men and women, due almost entirely to an increase in television-watching (including watching TV with children). What "gave" for women was household chores.

2. Differences among families

These estimates are based on average trends. They may miss important distinctions between high and low income groups, or between single-parent and two-parent families. The effect of women's increased hours in the labor market on families is likely to vary between college-educated parents, whose incomes have been rising because their hours and wages both increased, and less-educated parents, whose incomes may have fallen despite increased work hours because of falling wages. It may be harder for families with more limited resources to cut back on housework by buying time-saving services and appliances. The effect of women's increased hours in the labor market on families is also likely to vary between married couples,

[19] Robinson and Godbey, chapter 6 (1997).

[20] National Research Council (1990)

who can shift some housework and child care from working wife to husband, and single parents, who cannot. Within married-couple families, moreover, there are likely to be differences across education levels in this shifting of tasks, as child care time by fathers rises with their education. Unfortunately, the time-use diary survey samples are too small to be broken down into these subsamples.

C. Elder care

The media have paid significant attention to the so-called "sandwich generation": those adults who take care of both their own child(ren) and their elderly disabled parent(s). While a number of people are in this position, the popular press likely overstates the scope of the problem.[21] Women are more likely than men, and adult female children of the disabled elderly are more likely than their spouses, to provide elder care. Data from 1982 and 1984 show that close to one million women had a disabled parent, a full-time job, and children under the age of 15. About 1 in 5 of these potential elder care providers were actually engaged in elder care activities while holding a job and raising children.[22] Of course, there are also many caregivers who do not work full-time for pay and/or do not have children at home.

Relatively few parents with children at home are giving direct elder care themselves, but many more are managing the care of -- and worrying about -- their disabled parents, which is a source of stress even when little time is spent in direct care. Financial support for elderly and disabled relatives is also a burden for some families. If a family member is spending significant amounts of time caring for the relative instead of working for money, this also contributes to the financial strain. As the number of the "oldest old" (persons at least 85 years old) increases at a faster rate than any other age group, concerns regarding their care are affecting a growing segment of the population.

V. Key Policy Issues That Relate to These Changes in American Family Life

---

[21]Company-specific surveys have yielded estimates that as many as 20 to 30 percent of employees are caring for elderly disabled parents. These surveys, however, have often used very broad definitions of care, including support which is solely financial or emotional, and may not represent a large commitment of time by the caregiver. When the definition of "caregiver" is restricted to those spending time helping elderly parents with activities of daily living (eating, transferring, toileting, dressing, and bathing) or instrumental activities of daily living (meal preparation, light housework, laundry, getting around outside, grocery shopping, telephoning, taking medication, and financial management), data from the much larger samples of the 1982 National Long-Term Care Survey and the 1984 Current Population Survey indicate that just under one percent of Americans who are working full-time provide care for elderly parents by participating in any of the activities listed above.

[22] Stone and Kemper (1989).

The enormous changes in the ways American families function create new opportunities, but also present new policy challenges, both to private employers as well as to the government. There are four key areas of policy that are important in helping families better balance work and family life: improving access to high quality, affordable child care; increasing the flexibility of market work; supporting income among low-income working families; and encouraging the formation and maintenance of two-parent families.

A. Improving access to high quality, affordable child care

Most parents adjust to an increase in their paid work time by increasing their use of child care providers other than themselves. As mothers go to work, families have more income to spend. Some of it has been spent on paid child care. The availability, cost, and quality of child care which can be purchased in the market affects the employment decisions and financial status of families.

The primary child care arrangements for preschool-age children of employed mothers in the fall of 1994 were divided roughly equally among care in the child's home (by a relative or nonrelative), care in another home (by a relative or nonrelative), and care in an organized child care facility. Since comparable data were first collected in 1986, the trend shows a relatively constant proportion of children receiving care in their own homes, relatively fewer children receiving care in another home, and relatively more children receiving care in an organized facility. The share of monthly income spent on child care by those purchasing this service rose from 6.3 percent to 7.3 percent between 1986 and 1993.[23]

This Administration has consistently emphasized the importance of child care availability and quality. Since 1993, child care subsidies for low-income families have grown by 80 percent. In addition, expansions in the Dependent Care Tax Credit have been proposed.
<Were earlier expansions enacted in the first term?>

B. Increasing the flexibility of paid work

The effect of parents' market work time on children also depends on when and where it is performed. By shifting from work in the home to work in the market, many women find themselves with far less flexible schedules to respond to other family needs. Key employment arrangements that affect hours flexibility include:

---

[23] The earliest comprehensive data on families' child care arrangements was collected by the Bureau of the Census in 1977. The earliest data that are compatible with the most recent data are from fall 1986. We use the 1986 data for consistency.

- *Flexible work arrangements* (defined as allowing workers to vary the time they begin or end work) are an increasingly popular approach to decreasing the tension between work and family. In 1997, 28 percent of full-time wage and salary workers had flexible work schedules. This was up sharply from 15 percent in 1991, the most recent prior year when data were collected.[24]

- *Shift work* may enable parents to share child care more easily by working different shifts. If shift work is to ease the task of combining paid work and child care, however, the choice of shifts must be voluntary. For those workers who cannot determine their own schedules, the combination of shift work and work in the home is a potential source of stress and expense. Non-standard working hours may make it difficult both to find time to spend with children when they are awake and not in school and to arrange for child care while working. In 1997, 83 percent of full-time wage and salary workers were on regular daytime schedules, 4.6 percent were on evening shifts, 3.9 percent were on employer-arranged irregular schedules, 3.5 percent were on night shifts, and 2.9 percent were on rotating shifts.

- *Working at home for pay* can sometimes increase parents' flexibility. In 1997, 3.3 percent of all wage and salary workers were doing work at home for pay, up from 1.9 percent in 1991. An additional ten percent of all wage and salary workers in 1997 were doing work at home without receiving extra pay for it. Nearly 9 out of 10 wage and salary workers who were paid for work at home were in "white-collar" occupations. Single parents, particularly single mothers, had much higher work-at-home rates than single workers without children.

Maintaining high productivity need not be inconsistent with allowing flexibility in work arrangements, as many private sector employers have discovered. In addition, this Administration has played a major role in increasing flexibility among families by helping enact the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA), which enables workers to take up to 12 weeks unpaid leave to care for a new baby or ailing family member without jeopardizing their jobs. In 1997, xx **<get number>** million workers took advantage of the FMLA to spend necessary time with their family. The Federal government has also led by example, instituting "flextime" which allows employees some discretion in when they work their allotted hours.

C. Income support for working low-income families

While incomes have been rising for most people, families at the bottom of the income distribution, particularly the less educated and single parents whose inflation-adjusted incomes were lower in 1996 than in 1969, still face serious economic hardship. Recent policy changes that have helped these families cope include: Expansions in the *Earned Income Tax Credit*

[24] Data on alternative work arrangements comes from the 1991 and 1997 May supplements to the CPS.

(EITC), to assure that persons who work hard on their jobs can take home enough money to support their families; Increases in the *minimum wage* from $3.35 in 1990 to $5.15 in 1997; Expanded *child support enforcement* provisions, which help ease the economic burden on single mothers and enforce responsibility for economic support of children on both parents; Major *welfare reform legislation* which has helped single mothers move from welfare to work; Employer tax credits have also been enacted to help create jobs for welfare recipients; Substantial expansions in *support for vocational education, community college, and skill development* among persons in lower-income families. This has included the creation of Hope Scholoraships, an 80 percent increase in the maximum Pell Grant, and the passage of the Workforce Investment Act of 1998.

In addition, it is hard to underestimate the importance of a strong economy and steady economic growth, which creates jobs, reduces unemployment, and raises wages for all workers, especially the less skilled who are most affected when jobs are scarce.

D. Encouraging two-parent families

When two-parent families form and stay together in a supportive relationship, many of the economic and emotional stresses of balancing work and family are eased. Two-parent families have greater earnings potential and more potential time to spend with their children than do single-parent families. Among the recent policies which have helped maintain married couple families:

- Changing the *eligibility rules for Medicaid* and other programs so as not to penalize two parent families for staying together.
- *Domestic violence services* for perpetrators as well as victims.
- *Family planning* services which enable parents to choose their family size and timing of births, so they can devote sufficient time to each child.

VI. Conclusion

A massive shift of women's time from the home to the labor market has occurred in the last generation. For most families, increasing incomes have accompanied mothers' increasing paid employment, although the shift from married couple to single parent families has reduced both income and time available for many children. While smaller family sizes have helped offset the increase in market work, many parents still find it difficult to balance jobs and children. Raising children is not easy; even in the past when more women stayed at home while their children were young, many of them found full-time homemaking extremely stressful.

Single parents face the most difficulties. They have only half as much total time available as two parents, and they typically have less than half as much earning power as a

married couple because women's wages are lower than men's. Lack of income limits most single parents' ability to purchase time-saving goods and services and high quality child care. Thus, they may face a severe time and money bind.

Men without college educations have faced declining wages. Increases in work among their wives has helped maintain their families' standard of living, but these increased hours of market work have not resulted in income gains. This also limits the ability of these families to buy time-saving goods and services, including child care. Moreover, less-educated workers are less likely to have jobs that permit parents to arrange their hours to accommodate family needs.

Better educated parents, whose increased time in the labor market has been rewarded with considerably higher incomes than in 1969, can better afford to pay for high quality child care, household help, and other time-saving goods and services. Married couple families, particularly those where the husband has a college degree, have seen substantial improvements in their economic situation over the last three decades. Yet, even these couples often express dissatisfaction with the stresses involved in balancing work and family.

It may be that changing social norms have increased the income requirements for raising children, making even married women in families whose income has gone up over time feel that they cannot afford to stay at home as their mothers did. Moreover, even high income two-earner couples may find that their jobs entail longer hours and a more demanding, stressful pace than they would freely choose, although these jobs may also provide the income, long-term career prospects, and personal fulfillment that they desire. But a job comes as a total package, and these families cannot give up some income for more time at home without giving up the rest of the package, which they find attractive on the whole. Therefore they, too, are looking for help in balancing the demands of job and family.

The changes in parents' paid work time and family size of the past three decades have been driven by the long-term increase in women's wages and job opportunities; hence they are not likely to be reversed. These increases in women's earning power may have other long-term positive effects besides their immediate effect on family incomes. It may increase their decision-making leverage within the family, which in turn may increase resources spent on children. Moreover, as women gain more (and more continuous) market work experience, their earning potential also increases. Young women, expecting to spend more time in the labor market, increasingly prepare themselves for more skilled and higher-paying jobs. These developments all work to increase the long-term economic security of women and their families.

In the meantime, both employers and public policy-makers need to continue to search for creative ways to help productive workers also function as effective parents and responsible family members.

References

Blank, Rebecca (1997). *It Takes a Nation.* Princeton: Princeton University Press.

Blau, Francine, "Trends in the Well-Being of American Women, 1990-1995," *Journal of Economic Literature*, March 1998, pp.112-165.

Bluestone, Barry and Stephen Rose, "Unraveling an Economic Enigma: Overworked and Underemployed," *The American Prospect*, March-April 1997, pp. 58-69.

Danziger, Sheldon and Deborah Reed, "Working Longer and Earning More: The Changing Contribution of Wives' Earnings to Family Income," February 1997.

Hochschild, Arlie Russell (1998). *The Time Bind: When Work Becomes Home and Home Becomes Work.* New York: Henry Holt & Company, Inc.

Juster, F. Thomas and Frank P. Stafford, "The Allocation of Time: Empirical Findings, Behavioral Models, and Problems of Measurement," *Journal of Economic Literature*, Volume XXXIX (June 1991), pp. 471-522.

Juhn, Chinhui and Kevin Murphy, "Wage Inequality and Family Labor Supply", Journal of Labor Economics, 1997, vol 15(1), pt. 1 pp. 72-97.

Leete, Laura and Juliet Schor, "Assessing the Time Squeeze Hypothesis: Hours Worked in the United States, 1969-1989," *Industrial Relations*, 33(1), January 1994, pp 25-43.

Levy, Frank, "Where Did All the Money Go? A Layman's Guide to Recent Trends in U.S. Living Standards," MIT IPC Working Paper 96-008, July 1996.

McGrattan, Ellen R. and Richard Rogerson, "Changes in Hours Worked Since 1950", Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis, *Quarterly Review*, Winter 1998, pp. 2-19.

Hayes, Cherly, John Palmer and Martha Zaslow (eds). 1990. *Who Cares for America's Children? Child Care Policy for the 1990s.* Washington DC: National Research Council Press.

Robinson, John and Geoffrey Godbey, *Time for Life: the Surprising Ways Americans Use their Time*, Pennsylvania State University Press, 1997.

Rones, Phillip L., Randy E. Ilg, and Jennifer M. Gardner, "Trends in hours of work since the mid-1970s", *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1997, pp 3-13.

Schor, Juliet B. (1991). *The Overworked American: The Unexpected Decline of Leisure*. New York: Basic Books.

Stinson, John F., Jr. (1997). "New data on multiple jobholding available from the CPS," *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1997, pp. 3-8.

Stone, Robyn I. and Peter Kemper (1989). "Spouses and Children of Disabled Elders: How Large a Constituency for Long-term Care Reform?" The Milbank Quarterly, 67(3-4), pp. 485-506.

Fam-Family report

PRELIMINARY DRAFT -- NOT FOR CITATION

References need to be completed.
Comments in italics in brackets to be removed.

Families and the Changing Labor Market

An analysis by the Council of Economic Advisers

September 1998

Report goes to extraordinary lengths to suggest things are better when they're not.

PRELIMINARY DRAFT -- NOT FOR CITATION

Families and the Changing Labor Market

Executive Summary

American families have been in the midst of change in the last three decades -- changes in time worked for pay; changes in income and who it is earned by; changes in family size; and changes in how child care and household tasks are accomplished. This report assesses these changes and the challenges and opportunities they create. Our main findings are:

- The hours American parents work in paid jobs have increased enormously since 1969, due to a dramatic shift of mothers' time from the household to the labor market. Both married mothers and single parents are working more for pay today than 30 years ago.

1/4 up 3/4 flat or down

- Average family income has increased as a result of the increase in paid work hours, so that families can purchase more goods and services than in the past. This enables them to compensate for having less time at home by buying time-saving goods and services and to have more disposable income besides. Although a minority of families -- those with a less-educated single parent -- suffered a decline in inflation-adjusted incomes from 1969 to 1992, their situation improved as the economy expanded from 1992 through 1996. The average American family is clearly better off economically today than in 1969.

Working more

- At the same time, families are having fewer children, so that family income per person has increased even more. Fewer children also take less time. As a result, parental child care time available *per child* has increased even though total child care time has declined somewhat.

Not a household chore, subject to efficiency gains

- Most of the extra time spent earning income has come at the expense of housework, not child care or leisure activities. Families have also changed their lifestyles by buying more prepared foods and time-saving appliances, paying others to do some of the child care and household chores, shifting some of these tasks to fathers, and rearranging their paid work in non-traditional ways to accommodate the demands on their time at home.

Our ideal is not fewest # of kids, most work hours

- Clinton Adminstration policies have helped parents balance the demands of job and family while increasing their incomes and strengthened family life.

Your efficiencies are another person's stress

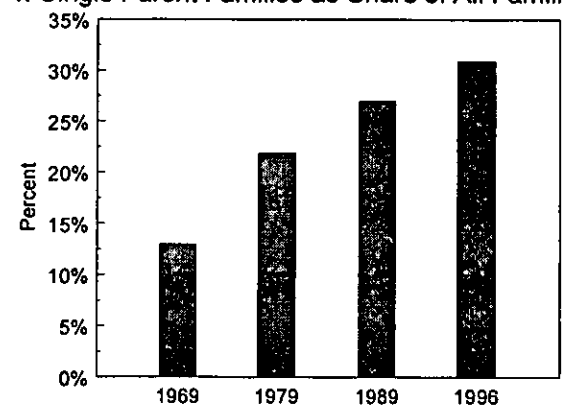
Hours worked by wives doubled, # of children dropped from 2.4 to 2.0

I. Introduction

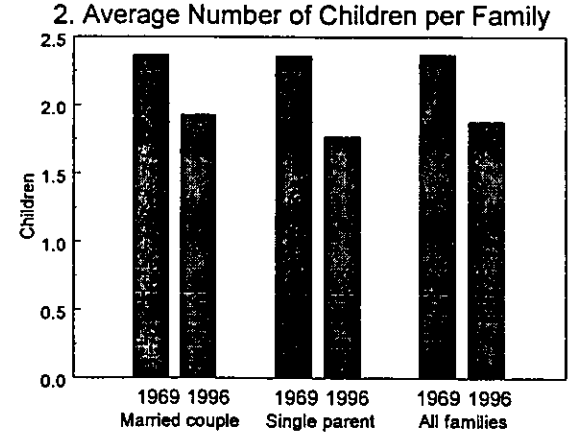
Dramatic changes have occurred over the last thirty years in how families combine work and family life. During the last three decades women have devoted more and more time to market work. Combined with hourly earnings increases among women, this means women's earnings have gone up substantially, while their time available for work in the home has declined. In contrast, men's average hours of paid work and earnings have remained relatively stable. This means that families have higher incomes, but they have less time for other activities. As a result, American families have been in the midst of change -- changes in who works for pay; changes in income and who it is earned by; changes in how children are cared for and particularly in the utilization of paid child care; and changes in how household tasks are accomplished. This report assesses these changes since 1969.

Two other trends in family structure are also likely to affect the well-being of families with children, occurring along with changes in their income and time allocations. First, the share of families headed by a single parent has increased significantly (see figure 1). Since single parents tend to have both lower incomes and less total adult time available for work in the home than married-couple families, this trend should tend to increase the proportion of families who are "cash-strapped" and "time poor." Second, families have also decreased in size as the average number of children in families has declined (see figure 2). This should ease some of the time pressures on parents.

1. Single Parent Families as Share of All Families



2. Average Number of Children per Family



This paper will examine how families with children are faring in the face of all these changes. Key questions to be addressed include:

- How much have hours of market work increased for families?
- How have the extra hours worked by families affected family incomes?

How have these trends differentially affected families that differ in skill level, minority status, and number of parents in the household?

- What have these changes in market work and income meant for how families use their time in the home? In particular, how have these changes affected parental time available for children?

Some have argued that Americans are facing more and more of a "time bind" as they work longer and longer hours in order to attain an increasing standard of living [Schor 1991]. Others have argued that, even with increases in hours of paid work, families are not realizing significant income gains, or that families are working harder and harder "just to stay in the same place" [Bluestone and Rose 1997]. No such "one size fits all" characterization adequately captures the variety of experience in different segments of the population. Different types of families have experienced different changes in paid work time and income.

Overall, we find that parents today are spending more time working to earn income, yet the average child is probably getting more time from his or her parents than in 1969. The keys to this seeming paradox are smaller families and less time spent on household chores. For most groups, family income has increased. With fewer children, parents are able to buy more goods and services for themselves and their children as well as spend more time with each child. Thus, the average American child may well be better off today than in 1969 in terms of both parental time and income.

There are some groups for whom this overall picture is not as rosy, however. The continuing increase in the share of children living in single parent families has substantially decreased the progress that families with children would otherwise have made, limiting both their income and time. Less skilled parents, who have not experienced the wage gains of other families, are working more hours without an increase in income. During the economic expansion of the 1990s, however, all families have seen income gains as their hours of work have expanded, giving all families a better opportunity to effectively combine work and family life.

II. Trends in Hours of Market Work

The most dramatic change in the time allocation of families has been in time spent at work for pay. Since 1969, both married-couple and single-parent families have substantially increased their annual hours of paid work. These increases have come almost entirely from the women in these families, who are working more outside the home -- more weeks in the year and more hours in the week -- than they did thirty years ago. However, while the increase in paid work time has been widespread, the size of the increase has varied considerably across families, depending on the number of parents, their education, whether they have a preschool-age child, and their race or ethnicity.

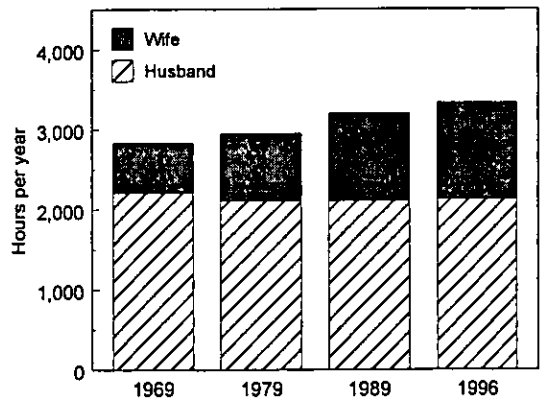
The estimates of annual hours of work presented in this section are based on the March Current Population Survey (CPS), a large representative survey of over 60,000 households each

year.[1] For 1979, 1989, and 1996, information on annual hours of work was derived from two questions which ask how many weeks each individual worked in the previous year and how many hours they "usually worked" in the weeks they worked.[2] Multiplying weeks worked by usual hours worked per week provides a measure of annual hours of work.

For purposes of this analysis, we use the same definition of a "family" as the Census Bureau: all related individuals living together in the same household. We restrict the analysis to families whose head is at least eighteen years old and where there is a child under age 18.

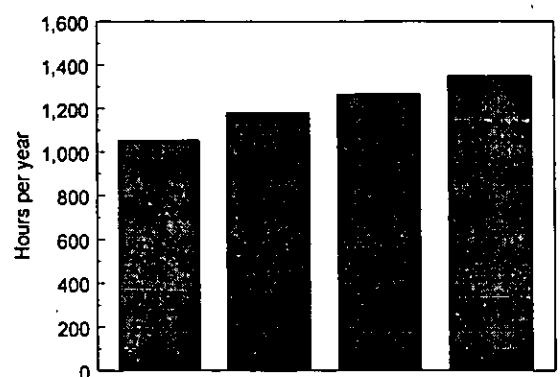
While the CPS is the only large-scale representative sample which consistently measures hours of work and family incomes on an annual basis and is therefore the standard data set used for labor market analyses, some have argued that the CPS may not accurately measure hours of work because individuals may not be able to recall accurately their usual hours of work during the last year [Juster and Stafford 1991; Robinson and Godbey 1997]. In section IV of this report we discuss alternative estimates of paid work time based upon "time diaries," which require individuals to maintain detailed accounts of how they spent their time during a day.

3. Annual Hours of Work, Married-Couple Families



As shown in figures 3 and 4, annual hours of paid work have increased substantially for both married-couple and single-parent families. A person who works forty hours a week for 50 weeks a year (a traditional "full-time" job) will work 2,000 hours in a year. For two-parent families (figure 3) annual hours of paid work increased by 496 hours (18 percent) from 1969 to 1996; for single-parent households (figure 4) they increased by 297 hours (28 percent).

4. Annual Hours of Work by Single Parents



Virtually all of the increase in families' market hours of work has come from increases in women's hours. Conceptually, the increase in women's hours can be divided into three basic

[1]We are using the March 1970, 1980, 1990, and 1997 CPS data sets. The data collected each March refer mainly to the previous calendar year. Thus we refer to data for 1969, 1979, 1989, and 1996. We chose these years because they represent peak years (or upswing, in 1996) in the business cycle and thus permit valid historical comparisons.

[2]The 1969 data are not strictly comparable to later years due to differences in data reporting. We have developed an imputation procedure to make these data more comparable to information in later years.

components: more women are employed, employed women are working more hours per week, and employed women are working more weeks per year. The most dramatic change has been in the percentage of women employed. In 1969, 38 percent of married women worked for pay, while in 1996 68 percent did so -- a 30 percentage-point increase in employment. The increase in employment for single parents has been less dramatic: 53 percent worked for pay in 1969 and 66 percent in 1996. On average single parents and wives increased both weeks worked per year and hours worked per week.

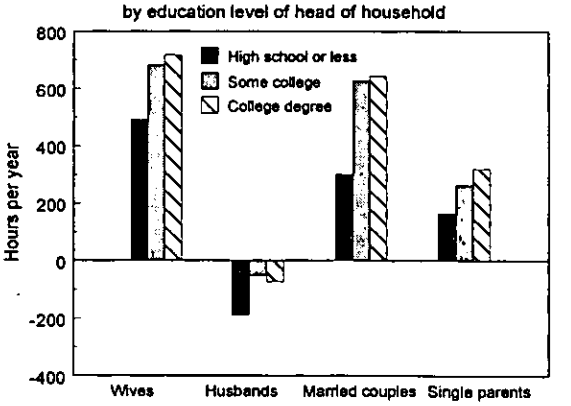
More married & > single mothers work

While annual hours of paid work by all wives increased greatly by 576 hours (93 percent), husbands' hours of paid work decreased slightly from 1969 to 1996. This is the result of husbands working fewer weeks per year, without significantly changing the usual number of hours worked per week. These trends are consistent with estimates reported elsewhere in the literature, based on a variety of data sources.[3]

The overall increase in family hours of paid work has been widespread throughout the population. All types of families -- whether defined by the head's education level, spouse's education level, presence of young children, or race or ethnicity of the household head -- have experienced substantial increases in hours of paid work from 1969 to 1996. In virtually every case, the increase in family hours of paid work reflects increases by wives and by single parents, rather than by husbands.

While the basic trends have been similar, however, the magnitude of the increase in hours of paid work has differed substantially across different demographic groups. In part, this is because some groups, such as women with preschool-age children, had lower hours to start with, and therefore more room for expansion, than others.

5. Change in Annual Hours Worked, 1969-96
by education level of head of household

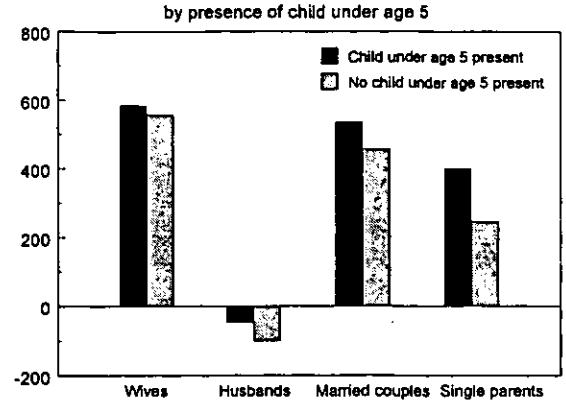


- Families headed by a college graduate have increased their hours of paid work much more than those whose head had less education (see figure 5). For married couples with a college-educated husband, annual hours of paid work increased by 644 hours (23 percent) -- more than twice the increase for couples in which the husband has a high school diploma or less. The difference was due to the wives' hours increasing more and the husbands' hours decreasing less in the

[3]Rones, Ilg and Gardner (1997) and Leete and Schor (1994) used CPS data, Bluestone and Rose (1997) used data from the Panel Study of Income Dynamics, and McGrattan and Rogerson (*date?*) used decennial Census data. All of these studies show increases in hours of work for women (or wives and single parents), and decreasing or stable hours of work for men (or husbands).

college-educated families. For single parents with a college degree, hours of paid work increased by 322 hours (20 percent), compared to 165 hours (16 percent) for single parents with a high school diploma or less.

6. Change in Annual Hours Worked, 1969-96
by presence of child under age 5



- Families with a young child increased their hours of paid work much more than those with only school-age children (see figure 6). For single parents with a child under age five, hours of paid work increased by 400 hours (50 percent), compared to 246 hours (21 percent) for single parents without a young child. For married couples, hours of paid work increased by 537 hours (20 percent) for families with a child under age five, compared to 457 hours (15 percent) for families without a young child.

- Married couples with a white or black husband increased their hours of paid work nearly twice as much as married couples with a Hispanic husband. By contrast, single Hispanic parents increased their hours slightly more than either white or black single parents.[4]

Why have people changed their hours of paid work? Trends in wages and trends in paid work hours influence each other. Rising wages tend to draw more individuals into the labor force, while falling wages (especially relative to the rewards from other activities) tend to reduce participation. In turn, more work experience leads to faster wage growth, and vice versa. As a result, wages and paid work time tend to move up (or down) together, in a virtuous (or vicious) cycle.

Trends in hours of paid work for both men and women have roughly paralleled the trends in their wages since 1969 [Blank ?; Juhn & Murphy 1997], which will be discussed below (see section III-A). However, the magnitudes of the changes in paid work time are still not completely understood, as they are not easily "explained" by changes in key economic variables [Blau 1998, Danziger and Reed 1997]. The increases in paid work among women seem to be much more closely related to increases in their own wages than to the changes in their husband's wages over this period. Slow growth of men's wages does not appear to be the reason why women are increasing their market work [Juhn and Murphy 1997]. Increased work among women may also be affected by such hard-to-measure things like changes in assumptions about

[4] Trends for Hispanic families are difficult to interpret, as changing immigration patterns resulted in significant changes in the composition of the Hispanic population over this time period.

women's role in the family, diminished discrimination against women in the workplace, or falling barriers to women entering non-traditional occupations. Highly educated women have benefitted more from diminished discrimination than have women with less education, as higher-level professional and management jobs have opened up to them. Whatever the reason, large increases in market work hours among women have substantially changed the time allocation and income of families.

III. Trends in Family Income

The upward trend in hours described above raises questions about trends in family well-being. A family's economic well-being is typically measured by its income. Earnings are the largest part of family income, which also includes transfer payments such as welfare and unemployment insurance, interest, dividends, and other unearned income such as child support. Earnings, in turn, are equal to hours worked for pay multiplied by the hourly wage. Rising work hours should lead to rising earnings, but the magnitude of this effect depends on changes in wages and other income sources that might be occurring at the same time.

A. Wages

During the same period in which hours of paid work have increased, wages have also increased for women and for college-educated men, but have declined for less-educated men. Women's wages have risen more rapidly than men's wages, and college-educated workers' wages have risen more than wages among the less educated. Men's wages have grown quite slowly on average, with wages falling for men without college educations.

As we discussed above, these wage changes are correlated with changes in hours of work. More educated women have shown the largest increase in their market work, and their earnings have gone up even faster as wages and hours of work rose together. Less educated men have experienced both declining wages and some declines in hours of work, leading to earnings reductions.

B. Total Family Income

Putting the trends in wages and hours together, to what extent have families' increases in hours of paid work translated into increases in family income -- the measure we ultimately care about? To answer this question, we present estimates of average family incomes, by income component, to provide one assessment of how these changes in hours have affected the standard

of living of families in the United States.[5] Our income measure, as described earlier, is based upon before-tax cash income only, and does not include other family resources, such as food stamps or the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC). While these other resources and taxes are important, they are difficult to measure accurately or consistently for individual families. Because food stamp use grew rapidly in the 1970s and the EITC expanded greatly in the 1990s, the income measure we use omits more of the resources available to low-income families today than in the 1960s. Our estimates therefore understate the gains made by low-income families since 1969.[6]

Trends in income and in the various components of income (earnings, government transfers, other sources of income) have varied across different types of families.[7]

1. Trends in Income by Family Structure

Both married-couple families and single-parent families achieved increases in inflation-adjusted income from 1969 to 1996 (see figures 7 and 8). However, even though single parents had substantially higher rates of growth in paid work hours, married-couple families have experienced a much larger average increase in income.

---

[5]To adjust for changes in prices over time, these estimates use the CPI-U-X1 price index measure, which is commonly used at present in federal statistics such as the current poverty threshold. Some have argued that this measure overestimates the actual rate of change in price levels over time. Estimates that assume a lower rate of inflation produce higher estimates of inflation-adjusted income growth over time [Ellwood 1998].

[6] For estimates of changes in family incomes using a broader definition of income, see Levy [1996].

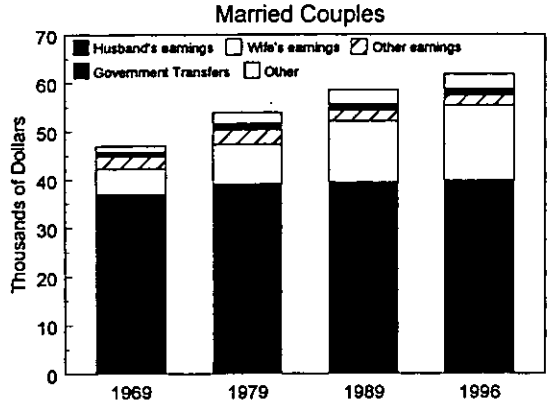
[7] Throughout the following analysis we refer to mean income, rather than medians or other indicators of the distribution. There is more positive change in mean income than in median income, as disproportionate growth in the upper tail of the income distribution pulls up the mean without affecting the median.

- The incomes of married-couple families increased by more than enough to compensate for their increase in paid work time. Their average family income increased by almost a third from 1969 to 1996 ($14,800 in 1996 dollars), while their annual hours of paid work increased by less than a fifth.

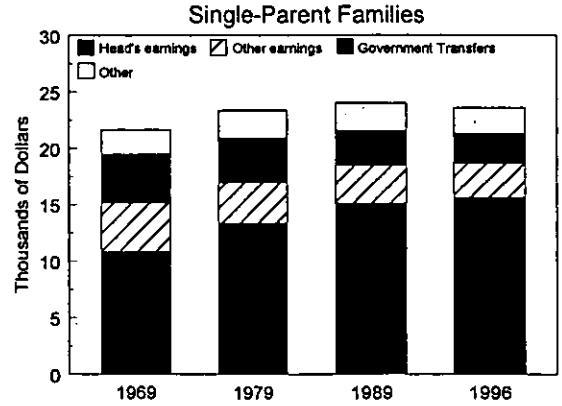
- For single-parent families, incomes increased by much less than paid work time. Average incomes of single-parent families also increased much less than incomes of married-couple families over this period, after adjusting for inflation. Income increased by less than ten percent ($1,900 in 1996 dollars) from 1969 to 1996, while paid work hours increased by more than a quarter.

Increases in the earnings of wives and single parents generated most of the income growth from 1969 to 1996. Single parents' earnings increased more than their total family

7. Average Family Income of Married Couples



8. Average Family Income of Single-Parent Families



incomes did, as earnings increases were offset by a forty percent decline in average government cash transfer payments. For two-parent families, increases in the wives' earnings represented two thirds of the increase in family income, with the remainder attributable to an increase in the husbands' earnings and an increase in unearned income from sources other than government transfer payments.

For both wives and single parents, their increased earnings reflects both an increase in hours of work and an increase in hourly earnings rates. The increase in wives' earnings reflected a 93 percent increase in wives' hours and a 53 percent increase in wives' earnings per hour. For single parents, hours of work increased by 28 percent, while hourly earnings increased by 18 percent.

2. Trends in Income by Other Demographic Characteristics

As with hours of paid work, trends in average family incomes differ substantially across groups of families classified by education, race or ethnicity, or presence of young children. Income growth has been greater for families headed by a highly skilled or white person and for families with preschool-age children than for families with older children.

- More-educated families experienced greater income growth from 1969 to 1996. Married couples experienced income growth of almost a third if the husband had a college education, but less than ten percent if the husband had a high school diploma or less. For single parents, inflation-adjusted incomes grew by eight percent if they had a college degree, but incomes *fell* by five percent for single parents with a high school diploma or less. Much of this difference in income growth reflects larger earnings increases for highly skilled wives and single parents, and larger earnings declines for low skilled husbands. The declining purchasing power of cash welfare benefits also helps explain why the inflation-adjusted incomes of less-educated single parents fell.

- Average income growth for whites was substantially higher than for blacks or Hispanics. Among families headed by a white person, average incomes grew by almost twenty percent for both married couples (19 percent) and single parents (17 percent) from 1979 to 1996.[8] For blacks, average incomes grew by less than ten percent for both two-parent families (9 percent) and single-parent families (6 percent). Finally, for Hispanics, average incomes *fell* by almost five percent for married couples (4 percent) and single parents (3 percent). These results are striking, given the relatively large increases in hours of work by Hispanic single parents over this period. Declining wages as well as declining cash welfare benefits help explain why Hispanics' incomes fell. In addition, an increasing share of the Hispanic population were recent immigrants with little education.

- Families with a child under age five had greater average income growth than families with older children. For married couples, mean incomes increased by 38 percent for families with a child under age five, compared to 27 percent for families with only older children. For single parent families, mean incomes increased by 17 percent for those with young children, but only by 6 percent for families with only older children.[9]

3. Recent Trends in Family Income

---

[8]Our race and ethnicity comparisons begin in 1979 because the CPS did not identify Hispanics in 1969.

[9]Of course, having a younger child often implies being a younger parent. We do not control for the age of the parent in this analysis.

Trends in family income from 1992 to 1996 are considerably more favorable than the longer term trend since 1969. Even families headed by single parents with a high school degree or less, whose income deteriorated from 1969 through 1992, made income gains from 1992 to 1996 during the sustained period of economic expansion under the Clinton Administration.

