

Challenges and Opportunities Facing Latino Children and Youth in the United States

In 1990 there were 22.4 million Latinos in the United States or 9% of the population, and a total of 30.6 million (11.1% of the population) are expected by the year 2000 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993:2). The official Hispanic population grew at a rate of 61% during the 1970s and 53% during the 1980s compared to 9% and 7% growth rates for the non-Hispanic population. If these trends continue Latinos will be 21.1% of the population by the year 2050. Hispanics are geographically concentrated, with 87% of the population living in just 10 states: California (34.4%), Texas (19.4%), New York (9.9%), Florida (7.0%), Illinois (4.0%), New Jersey (3.3%), Arizona (3.1%), New Mexico (2.6%), Colorado (1.9%), and Massachusetts (1.3%). The largest Latino groups in the continental United States are Mexican-Americans (13.496 million persons), Puerto Ricans (2.728 million), and Cubans (1.044 million). The total for Other Hispanics (5.086 million persons) includes individuals from various countries in Central America, South America, the Caribbean and Spain.

The Latino population is relatively young. In 1988 almost one out of every three Latinos in the country was under 15 years of age. The median age for Latinos of Puerto Rican origin in 1990 was 27.0 years of age whereas for Mexican-Americans it was 24.1 compared to 33.5 years for the rest of the population. The proportion of Puerto Ricans below 18 years of age was 36.7% while it was 37.4% among Mexican-Americans and 26.2% for the rest of the population (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993b).

Latino children and youth are among the fastest growing segments of the United States population and by the year 2000 the number of Hispanics under 24 is expected to be close to 15 million persons (or 15%) out of a total youth population of 98 million. Unfortunately Latino youth are also among the most disadvantaged with close to 42% of children living below the poverty level (the comparable number for whites is 16.3% and for African-Americans it is 43.3%) and many more living near poverty.

The prevalence of high poverty rates in the Hispanic/Latino community presents many challenges to the development of Latino children and youth. But, in the midst of the challenges, there are also sources of support and opportunities that need to be recognized and built upon.

Some of the main challenges to the development of Latino children and youth include:

- **The Effects of Family Poverty**

The economic figures for 1991 show that median household income was \$16,169 for Puerto Ricans, \$22,439 for Mexican-Americans and \$29,943 for the rest of the population. Simply put, Puerto Rican households in 1991 averaged a little more than half the income of the total population while the level for Mexican-Americans is slightly higher but generated by larger households. High levels of family poverty mean that Latino children and youth do not have access to the necessary resources and programs that facilitate, support, and encourage their development.

- **Health Issues**

Latino children suffer disproportionately from infant death and low birth weight. The prevalence of asthma and other diseases is quite high as are teen pregnancy and mortality rates. Other health issues include lack of insurance among many families, lack of access to preventive clinics and programs, and higher rates of child abuse and neglect.

- **Access to Quality Education and Educational Support Programs**

The conditions of many of the schools where Latino children are a high proportion of the student population is very poor. Research by Carrasquillo (1991) suggests that several school level characteristics that are associated with school level resources are to blame for low educational levels among Latino youth. These factors are: "(a) Poorly equipped and overcrowded schools; (b) Lower per pupil expenditures; (c) Segregated schools; (d) Schools at times understaffed and with limited basic resources; (e) High rate of grade repetition; (f) lower expectations by the school system; (g) High enrollment in vocational and general education programs (p.99)." Other research (Cordero-Guzman, 1995) has shown how the proportion poor, the proportion dropout, and other school characteristics influence individual level educational attainment rates. In his research on schools, Orum (1986) identified several school level practices such as attendance, discipline and promotion policies, language used for instruction, availability of special instruction to meet special needs, and provisions to ensure parental involvement as critical school level variables influencing Latino retention. As Carrasquillo (1991) notes, Latino children are at a disadvantage from the earliest of grades and these disadvantages increase over the life course as more and more obstacles are placed in the students path. Lucas, Henze and Donato (1997) discuss the characteristics of effective school for Latino children including: a) value is placed on the student's language and culture, b) high expectations of language minority students are made concrete, c) school leaders make the education of language minority children a priority, d) staff development is explicitly designed to help teachers and other staff serve language minority students more effectively, e) a variety of courses and programs is offered for language minority students, f) a counseling program gives special attention to language minority students, g) parents of language minority students are encouraged to become involved in their children's education and h) school staff members share strong commitment to empower language minority students through education. According to Garcia (1997) successful teachers of Latino students appear to have the following characteristics: a) they communicated high expectations while at the same time conveying a sense of confidence, b) they used active teaching methods including: clear communication when giving instructions and presenting new information, they engaged students by pacing instruction and promoting involvement and communicating their expectations clearly, the monitored students success in completing the assigned tasks, and they provided immediate and comprehensive feedback whenever required, and c) they used both students native language and English for instruction alternating between the two languages when necessary to ensure clarity without translating directly from one language to another. Garcia also discusses the attributes of effective teachers including: a) knowledge, b) skills, c) disposition, and d) affect.

- **The Role of Immigration Status**

The immigration status of many Latinos means that the population is less informed, more vulnerable and susceptible to abuse, and that it has less access to programs that promote the development and children and youth.

- **The Impacts of Changes in Welfare Policy**

Changes in welfare policy have impacted many Latino families by reducing their access to social programs, reducing the level of support provided by these programs, increasing the needs for child care in the household, and forcing many to take workfare assignments and very low wage jobs where opportunities for mobility are very limited.

- **Community Level Factors and Processes**

Housing conditions and homelessness have a significant impact on Latino Children and youth. In many communities crime and gang related problems continue to be prevalent.

- **Funding for Programs and Activities**

Children in the Latino community need more access to opportunities for their social, cultural, educational, and personal development. The programs that currently exist are full to capacity and the needs in many communities for positive activities, resources to visit other places, and programs in which children and youth can be involved is very large.

- **Building Thriving Diverse Environments**

Children and youth have grown up with diversity. They understand diversity and know relatively well how to manage it. The challenge is for the adults in the community to understand, nourish, and support children and youth by encouraging the development of thriving diverse environments at home, in school, in the community, and in the metropolitan area.

In the midst of these serious challenges there are also many positive programs and hard working individuals that are a source of strength and support for the Latino community.

The main opportunities for the development of Latino children and youth include:

- **Talented Children**

It is important to move away from deficit models and to recognize the strength, creativity,

resiliency, and talent of Latino Children and youth.

- **Strong and Loving Families and Communities**

Latino families and communities are also very strong and resilient. Successful efforts and programs begin by recognizing the talent of Latino children and the strength of the family and work on providing support, resources for development, and on removing obstacles and barriers to human development and social mobility

- **More Developed Professional Base**

In recent years the number of Latino professionals has increased appreciably. It is important to draw on those resources for the development of Latino Children and Youth.

- **Community Based Groups, Organizations and Service Providers**

The number of groups, organizations and service providers in the Latino community has also increased in recent years. There are many agencies with significant experience in the design, development and management of programs that provide much needed services to the community.

- **More Visibility at the National Level and Capacity to Build Leadership on Latino Child and Youth Development Issues**

Increases in the visibility of the Latino population and in the number of groups, organizations and service providers means that there is an opportunity to build leadership around these issues.

- **Positive Effects of a good economy**

Economic growth during the last few years has increased the number of opportunities for Latinos in the labor market. However, research shows that the Latino population is the first to feel economic downturns and is more vulnerable to the fluctuations of the economy. Continued economic growth and increasing opportunities in families, schools, and communities are essential to the development of Latino children and youth.

III. Pre-K Through 12

A. SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

1. OVERVIEW

In the fall of 1996, approximately 66.1 million students were enrolled in education institutions from pre-primary to the college level.¹ Latinos account for a large and growing proportion of that student population. Between 1975 and 1994, the percentage of White students declined at all school levels, while that of Black students grew from 14.5% to 16.0%, and that of Hispanic students grew from 6.5% to 13.0%.

Given that the Hispanic student population is growing both in absolute numbers and as a percentage of the total student population, it is increasingly critical that Hispanics obtain a high-quality education of adequate duration. However, while the academic progress and achievement of Latinos has increased in absolute terms, there continues to be a wide gap between Hispanics and their White counterparts in several significant areas.

2. PRE-PRIMARY EDUCATION ENROLLMENT

a. Pre-primary and Kindergarten

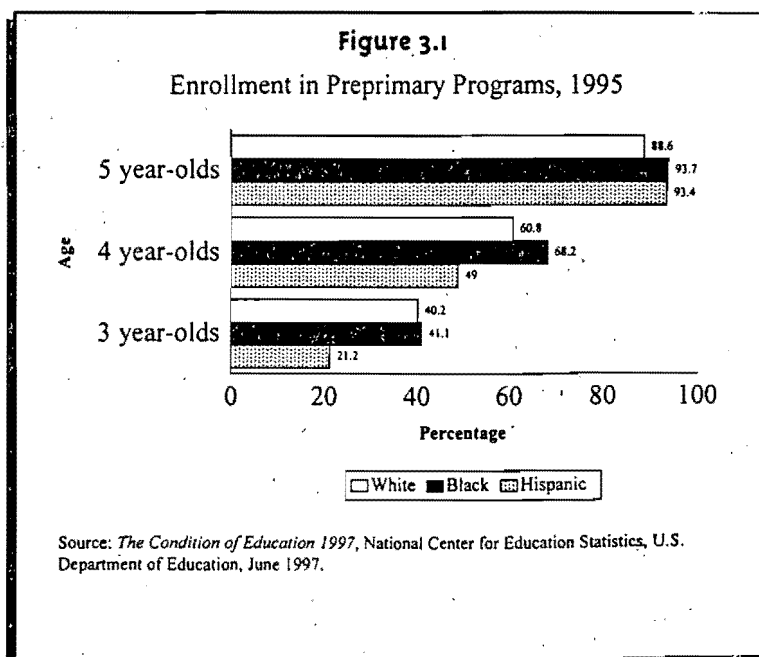
Today, children are especially likely to be enrolled in some type of pre-primary education program because their mothers are more likely than mothers from previous generations to be part of the workforce outside the home. Research indicates that

participation in high-quality, early childhood education and care programs prepares children to learn when they enter kindergarten and first grade, and has long-term positive effects on educational outcomes for socially and economically disadvantaged youth.²

Despite the advantages of attending pre-primary education programs, statistics indicate that Latino children have consistently been less likely than their White and Black counterparts to be enrolled in such classes over the past two decades (see Figure 3.1 and 3.2).

■ Among three-year-olds, four out of ten Whites (40.2%) and Blacks (41.1%) were enrolled in pre-primary programs, compared to two out of ten Hispanics (21.2%) (see Figure 3.1).

■ Among four-year-olds, 60.8% of Whites, 68.2% of Blacks, and 49.0% of Latinos were enrolled in pre-primary programs (see Figure 3.1).



- At the kindergarten level the gap in enrollment rates closes, and the enrollment rate for Hispanics surpasses that of Whites. Among five-year-olds, 93.4% of Latinos and 93.7% of Blacks were enrolled in kindergarten compared to 88.6% of Whites (see Figure 3.1).

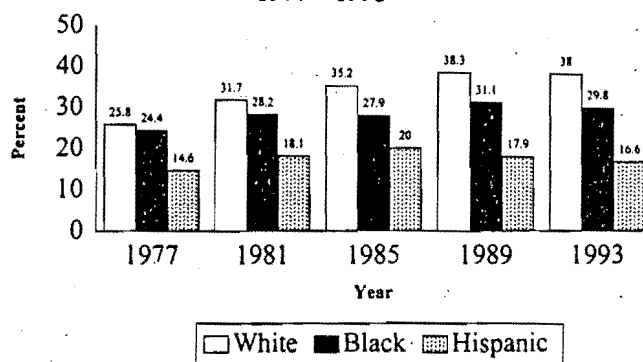
The differences in enrollment rates in pre-primary programs may be explained, in part, by studies that indicate that Hispanics prefer to leave their children in home-based child-care settings, even when there are no shortages in institutionalized child-care.³ Research suggests that Hispanic parents tend to look to their families, instead of child care programs, to serve as caregivers for young children.⁴ Additionally, in some cases, Hispanic parents may not be able to afford the tuition charged by the many programs that are privately run. The gap closes at the kindergarten level because such programs are run by the public school system, as well as by private institutions.

b. Head Start

Head Start participation rates present an example of how important and effective federal education programs underserve the Latino population. Three- and four-year-olds are eligible to participate in Head Start if the family income is at or below the poverty level. With respect to Hispanics, the data demonstrate that while Latino children are overrepresented in families living in poverty, they are underrepresented in Head Start programs designed to remedy the detrimental effects of poverty on educational achievement.

In 1993, Census data indicated that Latino children constituted 24.6% of all children in pov-

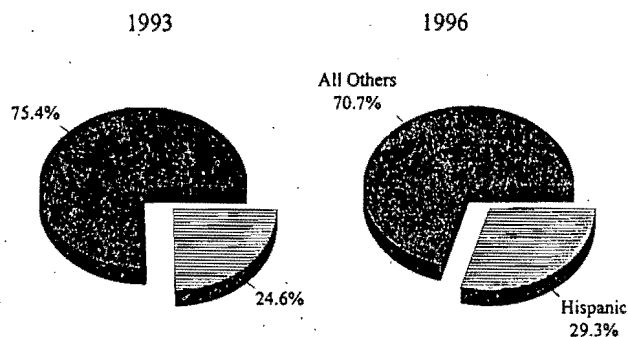
Figure 3.2
Preschool Enrollment 3 - 4 Year Olds
1977 - 1993



Source: *The Condition of Education 1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1995.

Figure 3.3

Poverty Rates for Children



Source: *Poverty in the United States*, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. 1997

erty. Yet examination of Head Start data, taking into account the participation rates of the Puerto Rico island population and Migrant Head Start participants,⁵ indicate that Latino children were only 15% of children enrolled in Head Start programs.

By 1996, the proportion of all children in the U.S. mainland (not including Puerto Rico) living

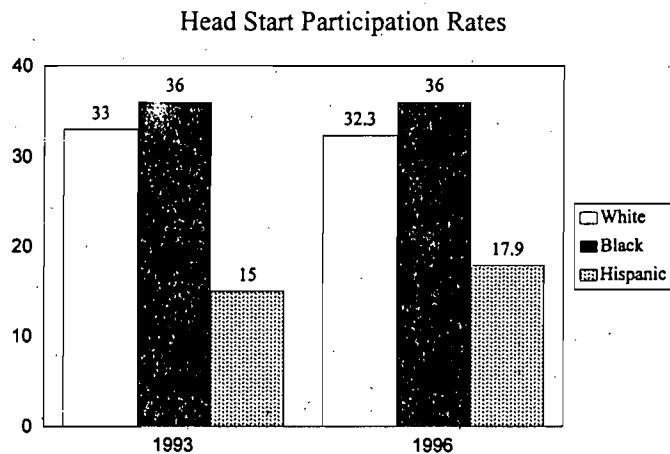
at or below the poverty level who are Hispanic increased from 24.6% to 29.3%. During the same period, the proportion of all children participating in Head Start who are Hispanic increased slightly from 24% to 25.2%, suggesting an underrepresentation of Latino children in the program, relative to their eligibility. However, if island Puerto Ricans and migrant Hispanic children are excluded from these data, the proportion of all Latino children in Head Start programs only grew from 15% to 17.8% — resulting in an even greater level of underrepresentation (see Figures 3.3 and 3.4). This small increase in the participation of Latino children in Head Start programs is especially insufficient measured against the proportion of Latino children who lived below the poverty level; in 1996, two of every five Hispanic children (40.3%) were poor — the highest rate of child poverty of all racial/ethnic groups that year.*

✕ 3. ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

In the fall of 1994, approximately 31.5 million children were enrolled in elementary school (grades one through eight) and about 14.6 million

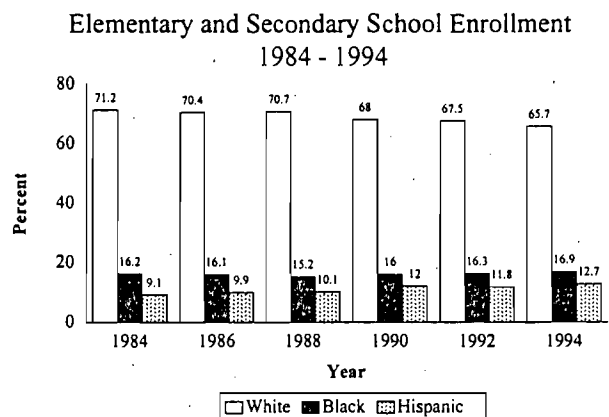
were enrolled at the secondary level (grades nine through twelve). Overall, the enrollment of students increased by 3.3% between 1984 and 1994. Figure 3.5 shows that the minority student population, as a percentage of the total population, is increasing,

Figure 3.4



Source: Head Start Statistical Fact Sheet, Administration for Children, Youth and Families, 1994; Head Start Statistical Fact Sheet, Administration for Children, Youth and Families, 1997.

Figure 3.5



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Reports, Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education, 1984 - 1996.

* Migrant students are not included in this calculation because they are typically served under the Migrant Head Start program.

while that of White students is decreasing. In 1994, White students accounted for slightly less than two-thirds of the population, as compared with just under three-fourths in 1984. Figure 3.6 provides the numbers and percentages for single grade enrollment in 1994.

4. PRIVATE SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

A comparison of private and public school enrollment rates for the last 30 years indicates that private school enrollment dropped 29.8%, while public school enrollment grew 8.8%. However, more recent data indicate that private school enrollment rates have increased for both the Black and Hispanic populations while decreasing for Whites. For example, in 1991, for persons three to 24 years old, 87.7% of Whites, 7.5% of Blacks, and 5.8% of Hispanics were enrolled in private schools. In 1994, for the same age group, 86.2% of Whites, 10.3% of Blacks, and 7.7% of Hispanics were enrolled in private schools (see Figure 3.7).

Additional data from the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) highlight similar findings. According to a 1993 survey of private schools (K-12), approximately 4.8 million students were enrolled in private schools and such students accounted for about 11.0% of the total student

Figure 3.6

SINGLE GRADE ENROLLMENT FOR PERSONS THREE TO 24 YEARS OLD 1994

Number (thousands)	1-4	5-8	9-10	10-12
All Races	15,999	15,513	7,572	7,044
Whites	12,576	12,209	5,900	5,530
Blacks	2,578	2,508	1,273	1,160
Hispanics	2,117	2,045	974	900
Percentage				
All Races	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Whites	78.6%	78.7%	77.9%	78.5%
Blacks	16.1%	16.2%	16.8%	16.5%
Hispanics	13.2%	13.2%	12.9	12.8%

Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 3.7

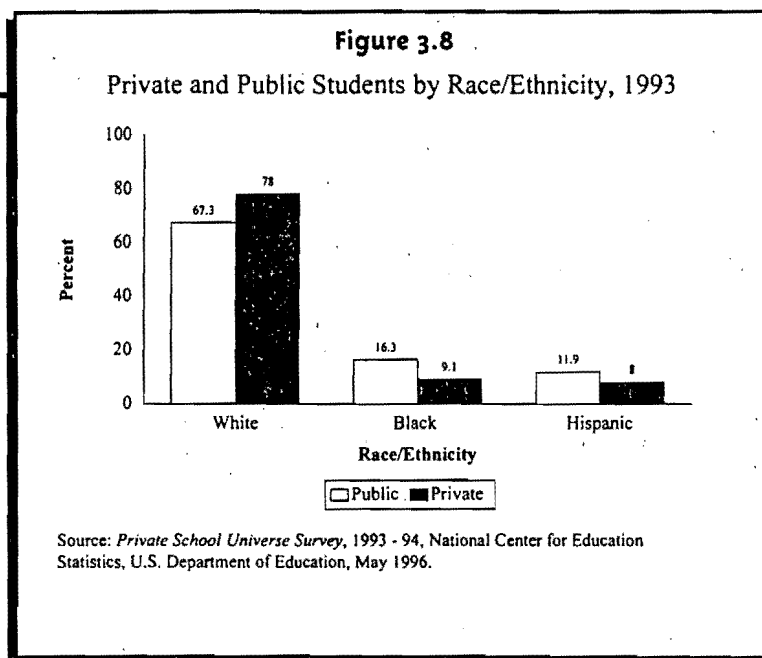
PRIVATE SCHOOL ENROLLMENT FOR PERSONS THREE TO 24 YEARS OLD

	1991	1994
White	87.7%	86.2%
Black	7.5%	10.3%
Hispanic	5.8%	7.7%

Sources: *School Enrollment, Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994 and October 1991*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. (1996)

population.⁶ A comparison between the private and public school enrollment rates that same year indicates that White students accounted for a larger percent of the student population in private schools than in public schools and that Blacks and Latinos accounted for a lower percent of the student population in private schools than in public schools (see

Figure 3.8). In 1993, Whites comprised 78% of the private schools' population, compared to 67% of the public school population; Blacks constituted 9.1% of the student population in private schools, compared to 16.0% in public schools; and Hispanics accounted for 8.0% percent of the private school population, compared to 12.0% of the public school population.



B. ENROLLMENT BELOW MODAL GRADE

1. INTRODUCTION

"Modal grade" is defined as the year of school in which the largest proportion of a given age is enrolled. Below, modal grade data measure the degree to which children are retained in grade over their school careers. Information on grade retention is significant because it is the most important single predictor of a student's dropping out of school. For Hispanics, in particular, U.S. Census data on school enrollment demonstrate that, at critical points in their academic careers, Latinos are more likely to be retained in grade than Whites.

2. BELOW-MODAL-GRADE ENROLLMENT BY AGE AND RACE

In general, data on modal grade enrollment indicate that Hispanics are less likely than their White and Black classmates to fall behind in grade level while in the early stages of their schooling. However, in the latter stages of their academic

progress, higher percentages of Latinos than Whites are enrolled below their modal grade level.

- Data for six-to-eight-year-olds demonstrate that below-modal grade enrollment rates have dropped for all groups between 1988 and 1994 (despite a slight increase in 1990 for Whites and Blacks) (see Figure 3.9). In particular, while Hispanic six-to-eight year-olds were more likely than Whites or Blacks to be below grade in 1988, by 1994 they were less likely to be retained in grade. In 1988, 23.2% of Hispanic six-to-eight-year-olds were enrolled below modal grade compared to 21.0% of Whites and 18.6% of Blacks. However, by 1994, the Hispanic rate decreased by 6.4 percentage points to 16.8%, while the rate for Whites decreased by 1.6 percentage points to 19.4%, and the rate for Blacks decreased by only 0.2 of a percentage point to 18.4%.
- Analysis of the data for other age groups indicates a reversal of the trend identified among six-to-eight-year-olds. For Hispanic nine-to-11-year-olds, the modal grade enrollment rates

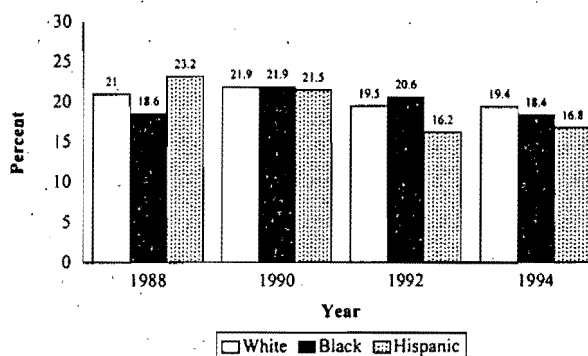
dropped between 1988 and 1994, yet Latinos were more likely to be enrolled below grade level than Whites but less likely than Blacks (see Figure 3.10). In 1988, 37.0% of Hispanic nine-to-11-year-olds were enrolled below modal grade, compared to 27.6% of Whites and 33.1% of Blacks. By 1994, the rate for Hispanics aged nine to 11 years old decreased by 8.6 percentage points to 28.4%, yet this rate was still higher than the 25.8% rate for Whites. The rate for Blacks increased 2.0 percentage points from 33.1% to 35.1%.

- Among 12-to-14-year-olds, Hispanics were again more likely to be enrolled below modal grade than Whites and less likely than Blacks, although the rate for Latinos decreased between 1988 and 1994. In 1988, Hispanics were twice as likely as Whites to be enrolled below grade level (see Figure 3.11). While 45.0% of Hispanics were retained in grade, 27.2% of Whites and 37.6% of Blacks were enrolled below grade level. The data from 1994 indicate that the rate for Hispanics decreased by over 12.7 percentage points since 1988; however, Hispanics still have higher retention rates than Whites. In 1994, 32.3% of Latinos, 30.1% of Whites, and 36.1% of Blacks of this age group were retained in grade.

- The data for the population group of 15-to-17-year-olds demonstrate a similar trend. In

Figure 3.9

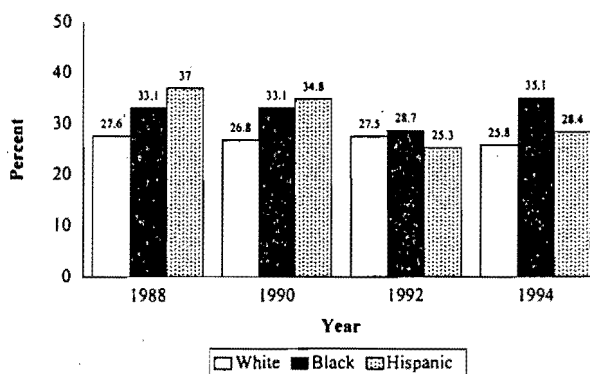
Enrollment Below Modal Grade 6-8-Year-Olds
1988 - 1994



Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, September, 1996.

Figure 3.10

Enrollment Below Modal Grade 9-11-Year-Olds
1988 - 1994



Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, September, 1996.

this case, however, Hispanics are more likely than both their White and Black counterparts to be behind in modal grade. In 1988, 36.8% of Latinos, 23.9% of Whites, and 38.4% of

Blacks between 15 and 17 years old were enrolled below grade level. In 1994, the rates were higher for both Latinos and Whites, but again, Hispanics were more likely to be retained in grade than any other group (see Figure 3.12). Two in five (39.9%) Latino students aged 15-17 were enrolled below grade level. This rate was 10.3 percentage points higher than that for Whites (29.6%), but only 2.2 percentage points above that for Blacks (37.7%).

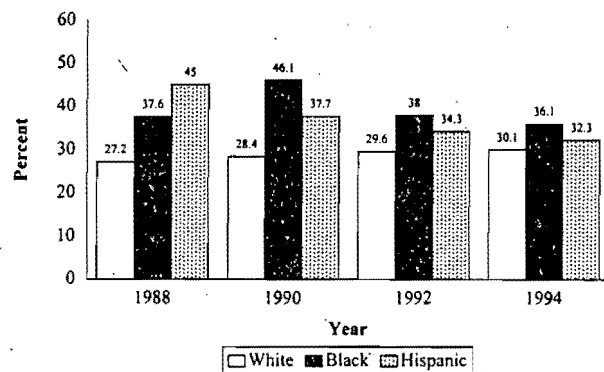
C. ENROLLMENT IN ACADEMIC PROGRAMS

Statistics on participation rates in gifted and talented programs demonstrate that Latinos continue to be underrepresented in such programs even though their overall enrollment rates have increased (see Figure 3.13).

- In 1984, Whites accounted for 71.2% of the overall student population but made up 81.4% of the enrollment in the gifted and talented programs. Hispanics accounted for 9.1% of the total student population, but only 4.7% of students enrolled in gifted and talented programs, and Blacks accounted for 16.2% of the total student popu-

Figure 3.11

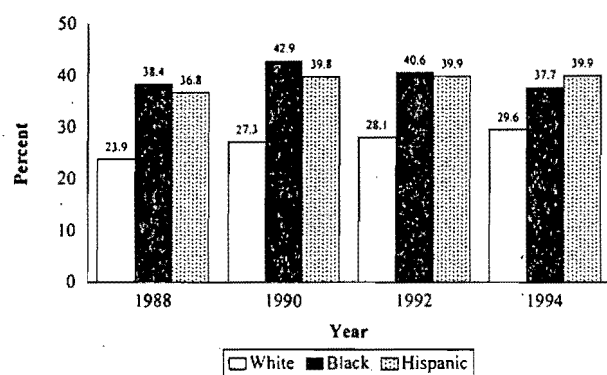
Enrollment Below Modal Grade 12-14-Year-Olds
1988 - 1994



Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, September 1996.

Figure 3.12

Enrollment Below Modal Grade 15-17-Year-Olds
1988 - 1994



Source: *School Enrollment - Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1994*, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, September 1996.

lation but only 8.4% of the students in gifted and talented programs (compare Figure 3.13 with Figure 3.5).

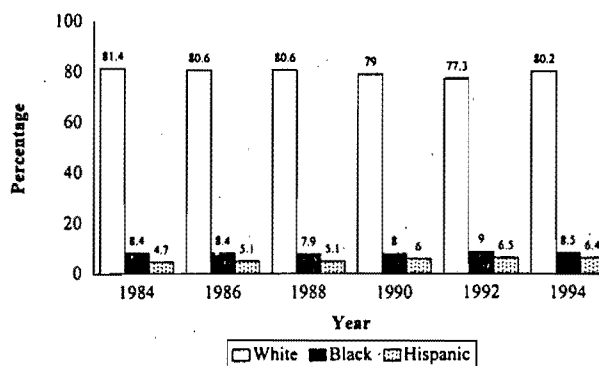
■ By 1994, while the overall enrollment of Hispanics in such programs had increased since 1984 and had decreased for Whites during this time period, there was no corresponding change in the enrollment rates in the gifted and talented programs. While the enrollment rate for Whites decreased by 5.5 percentage points to 65.7% between 1984 and 1994, their enrollment rate in the gifted and talented programs remained relatively constant at 80.2%. By contrast, the Hispanic population grew by 3.6 percentage points to 12.7%, yet only 6.4% were enrolled in the gifted and talented programs. Similarly, while the Black student population increased slightly (15.2% to 16.9%) between 1984 and 1994, they remained under-represented in gifted and talented programs, experiencing only a minor increase, from 8.4% in 1984 to 8.5% in 1994 (compare Figure 3.13 with Figure 3.5).

D. ENROLLMENT IN * SEGREGATED SCHOOLS

Between 1954, when *Brown v. Board of Education* was decided, and the early 1980s, there was slow but significant progress toward desegregating the nation's public schools. However, recent reports from the Harvard University Project on School Desegregation provide "clear signs that [the] progress is coming undone

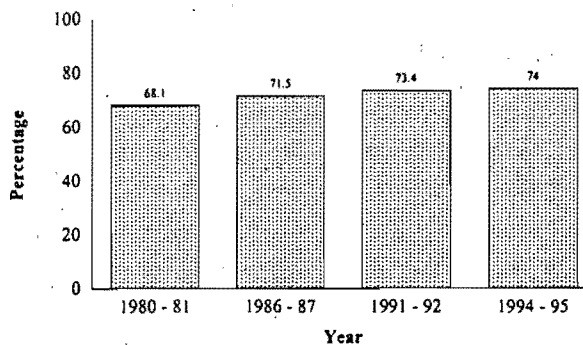
and that the nation is headed backwards toward greater segregation."⁷ The move toward resegregation in the 1990s is, in part, the result of the Reagan and Bush Administrations' active opposition to school desegregation policies. At the same time, various judicial appointments trans-

Figure 3.13
Gifted and Talented Enrollment Rates, 1984 - 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education, 1984 - 1994.

Figure 3.14
Latino Students in Predominantly Minority Schools
1980 - 1994



Source: Gary Orfield, et al, *Deepening Segregation in American Public Schools*, Harvard Project on School Desegregation, April 1997.

formed the federal courts such that they were less receptive to legal arguments supporting desegregation. Consequently, court decisions in the 1990s are permitting a return to segregated neighborhood schools. Whatever the cause, the Harvard Project demonstrates that there is a national increase in segregation, to the point that "racial and ethnic segregation of African American and Latino students has produced a deepening isolation from middle-class students and from successful schools."⁸

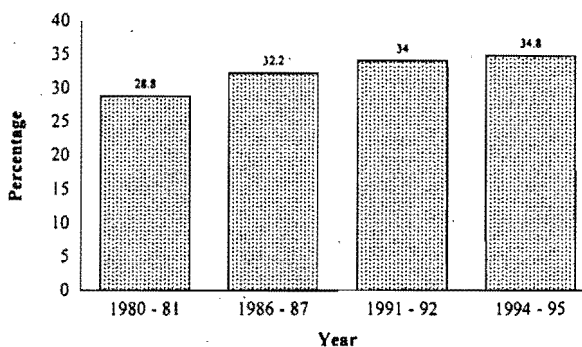
The various measures of segregation used by the Harvard Project demonstrate that over time Latinos have become more segregated; these include:

- The percentage of African American and Latino students in schools with less than half White enrollment
- The number of students experiencing intense isolation in schools having less than one-tenth White students
- The percentage of White students in a school attended by the typical African American or Latino student

Based on the three measures of segregation, Harvard Project Director Gary Orfield concludes that while the segregation of Blacks has increased,

Figure 3.15

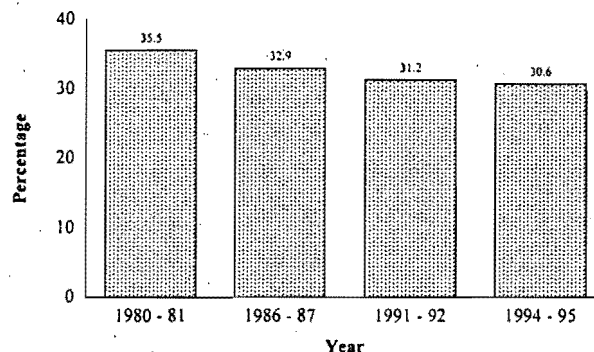
Latino Students in 90 - 100% Minority Schools
1980 - 1994



Source: Gary Orfield, et al, *Deepening Segregation in American Public Schools*, Harvard Project on School Desegregation, April 1997.

Figure 3.16

White Students in Schools Attended by Typical Latino Students
1980 - 1994



Source: Gary Orfield, et al, *Deepening Segregation in American Public Schools*, Harvard Project on School Desegregation, April 1997.

"Latino segregation has become substantially more severe than African American segregation."¹⁰

Figure 3.14 shows that between 1980 and 1995; Latino enrollment in predominantly minor-

ity schools increased from 68.1% to 74.0%. Figure 3.15 shows that in schools with less than one-tenth Whites (the measure of intense isolation), the percentage of Latinos increased from 28.8% in 1980 to 34.8% in 1995. Finally, Figure 3.16 illustrates the decline in the percentage of White students in schools attended by Latino students. In 1980, the proportion of White students in schools attended by Latino students was 35.5%. By 1994, the proportion decreased 4.9 percentage points to 30.6%.

An analysis of the segregation data by state indicates that New York leads the states in the segregation of Latinos, as it did in 1980 (see Figure 3.17). In the measure of percentage of Latinos attending majority White schools, 13.8% of Latinos

attended such schools in New York, 17.3% in California, and 19.6% in Texas. In schools of extreme isolation (90-100% minority), New York was again the leader, with 57.3% of Latinos attending such schools. New Jersey followed with 43.4% and Texas with 43.0% of Latinos enrolled in schools of intense isolation. In addition, 19.2% of Whites in New York were in schools attended by Latino students, compared to 24.8% of Whites in California, and 25.0% of Whites in Texas.

An important finding of the Harvard Project is that:

... [t]he relationship between segregation by race and segregation by poverty in the public schools across the nation is exceptionally strong. The correlation

FIGURE 3.17
STATE RANKINGS IN THE SEGREGATION OF LATINO STUDENTS

1994-95

% of Latinos in Majority White Schools		% of Latinos in 90-100% Minority Schools		% Whites in Schools of Latino Students	
New York	13.8	New York	57.3	New York	19.2
California	17.3	New Jersey	43.4	California	24.8
Texas	19.6	Texas	43.0	Texas	25.0
New Mexico	21.6	California	38.7	New Jersey	29.3
Rhode Island	24.8	Illinois	34.9	Illinois	30.9
Illinois	26.5	Connecticut	32.4	New Mexico	31.0
New Jersey	27.3	Florida	27.6	Florida	34.5
Connecticut	31.9	Pennsylvania	25.8	Connecticut	35.0
Florida	33.2	New Mexico	20.0	Rhode Island	38.0
Arizona	34.0	Arizona	18.9	Arizona	38.2
Pennsylvania	38.3	Indiana	17.0	Pennsylvania	40.9
Massachusetts	39.4	Florida	14.3	Massachusetts	42.8

Source: Gary Orfield, et al, *Deepening Segregation in American Public Schools*, Harvard Project on School Desegregation, Cambridge, MA (1997)

FIGURE 3.18

**HISPANIC STUDENT SUSPENSIONS FOR SELECTED STATES, 1990 & 1994
(NUMBER AND PERCENT OF ALL SUSPENSIONS)**

State	1990		1994**	
	Reported Number	Percent of All State Suspensions	Projected Number	Percent of All State Suspensions
*National	161,344	12.0	404,483	13.1
Arizona	3,660	26.0	16,027	35.4
California	71,339	37.0	149,542	39.9
Colorado	5,067	26.0	12,672	24.0
Florida	11,898	9.0	21,421	11.7
Illinois	5,237	12.0	16,196	11.5
Massachusetts	2,212	15.0	9,268	20.1
New Jersey	3,997	14.0	12,989	14.0
New Mexico	4,639	57.0	16,561	56.6
New York ***	2,640	9.0	17,769	14.7
Texas	31,461	42.0	66,548	40.8

Source: State By State Analysis of Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, 1990 & 1994, Office of Civil Rights, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1990 & 1994)

* National total of Hispanic suspensions and percentage of all suspensions.

** 1990 data are reported data, 1994 data are projected.

*** 1990 data appear suspect.

between the percent of [B]lack and Latino enrollments and the percent of students receiving free lunch is an extremely high .72. *This means that when we talk about racially segregated schools, they are very likely to be segregated by poverty as well.*¹¹ (Emphasis added)

These findings have grave implications for the educational outcomes of Latino students. Given the evidence that high-poverty schools tend to have low rates of educational achievement, and that Latino students are more likely to attend schools segregated by race and poverty, then there is strong evidence that Latino students have difficult hurdles to overcome in the quest for achieving quality education. This is not to say that children in these circumstances cannot obtain educational excellence.

To the contrary, one can find examples of high academic achievement in the midst of segregation and poverty; nevertheless there is a strong relationship between segregation, poverty, and low academic achievement. Moreover, any education agenda addressing the needs of Latino students must also address the twin concerns of segregation and poverty.

E. SUSPENSION RATES

Student suspension has traditionally been looked at as an important indicator in identifying students facing serious problems, and it is considered a risk factor for dropping out of school. Students suspended from school do not have the opportunity to participate in regular day-to-day classroom activities and, consequently, fall behind in

1990 and 1994, while the percentages decreased from 71% to 64.3%.

G. ACHIEVEMENT TEST SCORES

1. INTRODUCTION

Since 1969, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) has conducted periodic testing of the nation's students in areas including reading, mathematics, science, writing, and computers. (The NAEP testing results are based on sampling techniques, as opposed to other proposed tests basing results on the aggregation of individual results.) This long-term assessment provides "information about students' achievement over time."¹² The data presented below illustrate the NAEP results by race and ethnicity.

2. READING

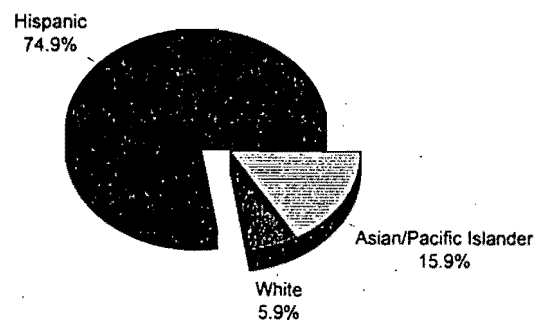
The national average in the NAEP reading scores for all age groups remained relatively unchanged between 1988 and 1994. Overall, Whites continued to perform above the national average, while Blacks and Hispanics consistently performed well below the national average.

In addition, the gap between Whites' and Hispanics' reading scores is growing, albeit at a slow pace:

- In 1988, for the population of nine-year-olds, the difference in scores between Whites (218) and Latinos (194) in the NAEP reading scores was 24 points; the gap between Whites and

Figure 3.25

Percentage of Students Needing Bilingual Education Programs by Race/Ethnicity 1994



Source: Elementary and Secondary School Civil Rights Compliance Report, U.S. Department of Education, 1994

Blacks (189) was 29 points. By 1994, the gap between test scores for Whites and Hispanics (186) grew to 32 points; and increased to 33 points for Whites and Blacks (185) (see Figure 3.26).

- In 1988, the difference in test scores between 13-year-old Whites (261) and Hispanics (240) was 21 points; and between Whites and Blacks (243) was 18 points. By 1994, the gap in test scores between Whites (265) and Hispanics (235) increased by 30 points; for Whites and Blacks (234) the gap was 31 points (see Figure 3.27).
- In 1988, the difference in test scores between 17-year-old Whites (295) and Hispanics (271) was 24 points; and between Whites and Blacks (274) was 21 points. In 1994 the gap between Whites (296) and Hispanics (263) was 33 points; and the gap between Whites and Blacks (266) was 30 points (see Figure 3.28).

The NAEP study also assesses levels of reading performance. NAEP has identified five levels of reading performance:

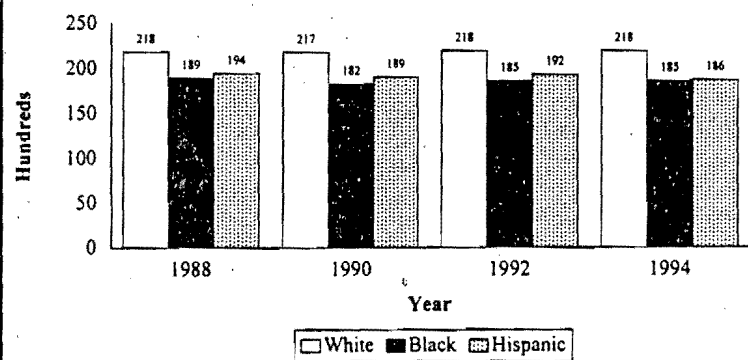
- **Level 350:** Ability to Learn from Specialized Reading Materials
- **Level 300:** Ability to Understand Complicated Information
- **Level 250:** Ability to Interrelate Ideas and Make Generalizations
- **Level 200:** Partially-Developed Skills and Understanding
- **Level 150:** Ability to Perform Simple Discrete Reading

Figure 3.29 shows the percentage of nine-, 13-, and 17-year-olds who have performed at or above each of the reading performance levels listed above. Generally, the test results demonstrated an increase for all age categories and race/ethnic groups. However, Whites were more likely to score at or above the Reading Performance Levels than either Blacks or Hispanics. Some highlights of the results are:

- Among nine-year-olds who demonstrated mastery at Level 200, NAEP reported an increase between 1971 and 1994 for Whites and Blacks, and between 1975 and 1994 for Latinos.* However, Whites and Hispanics experienced modest gains compared to Blacks. Between 1971 and 1974 the percentage of Whites who scored at or above Level 200 increased from 65% to 70%; and from 22% to 38% for Blacks. The smallest gain (2.0 percentage points) was for Latinos between 1975 and 1994, from 35% to 37%.

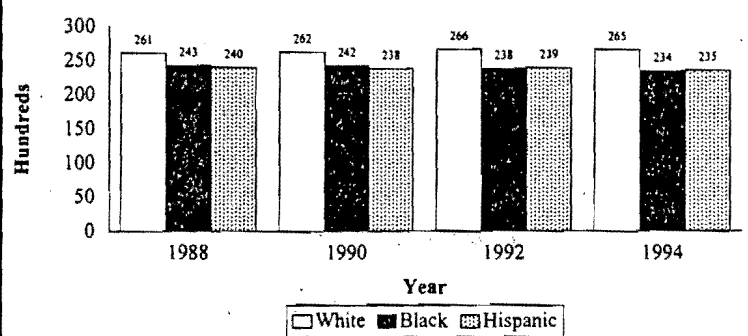
* Initial results for Whites and Blacks are from 1971, while the first assessment of Latinos was done in 1975.

Figure 3.26
Reading Scores for Nine-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Figure 3.27
Reading Scores for 13-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

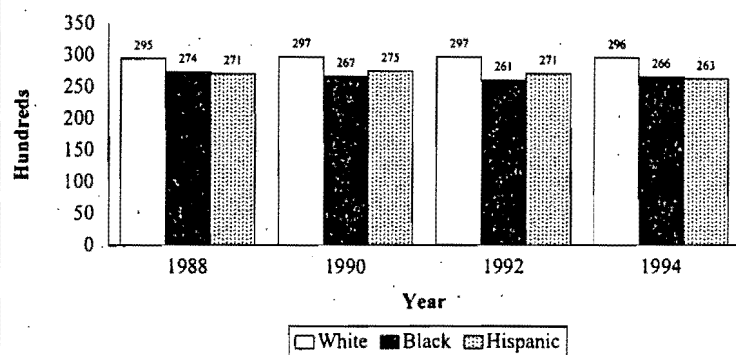
- Among nine-year-olds who demonstrated mastery at level 250, all groups again experienced an increase. There was an increase between 1971 and 1994 for Whites and Blacks, and between 1975 and 1994 for Latinos. However, despite the noted increase in 1994, Whites were still over three times more likely than Hispanics to score at that level. In 1994, while 20% of White nine-year-olds scored at or above the 250 Level, only 4% of Blacks and 6% of Hispanics demonstrated similar mastery.

- Among 13-year-olds at the 250 Level, there was an increase in the percentage of White and Black students who scored at or above that level between 1971 and 1994. Latinos also experienced an increase between 1975 and 1994. But again, despite the gains for Hispanics in 1994, Whites were twice as likely as Latinos to score at or above Level 250; in 1994, 68% of Whites scored at the 250 Level, compared to 36% of Blacks and 34% of Hispanics.

- Whites and Blacks experienced an increase in the percentage of 13-year-old students who scored at or above the 300 Level between 1971 and 1994. Latinos also experienced an increase between 1975 and 1994. In 1994, Whites were four times more likely than Hispanics to score at the 300 Level; while 17% of Whites tested at that level, only 4% of Blacks and 4% of Hispanics scored at the 300 Level.

- Between 1971 and 1994, 17-year-old Whites made only modest gains at the 250 Level com-

Figure 3.28
Reading Scores for 17-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

pared to their Black and Hispanic counterparts. In 1971, 84% of Whites and 40% of Blacks, and in 1975, 53% of Hispanics, performed at or above the Level 250. By 1994, 86% of Whites, 66% of Blacks, and 63% of Hispanics scored at Level 250.

- In 1994, among 17-year-olds, 48% of Whites, 22% of Blacks, and 20% of Hispanics scored at the 300 Level. The scores increased from 1971, when 43% of Whites and 8% of Blacks, and from 1975, when 13% of Hispanics, scored at Level 300.

★ 3. WRITING

NAEP also conducted trend writing assessments in 1994 that involved nationally representative samples of fourth, eighth, and 11th graders. Similar assessments have been done since 1984. Between 1984 to 1994, NAEP found no real changes in writing scale scores across grades for all students as a whole. During this time, fourth-graders' scale scores increased by one point, eighth-

Figure 3.29
TRENDS IN PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS
AT OR ABOVE READING PERFORMANCE LEVELS
BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1971/1975 AND 1994

		1971		1975	1994		
LEVEL	AGE	WHITE	BLACK	HISPANIC	WHITE	BLACK	HISPANIC
LEVEL 350	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
	13	0	0	0	1	0	0
	17	8	0	1	9	2	2
LEVEL 300	9	1	0	0	1	0	0
	13	11	1	2	17	4	4
	17	43	8	13	48	22	20
LEVEL 250	9	18	2	3	20	4	6
	13	64	21	32	68	36	34
	17	84	40	53	86	66	63
LEVEL 200	9	65	22	35	70	38	37
	13	96	74	81	95	81	82
	17	98	82	89	98	93	91
LEVEL 150	9	94	70	81	96	79	80
	13	100	99	100	100	99	99
	17	100	98	99	100	100	99

Source: *NAEP 1994 Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

graders' scores decreased by one point, and 11th-graders' scores decreased by five points. Hispanic students experienced slight gains in average writing scale scores during the 1984-1994 period. Although significant narrowing was seen at several of the writing performance levels shown in Figure 3.33, the gap between Whites and Hispanics in writing proficiency remained relatively constant overall during this period.

- At grade four, the gap between the test scores of White, Black, and Hispanic students remained constant between 1988 and 1994. In 1994 the gap between Whites (214) and Blacks

(173) was 41 points; the gap between Whites and Latinos (189) was 25 points. In 1998 the gap between Whites and Blacks was 42 points and between Whites and Hispanics was 25 points (see Figure 3.30).

- At grade eight, there was a slight two-point increase between 1988 and 1994 in the average writing scale score for Hispanics, from 250 to 252. Despite this increase, in 1994 White eighth-graders (272) still performed at higher levels than Black students (245) by 27 points (the highest in 10 years) and than Hispanic students (252) by 20 points. In 1988, Whites

scored an average of 269 points, compared to 246 for Blacks (a 23-point difference) and 250 points for Hispanics (a 19-point difference) (See Figure 3.31).

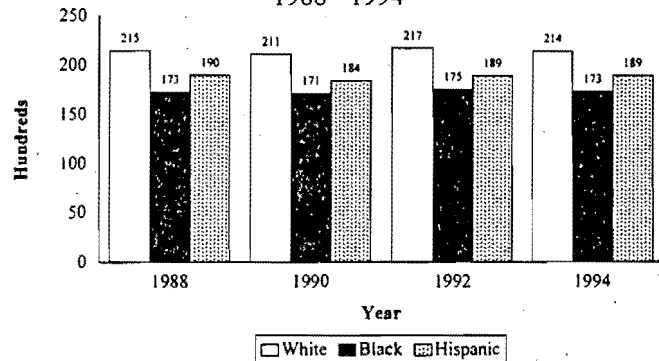
- At grade 11, the score for all groups decreased between 1988 and 1994; however, the gaps between groups remained approximately the same. The scores for Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics decreased from 296 to 291; from 275 to 267; and from 274 to 271, respectively. In 1994, the gap between Whites (291) and Blacks (267) was 24 points; the gap between Whites and Hispanics (271) was 20 points. In 1988, the gap between Whites and Blacks was 21 points and between Whites and Hispanics 22 points (see Figure 3.32).

The trend writing assessment ranges from 0 to 500 with the following evaluations:

- ❖ **Level 350** - Effective, coherent writing
- ❖ **Level 300** - Complete, sufficient writing
- ❖ **Level 250** - Beginning focused, clear writing
- ❖ **Level 200** - Incomplete, vague writing
- ❖ **Level 150** - Brief, disjointed, unclear writing, difficult to understand

Figure 3.30

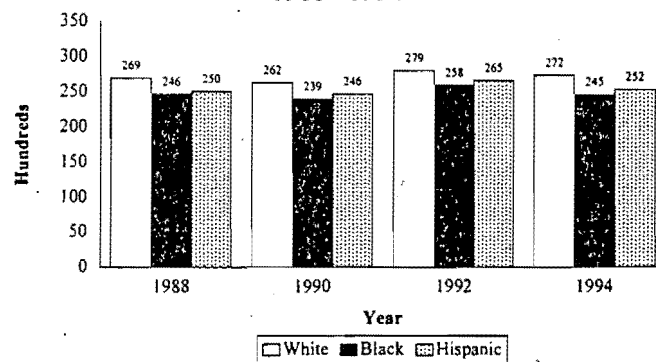
Writing Scores for Grade 4 by Race/Ethnicity
1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Figure 3.31

Writing Scores for Grade 8 by Race/Ethnicity
1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Figure 3.33 shows percentages of students performing at or above the five assessment levels.

Some progress is noted at Levels 250 and 300 for grades eight and eleven:

- At grade eight, the percentage of students testing at Level 250 decreased for Whites and Blacks while it increased for Hispanics between 1984 and 1994. While the percentage of White students testing at Level 250 decreased from 79% to 75% and the percentage for Black students decreased from 48% to 43%, the percentage of Hispanics testing at this level increased five percentage points, from 47% to 52% (see Figure 3.33).
- The percentage of all eighth-grade students testing at or above Level 300 increased between 1984 and 1994. The percentage of Whites testing at this level increased from 16% to 21%, compared to increases for Blacks from 3% to 5% and for Hispanics from 4% to 9% (see Figure 3.33). The gaps between White and Black students increased during this same period from 13 to 16 points at the 300 Level; 31 to 32 points at the 250 Level; and three to eight points at the 200 Level. Between Whites and Hispanics, gaps remained relatively constant, except at the 250 Level, where the difference between groups narrowed from 32 points in 1984 to 23 points in 1994 (see Figure 3.33).
- The percentages of White and Black students in the 11th grade testing at or above Level 250 decreased, but increased for Hispanic students in the 10-year period

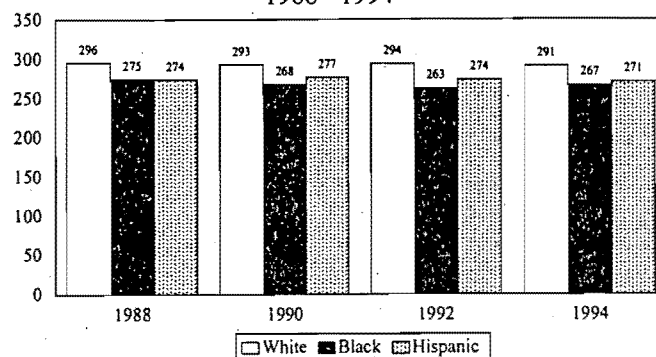
from 1984 to 1994. In 1984, 79% of Whites, 48% of Blacks, and 47% of Hispanics tested at Level 250. By 1994, the rates for Whites and Blacks decreased to 75% and 43%, respectively. However, the percentage of Hispanics testing at this level increased by five percentage points to 52% (see Figure 3.33).

- At grade 11, the percentage of White students testing at Level 300 decreased from 46% in 1984 to 39% in 1994. The percentage of Hispanics testing at this assessment level increased from 8% in 1984 to 20% in 1994. The percentage for Blacks remained constant at 16% during the same period (see Figure 3.33).

* 4. MATHEMATICS

Since the establishment of standards in school mathematics in 1989, attention has been given to this discipline and its role in school curricula. This attention has resulted in the reworking of school

Figure 3.32
Writing Scores for Grade 11 by Race/Ethnicity
1988 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

curricula and teaching programs, an increased focus on faculty development in mathematics, and advances in assessing student progress in the subject. The testing conducted by NAEP, which involved sampling students from across the country, provides a national picture of mathematics performance by Black, White, and Hispanic students at the ages of nine, 13, and 17. These long-term trend assessments employed a set of questions that focused heavily on students' performance and associated achievement levels related to the use of manipulatives and performance on constructed-re-

sponse questions.¹³ They also contained extended sets of background questions describing the context of students' mathematics learning experiences, both in and out of school.

The results from the NAEP long-term trend assessments in mathematics provide a wide range of information about how students' performance has changed over time:

- The average mathematics scale score of nine-year-olds, beginning with the 1986 assessment, shows a pattern of enhanced performance.