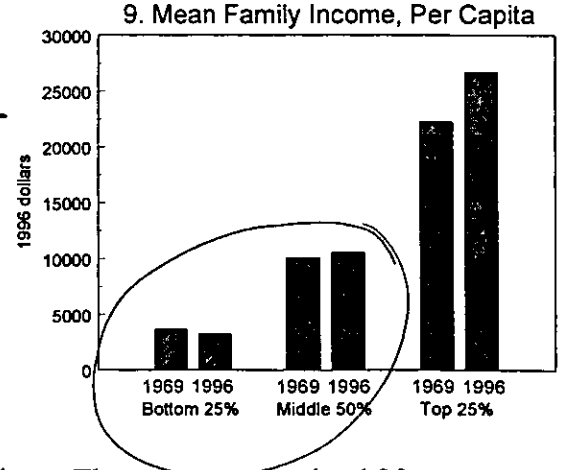
C. The Distribution of Family Per Capita Income

To assess the implications of income growth for families with children, we need to take account of the increasing share of single-parent families, whose incomes grew much less than the incomes of married-couple families (see section III-B above). We also need to consider the decrease in family size, because a given family income provides more resources per child when there are fewer children in the family. Moreover, because less-skilled, lower-income parents have had slower income growth than highly skilled, higher-income parents, it is important to consider the trends in income for lower-income and higher-income families, not just the average family.

Figure 9 presents estimates which incorporate the combined effects of increases in single-parent families and decreases in average family size, to assess changes in incomes for families with children. To reflect changes in the share of single-parent families, the diagram shows changes for the *combined* family income distribution of single-parent and two-parent families. In addition, as a crude way of adjusting for the decreases in family size, family incomes are presented in per-capita terms. (This is a crude measure because two children do not cost twice as much as one, but it may be preferred to total income because two do cost more than one.) The chart shows the change in average income per person for the lowest quarter, the highest quarter, and the middle half of the distribution of all families' per-capita incomes.

These estimates indicate that while there has been substantial per-capita income growth for high-income families, incomes have been either stable or decreasing for lower-income families when 1996 is compared with 1969. During the economic expansion from 1992 to 1996, however, lower-income families also experienced rising per-capita incomes.

9. Mean Family Income, Per Capita



- Since 1969, the top quarter of families gained, while the lower quarter lost and the middle half remained nearly constant in per-capita income terms, after adjusting for inflation. The top quarter gained 20 percent ($4400 in 1996 dollars) from 1969 to 1996, while families in the lower quarter of the income distribution had declines of 11 percent ($410). For families in the

middle half of the family per-capita income distribution, average family incomes have remained relatively constant, with income gains of 4 percent ($452).

Since family size has been decreasing, it follows logically that the changes in mean income are less dramatic when calculated on a total family level than on a per capita basis.

IV. How Do Families Respond? Implications for Family Time Use Outside the Job

How does the increase in mothers' paid work time affect the family, and especially children? It would be wrong to assume that child-rearing necessarily suffers. There are other non-market activities -- cooking, cleaning, shopping, exercising, entertainment, watching TV, sleeping -- that may be reduced by working mothers in order to devote time to their children. Fathers and grandparents may spend more time with the children when their mother works. Husbands may do more of the household chores. Goods and services may be purchased with some of the extra income, so that less of the parents' time is required to produce meals, clean clothes and rooms, and other things that contribute to the quality of family life. Household appliances (microwave ovens, dishwashers) also reduce the time required for household tasks. Standards of housekeeping, styles of entertaining, and even types of housing (condos without private lawns and gardens) may change in time-saving ways. Besides having fewer children, parents may space the births of their children to reduce the time required to rear each one.

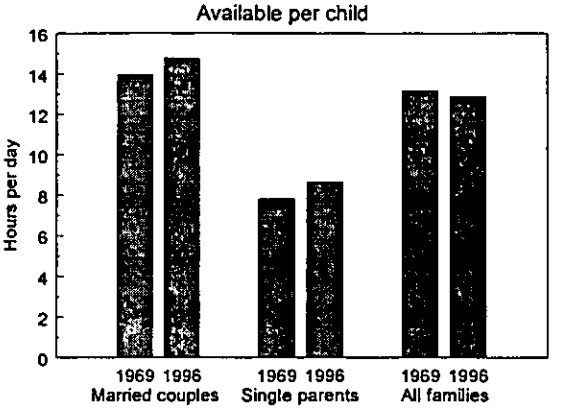
The trends in family incomes and hours of paid work described above raise questions about their impact on family life. Increasing hours of paid work may mean higher incomes, which provide more resources for parents and children. But increasing paid work time also means less time for other activities. The evidence on time allocation to non-market activities is much more limited and therefore, conclusions must be more tentative.

A. Trends in Current Population Survey Data

What can the CPS tell us about how these changes have affected the number of non-market hours that families have available for caring for children and maintaining a household? On the one hand, families may have less time available for child care because they are spending more time in the labor market; and because there is a growing share of single parent families. On the other hand, the number of children per family has fallen, which would tend to increase parental time per child. As paid work time increases, parents may reduce their time spent in housework, personal care, and recreation in order to have more time for children.

Figure 10 shows the trends in non-market time per child that custodial parents potentially had available to spend with their children, after netting out time spent at paid work and assuming that each parent has a maximum of sixteen waking hours per day to spend either at home or at a job. This per-child calculation makes the extreme assumption that if one child receives attention from a parent, a sibling cannot receive any parental attention at the same time. As shown below, despite increases in paid work hours for each type of family, the amount of non-market time available *per child* has *increased* for both married-couple and single-parent families since 1969. This means that the reductions in family size were large enough to outweigh the changes in time spent at work. When single-parent and married-couple families are added together, however, the amount of family time per child has remained relatively constant. This reflects the fact that a shift toward more single parents tends to decrease parental time available to children, because it reduces the number of custodial parents available to spend time with children. While parental time for children has increased *within* family type, at the same time the share of single-parent families has grown, and single parents have less time than two parents.

10. Non-work Time of Custodial Parents
Available per child



B. Time Use in the Home Estimated from Time-use Diaries

We now turn to another source of data: time-use diary surveys, which ask respondents to keep a detailed diary recording how they spend their time during a specific day. They provide an alternative, more accurate method of measuring paid work time, as well as time spent in various kinds of unpaid activity, such as commuting, housework, child care, shopping, recreation, and personal care. The trends in hours of paid work time and non-market time described above are based on data which report individuals' estimates of their usual hours worked per week in the previous year. Such estimates may not accurately portray the actual hours worked for pay because the question is somewhat ambiguous and respondents may not be able to report accurately on a "usual" week in the few minutes allowed during the CPS interview. Time-use diary measures tend to show shorter paid work hours and sometimes even different trends than the CPS [Robinson and Godbey 1997, chapter 4].

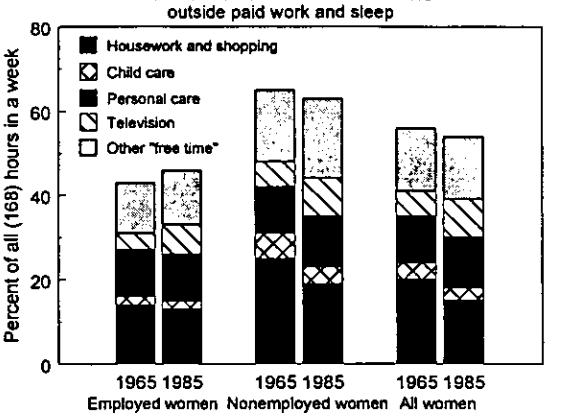
Unfortunately, such time-use diary surveys are conducted much less frequently (not since 1985) and with much smaller samples than the CPS. They cannot be used to examine trends for smaller subgroups of the population, such as single parents or blacks. Moreover, the individuals who complete the diaries may not represent the U.S. population as well as the CPS sample does. These surveys do, however, provide information about how much time is spent in different types of unpaid work at home, such as child care and housework, in leisure pursuits, and sleep.

1. Averages

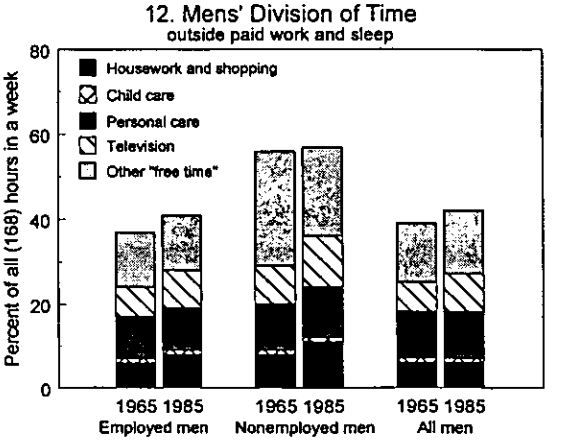
Time-use diary surveys show that most of the increase in women's formal working hours between 1965 and 1985 was offset by decreases in time spent on household chores (see figure 11). There was very little reduction in time spent with children; and "free time" spent watching TV actually increased [Robinson and Godbey 1997, chapters 6 & 8]. These trends are rather surprising, given the increased stress that some American parents are reporting.

In any single year, employed women spend about 45 percent less time on both child care and household tasks than women without paid jobs, but still have less free time [Robinson and Godbey 1997, pp.102-3]. (But note that employed women may be less likely to have young children.) However, this cross-sectional relationship is highly misleading as to the trend in child care time. Time-use surveys conducted in the U.S. in 1965, 1975, and 1985 show that employed mothers spent virtually the same amount of time taking care of children in 1985 (6.7 hours per week) as in 1965 (6.3 hours per week). Mothers without paid jobs spent 12 hours a week in child care in both years. This is consistent with other analyses of these time-use surveys, which show no decline in child care time within mothers' employment category. When the shift of women into employment is taken into account, overall mothers' time in child care declined by 10 percent, from ten to nine hours per week. Fathers did not make up the difference; their child care time remained about 2.5 hours per week from 1965 to 1985 (see figure 12). (These estimates of parents' child care time include only "primary" care, when the child is the sole focus of the parent's attention. They omit "secondary" or "shared" time spent with children, when the child is present and perhaps participating with the parent in another activity, such as eating or watching TV. Thus, the total amount of time spent with children is estimated to be almost four times greater than the numbers shown above.)

11. Womens' Division of Time
outside paid work and sleep



12. Mens' Division of Time
outside paid work and sleep



When we take account of the decreasing number of children per family, time for each child clearly rose despite the increase in market work hours. Time spent in personal care and commuting to work did not change much. Surprisingly, "free time" activities *increased* by 4-5 hours per week for both men and women, due almost entirely to an increase in television-watching (including watching TV with children). What "gave" was household chores.

2. Differences among families

These estimates are based on average trends. They may miss important distinctions between high and low income groups, or between single-parent and two-parent families. The effect of women's increased hours in the labor market on families is likely to vary between college-educated parents, whose incomes have been rising because their hours and wages both increased, and less-educated parents, whose incomes may have fallen despite increased work hours because of falling wages. It may be harder for families with more limited resources to cut back on housework by buying time-saving services and appliances. The effect of women's increased hours in the labor market on families is also likely to vary between married couples, who can shift some housework and child care from working wife to husband, and single parents, who cannot. Within married-couple families, moreover, there are likely to be differences across education levels in this shifting of tasks, as child care time by fathers rises with their education.

C. Elder care

The media have paid significant attention to the so-called "sandwich generation": those adults who take care of both their own child(ren) and their elderly disabled parent(s). While a number of people are in this position, the popular press likely overstates the scope of the problem.[10] Women are more likely than men, and adult children are more likely than spouses, to provide elder care. Data from 1982 and 1984 show that close to one million women had a disabled parent, a full-time job, and children under the age of 15. About 1 in 5 of these potential elder care providers were actually engaged in elder care activities while holding a job and raising children [Stone and Kemper 1989]. Of course, there are also many caregivers who do not work full-time for pay and/or do not have children at home. Relatively few parents with children at home are giving direct elder care themselves, but many more are managing the care of -- and worrying about -- their disabled parents, which is a source of stress even when it is not very time-consuming.

---

[10]Company-specific surveys have yielded estimates of as high as 20 to 30 percent of employees caring for elderly disabled parents. These surveys, however, have often used very broad definitions of care, including support which is solely financial or emotional, and may not represent a large commitment of time by the caregiver. When the definition of "caregiver" is restricted to those spending time helping elderly parents with activities of daily living (eating, transferring, toileting, dressing, and bathing) or instrumental activities of daily living (meal preparation, light housework, laundry, getting around outside, grocery shopping, telephoning, taking medication, and financial management), data from the much larger samples of the 1982 National Long-Term Care Survey and the 1984 Current Population Survey indicate that just under one percent of Americans who are working full-time provide care for elderly parents by participating in any of the activities listed above.

Financial support for elderly and disabled relatives is also a burden for some families. If a family member is spending significant amounts of time caring for the relative instead of working for money, this also contributes to the financial strain.

V. Changes in Child Care and Work Arrangements

Parents are changing their lifestyles to integrate the increase in mothers' hours of paid work and the increase in income experienced by most families. While the increase in hours of paid work for women does lower the total amount of time remaining for housework, child care, personal care, and leisure, a number of other factors determine the net effect on any individual in the family. In addition to family size, the division of tasks between husbands and wives, and other adjustments mentioned above, families are changing their behavior along two other dimensions: the utilization of paid child care and changes in the time and place of work.

A. Trends in Child Care

Most parents adjust to an increase in their paid work time by increasing their use of child care providers other than themselves. As mothers go to work, families have more income to spend. Some of it has been spent on paid child care. The availability, cost, and quality of child care which can be purchased in the market affects the employment decisions and financial status of families. The primary child care arrangements for preschool-age children of employed mothers in the fall of 1994 were divided roughly equally among care in the child's home (by a relative or nonrelative), care in another home (by a relative or nonrelative), and care in an organized child care facility. Since comparable data were first collected in 1986, the trend shows a relatively constant proportion of children receiving care in their own homes, relatively fewer children receiving care in another home, and relatively more children receiving care in an organized facility. The percent of monthly income spent on child care by those purchasing this service rose from 6.3 percent to 7.3 percent between 1986 and 1993.[11]

B. Changes in the Time and Place of Work

The effect of parents' market work time on children also depends on when and where it is performed. While data on flexible schedules, shift work, paid work done in the home, and

---

[11] The earliest comprehensive data collection by the Bureau of the Census on families' child care arrangements was in 1977. The earliest data which are compatible with the most recent data are from fall 1986. We use the 1986 data for consistency.

alternative work arrangements are less readily available than data on traditional market work, the 1991 and 1997 May supplements to the CPS collected data that give us an overview of these non-traditional work arrangements.

1. Flexible Schedules

The conflict between hours of market work and hours required for housework and child care is intensified when the timing of market work is beyond the parent's control. Flexible work arrangements (defined as allowing workers to vary the time they begin or end work) are an increasingly popular approach to decreasing the tension between work and family. In 1997, 28 percent of full-time wage and salary workers had flexible work schedules. This was up sharply from 15 percent in 1991, the most recent prior year when data was collected. The variations by gender and age of children were small. Men were slightly more likely to have flexible schedules than were women (29 percent versus 26 percent). Parents of children under age 18 were slightly more likely to have flexible schedules than were those without children under age 18 (29 percent versus 27 percent), while 30 percent of parents of children under age 6 had flexible schedules.

2. Shift Work

Shift work may enable parents to share child care more easily by working different shifts. If shift work is to ease the task of combining paid work and child care, however, the choice of shifts must be voluntary. For those workers who cannot determine their own schedules, the combination of shift work and work in the home is a potential source of stress and expense. In 1997, 83 percent of full-time wage and salary workers were on regular daytime schedules. Of those who were not, 4.6 percent were on evening shifts, 3.9 percent were on employer-arranged irregular schedules, 3.5 percent were on night shifts, and 2.9 percent were on rotating shifts. These non-standard working hours may make it difficult both to find time to spend with children when they are awake and not in school and to arrange for child care while working.

3. Paid Work Performed in the Home

In 1997, 3.3 percent of all wage and salary workers were doing work at home for pay, up from 1.9 percent in 1991. An additional ten percent of all wage and salary workers in 1997 were doing work at home without receiving extra pay for it. (Nearly 9 out of 10 wage and salary workers who were paid for work at home were in "white-collar" occupations.) While married persons with a spouse present were more likely to do paid work at home than were single persons, married parents were no more likely to do paid work at home than were married persons without children. Single parents, however, particularly single mothers, had much higher work-at-home rates than single workers without children.

4. Alternative Work Arrangements

The nature of a worker's contract with the employer affects not only the hours he or she works in the market and the wages and benefits earned, but also the duration of the job, the worker's sense of job security, and the ability to coordinate work weeks with children's school schedules by working part-year. In 1997 6.7 percent of all employees were independent contractors, 1.6 percent were on-call workers, 1.0 percent worked for temporary help agencies, and 0.6 percent worked for contract firms.

5. Multiple Job Holding

Multiple job-holding, or "moonlighting," increased significantly during the 1980s, and then leveled off at the beginning of the 1990s. This increase, like the increase in hours overall, was generally driven by women. As women increased their multiple job-holding rate, the rate declined for men.

- In 1996, over 6 percent of all employed men and women aged 20 to 54 held multiple jobs.
- Over half of multiple job-holders worked one full-time and one or more part-time jobs, while about one fifth worked multiple part-time jobs, one fifth reported that their hours varied, and only 3 percent worked more than one full-time job.
- Men who held multiple jobs in 1996 worked an average of 52 hours per week, while women with multiple jobs averaged 43 hours per week.
- Many multiple job-holders were highly educated professionals, not necessarily driven to multiple job-holding by financial need.

C. Policies that address these issues

The enormous changes in the ways American families function create new opportunities, but also present new challenges to government policy. This Administration has helped families better balance work and family life by its policies in four major areas:

*[**We need a sentence about each of these items -- have requested Tom Freedman's input.]*

1. Easing parents' "time bind":

Family and Medical Leave

Child care
*[*Administration proposals (see ERP chapter): funding for child care tax credit for individuals, and employer day care.]*

Elder care

Flextime

2. **Improving incomes** of families that are struggling: the less educated and single parents, whose incomes are still lower than in 1969:

   Earned Income Tax Credits

   Minimum wage increase

   Welfare-to-work and employer tax credits for hiring welfare recipients, which help people work and raise their incomes by their own efforts.

   Child support enforcement, which provides income for single parents and may encourage more ongoing involvement of non-custodial parents with their children.

   Steady economic growth, which creates jobs, reduces unemployment, and raises wages for all workers, especially the less skilled who are most affected when jobs are scarce.

3. **Enabling parents to choose their family size and spacing of children** -- so they can devote sufficient time to each one.

   Family planning services -- contraception; access to abortion as an option of last resort.

4. **Encouraging two-parent families** to form and stay together in a supportive relationship

   Child support enforcement

   Eligibility rules for Medicaid and other programs

   Domestic violence services for perpetrators as well as victims

VI. Conclusion

A massive shift of women's time from the home to the labor market has occurred in the last generation. For most families, increasing incomes have accompanied mothers' increasing

paid employment. Families today also have fewer children than in the past. As a result, despite the increase in parents' hours of market work, there is little indication that time spent with children has declined. These developments have created a host of changes in how families function. In particular, new arrangements for child care have been adopted and housework takes less time. These developments have created new opportunities, especially for women, but have also raised new challenges. In response to the challenges, the Clinton Administration's policy reforms since 1993 have helped parents better balance family and market work.

Furthermore, women's increased earning power may have other long-term positive effects. It may increase their decision-making leverage within the family, which in turn may increase resources spent on children. Moreover, as women gain more (and more continuous) market work experience, their earning potential also increases. Young women, expecting to spend more time in the labor market, increasingly prepare themselves for higher-paying non-traditional careers. These developments all work to increase the long-term economic security of women and their families.

References

Blau, Francine, "Trends in the Well-Being of American Women, 1990-1995," *Journal of Economic Literature*, March 1998, pp. 112-165.

Bluestone, Barry and Stephen Rose, "Unraveling an Economic Enigma: Overworked and Underemployed," *The American Prospect*, March-April 1997, pp. 58-69.

Danziger, Sheldon and Deborah Reed, "Working Longer and Earning More: The Changing Contribution of Wives' Earnings to Family Income," February 1997.

Ellwood, David, "Winners and Losers in America: Taking the Measure of New Economic Realities," mimeo, 1998. **(Note the paper says not for quotation or citation).**

Juster, F. Thomas and Frank P. Stafford, "The Allocation of Time: Empirical Findings, Behavioral Models, and Problems of Measurement," *Journal of Economic Literature*, Volume XXXIX (June 1991), pp. 471-522.

Juhn, Chinhui and Kevin Murphy, "Wage Inequality and Family Labor Supply", Journal of Labor Economics, 1997, vol 15(1), pt. 1 pp 72-97

Leete, Laura and Juliet Schor, "Assessing the Time Squeeze Hypothesis: Hours Worked in the United States, 1969-1989," *Industrial Relations*, 33(1), January 1994, pp 25-43.

Levy, Frank, "Where Did All the Money Go? A Layman's Guide to Recent Trends in U.S. Living Standards," MIT IPC Working Paper 96-008, July 1996.

McGrattan, Ellen R., "Changes in Hours Worked Since 1950", Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis, *Quarterly Review*, Winter 1998, pp. 2-19.

Robinson, John and Geoffrey Godbey, *Time for Life: the Surprising Ways Americans Use their Time*, Pennsylvania State University Press, 1997.

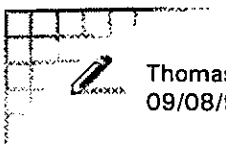
Rones, Phillip L., Randy E. Ilg, and Jennifer M. Gardner, "Trends in hours of work since the mid-1970s", *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1997, pp 3-13.

Schor, Juliet B. (1991). *The Overworked American: The Unexpected Decline of Leisure*. New York: Basic Books.

Stinson, John F., Jr. (1997). "New data on multiple jobholding available from the CPS," *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1997, pp. 3-8.

Stone, Robyn I. and Peter Kemper (1989). "Spouses and Children of Disabled Elders: How Large a Constituency for Long-term Care Reform?" The Milbank Quarterly, 67(3-4), pp. 485-506.

fam - Family report



Thomas L. Freedman
09/08/98 11:59:13 AM

Record Type: Record

To: Bruce N. Reed/OPD/EOP, Elena Kagan/OPD/EOP

cc: Mary L. Smith/OPD/EOP, Laura Emmett/WHO/EOP
Subject: Family Report

I talked to Becky Blank who thinks the report is less far off than I think it is. She thinks the findings support extending FMLA and child care. She'd like to come in and talk with you about the draft report and how we might utilize the report. She'll call your offices to try and set up a meeting.

Family - family report

Families and the Labor Force

I. Conventional wisdom

There is a popular perception of a "time bind" -- that families are working more in the marketplace and are pressed for time at home. Relatedly, there is a belief that much of this increase in work has been done simply to maintain family income. In other words, Americans are working harder -- and families are being squeezed for time -- simply to stay in place.

Paper will look at:

- Is this true? And in particular, for what *groups* is it true?
- What are the causes {of whatever is true)
- What are the consequences

II. Are Families Working More? Trends in Hours of Market Work

A. Are Americans Working More in the Marketplace?

Include a brief discussion of problems in measuring hours of work. Report annual hours worked, annual weeks worked, and hours of work per week, by sex, marital status, and presence of children, education and age of head (25-54, 55-64).

1. Women's working hours increase, while men's decrease. On net, annual hours of work for both men and women increase.

    - Estimates from the CPS for the 18+ population from 1969 to 1989 show that annual hours of work increased by 276 hours for women, decreased by 139 hours for men, for a net per capita increase of 86 hours. Estimates from 1976 to 1993 for the working age population (25-54) show stable hours for men and an increase for women of 412 hours (45%).

2. Differences for key demographic groups:
    a. Marital Status and Presence of Children: Married women had largest increase in work from 1969 to 1989. Single mothers had largest increase from 1989 to 1996.
    b. Education of Head: Largest increase in work for most educated men and women.
    c. Age of Head: Work effort declines for 55-64 relative to 25-54.

B. Effects on Family Hours of Work and Family Incomes (see attached)

1. Change in hours of work and family income for families with children.

2. Changes in work hours, earnings, and total family income by marital status and education of head for families with children.

3. Changes in work hours, earnings, and total family income by marital status and family income quintile.

III. Causes of above trends in hours and income.

A. On average, women's real wages have increased, while men's have decreased.

B. Changes in social programs (particularly EITC and welfare reform for post 1989 trends).

C. Trends in family structure (single parenthood; number of children), timing of births and age of parents at birth.

D. Changing societal values / norms about role of women / mothers in market place

IV. Changes in other requirements on families (keep short)

A. Increases in single parent families.

B. Decreases in numbers of children per family

C. Changes in numbers of elderly dependents trends in number of children, number of elderly

V Consequences of above trends in hours and income on family well-being

A. *Time Devoted to Children:* How do families adjust to increase in market work and how does this affect well-being of children?

1. Available time use data from 1965 to 1985 suggests that on average most increases in women's work was offset by decreases in housework and not in time with children.
2. However, effects may differ for resource and time-constrained families, such as single parent families and low-earning couples. Available research suggests that single parents have less time for leisure, less time for child care and that they have higher levels of stress than married couples.

B. *Changes in Household Allocation of Time:*

1.The increase in women's financial contributions to families may affect family consumption patterns. For example, some research has found that money allocated to mothers has a larger impact on children's consumption than money allocated to fathers.
2. Greater women's work activity may be important to insure their long-run financial security, particularly in the light of increases in divorce /separations, which imply that women can not rely on the husband's income as a lifetime source of income support.
3. Changes in father vs mother's role in house care and child-care may affect children's socialization and learning.

C. *Dynamic Considerations:* What are consequences of concentration of work into younger years, and increase in free time when older?

VI. Policy

Things this administration has done to help with balancing work and family:

FMLA
EITC
Child tax credit
Child care initiative

Do we want to also talk about family-friendly business practices? (e.g. flex time, telecommuting etc. see Treasury report on child care.)

Over the entire 15-year period, the com- average husband-wife hourly wage increased only 1.8 percent—the equivalent of a real hourly wage increase of less than 30 cents over the entire period, or 2 cents each year!

As such, Schor's "squirrel cage" does not appear to be far off the mark. American mythology holds that long hours will pay off in a steadily increasing standard of living; in other words, sacrificing time with family can pay for a dishwasher or microwave and, down the road, a more expensive college for one's children. Yet from a purely material perspective, all the extra hours from the "average" working family have yielded only a very modest improvement in the amount of goods and services they can buy.

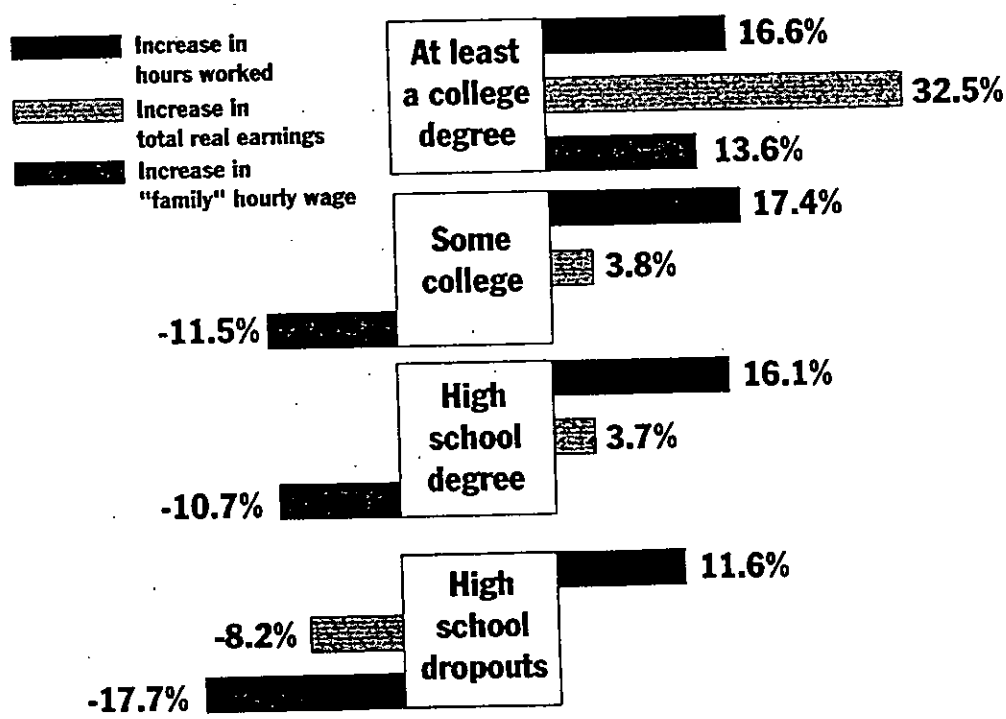
But even this story is too sanguine for most families. When we break down the hours and earnings data by education group the tale gets even more depressing. Most Americans are not working harder so they can afford a fancier minivan; they're just trying to make payments on their old car or cover the rent. When you remove from the equation families headed by a worker with at least a college degree, it turns out that the enormous increase in work effort over the past 20 years has allowed families to maintain their old standard of living—but almost nothing more. For families headed by high school dropouts, the situation is the most dismal. Between 1973 and 1988, such families increased their annual work effort by nearly 12 percent yet ended up with about the same percentage as those headed by high school graduates or those with some college, yet their material consumption standard increased by nearly a full third between 1973 and 1988.

8 percent less annual income. For families headed by high school graduates or some college, work effort was up by 16 to 17.4 percent, producing less than a 4 percent increase in total earnings. These families are trapped in an *Alice in Wonderland* world, running faster and faster just to stay in the same place. For all of these families, the "family" hourly wage has fallen precipitously, by as much as 17 percent in the case of the high school dropout.

Of course, more work still pays off for one group: families headed by a college graduate. These families increased their work effort by

. . . AND FOR WHAT?

Particularly for families where the breadwinners don't have much education, working harder hasn't meant higher living standards. The least educated, in fact, are still slipping further behind.



Source: Authors' calculations based on data from the PSID.

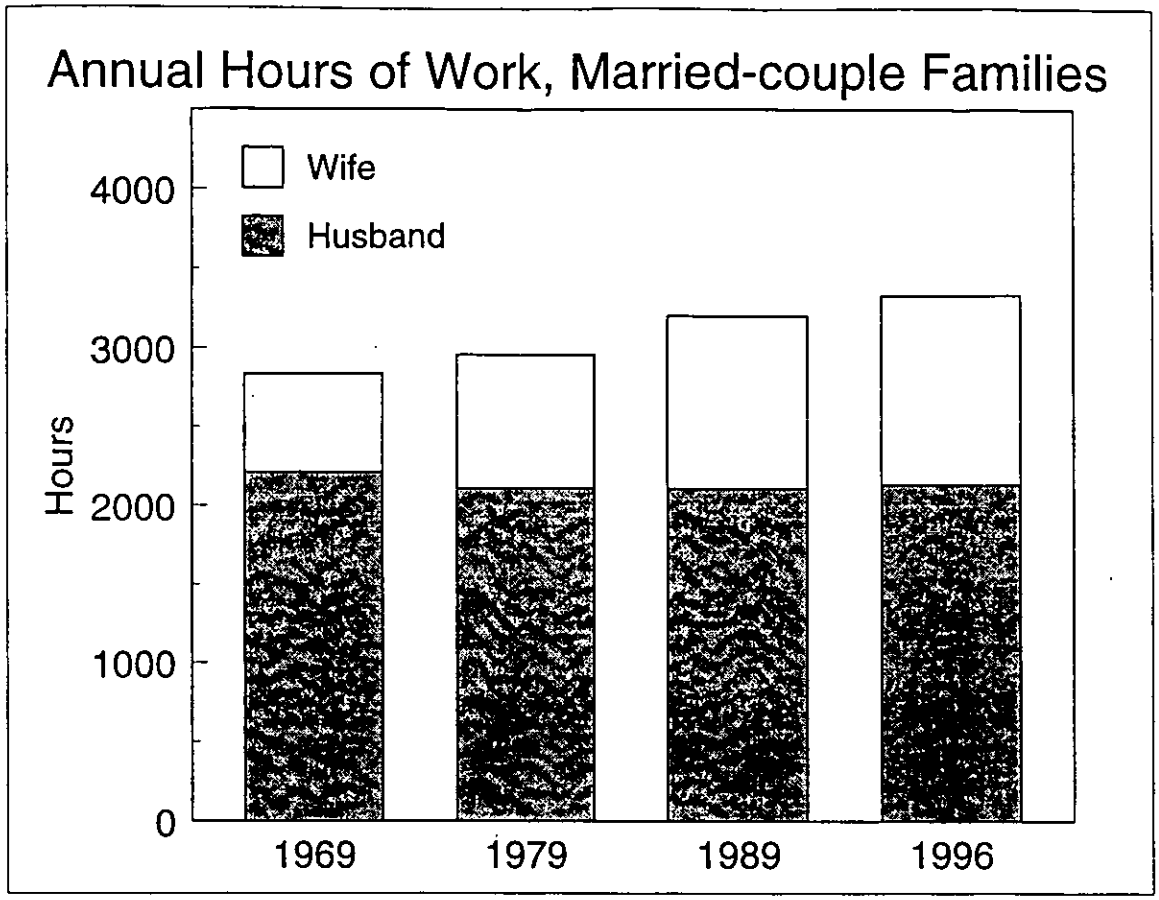
Married Couples 67-89

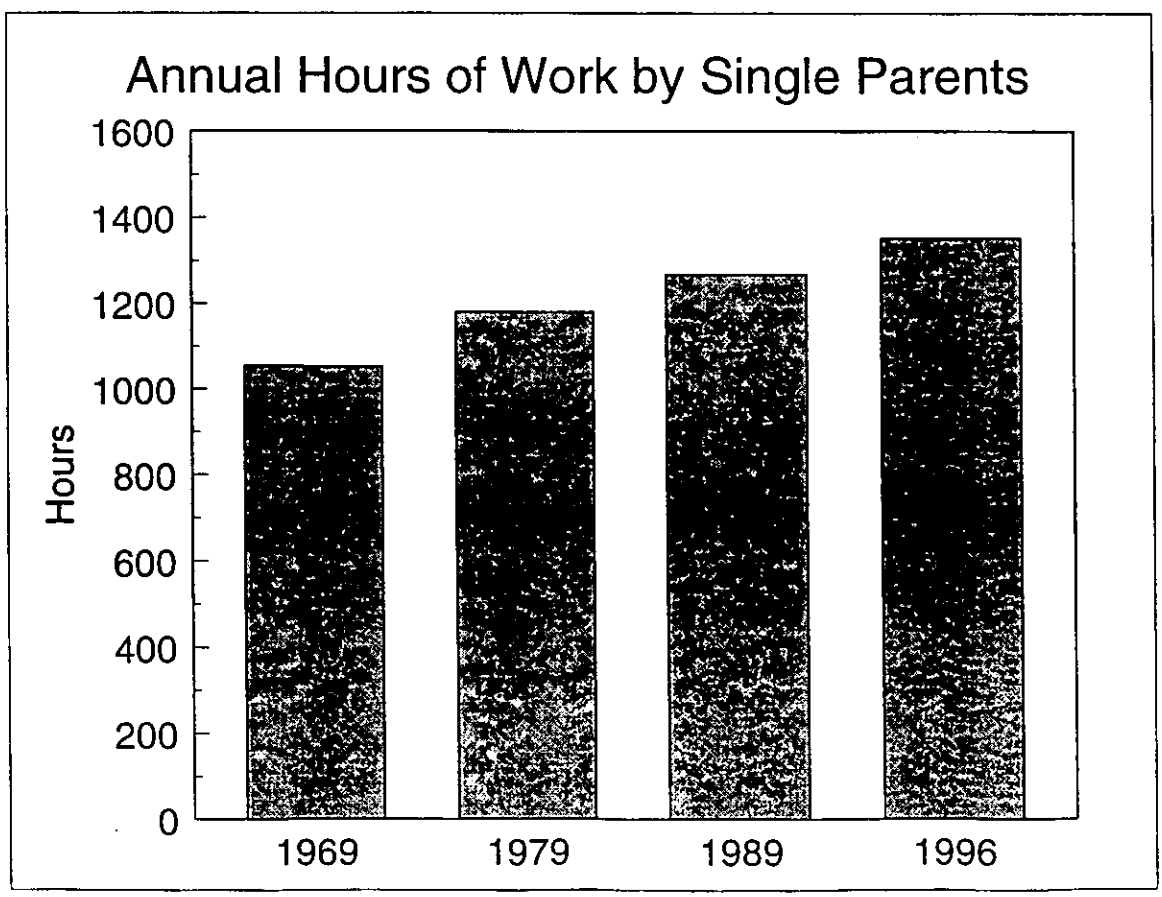
Bluestone Lee.