Figure 3.33
TRENDS IN PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS
AT OR ABOVE FIVE WRITING PERFORMANCE LEVELS
BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1984 AND - 1994

LEVEL	GRADE	1984			1994		
		WHITE	BLACK	HISPANIC	WHITE	BLACK	HISPANIC
LEVEL 350	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
	8	0	0	0	1	0	0
	11	3	0	0	3	0	1
LEVEL 300	4	1	0	1	2	0	0
	8	16	3	4	21	5	9
	11	46	16	8	39	16	20
LEVEL 250	4	13	3	5	15	2	4
	8	79	48	47	75	43	52
	11	95	76	62	89	71	74
LEVEL 200	4	62	29	37	67	22	38
	8	99	95	93	98	90	92
	11	100	99	97	100	98	97
LEVEL 150	4	96	81	84	96	75	86
	8	100	100	100	100	100	100
	11	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: NAEP 1994 Trends in Academic Progress, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

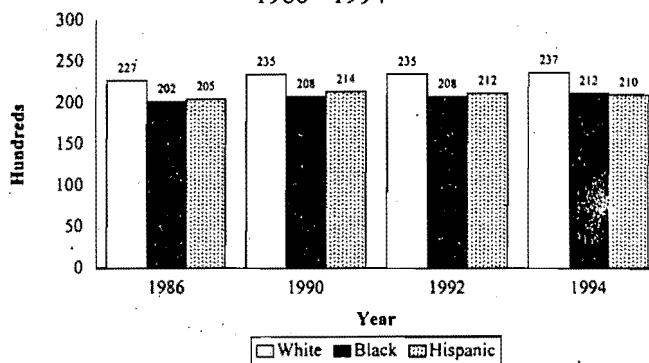
However, Whites continued to outperform their Black and Hispanic counterparts, and while the gap in scores between Whites and Blacks remained constant, the gap in scores between Whites and Hispanics grew. In 1994 the score for Whites was 237, compared to 212 for Blacks and 210 for Hispanics. The 1994 results show an increase for all groups since 1986, with Whites scoring 227 points, compared to 202 points for Blacks and 205 for Hispanics (see Figure 3.34).

- The mathematics scores for 13-year-olds show a modest increase for Whites, compared to just discernible increases for both Blacks and Hispanics. Additionally, the gap in scores also grew slowly between 1986 and 1994. In 1994, the gap of average scores between White (281) and Black (252) 13-year-olds was 29 points, compared to a gap of 25 points between Whites and Hispanics (256) of the same age. In 1986, the gap between Whites (274) and Blacks (249) was 25 points; and between Whites and Hispanics (254), the gap was 20 points (see Figure 3.35).

- The mathematics scale scores for 17-year-olds is notable not only for the improvements in scores of all groups, but also for a slow decrease in the gap between Whites and their Black and Hispanic counterparts. While

Figure 3.34

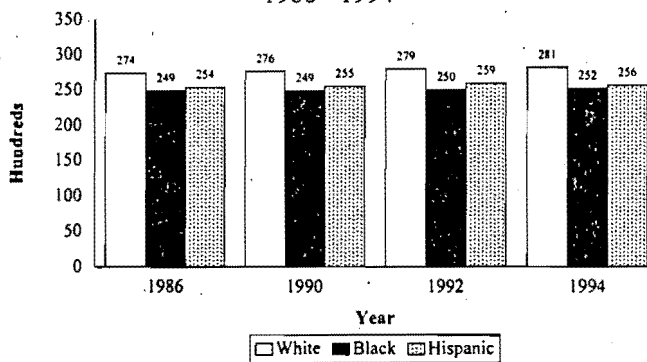
Mathematics Scores for Nine Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994



Source: NAEP Trends in Academic Progress, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Figure 3.35

Mathematics Scores for 13-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994



Source: NAEP Trends in Academic Progress, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

White students have consistently outperformed their Black and Hispanic classmates, the average score gap in 1994 between Whites (312) and Blacks (286) was 26 points, compared to the gap in 1986, which was 29 points.

The difference in test scores in 1994 between Whites and Hispanics (291) was 21 points, compared to a gap of 25 points in 1986, when Whites scored 308 points while Hispanics scored 283 (see Figure 3.36).

Figure 3.37 details the performance of groups and subgroups of students for the years 1978 and 1994 at the following five performance levels:

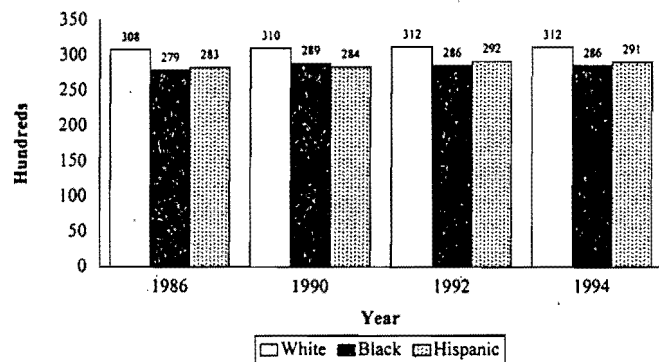
- **Level 350 - Multi-Step Problem Solving and Algebra**
- **Level 300 - Moderately Complex Procedures and Reasoning**
- **Level 250 - Basic Operations and Beginning Problem Solving**
- **Level 200 - Beginning Skills and Understandings**
- **Level 150 - Simple Arithmetic Facts**

Overall, a higher percentage of Whites than Hispanics and Blacks tested at or above each of the five assessment levels. Despite the great strides Hispanics have made between 1978 and 1994, White students have tested at the higher NAEP assessment levels over this 16-year period:

- Among nine-year-olds testing at Level 250, Whites outperformed both Blacks and Hispanics in 1978 and 1994. Additionally, the percentage of students performing at this level increased for all groups, but the difference in progress between Whites and Hispanics is extreme. In 1978, 23% of Whites tested at this level, compared to 4% of Blacks and 9% of

Figure 3.36

Mathematics Scores for 17-Year-Olds by Race/Ethnicity
1986 - 1994



Source: *NAEP Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, November 1996.

Hispanics. Over 16 years, the percentage of Whites testing at Level 250 increased by 12 percentage points to 35%; by contrast, Hispanics experienced a gain of only one percentage point to 10% during the same period (see Figure 3.37).

- At Level 200, a greater percentage of Hispanic nine-year-olds performed at or above this level in 1994 than in 1978, but the gap between the percentage of Whites and Hispanics performing at this level remained constant. In 1978, there was a 22-percentage-point difference between Whites (76%) and Hispanics (54%) reaching Level 200. By 1994, the percentage gap increased to 23 percentage points; 87% of White nine-year-olds scored at Level 200, while 64% of Hispanics scored at this level (see Figure 3.37).
- Among 13-year-olds, 86% of White students tested at Level 250 in 1994, compared to 51% of Blacks and 59% of Hispanics. This proportion increased for all groups since 1978, with 73% of White 13-year-olds scoring at Level

Figure 3.37
TRENDS IN PERCENTAGES OF STUDENTS
AT OR ABOVE FIVE MATHEMATICS PERFORMANCE LEVELS
BY RACE/ETHNICITY, 1978 AND 1994

		1978			1994		
LEVEL	AGE	WHITE	BLACK	HISPANIC	WHITE	BLACK	HISPANIC
LEVEL 350	9	0	0	0	0	0	0
	13	1	0	0	1	0	0
LEVEL 300	17	9	1	1	9	0	1
	9	1	0	0	2	0	0
	13	21	2	4	26	6	6
LEVEL 250	17	58	17	23	67	30	38
	9	23	4	9	35	11	10
	13	73	29	36	86	51	59
LEVEL 200	17	96	71	78	98	91	92
	9	76	42	54	87	66	64
	13	98	80	86	99	96	97
LEVEL 150	17	100	99	99	100	100	100
	9	98	88	93	100	97	97
	13	100	99	100	100	100	100
	17	100	100	100	100	100	100

Source: *NAEP 1994 Trends in Academic Progress*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

250, compared to 29% of Blacks and 36% of Hispanics (see Figure 3.37).

- In 1978, over one-half (58%) of White 17-year-olds tested at or above Level 300, yet less than two-fifths of comparable Blacks and Hispanics combined (17% and 23%, respectively) reached this level that year. By 1994, slightly more than two-thirds (67%) of Whites tested at the 300 assessment level; by comparison, a similar proportion of *both* Blacks (30%) and Hispanics (38%) reached this level (see Figure 3.37).

5. SCIENCE

To help policymakers and educators assess the outcomes of their quest for excellence in science learning, the NAEP long-term-trend science assessment sampled students from across the country at ages nine, 13, and 17. These trend science assessments contain both a content and a cognitive dimension. The content dimension assesses students' ability to conduct inquiries, solve problems, and know science. NAEP also assesses students' understanding of the nature of science within the context of both content area knowledge and cognition.

H. CURRICULUM

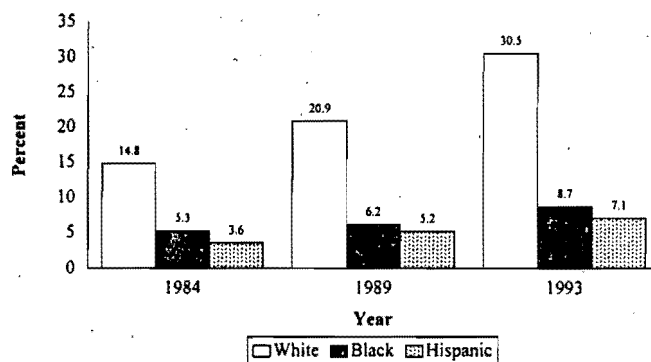
1. CARNEGIE UNITS EARNED BY HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES

Carnegie units are a standard measure of high school credits earned, defined in terms of class time, and approximately equivalent to one class meeting five times a week for one class period throughout the school year. Credits earned are a measure of the quantity of courses taken, and not the quality of the learning that took place. As of 1992, Hispanic graduates continue to earn fewer credits in history, science, and mathematics than other groups. Hispanics have, however, earned more credits in computer science, foreign languages, and English than other groups (see Figure 3.46).

- While the gap in Carnegie units in mathematics earned between Hispanics and other groups has narrowed significantly since 1982, insufficient progress has been made by Hispanics in regard to science. In 1992, Hispanic students earned an average of 2.60 Carnegie units in science, as compared to 2.93 for Whites and 2.74 for Blacks.
- Hispanic high school graduates continue to earn more credits in English than in any other subject. In 1992, Hispanic students earned an

Figure 3.44

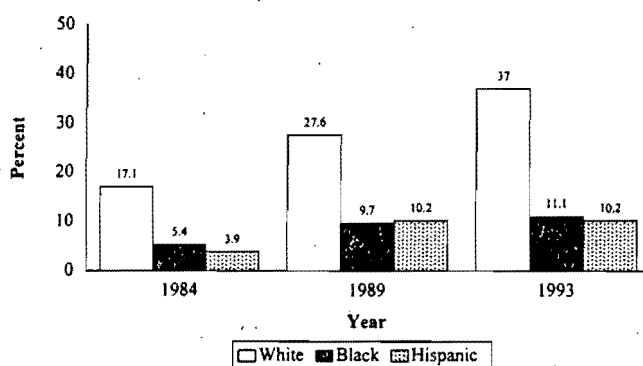
Computer Use at Home, Grades 1-6 by Race/Ethnicity, 1984 - 1993



Source: *The Condition of Education 1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1995.

Figure 3.45

Computer Use at Home, Grades 7-12 by Race/Ethnicity 1984 - 1993



Source: *The Condition of Education 1995*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1995.

average of 4.26 Carnegie units in English, compared to 4.20 for Blacks and 4.17 for Whites.

- In 1992, Hispanics also earned more Carnegie units in computer science and foreign language classes than other groups. Hispanic students earned an average of 0.41 Carnegie units in computer science and 1.76 Carnegie units in

foreign languages, compared to 0.34 and 1.70 in these respective subjects for Whites, and 0.38 and 1.28 for Blacks.

2. MATH AND SCIENCE COURSE ENROLLMENT

A greater percentage of Hispanic high school graduates took upper-level math and science courses in 1994 than in 1987. With the exception of subjects such as algebra, trigonometry, astronomy, and engineering, Hispanic students took more upper-level mathematics and science courses in 1994 for subjects such as algebra II, geometry, pre-calculus, calculus, biology, honors biology,

chemistry, honors chemistry, physics, honors physics, and geology than in 1987 (See Figure 3.47).

- In a number of subjects such as algebra I, algebra II, geometry, pre-calculus, biology, and chemistry, the gaps between Hispanics and Whites have closed significantly. In 1987, 51.9% of Whites were enrolled in algebra II, compared to 32.4% of Blacks and 30.2% of Hispanics. By 1994, while Whites experienced an increase in their enrollment in such subjects of 9.7 percentage points to 61.6%, Hispanic enrollment increased by 20.8 percentage points to 51.0%, and Black enrollment increased by 11.3 percentage points to 43.7%.

Figure 3.46
NUMBER OF CREDITS EARNED BY HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES IN
SELECTED MAJOR SUBJECT FIELDS BY RACE/ETHNICITY, SELECTED YEARS

	1982			1987		
	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic
English	3.84	4.06	3.88	4.01	4.09	3.97
History/Social Studies	3.19	3.09	3.02	3.29	3.32	3.20
Mathematics	2.59	2.53	2.26	3.03	2.96	2.87
Computer Science	0.09	0.08	0.04	0.33	0.23	0.21
Science	2.24	2.04	1.79	2.58	2.32	2.21
Foreign Languages	1.02	0.70	0.76	1.35	1.09	1.50

	1990			1992		
	White	Black	Hispanic	White	Black	Hispanic
English	4.08	4.25	4.05	4.17	4.20	4.26
History/Social Studies	3.48	3.49	3.44	3.61	3.59	3.38
Mathematics	3.18	3.23	3.21	3.38	3.37	3.36
Computer Science	0.35	0.39	0.32	0.34	0.38	0.41
Science	2.80	2.67	2.49	2.93	2.74	2.60
Foreign Languages	1.59	1.23	1.97	1.70	1.28	1.76

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

■ Despite increases in upper-level course selection for Hispanics, Hispanic students overall continue to be less likely than White students to take upper-level mathematics and science courses. For example, in 1987, 2.8% of Whites,

1.5% of Blacks, and 1.6% of Hispanics were taking Advanced Placement (AP) biology. By 1994 the rates increased for all groups to 4.6% of Whites, 2.7% of Blacks, and 3.3% of Hispanics.

FIGURE 3.47

PERCENTAGE OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES TAKING SELECTED MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE COURSES, BY RACE AND ETHNICITY, 1987 & 1994

MATHEMATICS COURSES (Credits)	1987				1994		
	White	Black	Hispanic	Total	White	Black	Hispanic
Any Mathematics	99.3	99.5	99.4	99.6	99.6	99.3	99.2
Algebra I (1)	77.7	70.7	73.1	66.4	67.5	65.0	70.7
Algebra II (.5)	51.9	32.4	30.2	58.6	61.6	43.7	51.0
Geometry (1)	65.1	44.0	40.2	70.4	72.7	58.1	69.4
Trigonometry (.5)	20.9	10.9	9.9	17.2	18.6	13.6	9.8
Analysis or Pre-Calculus (.5)	13.5	5.1	7.4	17.3	18.2	9.8	13.9
Calculus (1)	5.9	2.3	3.6	9.2	9.6	3.8	6.0
SCIENCE COURSES (Credits)	1987				1994		
	White	Black	Hispanic	Total	White	Black	Hispanic
Any Science (1)	98.7	98.7	98.5	99.5	99.7	99.5	99.3
Biology (1)	89.2	86.2	85.4	93.5	94.4	91.3	94.0
AP/Honors Biology (1)	2.8	1.5	1.6	4.6	4.6	2.7	3.3
Chemistry (1)	47.7	29.8	29.4	56.0	58.5	43.8	46.5
AP/Honors Chemistry (1)	3.5	1.2	2.3	3.9	4.3	2.1	2.5
Physics (1)	20.9	10.1	9.8	24.4	26.1	14.7	16.0
AP/Honors Physics (1)	1.7	0.4	0.8	2.4	2.5	1.4	1.8
Engineering (1)	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.1
Astronomy (.5)	0.9	0.3	0.8	1.7	2.0	0.6	0.4
Geology (.5)	14.4	18.8	11.8	23.0	23.8	23.3	15.3
Biology/Chemistry (2)	46.0	28.6	28.2	53.8	56.4	42.2	45.1
Bio/Chem/Physics (3)	17.9	8.8	8.2	21.3	22.7	13.0	13.4

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

(Note: No disaggregated statistics for subgroups are available for 1982-1992)

FIGURE 3.48
PERCENT OF SENIORS REPORTING ENROLLMENT IN GENERAL, ACADEMIC,
AND VOCATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS, 1972, 1980 AND 1992

	General			Academic			Vocational		
	1972	1980	1992	1972	1980	1992	1972	1980	1992
TOTAL	31.8	36.9	40.0	45.7	38.7	47.7	22.4	24.4	12.3
SEX									
Male	33.1	38.0	40.9	48.3	39.0	46.6	18.6	23.0	12.5
Female	30.6	35.9	39.1	43.2	38.4	48.8	26.2	25.7	12.1
RACE/ETHNICITY									
Black	34.2	35.2	40.2	32.7	33.0	42.8	33.1	31.7	17.0
White	30.6	37.1	38.7	48.6	39.8	49.9	20.8	23.1	11.4
Hispanic	42.4	41.6	50.6	27.4	26.9	35.4	30.1	31.5	14.1

Source: NCES - NELS:88 *Trends Among High School Seniors, 1972-1992*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1995)

- Again, while the enrollment numbers of all groups increased for physics, chemistry, trigonometry, and algebra II, Black and Hispanic students in 1994 continued to trail their White counterparts by 10 or more percentage points in their participation in such classes. In 1994, 56.4% of Whites were enrolled in biology/chemistry compared to 42.2% of Blacks and 45.1% of Hispanics.

3. HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

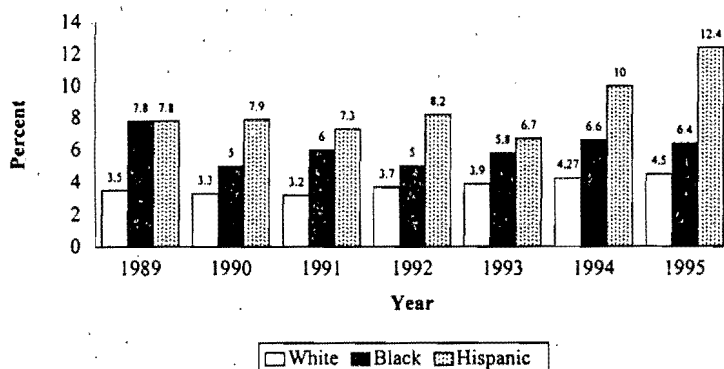
The type of program used to instruct high school students varies from school to school. The variation in programs reflects different schooling system approaches to meeting two basic, yet partially competing, objectives: providing a common education to all students and preparing students for very different postsecondary educational and

work experiences.¹⁴ The most popular form of school organization used to meet these objectives, established early this century, has been the comprehensive high school. This type of program differentiates students into three main types of curriculum: college preparatory or academic, vocational preparatory, and a hybrid of the two — the general studies program.

The main alternative to the comprehensive form is the specialized high school, which may offer either a vocational or an academic program of study. Historically, most specialized public schools have been vocational high schools. In recent years, specialized academic “magnet schools” within urban districts have become widespread. Private and parochial high schools also usually specialize in a college preparatory program.¹⁵

- In 1992, a greater proportion of Hispanic students (50.6%) was enrolled in general programs of study than either Whites (38.7%) or Blacks (40.2%) (see Figure 3.48).
- A smaller proportion of Latino students (35.4%) was enrolled in academic (college preparatory) programs of study than their White (49.9%) or Black (42.8%) counterparts.
- Overall, there has been a general decrease in the percentage of students enrolled in vocational programs of study for all groups. However, Hispanic students are enrolled in vocational programs of study at a higher level (14.1%) than White students (11.4%), but at a lower level than Black students (17.0%).
- Between 1972 and 1992, the proportion of Hispanics in general and academic programs of study has increased. In 1992, one-half (50.6%) of Hispanic students were enrolled in general programs of study, compared to more than two in five (42.4%) in 1972. Similarly, more than one-third (35.4%) of Hispanic students were enrolled in academic programs of study, compared to more than one-fourth (27.4%) in 1972. In terms of vocational programs, the proportion of Hispanic enrollment decreased from 30.1% in 1972 to 14.1% in 1992.

Figure 3.49
Event Dropout Rates, 1989 - 1995



Source: *The Condition of Education 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. June 1996; *The Condition of Education 1997*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, June 1997.

* I. EDUCATION ATTAINMENT

1. EVENT HIGH SCHOOL DROPOUT RATE

The event dropout rate measures the number of students in grades 10-12, aged 15-24, who were enrolled in school the previous October, but who were not enrolled and had not graduated the following October.

- The event dropout rate for 1995 indicates that Hispanics are more than twice as likely as Whites to drop out of school during the school year. In 1995, the event dropout rate for Hispanics was 12.4%, compared to 4.5% for Whites and 6.4% for Blacks (see Figure 3.49).
- There has been an upward trend in the Latino dropout rate between 1989 and 1995. During

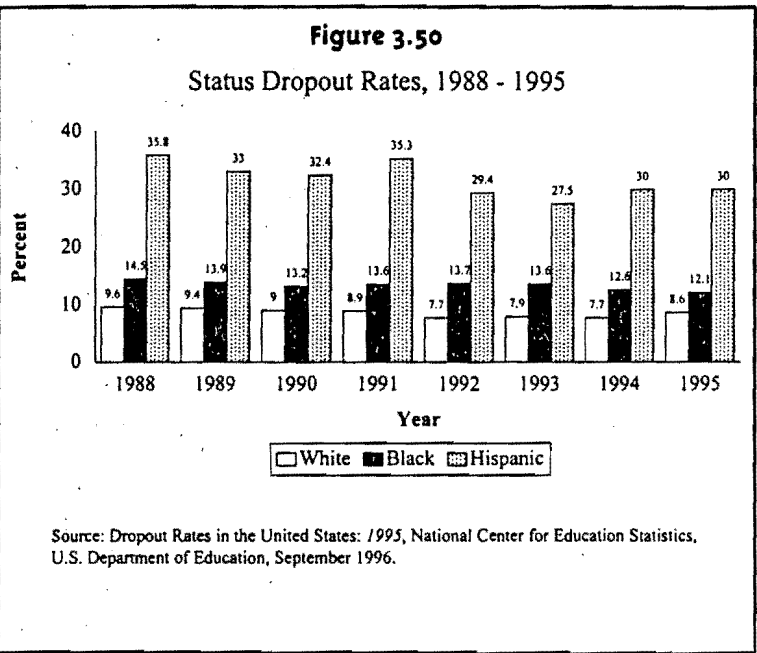
this time, the Hispanic event dropout rate increased by 4.6 percentage points, although it did decline to a low of 6.7% in 1993. During the same period, the rate for Whites reached a low of 3.2% in 1991, but increased to 4.5% by 1995. The data for Blacks demonstrate that the rate decreased from 7.8% in 1989 to 6.4% in 1995. However, between 1992 and 1994, the event dropout rate for Blacks increased, with a slight leveling off by 1995 (see Figure 3.49).

* 2. STATUS DROPOUT RATES

The status dropout rate includes a count of all young adults who are not in school and have not graduated regardless of when they last attended school. In general, the status dropout rate will be higher than the event dropout rate because the figure is cumulative.

Recent reports on high school dropout rates appropriately note that the proportion of African Americans dropping out of school is higher than that of Whites. A promising note, however, is that the gap between Whites and Blacks continues to close. This is not the case for Hispanics. Overall, there has been insufficient attention given to the increasing gap between White and Hispanic dropout rates (see Figure 3.50).

- In 1994, the Hispanic status dropout rate (30.0%) was over four times higher than that of Whites (7.7%) and over two times higher than that of Blacks (12.6%).
- Between 1988 and 1994, the Latino status dropout rate experienced an overall decrease of 5.8 percentage points, although within that period there was a fluctuation of the rate. As



shown in Figure 3.50, in 1992, the Hispanic dropout rate began to decline, and experienced a low of 27.5% in 1993, but by 1994 it began to increase again.

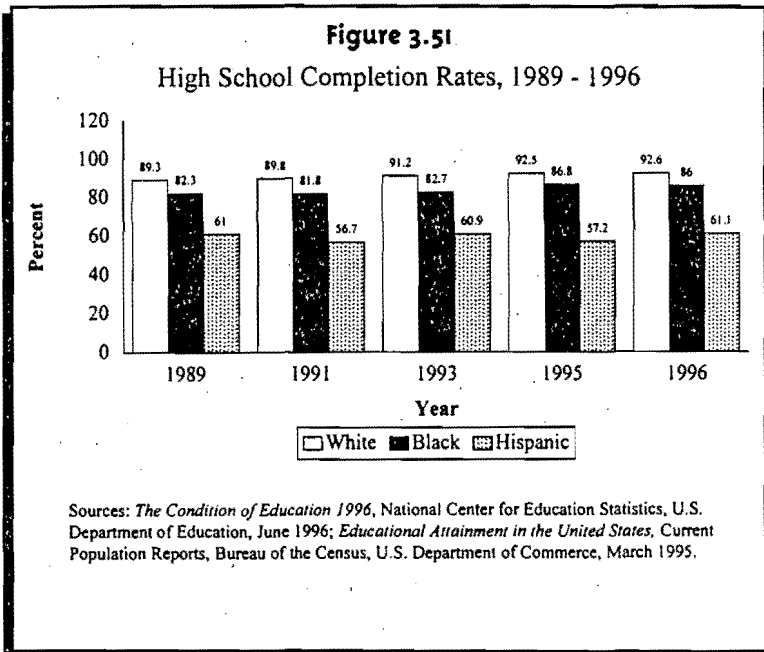
- Between 1988 and 1994, the status dropout rate for Whites experienced a slow but definite decrease; at the beginning of this period the White rate was 9.6%; and by 1994 the rate had declined to 7.7%.

3. HIGH SCHOOL COMPLETION RATES

High school completion rates combine the number of individuals who have received a regular high school diploma or a General Education Development certificate. The completion rates have generally been higher for Whites. The gap in completion rates between Whites and Blacks is

closing, but is increasing between Whites and Hispanics (see Figure 3.51).

- In 1996, 92.6% of 25 to 29-year-old Whites had completed high school, compared with 86.0% and 61.1% of their Black and Latino counterparts, respectively.
- Between 1989 and 1995, there was an increase from 89.3% to 92.5% in the White high school completion rate, compared to a decrease for Latinos from 61.0% to 57.2%. The proportion of African Americans who had completed high school increased from 82.3% to 86.8% during this time. However, between 1995 and 1996, the rates for both Whites and Blacks remained relatively unchanged, whereas the proportion of Latinos who had completed high school increased 3.9 percentage points, from 57.2% to 61.1%.



✧ J. EDUCATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

Overall, educational aspirations increased for all groups between 1982 and 1992. The greatest increases in high school seniors aspiring to attain college and post graduate-degrees were reported among Blacks and Hispanics. Of all groups, Hispanics had the largest increase (30 points) between 1982 and 1992 in high school seniors planning to attend college (see Figure 3.52). Hispanics also account for the largest percentage of high school seniors aspiring to attend two-year colleges or vocational schools (see Figure 3.53). While

educational aspirations have increased, real barriers such as college costs, adequate college preparation, and access to information threaten to dampen students' desire to attend college.

- In 1992, three-quarters (75.4 %) of Hispanic high school seniors planned to attend college right after high school. This reflects a significant increase in the proportion since 1982 (45.6%). The gap in postsecondary educational aspiration between Whites (60.2%), Blacks (57.5%), and Hispanics (45.6%) reported in 1982 had narrowed significantly by 1992 (76.6%, 75.2%, and 75.4%, respectively).
- A slightly larger proportion of Hispanic high school seniors were deciding to attend college a year or more after graduation in 1992 (15.4%) than in 1982 (13.3%). This delay in postsecondary school attendance is higher than

that for Whites (15.2%) or Blacks (14.4%).

- The percentage of Hispanics who will not or do not know if they will attend college has significantly declined since 1982. In 1992, 9.4% of Hispanic high school seniors did not know whether they would attend college, as opposed to 41.1% of Hispanic high school seniors in 1982. The 1992 figure is higher than that for White high school seniors (8.4%) but lower than that for Black high school seniors (10.6%).
- In 1992, a greater proportion of Hispanic high school seniors were aspiring to attain college and post-graduate degrees than in 1982. Almost one-third (31.6%) of Hispanic students were aspiring to a college degree in 1992, compared to 13.3% in 1982. In regard to post-graduate degrees, 30.8% of Hispanic high

school seniors aspired to this level of educational attainment in 1992, compared to 11.5% in 1982.

- In part, as a result of this increased interest in four-year college and post-graduate degrees, the percent of Hispanic high school seniors desiring two-year associate or vocational school degrees declined. In 1992, 31.3% of Hispanic high school seniors aspired to two years of college or vocational school, compared to 39.8% in 1982.
- In 1992, Hispanic high school seniors were still aspiring to college (31.6%) and post-graduate (30.8%) degrees at lower levels than Whites (37.3% college and 32.3% graduate) and Blacks (34.0% college and 37.9% graduate).

FIGURE 3.52
PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO PLAN TO GO TO COLLEGE AFTER GRADUATION: 1982 AND 1992

Student and School Characteristics	Planned timing of postsecondary attendance					
	Right after high school		A year or more after graduation		No or don't know	
	1982	1992	1982	1992	1982	1992
All seniors	58.3	76.6	11.0	14.8	30.6	8.6
Male	53.4	73.0	10.6	16.0	35.9	11.2
Female	63.0	80.1	11.4	13.8	25.8	6.1
Race/ethnicity						
White	60.2	76.6	10.4	15.2	29.5	8.4
Black	57.5	75.2	13.9	14.4	28.7	10.6
Hispanic	45.6	75.4	13.3	15.4	41.1	9.4

Source: Thomas Snyder and Linda Shafer, *Youth Indicators, 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

- The percent of Hispanic high school seniors aspiring only to a high school degree (6.3%) has declined significantly since 1982 (35.4%), but was still slightly higher than that for Whites (5.3%) or Blacks (4.7%) in 1992.
- More than three in 10 (31.3%) Hispanics — the highest proportion of high school seniors — aspired to an associate or vocational degree, compared to one-quarter (25.1%) of Whites and almost one-quarter (23.5%) of Blacks.

1. THE NELS:88 COHORT

In 1988, the U.S. Department of Education asked students participating in a longitudinal study of eighth graders about their educational expectations. The presumption was that early goals,

images of ability level, and opportunities might affect achievement throughout life. The National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988 (NELS:88) contains reports of the highest level of education students expected to attain, collected both while cohort members were in the eighth grade and four years later.

Overall, there was a decline between 1988 and 1992 in the percentage of students who expected to earn a bachelor's degree. According to the U.S. Department of Education, this decline may be attributed to the knowledge acquired by students during the four-year period in which they assessed factors such as their interests and abilities; availability and cost of postsecondary alternatives; life-style choices, such as marriage and em-

FIGURE 3-53
PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS ASPIRING TO
VARIOUS LEVELS OF EDUCATION: 1982 AND 1992

Student and School Characteristics	High School diploma or less		Two years or less of college or vocational school		College graduate		Post-graduate degree	
	1982	1992	1982	1992	1982	1992	1982	1992
All seniors	24.6	5.3	36.6	25.3	21.3	36.1	17.5	33.3
Male	28.2	6.7	34.0	26.0	20.5	36.2	17.3	31.1
Female	21.1	3.9	39.2	24.5	22.0	36.2	17.8	35.4
Race/Ethnicity								
White	22.7	5.3	35.6	25.1	23.4	37.3	18.3	32.3
Black	25.3	4.7	40.7	23.5	17.1	34.0	16.9	37.9
Hispanic	35.4	6.3	39.8	31.3	13.3	31.6	11.5	30.8

Source: Thomas Snyder and Linda Shafer, *Youth Indicators, 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

ployment experience; and potential gains from a college or advanced degree. In 1992, a lower percentage of Hispanic 1988 eighth graders than Whites expected to earn a bachelor's degree or higher (see Figure 3.54). Overall, a greater proportion of Hispanics than any other group expected to obtain some college or vocational school education.

- In 1992, 4.2% of Hispanics in the NELS: 88 group said they expected to achieve less than a high school diploma, compared to 2.3% of this same group in 1988.

- A lower proportion of Hispanics from the NELS: 88 group expected to obtain a high school diploma in 1992 (9.4%) than had expected to do so in 1988 (13.1%).

- A slightly higher proportion of Hispanics from the NELS: 88 group expected to obtain a bachelor's degree or more in 1988 (54.8%) than did in 1992 (52.7%).

- In 1992, a greater proportion of Hispanics (33.8%) than Blacks (28.7%) or Whites (27.6%) expected to obtain some level of college or vocational school education. The data indicate

Figure 3.54

PERCENTAGE OF 1988 EIGHTH GRADERS INDICATING IN 1988 AND 1992
THE HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION THEY EXPECT TO OBTAIN

	Year	High school diploma	Less than high school graduate	Some college or vocational school	Bachelor's degree or more
TOTAL	1988	1.5	10.3	22.4	65.8
	1992	2.3	8.1	28.1	61.4
SEX					
Male	1988	1.8	11.7	23.2	63.3
	1992	2.8	8.9	28.6	59.7
Female	1988	1.1	8.9	21.7	68.2
	1992	1.9	7.2	27.6	63.2
RACE/ETHNICITY					
Hispanic	1988	2.3	13.1	29.8	54.8
regardless of race	1992	4.2	9.4	33.8	52.7
Black not of	1988	2.3	7.5	25.9	64.3
Hispanic origin	1992	1.8	10.5	28.7	59.0
White not of	1988	1.1	10.5	20.7	67.6
Hispanic origin	1992	2.2	7.4	27.6	62.8

Source: *Descriptive Summary Report: With an Essay on Access and Choice in Postsecondary Education*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

that a slightly higher percentage of all groups had these expectations than in 1988 when 29.8% of Hispanics, 25.9% of Blacks, and 20.7% of Whites expected to obtain some college or vocational school education.

- A lower proportion of Hispanic students (52.7%) than Blacks (59.0%) and Whites (62.8%) in 1992 expected to obtain a bachelor's degree or more. The data reflect a decrease from 1988, when 54.8% of Hispanics, 64.3% of Blacks, and 67.6% of Whites expected to obtain a bachelor's degree or more.

K. EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Extracurricular activities are an important part of a student's education. Whether these include academic clubs, student government, honorary societies, community service, part-time work, or spending time with family or friends, extracurricular activities often influence a child's life choices and educational decisions. Data show that Hispanic high school seniors continue to participate less than their White counterparts in a number of traditional extracurricular activities (see Figure 3.55).

1. SCHOOL-SPONSORED EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

During the 1972 to 1992 period, the overall proportion of seniors participating in a variety of extracurricular activities changed relatively little. There has been some decline in the percent of students participating in student government and an increase in participation in honorary societies. Academic clubs remain a popular activity, with

about 25% of seniors participating in 1992.¹⁶ During this period, Hispanic high school senior participation has generally increased for honorary societies and school literature activities, while decreasing for academic clubs and student government.

- Hispanic high school senior participation in academic clubs in 1992 (22.6%) had decreased slightly since 1972 (24.2%). This 1992 figure for Hispanics was higher than the percentage of Black high school seniors (20.6%), but lower than that for White high school seniors (25.8%).
- Black, White, and Hispanic high school seniors increased their participation in honorary societies since 1972, but Hispanics in 1992 (at 12.4%) still participated at lower levels than Whites (19.6%) and Blacks (14.0%) in such activities.
- Hispanic high school senior participation in student government declined from 16.0% in 1972 to 14.6% in 1992. In 1992, Hispanics participated less in student government than White (15.4%) or Black (16.7%) high school seniors, who had the highest participation rate.
- Participation in the school newspaper or yearbook remained constant for Hispanic high school seniors during the 1972-1992 period, 16.2% to 16.8%. This participation rate is lower than that for White high school seniors (19.7%), but higher than that for Black high school seniors (14.3%). Both Black and White high school seniors experienced a decline in participation in this activity from 1972 to 1992 (See Figure 3.55).

* 2. AFTER-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

According to the U.S. Department of Education, "there appears to be a negative relationship between television watching and performance on achievement tests." This is also true for other variables; for example, high-socioeconomic-status students were less likely to watch five or more hours of television on school nights than low socioeconomic status students.¹⁷ (see Figure 3.56.)

- Hispanic students are watching less television than they did a decade ago. Although in accordance with the general trend of watching less television, Hispanic high school seniors experienced the largest decline, 12.2 percentage points, in students who watched five hours or more of television on a school night from 1980 to 1992.

- In 1992, only 9.3% of Hispanic high school seniors watched five or more hours of television on a school night, compared to 21.5% in 1980. The percentage of White high school seniors watching five or more hours of television on a school night declined from 13.7% in 1980 to 6.4% in 1992, while the corresponding percentage of Black high school seniors declined from 29.0% to 21.3% during the same time period.

- Hispanic students (63.8%) were more likely than Black students (62.0%) but less likely than Whites (68.2%) to do things with their parents. Hispanic students (82.4%) were also more likely than Blacks (79.8%) but less likely than Whites (90.7%) to do things with friends.

FIGURE 3.55
PERCENT OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS WHO PARTICIPATE IN
SELECTED SCHOOL-SPONSORED EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES:
1972, 1980 AND 1992

Student and School Characteristics	Academic clubs			Honorary societies			Student Government			Newspaper or yearbook		
	1972	1980	1992	1972	1980	1992	1972	1980	1992	1972	1980	1992
All Seniors	25.6	23.8	25.1	14.4	17.1	18.5	19.4	18.5	15.4	20.2	19.9	18.8
Male	20.3	19.0	22.8	10.7	13.8	14.4	18.1	15.8	13.1	14.7	15.4	14.0
Female	30.9	28.3	27.4	18.1	20.1	22.7	20.8	21.0	17.7	25.5	24.0	23.5
Race/Ethnicity												
White	25.0	22.9	25.8	15.1	17.8	19.6	19.2	17.7	15.4	20.4	20.1	19.7
Black	33.1	28.8	20.6	11.7	13.7	14.0	25.3	23.1	16.7	20.7	17.8	14.3
Hispanic	24.2	24.7	22.6	10.2	11.9	12.4	16.0	16.7	14.6	16.2	15.8	16.8

Source: Thomas Snyder and Linda Shafer, *Youth Indicators, 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

IV. Elementary and Secondary School Teachers and Principals*

A. OVERVIEW

A major factor influencing children's success in education is role models. For Hispanic students, it is particularly important that there be Hispanic adult role models in the classroom and throughout the school. Hispanic teachers, administrators, and school personnel serve as role models for Hispanic students and can provide an important link between schools and parents. This is especially important because a significant portion of Hispanic parents lack the education necessary to provide their children with needed guidance about educational opportunities and their ability to pursue educational goals. Additionally, Latino school staff act as models for non-Hispanic students to demonstrate that professional positions are held by representatives of all racial/ethnic groups. Thus, the importance of the employment of Hispanic teachers and administrators cannot be overstated. While any trained and committed teacher can provide a high-quality education, the lack of Hispanic teachers contributes to the failure of school systems to respond to the linguistic, cultural, and social needs of Hispanic and non-Hispanic students alike.

This section provides information on American public and private school teachers at the elementary and secondary levels, including their race/ethnicity, qualifications, salaries, and years of experience, as well as information on the nation's principals. The data indicate that, overall, Hispanic teachers are underrepresented in the professional ranks and that they are concentrated in urban

schools. Additionally, the data demonstrate that many of the schools offering bilingual education programs are unable to fill teaching positions for ESL or bilingual education teachers.

* B. CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS

Some research has indicated that seeing minority adults in positions of authority has positive effects on minority children and that minority teachers understand the backgrounds of their minority students. Yet the data indicate that, as of 1993-94, almost one-half (49.0%) of all schools still had no minority teachers at all (42% of all public schools and 66% of all private schools). In addition, the proportion of minority teachers (12.8%) is still far smaller than the proportion of minority students (32%). While the percentage of minority teachers has only increased slightly since the 1987-88 school year, the percentage of minority principals had increased at a somewhat higher rate by 1993-94 (11.0% to 14.0%).

During the 1993-94 school year, there were 2.9 million teachers working in the nation's elementary and secondary schools. As the data below describe, a major part of the elementary and secondary schools' teaching workforce is in the nation's public rather than private schools:

- Of the estimated 2.6 million public school and 380,000 private school teachers in the U.S., 4.1% were Hispanic, while 87.2% were White and 6.8% were Black. In public schools the

* All data are from National Center for Education Statistics, *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, July 1996.

corresponding statistics indicate that 4.2% of the teaching workforce was Hispanic, while 86.5% of the teachers were White and 7.4% were Black. The private schools had a slightly higher percentage of White teachers; nine in ten (91.9%) of the teachers in private schools were White, compared to 3.1% who were Black and 3.2% who were Hispanic.

■ As Figures 4.1 and 4.2 demonstrate, the largest percentages of Hispanic teachers were in schools with minority enrollments in excess of 20%. In addition:

❖ The overall statistics for teachers in central city public schools show that 74.8% are White, 14.6% are Black, and 8.3% are Hispanic. However, center city public schools with more than a 20.0% minority

student enrollment have a higher proportion of minority teachers; in those central city schools, Hispanics comprised one-tenth (10.8%) of all teachers and Blacks accounted for almost one-fifth (18.2%) of teachers.

❖ In urban fringe public schools, Whites comprise 89.2% of the teachers, yet are 80.3% of teachers in schools with minority enrollment over 20.0%. By comparison, Blacks make up 5.1% of the teachers in urban fringe public schools, but in schools with minority enrollment over 20.0% they constitute 9.7% of the teacher population. Hispanics account for 3.5% of the general teaching population in urban fringe public schools, but accounted

Figure 4.1
PROPORTION OF ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY
PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS, 1993-94

	White	Black	Hispanic
Public Schools	86.5	7.4	4.2
Central City Schools	74.8	14.6	8.3
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	95.3	2.3	1.4
More than 20%	68.4	18.2	10.8
Urban Fringe Schools	89.2	5.1	3.5
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	96.6	1.2	1.0
More than 20%	80.3	9.7	6.5
Rural/Small Town Schools	92.5	4.1	2.0
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	97.1	1.1	0.8
More than 20%	83.0	10.5	4.3

Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

for 6.5% of the teachers in those schools in which the minority enrollment is over 20.0%.

- ❖ In rural/small-town public schools, Whites accounted for 92.5% of the teacher population, while Blacks and Hispanics accounted for 4.1% and 2.0%, respectively. In rural schools with minority enrollment rates over 20.0%, the percentage of Whites teaching at these schools decreases to 83.0%, while the percentages for Blacks and Hispanics more than double to 10.5% and 4.3%, respectively.
- ❖ Teachers in central city private schools include 88.6% who are White, 4.8% who are Black, and 4.2% who are Hispanic. However, for central city private schools in which the minority enrollment is over

20.0%, 77.1% of the teachers are White, 10.7% are Black, and 7.9% are Hispanic.

- ❖ The pattern is similar in urban fringe private schools where Whites make up 93.5%, Blacks make up 2.0%, and Hispanics make up 2.9% of the teacher population. Yet in urban private schools in which minority enrollment is over 20.0%, 84.6% of the teachers are White, 5.0% are Black, and 6.5% are Hispanic.
- ❖ In rural private schools, the percentage of White teachers decreased relative to the proportion of minority students. For example, Whites make up 96.4% of the teachers in rural private schools, while Blacks comprise 1.2% and Hispanics account for 1.7%. However, in schools with a larger percentage of minority students,

Figure 4.2
PROPORTION OF ELEMENTARY & SECONDARY
PRIVATE SCHOOL TEACHERS, 1993-94

	White	Black	Hispanic
Private Schools	91.9	3.1	3.2
Central City Schools	88.6	4.8	4.2
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	96.1	1.2	2.2
More than 20%	77.1	10.7	7.9
Urban Fringe Schools	93.5	2.0	2.9
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	96.5	0.7	1.9
More than 20%	84.6	5.0	6.5
Rural/Small Town Schools	96.4	1.2	1.7
Minority Enrollment			
Less than 20%	96.5	1.1	1.8
More than 20%	94.0	2.6	2.1

Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

the proportion of White teachers decreases to 94.0%, while that of Blacks and Hispanics increases to 2.6% and 2.1%, respectively.

Over the past 10 years the presence of Hispanic students and teachers in the nation's schools has increased significantly. The Hispanic population in public schools increased from 9.1% of all students in the 1987-88 school year to 11.5% in the 1993-94 school year. During the same period, the percentage of Hispanic public school teachers grew from 2.9% to 4.1%. According to NCES, the percentage of Hispanic students in the 1996-97 school year exceeded 13%.

While Hispanic teachers appear to be concentrated in areas with high minority enrollments, U.S. elementary and secondary school teachers, as a group, are considerably less diverse than the students they teach (see Figures 4.3 and 4.4). Hispanics made up 11.5% of the students enrolled in grades K-12 in the 1993-94 school year, but represented only 4.1% of the K-12 teaching force. Similarly, Blacks accounted for 15.5% of students, but only 6.8% of the teaching workforce. On the other hand, White teachers were overrepresented in the K-12 teaching force relative to the proportion of White students in these grades (87.2% vs. 68.5%).

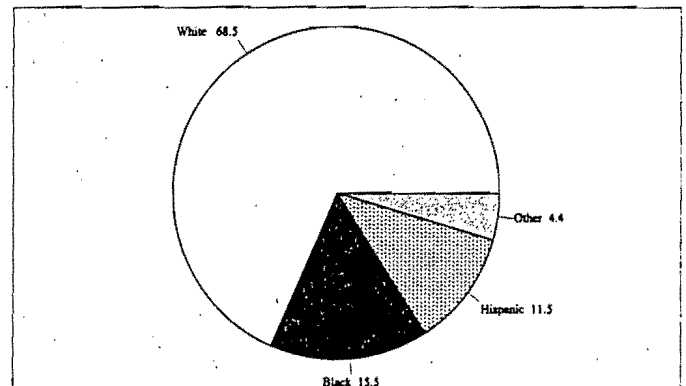
As role models for both Hispanic and non-Hispanic students, Hispanic teachers are in short supply. Proportionately, there are approximately three times more Hispanic students in U.S. schools as there are Hispanic teachers. The ratio of Black students (15.5%) to Black teachers (8.7%) is slightly less than two to one.

C. TEACHER CREDENTIALS

Figure 4.5 presents the data on the highest degrees held by public and private school teachers

Figure 4.3

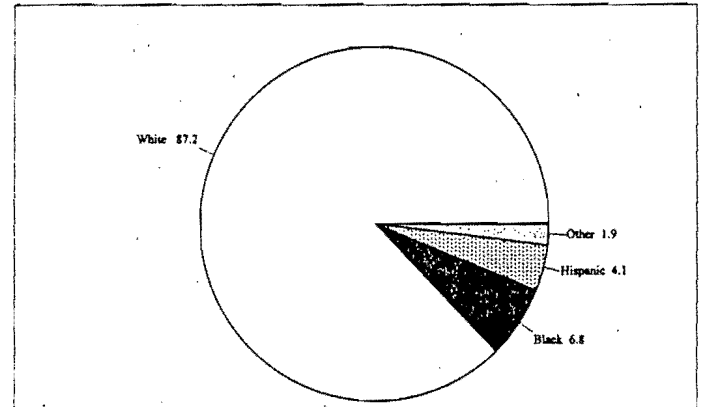
Public and Private School Students by Race/Ethnicity, 1993-94



Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 4.4

Public and Private School Teachers by Race/Ethnicity, 1993-94



Source: *Schools and Staffing in the United States: A Statistical Profile, 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

during the 1993-94 school year. Overall, public school teachers are more likely than private school teachers to hold master's degrees. In addition:

- Hispanic teachers are less likely than either their White or Black colleagues to hold degrees above the bachelor's level. About three in 10 (29.8%) Hispanic public school teachers hold

V. Postsecondary Education

* A. OVERVIEW

A college education has always been seen as a means of upward mobility, especially for economically or socially disadvantaged groups. In recent years, postsecondary education has become more accessible to all segments of the population. Over the last two decades, as the economy has become increasingly complex and reliant on higher levels of literacy and numeracy, there has been a rise in educational attainment across all ethnic groups. The U.S. Department of Education attributes this trend to both the growth in the population of Hispanic and Asian students and to their increasing education levels.

As the following data show, however, there continues to be a gap between Hispanics and their White and Black counterparts in many areas related to educational access, achievement, and attainment. Further, there is statistical evidence that differences in course-taking patterns in high school, educational aspirations, and college attendance and completion influence each attainment indicator for the Latino community.

This section will provide information which shows that while the number of Hispanics who are enrolling in and graduating from college has increased in absolute numbers, they remain underrepresented on university campuses and among degree recipients, both relative to other groups and as a proportion of their total population. Additionally, the gap between White and Hispanic student college transition rates¹ has increased since 1980.

Hispanic college students tend to concentrate in different fields, have a higher number of disruptions in their education, and are only half as likely to complete four years of college compared

to non-Hispanic White students. Hispanics who do complete college take longer, on average, than their White counterparts and work more and longer hours during their postsecondary careers than both their White and Black counterparts. Hispanic male and female differences in educational attainment have changed significantly over time, with an almost three-fold increase in Hispanic female college graduates over the past 20 years.

B. SAT SCORES

Experts in higher education understand the limitations of using standardized test scores to predict academic performance. At most, even the College Board, which administers many of the standardized tests, "claims only that the SAT correlates with first-year grades a little less than half the time (42 percent)."² Moreover, many colleges and universities are relying less on SAT scores while developing multi-assessment admissions policies. Yet, in the wake of *Hopwood v. The State of Texas*, and Proposition 209 in California, both of which have ended traditional affirmative action programs and have led to huge declines in minority enrollment in the Texas and California state university systems, many schools stills use SAT test scores or an equivalent as the principal basis for admissions.

Despite efforts to de-emphasize standardized tests, they remain an important factor in tracking the academic progress of students. Thus, it is important to track trends in student performance on such tests. Data indicate that while Hispanics tend to perform better than Blacks on the SAT exams, both groups' scores continue to lag behind those of Whites. Figures 5.1 and 5.2 present the data on the math and verbal SAT scores for two years in a 10-year period. All groups have experienced a gradual rise in their total scores between 1987 and

1997. However, while the gap between Whites and Blacks decreased by four points, the gap between Whites and Hispanics increased by six points. In 1987, the average total SAT score for Whites was 1038, compared to 839 for Blacks and 926 for Hispanics. By 1997, the scores for Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics increased to 1052, 857, and 934, respectively. Additionally, the increase in the test scores for Whites and Blacks was double that of Hispanics. Between 1987 and 1997, math scores for Whites increased by 12 points, from 514 to 526; the scores for Blacks also increased by 12 points from 411 to 423. However, the increase for Hispanics was only six points, from 462 to 468. On the verbal test, the scores for Whites and Hispanics increased 20 points each between 1987 and 1997, from 524 to 526 and from 464 to 466, respectively. The scores for Blacks increased six points, from 428 to 434 over that period.

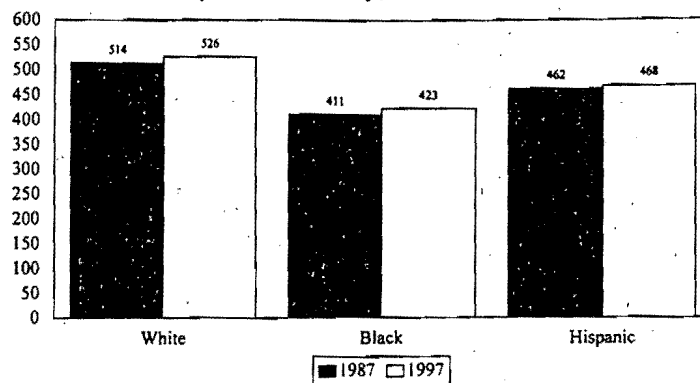
Given the recent bans on affirmative action in public institutions in the two states with the largest concentrations of Latinos, colleges and universities may again focus on tests scores for admissions decisions, despite recent steps to develop broader admissions policies. Thus, the challenge is for colleges and universities to identify promising alternatives to promote diversity. Otherwise, many of the nation's public colleges and universities may see the declines in minority enrollment that both California and Texas have recently experienced.

C. ENROLLMENT STATISTICS

Hispanics continue to be underrepresented at institutions of higher education despite an increase in their enrollment since 1988. In 1994, Whites comprised 74.3% of the undergraduate stu-

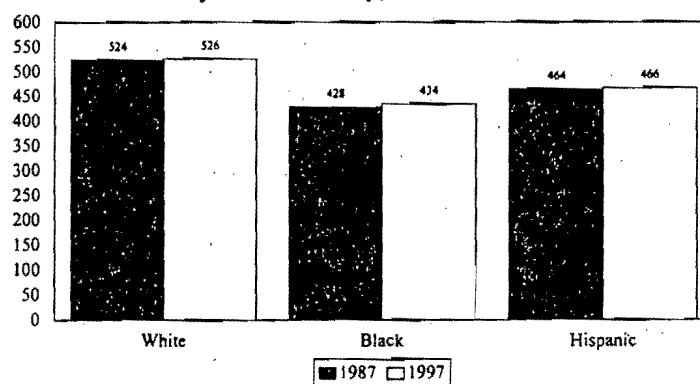
dent body, compared to 11.0% and 8.1% for Blacks and Hispanics, respectively (see Figure 5.3). The data show a drop in the enrollment rate of Whites since 1988, when they comprised 80.2% of undergraduate students. Both Hispanics and Blacks ex-

Figure 5.1
Average Math SAT Scores
by Race/Ethnicity, 1987 and 1997



Source: *Summary Statistics, The College Board's Annual Survey of Colleges*, The College Board, New York (1997)

Figure 5.2
Average Verbal SAT Scores
by Race/Ethnicity, 1987 and 1997



Source: *Summary Statistics, The College Board's Annual Survey of Colleges*, The College Board, New York (1997)

perienced increases in enrollment rates since 1988, when they accounted for 5.7% and 9.4% of the nation's undergraduates, respectively. At the graduate level, in 1994 Whites accounted for 83.5% of students, compared to 7.2% and 4.1% for Blacks and Hispanics, respectively. By contrast, 1988 data show that 87.3% of graduate students were White, compared to 5.8% who were Black and 3.0% who were Hispanic.

In 1995, Hispanic high school graduates were less likely than White and Black high school graduates to be enrolled in college. Between 1988 and 1995, the gap in the percentage of White and Hispanic high school graduates aged 18 - 24 years old increased, while the gap between White and Black students decreased (see Figure 5.4). In 1988, 38.4% of White high school graduates aged 18 - 24 years old were enrolled in college, compared to 27.8% of Blacks (a difference of 10.6 percentage points) and 30.8% of Hispanics (a difference of 7.6 percentage points). By 1995, the enrollment rate for Whites was 43.7%, compared to 35.2% for Blacks and 34.9% for Hispanics (a gap of 8.8 percentage points).

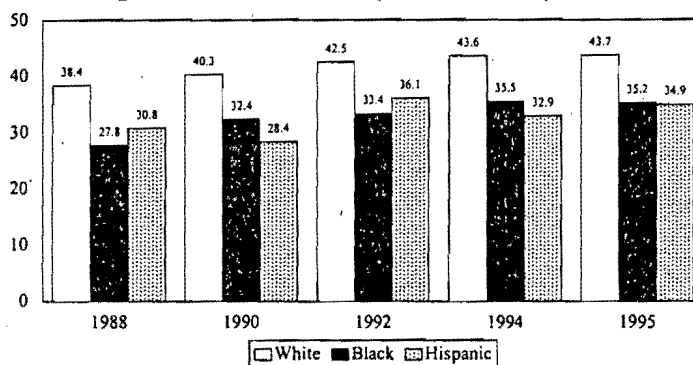
Data on the immediate transition from high school to college represent one indicator of the number of students who will ever enroll in college, since most students who enroll in college do so right

Figure 5.3
Enrollment Rates by Level of Study
and Race/Ethnicity, 1988-94

		1988	1990	1992	1994
All Students	White	81.1	79.9	77.5	75.4
	Black	8.9	9.3	9.9	10.5
	Hispanic	5.4	5.8	6.8	7.6
Undergraduates	White	80.2	79	76.4	74.3
	Black	9.4	9.8	10.4	11
	Hispanic	5.7	6.2	7.2	8.1
Graduate	White	87.3	86.6	85.3	83.5
	Black	5.8	5.9	6.3	7.2
	Hispanic	3	3.3	3.8	4.1

Source: *Digest of Educational Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 5.4
College Enrollment Rates of High School Graduates
Aged 18 - 24 Years-Old by Race/Ethnicity, 1988-95



Source: *The Condition of Education 1997*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1997)

after high school.³ Such data provide insight into the accessibility of higher education, as well as the value of obtaining a college education as opposed to taking other career paths.⁴ Differences in college transition rates between Whites and Hispanics have grown over time. In 1987, 58.6% of White

high school graduates aged 16 - 24 years old enrolled in college within one year of graduation, while 33.5% of Hispanics and 52.2% of Blacks did so. By 1995, 64.3% of Whites, 53.7% of Hispanics, and 51.2% of Blacks entered college by October following their high school graduation.⁵

Some of the factors which affect the transition from high school to college include family poverty and low educational aspirations. According to NCES, high school graduates from high-income families are more likely than high school graduates from low-income families to go directly to college. Given that 1996 poverty data indicated that both Hispanics (29.3%) and Blacks (28.3%) were over

two times more likely than Whites (11.2%) to be poor, it appears that poverty status is a significant factor in the small proportion of Latino students enrolled in college. Similarly, if students have low expectations of academic achievement it may affect their decisions to go to college. Hispanic students have lower educational aspirations than Whites (see Chapter 3). In 1992, nearly one-third (31.3%) of Hispanic high school students aspired to complete their formal education with two years or less of either vocational training or college. In contrast, approximately one-fourth of White and Black students planned to end their postsecondary careers at this point.