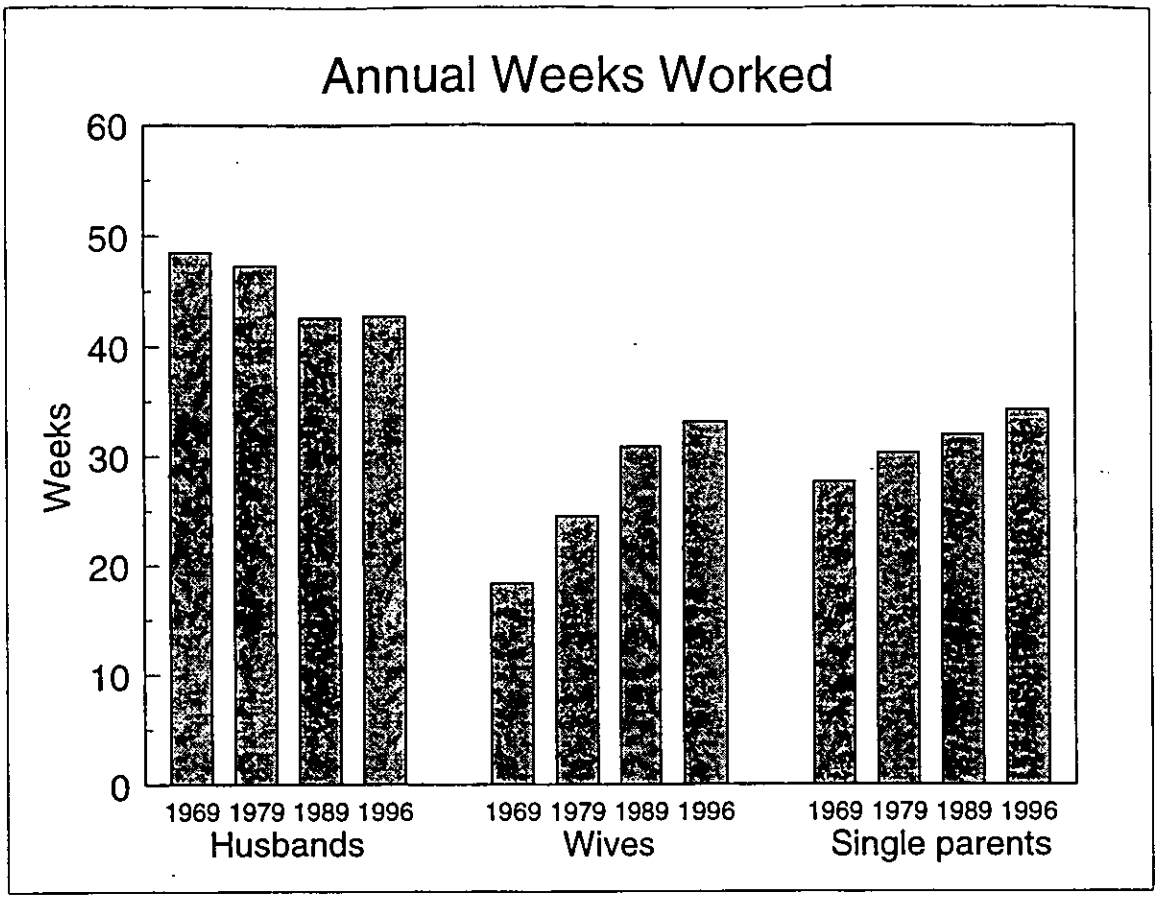
Family - family report

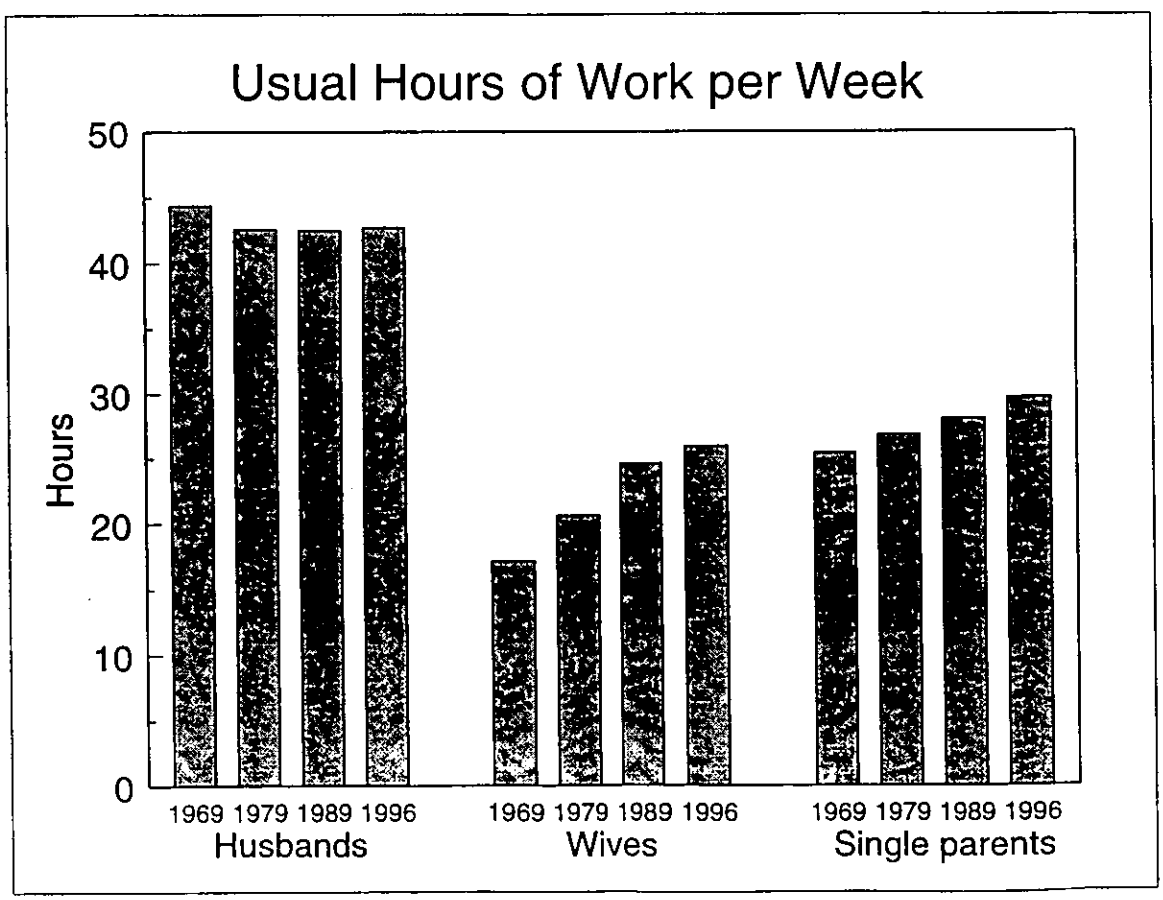
DK / EK -
Quik interesting charts for family report. Notice ① increases in wives hours working ② Time council for middle & upper class families. (last page)
Tom

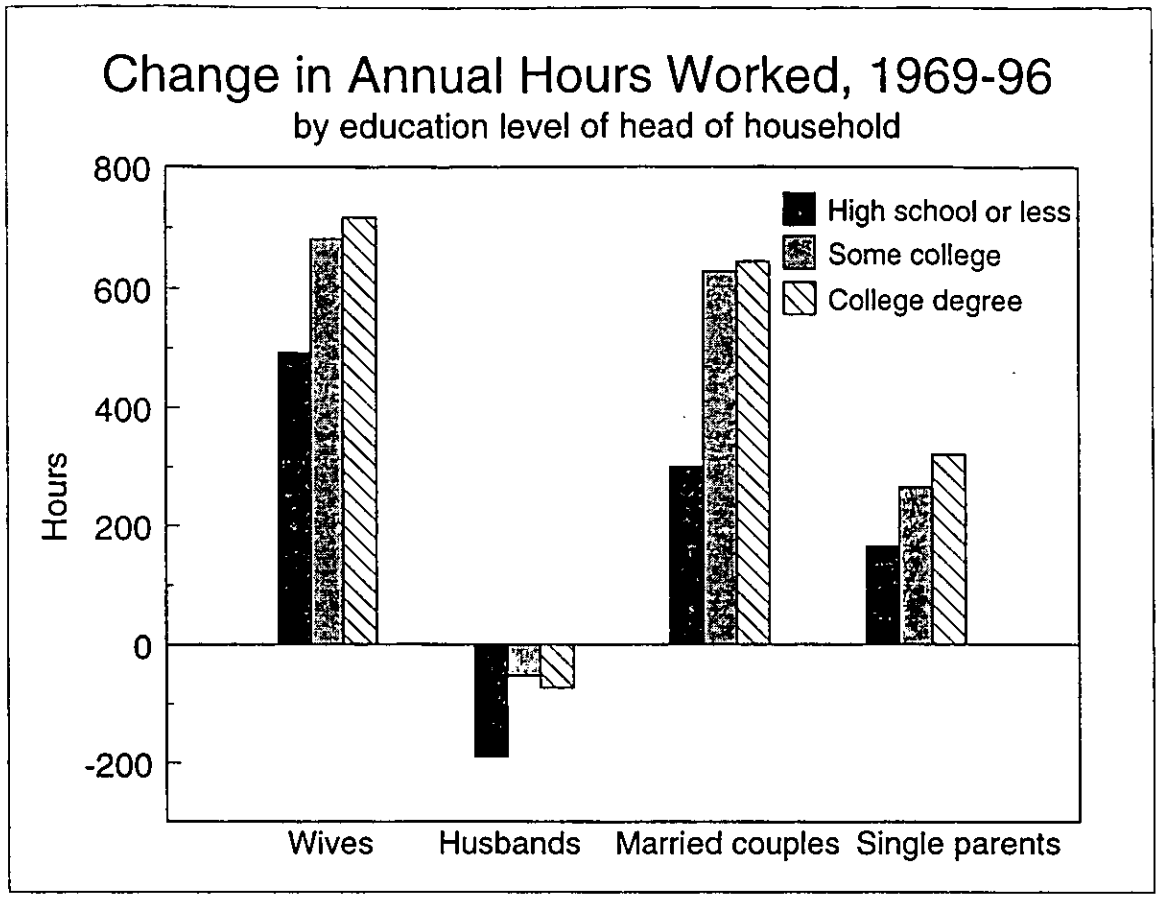
- potential values exist

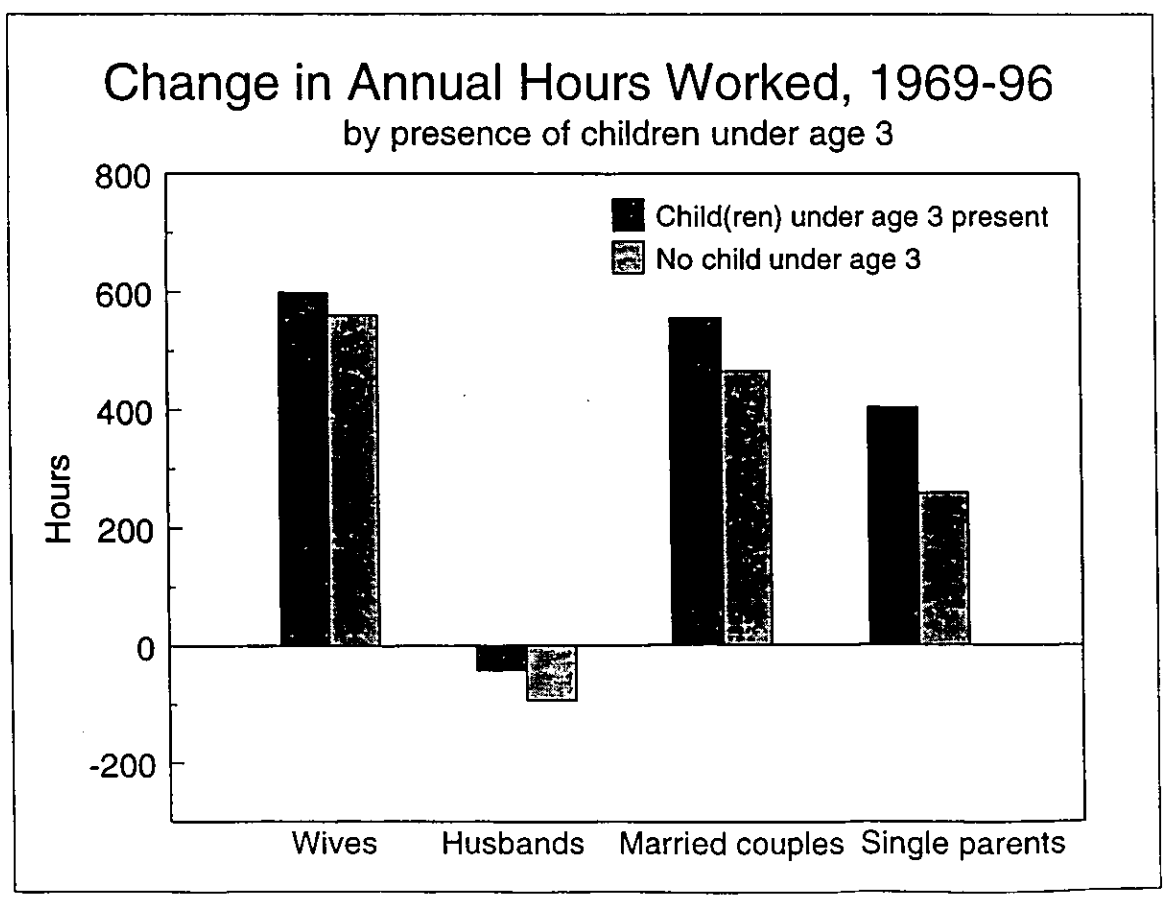


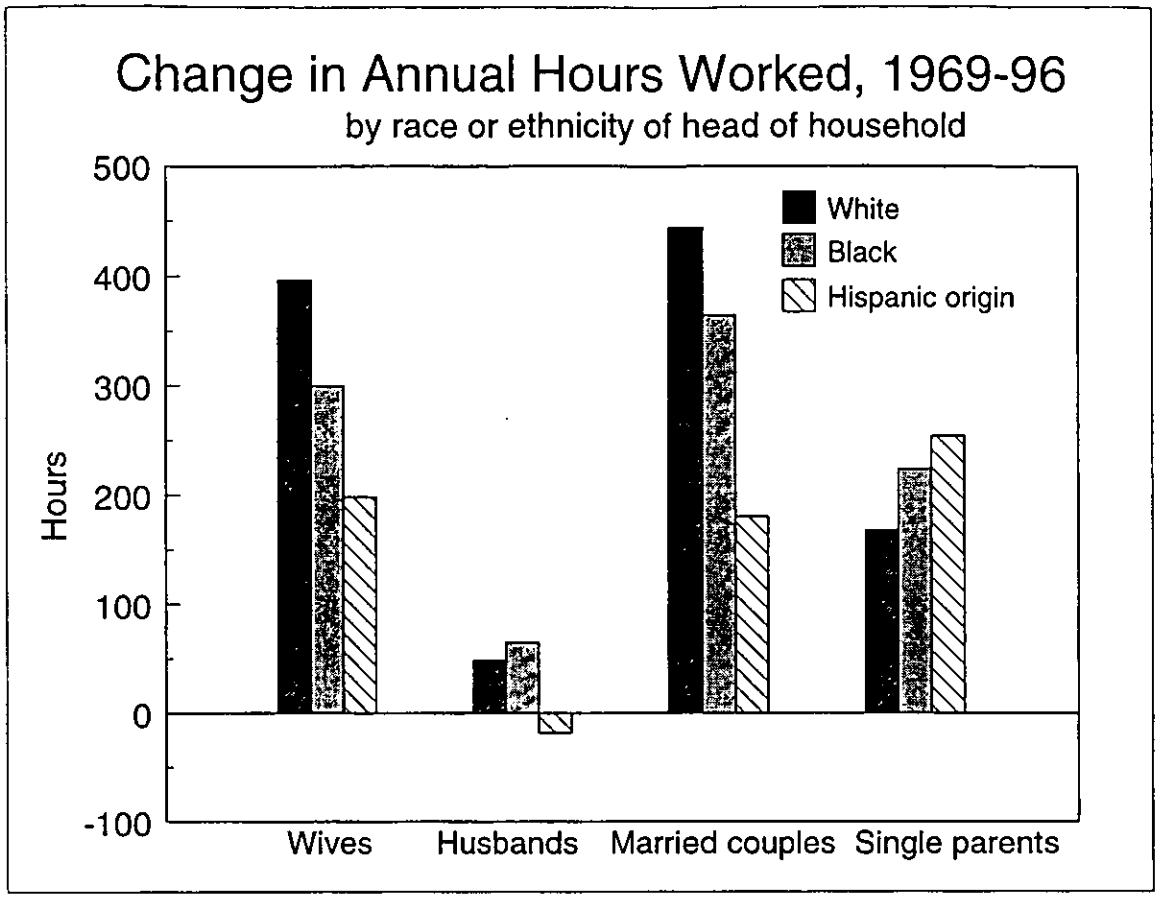


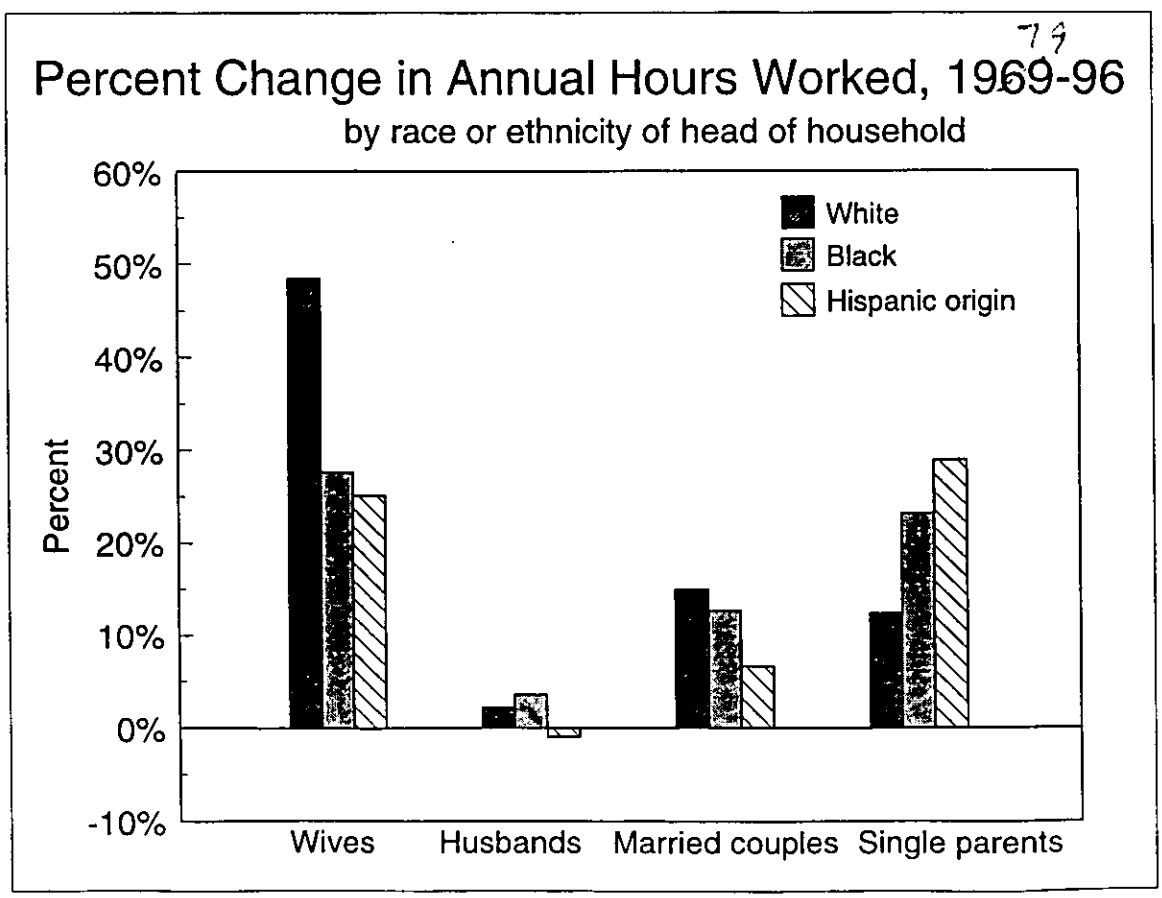

Annual Weeks Worked
Weeks
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
1969 1979 1989 1996
Husbands
1969 1979 1989 1996
Wives
1969 1979 1989 1996
Single parents

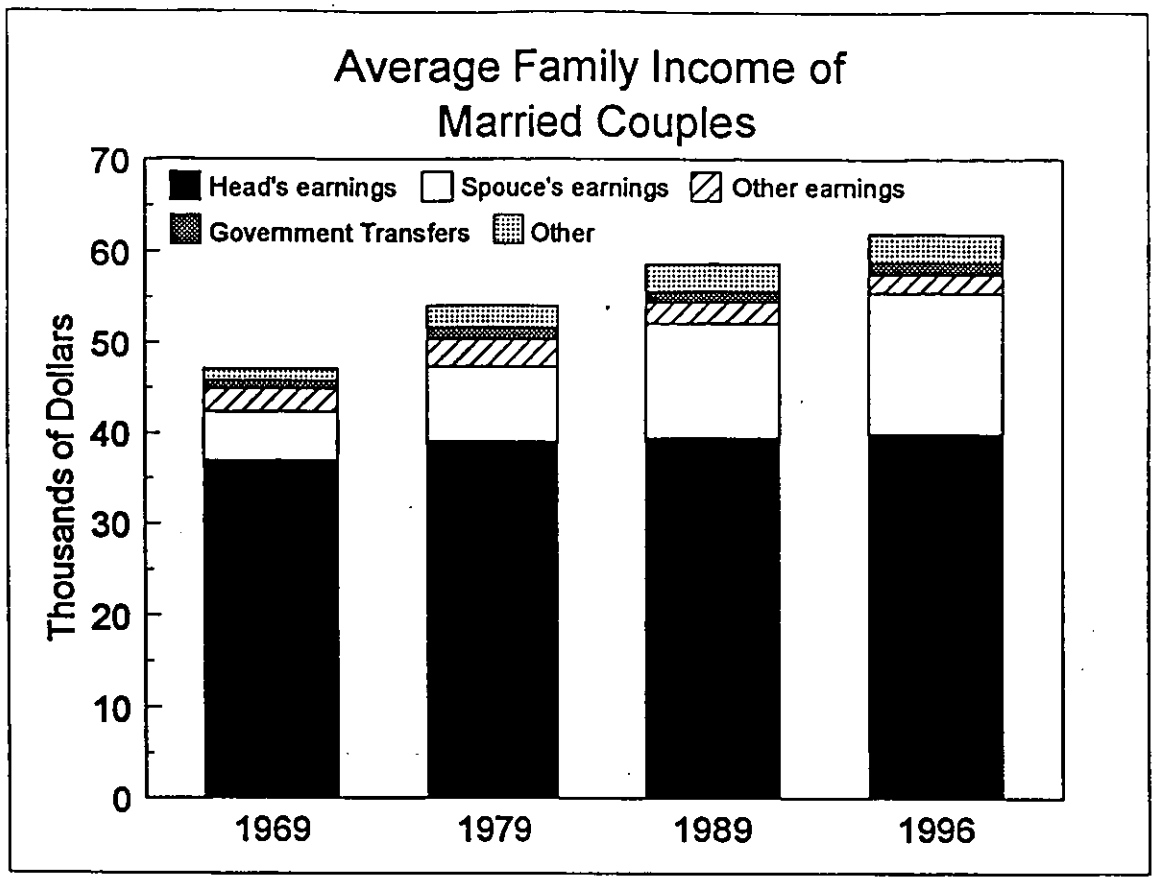

Usual Hours of Work per Week
Hours
50
40
30
20
10
0
1969 1979 1989 1996
Husbands
1969 1979 1989 1996
Wives
1969 1979 1989 1996
Single parents

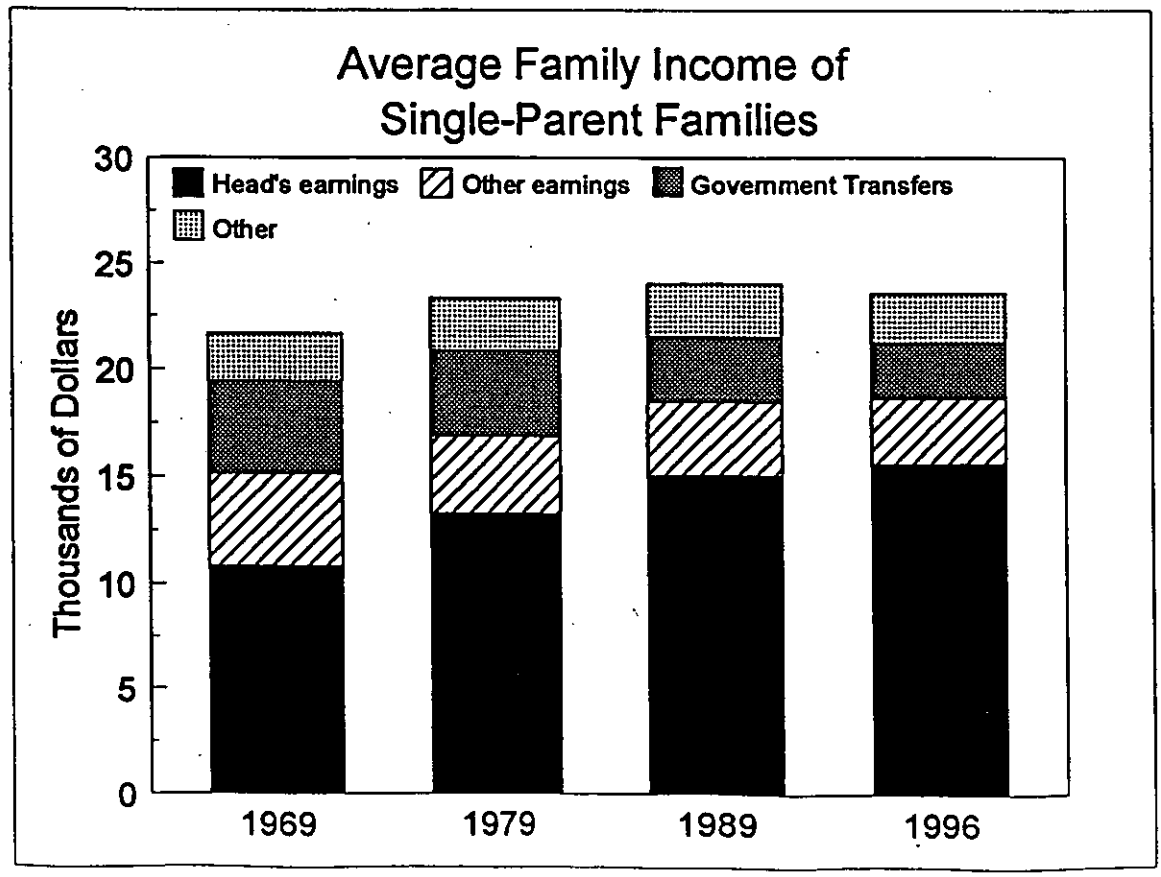

Change in Annual Hours Worked, 1969-96
by education level of head of household
800
600
400
200
0
-200
Hours
High school or less
Some college
College degree
Wives
Husbands
Married couples
Single parents

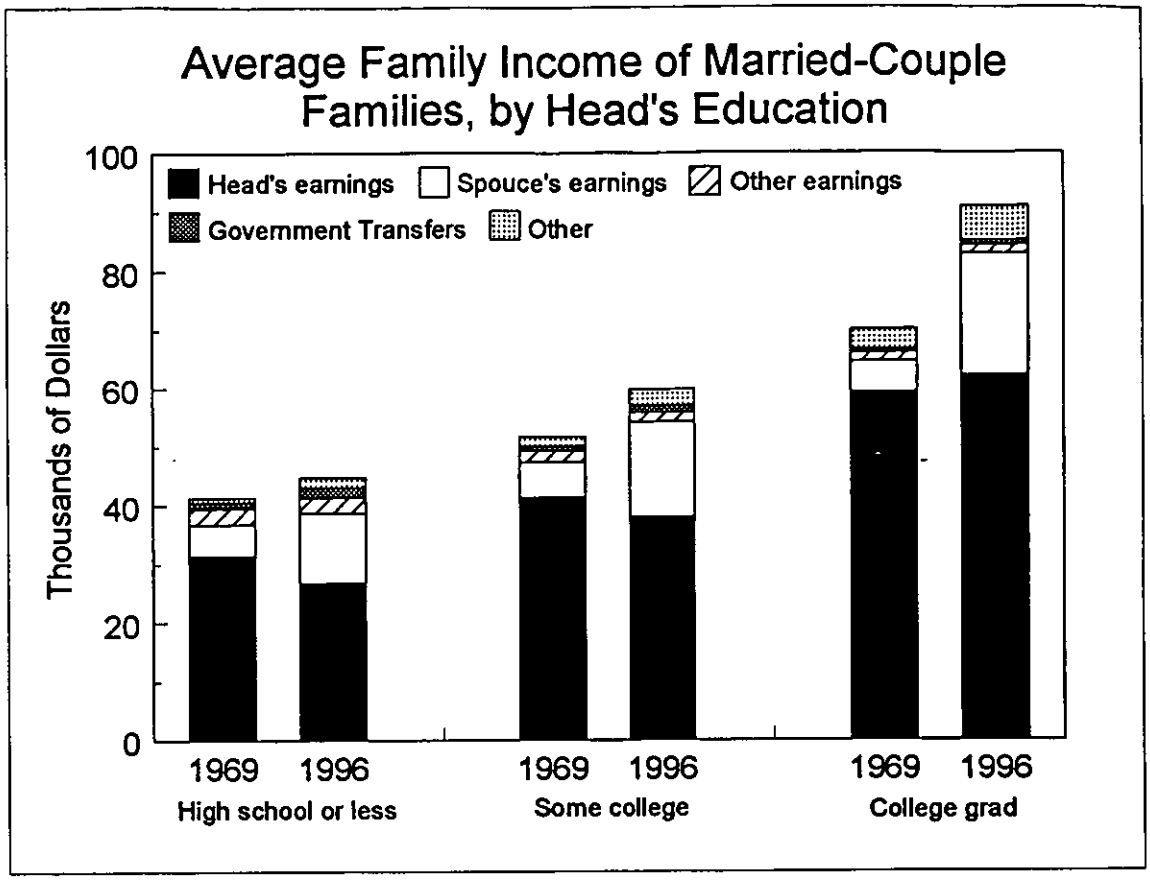

Change in Annual Hours Worked, 1969-96
by presence of children under age 3
800
600
400
200
0
-200
Hours
Child(ren) under age 3 present
No child under age 3
Wives
Husbands
Married couples
Single parents

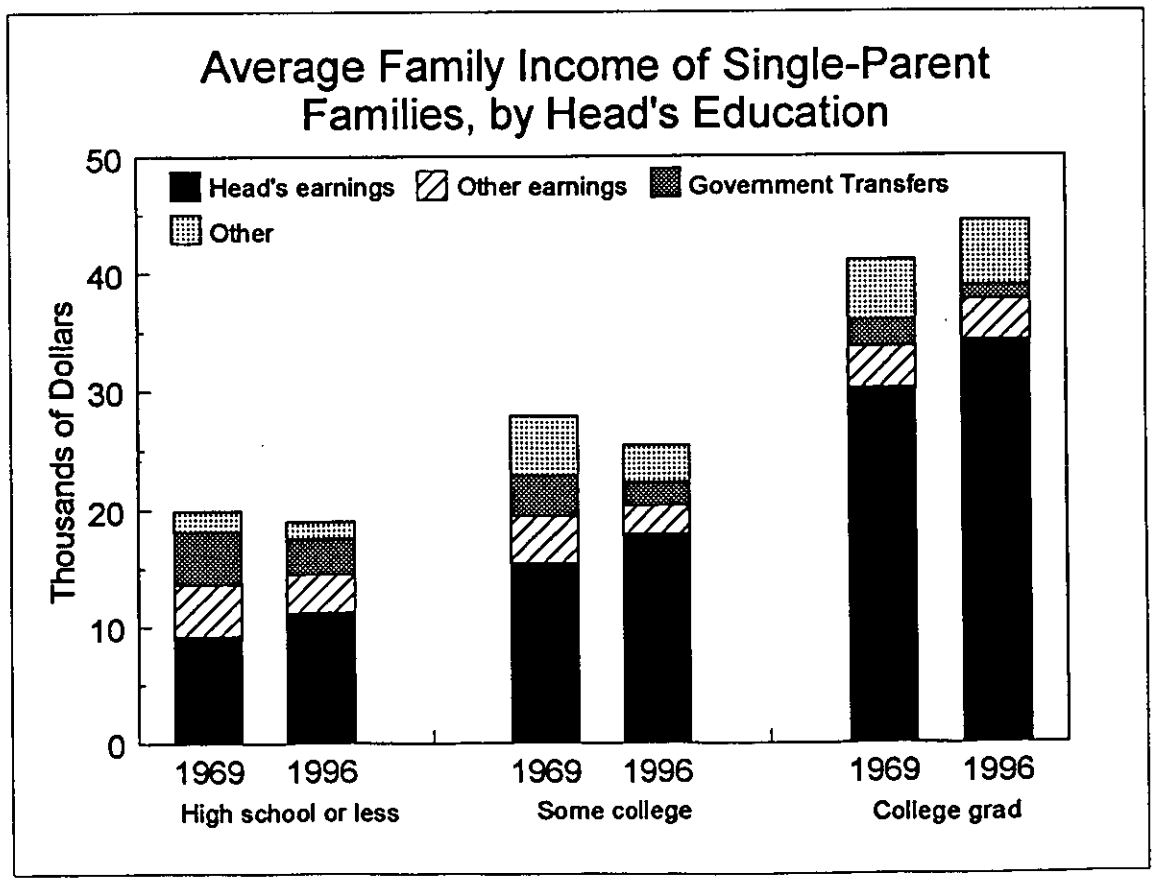

Change in Annual Hours Worked, 1969-96
by race or ethnicity of head of household
Hours
500
400
300
200
100
0
-100
White
Black
Hispanic origin
Wives
Husbands
Married couples
Single parents

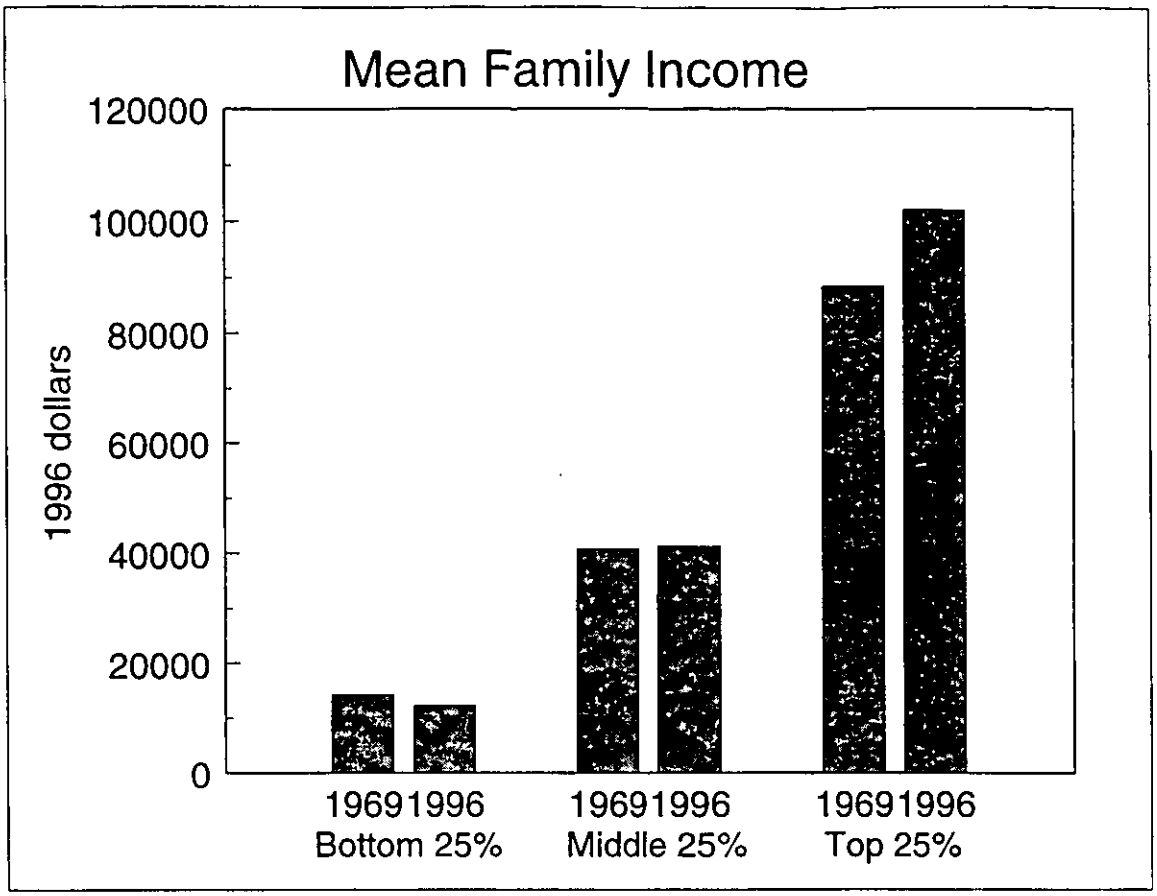

Percent Change in Annual Hours Worked, 1969-96
by race or ethnicity of head of household
Percent
60%
50%
40%
30%
20%
10%
0%
-10%
White
Black
Hispanic origin
Wives
Husbands
Married couples
Single parents