Figure 5.5

**TOTAL FALL ENROLLMENT IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION
BY LEVEL OF STUDY, GENDER, AND RACE/ETHNICITY, 1980 - 1994**

	1980	1988	1990	1992	1994
All Students					
Total Hispanic	4.0	5.4	5.8	6.8	7.6
Hispanic Men	2.0	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.4
Hispanic Women	2.0	2.9	3.2	3.8	4.2
Undergraduates					
Total Hispanic	4.2	5.7	6.2	7.2	8.1
Hispanic Men	2.1	2.6	2.8	3.2	3.6
Hispanic Women	2.2	3.1	3.4	4.0	4.5
Graduate					
Total Hispanic	2.6	3.0	3.3	3.7	4.1
Hispanic Men	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8
Hispanic Women	1.3	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.4
First-Professional					
Total Hispanic	2.4	3.6	4.0	4.4	4.7
Hispanic Men	1.7	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.6
Hispanic Women	0.7	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0

Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Educational Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Hispanic females made significant educational gains relative to Hispanic males since 1980 in both undergraduate and graduate enrollment rates (see Figure 5.5).⁶ In 1980, Hispanic women accounted for 2.2% of the undergraduate student population, while the enrollment rate of Hispanic men was about the same at 2.1%; however, by 1994 the enrollment rate of Hispanic females had more than doubled. Hispanic female enrollment increased to 4.5%, while the rate increased to 3.6% for Hispanic men. However, with respect to professional degrees, data show that a slightly smaller percentage of Hispanic females than Hispanic males were enrolled in such programs in 1994;⁷ Hispanic women accounted for 2.0% of students enrolled in such degree programs, compared to 2.6% of Hispanic men.

Among the top 10 states with the highest percentage of Latinos, Hispanic enrollment in institu-

tions of higher education remains, on average, consistently well below the Hispanic proportion of the state's population (see Figure 5.6). With the exception of Florida and Illinois, which possess the most equitable distribution between state and student Hispanic populations, all other states with the largest Hispanic populations display significant gaps between the percentage of Hispanics of the total state population and the percentage of Latinos in college. The largest discrepancies between total state Hispanic populations and Latino student participation in higher education are in the states with the largest total Hispanic populations — California, Arizona and Texas.

Hispanic students have a higher tendency than non-Hispanic students to enroll in schools offering either vocational certificates or associate degrees. In particular, a higher percentage of Hispanics and Blacks are enrolled in two-year colleges

Figure 5.6
HISPANIC ENROLLMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION
IN STATES WITH LARGEST HISPANIC POPULATIONS (ESTIMATED AS OF 1994), 1980 - 1995

	Hispanic % of State Pop (1994)	1980	1990	1993	1995
California	28.4	9.7	13.4	18.5	19.7
Texas	27.3	12.7	16.9	19.2	20.5
New York	13.7	5.5	7.9	8.9	9.6
Florida	13.4	8.1	11.5	12.8	13.5
Illinois	8.9	2.5	6.9	7.8	8.1
New Jersey	11.0	4.3	6.9	8.2	9.5
Arizona	20.1	7.6	11.6	13.5	14.4
New Mexico	39.0	24.8	28.1	30.2	31.3
Colorado	13.5	5.7	7.7	8.8	9.2
Massachusetts	5.6	1.5	3.2	4.0	4.4

Source: *State Comparisons of Education Statistics, 1969-70 to 1993-94*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1994); *State Population Data*, Population Division, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Washington, D.C. (1994)

in four-year colleges (see Figure 5.7). In 1994, Hispanics accounted for 10.7% of the students enrolled in two-year institutions, but accounted for 5.5% of the student population enrolled in four-year institutions. By comparison, Blacks accounted for 11.3% of students in two-year colleges and 9.9% of students in four-year schools, while 71.0% of Whites attended two-year institutions and 75.3% attended four-year colleges.

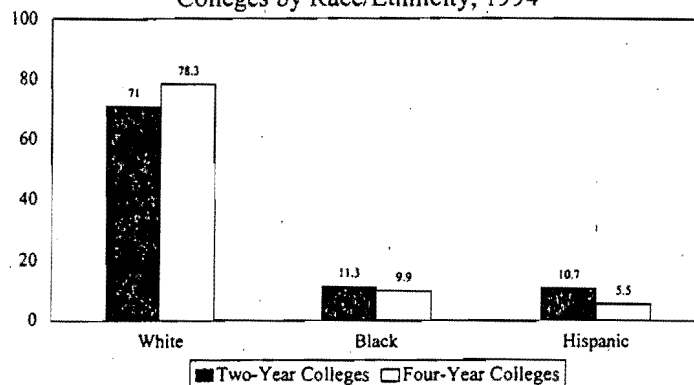
D. DEGREES CONFERRED

As more Hispanics are attending college, the number of postsecondary degrees awarded to Hispanics has increased, but their rates of educational attainment are not in line with either their overall population rates or their college enrollment rates. Figures 5.6 through 5.9 demonstrate the academic areas in which Hispanics are concentrating, as well as the percentage of the postsecondary degrees they are receiving.

■ In 1997, approximately one-fourth of Hispanics aged 25 years and older had completed some college, compared to nearly one-half of Whites and nearly two-fifths of Blacks. About one in ten Hispanic adults had obtained a bachelor's degree or more in 1997, compared to slightly less than one-quarter of Whites and more than one-eighth of Blacks (see Figure 5.8)

Figure 5.7

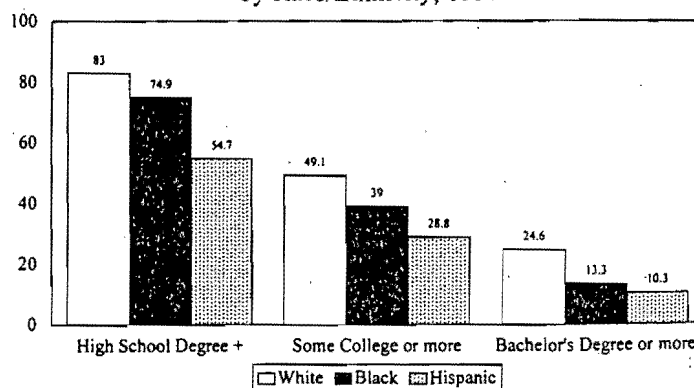
Enrollment Rates in Two- and Four-Year Colleges by Race/Ethnicity, 1994



Source: Digest of Educational Statistics 1996, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 5.8

Educational Attainment of Persons 25 Years and Older by Race/Ethnicity, 1997



Source: Current Population Reports, Educational Attainment in the United States, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. (1997)

■ Since 1977, Hispanics are still less likely to get physical sciences and mathematics degrees; as of 1991, the most favored majors of Hispanic students have changed from humanities and social/behavioral sciences to technical and professional degrees, with the single largest area of concentration in business and management (see Figure 5.9). In 1977, 41.6% of degrees

- While 4.1% of students in graduate school were Hispanic in 1994, only 3.1% received a master's degree, but this rate is up from 2.3% in 1988-89 (see Figures 5.3 and 5.12).

E. CONTINUITY OF ENROLLMENT

As discussed above, there has been a marked change in the number and percentage increase in bachelor's degrees conferred to Hispanics and other students. However, while more students are rolling in and graduating from college, some are experiencing personal, financial, and academic problems which disrupt their college careers. Non-completion rates are not indicative of failure but, rather, show that students "may have an unrealistic view as to how much time, effort, and money will be needed to complete postsecondary education programs."¹⁷ Generally, data on persistence toward a bachelor's degree demonstrate that Hispanics (23.3%) are less likely than Whites (36.9%) or Blacks (24.8%) to complete a degree within four years; and that Hispanics (34.9%) are more likely than Whites (25.0%) and Blacks (32.2%) to take more than six years to receive a bachelor's degree (see Figure 5.13).

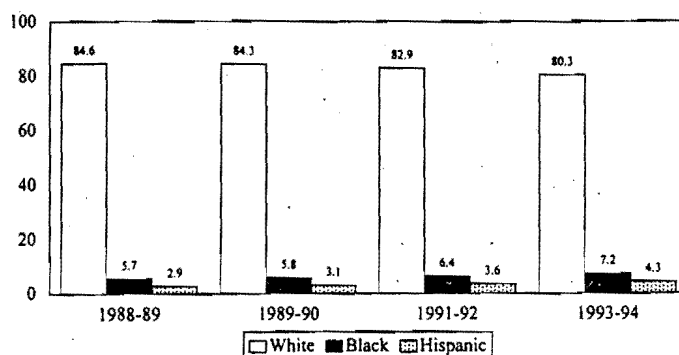
A 1996 longitudinal study on students enrolled during the 1969-90 school year indicated the following:¹⁸

- Although 37.2% of Hispanic high school graduates aged 16-24 were enrolled in two-year educational institutions in the fall of 1989, by 1994

only 16.3% had received an associate's degree. Of the remainder, 22.2% were still enrolled but had not received a degree, and 39.8% had

Figure 5.11

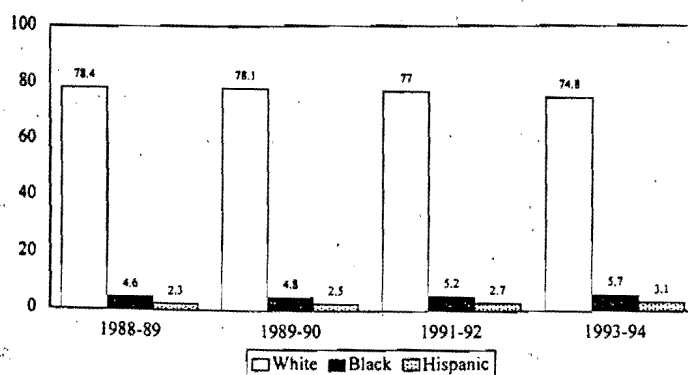
Bachelor's Degrees Conferred by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 5.12

Master's Degrees Conferred by Race/Ethnicity, 1988 - 1994



Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

neither received an associate's degree nor were enrolled in school at all.

- Of the 17.9% of Hispanic high school graduates enrolled in four-year institutions in 1989, fewer than one-third (32.4%) succeeded in obtaining a bachelor's degree by 1994.
- By 1994, 22.1% of Hispanic students pursuing a bachelor's degree were still enrolled but had not graduated and over one-third (36.6%) had effectively dropped out of their four-year educational institutions.

OERI conducted a longitudinal study from 1989 to 1994 to compare completion rates per initial degree objective among part-time and full-time students. The findings indicated that first-time beginning students seeking bachelor's degrees in 1989-90 were more likely than those seeking associate's degrees to obtain their degree objective within five years of initial enrollment.¹⁹ OERI found that full-time enrollment is associated with higher rates of persistence and attainment; to illustrate, 51.7% of full-time students had completed a degree within five years, while 43.4% of part-time college students failed to get a degree or still be enrolled after five years.²⁰ Given that Hispanics have

high rates of part-time enrollment (see Figure 5.16), they are less likely to obtain a college degree.

Figure 5.13

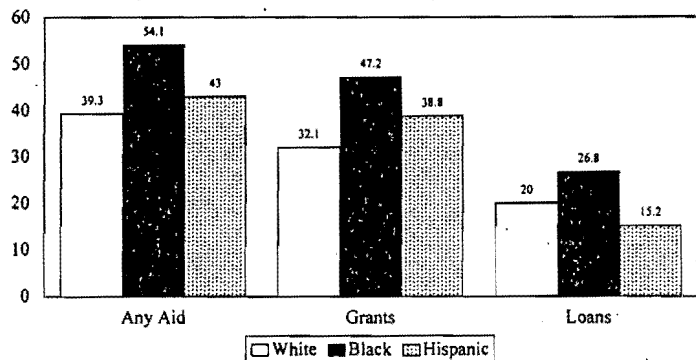
College Graduates Receiving a Bachelor's Degree within Various Years of Starting College, 1993

	4 years or less (%)	more than 4 up to 5 years (%)	more than 5 up to 6 years (%)	more than 6 years (%)
White	36.9	27.5	10.5	25
Black	24.8	27.8	15.2	32.2
Hispanic	23.3	28.7	13.1	34.9

Source: *The Condition of Education 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

Figure 5.14

Undergraduate Receiving College Financial Aid by Source and Race/Ethnicity, 1992-1993



Source: *Digest of Education Statistics 1996*, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

F. FINANCING A COLLEGE EDUCATION

There is evidence that dependence upon loans and fear of debt inhibit many students from ever attending college.²¹ Low family incomes, tuition levels that continue to outstrip inflation by a nearly two-to-one ratio, and the stagnant or declining incomes of many Hispanic families are deterring many Latino students from pursuing postsecondary education.

Financial aid is positively related to whether students seeking sub-baccalaureate degrees will ultimately obtain a degree. Rela-

tively few candidates for associate's degrees, however, received financial aid during 1989-90.

Figure 5.15

Employed College Students 16 - 24 Years-Old
By Race and Hours Worked per Week, 1988 - 1993

		1988	1990	1992	1993
White	Total Hours	48.9	48.6	50.5	50.1
	20 or more	25.1	25.1	27.2	26.5
	35 or more	5	5.2	5.9	5.5
Black	Total Hours	31.8	29.8	30.2	28.9
	20 or more	18.6	17.1	19.9	18
	35 or more	3.3	2.8	4.4	3.8
Hispanic	Total Hours	40.9	45.7	47	46.7
	20 or more	28.7	28	29.4	25.1
	35 or more	6.7	6.7	4.7	6.3

Source: Indicator of the Month: Working While in College, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, D.C. (1996)

THE EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF HISPANIC ADULTS

Academic achievement is an important factor in an individual's socioeconomic well-being. For example, on average, people who do not graduate from high school earn \$12,809 annually, compared to those with a B.A. who earn \$32,629 a year. Given the strong correlation between education, employment, and earnings, a brief examination of the education of adult Hispanics (25 and over) is relevant to this Hispanic education profile. The following statistical overview shows that Hispanic adults tend to have low levels of education attainment which affects their employment outcomes, as well as their earnings and income.

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

- In 1994, among Hispanics 25 years old and older, 10.8% had less than a 5th grade education. More specifically, 13.3% of Mexican Americans, 7.5% of Puerto Ricans, 5.4% of Cuban Americans, and 5.6% of Central and South Americans had less than a 5th grade education.⁸
- In 1996, 53.1% had graduated from high school, compared to 82.8% of Whites and 74.3% of Blacks.⁹ Among Hispanic subgroups, the data indicate that Mexican Americans were the least likely and Cuban Americans were the most likely to obtain a diploma; 46.7% of Mexican Americans graduated from high school compared to 59.4% of Puerto Ricans, 64.1% of Cuban Americans, and 62.4% of Central and South Americans.¹⁰

- In 1994, 77.4% of Mexican Americans, 72.2% of Puerto Ricans, 62.0% of Cuban Americans, and 65.9% of Central and South Americans reported that they had no college experience.¹¹
- About one in fifteen (6.2%) Hispanics reported that he/she had obtained a bachelor's degree in 1994; subgroup data show that 4.4% of Mexican Americans received a bachelor's degree, compared to 6.9% of Puerto Ricans, 9.0% of Cuban Americans, and 8.3% of Central and South Americans.

LITERACY

- In 1992, the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS) reported that Hispanics had the least years of schooling of all racial/ethnic groups. The average years of schooling for Whites was 12.8 years, compared to 11.6 years and 10.2 years for Blacks and Hispanics, respectively.
- NALS also reported that, overall, 21% of all adults performed at Level 1 (the lowest level in a measurement of one to five) on the Prose Literacy Scale.¹² Relative to their population rates, Hispanics were overrepresented in Level 1. While Hispanics comprised 10.0% of the population, they accounted for 23% of the adults performing at Level 1 on the Prose Literacy Scale. By comparison, Whites accounted for 76% of the population, but 51.0% of the Prose Level 1 population in 1992.

EMPLOYMENT, EARNINGS, AND POVERTY STATUS

- For Hispanics and all other groups, the higher the level of education, the more likely an individual is to be employed. In 1996, among Hispanics 25 years old and older, 51.3% of individuals who did not have a high school diploma were employed, compared to 69.9% of Hispanic high school graduates and 79.7% of Hispanic college graduates.¹³
- Hispanic college graduates aged 25-64 are more likely to work in professional and managerial positions than Hispanic high school dropouts and graduates, who are more likely to work in the service and laborer industries.¹⁴ In 1996, 46.0% of Hispanic college graduates aged 25-64 years were employed in managerial and professional jobs, compared to 8.5% of Hispanic dropouts and 17.5% of Hispanic high school graduates. Almost one-half (48.0%) of Hispanic high school dropouts and approximately one-third (30.6%) of Hispanic high school graduates worked in the service industry, compared to only 5.0% of Hispanic college graduates. Over one-half (54.9%) of Hispanic dropouts and almost one-third (32.1%) of Hispanic high school graduates were employed as laborers/operators/fabricators, compared to only 2.0% of Hispanic college graduates.
- The median weekly earnings for Hispanics 16 years and older was lower among high school dropouts than college graduates. In 1996, Hispanic dropouts earned \$278 per week, compared to \$345 for Hispanic high school graduates and \$656 per week for Hispanic college graduates.¹⁵
- High school dropouts are more likely than either high school or college graduates to live below the poverty level.¹⁶ Moreover, within each category of educational attainment, a higher percentage of Hispanics and Blacks than Whites live below the poverty level. For example, in 1996, 33.9% of Hispanic and 39.5% of Black high school dropouts 25 years and older lived below the poverty level, compared to 21.8% of Whites. For college graduates 25 years old and older, the percentage of persons living below the poverty line declined; however, a higher percentage of Hispanics and Blacks than Whites were poor; 11.1% of Hispanic, 12.6% of Black, and 5.9% of White college graduates lived below the federal poverty level.

VI. Policy Implications

* A. OVERVIEW

As the preceding chapters demonstrate, there is an enormous education gap between Hispanic students and other Americans by virtually every known measurement of educational opportunities and outcomes. Compared to non-Hispanics, Latino students are:

- More likely to enter school with significant disadvantages, including high poverty rates, low levels of parental education, and (for a high proportion of them) limited English proficiency
- Less likely to receive early childhood educational development through pre-school programs
- More likely to be retained in grade
- More likely to be placed in general education tracks, and less likely to be placed in programs for the gifted and talented
- Less likely to complete high school
- Less likely to pursue post-secondary education, particularly at four-year colleges
- Less likely to obtain a bachelor's degree or an advanced degree

Despite this distressing portrait, the National Council of La Raza believes that now, more than ever before, there are reasons for optimism. As this chapter will show:

- It is increasingly clear that improving Hispanic educational opportunities and outcomes is of vital interest to all Americans.

- There is a growing consensus among both researchers and practitioners about what needs to be done to improve the educational status of Latino students.

- A number of schools and communities have overcome many adverse factors and have succeeded in assuring quality education for their Hispanic children.

B. HISPANIC EDUCATIONAL EXCELLENCE: THE VALUE TO AMERICAN SOCIETY

The benefits to individual Latinos and the entire Hispanic community resulting from improvements in educational attainment are well-known. Previous NCLR research has shown that as many as one-third of poor Hispanics would be lifted out of poverty if Hispanic educational outcomes were equal to those of their White counterparts.¹ Similarly, researchers have shown that the "premium" for obtaining a bachelor's degree (over a high school degree) is worth an additional 75% more in lifetime earnings. Every Hispanic who now has a high school education would earn between \$400,000 and \$500,000 more over his or her lifetime if he/she had a bachelor's degree; the premium for a Latino with a professional degree is a remarkable \$1.7 million.²

Perhaps less well known are the benefits to American society that would result from improvements in educational opportunity and outcomes for Hispanics. Closing the education gap between Hispanic and non-Hispanic Americans is critical

- Safe, orderly learning environment
- Frequent assessment of student progress

More recently, other characteristics, including a focus on subjects beyond the basics, ongoing staff development, and strong home-school connections have been identified as important ele-

ments of an effective school. These attributes have been found to be essential for a variety of student populations, including language-minority children.⁸ In addition, the U.S. Department of Education's High School Dropout Project identified five key characteristics of schools that effectively educate Hispanic students (see box on Hispanic Dropout Project).

Hispanic Dropout Project

Five Characteristics of Effective Schools

- ▲ First, these schools have very high academic and behavioral standards for their students.
- ▲ Second, they communicate those standards very clearly, and they provide access and support to students in meeting those standards — that is, they provide students with many opportunities to succeed in meeting these high standards.
- ▲ Third, schools that make a difference connect their students in meaningful ways to adults. In spite of their size, secondary schools can adopt strategies — such as a school within a school, a group of teachers accepting responsibility for the same students, everyone on staff agreeing to “adopt” some students, older students mentoring younger students — to increase the personal attention that students need to experience.
- ▲ Fourth, these schools connect their students to possible futures in college and the workforce.
- ▲ Fifth, they provide families with useful information about how their children are doing and about their futures. Rather than accepting the myth that parents do not care, good schools adopt the position that parents need information in order to make informed decisions that affect their children. Aspirations are not enough. For schools to make a difference, they must provide ways for students and their families to achieve those aspirations.

Researchers at the University of Texas have compiled a similar “short list” of actions the schools need to take to promote successful educational outcomes for Latino⁹ students, as have the National Coalition of Advocates for Students,¹⁰ researchers studying the Achievement for Latinos through the Academic Success (ALAS) project,¹¹ and numerous others. In sum, there is no shortage of research reports, program evaluations, practitioner's guides, or other material to help those truly interested in improving Hispanic educational attainment. As the Hispanic Dropout Project concluded:

Ways to improve the schools that Hispanics attend and solutions to [the Hispanic dropout problem] are known; they should be implemented on a large scale. There are dozens of proven, replicable programs capable of increasing Hispanic students' achievement, increasing their high school completion, and increasing their college enrollment...*Only a lack of political leadership, will, and resources keeps the nation from solving the problem; there is no shortage of effective models.*¹²

While significant and contentious policy debates continue over a wide variety of issues, there appears to be a growing consensus that schools and education programs must incorporate three basic themes in order to succeed with Hispanic children; these themes include:

Public Schools That Work for Latino Students

In the Calexico Unified School District, on the Mexican border in California's Imperial Valley, about 80% of the students are English Language Learners (ELLs), 30% are children of migrant and seasonal farmworkers, and the average family earns less than \$12,000. The system was one of the first to implement a full bilingual curriculum in each of its schools in the 1970s, has established aggressive parental involvement programs, and, perhaps most importantly, has created what one observer called a "culture of learning." All students must pass an English proficiency test and complete a senior project to graduate. The dropout rate has been less than half of the national average for Hispanics and about half of the statewide average for all students. More than 80% of the school system's graduates go on to higher education, more than twice the national average for Latino and non-Latino high school graduates.¹⁴

The Central Park East School in East Harlem, New York, is one of the nation's best-known public "choice" schools. The majority of the school's students are low-income; about three-quarters come from families who earn at or barely-above poverty-level incomes. However, the school is racially diverse; about 45% of its students are African American, while another 30% are Hispanic, principally of Puerto Rican and Dominican origins. Despite serious resistance from the school bureaucracy and some community opposition owing to the school's acceptance of significant numbers of (largely White) students from outside the neighborhood, its results have been dramatic: school attendance far above the city average, a negligible dropout rate in a city where minority dropout rates exceed 50%, and high standardized test scores.¹⁵

Community School District Six, located in upper Manhattan in New York City, contains a large population of English language learners (ELLs). Of the total enrollment of over 29,000 students, 48.2% are ELLs, the highest proportion among all school districts in New York State. In addition, 98.9% of the district's students are from low-income families. Despite these demographic challenges, District Six has built an educational environment that promotes higher standards of excellence for the entire learning community. It is at the forefront of innovative technology initiatives, with the largest computer laptop program in the state; it also operates an extensive parent education initiative that includes basic literacy, career development, computer training, GED and bachelor's degree, and parent leadership programs. During the last 10 years, the district's reading and math scores have increased significantly. In reading, the district has gone from being ranked 32nd to 19th in the city; in mathematics, the district's rank has increased from 32nd to 13th. The district also has the city's second highest Spanish language reading scores.¹⁶

The Ysleta Independent School District (Ysleta ISD) in El Paso, Texas, includes 47,000 students, 75% of whom come from below-poverty-level families; 85% of the student body is Hispanic, and about 40% of all students are predominantly Spanish-speaking. Ysleta ISD operates one of the most comprehensive bilingual education programs in the country, designed to assure that all students will graduate from high school fluently bilingual and fully prepared to enter a four-year college. Prior to adopting this program, between 50-60% of Ysleta students passed Texas' standardized reading, mathematics, and writing tests. In 1997, 85% of the district's students passed the reading exam, 81% passed the mathematics exam, and 86% passed the writing exam; these scores surpass those of virtually all urban school districts in the United States.¹⁷

Children: A Demographic Profile

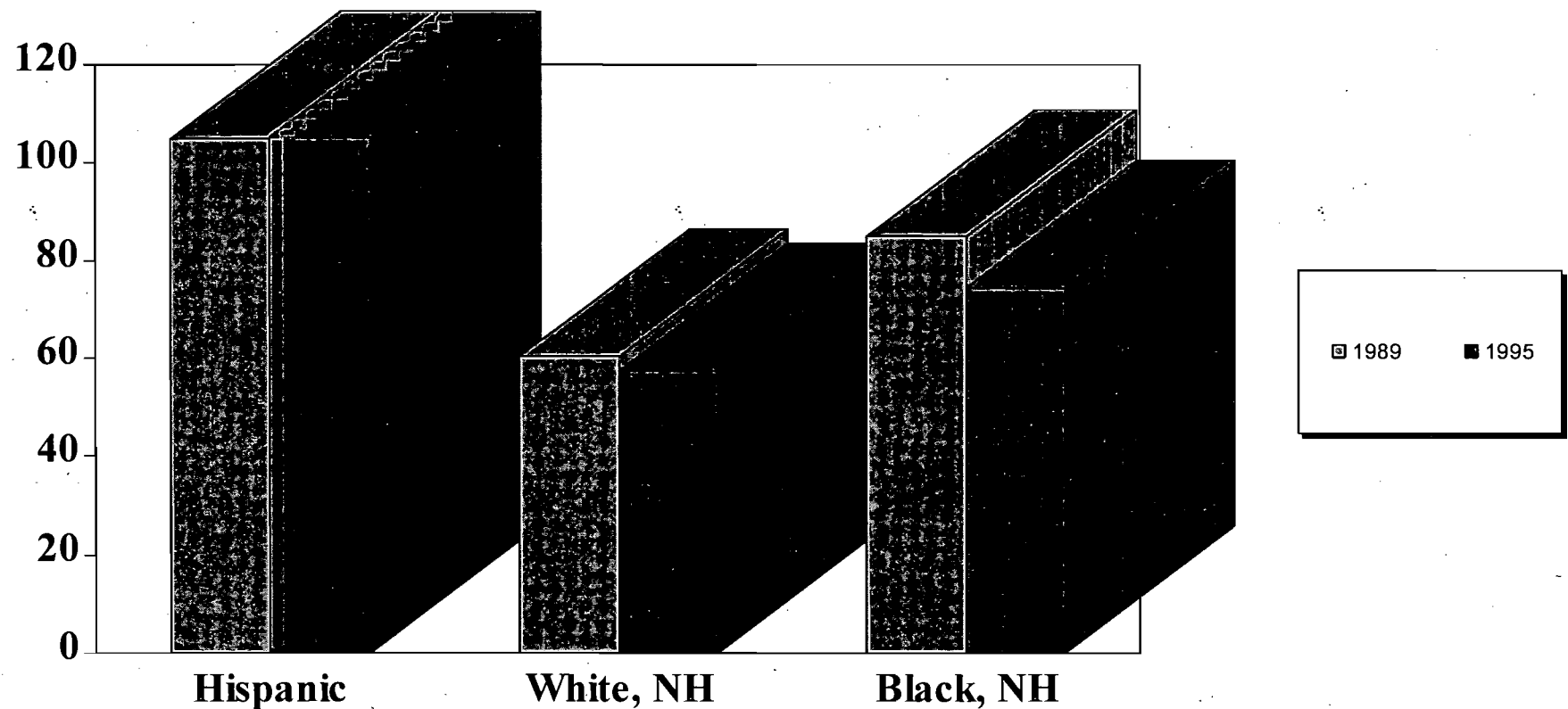
By

Leo F. Estrada, Ph.D

UCLA School of Public Policy and
Social Research

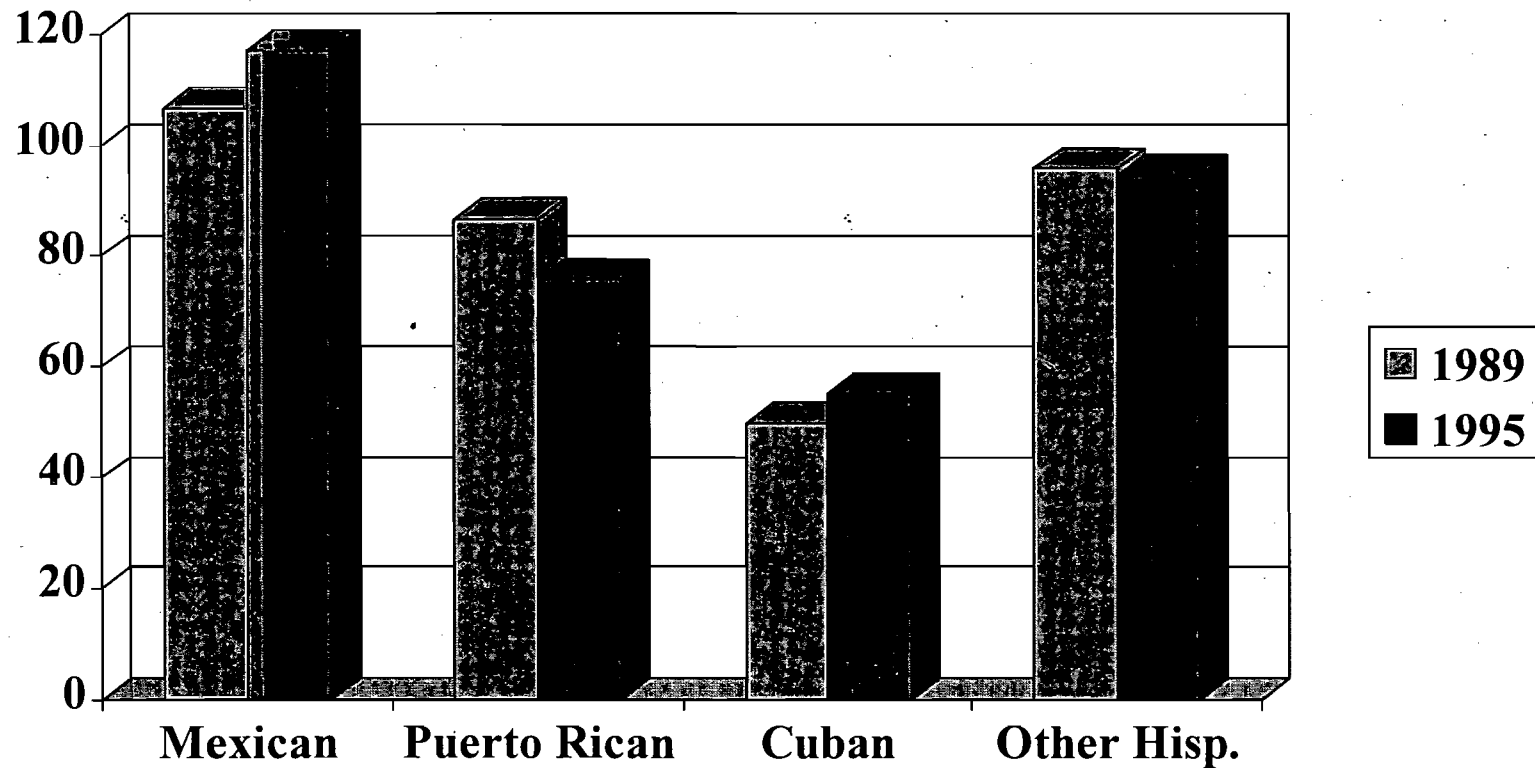
PHOTOCOPY
PRESERVATION

Birth Rates by Race/Ethnicity, 1989-1995



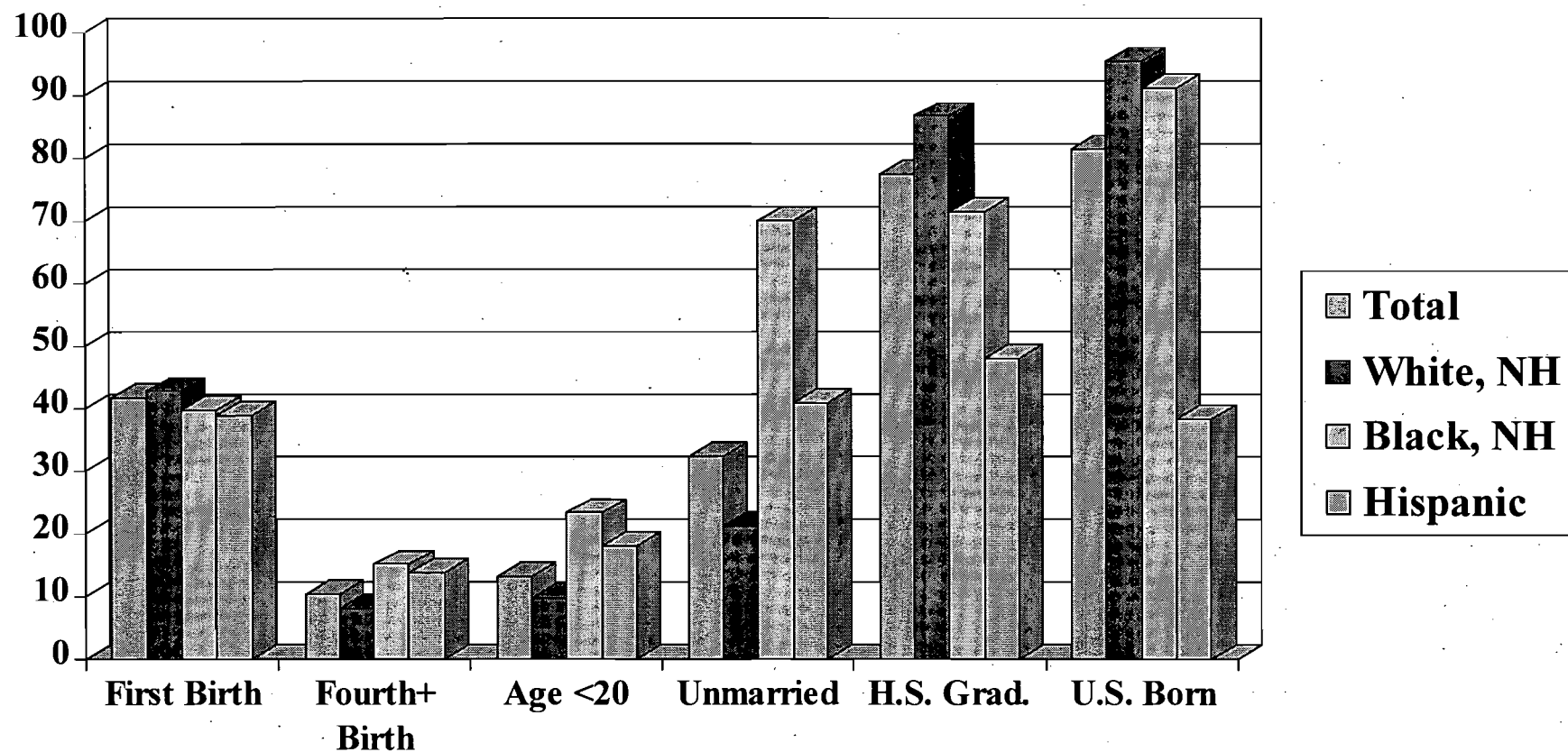
Source: NCHS Monthly Vital Statistics Report, vol. 46, no 6, 1988

Hispanic Subgroup Birth Rates, 1989-1995



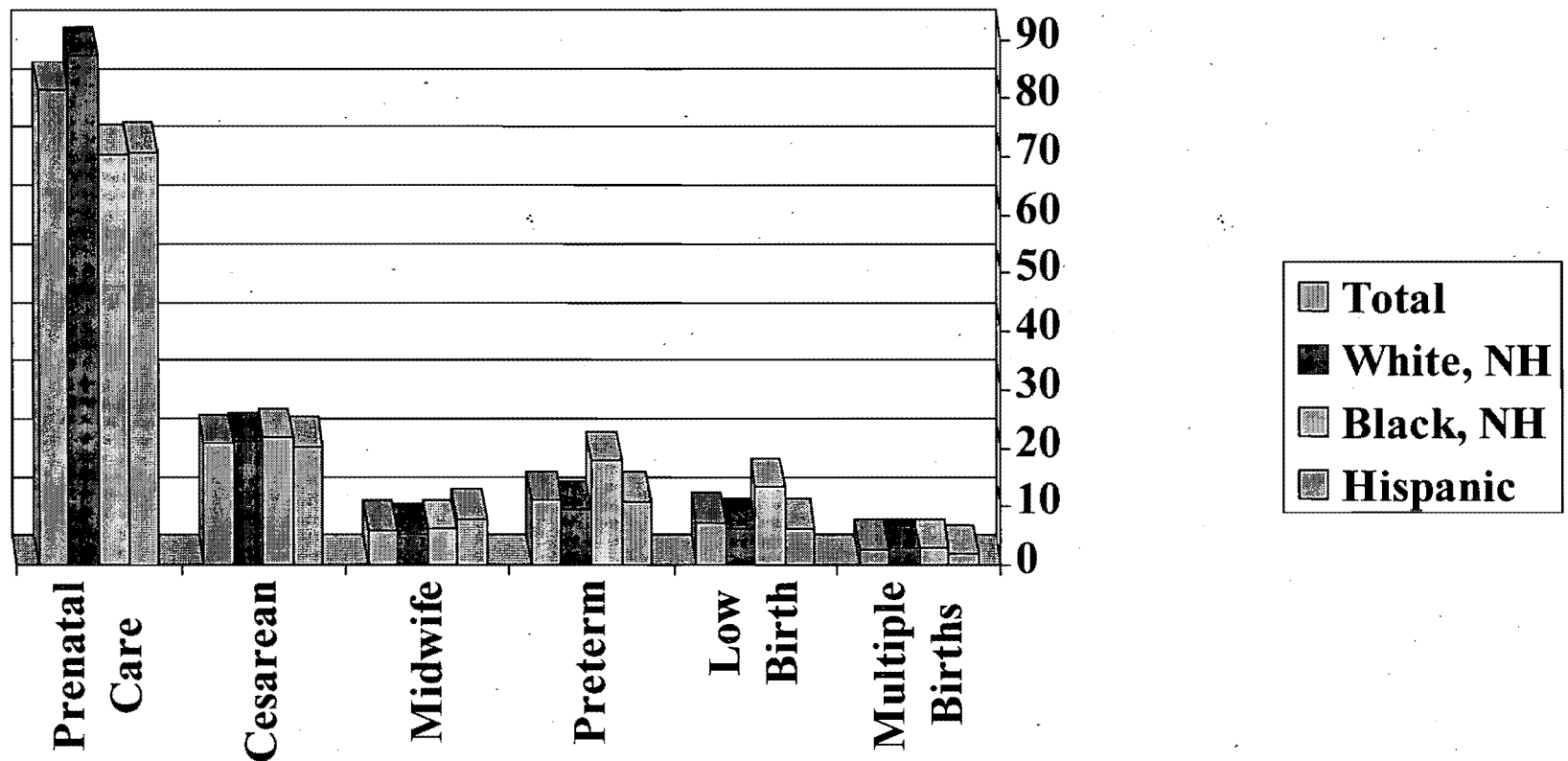
Source: NCHS Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol 46, No. 6, 1988

Percent of Births by Characteristics and Race/Ethnicity, 1995



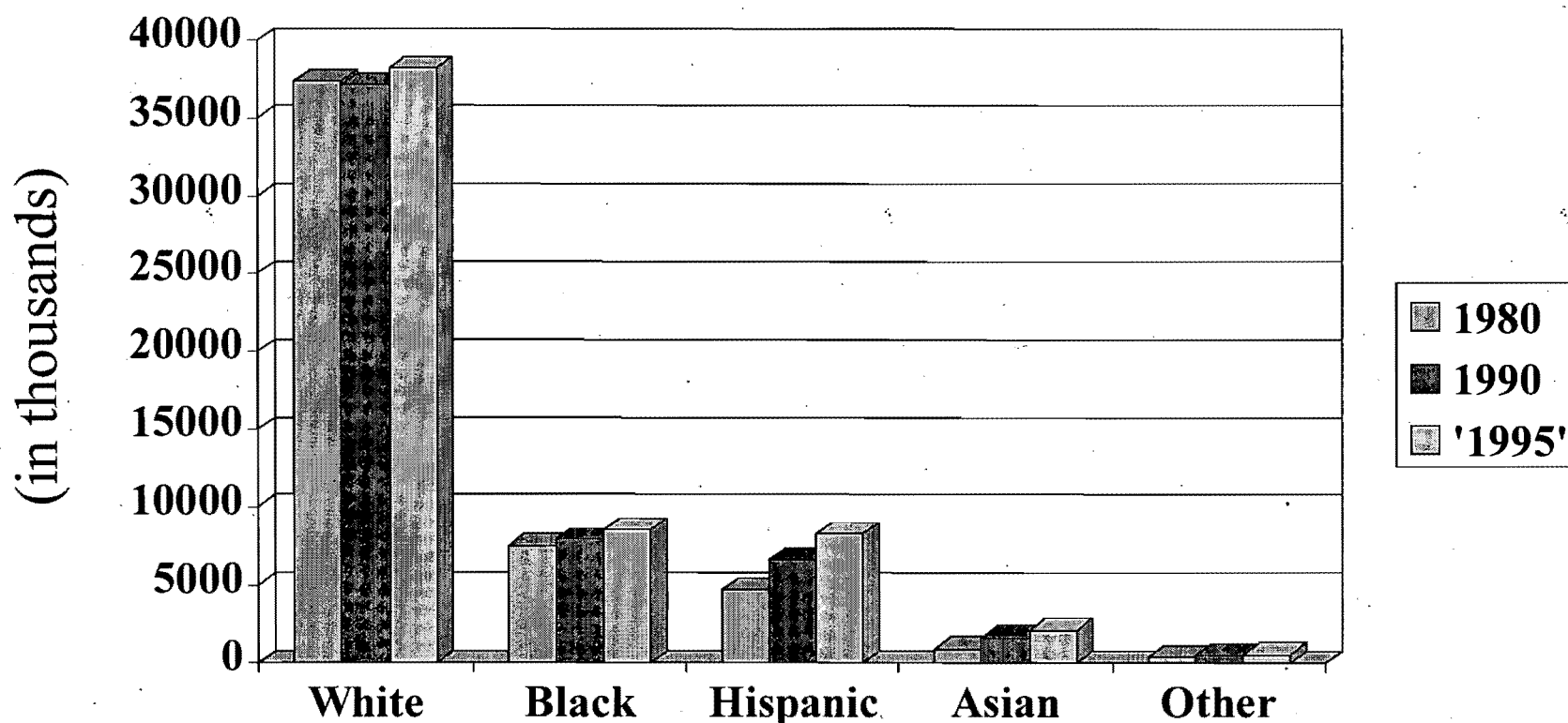
Source: NCHS Monthly Vital Statistics Report Vol.46, No.6, 1988

Percent of Births by Characteristics and Race/Ethnicity, 1995



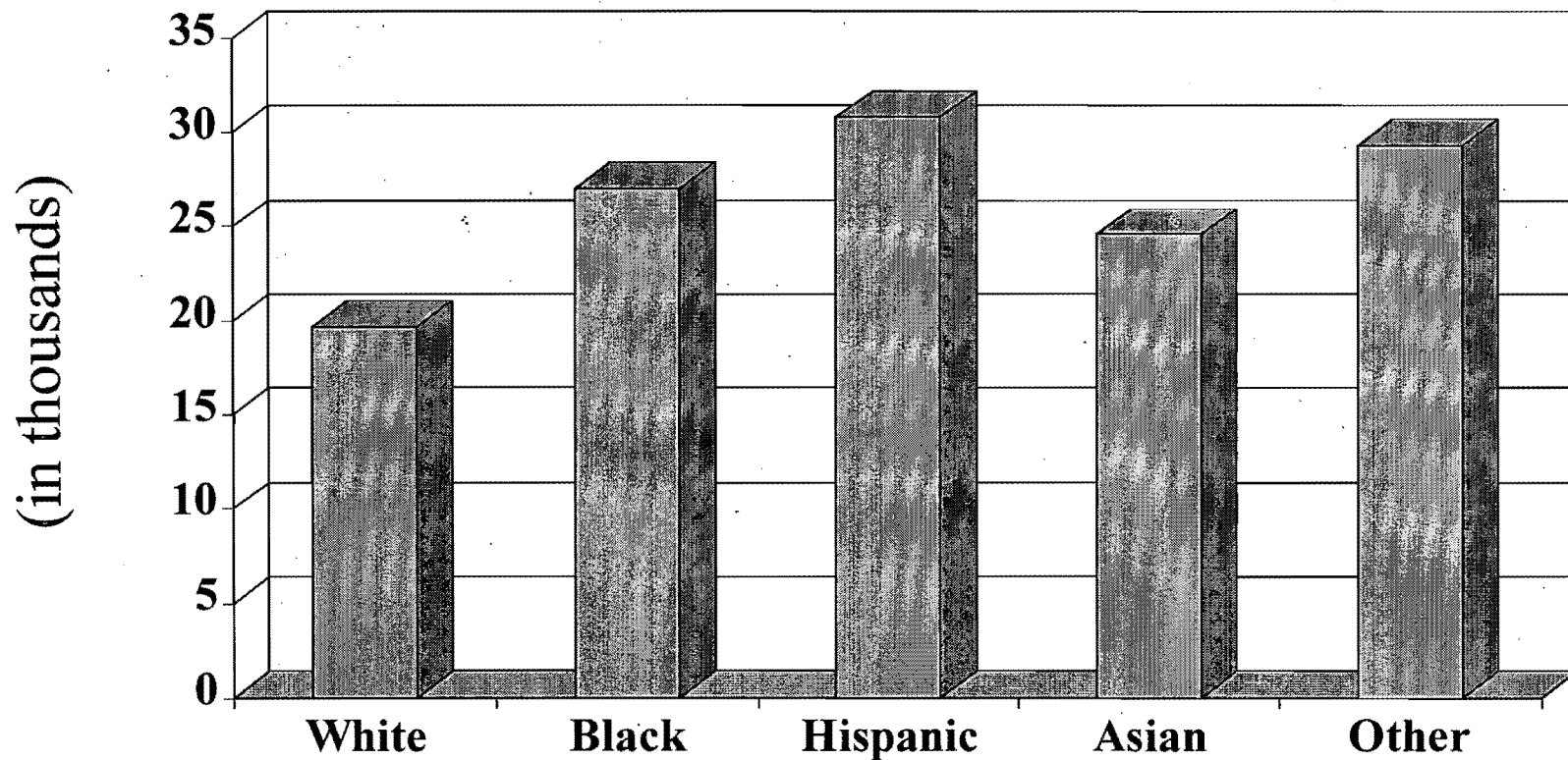
Source: NCHS Monthly Vital Statistics Report Vol 46 No. 6, 1988

Changes in Child Numerical Growth, 1980, 1990, 1995



Source: CPS, P25-1095

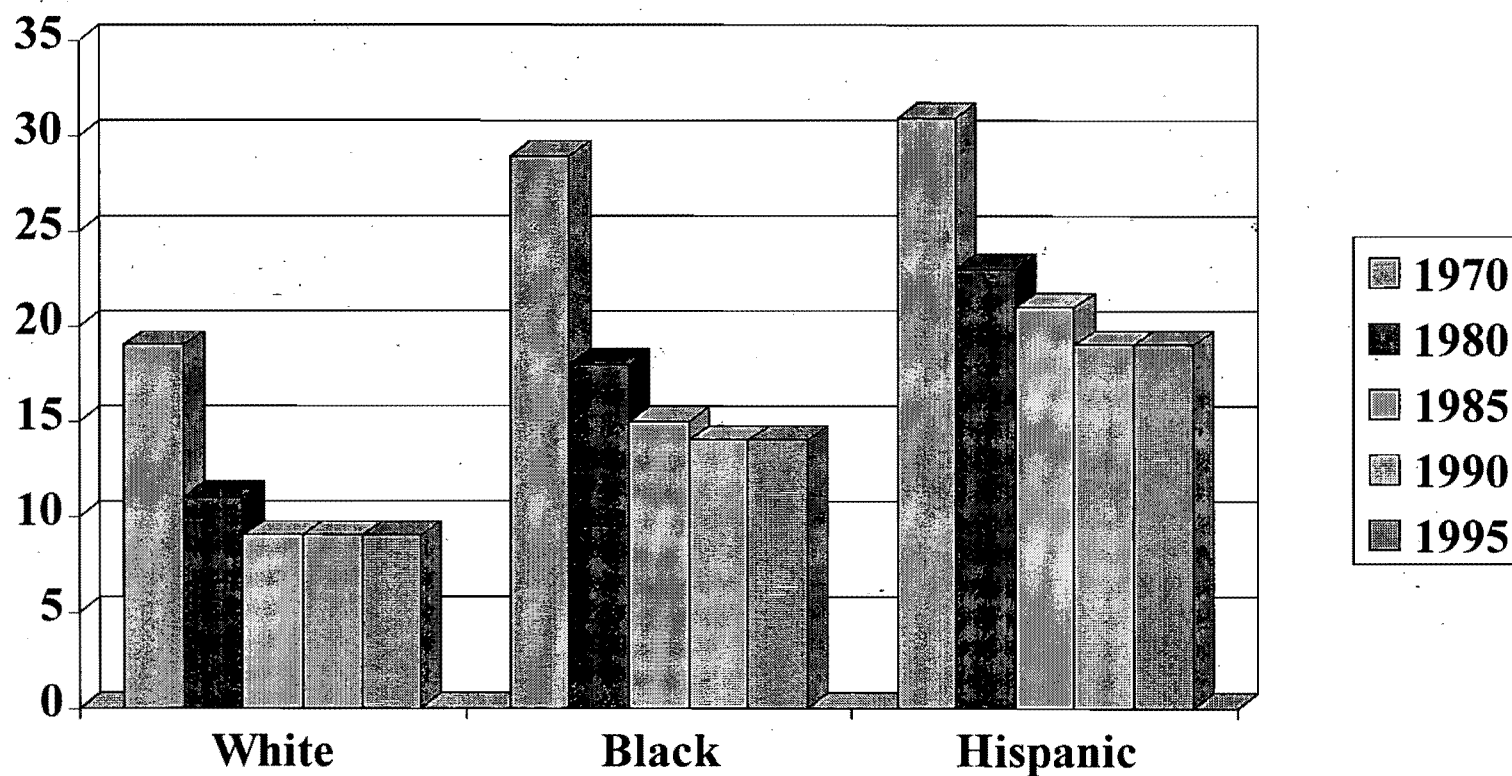
Percent of Children by Race and Ethnicity, 1995