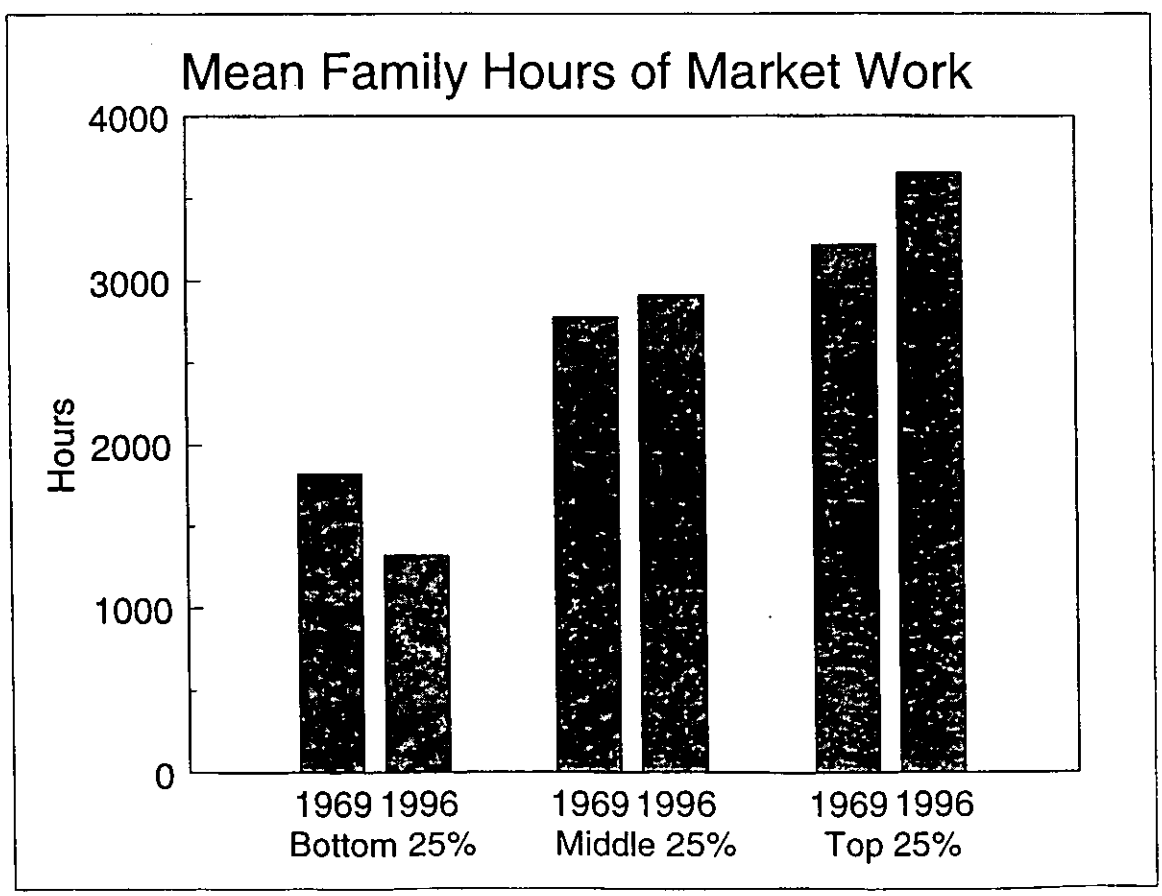

Average Family Income of
Married Couples
Head's earnings
Spouce's earnings
Other earnings
Government Transfers
Other
Thousands of Dollars
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
1969
1979
1989
1996

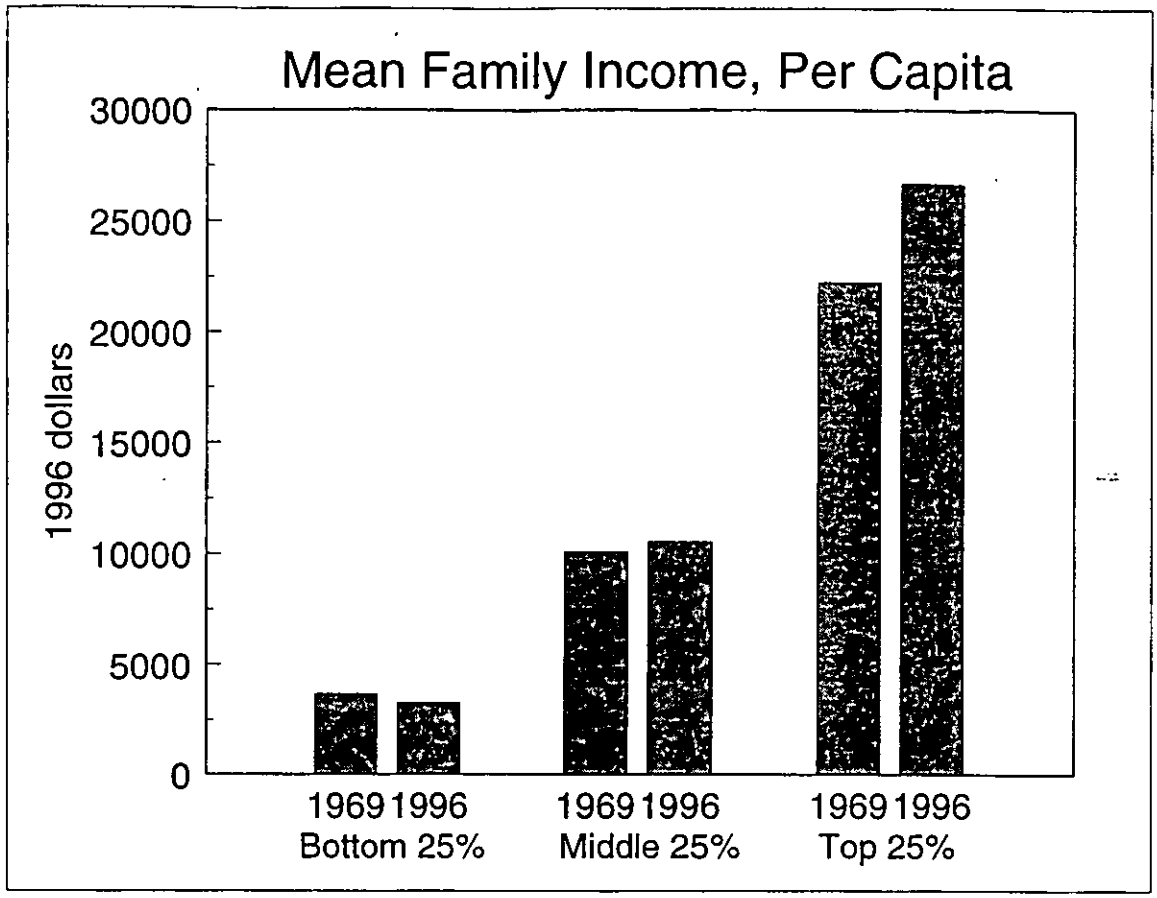

Average Family Income of
Single-Parent Families
Head's earnings
Other earnings
Government Transfers
Other
Thousands of Dollars
30
25
20
15
10
5
0
1969
1979
1989
1996

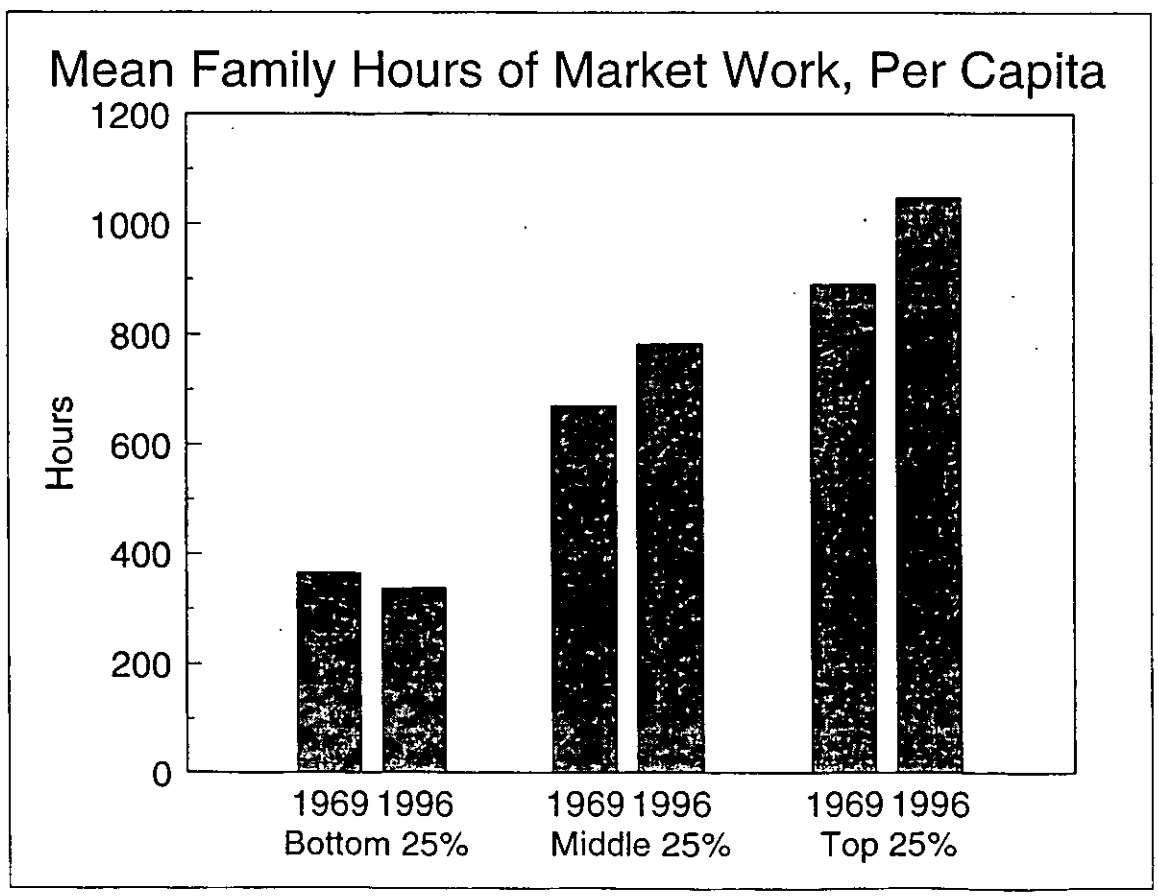

Average Family Income of Married-Couple Families, by Head's Education
Head's earnings
Spouce's earnings
Other earnings
Government Transfers
Other
Thousands of Dollars
100
80
60
40
20
0
1969
1996
High school or less
Some college
College grad


Average Family Income of Single-Parent Families, by Head's Education
Head's earnings
Other earnings
Government Transfers
Other
Thousands of Dollars
50
40
30
20
10
0
1969
1996
High school or less
Some college
College grad


Mean Family Income
120000
100000
80000
60000
40000
20000
0
1996 dollars
1969 1996
Bottom 25%
1969 1996
Middle 25%
1969 1996
Top 25%

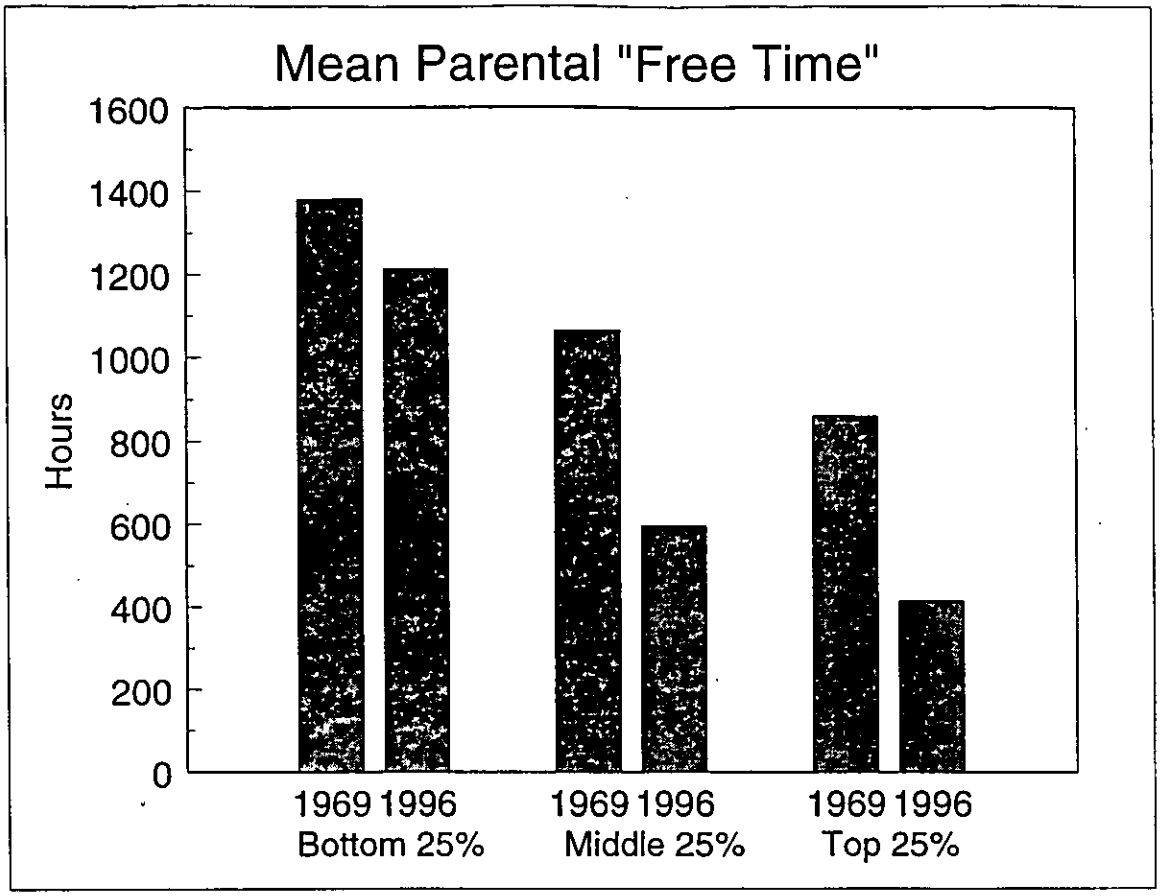

Mean Family Hours of Market Work
4000
3000
2000
1000
0
Hours
1969 1996
Bottom 25%
1969 1996
Middle 25%
1969 1996
Top 25%


Mean Family Income, Per Capita
1996 dollars
30000
25000
20000
15000
10000
5000
0
1969 1996
Bottom 25%
1969 1996
Middle 25%
1969 1996
Top 25%

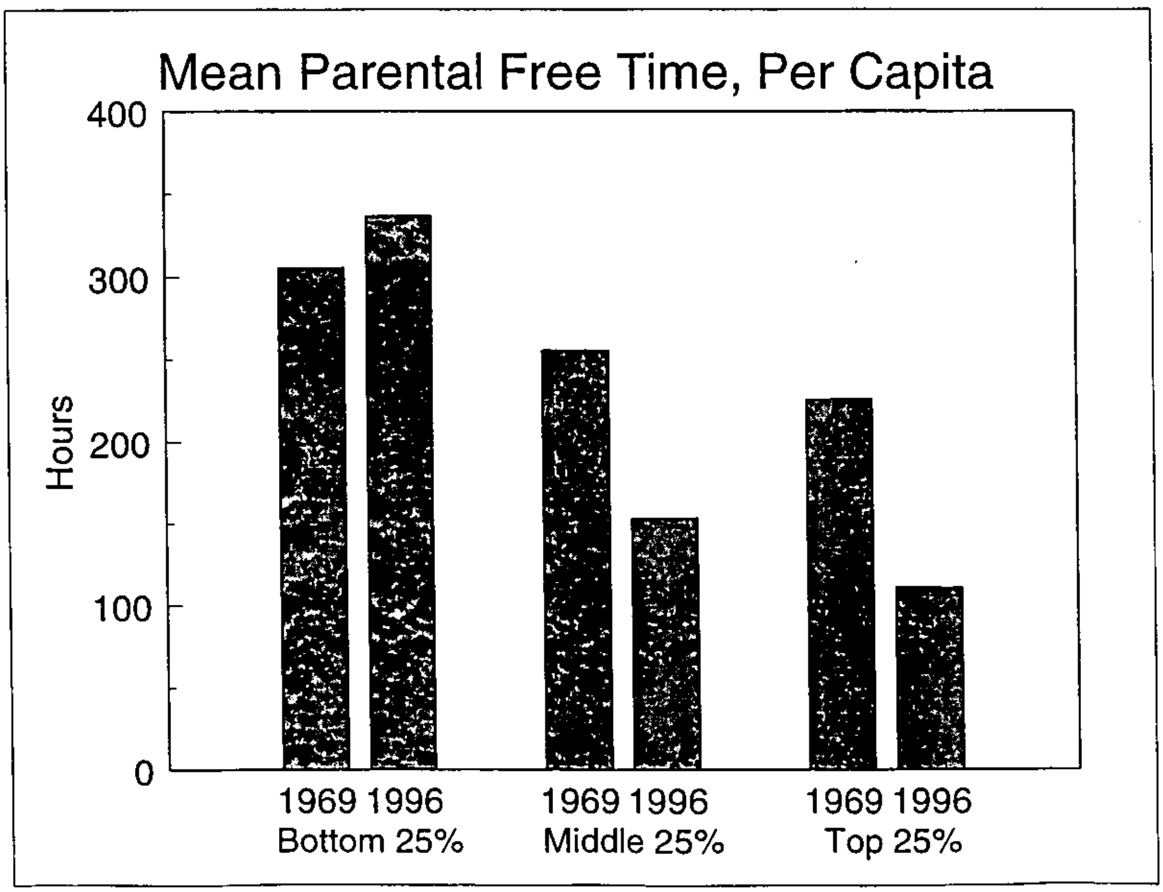

Mean Family Hours of Market Work, Per Capita
Hours
1200
1000
800
600
400
200
0
1969 1996
Bottom 25%
1969 1996
Middle 25%
1969 1996
Top 25%

Free time = [2000 hours − market work ... husband] + [2000 − market ... of spouse]

Captures: 1) increase in 1 parent families
2) increase in work hours of spouse/single parent.



(kids)



Time out of use.

Family Report

MEMORANDUM

TO: TOM FREEDMAN, MARY L. SMITH

FROM: DREW HANSEN

RE: DATA ON THE WORKING FAMILY

DATE: AUGUST 7, 1997

SUMMARY

The following are sets of data on the working family, grouped under the headings of time at work, time at home, family structure, women in the labor force, work-family issues, impact on children, and child care.

TIME AT WORK

- Americans worked an average of 138 more hours per year in 1989 than in 1969, and engaged in 11 more hours of nonmarket labor in 1989 than in 1969. Most of the increase in work hours was driven by the rise in women's employment. Women worked 287 more hours per year in 1989 than they did in 1969 (table 1, figure 1).

Table 1.

Hours Worked in the United States, 1969-1989

Annual Hours, Unconstrained Labor Force Only*

Year	Mkt Hrs Total	Men	Women	Nonmkt Hrs Total	Men	Women
1969	1786	2054	1406	889	621	1268
1973	1798	2060	1436	888	626	1248
1979	1855	2093	1558	939	727	1204
1989	1924	2126	1693	900	688	1142
Change 1969-1989	138	72	287	11	67	-126

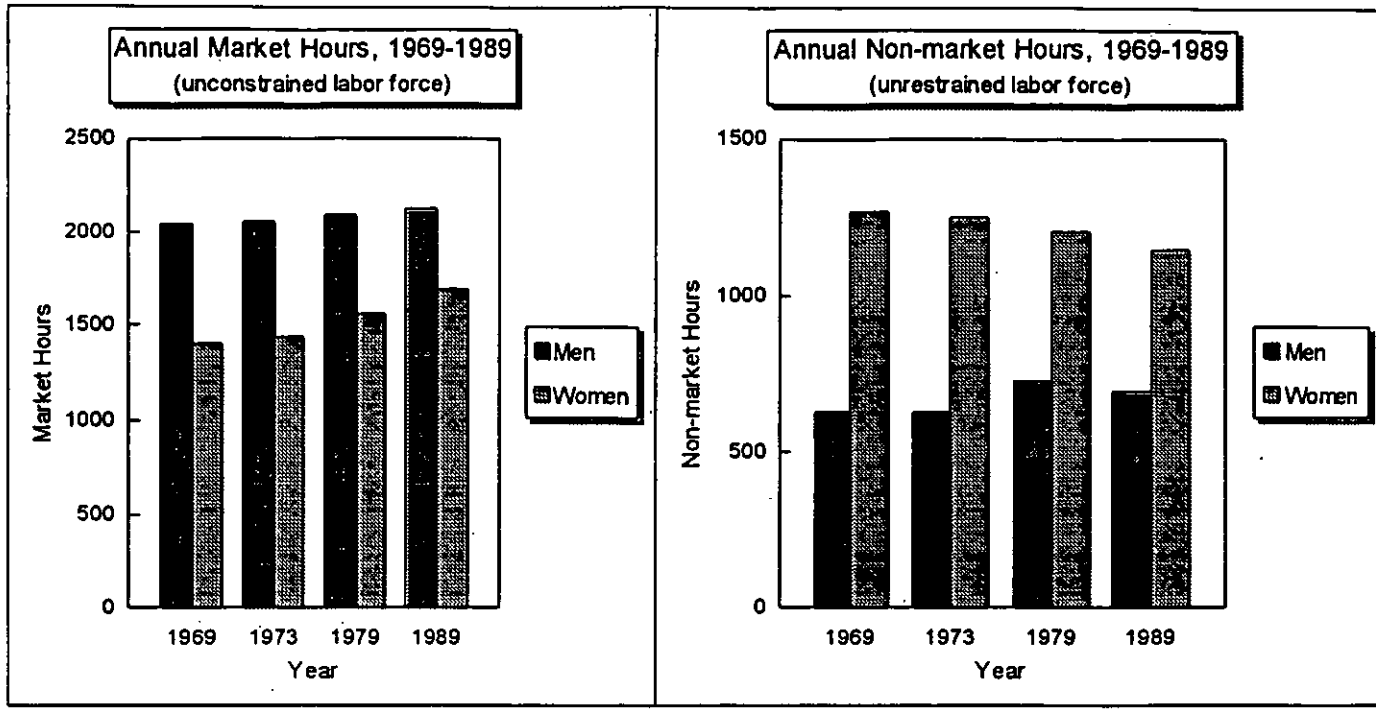
*"Unconstrained" labor force is only labor force participants who did not work fewer hours than they wished (i.e. the unemployed and underemployed).

Total Annual Hours (Population and Unconstrained Labor Force)

Year	Population Total	Men	Women	Unconstr. Labor Force Total	Men	Women
1969	2417	2424	2410	2675	2675	2674
1973	2399	2409	2392	2686	2686	2584
1979	2431	2478	2389	2794	2820	2762
1989	2444	2446	2441	2824	2814	2835
Change 1969-1989	27	22	31	149	139	161

Source: Laura Leete and Juliet B. Schor, "Assessing the Time-Squeeze Hypothesis: Hours Worked in the United States, 1969-89," Industrial Relations, 33 (1) (January, 1994):25-43.

Figure 1.



- 38% of American workers will not take a vacation in 1996, up from 34% in 1995. Of those who will not take a vacation in 1996, 37% will not take one because they cannot afford it (Dimension Research, Lombard, IL, 1996).

- 14% of Americans who traveled in 1995 will not travel in 1996, up from 10% who traveled in 1992 and did not travel in 1993 (Travel Industry Association of America, 1996).

- Over 50% of 1,000 workers surveyed by Yankelovich Partners in 1997 have more to do at work than they did two or three years ago. Forty-two percent of workers surveyed said they spent less time with their families (Yankelovich Partners, 1997).

- In a Fortune 500 poll of CEO's, 62% reported that executives in their company were working longer hours than ten years ago. Only 2% reported that executives were working shorter hours than ten years ago (*Fortune,* March 12, 1990).

- A 1990 survey by a Fortune 500 company found that combined office and home-based work took up 75 hours per week for men and 96 hours per week for women (Cited in Hochschild, *The Time Bind*).

- Home-based self-employment is growing at a 7% annual rate (*Wall Street Journal,* May 14, 1997).

TIME AT HOME

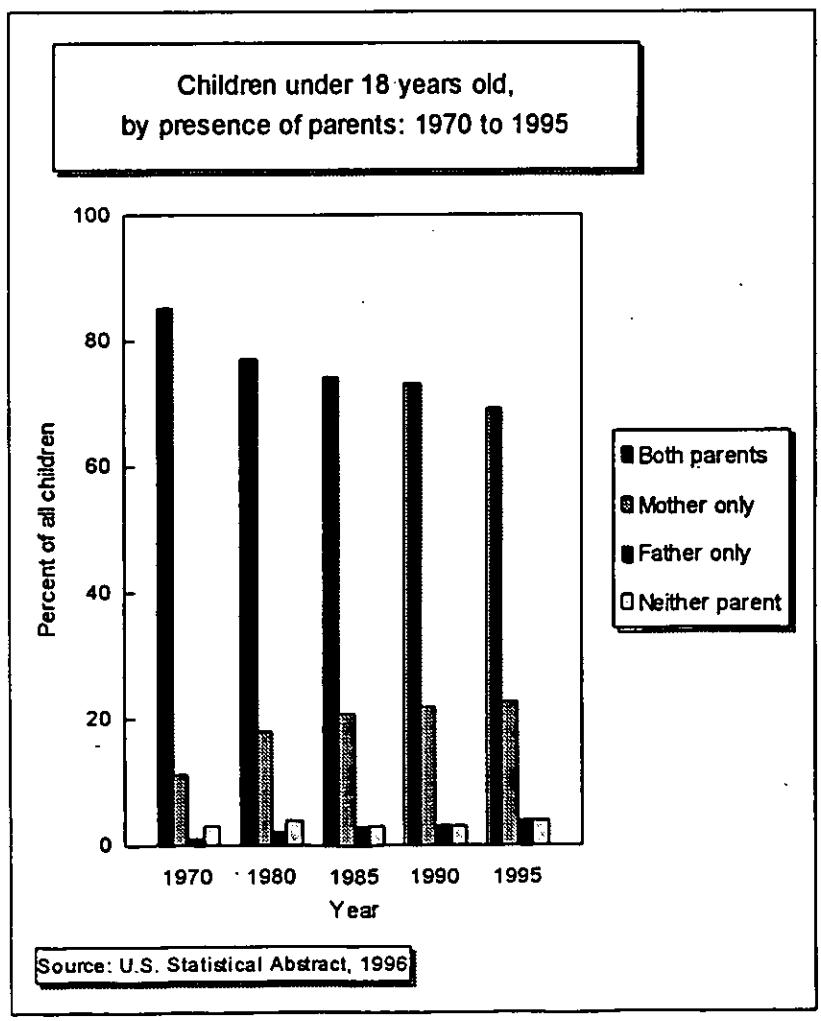
- Economist Victor Fuchs estimates that parental time available to children fell considerably between 1960 and 1986: by 10 hours per week in white households and by 12 hours per week in black households. The principal reason for the decline was an increase in the proportion of mothers holding paid jobs (Victor Fuchs, "Are Americans Underinvesting in Their Children?" *Society* September-October 1991).

- In a 1990 survey of 1,000 families by the *Los Angeles Times*, 57% of fathers and 55% of mothers felt guilty because they spent too little time with their children (Cited in Hochschild, *The Time Bind*).

FAMILY STRUCTURE

- More children are living with a single parent today than twenty years ago. In 1970, 85% of children under age 18 were living with married parents, and 11% were living with their mother only. In 1995, 69% of children under age 18 were living with married parents, and 11% were living with their mother only (figure 2).

Figure 2.



WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE

- The participation rates of women in the labor force have increased dramatically since 1960. In 1960, under a third of married women (30.9%) were employed. By 1990, that figure had almost doubled, increasing to 61%. The proportion of married women with children under 6 who were employed increased over 300% between 1960 and 1995 (table 2, figure 3).

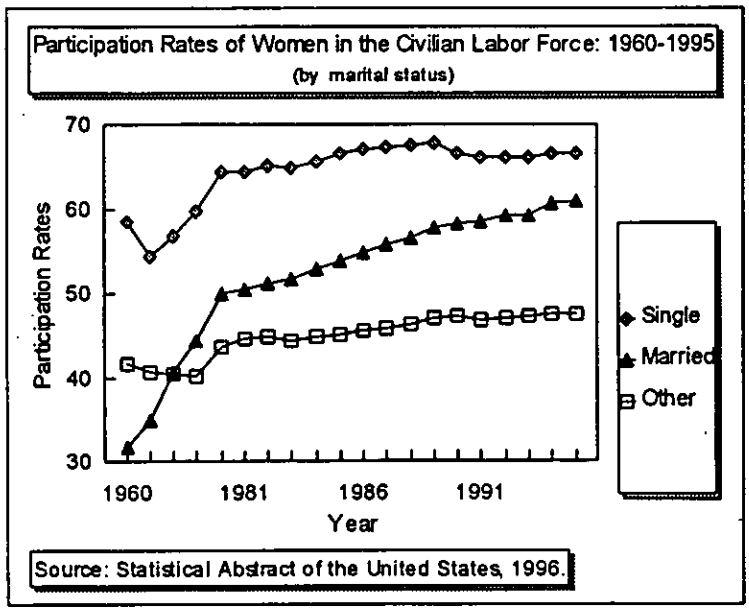
Table 2.

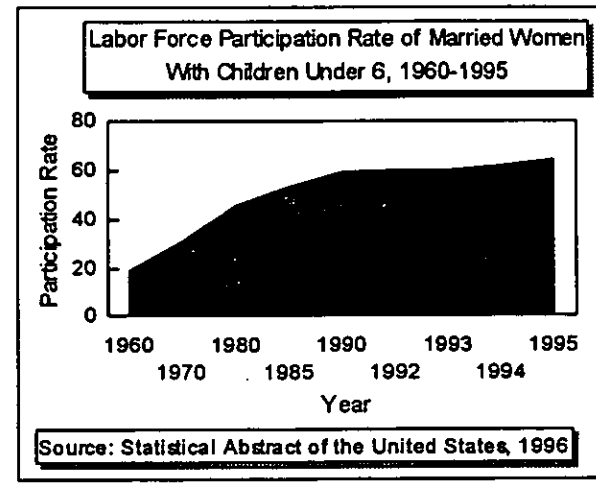
Labor force participation rate for women, by marital status and presence and age of children, 1960-1995

	Total Single	Total Married	Total Other	w/ children Single	w/ children Married	w/ children Other	child 6-17 Single	child 6-17 Married	child 6-17 Other	child <6 Single	child <6 Married	child <6 Other
1960	44.1	30.5	40 na		27.6	56 na		39	65.9 na		18.6	40.5
1970	53	40.8	39.1 na		39.7	60.7 na		49.2	66.9 na		30.3	52.2
1980	61.5	50.1	44	52	54.1	69.4	67.6	61.7	74.6	44.1	45.1	60.3
1985	65.2	54.2	45.6	51.6	60.8	71.9	64.1	67.8	77.8	46.5	53.4	59.7
1990	66.4	58.2	46.8	55.2	66.3	74.2	69.7	73.6	79.7	48.7	58.9	63.6
1992	64.7	59.3	46.7	52.5	67.8	73.2	67.2	75.4	80	45.8	59.9	60.5
1993	64.5	59.4	45.9	54.4	67.5	72.1	70.2	74.9	78.3	47.4	59.6	60
1994	65.1	60.6	47.3	56.9	69	73.1	67.5	76	78.4	52.2	61.7	62.2
1995	65.5	61.1	47.3	57.5	70.2	75.3	67	76.2	79.5	53	63.5	66.3

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1996

Figure 3.





WORK-FAMILY ISSUES

- A U.S. Women's Bureau survey of 250,000 women found that "balancing work and family" was their #1 concern (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1993).
- Thirty percent of workers at Baxter Healthcare struggle with work-life issues weekly, and 42% have looked for another job because of it (18-month survey by Baxter Healthcare, 1997).
- In most companies, about half of employees experience work-family conflict (table 3).

Table 3.

Extent of Work-Family Conflict
*Studies between 1985-1990

Type of Company	% Employees Experiencing Work-Family Conflict
Company A *personal/home care products manufacturer	53%
Company B *law firm	53%
Company C *financial services	50%
Company D *apparel manufacturer	45%
Company E *22 hospitals	43%
Company F *pharmaceutical	37%
Company G *insurance	37%
Company H *33 companies in Oregon	23%

Source: The Conference Board, 1991. Company G only includes w orkers w ith chidren under six.

IMPACT ON CHILDREN

- A 1997 study of 270,000 children in 600 communities found that children who were home for at least four evenings per week with their parents and had frequent conversations with them were more likely to succeed at school and less likely to have premarital sex or use alcohol or drugs (Search Institute, 1997).

- A study of 65 Boston-area families found that preschoolers exposed to mealtime discussions among parents and siblings did better on reading and vocabulary tests than children not exposed to such discussions (*Wall Street Journal,* May 4, 1997).

- Several studies have found the children whose parents are in stimulating, challenging jobs and who have control over their work environments do better in school and have fewer behavioral problems (*Wall Street Journal,* July 31, 1996).

- The economist Sylvia Hewlett argued in her 1991 book *When the Bough Breaks: The Cost of Neglecting our Children* that this "time deficit" between time-at-work and time-at-home has caused increases in pathologies among young people, including suicide, drug use, and out-of-wedlock births (Cited in Hochschild, *The Time Bind*).

- A 1989 article in *Pediatrics* reported the results of a study of 5,000 8th-graders whose parents left them home alone for 11 or more hours per week. These children were three times as likely to abuse alcohol, tobacco, or marijuana then other children their age whose parents did not leave them home alone for so long (Cited in Hochschild, *The Time Bind*).

CHILD CARE

- In the fall of 1993 there were 9.9 million children under age 5 who were in need of child care while their mothers were working. Almost half (48%) of these children were primarily cared for by relatives; almost a third (30%) were cared for in organized facilities (figure 4, table 4).

Figure 4.

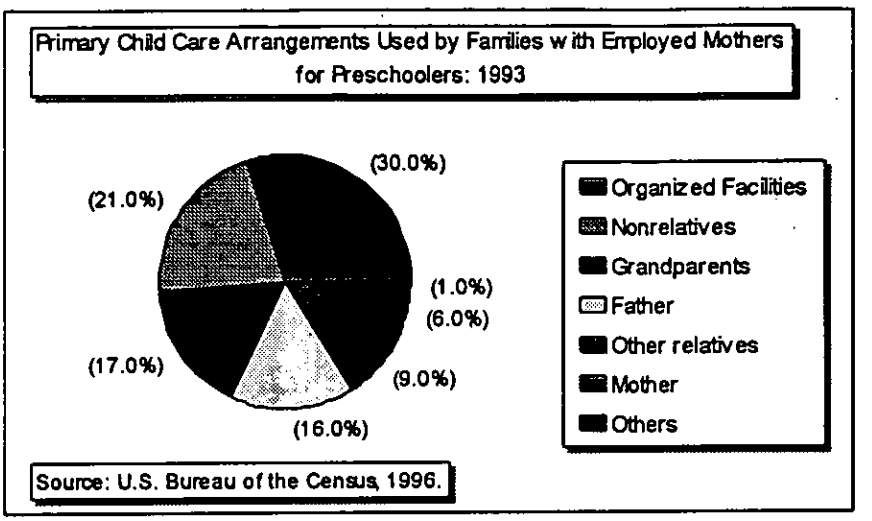


Table 4.

Primary Child Care Arrangements of Preschoolers by Mother's Employment Status: Fall 1993

Type of arrangement	*All preschoolers* Number	%	*Employment Status* Emp. schedule: Full time Number	%	Part time Number	%	Shift work status: Day shift Number	%	Non-day shift Number	%
All Preschoolers	9937	100.0%	6426	100.0%	3512	100.0%	6083	100.0%	3855	100.0%
Care in child's home	3054	30.7%	1656	25.8%	1398	39.8%	1465	24.1%	1589	41.2%
%by father	1585	15.9%	719	11.2%	866	24.7%	657	10.8%	928	24.1%
%by grandparent	649	6.5%	364	6.0%	264	7.5%	361	5.9%	287	7.4%
%by other relative	328	3.3%	227	3.5%	101	2.9%	166	2.7%	162	4.2%
%by nonrelative	492	5.0%	326	5.1%	167	4.8%	281	4.6%	211	5.5%
Care in provider's home	3184	32.0%	2239	34.9%	945	26.9%	2095	34.4%	1089	28.3%
%by grandparent	996	10.0%	684	10.6%	312	8.9%	593	9.7%	403	10.5%
%by other relative	543	5.5%	384	6.0%	159	4.5%	360	5.9%	183	4.8%
%by nonrelative	1645	16.6%	1171	18.2%	474	13.5%	1143	18.8%	503	13.0%
Organized child care facilities	2972	29.9%	2166	33.7%	806	22.9%	2146	35.3%	826	21.4%
%day/group care center	1823	18.3%	1398	21.8%	425	12.1%	1369	22.5%	453	11.8%
%nursery/preschool	1149	11.6%	768	11.9%	381	10.9%	776	12.8%	373	9.7%
Mother cares for child at work	616	6.2%	280	4.4%	336	9.6%	296	4.9%	321	8.3%
Other	111	1.2%	84	1.3%	26	0.8%	81	1.3%	30	0.8%

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996

- Within three years, three out of four American women with children under five will be working and need child care (*U.S. News & World Report,* August 4, 1997, p. 34).