Percent Children (0 to 14) to Total Population

Source: CPS, P25-1130

Families with Three or More Children, 1970 to 1995

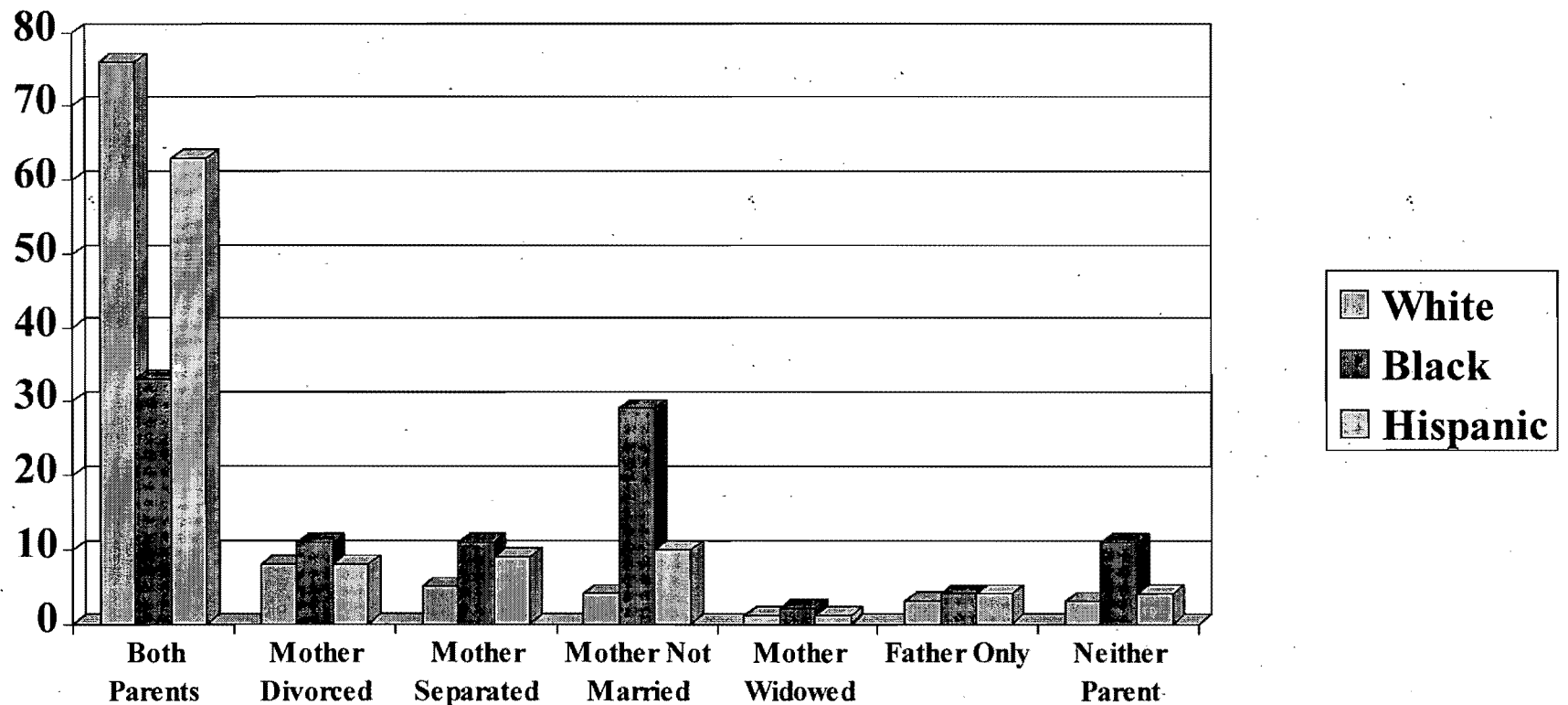


Source: CPS, P20-447, 1997

Their Family Setting

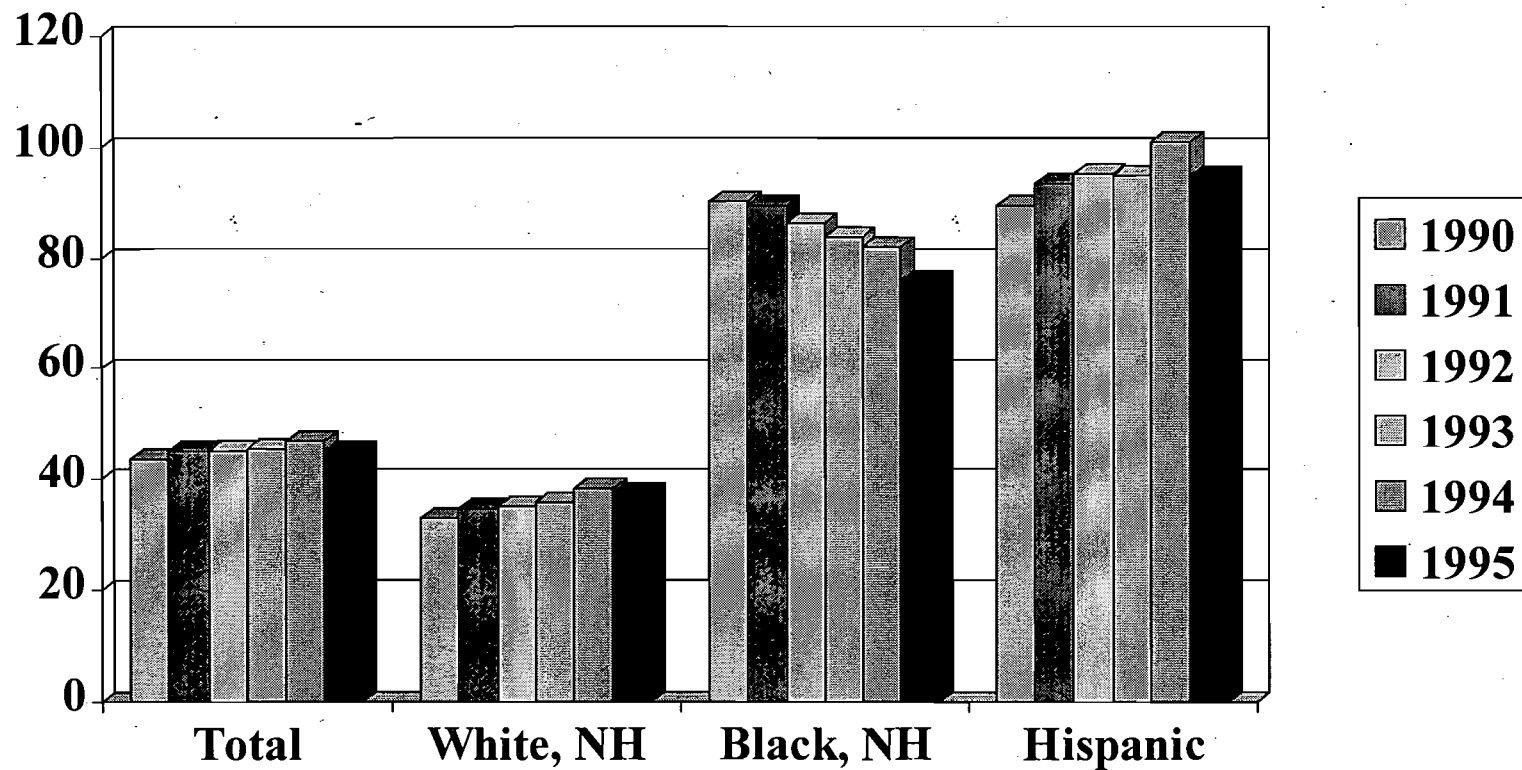
- The concept of “la familia” is eroding
 - The percent of children living in intact families is declining, from 74% in 1980 to 64% in 1997
 - The percent of children living with neither parent increased from 3% in 1980 to 5% in 1997
 - 3.3 million Hispanic children under 18 years of age live with only one parent

Children by Family Type, 1995



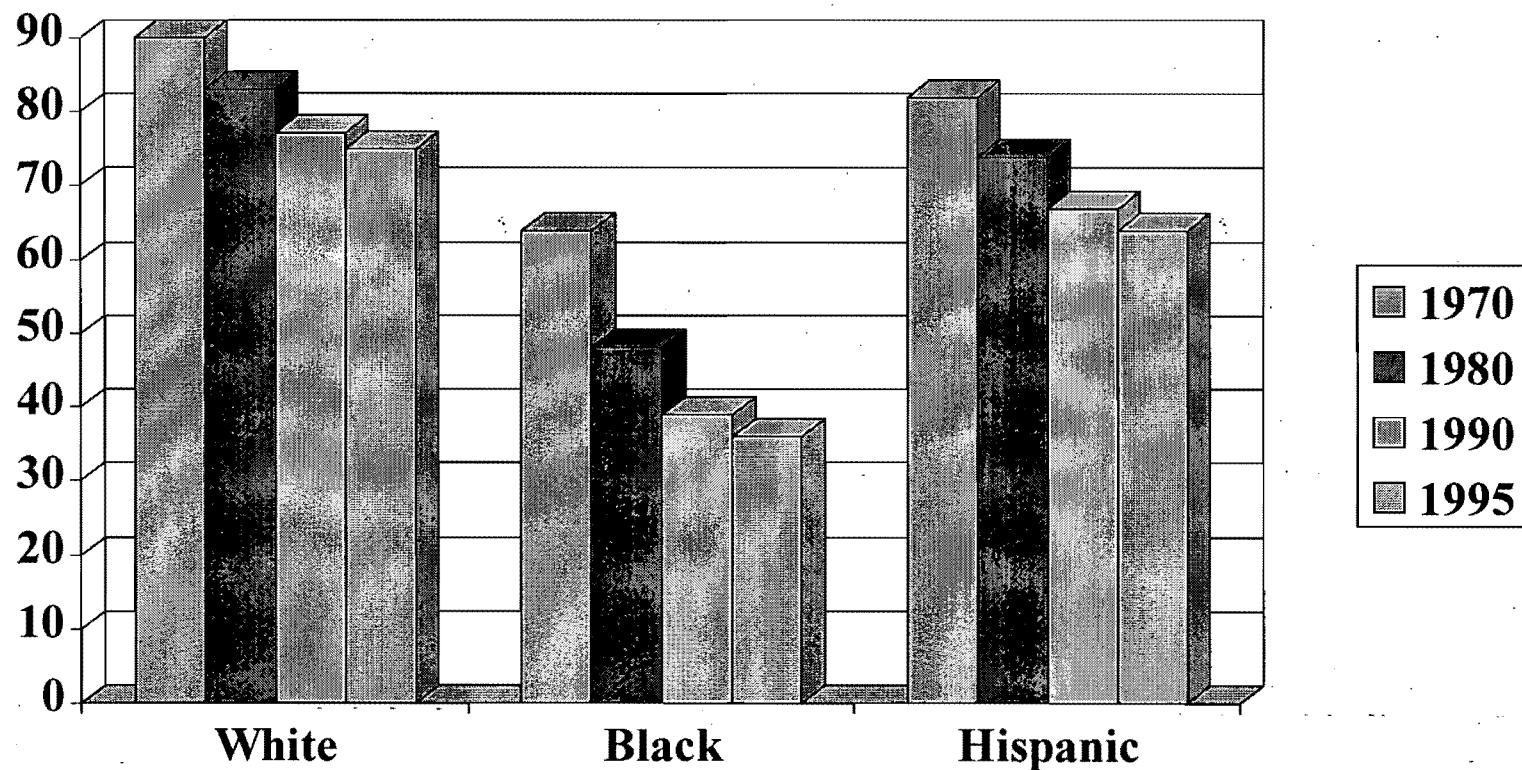
Source: CPS, P20-450, 1996

Birthrates to Unmarried Women by Age and Race, 1990-1995



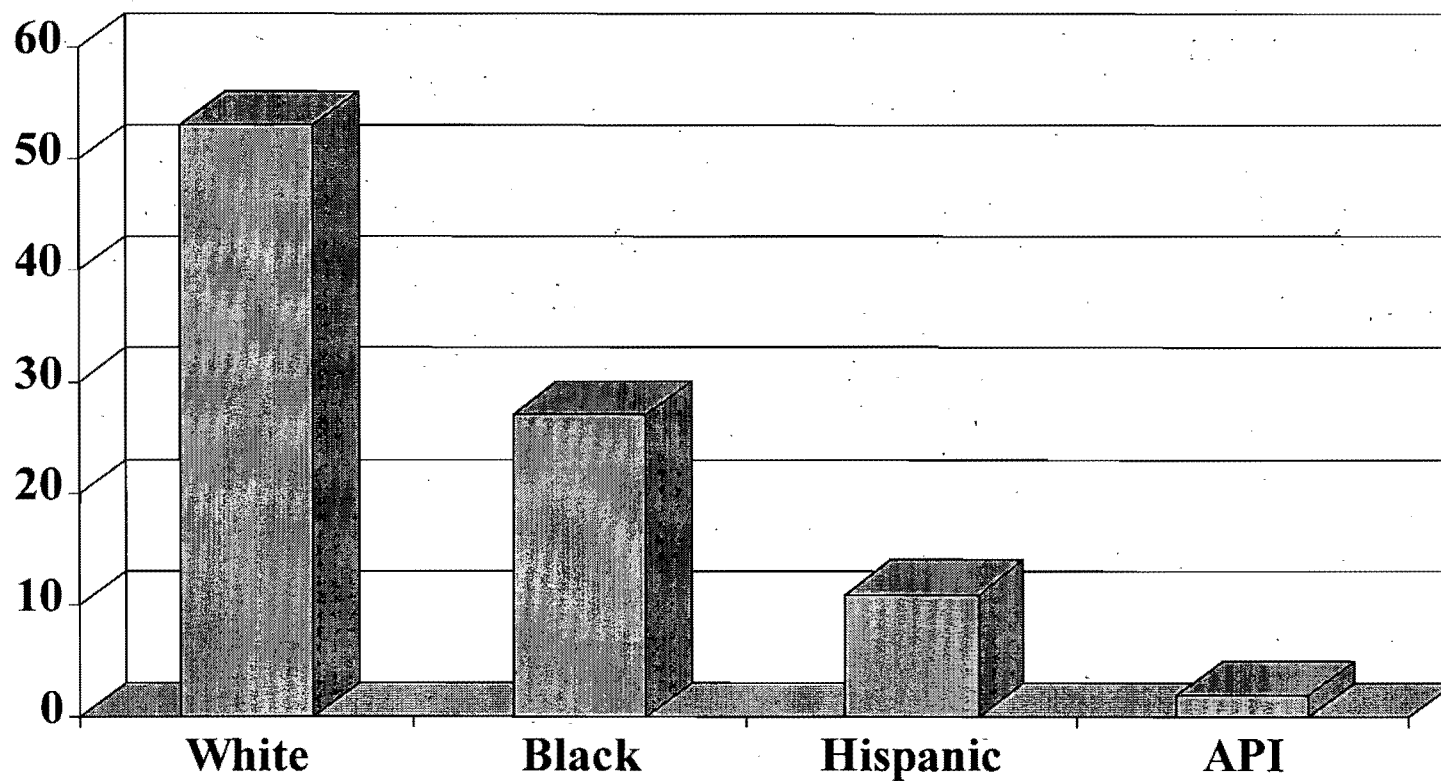
Source: NCHS Monthly Vital Statistics Report, Vol. 46, No.6, 1988

Children Living with Both Parents, 1970 to 1995



Source: CPS, P20-447, 1997

Child Abuse (Victimization Rate)



Source: National Center on Child Abuse and Neglect, 1996

National Domestic Violence Hotline (1-800-799-SAFE)

- 5.3% of the callers were Spanish-speaking
- 15.4% of the callers stated children were involved
- Most Frequent States: California, Texas, New York, Florida, Illinois, Arizona, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Washington, Georgia, Michigan, Virginia, and Wisconsin

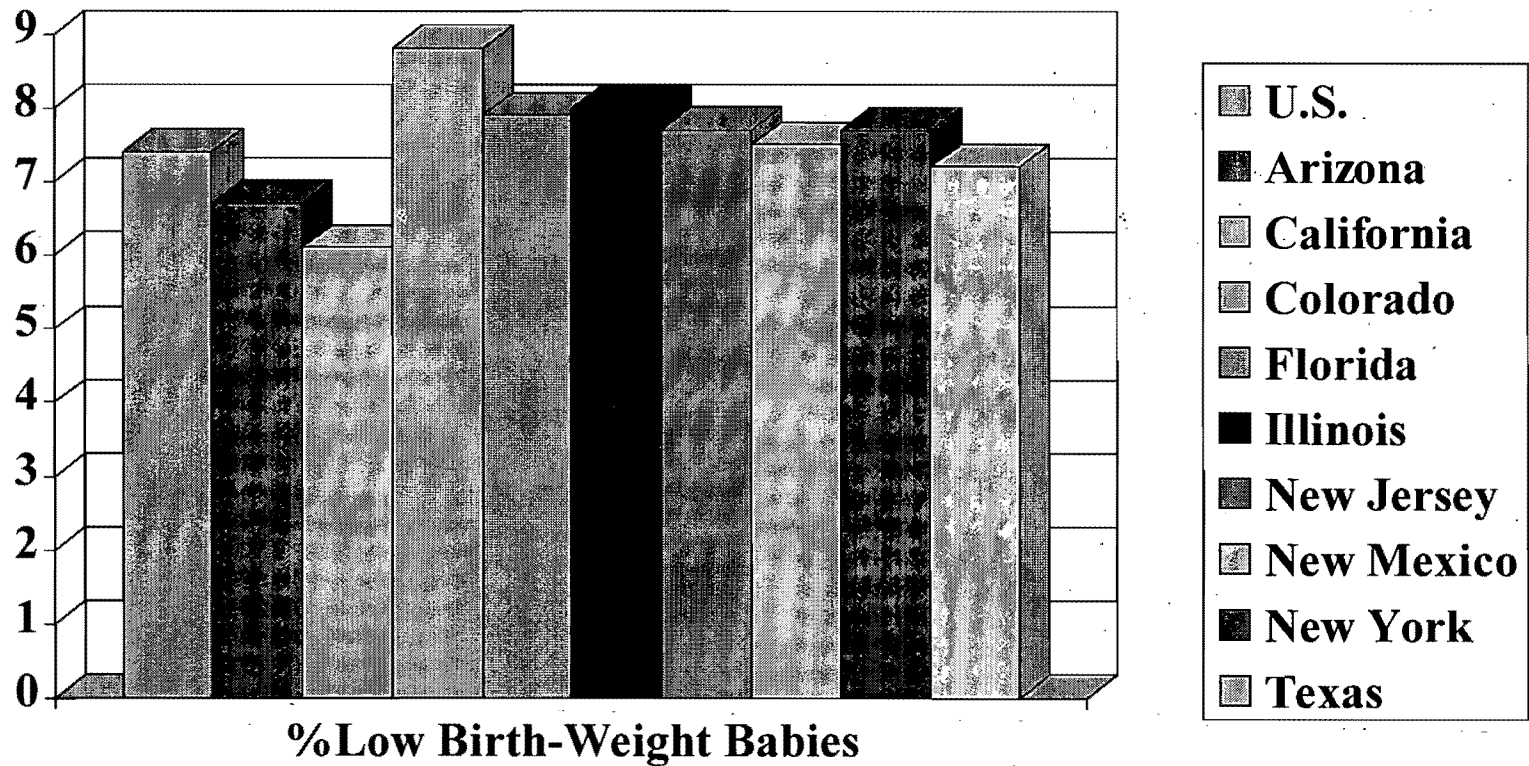
Source: NDVH, Year End Fact Sheet, 1997

National Domestic Violence Hotline (1-800-799-SAFE)

- **Area Codes with Most Calls:**
 - **718** **Los Angeles, CA**
 - **213** **Queens/Brooklyn, NY**
 - **718** **San Bernardino, CA**
 - **909** **Bakersfield, CA**
 - **805** **Austin, TX**
 - **512** **Orange County, CA**
 - **714** **Long Beach, CA**
 - **562** **Phoenix, AZ**
 - **602** **Santa Monica, CA**
 - **310** **Burbank, CA**
 - **818** **Oakland, CA**
 - **510** **Fresno, CA**
 - **209** **San Jose, CA**