- The new welfare law will send about 2 million parents (mostly mothers) into the workforce, and their children will need care outside the home (*U.S. News & World Report,* August 4, 1997, p. 34).

- Persons living below the poverty line spend an average of 18% of their monthly income on child care. Persons who live above the poverty line spend an average of 7% of their monthly income on child care (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1995).

- Overall, families pay the largest share - roughly 60 percent - of total annual estimated expenditures for child care in the United States. Government (federal, state and local) pays much of the balance, primarily by directly subsidizing all or part of child care tuition fees for low-income families directly through state appropriations. The government provides tax credits for other eligible families. The private sector (business and philanthropy) contributes less than 1 percent (Pew Charitable Trusts, 1997)

- Family child care arrangements accounted for 17% of all care arrangements in 1993, down from 24% in 1988. Organized facility child care arrangements accounted for 30% of all care arrangements in 1993, up from 26% in 1988 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996).

- The weekly cost of child care, in 1993 dollars, has increased from $64 in 1986 to $79 in 1993 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1995).

- Seventy-six children died in child-care facilities in 1996, according to a 50-state query carried out by *U.S. News & World Report,* but underreporting means that the number could be between 240 and 320 (*U.S. News & World Report,* August 4, 1997, p. 34).

- In a recent review of child care standards nationwide, the New York-based Commonwealth Fund, working with Yale University experts, found that only 17 states passed its criteria for quality child care, and that only Minnesota met its criteria in all categories (*U.S. News & World Report,* August 4, 1997, p. 34).

Family - Family report

MEMORANDUM

TO: **TOM FREEDMAN, MARY SMITH**

FROM: **JULIE MIKUTA**

RE: **STATISTICS ON THE FAMILY**

DATE: **JULY 27, 1997**

SUMMARY

Attached are tables describing various aspects and experiences of families and young people.

I. ATTACHED TABLES

A. Households

Financial

1. Households by size (1970-1995)
2. Households, by total money income (1967-1994)
3. Families, by total money income (1967- 1994)
4. Percentage of households in selected income levels (1969 - 1994)
5. Expenditures on a child by single-parent and husband-wife households: 1992, 1996

Women and Children

1. Characteristics of children's families (1970 - 1994)
2. Women who have had a child in the last year and their percentage in the labor force (1976- 1994)
3. Proportion of children in single-parent living situations living with a divorced or never-married parent (1960-1993)
4. Children of single parents, by marital status (1960- 1993)
5. Children under 18, by presence of parents (1960- 1990): chart and table
6. Families maintained by women (1980- 1992)
7. Mothers in the labor force in selected countries: 1988

B. Poverty

1. Number of persons in poverty (1959- 1994)

2. Poverty status of persons in all families, and in families with female householder (1959 - 1994)

3. Poverty status of persons by age (1959 - 1994)

4. Poverty status of families by type of family (1959 - 1994)

C. Assistance programs

1. AFDC: Average monthly number of recipients, total amount of cash payments, and average monthly payment (1936-1994)

2. Food Stamps: Number of persons participating, and monthly average received per person (1962- 1995)

3. Women, Infants and Children Feeding Program (1975- 1995)

D. Schools and Education

1. School Enrollment (1960- 1994)

Violence/ victimization in school

1. Percentage of 8th grade students who reported that violence is a serious problem: 1988

2. Percentage of high school seniors who reported being victimized at school (1976-1993): chart and table

Reading proficiency and test scores

1. Student proficiency in reading, by age, amount of time spent on homework, reading habits and reading materials in the home (1971, 1984 and 1992)

2. Average student proficiency in reading, by selected characteristics (1971-1992)

3. Reading scores (1971 - 1992)

College

1. College enrollment of recent high school graduates (1960- 1994)

2. SAT scores of college bound seniors (1970-1995)

3. College enrollment by age and sex (1973 and 1993)

Miscellaneous

1. Long-term benefits of preschool

2. Percentage of students who reported doing at least one hour of homework each day (1978- 1990)

3. Percentage of teachers who feel that certain problems are serious or somewhat serious (1995)

4. Percentage of high school seniors reporting drug use (1975-1995)

5. High school dropouts (1970- 1994)

E. Young People and Television- Watching

1. Average daily television viewing (1960 -1992)

2. Television-related rules: 1991

F. Child Care

1. Hourly cost of child care, employed mother (1975 - 1990)

2. Child care providers, children 5- 14 years (1985 -1991)

3. Employer-supported child care (1982 -1990)

G. Abortion (1976-1992)

H. Infant Mortality (1970-1992)

I. Child Abuse and Neglect (1990- 1994)

J. Homeless Children and Youth (1989 - 1993)

In 1995, five-sixths of these nonfamily households were people living alone. There was a striking difference between female and male nonfamily householders. Women, who made up three-fifths of the nonfamily householders, often were elderly. Nearly half of these women were 65 or older and 44 percent were widows. In contrast, nearly three-fourths of the male nonfamily householders were aged 25 to 64, and half had never married.

Size of households. In 1995, the average number of people per household was 2.65, down from 3.14 in 1970. Between 1970 and 1990, the share of households with five or more people decreased from 21 percent to 10 percent (see figure 2). During the same period, the share of households with only one or two people increased from 46 to 57 percent. Since 1990, the size distribution of households has remained unchanged.

Only 35 percent of all households contain "own" (birth, adopted, or step-) children of the householder. By definition, nonfamily households contain no own children, although they may include other people under 18 who are not relatives of the householder. Presence of own children in married-couple and other family households is discussed in the next section of this report.

Location of households. The geographical distribution of U.S. households has shifted away from the "rust belt" toward the "sun belt" during the past 25 years. In 1970, 52 percent of all households were in the Northeast and Midwest and 48 percent were in the South and West. In 1995, these percentages were 44 and 56, respectively.

Households also have become more urbanized during this period. The share of households in metropolitan areas increased from 69 percent in 1970 to 79 percent in 1995.

Characteristics of Families

In 1995, 78 percent of the 69.3 million American families were maintained by married couples. The remaining 22 percent were maintained by women or men with no spouse present. Nearly four-fifths of the latter group were maintained by women.

The number of families maintained by people with no spouse present is increasing rapidly. Since 1970, the number of female-householder families has increased by 122 percent (from 5.5 million to 12.2 million). The number of male-householder families grew by 163 percent (from 1.2 million to 3.2 million). In contrast, married-couple families grew only 20 percent (from 44.7 million to 53.9 million).

Considerable attention is paid to the problems of one-parent families. They are much more likely to be poor than are married couples with children. Less notice is given to the situation of families with no spouse present and married-couple families without own children at home.

More than half of families had no own children under 18 at home. In 1995, 51 percent of all families contained no own children under 18 — 7 percentage points more than in 1970, when only 44 percent of families had no own children under 18 at home.

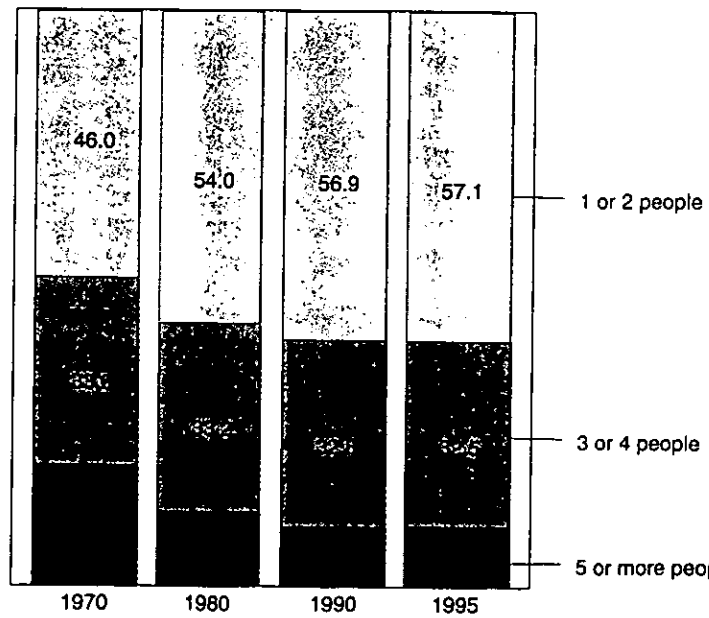
Families without own children under 18 at home are not necessarily "childless." Some contain other related children, for example, children of an adult sibling, or grandchildren. They also may include unrelated foster children. Other families include adult children who are still living at home. Still other families have adult children who are living away from home.

The last case is largely made up of families which are at the "empty nest" stage in their life cycle. In 1995, 81 percent of married couples with a householder 45 years old or older had no own children under 18 at home, compared with 68 percent in 1970.

More younger families are without own children under 18 now than in 1970. Among married-couple

Figure 2.
Households by Size: 1970 to 1995

Percent of total households



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

A - Financial - 2 P60-189

Table B-1. Households, by Total Money Income, Race, and Hispanic Origin of Householder: 1967 to 1994

[Income in 1994 CPI-U-X1 adjusted dollars. Households as of March of the following year. For meaning of symbols, see text]

Race and Hispanic origin of householder and year	Number (thous.)	Percent distribution										Median income		Mean income	
		Total	Under $5,000	$5,000 to $9,999	$10,000 to $14,999	$15,000 to $24,999	$25,000 to $34,999	$35,000 to $49,999	$50,000 to $74,999	$75,000 to $99,999	$100,000 and over	Value (dollars)	Standard error (dollars)	Value (dollars)	Standard error (dollars)
ALL RACES															
1994[8]	98 990	100.0	4.1	9.5	9.1	16.7	14.2	16.3	16.5	7.0	6.6	32 264	147	43 133	232
1993[7]	97 107	100.0	4.4	9.6	9.1	16.5	14.8	16.1	16.4	7.0	6.2	32 041	150	42 489	230
1992[6]	96 426	100.0	4.2	9.6	9.1	16.1	14.8	16.8	16.7	6.9	5.7	32 361	153	41 027	172
1991	95 669	100.0	3.9	9.6	8.8	16.2	15.1	17.1	16.6	7.2	5.7	32 780	156	41 263	170
1990	94 312	100.0	3.9	9.0	8.4	16.1	14.5	17.6	17.2	7.2	6.1	33 952	173	42 411	179
1989	93 347	100.0	3.6	9.0	8.3	15.7	14.2	17.5	17.7	7.6	6.5	34 547	190	43 647	190
1988	92 830	100.0	3.7	9.4	7.9	15.9	14.1	17.6	17.7	7.4	6.1	34 106	187	42 615	190
1987[1]	91 124	100.0	3.8	9.5	8.1	15.8	14.2	17.7	17.5	7.4	5.9	33 999	162	42 281	174
1986	89 479	100.0	4.1	9.5	8.1	16.1	14.1	17.8	17.7	6.9	5.7	33 685	174	41 592	169
1985	88 458	100.0	4.1	9.8	8.4	16.6	14.9	17.9	16.9	6.6	4.9	32 530	176	40 033	158
1984	86 789	100.0	4.0	9.9	8.9	16.7	14.8	17.9	16.7	6.4	4.6	31 972	145	39 174	144
1983[2]	85 290	100.0	4.3	9.9	9.1	17.1	15.2	18.1	16.3	5.9	4.2	31 274	141	38 105	141
1982	83 918	100.0	4.2	10.3	8.7	17.4	15.4	18.5	15.8	5.8	3.9	31 269	141	37 684	140
1981	83 527	100.0	4.0	10.1	8.9	17.8	14.9	18.4	16.5	5.8	3.5	31 374	164	37 481	137
1980	82 368	100.0	3.7	10.1	8.8	16.8	15.2	19.1	16.9	5.9	3.6	31 891	164	37 929	139
1979[3]	80 776	100.0	3.7	9.5	8.4	16.8	14.5	19.0	17.9	6.0	4.1	32 966	156	39 161	148
1978	77 330	100.0	3.5	9.6	8.6	16.7	14.6	19.4	17.8	5.8	3.9	33 074	134	38 927	149
1977	76 030	100.0	3.7	9.8	9.3	16.8	15.0	19.7	17.0	5.4	3.4	31 825	120	37 753	115
1976	74 142	100.0	3.8	10.0	9.2	16.9	15.3	20.0	16.6	5.1	3.1	31 651	117	37 230	115
1975	72 867	100.0	3.7	10.3	9.3	17.0	16.2	19.7	16.2	4.6	2.9	31 117	127	36 335	113
1974[4]	71 163	100.0	3.6	9.8	8.8	16.4	16.8	19.6	16.6	5.2	3.1	31 973	123	37 390	117
1973	69 859	100.0	4.1	9.2	8.6	15.8	16.2	19.9	17.3	5.5	3.5	33 006	126	38 171	116
1972	68 251	100.0	4.5	9.2	8.5	16.2	16.2	19.9	17.0	5.0	3.4	32 367	124	37 671	117
1971	66 676	100.0	5.2	9.5	8.4	17.0	17.1	20.3	15.4	4.4	2.6	31 043	120	35 702	113
1970	64 778	100.0	5.4	9.3	8.3	16.1	17.5	20.9	15.7	4.2	2.6	31 341	115	35 887	115
1969	63 401	100.0	5.6	9.0	8.0	16.3	17.6	21.4	15.2	4.3	2.5	31 555	117	35 899	113
1968	62 214	100.0	5.9	9.0	8.4	17.1	18.3	21.5	14.2	3.6	2.1	30 438	110	34 436	110
1967	60 813	100.0	6.7	9.5	8.5	18.2	18.9	20.3	12.5	3.2	2.3	29 162	106	32 616	106
WHITE															
1994[8]	83 737	100.0	3.3	8.4	8.7	16.4	14.4	16.7	17.3	7.5	7.2	34 028	191	45 034	262
1993[7]	82 387	100.0	3.5	8.4	8.7	16.2	14.9	16.8	17.3	7.4	6.7	33 804	197	44 393	256
1992[6]	81 795	100.0	3.3	8.5	8.7	15.9	15.1	17.3	17.7	7.3	6.2	34 023	165	42 880	191
1991	81 675	100.0	3.0	8.4	8.4	16.0	15.3	17.6	17.5	7.7	6.2	34 350	166	43 005	187
1990	80 968	100.0	3.0	7.9	8.1	15.9	14.7	18.0	18.1	7.6	6.6	35 413	162	44 122	197
1989	80 163	100.0	2.8	7.9	7.9	15.4	14.3	18.0	18.6	8.0	7.0	36 340	177	45 485	210
1988	79 734	100.0	3.0	8.1	7.4	15.7	14.3	18.3	18.7	7.8	6.6	36 055	213	44 432	209
1987[1]	78 519	100.0	3.1	8.3	7.7	15.5	14.3	18.5	18.6	7.8	6.3	35 821	181	44 088	190
1986	77 284	100.0	3.2	8.5	7.8	15.7	14.2	18.4	18.6	7.4	6.2	35 394	172	43 324	185
1985	76 576	100.0	3.5	8.7	7.9	16.2	15.1	18.5	17.7	7.1	5.3	34 306	183	41 676	175
1984	75 328	100.0	3.3	8.8	8.4	16.5	15.0	18.6	17.6	6.8	5.0	33 729	170	40 790	158
1983[2]	74 170	100.0	3.5	8.8	8.5	16.9	15.5	18.8	17.1	6.3	4.6	32 787	147	39 697	153
1982	73 182	100.0	3.5	9.2	8.2	17.1	15.8	19.1	16.7	6.3	4.3	32 738	149	39 237	153
1981	72 845	100.0	3.3	9.0	8.4	17.5	15.2	19.1	17.4	6.3	3.9	33 148	153	39 052	148
1980	71 872	100.0	3.0	9.1	8.3	16.4	15.4	19.9	17.8	6.3	3.9	33 645	173	39 459	151
1979[3]	70 766	100.0	3.1	8.6	7.9	16.4	14.7	19.7	18.8	6.4	4.5	34 565	164	40 705	162
1978	68 028	100.0	3.0	8.6	8.2	16.3	14.7	20.0	18.7	6.2	4.3	34 382	151	40 370	162
1977	66 934	100.0	3.1	8.9	8.6	16.4	15.1	20.3	18.0	5.8	3.7	33 467	141	39 228	127
1976	65 353	100.0	3.2	9.0	8.6	16.6	15.5	20.7	17.6	5.5	3.4	33 155	137	38 662	125
1975	64 392	100.0	3.2	9.3	8.9	16.7	16.4	20.3	17.1	4.9	3.2	32 541	119	37 678	124
1974[4]	62 984	100.0	3.1	8.9	8.2	16.0	17.0	20.3	17.5	5.6	3.4	33 438	126	38 775	126
1973	61 965	100.0	3.6	8.4	8.0	15.3	16.3	20.6	18.3	5.9	3.8	34 592	132	39 847	126
1972	60 618	100.0	4.0	8.4	7.9	15.5	16.3	20.8	17.9	5.5	3.7	33 956	130	39 136	127
1971	59 463	100.0	4.7	8.7	7.9	16.4	17.4	21.1	16.3	4.7	2.8	32 470	124	38 995	120
1970	57 575	100.0	4.8	8.5	7.8	15.5	17.7	21.7	16.5	4.5	2.9	32 643	126	37 143	122
1969	56 248	100.0	4.9	8.4	7.4	15.6	17.8	22.4	16.2	4.7	2.8	32 931	120	37 231	124
1968	55 394	100.0	5.3	8.3	7.7	16.5	18.6	22.5	15.0	3.9	2.2	31 692	118	35 674	118
1967	54 188	100.0	6.1	8.8	7.8	17.6	19.4	21.3	13.3	3.4	2.4	30 412	110	33 808	114

TIPS# [UPF] EDWARD PPINC 33145205 04/02/96 9:08 AM MACHINE: D DATA:PPINC*HH-TIPS-X1. 04/02/96 09:07:58 TAPE: NONE FRAME: 1
TSF:PPINC*92. 04/02/96 09:08:05 UTF:PPINC*93. 04/02/96 09:08:05 META:PPINC*96. 04/02/96 09:08:16

[redacted]

A - Financial - 2

A-Financial-3 P60-189

Table B-3. Families, by Total Money Income, Race, and Hispanic Origin of Householder: 1967 to 1994

[Income in 1994 CPI-U-X1 adjusted dollars. Families as of March of the following year. For meaning of symbols, see text]

Race and Hispanic origin of householder and year	Number (thous.)	Percent distribution									Median income		Mean income	
		Total	Under $5,000	$5,000 to $9,999	$10,000 to $14,999	$15,000 to $24,999	$25,000 to $34,999	$35,000 to $49,999	$50,000 to $74,999	$75,000 to $99,999	$100,000 and over	Value (dollars)	Standard error (dollars)	Value (dollars)	Standard error (dollars)
ALL RACES															
1994[8]	69 313	100.0	3.1	5.6	6.9	15.0	14.3	18.0	19.9	8.8	8.4	38 782	233	49 340	289
1993[7]	68 506	100.0	3.4	6.0	7.0	15.1	14.8	17.7	19.6	8.6	7.8	37 905	197	48 430	299
1992[6]	68 216	100.0	3.5	5.6	6.8	14.7	14.7	18.7	20.2	8.6	7.1	38 632	198	48 711	215
1991	67 173	100.0	3.2	5.5	6.5	14.4	15.4	18.9	20.0	8.9	7.2	39 105	195	47 046	213
1990	66 322	100.0	3.0	4.9	6.4	14.4	14.4	19.4	20.6	9.2	7.7	40 087	192	48 363	223
1989	66 090	100.0	2.8	4.9	6.4	14.1	14.0	19.2	21.1	9.4	8.2	40 890	233	49 606	238
1988	65 837	100.0	2.8	5.2	6.1	14.5	14.2	19.2	21.1	9.3	7.6	40 327	210	48 366	237
1987[5]	65 204	100.0	2.8	5.4	6.0	14.4	14.1	19.7	21.1	9.2	7.3	40 403	187	48 118	215
1986	64 491	100.0	3.0	5.2	6.3	14.7	14.3	19.6	21.2	8.8	7.1	39 833	214	47 224	207
1985	63 558	100.0	3.0	5.6	6.6	15.2	15.2	19.8	20.3	8.2	6.1	38 200	207	45 375	197
1984	62 706	100.0	3.1	5.5	7.1	15.2	15.0	20.2	20.2	7.9	5.8	37 703	167	44 292	175
1983[2]	62 015	100.0	3.3	5.8	7.3	15.5	15.7	20.4	19.6	7.2	5.2	36 714	(NA)	42 883	(NA)
1982	61 393	100.0	3.2	5.8	7.1	16.2	16.0	20.8	19.1	7.2	4.8	36 326	180	42 462	169
1981	61 019	100.0	2.7	5.4	7.1	16.5	15.6	21.0	20.1	7.3	4.4	36 825	158	42 499	163
1980	60 309	100.0	2.4	5.3	6.8	15.4	15.7	21.9	20.7	7.3	4.5	37 857	162	43 171	167
1979[3]	59 550	100.0	2.2	4.8	6.5	15.4	14.9	21.7	21.9	7.4	5.2	39 227	182	44 692	178
1978	57 804	100.0	2.2	4.9	6.7	15.2	15.3	22.1	21.6	7.2	4.8	38 730	178	44 111	176
1977	57 215	100.0	2.3	4.8	7.5	15.6	15.7	22.6	20.7	6.8	4.2	37 540	134	42 828	136
1976	56 710	100.0	2.0	5.1	7.4	16.0	16.2	23.1	20.2	6.2	3.8	37 319	135	42 090	135
1975	56 245	100.0	2.0	5.3	7.6	16.3	17.2	22.8	19.6	5.6	3.5	36 177	137	40 995	132
1974[4]	55 698	100.0	2.1	4.7	7.3	15.5	17.7	22.7	20.0	6.3	3.7	36 842	(NA)	42 007	(NA)
1973	55 053	100.0	2.0	4.9	6.8	15.2	17.1	22.7	20.6	6.6	4.1	37 838	(NA)	42 771	(NA)
1972	54 373	100.0	2.1	5.0	7.0	15.6	17.2	22.7	20.4	6.0	4.0	37 103	(NA)	42 140	(NA)
1971	53 296	100.0	2.3	5.5	7.1	16.7	16.5	23.4	18.3	5.2	3.0	35 365	(NA)	39 828	(NA)
1970	52 227	100.0	2.5	5.4	7.0	15.8	16.8	24.1	18.3	5.0	3.0	35 407	(NA)	39 853	(NA)
1969	51 586	100.0	2.4	5.5	6.7	15.8	19.1	24.7	17.8	5.0	2.9	35 481	(NA)	39 785	(NA)
1968	50 823	100.0	2.6	5.5	7.3	17.1	20.0	24.5	16.5	4.1	2.4	33 933	(NA)	38 013	(NA)
1967	50 111	100.0	2.9	6.5	7.5	18.3	20.8	23.3	14.4	3.6	2.6	32 388	(NA)	35 931	(NA)
WHITE															
1994[8]	58 444	100.0	2.3	4.5	6.2	14.6	14.5	18.5	20.9	9.4	9.1	40 884	211	51 709	327
1993[7]	57 881	100.0	2.4	4.7	6.4	14.7	15.0	18.5	20.8	9.1	8.5	40 306	248	50 836	334
1992[6]	57 669	100.0	2.5	4.3	6.2	14.3	14.9	19.4	21.5	9.2	7.8	40 847	229	49 048	239
1991	57 224	100.0	2.2	4.2	5.9	14.0	15.5	19.5	21.1	9.6	7.8	41 112	229	49 283	234
1990	56 803	100.0	2.1	3.9	5.7	13.9	14.6	20.0	21.8	9.6	8.3	41 858	202	50 495	246
1989	56 590	100.0	2.1	3.8	5.7	13.5	14.1	19.9	22.2	9.9	8.8	42 996	216	51 874	263
1988	56 492	100.0	2.1	3.9	5.3	14.1	14.3	20.0	22.3	9.8	8.1	42 487	261	50 501	261
1987[5]	56 086	100.0	2.1	4.2	5.4	13.9	14.2	20.4	22.3	9.8	7.9	42 249	201	50 264	236
1986	55 676	100.0	2.3	4.2	5.7	14.1	14.4	20.2	22.3	9.1	7.7	41 660	193	49 241	227
1985	54 991	100.0	2.4	4.5	6.0	14.7	15.2	20.4	21.3	8.8	6.8	40 152	216	47 345	215
1984	54 400	100.0	2.4	4.4	6.4	14.7	15.2	21.0	21.3	8.4	6.3	39 491	205	46 246	191
1983[2]	53 890	100.0	2.6	4.6	6.5	15.2	16.0	21.2	20.6	7.7	5.7	38 444	(NA)	44 738	(NA)
1982	53 407	100.0	2.5	4.5	6.3	15.8	16.2	21.5	20.1	7.7	5.3	38 140	189	44 341	184
1981	53 269	100.0	2.2	4.2	6.4	16.0	15.8	21.6	21.2	7.8	4.8	38 682	201	44 302	178
1980	52 710	100.0	1.9	4.3	6.0	14.8	15.9	22.7	21.8	7.8	4.9	39 443	169	44 908	182
1979[3]	52 243	100.0	1.7	3.8	5.7	14.7	15.1	22.5	23.1	7.9	5.6	40 933	178	46 527	192
1978	50 910	100.0	1.8	3.8	6.1	14.7	15.3	22.8	22.8	7.6	5.2	40 328	180	45 799	191
1977	50 530	100.0	1.8	3.8	6.6	15.0	15.8	23.4	21.9	7.2	4.5	39 254	145	44 547	148
1976	50 083	100.0	1.7	3.9	6.7	15.4	16.4	23.8	21.3	6.7	4.2	38 784	127	43 724	145
1975	49 873	100.0	1.7	4.3	6.9	15.8	17.3	23.6	20.6	6.0	3.8	37 625	137	42 485	142
1974[4]	49 440	100.0	1.8	3.7	6.5	15.0	17.9	23.5	20.9	6.8	4.1	38 286	(NA)	43 552	(NA)
1973	48 919	100.0	1.6	4.0	6.0	14.4	17.2	23.6	21.8	7.1	4.4	39 546	(NA)	44 469	(NA)
1972	48 477	100.0	1.8	4.1	6.3	14.6	17.3	23.6	21.3	6.5	4.3	38 549	(NA)	43 746	(NA)
1971	47 641	100.0	2.0	4.6	6.4	15.9	16.7	24.3	19.3	5.5	3.3	36 696	(NA)	41 252	(NA)
1970	46 535	100.0	2.1	4.6	6.5	15.0	16.9	25.0	19.3	5.5	3.3	36 731	(NA)	41 248	(NA)
1969	46 022	100.0	2.0	4.8	6.0	14.9	19.2	25.7	18.9	5.4	3.1	36 839	(NA)	41 199	(NA)
1968	45 437	100.0	2.2	4.8	6.5	16.3	20.3	25.6	17.4	4.4	2.5	35 132	(NA)	39 318	(NA)
1967	44 814	100.0	2.4	5.7	6.7	17.5	21.3	24.4	15.3	3.9	2.7	33 616	(NA)	37 217	(NA)

[8]Revised.

TIPS# [UPF] EDWARD PPINC 33145205 04/02/96 9:12 AM MACHINE: D DATA:PPINC*FAM-TIPS-X1. 04/02/96 09:11:59 TAPE: NONE FRAME: 1
TSF:PPINC*02. 04/02/96 09:12:04 UTF:PPINC*93. 04/02/96 09:12:05 META:PPINC*96. 04/02/96 09:12:14

[redacted]

A-Financial-3

Table B. **Percentage of Households in Selected Income Intervals: 1969, 1974, 1979, 1984, 1989, and 1994**
[Intervals in 1994 dollars]

Year	Total	Less than $25,000	$25,000 to $74,999	$75,000 and over
1994[1]	100.0	39.4	47.0	13.6
1989	100.0	36.6	49.4	14.1
1984	100.0	39.5	49.4	11.0
1979[2]	100.0	38.4	51.4	10.1
1974[3]	100.0	38.6	53.0	8.3
1969	100.0	38.9	54.2	6.8

[1]Reflects the implementation of 1990 census adjusted population controls, a change in data collection method from paper-pencil to computer-assisted interviewing, and changes in income reporting limits.
[2]Implementation of 1980 census population controls.
[3]Implementation of a new March CPS processing system.

Table C. **Real Household Income at Selected Percentiles of the Household Income Distribution: 1969, 1974, 1979, 1984, 1989, and 1994**
[Income in 1994 dollars]

Year	20th percentile limit	50th (median)	80th percentile limit	95th percentile limit
1994[1]	13,426	32,264	62,841	109,821
1989	14,457	34,547	64,192	109,656
1984	13,551	31,972	59,023	97,706
1979[2]	14,019	32,966	58,078	93,847
1974[3]	13,878	31,973	55,205	87,378
1969	13,443	31,555	52,284	81,999

[1]Reflects the implementation of 1990 census adjusted population controls, a change in data collection method from paper-pencil to computer-assisted interviewing, and changes in income reporting limits.
[2]Implementation of 1980 census population controls.
[3]Implementation of a new March CPS processing system.

Table D. **Household Income Ratios of Selected Percentiles: 1969, 1974, 1979, 1984, 1989, and 1994**

Year	95th/20th	20th/50th	80th/50th	95th/50th
1994[1]	8.18	.42	1.95	3.40
1989	7.58	.42	1.86	3.17
1984	7.21	.42	1.85	3.06
1979[2]	6.69	.43	1.76	2.85
1974[3]	6.30	.43	1.73	2.73
1969	6.10	.43	1.66	2.60

[1]Reflects the implementation of 1990 census adjusted population controls, a change in data collection method from paper-pencil to computer-assisted interviewing, and changes in income reporting limits. [2]Implementation of 1980 census population controls. [3]Implementation of a new March CPS processing system.

Another device by which evidence of growing income inequality can be observed is by measuring the "dollar distances" between households located at various points along the income distribution. Tables C and D show real household incomes at the 20th, 50th (the median), 80th, and 95th percentiles and various ratios of these incomes. The ratios incorporating the 50th percentile show how incomes changed in certain parts of the distribution relative to the median, while the 95th-to-20th ratio shows the extent to which the lower and upper parts of the distribution have pulled apart.

Household income at the 95th percentile in 1994 was $109,821 compared to $13,426 at the 20th percentile, a ratio of 8.18, or in other words, incomes at the top of the distribution were over 8 times as large as those towards the bottom of the distribution. In 1969, this ratio was 6.10. Real incomes at the 95th percentile had grown much faster than those at the 20th.

In 1994, real income at the 50th percentile (median) was $32,264, and, at the 20th percentile, $13,426, for an income ratio of .42. Twenty-five years earlier the ratio was .43, indicating little change in the dollar distance between

A-Financial 5 -

★652★

Family Living Expenses

Raising a Child, Single-Parent Vs. Husband-Wife Families: 1992

A comparison of estimated expenditures on a child by single-parent and husband-wife families. Estimates are for the younger child in a two-child family with household income less than $32,100 for the overall United States. (34,700 for 96)

Age of child	Single-parent households	196	Husband-wife households	196
0-2	$4,030	4770	$4,630	5470
3-5	$5,110	5360	$4,970	5780
6-8	$5,520	6060	$4,940	5900
9-11	$5,840	5460	$4,780	5940
12-14	$5,690	6120	$5,500	6740
15-17	$6,020	6830	$5,870	6450
Total	$96,630	104,400	$92,070	110,040

Source: Family Economics Research Group, U.S. Department of Agriculture, *Expenditures on a Child by Families 1992*, Table 3, p. 9, "A comparison of estimated expenditures on a child by single-parent and husband-wife families, 1992," and 1996

★653★

Family Living Expenses

Tax Burden on Families: 1960-1990

Federal tax burden on families with children (percent of income). The tax bite on families was most severe during the 1970s, when for every $1.00 in real income gained (above the rate of inflation), federal taxes took 66 cents.

Year	% of Income
1960	12%
1965	14%
1970	16%
1975	18%
1980	24%
1985	24%
1990	24%

Source: Bennett, *The Index of Leading Cultural Indicators*, The Heritage Foundation, Washington, D.C., Vol. 1, March 1993, p. 22.

T - A - Financial 5

A - Women + Chn - 1

★848★

Parents

Characteristics of Children's Families: 1970-1988

Selected characteristics of families with children.

Characteristic	Total			Two-parent			Mother-only		
	1970	1980	1988	1970	1980	1988	1970	1980	1988
Average number of children per family	2.33	1.89	1.81 1994-1.84	2.33	1.91	1.84 1994-1.88	2.36	1.87	1.74 1994-1.75
Educational attainment of parent									
High school grad.	61.9%	73.6%	80.1%	64.1%	76.8%	83.3%	44.5%	59.8%	67.2%
College grad.	14.9%	19.7% 1994- 82.8 23.9	22.6%	16.3%	22.6% 1994- 85.9 28.6	26.3%	3.2%	6.3% 1994- 72.9 9.0	8.2%
Percent of children with mother in labor force									
Children under age 18	39.2%	53.7%	61.7%	37.6%	51.7%	61.7%	53.2%	62.5%	61.6%
Under age 6	28.6%	43.4%	52.7%	27.6%	42.2%	53.7%	40.4%	50.3%	47.4%
Ages 6-17	43.8%	58.1%	66.4%	41.8%	56.1%	66.2%	57.2%	66.6%	67.2%

Source: Suzanne M. Bianchi, *America's Children: Mixed Prospects*, Population Reference Bureau, Inc., Washington, D.C., Table 5, p. 17, "Selected Characteristics of Children's Families, 1970, 1980, and 1988." Primary sources: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *Current Population Reports*, Series P-20, No. 218, Tables 1 and 14; No. 368, Tables 1 and 8; No. 437, Tables 1 and 8; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Handbook Bulletin 2217, Table 55, and unpublished tabulations. Family includes families in which the householder has biological, adoptive, and/or stepchildren.

P20-483 (Mar 94) (Table 1&6)

A - Women + Children - 1

Current Pop. Reports
Fertility of Am. W. 1994

A - Women + Children - 2

Table H. **Women 15 to 44 Years Old Who Have Had a Child in the Last Year and Their Percentage in the Labor Force: Selected Surveys, June 1976 to 1994**

[Numbers in thousands]

Survey year	Number of women	In the labor force	
		Number	Percent
1994	3,890	2,066	53.1
1992	3,688	1,985	53.8
1990	3,913	2,068	52.8
1990	[1]3,809	2,024	53.1
1988	[1]3,667	1,866	50.9
1987	[1]3,701	1,881	50.8
1986	[1]3,625	1,805	49.8
1985	[1]3,497	1,691	48.4
1984	[1]3,311	1,547	46.7
1983	[1]3,625	1,563	43.1
1982	[1]3,433	1,508	43.9
1981	[1]3,381	1,411	41.7
1980	[1]3,247	1,233	38.0
1978	[1]3,168	1,120	35.3
1976	[1]2,797	865	31.0

[1]Women 18 to 44 years old.

Source: June Current Population Surveys, 1976, 1978, 1980 to 1988, 1990, 1992 and 1994.

White children are less likely to be living with one parent than are Black children or children of Hispanic origin. The proportions living with one parent in 1993 were 21 percent for White children, 57 percent for Black children, and 32 percent for children of Hispanic origin.

Table G and figure 4 show the proportion of children in a one-parent arrangement who lived with a divorced parent compared with those living with a parent who had never been married. Notice the years 1982 and 1983 are highlighted. During these years, improvements were made to the Census Bureau's data collection and processing procedures to help identify parent-child subfamilies that might otherwise have been overlooked.[5] (This accounts for most of the large increase in children of never-married parents between 1981 and 1983.) This analysis, therefore, compares changes in the proportions before and after the improvement period rather than the overall change between the years 1970 and 1993.

Between 1970 and 1981, the proportion of children living with one parent who lived with a divorced parent rose by one-half (from 30.2 to 43.8 percent), while the proportion living with a never-married parent doubled, from 6.8 to 15.2 percent. In the 10 years since the improvements were implemented (between 1983 and 1993), the proportion of one-parent children who lived with a divorced parent declined from 42.0 to 37.1 percent, while the proportion who lived with a never-married parent continued to rise, from 24.0 to 35.0 percent. Thus, a decade ago, a child in a one-parent situation was almost twice as likely to be living with a divorced parent as with a never-married parent, while today, the child is just slightly more likely to be living with a divorced parent (37 percent) than with a never-married parent (35 percent).

The increase in children living with one parent is also reflected in number of births to unmarried women collected by the National Center for Health Statistics. Between 1980 and 1991, the number of births to unmarried women rose by 82 percent. In 1991, there were 1.2 million births to unmarried mothers, representing 3 out of 10 total births in that year. The comparable figures for 1980 were 0.7 million births, fewer than 2 out of 10 total births.[6]

GRANDCHILDREN

In 1993, there were 3.4 million grandchildren under 18 years old living in the home of their grandparent(s). This represented 5 percent of all children under 18, up only slightly from 3 percent of all children in 1970 (table H). The number of grandchildren shown here includes only those situations where the grandparents owned or rented the home; it does not include grandparents living in the home of the child's parent(s).

Most of the increase in grandchildren living with grandparents has been among children with only a mother present in the household. Since 1970, the proportion of grandchildren with neither parent present

[5]For a more detailed discussion of the procedural improvement, see Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 399, "*Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1984*," p. 8.

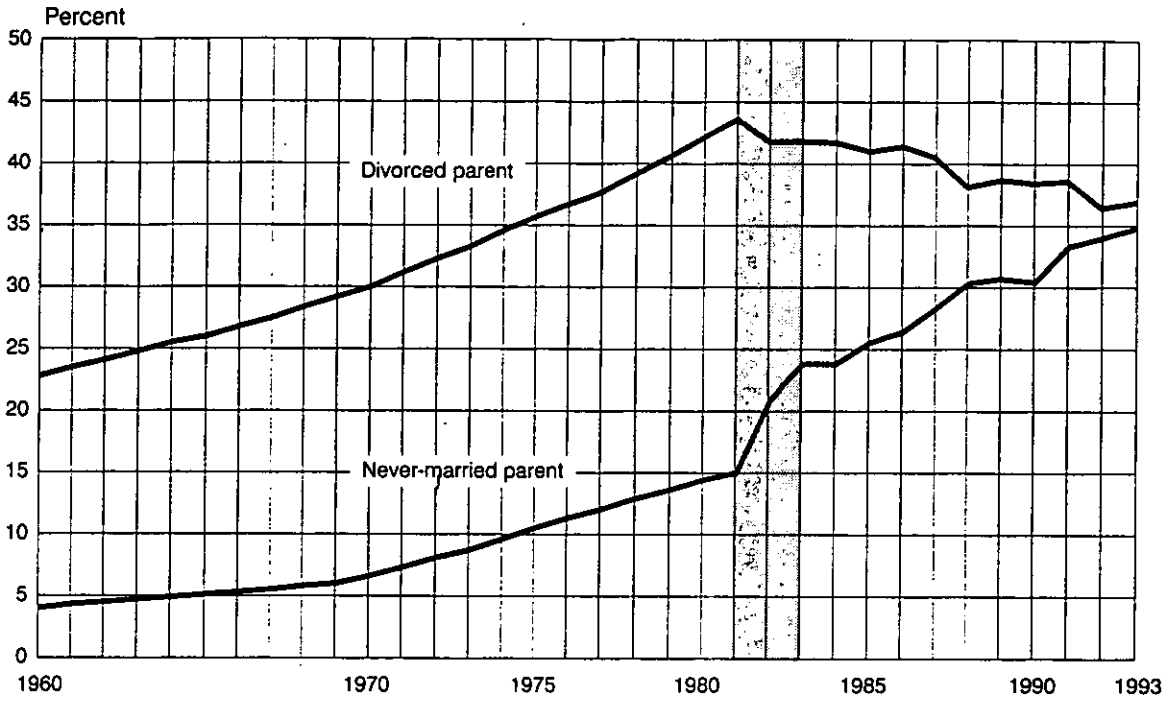
[6]The National Center for Health Statistics, Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol. 42, No. 3, Supplement, September 9, 1993, "*Advance Report of Final Natality Statistics, 1991*."

Table G. **Proportion of Children in Single-Parent Situations Living With a Divorced or a Never-Married Parent: 1960, 1970, 1975, and 1980-1993**

Year	Children living with a—	
	Divorced parent	Never-married parent
1960	23.0	4.2
1970	30.2	6.8
1975	35.9	10.7
1980	42.4	14.6
1981	43.8	15.2
1982*	42.0	21.0
1983**	42.0	24.0
1984	41.9	24.0
1985	41.2	25.7
1986	41.6	26.6
1987	40.7	28.5
1988	38.3	30.5
1989	38.9	30.9
1990	38.6	30.6
1991	38.8	33.5
1992	36.6	34.2
1993	37.1	35.0

*Partial implementation of processing change.
** Full implementation of processing change.

Figure 4.
Children of Single Parents, by Marital Status of Parent: 1960-93



Note: Shaded area reflects processing change implementation.

has declined from 43 to 30 percent in 1993, while the proportion with mother only present has increased from 37 to 49 percent. Continued high levels of divorce and the rise in out-of-wedlock childbearing had a substantial role in this change, as did the improvement in data collection and processing mentioned in the preceding section.

Black children were more likely to live in their grandparents' home than White children or children of Hispanic origin. In 1993, 12 percent of Black children lived in the home of their grandparents, compared with 4 percent for Whites and 6 percent for Hispanics.

Similar proportions of Black, White, and Hispanic grandchildren had only their mother present. Black grandchildren were more likely than other grandchildren to have no parent present at all and less likely to have both parents living with them in the grandparent's home. Of the 1.3 million Black grandchildren in 1993, 53 percent had only their mother present (versus 46 and 47 percent for Whites and Hispanics, respectively), 39 percent had neither parent present (versus 25 and 23 percent for Whites and Hispanics), and 4 percent had both parents present (versus 20 and 23 percent for Whites and Hispanics). White and Hispanic grandchildren were as likely to have both parents present as to have neither present.

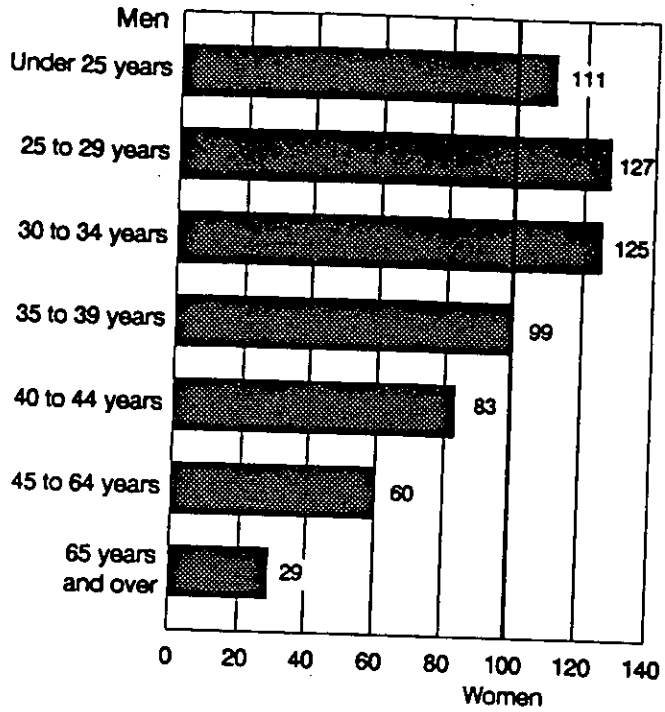
RELATED REPORTS

Detailed statistics of household type and composition for 1993 and historical data back to 1947 on households and families by type are presented in Series P20-477, *Household and Family Characteristics: March 1993.* Projections for the United States of the number of households and families were published in Series P-25, No. 986, *Projections of the Number of Households and Families: 1986 to 2000.* Estimates of the number and characteristics of households and families that continue, discontinue, and/or are newly formed over 1-year and 2-year periods are presented in Current Population Reports, Series P23-179, *When Households Continue, Discontinue, and Form.* The most up-to-date information on the recent marital history of the population may be found in Current Population Reports, Series P23-180, *Marriage, Divorce, and Remarriage in the 1990's.* A series of graphs and interpretive text illustrating important trends of the past several decades that have influenced household and family circumstances of all persons, with special emphasis on children, is available in chartbook form in Current Population Reports, Series P23-181, *Households, Families, and Children: A Thirty-Year Perspective.* Sixteen graphs and interpretive text focusing on changes for children between 1980 and

MS: LA 1990

A - Women + Chn - 5

Figure 3.
Ratio of Unmarried Men per 100 Unmarried Women: 1990



of unmarried men to unmarried women is much larger at younger ages, suggesting that the marriage prospects for younger women are better than for older women. At older ages, the ratio is considerably smaller because women are more likely to be widowed and are less likely to remarry after either divorce or widowhood.

At peak marrying ages, unmarried men outnumber unmarried women. Among persons under age 25, there were 111 unmarried men for every 100 unmarried women, and in the 25-to-29 age group, there were 127 men for every 100 women. Beginning with the 40-to-44 age group, however, the ratio begins to reverse until there were only 29 unmarried men for every 100 unmarried women in the 65-and-over group.

CHILDREN UNDER 18 YEARS OLD

As marital circumstances of the adult population change, so do the living arrangements of children. With the rise in divorce and increased delay in first marriage, the proportion of children living with two parents is declining. In 1990, 73 percent of children under 18 years lived with two parents, compared with 85 percent in 1970 (table E and figure 4). These two parents are not always the natural parents of the child; they may include stepparents and parents by adoption. It has been estimated that about 15 percent of children living with two parents are stepchildren.[2]

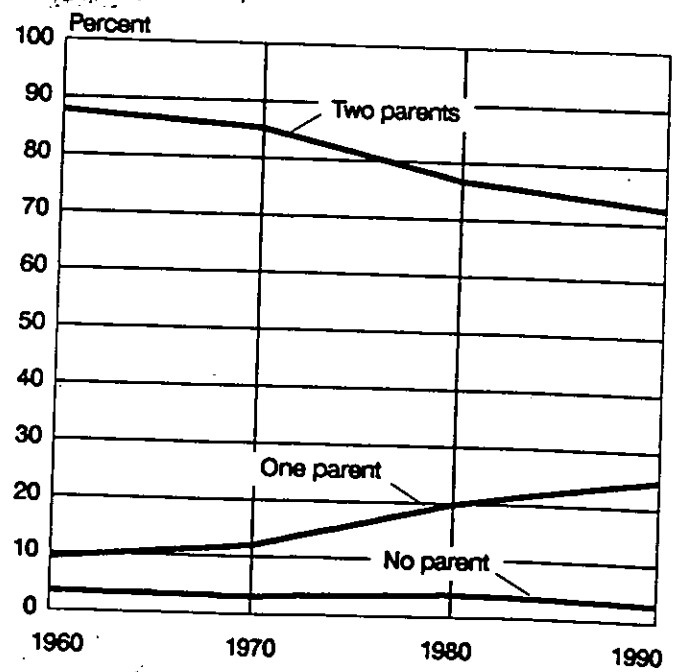
The proportion of children under 18 living with only one parent has doubled in the past two decades, from 12 percent to 25 percent. While the majority of children in a one-parent situation still live with their mothers (87 percent), the proportion living with their fathers has risen 4 percentage points in the past decade, from 9 percent in 1980 to 13 percent in 1990.

Although the largest proportion of single-parent children lived with a divorced parent (39 percent), this is slightly lower than the 1980 proportion of 42 percent. The next highest, and fastest growing, percentage lived with a parent who had never married. Between 1960 and 1990, the proportion living with a never-married parent rose from 4 percent to 31 percent (table F), as childbearing among never-married women has increased as they have posponed marriage.

Part of this stiking increase in the number of children with a never-married parent is a resuli of a procedural improvement in the Census Bureau's data collection

[2]Current Population Reports, Series P-23, No. 162, *Studies in Marriage and the Family*, p. 29.

Figure 4.
Children Under 18, by Presence of Parents: 1960-90



(See Table E for precise numbers

Women +
A - Children - 5

Table E. **Living Arrangements of Children Under 18 Years, by Race and Hispanic Origin: 1990, 1980, 1970, and 1960**

(Numbers in thousands. Excludes persons under 18 years old who were maintaining households or family groups)

Living arrangement	1990	1980	1970	1960	Percent distribution			
					1990	1980	1970	1960
ALL RACES								
Children under 18 years	64,137	63,427	69,162	63,727	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Living with —								
Two parents	46,503	48,624	58,939	55,877	72.5	76.7	85.2	87.7
One parent	15,867	12,466	8,199	5,829	24.7	19.7	11.9	9.1
Mother only	13,874	11,406	7,452	5,105	21.6	18.0	10.8	8.0
Father only	1,993	1,060	748	724	3.1	1.7	1.1	1.1
Other relatives	1,422	1,949	1,547	1,601	2.2	3.1	2.2	2.5
Nonrelatives only	346	388	477	420	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.7
WHITE								
Children under 18 years	51,390	52,242	58,790	55,077	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Living with —								
Two parents	40,593	43,200	52,624	50,082	79.0	82.7	89.5	90.9
One parent	9,870	7,901	5,109	3,932	19.2	15.1	8.7	7.1
Mother only	8,321	7,059	4,581	3,381	16.2	13.5	7.8	6.1
Father only	1,549	842	528	551	3.0	1.6	0.9	1.0
Other relatives	708	887	696	774	1.4	1.7	1.2	1.4
Nonrelatives only	220	254	362	288	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5
BLACK[1]								
Children under 18 years	10,018	9,375	9,422	8,650	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Living with —								
Two parents	3,781	3,956	5,508	5,795	37.7	42.2	58.5	67.0
One parent	5,485	4,297	2,996	1,897	54.8	45.8	31.8	21.9
Mother only	5,132	4,117	2,783	1,723	51.2	43.9	29.5	19.9
Father only	353	180	213	173	3.5	1.9	2.3	2.0
Other relatives	654	999	820	827	6.5	10.7	8.7	9.6
Nonrelatives only	98	123	97	132	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.5
HISPANIC[2]								
Children under 18 years	7,174	5,459	[3]4,006	(NA)	100.0	100.0	100.0	(NA)
Living with —								
Two parents	4,789	4,116	3,111	(NA)	66.8	75.4	77.7	(NA)
One parent	2,154	1,152	(NA)	(NA)	30.0	21.1	(NA)	(NA)
Mother only	1,943	1,069	(NA)	(NA)	27.1	19.6	(NA)	(NA)
Father only	211	83	(NA)	(NA)	2.9	1.5	(NA)	(NA)
Other relatives	177	183	(NA)	(NA)	2.5	3.4	(NA)	(NA)
Nonrelatives only	54	8	(NA)	(NA)	0.8	0.1	(NA)	(NA)

NA Not available.
[1]Black and other races for 1960.
[2]Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.
[3]All persons under 18 years.
Source of 1970 Hispanic origin data: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, PC(2)-1C, *Persons of Spanish Origin.*

Source of 1960 data: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1960 Census of Population, PC(2)-4B, *Persons by Family Characteristics*, tables 1, 2, and 19. (Excludes inmates of institutions and military in barracks.)

and processing in 1982-83.[3] This procedural change helped to identify parent-child subfamilies that might otherwise have been overlooked. At least two-thirds of the measured increase between 1981 and 1983 resulted from the improvement in data collection and processing. Nevertheless, the percentage of children living with a never-married parent was increasing before the procedural change and has continued since (table G and figure 5). Between 1970 and 1981, the proportion rose 8.4 percentage points (0.8 percentage points per year) and 6.6 percentage points between 1984 and 1990 (1.1 percentage points per year). The proportion of children living with a divorced parent rose 13.6 percentage points in the 11 years prior to the change and declined

[3]For a more detailed discussion of the procedural improvement, see Current Population Reports, Series P-20, No. 399, *Marital Status and Living Arrangements: March 1984*, p. 8.

A - Women + Ch. - 6

Families Maintained by Women: 1980-1992

Women who maintain families, by race, Hispanic origin, and presence of children, 1980, 1985, and 1992. Because of the absence of a husband or a second earner, these women are very active in the labor force.

[Numbers in thousands.]

Type of family	1980	1985	1992
Total			
Total families	59,327	62,508	66,785
With children under 18	30,411	31,158	32,442
[Continued]			
Families maintained by women	8,780	10,122	11,728
Percent of total families	14.8%	16.2%	17.6%
With children under 18	5,359	6,147	7,075
White families			
Total families	51,989	54,116	56,925
With children under 18	25,963	26,176	26,788
Families maintained by women	6,132	6,927	7,773
Percent of white families	11.8%	12.8%	13.7%
With children under 18	3,501	4,011	4,507
Black families			
Total families	6,385	6,827	7,624
With children under 18	3,888	4,009	4,389
Families maintained by women	2,501	2,950	3,577
Percent of black families	39.7%	43.2%	46.9%
With children under 18	1,771	1,991	2,355
Hispanic-origin families			
Total families	3,128	3,979	5,166
With children under 18	2,146	2,641	3,334
Families maintained by women	641	951	1,244
Percent of Hispanic-origin families	20.5%	23.9%	24.1%
With children under 18	483	685	864

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, "Facts on Working Women," No. 93-3, June 1993, p. 3, Table 2, "Women Who Maintain Families, by Race, Hispanic Origin, and Presence of Children, 1980, 1985, and 1992." Primary source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, *Employment and Earnings, January 1981, 1986, and 1993.*

A - Women + Children - 6

★898★

Domestic Life

Mothers Working: 1988

Mothers in the labor force in selected countries. The proportion of U.S. mothers who work outside the home is comparable to mothers in other developed countries.

Country	Mothers, with children, in the labor force	
	Under age 18	Under age 3
United States	65%	53%
Canada	67%[1]	58%
Denmark	86%	84%
Germany (western)	48%	40%
France	66%	60%
Italy	44%	45%
Sweden	89%[1]	86%[2]
United Kingdom	59%	37%

Source: Dennis A. Ahlburg and Carol J. De Vita, "New Realities of the American Family," *Population Bulletin*, Vol 47, No. 2, August 1992, p. 26, Table 6, "Mothers in the Labor Force for Selected Countries, 1988." Primary source: Constance Sorrentino, *Monthly Labor Review* (March 1990). Data for the United States, Canada, and Sweden are for 1988; data for other countries are for 1986. *Notes:* 1. Children under 16 years. 2. Children under 7 years.

Education

★899★

Expenditures on Education: 1970 to 1985

Total education expenditures as a percent of total government expenditure, selected countries.

Country	Education expenditure as % of total govt. expenditure					
	1970	1975	1980	1983	1984	1985
Australia	13.3%	14.8%	14.8%	13.6%	13.2%	12.8%
Canada	24.1%	17.8%	17.3%	NA	15.2%	12.7%
China	NA	4.2%	6.1%	8.1%	NA	NA
Fed. Rep. of Germany	9.2%	10.7%	10.1%	9.5%	9.2%	9.2%
France[1]	NA	NA	NA	18.5%	NA	NA
Hungary	9.6%	4.2%	5.2%	6.6%	6.4%	6.4%
India	10.7%	8.6%	10.0%	9.2%	9.0%	9.4%
Israel	8.1%	7.6%	7.3%	9.2%	9.2%	NA
Italy[2]	11.9%	9.4%	NA	9.6%	9.8%	9.1%
Japan	20.4%	22.4%	19.6%	18.7%	18.1%	17.9%
Mexico[3]	8.5%	11.9%	16.7%	6.4%	NA	16.2%

[Continued]

A - Women + Chn - 7

the middle and lower part of the income distribution. On the other hand, when the income ratios between the 80th and the median and the ratio between the 95th and the median are examined over the 1969-94 period, a significant widening is observed. In the former case, the ratio widened from 1.66 to 1.95 and in the latter, from 2.60 to 3.40. These ratios confirm the fact that to the extent that household incomes were rising in the 1969 to 1994 period, they were rising fastest in the upper half of the household income distribution.

State Income Data

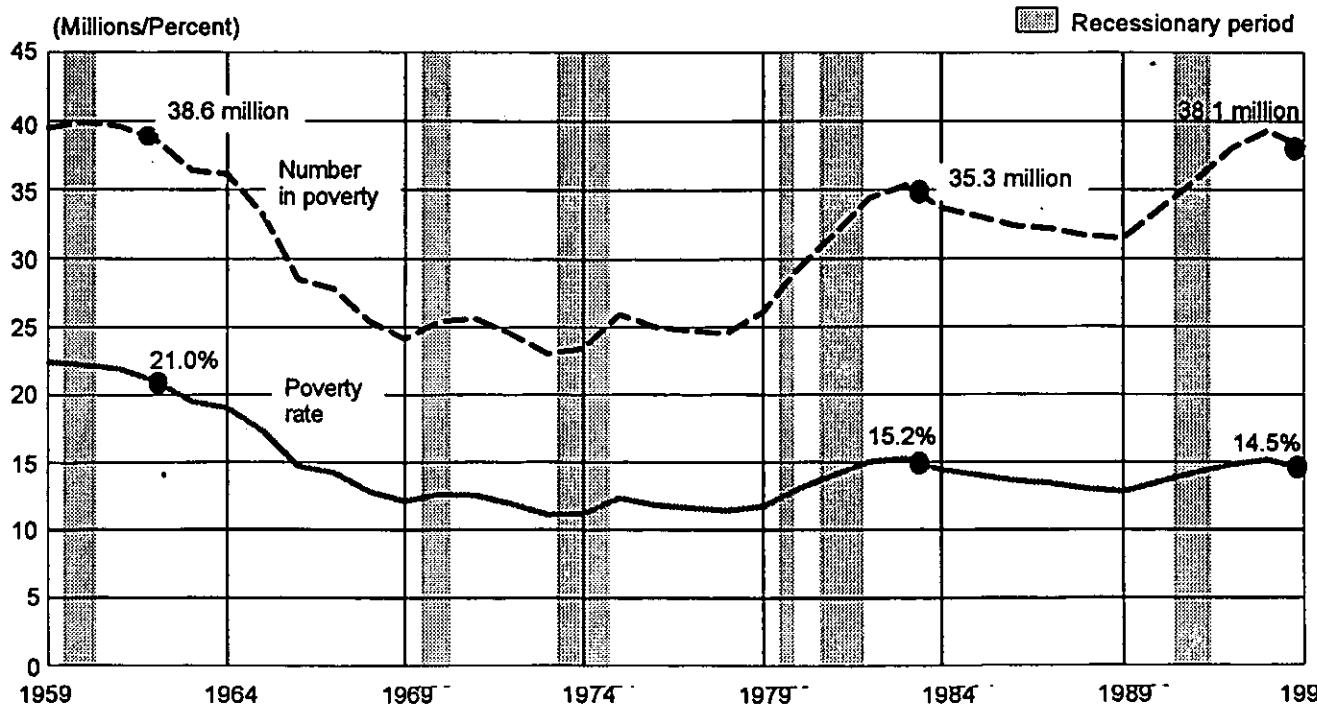
Table E of this report shows information on median household income by State. These data are being made available to meet the large number of requests received from data users for subnational income estimates. The CPS is designed to collect reliable data on income primarily at the national level and secondarily at the regional level. When the income data are tabulated by State, the estimates are considered less reliable and, therefore, particular caution should be used when trying to interpret the results. To reduce the chances of misinterpreting annual changes in State income estimates, the Census Bureau chose to evaluate changes based on 2-year averages.

Median income of households and the respective standard errors for States for 1992, 1993, and 1994 (in 1994 constant dollars) are shown in table E. This table also includes two 2-year averages of median household income, for 1992-1993 and 1993-1994 along with the numerical differences and percent changes between the 2-year averages by State.

Based on the two 2-year averages, real median household income declined significantly for three States, California, Kansas, and New Hampshire. The same type of comparison shows that the median household income increased for four States, Colorado, Iowa, Mississippi, and Tennessee. The median household income for the remaining 43 States and the District of Columbia did not change significantly.

The Census Bureau also chooses to use 3-year averages to evaluate the relative standing of each State. This was done, again, to reduce the chances of misinterpreting the results. Comparing the income among the States using the 3-year average of 1992-1994 shows that the median household income of Alaska, although not statistically different from that of Hawaii, was higher than the remaining 48 States and the District of Columbia. Conversely, the median household income of West Virginia, although not statistically different from the median for Mississippi, was lower than the remaining 48 States and the District of Columbia. The relative standing of the remaining States and the District of Columbia is less clear because of sampling variability surrounding the estimates.

Figure 3.
Poverty: 1959 to 1994



Shaded areas = Recessionary periods.

B-1

B-2 P60-189

Table B–5. Poverty Status of Persons by Family Relationship, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1959 to 1994

(Numbers in thousands. Persons as of March of the following year)

Year and characteristic	All persons			Persons in families						Unrelated individuals		
		Below poverty level		All families			Families with female householder, no husband present				Below poverty level	
					Below poverty level			Below poverty level				
	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent
ALL RACES												
1994	261,616	38,059	14.5	221,430	28,985	13.1	37,253	14,380	38.6	38,538	8,287	21.5
1993	259,278	39,265	15.1	219,489	29,927	13.6	37,861	14,636	38.7	38,038	8,388	22.1
1992[r]	256,549	38,014	14.8	217,936	28,961	13.3	36,446	14,205	39.0	36,842	8,075	21.9
1991	251,179	35,708	14.2	212,716	27,143	12.8	34,790	13,824	39.7	36,839	7,773	21.1
1990	248,644	33,585	13.5	210,967	25,232	12.0	33,795	12,578	37.2	36,056	7,446	20.7
1989	245,992	31,528	12.8	209,515	24,066	11.5	32,525	11,668	35.9	35,185	6,760	19.2
1988[r]	243,530	31,745	13.0	208,056	24,048	11.6	32,164	11,972	37.2	34,340	7,070	20.6
1987[r]	240,982	32,221	13.4	206,877	24,725	12.0	31,893	12,148	38.1	32,992	6,857	20.8
1986	238,554	32,370	13.6	205,459	24,754	12.0	31,152	11,944	38.3	31,679	6,846	21.6
1985	236,594	33,064	14.0	203,963	25,729	12.6	30,878	11,600	37.6	31,351	6,725	21.5
1984	233,816	33,700	14.4	202,288	26,458	13.1	30,844	11,831	38.4	30,268	6,609	21.8
1983	231,700	35,303	15.2	201,338	27,933	13.9	30,049	12,072	40.2	29,158	6,740	23.1
1982	229,412	34,398	15.0	200,385	27,349	13.6	28,834	11,701	40.6	27,908	6,458	23.1
1981	227,157	31,822	14.0	198,541	24,850	12.5	28,587	11,051	38.7	27,714	6,490	23.4
1980	225,027	29,272	13.0	196,963	22,601	11.5	27,565	10,120	36.7	27,133	6,227	22.9
1979	222,903	26,072	11.7	195,860	19,964	10.2	26,927	9,400	34.9	26,170	5,743	21.9
1978	215,656	24,497	11.4	191,071	19,062	10.0	26,032	9,269	35.6	24,585	5,435	22.1
1977	213,867	24,720	11.6	190,757	19,505	10.2	25,404	9,205	36.2	23,110	5,216	22.6
1976	212,303	24,975	11.8	190,844	19,632	10.3	24,204	9,029	37.3	21,459	5,344	24.9
1975	210,864	25,877	12.3	190,630	20,789	10.9	23,580	8,846	37.5	20,234	5,088	25.1
1974	209,362	23,370	11.2	190,436	18,817	9.9	23,165	8,462	36.5	18,926	4,553	24.1
1973	207,621	22,973	11.1	189,361	18,299	9.7	21,823	8,178	37.5	18,260	4,674	25.6
1972	206,004	24,460	11.9	189,193	19,577	10.3	21,264	8,114	38.2	16,811	4,883	29.0
1971	204,554	25,559	12.5	188,242	20,405	10.8	20,153	7,797	38.7	16,311	5,154	31.6
1970	202,183	25,420	12.6	186,692	20,330	10.9	19,673	7,503	38.1	15,491	5,090	32.9
1969	199,517	24,147	12.1	184,891	19,175	10.4	17,995	6,879	38.2	14,626	4,972	34.0
1968	197,628	25,389	12.8	183,825	20,695	11.3	18,048	6,990	38.7	13,803	4,694	34.0
1967	195,672	27,769	14.2	182,558	22,771	12.5	17,788	6,898	38.8	13,114	4,998	38.1
1966	193,388	28,510	14.7	181,117	23,809	13.1	17,240	6,861	39.8	12,271	4,701	38.3
1965	191,413	33,185	17.3	179,281	28,358	15.8	16,371	7,524	46.0	12,132	4,827	39.8
1964	189,710	36,055	19.0	177,653	30,912	17.4	(NA)	7,297	44.4	12,057	5,143	42.7
1963	187,258	36,436	19.5	176,076	31,498	17.9	(NA)	7,646	47.7	11,182	4,938	44.2
1962	184,276	38,625	21.0	173,263	33,623	19.4	(NA)	7,781	50.3	11,013	5,002	45.4
1961	181,277	39,628	21.9	170,131	34,509	20.3	(NA)	7,252	48.1	11,146	5,119	45.9
1960	179,503	39,851	22.2	168,615	34,925	20.7	(NA)	7,247	48.9	10,888	4,926	45.2
1959	176,557	39,490	22.4	165,858	34,562	20.8	(NA)	7,014	49.4	10,699	4,928	46.1
WHITE												
1994	216,460	25,379	11.7	182,546	18,474	10.1	22,713	7,228	31.8	32,569	6,292	19.3
1993	214,899	26,226	12.2	181,330	18,968	10.5	23,224	7,199	31.0	32,112	6,443	20.1
1992[r]	213,060	25,259	11.9	180,409	18,294	10.1	22,453	6,907	30.8	31,170	6,147	19.7
1991	210,121	23,747	11.3	177,613	17,268	9.7	21,604	6,806	31.5	31,201	5,872	18.8
1990	208,611	22,326	10.7	176,504	15,916	9.0	20,845	6,210	29.8	30,833	5,739	18.6
1989	206,853	20,785	10.0	175,857	15,179	8.6	20,362	5,723	28.1	29,993	5,063	16.9
1988[r]	205,235	20,715	10.1	175,111	15,001	8.6	20,396	5,950	29.2	29,315	5,314	18.1
1987[r]	203,605	21,195	10.4	174,488	15,593	8.9	20,244	5,989	29.6	28,290	5,174	18.3
1986	202,282	22,183	11.0	174,024	16,393	9.4	20,163	6,171	30.6	27,143	5,198	19.2
1985	200,918	22,860	11.4	172,863	17,125	9.9	20,105	5,990	29.8	27,067	5,299	19.6
1984	198,941	22,955	11.5	171,839	17,299	10.1	19,727	5,866	29.7	26,094	5,181	19.9
1983	197,496	23,984	12.1	171,407	18,377	10.7	19,256	6,017	31.2	25,206	5,189	20.6
1982	195,919	23,517	12.0	170,748	18,015	10.6	18,374	5,686	30.9	24,300	5,041	20.7
1981	194,504	21,553	11.1	169,868	16,127	9.5	18,795	5,600	29.8	23,913	5,061	21.2
1980	192,912	19,699	10.2	168,756	14,587	8.6	17,642	4,940	28.0	23,370	4,760	20.4

See footnotes at end of table.

B-2

Table B-6. Poverty Status of Persons by Age, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1959 to 1994

(Numbers in thousands. Persons as of March of the following year)

Year and characteristic	Under 18 years						18 to 64 years			65 years and over		
	All persons			Related children in families				Below poverty level			Below poverty level	
	Total	Below poverty level		Total	Below poverty level		Total			Total		
		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent
ALL RACES												
1994	70,020	15,289	21.8	68,819	14,610	21.2	160,329	19,107	11.9	31,267	3,663	11.7
1993	69,292	15,727	22.7	68,040	14,961	22.0	159,208	19,781	12.4	30,779	3,755	12.2
1992[r]	68,440	15,294	22.3	67,256	14,521	21.6	157,680	18,793	11.9	30,430	3,928	12.9
1991	65,918	14,341	21.8	64,800	13,658	21.1	154,671	17,585	11.4	30,590	3,781	12.4
1990	65,049	13,431	20.6	63,908	12,715	19.9	153,502	16,496	10.7	30,093	3,658	12.2
1989	64,144	12,590	19.6	63,225	12,001	19.0	152,282	15,575	10.2	29,566	3,363	11.4
1988[r]	63,747	12,455	19.5	62,906	11,935	19.0	150,761	15,809	10.5	29,022	3,481	12.0
1987[r]	63,294	12,843	20.3	62,423	12,275	19.7	149,201	15,815	10.6	28,487	3,563	12.5
1986	62,948	12,876	20.5	62,009	12,257	19.8	147,631	16,017	10.8	27,975	3,477	12.4
1985	62,876	13,010	20.7	62,019	12,483	20.1	146,396	16,598	11.3	27,322	3,456	12.6
1984	62,447	13,420	21.5	61,681	12,929	21.0	144,551	16,952	11.7	26,818	3,330	12.4
1983	62,334	13,911	22.3	61,578	13,427	21.8	143,052	17,767	12.4	26,313	3,625	13.8
1982	62,345	13,647	21.9	61,565	13,139	21.3	141,328	17,000	12.0	25,738	3,751	14.6
1981	62,449	12,505	20.0	61,756	12,068	19.5	139,477	15,464	11.1	25,231	3,853	15.3
1980	62,914	11,543	18.3	62,168	11,114	17.9	137,428	13,858	10.1	24,686	3,871	15.7
1979	63,375	10,377	16.4	62,646	9,993	16.0	135,333	12,014	8.9	24,194	3,682	15.2
1978	62,311	9,931	15.9	61,987	9,722	15.7	130,169	11,332	8.7	23,175	3,233	14.0
1977	63,137	10,288	16.2	62,823	10,028	16.0	128,262	11,316	8.8	22,468	3,177	14.1
1976	64,028	10,273	16.0	63,729	10,081	15.8	126,175	11,389	9.0	22,100	3,313	15.0
1975	65,079	11,104	17.1	64,750	10,882	16.8	124,122	11,456	9.2	21,662	3,317	15.3
1974	66,134	10,156	15.4	65,802	9,967	15.1	122,101	10,132	8.3	21,127	3,085	14.6
1973	66,959	9,642	14.4	66,626	9,453	14.2	120,060	9,977	8.3	20,602	3,354	16.3
1972	67,930	10,284	15.1	67,592	10,082	14.9	117,957	10,438	8.8	20,117	3,738	18.6
1971	68,816	10,551	15.3	68,474	10,344	15.1	115,911	10,735	9.3	19,827	4,273	21.6
1970	69,159	10,440	15.1	68,815	10,235	14.9	113,554	10,187	9.0	19,470	4,793	24.6
1969	69,090	9,691	14.0	68,746	9,501	13.8	111,528	9,669	8.7	18,899	4,787	25.3
1968	70,385	10,954	15.6	70,035	10,739	15.3	108,684	9,803	9.0	18,559	4,632	25.0
1967	70,408	11,656	16.6	70,058	11,427	16.3	107,024	10,725	10.0	18,240	5,388	29.5
1966	70,218	12,389	17.6	69,869	12,146	17.4	105,241	11,007	10.5	17,929	5,114	28.5
1965	69,986	14,676	21.0	69,638	14,388	20.7	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
1964	69,711	16,051	23.0	69,364	15,736	22.7	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
1963	69,181	16,005	23.1	68,837	15,691	22.8	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
1962	67,722	16,963	25.0	67,385	16,630	24.7	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
1961	66,121	16,909	25.6	65,792	16,577	25.2	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
1960	65,601	17,634	26.9	65,275	17,288	26.5	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)
1959	64,315	17,552	27.3	63,995	17,208	26.9	96,685	16,457	17.0	15,557	5,481	35.2
WHITE												
1994	55,186	9,346	16.9	54,221	8,826	16.3	133,289	13,187	9.9	27,985	2,846	10.2
1993	54,639	9,752	17.8	53,614	9,123	17.0	132,680	13,535	10.2	27,580	2,939	10.7
1992[r]	54,110	9,399	17.4	53,110	8,752	16.5	131,694	12,871	9.8	27,256	2,989	11.0
1991	52,523	8,848	16.8	51,627	8,316	16.1	130,300	12,098	9.3	27,297	2,802	10.3
1990	51,929	8,232	15.9	51,028	7,696	15.1	129,784	11,387	8.8	26,898	2,707	10.1
1989	51,400	7,599	14.8	50,704	7,164	14.1	128,974	10,647	8.3	26,479	2,539	9.6
1988[r]	51,203	7,435	14.5	50,590	7,095	14.0	128,031	10,687	8.3	26,001	2,593	10.0
1987[r]	51,012	7,788	15.3	50,360	7,398	14.7	126,991	10,703	8.4	25,602	2,704	10.6
1986	51,111	8,209	16.1	50,356	7,714	15.3	125,998	11,285	9.0	25,173	2,689	10.7
1985	51,031	8,253	16.2	50,358	7,838	15.6	125,258	11,909	9.5	24,629	2,698	11.0
1984	50,814	8,472	16.7	50,192	8,086	16.1	123,922	11,904	9.6	24,206	2,579	10.7
1983	50,726	8,862	17.5	50,183	8,534	17.0	123,014	12,347	10.0	23,754	2,776	11.7
1982	50,920	8,678	17.0	50,305	8,282	16.5	121,766	11,971	9.8	23,234	2,870	12.4
1981	51,140	7,785	15.2	50,553	7,429	14.7	120,574	10,790	8.9	22,791	2,978	13.1
1980	51,653	7,181	13.9	51,002	6,817	13.4	118,935	9,478	8.0	22,325	3,042	13.6

See footnotes at end of table.

B-4 P60-189

Table B-7. Poverty Status of Families by Type of Family, Presence of Related Children, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1959 to 1994

(Numbers in thousands. Families as of March of the following year)

Year and characteristic	All families			Married-couple families			Male householder, no wife present			Female householder, no husband present		
		Below poverty level			Below poverty level			Below poverty level			Below poverty level	
	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent
ALL RACES												
With and Without Children Under 18 Years												
1994	69,313	8,053	11.6	53,865	3,272	6.1	3,228	549	17.0	12,220	4,232	34.6
1993	68,506	8,393	12.3	53,181	3,481	6.5	2,914	488	16.8	12,411	4,424	35.6
1992[r]	68,216	8,144	11.9	53,090	3,385	6.4	3,065	484	15.8	12,061	4,275	35.4
1991	67,173	7,712	11.5	52,457	3,158	6.0	3,024	393	13.0	11,692	4,161	35.6
1990	66,322	7,098	10.7	52,147	2,981	5.7	2,907	349	12.0	11,268	3,768	33.4
1989	66,090	6,784	10.3	52,137	2,931	5.6	2,884	348	12.1	10,890	3,504	32.2
1988[r]	65,837	6,874	10.4	52,100	2,897	5.6	2,847	336	11.8	10,890	3,642	33.4
1987[r]	65,204	7,005	10.7	51,675	3,011	5.8	2,833	340	12.0	10,696	3,654	34.2
1986	64,491	7,023	10.9	51,537	3,123	6.1	2,510	287	11.4	10,445	3,613	34.6
1985	63,558	7,223	11.4	50,933	3,438	6.7	2,414	311	12.9	10,211	3,474	34.0
1984	62,706	7,277	11.6	50,350	3,488	6.9	2,228	292	13.1	10,129	3,498	34.5
1983	62,015	7,647	12.3	50,081	3,815	7.6	2,038	268	13.2	9,896	3,564	36.0
1982	61,393	7,512	12.2	49,908	3,789	7.6	2,016	290	14.4	9,469	3,434	36.3
1981	61,019	6,851	11.2	49,630	3,394	6.8	1,986	205	10.3	9,403	3,252	34.6
1980	60,309	6,217	10.3	49,294	3,032	6.2	1,933	213	11.0	9,082	2,972	32.7
1979	59,550	5,461	9.2	49,112	2,640	5.4	1,733	176	10.2	8,705	2,645	30.4
1978	57,804	5,280	9.1	47,692	2,474	5.2	1,654	152	9.2	8,458	2,654	31.4
1977	57,215	5,311	9.3	47,385	2,524	5.3	1,594	177	11.1	8,236	2,610	31.7
1976	56,710	5,311	9.4	47,497	2,606	5.5	1,500	162	10.8	7,713	2,543	33.0
1975	56,245	5,450	9.7	47,318	2,904	6.1	1,445	116	8.0	7,482	2,430	32.5
1974	55,698	4,922	8.8	47,069	2,474	5.3	1,399	125	8.9	7,230	2,324	32.1
1973	55,053	4,828	8.8	46,812	2,482	5.3	1,438	154	10.7	6,804	2,193	32.2
1972	54,296	5,303	10.0	45,752	(NA)	(NA)	1,353	(NA)	(NA)	6,191	2,100	33.9
1970	52,227	5,260	10.1	44,739	(NA)	(NA)	1,487	(NA)	(NA)	6,001	1,952	32.5
1969	51,586	5,008	9.7	44,436	(NA)	(NA)	1,559	(NA)	(NA)	5,591	1,827	32.7
1968	50,511	5,047	10.0	43,842	(NA)	(NA)	1,228	(NA)	(NA)	5,441	1,755	32.3
1967	49,835	5,667	11.4	43,292	(NA)	(NA)	1,210	(NA)	(NA)	5,333	1,774	33.3
1966	48,921	5,784	11.8	42,553	(NA)	(NA)	1,197	(NA)	(NA)	5,171	1,721	33.1
1965	48,278	6,721	13.9	42,107	(NA)	(NA)	1,179	(NA)	(NA)	4,992	1,916	38.4
1964	47,836	7,160	15.0	41,648	(NA)	(NA)	1,182	(NA)	(NA)	5,006	1,822	36.4
1963	47,436	7,554	15.9	41,311	(NA)	(NA)	1,243	(NA)	(NA)	4,882	1,972	40.4
1962	46,998	8,077	17.2	40,923	(NA)	(NA)	1,334	(NA)	(NA)	4,741	2,034	42.9
1961	46,341	8,391	18.1	40,405	(NA)	(NA)	1,293	(NA)	(NA)	4,643	1,954	42.1
1960	45,435	8,243	18.1	39,624	(NA)	(NA)	1,202	(NA)	(NA)	4,609	1,955	42.4
1959	45,054	8,320	18.5	39,335	(NA)	(NA)	1,226	(NA)	(NA)	4,493	1,916	42.6
With Children Under 18 Years												
1994	36,782	6,408	17.4	26,367	2,197	8.3	1,750	395	22.6	8,665	3,816	44.0
1993	36,456	6,751	18.5	26,121	2,363	9.0	1,577	354	22.5	8,758	4,034	46.1
1992[r]	35,851	6,457	18.0	25,907	2,237	8.6	1,569	353	22.5	8,375	3,867	46.2
1991	34,861	6,170	17.7	25,357	2,106	8.3	1,513	297	19.6	7,991	3,767	47.1
1990	34,503	5,676	16.4	25,410	1,990	7.8	1,386	260	18.8	7,707	3,426	44.5
1989	34,279	5,308	15.5	25,476	1,872	7.3	1,358	246	18.1	7,445	3,190	42.8
1988[r]	34,251	5,373	15.7	25,598	1,847	7.2	1,292	232	18.0	7,361	3,294	44.7
1987[r]	33,996	5,465	16.1	25,464	1,963	7.7	1,316	221	16.8	7,216	3,281	45.5
1986	33,801	5,516	16.3	25,571	2,050	8.0	1,136	202	17.8	7,094	3,264	46.0
1985	33,536	5,586	16.7	25,496	2,258	8.9	1,147	197	17.1	6,892	3,131	45.4
1984	32,942	5,662	17.2	25,038	2,344	9.4	1,072	194	18.1	6,832	3,124	45.7
1983	32,787	5,871	17.9	25,216	2,557	10.1	949	192	20.2	6,622	3,122	47.1
1982	32,565	5,712	17.5	25,276	2,470	9.8	892	184	20.6	6,397	3,059	47.8
1981	32,587	5,191	15.9	25,278	2,199	8.7	822	115	14.0	6,488	2,877	44.3
1980	32,773	4,822	14.7	25,671	1,974	7.7	802	144	18.0	6,299	2,703	42.9

See footnotes at end of table.

B-4

Table B-7. Poverty Status of Families by Type of Family, Presence of Related Children, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 1959 to 1994—Con.

(Numbers in thousands. Families as of March of the following year)

Year and characteristic	All families			Married-couple families			Male householder, no wife present			Female householder, no husband present		
		Below poverty level			Below poverty level			Below poverty level			Below poverty level	
	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent	Total	Number	Percent
ALL RACES-Con.												
With Children Under 18 Years-Con.												
1979	32,397	4,081	12.6	25,615	1,573	6.1	747	116	15.5	6,035	2,392	39.6
1978	31,735	4,060	12.8	25,199	1,495	5.9	699	103	14.7	5,837	2,462	42.2
1977	31,637	4,081	12.9	25,284	1,602	6.3	644	95	14.8	5,709	2,384	41.8
1976	31,434	4,060	12.9	25,515	1,623	6.4	609	94	15.4	5,310	2,343	44.1
1975	31,377	4,172	13.3	25,704	1,855	7.2	554	65	11.7	5,119	2,252	44.0
1974	31,319	3,789	12.1	25,857	1,558	6.0	545	84	15.4	4,917	2,147	43.7
1973	30,977	3,520	11.4	25,983	(NA)	(NA)	397	(NA)	(NA)	4,597	1,987	43.2
1972	30,807	3,621	11.8	26,085	(NA)	(NA)	401	(NA)	(NA)	4,321	1,925	44.5
1971	30,725	3,683	12.0	26,201	(NA)	(NA)	447	(NA)	(NA)	4,077	1,830	44.9
1970	30,070	3,491	11.6	25,789	(NA)	(NA)	444	(NA)	(NA)	3,837	1,680	43.8
1969	29,827	3,226	10.8	26,083	(NA)	(NA)	360	(NA)	(NA)	3,384	1,519	44.9
1968	29,325	3,347	11.4	25,684	(NA)	(NA)	372	(NA)	(NA)	3,269	1,459	44.6
1967	29,032	3,586	12.4	25,482	(NA)	(NA)	360	(NA)	(NA)	3,190	1,418	44.5
1966	28,592	3,734	13.4	25,197	(NA)	(NA)	436	(NA)	(NA)	2,959	1,410	47.1
1965	28,100	4,379	15.6	24,829	(NA)	(NA)	398	(NA)	(NA)	2,873	1,499	52.2
1964	28,277	4,771	16.9	25,017	(NA)	(NA)	367	(NA)	(NA)	2,893	1,439	49.7
1963	28,317	4,991	17.6	25,084	(NA)	(NA)	400	(NA)	(NA)	2,833	1,578	55.7
1962	28,174	5,460	19.4	24,990	(NA)	(NA)	483	(NA)	(NA)	2,701	1,613	59.7
1961	27,600	5,500	19.9	24,509	(NA)	(NA)	404	(NA)	(NA)	2,687	1,505	56.0
1960	27,102	5,328	19.7	24,164	(NA)	(NA)	319	(NA)	(NA)	2,619	1,476	56.3
1959	26,992	5,443	20.3	24,099	(NA)	(NA)	349	(NA)	(NA)	2,544	1,525	59.9
WHITE												
With and Without Children Under 18 Years												
1994	58,444	5,312	9.1	47,905	2,629	5.5	2,508	354	14.1	8,031	2,329	29.0
1993	57,881	5,452	9.4	47,452	2,757	5.8	2,298	319	13.9	8,131	2,376	29.2
1992[r]	57,669	5,255	9.1	47,383	2,677	5.7	2,418	333	13.8	7,868	2,245	28.5
1991	57,224	5,022	8.8	47,124	2,573	5.5	2,374	257	10.8	7,726	2,192	28.4
1990	56,803	4,622	8.1	47,014	2,386	5.1	2,277	226	9.9	7,512	2,010	26.8
1989	56,590	4,409	7.8	46,981	2,329	5.0	2,303	223	9.7	7,306	1,858	25.4
1988[r]	56,492	4,471	7.9	46,877	2,294	4.9	2,274	231	10.2	7,342	1,945	26.5
1987[r]	56,086	4,567	8.1	46,510	2,382	5.1	2,279	224	9.8	7,297	1,961	26.9
1986	55,676	4,811	8.6	46,410	2,591	5.6	2,038	179	8.8	7,227	2,041	28.2
1985	54,991	4,983	9.1	45,924	2,815	6.1	1,956	218	11.2	7,111	1,950	27.4
1984	54,400	4,925	9.1	45,643	2,858	6.3	1,816	189	10.4	6,941	1,878	27.1
1983	53,890	5,220	9.7	45,470	3,125	6.9	1,624	168	10.4	6,796	1,926	28.3
1982	53,407	5,118	9.6	45,252	3,104	6.9	1,648	201	12.2	6,507	1,813	27.9
1981	53,269	4,670	8.8	45,007	2,712	6.0	1,642	145	8.8	6,620	1,814	27.4
1980	52,710	4,195	8.0	44,860	2,437	5.4	1,584	149	9.4	6,266	1,609	25.7
1979	52,243	3,581	6.9	44,751	2,099	4.7	1,441	132	9.2	6,052	1,350	22.3
1978	50,910	3,523	6.9	43,636	2,033	4.7	1,356	99	7.3	5,918	1,391	23.5
1977	50,530	3,540	7.0	43,423	2,028	4.7	1,279	112	8.8	5,828	1,400	24.0
1976	50,083	3,560	7.1	43,397	2,071	4.8	1,219	110	9.0	5,467	1,379	25.2
1975	49,873	3,838	7.7	43,311	2,363	5.5	1,182	81	6.9	5,380	1,394	25.9
1974	49,440	3,352	6.8	43,049	1,977	4.6	1,182	86	7.3	5,208	1,289	24.8
1973	48,919	3,219	6.6	43,805	2,306	5.3	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	4,853	1,190	24.5
1972	48,477	3,441	7.1	42,585	(NA)	(NA)	1,220	(NA)	(NA)	4,672	1,135	24.3
1971	47,641	3,751	7.9	42,039	(NA)	(NA)	1,113	(NA)	(NA)	4,489	1,191	26.5
1970	46,601	3,708	8.0	41,092	(NA)	(NA)	1,101	(NA)	(NA)	4,408	1,102	25.0
1969	46,261	3,574	7.7	40,802	(NA)	(NA)	1,294	(NA)	(NA)	4,165	1,069	25.7
1968	45,437	3,616	8.0	40,355	(NA)	(NA)	1,029	(NA)	(NA)	4,053	1,021	25.2

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 9.G1.—Average monthly number of recipients, total amount of cash payments, and average monthly payment, 1936-94

[Includes nonmedical vendor payments. Includes Alaska and Hawaii, beginning in 1943; Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands, beginning in October 1950 and Guam, beginning in July 1959]

Year	Aid to Families With Dependent Children						Emergency Assistance[1]		
	Average monthly number (in thousands)—			Amount of payments			Average monthly number of families (in thousands)	Total assistance payments during year (in thousands)	Average monthly payment per family
	Families	Recipients		Total (in thousands)	Monthly average per—				
		Total	Children		Family	Recipient			
1936	147	534	361	$49,678	$28.15	$7.75	...	...	...
1940	349	1,182	840	133,770	31.98	9.43	...	...	...
1945	259	907	656	149,667	48.18	13.75	...	...	...
1950	644	2,205	1,637	551,653	71.33	17.64	...	...	...
1955	612	2,214	1,673	617,841	84.17	23.26	...	...	...
1960	787	3,005	2,314	1,000,784	105.75	27.75	...	...	...
1961	869	3,354	2,587	1,156,769	110.97	28.74	...	...	...
1962	931	3,676	2,818	1,298,774	116.30	29.44	...	...	...
1963	947	3,876	2,909	1,365,851	120.19	29.36	...	...	...
1964	992	4,118	3,091	1,510,352	126.88	30.57	...	...	...
1965	1,039	4,329	3,256	1,660,186	133.20	31.96	...	...	...
1966	1,088	4,513	3,411	1,863,925	142.83	34.42	...	...	...
1967	1,217	5,014	3,771	2,266,400	155.19	37.67	...	...	...
1968	1,410	5,705	4,275	2,849,298	168.41	41.62	...	...	...
1969	1,698	6,706	4,985	3,563,427	174.89	44.28	7.5	$6,699	$117.23
1970	2,208	8,466	6,214	4,852,964	183.13	47.77	7.5	11,396	126.14
1971	2,762	10,241	7,434	6,203,528	187.16	50.48	11.1	19,843	148.54
1972	3,049	10,947	7,905	6,909,260	188.87	52.60	19.9	44,180	184.91
1973	3,148	10,949	7,902	7,212,035	190.91	54.89	18.8	39,265	174.05
1974	3,230	10,864	7,822	7,916,563	204.27	60.72	31.3	64,031	170.38
1975	3,498	11,346	8,095	9,210,995	219.44	67.65	38.3	77,516	168.85
1976	3,579	11,304	8,001	10,140,543	236.10	74.75	27.5	55,673	168.43
1977	3,588	11,050	7,773	10,603,820	246.27	79.97	32.8	66,132	168.05
1978	3,522	10,570	7,402	10,730,415	253.89	84.60	34.5	80,919	195.24
1979	3,509	10,312	7,179	11,068,864	262.86	89.45	35.7	84,043	195.92
1980	3,712	10,774	7,419	12,475,245	280.03	96.49	48.6	113,238	194.29
1981	3,835	11,079	7,527	12,981,115	282.04	97.64	49.1	123,467	209.51
1982	3,542	10,258	6,903	12,877,906	303.02	103.60	27.5	102,344	[2] 278.54
1983	3,686	10,761	7,098	13,837,228	312.82	107.16	30.0	125,246	[2] 283.15
1984	3,714	10,831	7,144	14,503,710	325.44	111.60	32.1	141,137	[2] 276.97
1985	3,701	10,855	7,198	15,195,835	342.15	116.65	32.6	157,304	[2] 312.98
1986	3,763	11,038	7,334	16,033,074	355.04	121.05	34.8	178,284	[2] 362.45
1987	3,776	11,027	7,366	16,372,535	361.37	123.73	42.4	213,903	[2] 358.29
1988	3,749	10,915	7,329	16,826,794	374.07	128.47	48.8	278,906	[2] 420.89
1989	3,799	10,993	7,420	17,465,943	383.14	132.40	48.7	296,841	[2] 461.45
1990	4,057	11,695	7,917	19,066,541	391.67	135.86	56.0	348,986	[2] 476.50
1991	4,467	12,930	8,715	20,930,600	390.44	134.89	59.7	302,894	[2] 422.07
1992	4,829	13,773	9,303	21,655,881	373.71	131.03	52.7	272,853	[2] 431.41
1993	5,012	14,205	9,574	22,688,016	377.24	133.10	56.8	387,113	[2] 568.17
1994	5,035	14,164	9,570	22,827,399	377.78	134.30	60.5	802,258	[2] 1,105.95

[1] Reporting initiated July 1969. Number of States with program: 1969-70, 23; 1971, 24; 1972, 27; 1973-75, 29; 1976-78, 21; 1976-78, 26; 1979, 24; 1980-84, 27; 1985-86, 28; 1987, 29; 1988, 30; 1989, 31; 1990, 33; 1991, 34; 1992, 34; and 1993, 35.

[2] Excludes family count and expenditures for States providing only partial data.

C-1

CONTACT: Patrick Brannen (202) 401-5096 for further information.

Table 9.H1.—Number of persons participating, value of bonus coupons, and average bonus per person, fiscal years 1962-95 [1]

Fiscal year	Persons participating, average during year (in thousands)	Annual bonus value of coupons (in thousands)	Annual average monthly bonus [2] per person
1962	143	$13,153	$7.66
1963	226	18,639	6.87
1964	367	28,643	6.50
1965	424	32,494	6.39
1966	864	64,781	6.25
1967	1,447	105,455	6.07
1968	2,211	172,982	6.52
1969	2,878	228,587	6.62
1970	4,340	550,806	10.58
1971	9,368	1,522,904	13.55
1972	11,103	1,794,875	13.47
1973	12,190	2,102,133	14.37
1974	12,896	2,725,988	17.62
1975	17,063	4,386,144	21.42
1976	18,557	5,310,133	23.85
1977	17,058	5,057,700	24.71
1978	16,044	5,165,209	26.83
1979	17,710	6,484,538	30.51
1980	21,077	8,685,521	34.34
1981	22,430	10,615,964	39.44
1982 [3]	21,716	10,205,799	39.18
1983	21,630	11,153,867	42.98
1984	20,858	10,696,100	42.74
1985	19,910	10,744,200	44.99
1986	19,428	10,604,950	45.49
1987	19,113	10,500,344	45.78
1988	18,644	11,149,051	50.00
1989	18,766	11,676,436	51.85
1990	20,038	14,184,028	59.01
1991	22,629	17,307,235	63.89
1992	25,403	20,899,531	68.57
1993	26,982	22,005,194	67.96
1994	27,476	23,749,813	69.01
1995	26,619	22,765,849	71.27

[1] Between 1974 and 1979, SSI recipients were made ineligible for food stamps in Massachusetts, Wisconsin, California and selected counties in New York and Virginia because those areas supplemented SSI payments in amounts that included the value of food stamps. As of 1983 and 1992, SSI recipients were returned to the Food Stamp Program in Massachusetts and Wisconsin, respectively, when these States chose to stop including a value for food stamps in the SSI supplement.

[2] That portion of the food stamp allotment, before the elimination of the purchase requirement, represented the government's share of total food stamps received. Since January 1979, only the bonus portion of the total food stamp allotment is received by participants.

[3] Excludes participants and benefits under the Puerto Rico Nutrition Assistance Program after July 1, 1982.

Source: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Food and Consumer Service.

C-2

CONTACT: Joan Loeff/ Steve Carlson (410) 965-0180/ (703) 305-2133 for further information.

C-3

★692★

Family and Household Income

Women, Infants, and Children Feeding Program: 1975-1988

WIC participation and costs. Participation requires an income of less than 185% of the poverty level, with some states requiring a lower income than this. WIC participation also includes a "nutritional risk" requirement. In 1988 there were about 7.5 million persons at risk (either nutritionally or income-wise), but only 3.6 million participants. Children and infants comprised three-quarters of participants and pregnant women comprised the other quarter.

Participants/costs	FY 1975	FY 1980	FY 1985	FY 1986	FY 1987	FY 1988
Participants (millions)	0.5	1.9	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.6
			Billions of dollars			
Expenditures						
Current dollars	$0.09	$0.73	$1.49	$1.58	$1.66	$1.80
Constant (1988) dollars	$0.20	$1.05	$1.64	$1.71	$1.73	$1.80

FY'90 FY'96
$2.1 $3.7

Participants/costs	FY 1975	FY 1980	FY 1985	FY 1986	FY 1987	FY 1988
Children as a percentage of recipients	75%	79%	79%	79%	74%	77%

FY '95
77 %

Source: U.S. House of Representatives, 101st Congress, *U.S. Children and Their Families: Current Conditions and Recent Trends, 1989*, p. 277, "WIC Feeding Program: Participation and Costs, FY 1975-1988." Primary source: Tabulations by Child Trends, Inc., of data from the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Food and Nutrition Service; and U.S. House of Representatives, Committee on Ways and Means, 1989; and U.S. Department of Agriculture, "Estimation of Eligibility for the WIC Programs," 1987.

C-3

D. Schools and Education

- The enrollment rate of 3-5 year olds in preprimary school:
  1970-- 37%
  1994-- 61%

- Persons 25 years and older completing college:
  1970-- 11%
  1995-- 23%

1. School Enrollment: 1960 -1994 [Data: SA 240]

Year	All Levels	Elementary	High School	College
1960	46.3	32.4	10.2	3.6
1970	60.4	37.1	14.7	7.4
1980	58.6	30.6	14.6	11.4
1985	59.8	30.7	14.1	12.5
1990	63	33.2	12.8	13.6
1994	69.3	34.6	14.6	15

Numbers from 1970 include nursery schools. Elementary includes kindergarten and grades 1-8; high school, grades 9-12; and college: 2-year, 4-year colleges, universities, and graduate and professional schools.

Table 47-2 Percentage of eighth-grade students who reported that violence is a serious problem in their school, by type of violence and student and school characteristics: 1988

Characteristic	Physical conflicts among students	Robbery or theft	Vandalism of school property	Student possession of weapons	Physical abuse of teachers	Verbal abuse of teachers
Total	**16.6**	**13.5**	**14.5**	**11.3**	**7.9**	**11.5**
Sex						
Male	14.9	13.1	14.4	11.9	7.8	11.9
Female	18.3	13.9	14.6	10.7	8.0	11.1
Race/ethnicity						
White	14.7	11.9	12.8	9.7	7.0	10.9
Black	25.6	20.1	19.5	16.8	9.6	14.1
Hispanic	17.8	14.3	17.6	13.7	10.4	13.0
Asian/Pacific Islander	17.6	16.5	20.1	14.3	11.7	11.4
American Indian/Alaskan Native	21.9	18.2	20.0	16.9	9.2	12.3
Urbanicity						
Urban	20.1	16.0	17.7	13.4	8.9	12.9
Suburban	15.7	12.2	13.7	10.7	7.8	11.7
Rural	15.2	13.2	13.1	10.4	7.3	10.2
Size of school						
Less than 400	10.0	9.8	10.4	8.5	6.6	9.0
400–599	16.2	13.0	14.9	10.4	7.8	11.5
600–799	18.2	14.7	14.6	11.7	8.6	12.1
800–999	20.5	15.6	16.5	13.2	8.5	12.6
1,000 or more	21.5	16.1	8.1	14.6	8.7	13.4

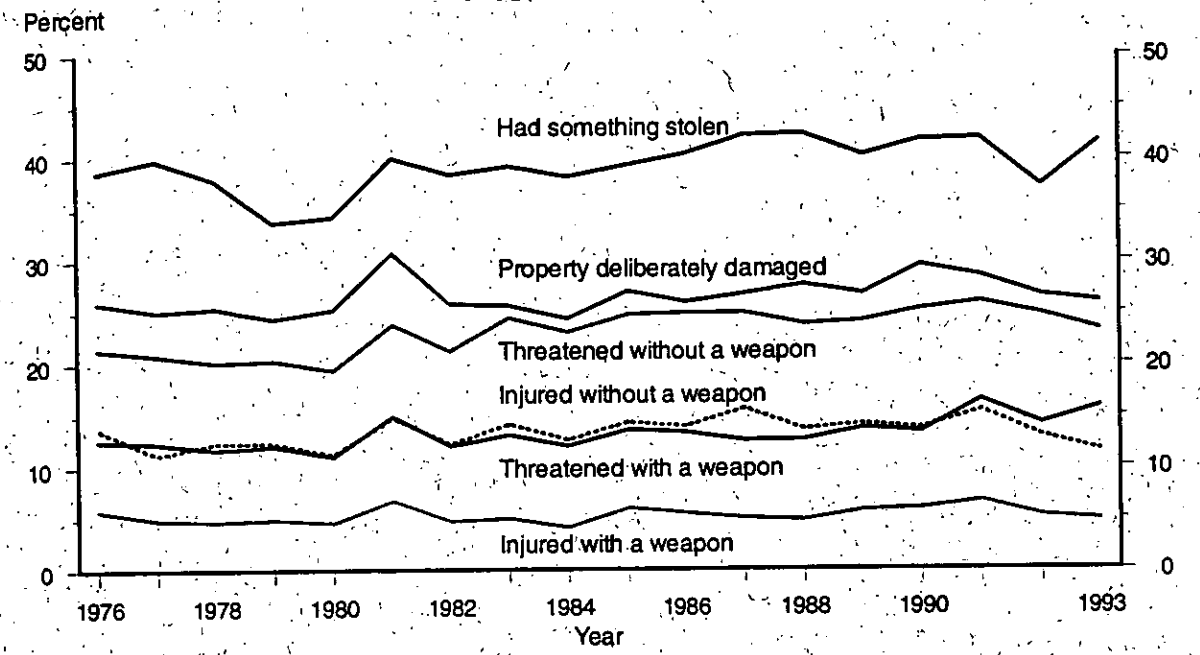
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, Base Year (1988), Student Survey.

D-Violence -1

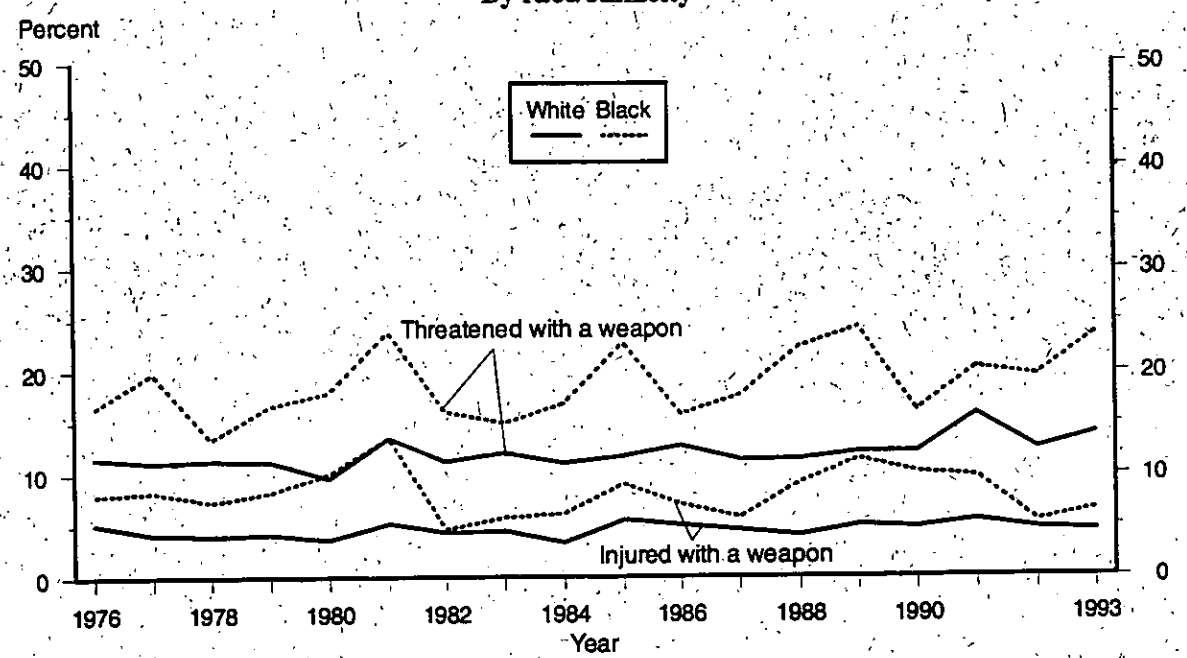
D-Violence 2

Percentage of high school seniors who reported being victimized at school, by type of victimization and race/ethnicity: 1976–93

By type of victimization



By race/ethnicity



D-Violence-2

SOURCE: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, *Monitoring the Future Study.*

D-Violence-2

Table 47-1 Percentage of high school seniors who reported being victimized at school, by type of victimization: 1976–93

Year	Had something stolen	Property deliberately damaged	Injured with a weapon	Threatened with a weapon	Injured without a weapon	Threatened without a weapon
1976	38.5	25.8	5.7	12.5	13.6	21.3
1977	39.7	24.9	4.8	12.2	11.1	20.7
1978	37.8	25.3	4.6	11.6	12.2	20.0
1979	33.6	24.2	4.8	11.9	12.2	20.2
1980	34.1	25.1	4.5	10.9	11.1	19.3
1981	39.8	30.6	6.6	14.8	14.6	23.7
1982	38.2	25.7	4.6	11.9	12.1	21.1
1983	39.0	25.5	4.9	13.0	14.0	24.3
1984	38.0	24.2	4.0	11.9	12.5	22.9
1985	39.1	26.9	5.9	13.5	14.2	24.6
1986	40.2	25.9	5.4	13.2	13.8	24.8
1987	42.0	26.6	4.9	12.4	15.5	24.8
1988	42.2	27.5	4.7	12.5	13.5	23.7
1989	40.1	26.6	5.6	13.6	14.0	24.0
1990	41.6	29.4	5.8	13.2	13.6	25.1
1991	41.7	28.3	6.5	16.3	15.3	25.8
1992	37.1	26.4	5.1	14.0	12.8	24.6
1993	41.4	25.8	4.7	15.6	11.4	23.1

SOURCE: University of Michigan, Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, *Monitoring the Future Study*.

D-Violence-2

D-Reading-1

Table 107.—Student proficiency in reading, by age, amount of time spent on homework, reading habits, and reading materials in the home: 1971, 1984, and 1992

Time spent on homework, reading habits, and reading materials in the home	Average proficiency score						Percent					
	9-year-olds		13-year-olds		17-year-olds[1]		9-year-olds		13-year-olds		17-year-olds[1]	
	1984	1992	1984	1992	1984	1992	1984	1992	1984	1992	1984	1992
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Materials read a few times a year or more												
Poems	211	211	260	264	290	294	70	70	68	74	76	84
Plays	211	208	260	262	290	293	56	54	59	64	63	71
Biographies	213	212	261	263	292	294	45	47	62	72	59	69
Science books	212	211	259	261	289	293	84	88	90	92	70	80
Books about other places	211	211	259	262	289	294	79	81	83	80	81	84
Frequency of reading for fun												
Daily	214	215	264	269	297	304	53	56	35	37	31	27
Weekly	212	212	254	260	290	291	28	28	35	32	34	33
Monthly	204	204	255	257	290	287	7	6	14	13	17	18
Yearly	197	197	252	250	280	282	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]	[redacted]
Never	198	189	239	246	269	268	9	7	8	10	9	11
Time spent on homework each day												
None	212	211	254	253	276	274	36	32	23	21	22	22
Didn't do assignment	198	193	247	251	287	286	4	4	4	4	11	12
Less than 1 hour	218	215	261	260	290	291	42	47	36	36	26	29
1 to 2 hours	216	211	266	269	296	298	13	12	29	29	27	25
More than 2 hours	201	195	264	267	303	308	6	5	9	10	13	12
	1971	1992	1971	1992	1971	1992	1971	1992	1971	1992	1971	1992
Reading materials in the home[2]												
0 to 2	186	197	227	241	246	269	28	37	17	22	11	18
3	208	214	249	256	274	286	33	33	25	31	22	27
4	223	224	267	271	296	299	39	30	58	48	67	55

[1] Excludes persons not enrolled in school.

[2] The 4 items in the scale were: newspaper subscription, magazine subscription, more than 25 books in the home, and encyclopedia in the home.

NOTE.—These test scores are from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). The NAEP scores have been evaluated at certain performance levels. A score of 300 implies an ability to find, understand, summarize, and explain relatively complicated literary and informational material. [redacted]

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress, *The Reading Report Card, 1971–88*, and *NAEP 1992 Trends in Academic Progress*, by Educational Testing Service. (This table was prepared April 1994.)

D-Reading-1

Table 105.—Average student proficiency in reading, by age and selected characteristics of students: 1971 to 1992

Selected characteristics of students	9-year-olds						13-year-olds						17-year-olds [1]					
	1971	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992	1971	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992	1971	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Total	**207.6**	**215.0**	**210.9**	**211.8**	**209.2**	**210.5**	**255.2**	**258.5**	**257.1**	**257.5**	**256.8**	**259.8**	**285.2**	**285.5**	**288.8**	**290.1**	**290.2**	**289.7**
Sex																		
Male	201.2	210.0	207.5	207.5	204.0	205.9	249.6	254.3	252.6	251.8	250.5	254.1	278.9	281.8	283.8	288.0	284.0	284.2
Female	213.9	220.1	214.2	216.3	214.5	215.4	260.8	262.6	261.7	263.0	263.1	265.3	291.3	289.2	293.9	293.8	296.5	295.7
Race/ethnicity																		
White	214.0	221.3	218.2	217.7	217.0	217.9	260.9	264.4	262.6	261.3	262.3	266.4	291.4	292.8	295.2	294.7	296.6	297.4
Black	170.1	189.3	185.7	188.5	181.8	184.5	222.4	232.8	236.3	242.9	241.5	237.6	238.7	243.1	264.3	274.4	267.3	260.6
Hispanic	(2)	190.2	187.2	193.7	189.4	191.7	(2)	237.2	239.6	240.1	237.8	239.2	(2)	261.4	268.1	270.8	274.8	271.2
Parental education																		
Not high school graduate	188.6	194.3	195.1	192.5	192.6	194.9	238.4	238.5	240.0	246.5	240.8	239.2	261.3	262.1	269.4	267.4	269.7	270.8
Graduated high school	207.8	213.0	208.9	210.8	209.1	207.4	255.5	253.5	253.4	252.7	251.4	252.1	283.0	277.5	281.2	282.0	282.9	280.5
Post-high school	223.9	226.0	222.9	220.0	217.7	219.5	270.2	270.9	267.6	265.3	266.9	269.9	302.2	298.9	301.2	299.5	299.9	298.6
Control of school																		
Public	—	213.5	209.4	210.2	207.5	208.6	—	256.9	255.2	256.1	255.0	257.2	—	284.4	287.2	288.7	288.6	287.8
Private	—	227.0	222.8	223.4	228.3	224.7	—	270.6	271.2	268.3	269.7	276.3	—	298.4	303.0	299.6	311.0	309.6
Type of community																		
Advantaged urban	229.8	232.5	230.8	222.4	227.1	233.6	272.9	276.8	274.5	266.3	270.1	280.8	305.9	300.8	302.2	301.0	299.9	302.6
Disadvantaged urban	179.2	187.6	191.5	192.0	186.1	183.5	234.3	241.6	238.9	239.0	241.0	230.9	259.7	258.1	265.7	275.0	273.3	266.7
Extensional	200.2	211.8	201.2	213.7	209.4	206.5	247.4	254.8	254.9	262.4	251.2	257.2	276.8	279.0	282.7	286.8	289.9	285.3
Other	207.8	214.5	211.3	211.3	209.8	211.6	255.4	257.9	257.1	257.3	257.5	261.2	285.2	286.6	289.6	288.3	290.9	292.6
Region																		
Northeast	213.0	221.1	215.7	215.2	217.4	217.6	261.1	260.0	260.4	258.6	258.9	264.6	291.3	285.9	292.2	294.8	295.7	297.3
Southeast	193.9	210.3	204.3	207.2	197.4	199.3	244.7	252.6	256.4	257.6	255.5	253.8	270.5	280.1	284.7	285.5	285.1	278.4
Central	214.9	216.7	215.3	218.2	212.7	215.8	260.1	264.5	258.8	255.9	257.4	263.5	290.7	287.4	290.0	291.2	293.5	293.8
West	205.0	212.8	207.8	207.9	209.6	209.3	253.6	256.4	253.8	257.9	255.6	257.5	283.7	287.3	288.4	289.0	286.8	290.4

[1] All participants of this age were in school.
[2] Test scores of Hispanics were not tabulated separately.
—Data not available.

NOTE.—These test scores are from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). The NAEP scores have been evaluated at certain performance levels. A score of 300 implies an ability to find, understand, summarize, and explain relatively complicated literary and informational material. A score of 250 implies an ability to search for specific information, interrelate ideas, and make generalizations about literature, science, and social studies materials. A score of 200 implies an ability to understand, combine ideas, and make inferences based on short uncomplicated passages about specific or sequentially related information. A score of 150 implies an ability to follow brief written directions and carry out simple, discrete reading tasks. Scale ranges from 0 to 500.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress, *The Reading Report Card, 1971–88* and *NAEP 1992 Trends in Academic Progress*, by Educational Testing Service. (This table was prepared April 1994.)

Table 106.—Student proficiency in reading, by percentile and age: 1971 to 1992

Percentile	9-year-olds						13-year-olds						17-year-olds [1]					
	1971	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992	1971	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992	1971	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Average	**207.6**	**215.0**	**210.9**	**211.8**	**209.2**	**210.5**	**255.2**	**258.5**	**257.1**	**257.5**	**256.8**	**259.8**	**285.2**	**285.5**	**288.8**	**290.1**	**290.2**	**289.7**
Standard deviation	42.1	37.9	41.1	41.2	44.7	40.3	35.7	34.9	35.5	34.7	36.0	39.4	45.8	41.8	40.3	37.1	41.3	43.0
Percentiles																		
5th	134.8	148.5	140.5	141.9	134.8	140.7	192.8	199.1	196.7	199.5	195.7	190.9	206.1	213.0	219.9	226.1	220.0	214.3
10th	151.6	165.1	156.7	156.7	150.1	156.0	207.8	212.8	210.2	212.9	209.8	207.9	225.3	230.6	236.0	241.5	236.9	232.7
25th	180.0	191.1	183.7	184.3	178.7	183.1	232.3	235.3	233.9	234.2	233.2	234.7	255.9	258.7	262.5	265.7	263.5	262.6
50th	209.3	217.2	212.6	213.7	210.3	213.6	257.0	259.6	258.2	257.9	257.3	261.6	287.7	287.5	290.3	291.1	291.1	293.0
75th	236.7	241.3	239.6	240.1	240.3	239.3	279.9	282.8	281.6	281.4	281.5	287.0	316.7	314.6	316.8	316.0	318.6	319.4
90th	260.5	261.7	262.8	263.0	265.7	259.9	299.6	302.3	301.7	301.6	302.0	309.2	341.7	337.5	339.6	336.9	342.7	342.7
95th	274.1	273.3	276.5	277.5	280.4	272.1	310.8	313.9	313.7	313.7	314.4	321.9	356.5	350.9	352.6	348.7	356.0	355.8

[1] All participants of this age were in school.

NOTE.—These test scores are from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP). The NAEP scores have been evaluated at certain performance levels. A score of 300 implies an ability to find, understand, summarize, and explain relatively complicated literary and informational material. A score of 250 implies an ability to search for specific information, interrelate ideas, and make generalizations about literature, science, and social studies materials. A score of 200 implies an ability to understand, combine ideas, and make inferences based on short uncomplicated passages about specific or sequentially related information. A score of 150 implies an ability to follow brief written directions and carry out simple, discrete reading tasks. Scale ranges from 0 to 500.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress, *The Reading Report Card, 1971–88*, and *NAEP 1992 Trends in Academic Progress*, by Educational Testing Service. (This table was prepared April 1994.)

Table 108.—Percent of students at or above selected reading proficiency levels,[1] by sex, race/ethnicity, and age: 1971 to 1992

Sex, race/ethnicity, and level	9-year-olds[2]							13-year-olds[2]							17-year-olds[2]						
	1971	1975	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992	1971	1975	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992	1971	1975	1980	1984	1988	1990	1992
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
Total																					
Level 150[3]	90.6	93.1	94.6	92.3	92.7	90.1	92.3	99.8	99.7	99.9	99.8	99.9	99.8	99.5	99.6	99.7	99.9	100.0	100.0	99.9	99.8
Level 200[4]	58.7	62.1	67.7	61.5	62.6	58.9	62.0	93.0	93.2	94.8	93.9	94.9	93.8	92.7	96.0	96.4	97.2	98.3	98.9	98.1	97.1
Level 250[5]	15.6	14.6	17.7	17.2	17.5	18.4	16.2	57.8	58.6	60.7	59.0	58.7	58.7	61.6	78.6	80.1	80.7	83.1	85.7	84.1	82.5
Level 300[6]	0.9	0.6	0.6	1.0	1.4	1.7	0.7	9.8	10.2	11.3	11.0	10.9	11.0	15.3	39.0	38.7	37.8	40.3	40.9	41.4	43.2
Level 350[7]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6	6.8	6.2	5.3	5.7	4.6	7.0	6.8
Male																					
Level 150[3]	87.9	91.0	92.9	90.4	90.4	87.9	90.2	99.6	99.6	99.8	99.7	99.7	99.7	99.2	99.4	99.5	99.8	99.9	100.0	99.8	99.7
Level 200[4]	52.7	56.2	62.7	58.0	58.4	53.8	56.9	90.7	90.9	93.4	92.2	92.8	91.4	90.4	94.7	95.3	96.3	97.6	98.5	97.0	96.3
Level 250[5]	12.0	11.5	14.6	15.9	15.8	16.1	14.2	51.6	51.7	55.9	54.0	52.3	52.4	55.5	74.4	75.6	77.9	79.6	82.9	79.7	78.4
Level 300[6]	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.4	0.5	7.3	7.0	9.1	9.0	8.6	7.6	12.8	33.9	33.7	35.0	35.4	37.1	36.1	38.4
Level 350[7]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.4	5.2	5.1	4.5	4.8	3.5	5.6	5.3
Female																					
Level 150[3]	93.2	95.3	96.4	94.2	94.9	92.4	94.4	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.8	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	99.9
Level 200[4]	64.6	68.1	72.7	65.2	66.9	64.2	67.3	95.2	95.5	96.1	95.8	96.9	96.3	95.0	97.3	97.5	98.1	99.0	99.3	99.2	97.9
Level 250[5]	19.2	17.7	20.7	18.4	19.1	20.8	18.2	64.0	65.5	65.4	64.0	65.0	65.0	67.5	82.6	84.3	83.6	86.8	88.2	88.6	86.8
Level 300[6]	1.3	0.9	0.8	1.1	1.6	2.0	0.8	12.3	13.5	13.5	13.2	13.2	14.5	17.7	44.0	43.6	40.7	45.0	44.4	46.8	48.5
Level 350[7]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.8	8.4	7.3	6.0	6.7	5.5	8.5	8.4
White[8]																					
Level 150[3]	94.0	96.0	97.1	95.4	95.1	93.5	95.8	99.9	99.9	100.0	99.9	99.9	99.9	99.8	99.9	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9
Level 200[4]	65.0	69.0	74.2	68.6	68.4	66.0	69.3	96.2	96.4	97.1	96.2	96.0	96.0	95.9	97.9	98.6	99.1	99.0	99.3	98.8	98.6
Level 250[5]	18.0	17.4	21.0	20.9	20.3	22.6	19.6	64.2	65.5	67.8	65.3	63.7	64.8	68.5	83.7	86.2	86.9	88.0	88.7	88.3	88.0
Level 300[6]	1.1	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.6	2.2	0.9	11.3	12.1	13.6	13.1	12.4	13.3	18.1	43.2	43.9	43.3	46.3	45.4	47.5	50.1
Level 350[7]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.8	7.7	7.2	6.2	6.9	5.5	8.7	8.3
Black[8]																					
Level 150[3]	69.7	80.7	84.9	81.3	83.2	76.9	79.6	98.6	98.4	99.3	99.4	99.8	99.4	98.7	97.6	97.7	99.0	99.9	100.0	99.6	99.1
Level 200[4]	22.0	31.6	41.3	36.6	39.4	33.9	36.6	74.2	76.9	84.1	85.5	91.3	87.7	82.0	81.9	82.0	85.6	95.9	98.0	95.7	91.6
Level 250[5]	1.6	2.0	4.1	4.5	5.6	5.2	4.6	21.1	24.8	30.1	34.8	40.2	41.7	38.4	40.1	43.0	44.0	65.7	75.8	69.1	61.4
Level 300[6]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.0	0.8	1.5	1.8	2.8	4.6	4.6	5.7	7.7	8.1	7.1	16.2	24.9	19.7	16.9
Level 350[7]	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.9	1.4	1.5	1.6
Hispanic																					
Level 150[3]	—	80.8	84.5	82.0	85.6	83.7	83.4	—	99.6	99.7	99.5	99.2	99.1	98.1	—	99.3	99.8	99.8	99.9	99.7	99.8
Level 200[4]	—	34.6	41.6	39.6	45.9	40.9	43.1	—	81.3	86.8	86.7	87.4	85.8	83.4	—	88.7	93.3	95.6	96.3	95.9	93.4
Level 250[5]	—	2.6	5.0	4.3	8.5	5.8	7.2	—	32.0	35.4	39.0	38.0	37.2	40.9	—	52.9	62.2	68.3	71.5	75.2	69.2
Level 300[6]	—	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.0	—	2.2	2.3	4.1	4.4	3.9	6.0	—	12.6	16.5	21.2	23.3	27.1	27.3
Level 350[7]	—	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	—	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	—	1.2	1.3	2.0	1.3	2.4	2.3

[1] As measured by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP).
[2] All participants of this age were in school.
[3] Able to follow brief written directions and carry out simple, discrete reading tasks.
[4] Able to understand, combine ideas, and make inferences based on short uncomplicated passages about specific or sequentially related information.
[5] Able to search for specific information, interrelate ideas, and make generalizations about literature, science, and social studies materials.
[6] Able to find, understand, summarize, and explain relatively complicated literary and informational material.
[7] Able to understand the links between ideas even when those links are not explicitly stated and to make appropriate generalizations even when the texts lack clear introductions or explanations.
[8] Data for 1971 include persons of Hispanic origin.
—Data not available.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress, *The Reading Report Card, 1971–88* and *NAEP 1992 Trends in Academic Progress*, by Educational Testing Service. (This table was prepared April 1994.)

D-College 1+2

D. Schools and Education: College

1. College Enrollment of Recent High School Graduates (1960-1994) [Data: SA Table 279]

Year	Number of High School Graduates (1,000)	Percent Enrolled in College
1960	1679	45.1
1970	2757	51.8
1980	3089	49.3
1985	2666	57.7
1990	2355	59.9
1994	2517	61.9

2. SAT Scores of College-Bound Seniors: 1970 - 1995 [Date: SA Table 274]

Year	Number of Participants (1,000)	Verbal Test Scores	Math Test Scores
1967		466	492
1970		460	488
1975	996	434	472
1980	992	424	466
1985	977	431	475
1990	1026	424	476
1995	1068	428	482

D-College 1+2

D-College-3

School Enrollment

ROSALIND R. BRUNO

Enrollment levels have fluctuated over the last two decades.

In 1993, 65.4 million students were enrolled in school. 68 percent of these students were enrolled in either elementary school (47 percent) or in high school (21 percent). Children enrolled in nursery school or kindergarten made up 11 percent of enrollees. College students accounted for 21 percent of enrollees.

In general, the number of students enrolled in kindergarten through grade 12 mirrors the population 5 to 17 years old, because nearly all persons in that age group are enrolled in school. Nursery school and college enrollment trends reflect changes in the size of the age-eligible population and the rates of enrollment.

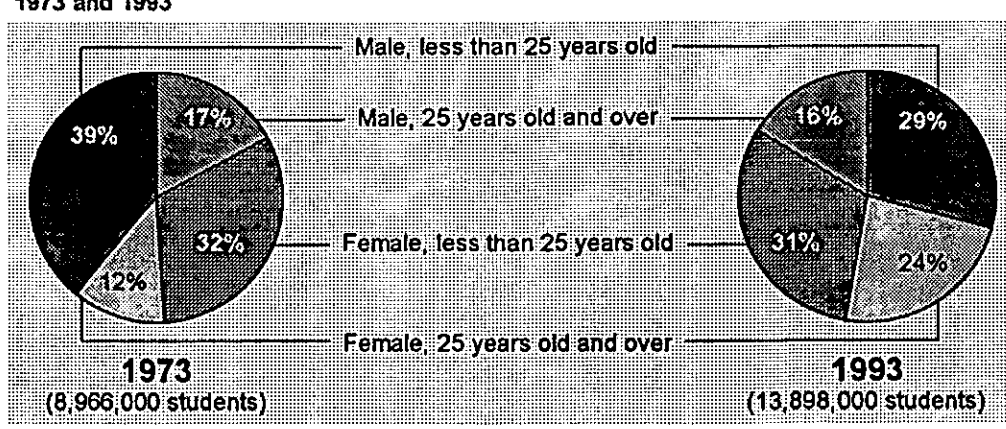
In the 20-year period between 1973 and 1993, enrollment in kindergarten through high school declined by 3 percent, while nursery school enrollment more than doubled and college enrollment rose by 55 percent.

In the period, the number of children 3 and 4 years old enrolled in nursery school increased from 1.2 to 2.7 million; the proportion enrolled increased from 18 percent in 1973 to 34 percent in 1993. At the same time, elementary school enrollment declined from 31.5 to 30.6 million students. This decline was in direct response to changes in the number of births that occurred 6 to 13 years before the enrollment estimates. So, the relatively smaller birth cohorts that followed the end of the Baby Boom (1964) eventually resulted in a decline in elementary school enrollment in the 1970's and early 1980's, the gradual increase in the annual number of births during the 1980's ensures increases in elementary school enrollment during the 1990's. Elementary school enrollment reached a low of around 27 million in the mid-1980's (1985-87) and has increased since.

Changes in high school enrollment reflect shifts in the 14 to 17 age group. The number of persons in this age group declined during the 1980's, causing the number of students enrolled in high school to drop from 15.7 million in the mid-1970's to about 12.8 million in 1990. As relatively larger birth cohorts began to move into the 14 to 17 age range in the early 1990's, high school enrollment grew to 13.7 million in 1993.

At the college level, 13.9 million students were enrolled in 1993, compared with 9.0 million in 1973. The percentage of full-time students declined from 70 percent in 1973 to 60 percent in 1993. Among students 25 years old and over, only 38 percent were enrolled full time in 1993, compared with 83 percent of younger students. The number of these "older" college students increased from 2.6 million in 1973 to 5.6 million in 1993 or from 29 to 40 percent of all college students. At the same time, the percentage of all college students who were women increased from 44 to 54 percent. Thus, during this 20-year period, there has been a shift in the age and sex distribution of the college population from majority male to majority female and a substantial gain for older students. The largest losses were among younger men and the largest gains among older women.

College Enrollment, by Age and Sex: 1973 and 1993



D-College-3

★200★

Nursery School/Preschool

D-Misc-1

Long-Term Benefits of Preschool

The High/Scope Perry Preschool Project assessed whether high-quality preschool programs could provide both short- and long-term benefits to children living in poverty and at high risk of failing in school. The study followed into adulthood 123 such children from African-American families who lived in the neighborhood of the Perry Elementary School in Ypsilanti, Michigan, in the 1960s. At the beginning of the study, the children were randomly divided into a program group, who received a high- quality, active learning preschool program, and a no-program group, who received no preschool program. This table presents findings at age 27.

Variable	Preschool	No preschool
$2,000 or more in earnings per month	29%	7%
Own home	36%	13%
High school graduates	71%	54%
Ever on Social Services in past 10 years	59%	80%
Five or more arrests	7%	35%

Source: "Changed Lives, Significant Benefits: The High/Scope Perry Preschool Project to Date," *High/Scope ReSource*, Summer 1993, Figure 1, p. 10.

★201★

Nursery School/Preschool

Pre-Kindergarten Experience by Parental Educational Level: 1991

...school and kindergarten experiences of first and second graders, by educational attainment of parents, 1991.

	Total	Parents highest level of educational attainment					
		Less than high school	High school or equivalency	Voc./tech. or some college	College graduate	Graduate or professional	No parent in household
...er of 1st and 2nd grade ...n thousands	7,547	791	2,393	2,288	1,051	947	78
Attendance at day care centers, ...sery schools, prekindergarten, and Head Start on a regular basis ...or to starting first grade							
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
... attending day care ... nursery school	15%	8%	15%	17%	16%	12%	18%
... attending nursery ... day care center	34%	27%	32%	31%	40%	48%	29%

[Continued]

D-Misc-1

D-Misc-2

D3-2. Percentage of 17-Year-Olds Who Spent Given Amounts of Time Doing Homework Each Day, by Sex, School Type, and Parents' Highest Level of Education, 1990

Characteristics	Time Spent on Homework					
	Had none	Did not do	½ hour	1 hour	2 hours	Greater than 2 hours
Total	**6.4%**	**8.4%**	**19.2%**	**33.2%**	**19.7%**	**13.1%**
Sex:						
Male	7.6	12.4	22.6	34.1	15.3	8.0
Female	5.4	4.7	15.9	32.4	23.8	17.9
School Type:						
Public	6.8	8.6	19.6	33.4	19.2	12.3
Private	—	—	—	—	—	—
Parents' highest level of education:						
Less than high school	12.6	12.5	19.4	31.1	14.8	9.6
High school graduate	10.3	7.1	21.1	34.5	17.4	9.5
Some college	5.9	8.5	20.6	33.2	20.2	11.6
College graduate	2.5	7.8	17.4	33.0	22.3	17.0

Note: Percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

— Not Available

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *The Condition of Education,* 1993. Washington, DC, page 352.

D3-3. Percentage of Students Who Reported Doing at Least One Hour of Homework Each Day, by Age, Sex, School Type, and Parents' Highest Level of Education, 1978–1990

Year	Total	Sex		School Type		Parents' highest Level of Education			
		Male	Female	Public	Private	Less than high school	Graduated high school	More than high school	Graduated college
13-year-olds:									
1982	39.6%	35.2%	44.0%	37.9%	53.3%	33.8%	35.4%	39.5%	47.0%
1986	74.1	70.8	77.3	73.8	—	68.7	73.4	75.4	76.7
1990	70.8	64.5	76.9	69.2	84.2	60.4	66.1	72.5	76.3
1994									
17-year-olds:									
1978	32.5	26.8	37.7	31.6	47.9	26.0	28.3	32.2	40.3
1982	37.4	31.4	43.1	36.2	51.1	29.0	33.7	38.7	45.2
1986	66.8	58.4	74.8	66.0	—	62.6	64.6	63.7	71.9
1990	66.0	57.4	74.1	64.9	—	55.5	61.5	65.0	72.3

— Not available

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *The Condition of Education,* 1993. Washington, DC, page 122.

D-Misc-82

Table 147.—Percent of high school seniors reporting drug use, by type of drug and frequency of use: 1975 to 1995

Type of drug and frequency of use	Class of 1975	Class of 1979	Class of 1980	Class of 1981	Class of 1982	Class of 1983	Class of 1984	Class of 1985	Class of 1986	Class of 1987	Class of 1988	Class of 1989	Class of 1990	Class of 1991	Class of 1992	Class of 1993	Class of 1994	Class of 1995
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Percent reporting having ever used drugs																		
Alcohol[1]	90.4	93.0	93.2	92.6	92.8	92.6	92.6	92.2	91.3	92.2	92.0	90.7	89.5	88.0	87.5	80.0	80.4	80.7
Any illicit drug abuse	55.2	65.1	65.4	65.6	64.4	62.9	61.6	60.6	57.6	56.6	53.9	50.9	47.9	44.1	40.7	42.9	45.6	48.4
Marijuana only	19.0	27.7	26.7	22.8	23.3	22.5	21.3	20.9	19.9	20.8	21.4	19.5	18.5	17.2	15.6	16.2	18.0	20.3
Any illicit drug other than marijuana[2]	36.2	37.4	38.7	42.8	41.1	40.4	40.3	39.7	37.7	35.8	32.5	31.4	29.4	26.9	25.1	26.7	27.6	28.1
Use of selected drugs																		
Cocaine	9.0	15.4	15.7	16.5	16.0	16.2	16.1	17.3	16.9	15.2	12.1	10.3	9.4	7.8	6.1	6.1	5.9	6.0
Heroin	2.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.3	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.6
LSD	11.3	9.5	9.3	9.8	9.6	8.9	8.0	7.5	7.2	8.4	7.7	8.3	8.7	8.8	8.6	10.3	10.5	11.7
Marijuana/hashish	47.3	60.4	60.3	59.5	58.7	57.0	54.9	54.2	50.9	50.2	47.2	43.7	40.7	36.7	32.6	35.3	38.2	41.7
PCP	—	12.8	9.6	7.8	6.0	5.6	5.0	4.9	4.8	3.0	2.9	3.9	2.8	2.9	2.4	2.9	2.8	2.7
Percent reporting use of drugs in the past 12 months																		
Alcohol[1]	84.8	88.1	87.9	87.0	86.8	87.3	86.0	85.6	84.5	85.7	85.3	82.7	80.6	77.7	76.8	72.7	73.0	73.7
Any illicit drug abuse	45.0	54.2	53.1	52.1	49.4	47.4	45.8	46.3	44.3	41.7	38.5	35.4	32.5	29.4	27.1	31.0	35.8	39.0
Marijuana only	18.8	26.0	22.7	18.1	19.3	19.0	17.8	18.9	18.4	17.6	17.4	15.4	14.6	13.2	12.2	13.9	17.8	19.6
Any illicit drug other than marijuana[2]	26.2	28.2	30.4	34.0	30.1	28.4	28.0	27.4	25.9	24.1	21.1	20.0	17.9	16.2	14.9	17.1	18.0	19.4
Use of selected drugs																		
Cocaine	5.6	12.0	12.3	12.4	11.5	11.4	11.6	13.1	12.7	10.3	7.9	6.5	5.3	3.5	3.1	3.3	3.6	4.0
Heroin	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.6	1.1
LSD	7.2	6.6	6.5	6.5	6.1	5.4	4.7	4.4	4.5	5.2	4.8	4.9	5.4	5.2	5.6	6.8	6.9	8.4
Marijuana/hashish	40.0	50.8	48.8	48.1	44.3	42.3	40.0	40.6	38.8	36.3	33.1	29.6	27.0	23.9	21.9	26.0	30.7	34.7
PCP	—	7.0	4.4	3.2	2.2	2.6	2.3	2.9	2.4	1.3	1.2	2.4	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.8
Percent reporting use of drugs in the past 30 days																		
Alcohol[1]	68.2	71.8	72.0	70.7	69.7	69.4	67.2	65.9	65.3	66.4	63.9	60.0	57.1	54.0	51.3	48.6	50.1	51.3
Any illicit drug abuse	30.7	38.9	37.2	36.9	32.5	30.5	29.2	29.7	27.1	24.7	21.3	19.7	17.2	16.4	14.4	18.3	21.9	23.8
Marijuana only	15.3	22.2	18.8	15.2	15.5	15.1	14.1	14.8	13.9	13.1	11.3	10.6	9.2	9.3	8.1	10.4	13.1	13.8
Any illicit drug other than marijuana[2]	15.4	16.8	18.4	21.7	17.0	15.4	15.1	14.9	13.2	11.6	10.0	9.1	8.0	7.1	6.3	7.9	8.8	10.0
Use of selected drugs																		
Cocaine	1.9	5.7	5.2	5.8	5.0	4.9	5.8	6.7	6.2	4.3	3.4	2.8	1.9	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.8
Heroin	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.6
LSD	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.4	1.9	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.4	2.6	4.0
Marijuana/hashish	27.1	36.5	33.7	31.6	28.5	27.0	25.2	25.7	23.4	21.0	18.0	16.7	14.0	13.8	11.9	15.5	19.0	21.2
PCP	—	2.4	1.4	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.0	1.6	1.3	0.6	0.3	1.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	1.0	0.7	0.6

[1] Survey question changed in 1993; data are not comparable to figures for earlier years.

[2] Other illicit drugs include any use of hallucinogens, cocaine, and heroin, or any use of other opiates, stimulants, sedatives, or tranquilizers not under a doctor's orders.

—Data not available.

NOTE.—A revised questionnaire was used in 1982 and later years to reduce the inappropriate reporting of nonprescription stimulants. This slightly reduced the positive responses for some types of drug abuse.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Alcohol, Drug Abuse, and Mental Health Administration, *Drug Use Among American High School Students and Other Young Adults. National Trends Through 1988;* and press releases dated January 1992, April 1993, and January 1994; and University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, *Monitoring the Future,* unpublished data. (This table was prepared April 1996.)

Table 148.—Percent of teachers (grades 7 to 12) who feel that certain problems are serious or somewhat serious: 1995

Teacher and student characteristics	Drinking	Lack basic skills	Drug use	Teen pregnancy	Dropouts	Violence in and around school	Carrying handguns, knives, and weapons	Teenage suicides
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All teachers	**76**	**74**	**63**	**59**	**43**	**41**	**25**	**15**
Location								
Inner city	61	87	73	81	69	72	46	18
Other urban	69	79	73	71	52	54	31	21
Suburb	77	68	59	43	29	41	20	15
Small town	80	72	67	58	40	28	18	10
Rural	80	74	55	62	47	30	24	13
Region								
East	79	70	68	51	36	42	22	14
Midwest	80	66	62	58	37	37	19	16
South	68	78	56	67	49	45	31	11
West	79	82	75	57	54	38	28	17
School level								
Junior high	63	74	58	46	30	43	27	14
High school	87	72	69	69	54	38	23	16
Teaching experience								
Fewer than 10 years	83	71	75	58	43	49	34	18
10 to 19 years	70	72	57	55	40	35	21	12
20 years or more	76	76	62	63	47	40	23	14

SOURCE: Metropolitan Life/Louis Harris Associates, Inc., *The Metropolitan Life Survey of The American Teacher, 1984–1995.* (This table was prepared April 1996.)

Miscellaneous - 5: High School Dropouts (1970- 1994) [Data: SA Table 270]

Year	Number of Dropouts (1,000)	Percent of Population
1970	4670	12.2
1980	5212	12
1985	4456	10.6
1990	3854	10.1
1994	3820	9.5

Dropout numbers represent persons not in regular school and who have not completed the 12th grade or received a general equivalency degree.

★892★

Television and Video

Television Viewing: 1960-1992

Average daily television viewing per household. It has been estimated that by the time the average child reaches age 18, he or she will have witnessed more than 15,000 murders on television or in the movies.

Year	Hours
1960	5:06
1965	5:29
1970	5:56
1975	6:07
1980	6:36
1985	7:07
1990	6:55
1992	7:04

Source: William J. Bennett, *The Index of Leading Cultural Indicators*, Vol. 1, March 1993, p. 20. Primary source: Nielsen Media Research.

★893★

Television and Video

Television-Related Rules: 1991

Average hours of television watched daily by 3- to 8-year-olds, and percentage of families with television-related rules, by grade of child.

	Total	Not enrolled in school	Grade of student enrollment				
			Nursery school	Kinder-garten	First grade	Second grade	Third grade+
Number of children	22,294	4,853	3,571	4,023	3,993	3,554	2,270
Average hours of television daily[3]	2.5	3.1	2.6	2.5	2.2	2.2	2.3
Percentage with television related rules[4]							
What shows child may watch	85%	82%	87%	85%	86%	87%	86%
How early or late child may watch	89%	80%	87%	90%	94%	94%	93%
Hours child may watch over all	56%	50%	55%	56%	59%	60%	61%
Hours child may watch on weekdays	60%	47%	55%	61%	66%	67%	68%

Source: Selected from "Home activities of 3- to 8-year-olds, by grade of student: 1991," National Center for Education Statistics, *Digest of Education Statistics 1992*, Table 136, p. 135. Primary source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, "Home Activities of 3- to 8-year-olds." *Notes:* 1. Includes children enrolled in nursery school, prekindergarten, and Head Start. 2. Includes children enrolled in kindergarten and in transitional grades between kindergarten and first grade, such as transitional kindergarten or prefirst grade. 3. Includes hours watching television shows and video tapes. 4. Includes children whose parents reported viewing hours.

E 1 & 2

★579★

Child Care

Hourly Cost of Child Care, Mother Employed: 1975-1990 - I

Mean hourly payment for youngest child under 5, employed mothers paying for child care.

Type of primary arrangement	Hourly cost		
	1975	1985	1990
Relative	$0.84	$1.33	$1.11
In-home	$1.22	$1.84	$2.30
Family day care	$1.29	$1.37	$1.35
Center	$1.40	$1.60	$1.67

Source: Willer et al., *The Demand and Supply of Child Care in 1990: Joint Findings from the National Child Care Survey 1990 and A Profile of Child Care Settings*, 1991, National Association for the Education of Young Children, Washington, DC, Figure 12, p. 47, "Mean Hourly Payment for Youngest Child Under 5, Employed Mothers Paying for Child Care 1975-1990." Primary source: 1975, National Child Care Consumer Study (Unco, 1975). 1985, The National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, 1985 (Hofferth, 1987). 1990, National Child Care Survey 1990.

★580★

Child Care

Hourly Cost of Child Care, Mother Employed: 1975-1990 - II

Mean hourly expenditure for youngest child under five, employed mothers paying for care, in constant 1990 dollars.

Year	Relative	In-home	Family care	Center
1975	$0.84	$1.22	$1.29	$1.40
1985	$1.33	$1.86	$1.37	$1.60
1990	$1.11	$2.30	$1.30	$1.67

Source: "Mean Hourly Expenditure for Youngest Under Five, Employed Mothers Paying for Child Care, 1975-1990)," "Early Childhood Program Distinctions," Galinsky and Friedman, *Education Before School: Investing in Quality Child Care*, Families and Work Institute, 1993, Figure 4.3, p. 92. Primary source: S.L. Hofferth, A. Brayfield, S. Deitch, and P. Holcomb, *The National Child Care Survey, 1990* (Washington, DC: The Urban Institute, 1991), pp. 139.

F-1

F-2

Child Care Providers, Children 5-14 Years: 1985-1991 - I

Child care arrangements used by working mothers for school-age children, total, all families with children.

[Numbers in thousands.]

Type of Arrangement	Fall 1991	Fall 1990	Fall 1988	Fall 1987	Fall 1986	Winter 1985
All families with children						
Number of children	21,220	21,261	20,804	19,718	19,692	18,287
Percent	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Care in child's home	10.7%	11.7%	11.9%	13.5%	13.2%	11.8%
By father	6.6%	7.3%	7.1%	6.7%	7.2%	6.6%
By grandparent	1.2%	1.3%	1.1%	1.5%	1.2%	1.3%
By other relative	1.9%	2.3%	2.2%	4.0%	3.6%	2.7%
By nonrelative	0.9%	0.8%	1.5%	1.4%	1.3%	1.1%
Care in another home	3.6%	3.1%	4.0%	5.4%	5.5%	4.3%
By grandparent	1.2%	1.0%	1.4%	1.9%	1.7%	1.7%
By other relative	1.0%	0.7%	0.7%	1.1%	1.1%	0.5%
By nonrelative	1.4%	1.4%	1.9%	2.3%	2.7%	2.1%
Organized child care facilities	1.9%	2.2%	2.5%	2.3%	2.7%	2.8%
Child/group care center	1.4%	1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	1.6%
Nursery school/preschool	0.5%	0.5%	0.8%	0.6%	1.0%	1.2%
Kindergarten/grade school	79.2%	78.6%	77.2%	71.1%	70.6%	75.2%
Child cares for self	2.7%	2.6%	2.3%	4.1%	4.8%	2.7%
Mother cares for child at work[1]	2.0%	1.8%	2.1%	3.6%	3.2%	3.2%

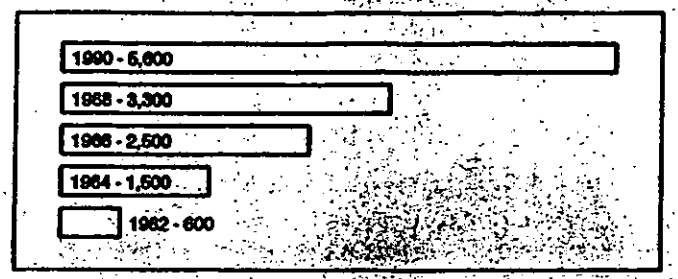
Source: O'Connell, *Where's Papa? Fathers' Role in Child Care*, Population Reference Bureau, No. 20, September 1993, selected from Table A-2, p. 19, "Primary Child Care Arrangement Used by Working Mothers for School-age Children (Ages 5-14), 1985-1991." Primary source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1985-1991 Surveys of Income and Program Participation. Percentages may not add to total because of rounding. *Note:* 1. Includes mothers working at home or away from home.

F-2

★570★
Child Care

F-3

Employer-Supported Child Care: 1982-1990



Number of companies supporting child care. The estimated 5,600 employers with child care programs in 1990 represent 13 percent of the 44,000 U.S. employers with more than 100 employees.

Year	# of companies
1982	600
1984	1,500
1986	2,500
1988	3,300
1990	5,600

Source: "Growth of employer-supported child care," "Early Childhood Program Distinctions," Galinsky and Friedman, *Education Before School: Investing in Quality Child Care*, Families and Work Institute, 1993, Figure 5.8, p. 124. Primary source: D.E. Friedman, "Update on Employer-Supported Child Care," distributed memo, Families and Work Institute, 1991.

F·3

G. Abortion

Pregnancies and Abortions, 1976- 1992 [Table 109 of Statistical Abstract; data from Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vo. 41, no. 6, Supplement; and Table 71 of SRC] Table 110 from S.Ab, Table 116 from S.Abs.

Numbers * 1,000

Year	Total pregnancies	Induced abortions	Number of abortions on girls aged 15-19	Rate of pregnancy per 1,000 women, 15 -44 yrs old	Rate of induced abortions per 1,000 women
1976	5002	1179	363	102.7	24.2
1980	5912	1554	445	111.9	29.4
1985	6144	1577	399	107.4	28.1
1990	6668	1609	351	113.8	27.4
1992	6484	1529	(1991) - 314	109.9	25.9

H. Infant Mortality (Deaths per 1,000 live births.) [Table 124 of Stat Ab]

Year	Infant deaths	Maternal deaths	Fetal deaths	Neonatal deaths
1970	20.2	21.5	14.2	15.1
1980	12.6	9.2	9.2	8.5
1985	10.6	7.8	7.9	7.0
1990	9.2	8.2	7.5	5.8
1992	8.5	7.8	7.4	5.4

Infant deaths are deaths of infants under 1 year old, exclusive of fetal and neonatal deaths. Maternal deaths are per 100,000 live births from deliveries and complications of pregnancy and childbirth. Fetal deaths are those with stated or presumed gestation of 20 weeks or more. Neonatal deaths are those of infants under 28 days, exclusive of fetal deaths.

I. Child Abuse and Neglect Cases Substantiated and Indicated (1990-1994) [Table 347 of S.A.; DHHS, *Child Maltreatment, 1994*]

Type of Substantiated Maltreatment	1990	1992	1993	1994
Victims, total	761,153	1,054,456	1,067,231	1,197,133
Neglect	343,312	455,319	475,153	535,510
Physical abuse	188,960	213,726	233,487	258,320
Sexual abuse	120,732	130,739	139,817	139,980
Emotional maltreatment	46,315	49,527	48,288	47,610
Medical neglect	NA	25,503	23,009	25,018
Other and unknown	61,834	179,642	147,477	190,695

J. Homeless Children and Youth (1989- 1993)

	1989	1991	1993
Total number of homeless children and youth (K -12)	272,773	327,416	744,266
Numbers of Homeless by Grade Level			
Elementary (K-6)	132,959	158,664	425,465
Middle/Jr High (7-9)	57,731	69,224	166,595
High School (10-12)	70,071	76,844	139,430
Unspecified grade level	12,012	19,684	12,776
School attendance (Percentage not attending school during their homelessness)	28%	20%	23%

Source: National Coalition on the Homeless, Various reports to Congress.