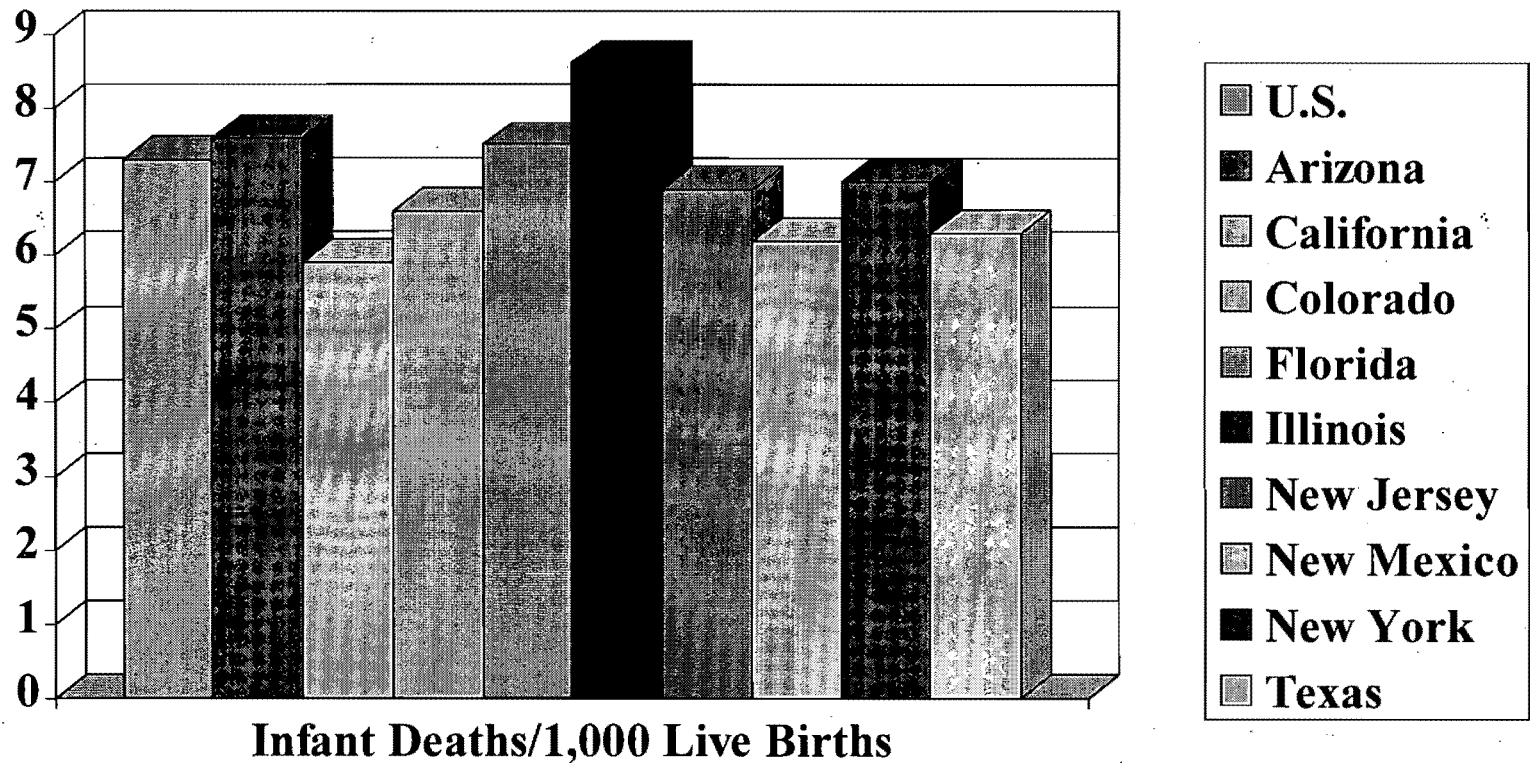
Source: NDVH, Year End Fact Sheet, 1997

Percent Low Birth-Weight Babies



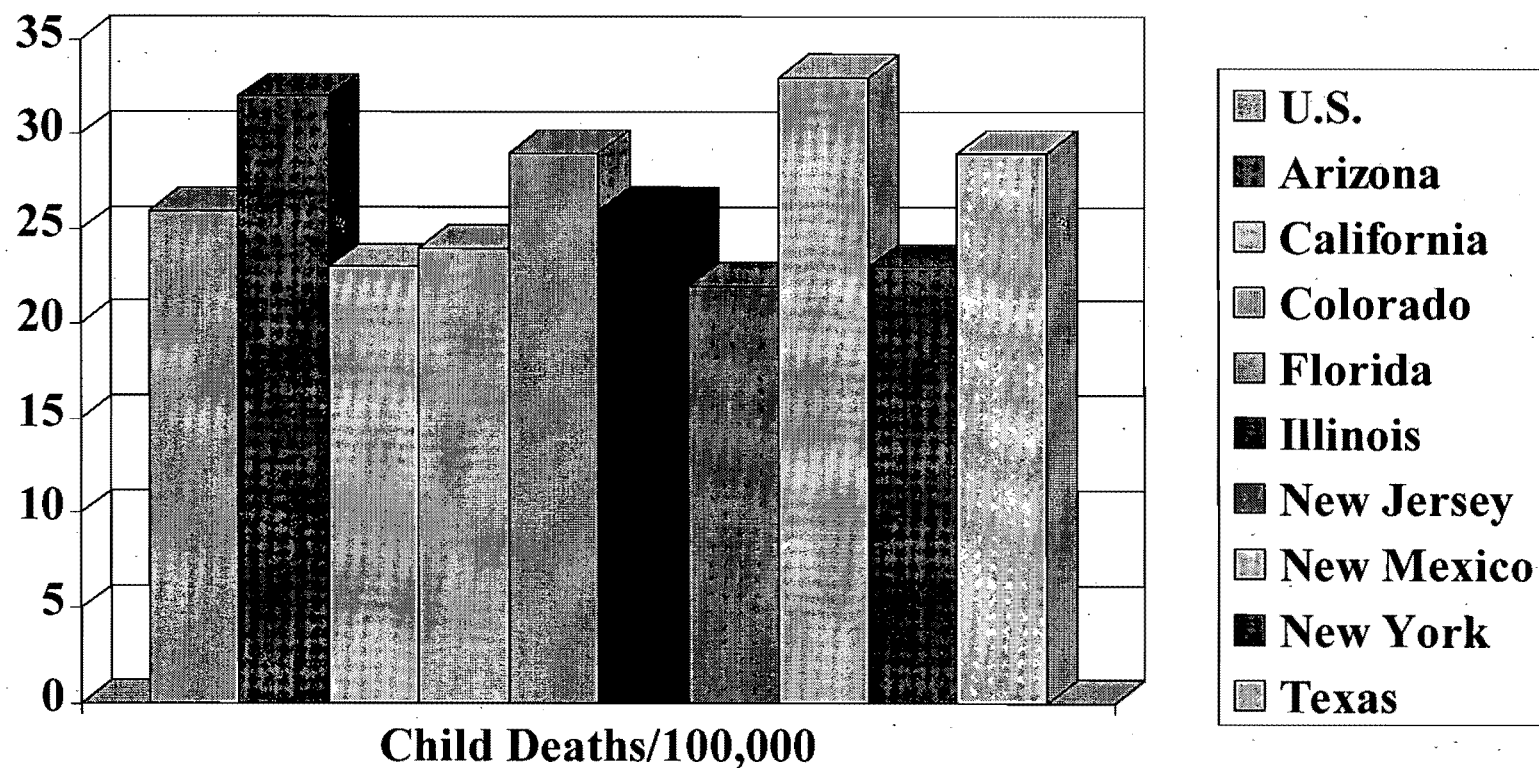
Source: Kids Count, 1999

Infant Deaths Per 1,000 Live Births



Source: Kids Count, 1999

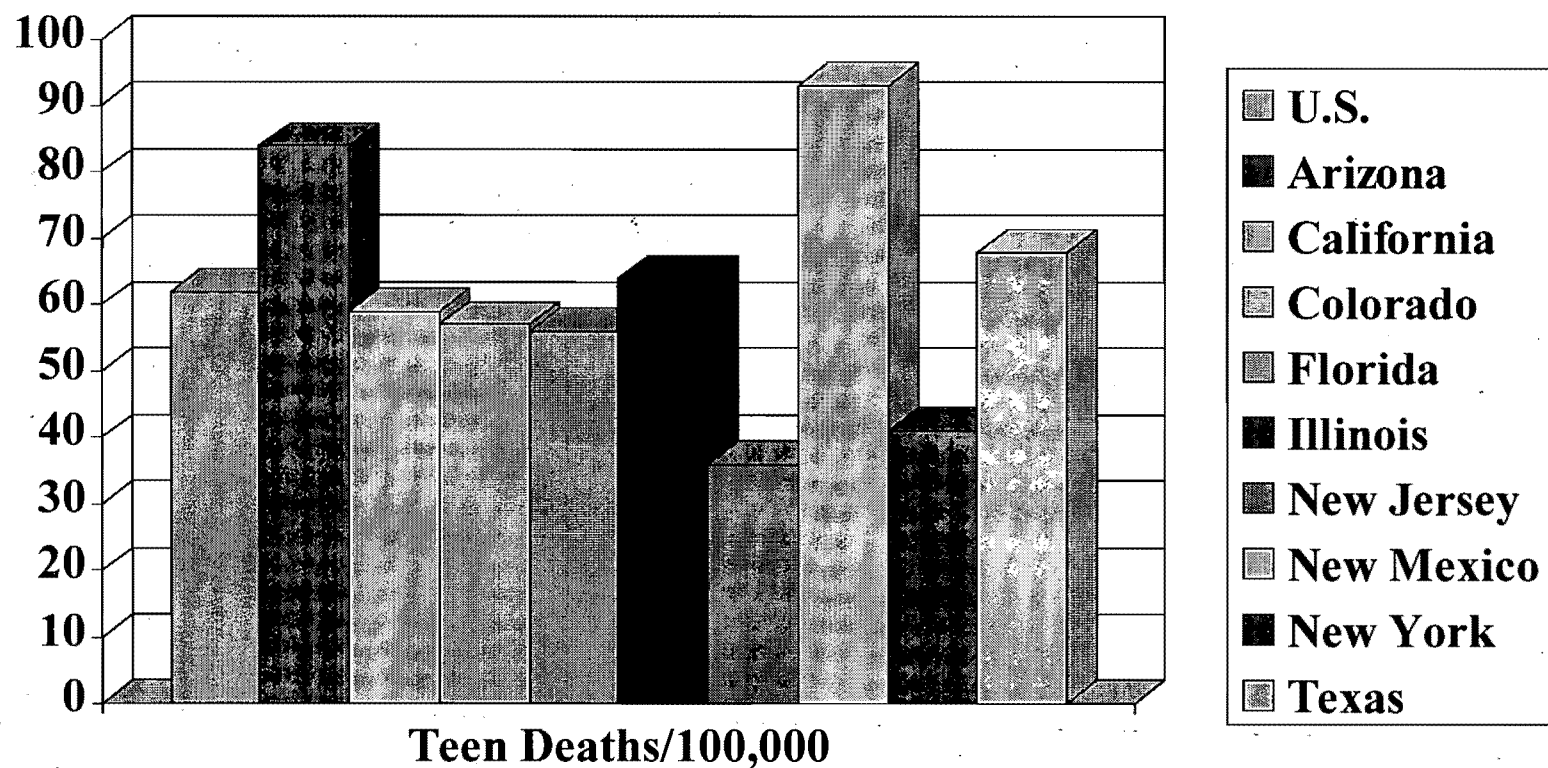
Child Death Per 100,000 Children 1-14



Source: Kids Count, 1999

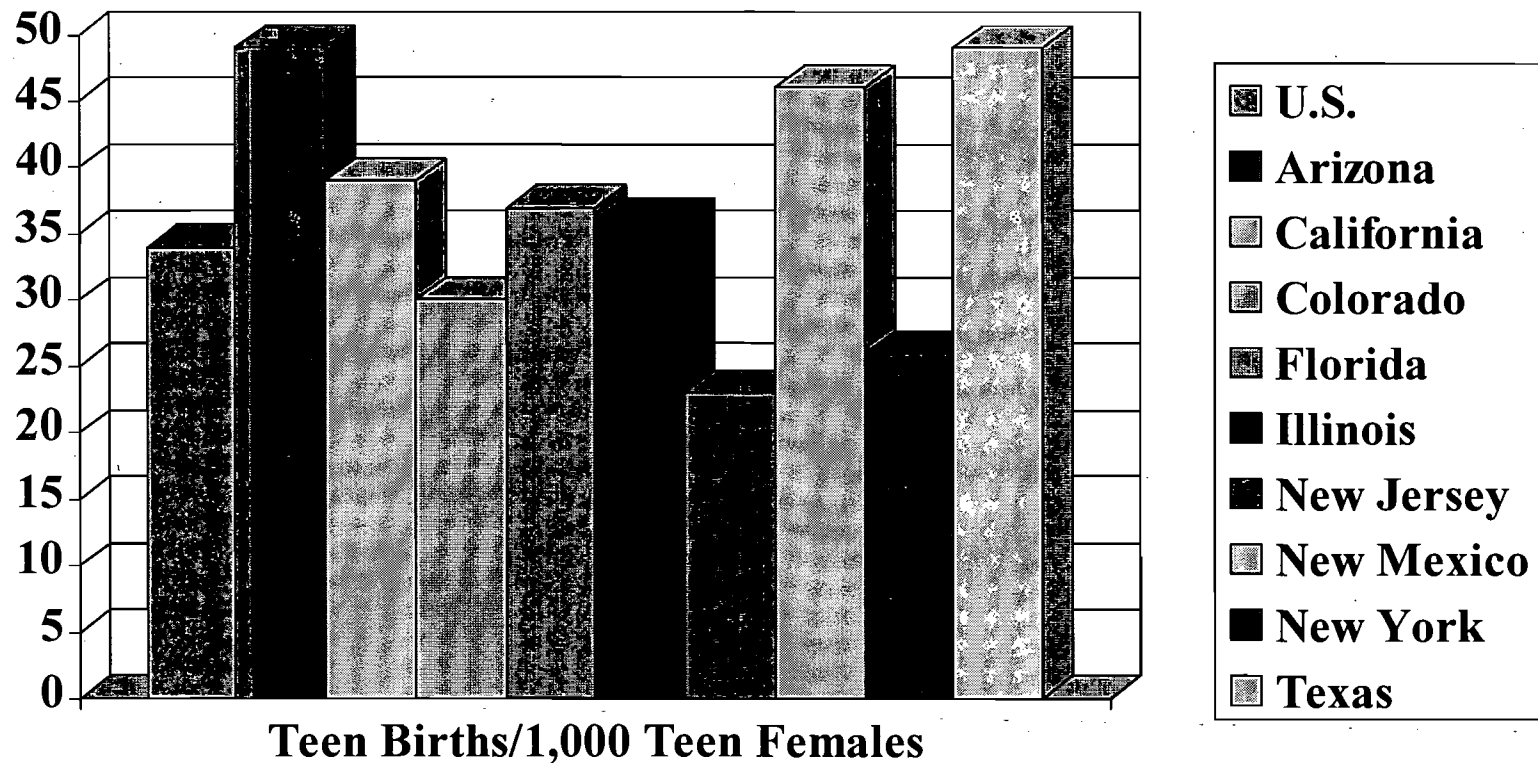
Child Death Per 100,000

Teens 15-19



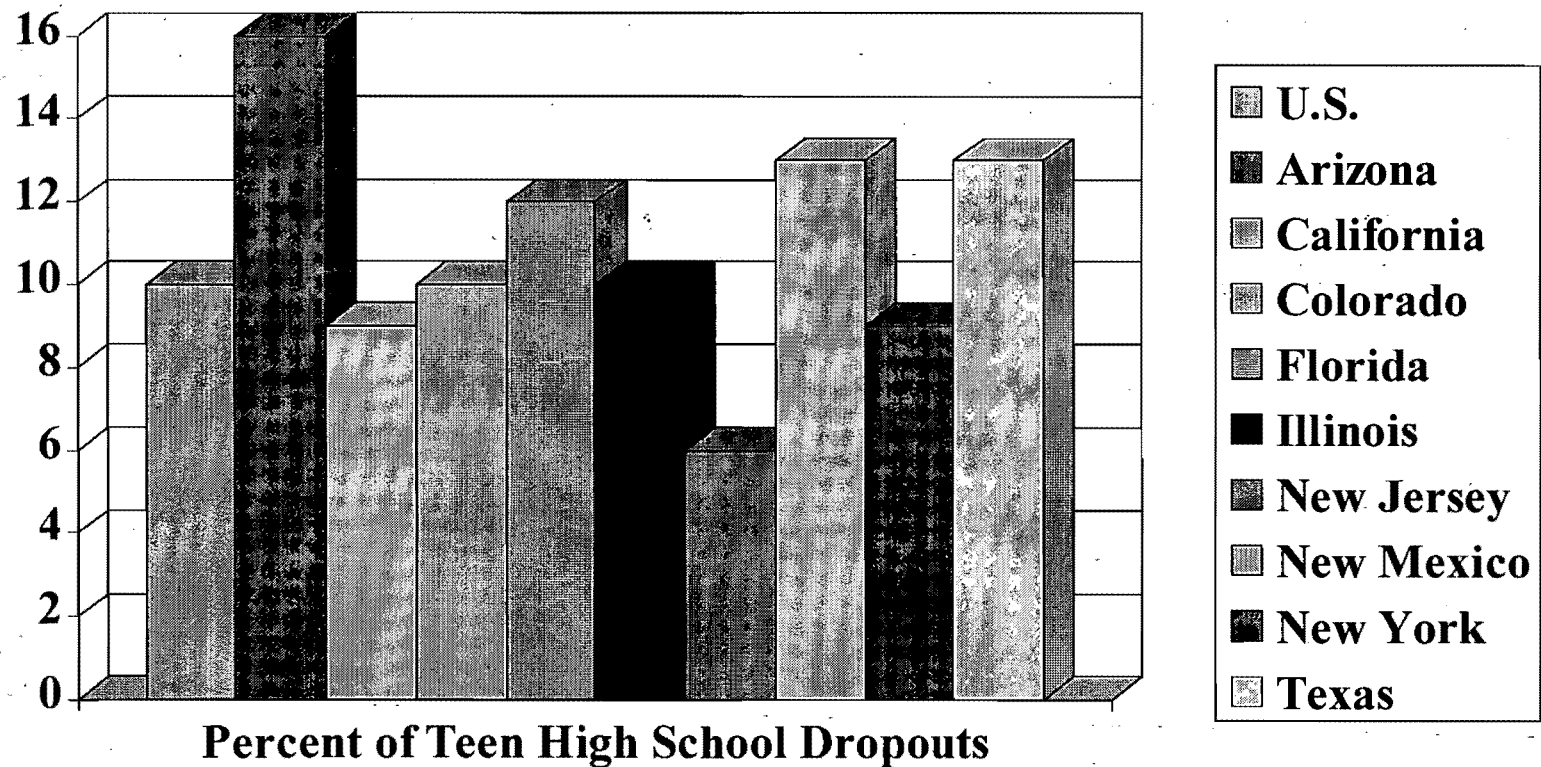
Source: Kids Count, 1999

Teen Births per 1,000 Females (15-17)



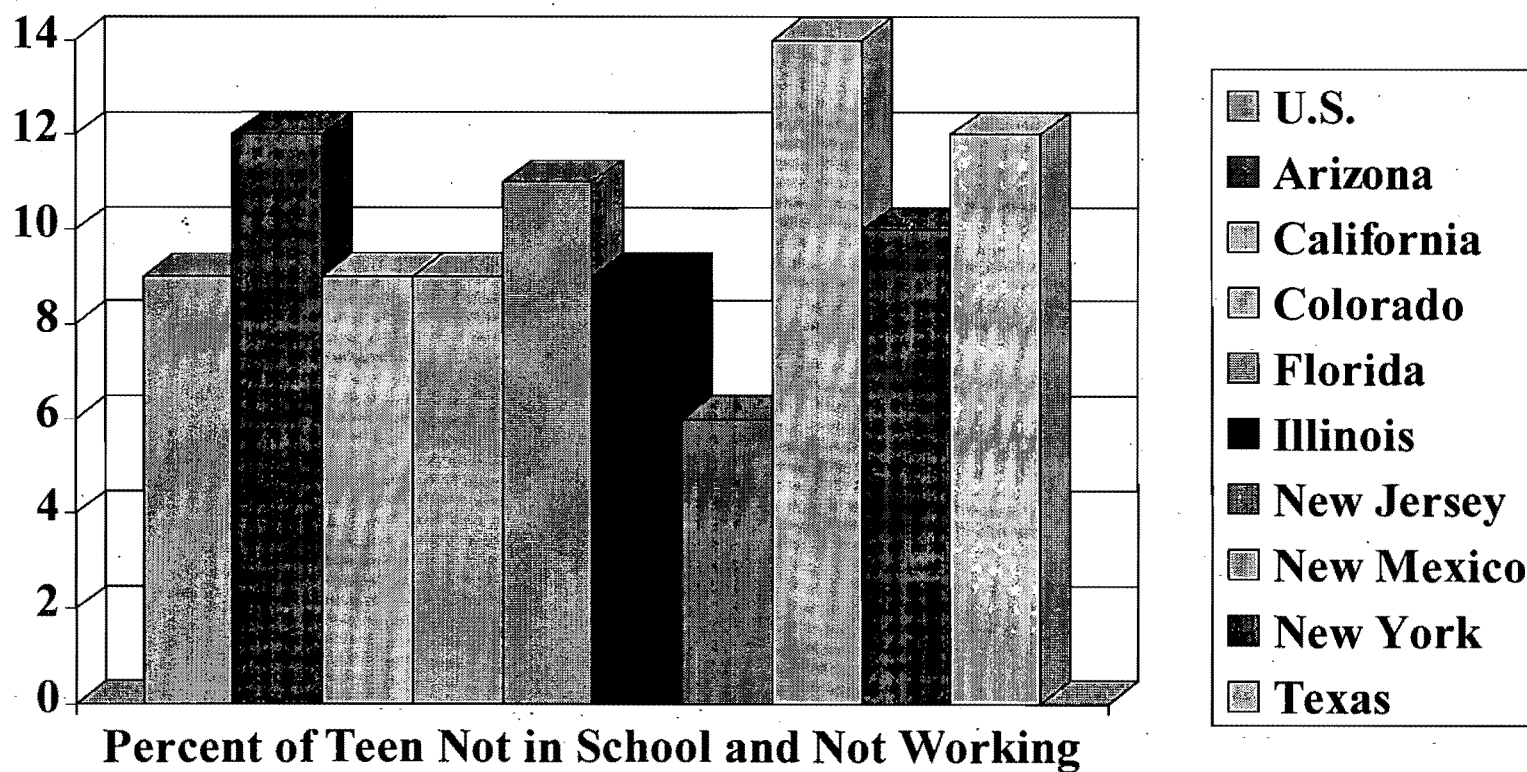
Source: Kids Count, 1999

Percent of 16-19 Year Olds Dropouts



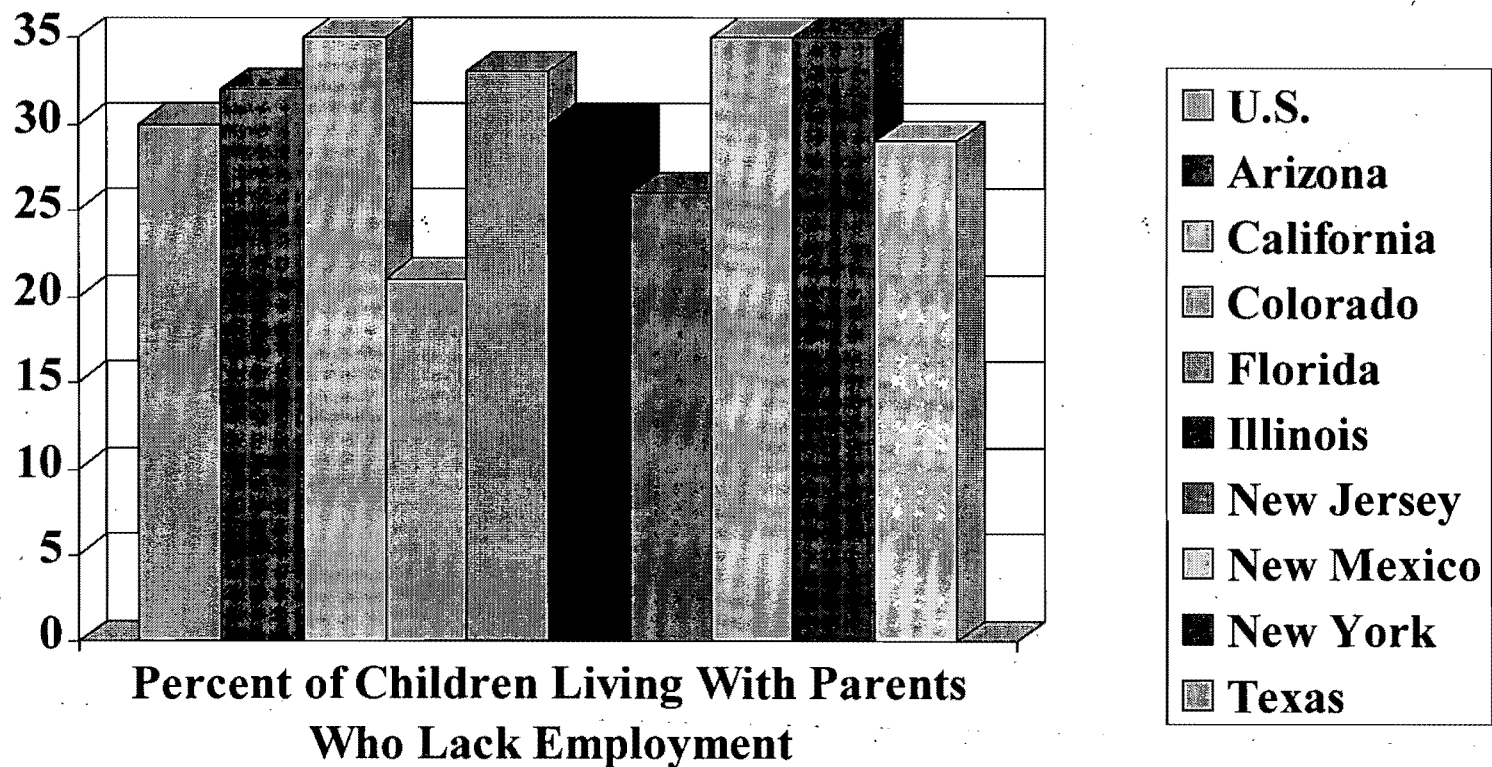
Source: Kids Count, 1999

Percent of 16-19 Year Olds Not in School and Not Working



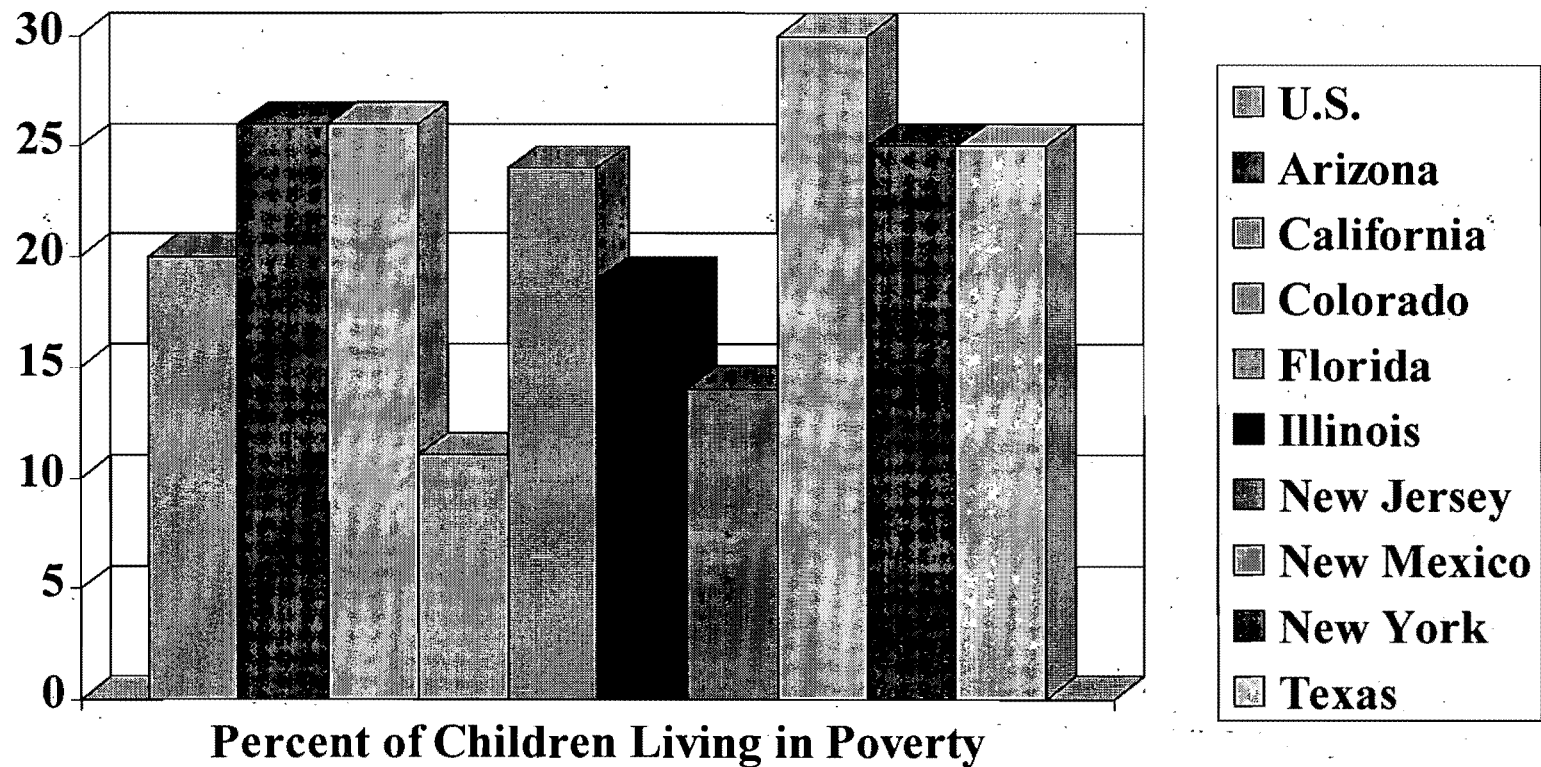
Source: Kids Count, 1999

Percent of Children Living With Parents Who Lack Full-Time Work



Source: Kids Count, 1999

Percent of Children in Poverty



Source: Kids Count, 1999

1999 Kids Count State Rankings

- High Risk

- District of Columbia
- Mississippi
- Louisiana
- New Mexico
- Alabama
- South Carolina
- Tennessee
- Georgia
- Kentucky
- Florida

- Low Risk

- New Hampshire
- North Dakota
- Minnesota
- Wisconsin
- Utah
- Massachusetts
- Vermont
- New Jersey
- Connecticut
- Hawaii

Health: Closing the Health Gap

- Pregnant Hispanic women receiving prenatal care in the first trimester increased from 61% in 1987 to 70% in 1995

Source: DHHS, PHS, Healthy People 2000

Health: Forward Strides

- Tuberculosis among Hispanics improved slightly from 18.3 per 100,000 in 1988 to 18 per 100,000 in 1991
- Hispanics are twice as likely to have TB

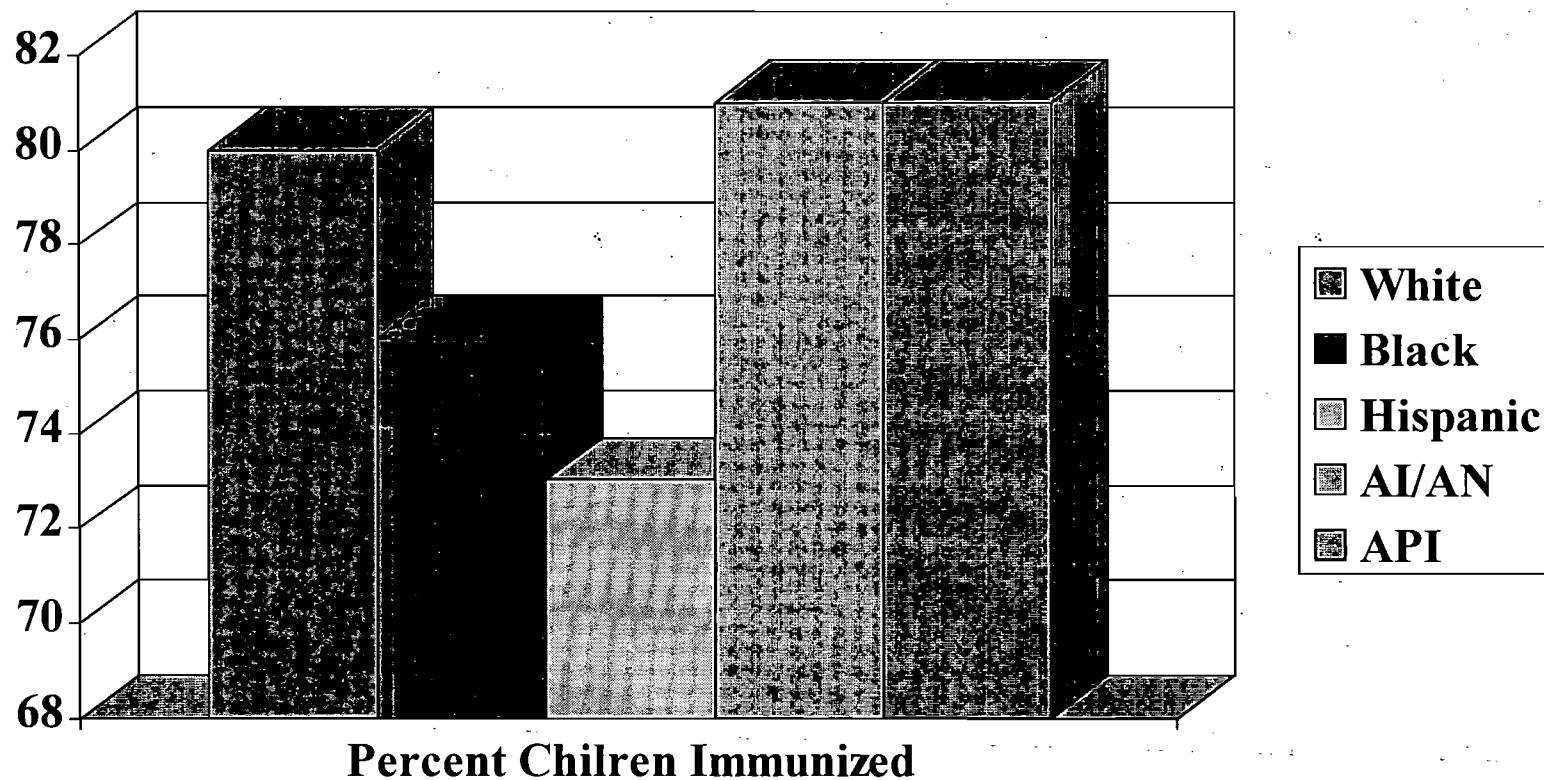
Source: DHHS, PHS, Healthy People 2000

Health: Losing Ground

- In 1991, there were 180 pregnancies per 1,000 Hispanic adolescent females 15-19 compared with 143 per 1,000 in 1985
- The prevalence of diabetes among Mexican Americans increased from 54 to 66 cases per 1,000
- There were 50 AIDS cases per 100,000 Hispanics compared to 30 per 100,000 for the total population

Source: DHHS, PHS, Healthy People 2000

Childhood Immunization Rates by Race/Ethnicity, 1996

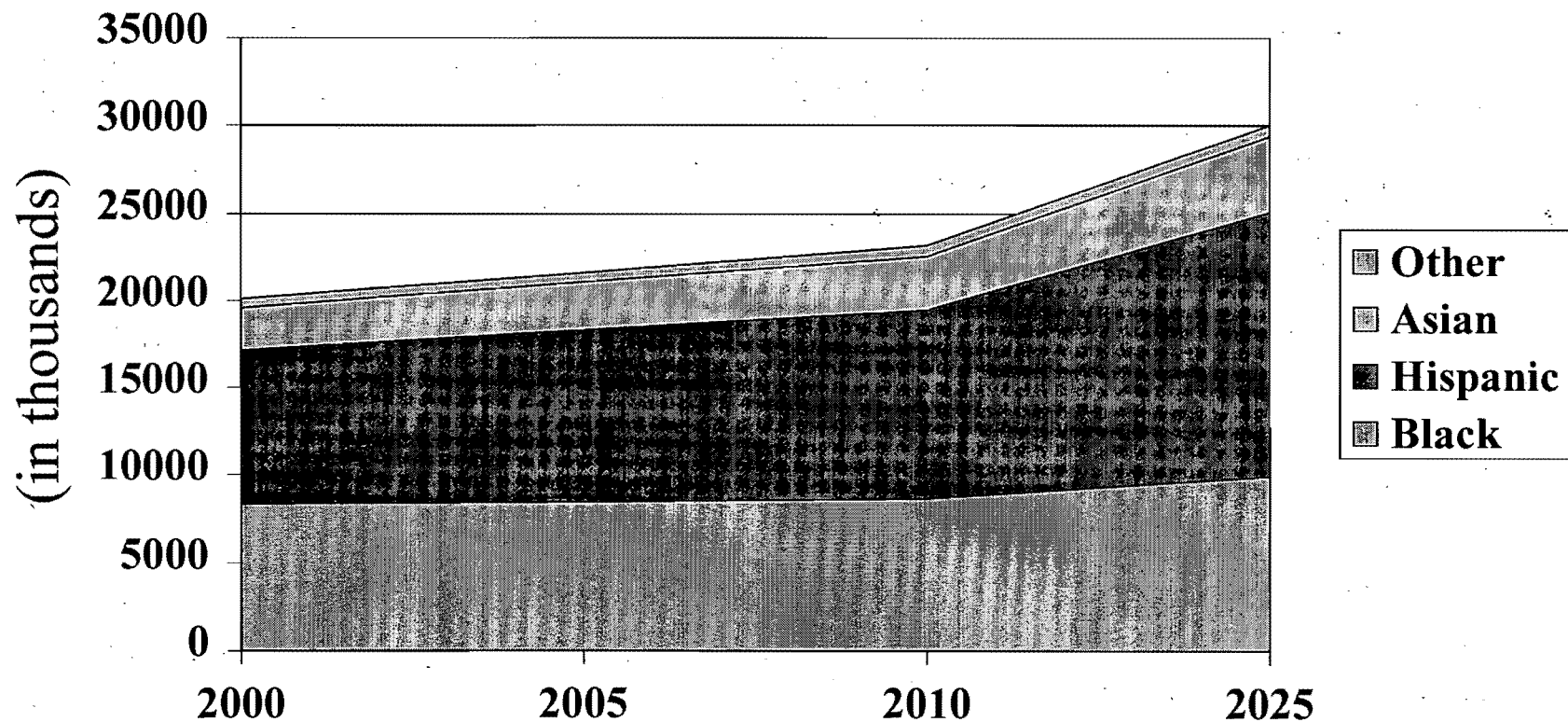


Source: CDC, National Immunization Survey, 1996

Anticipating the Future

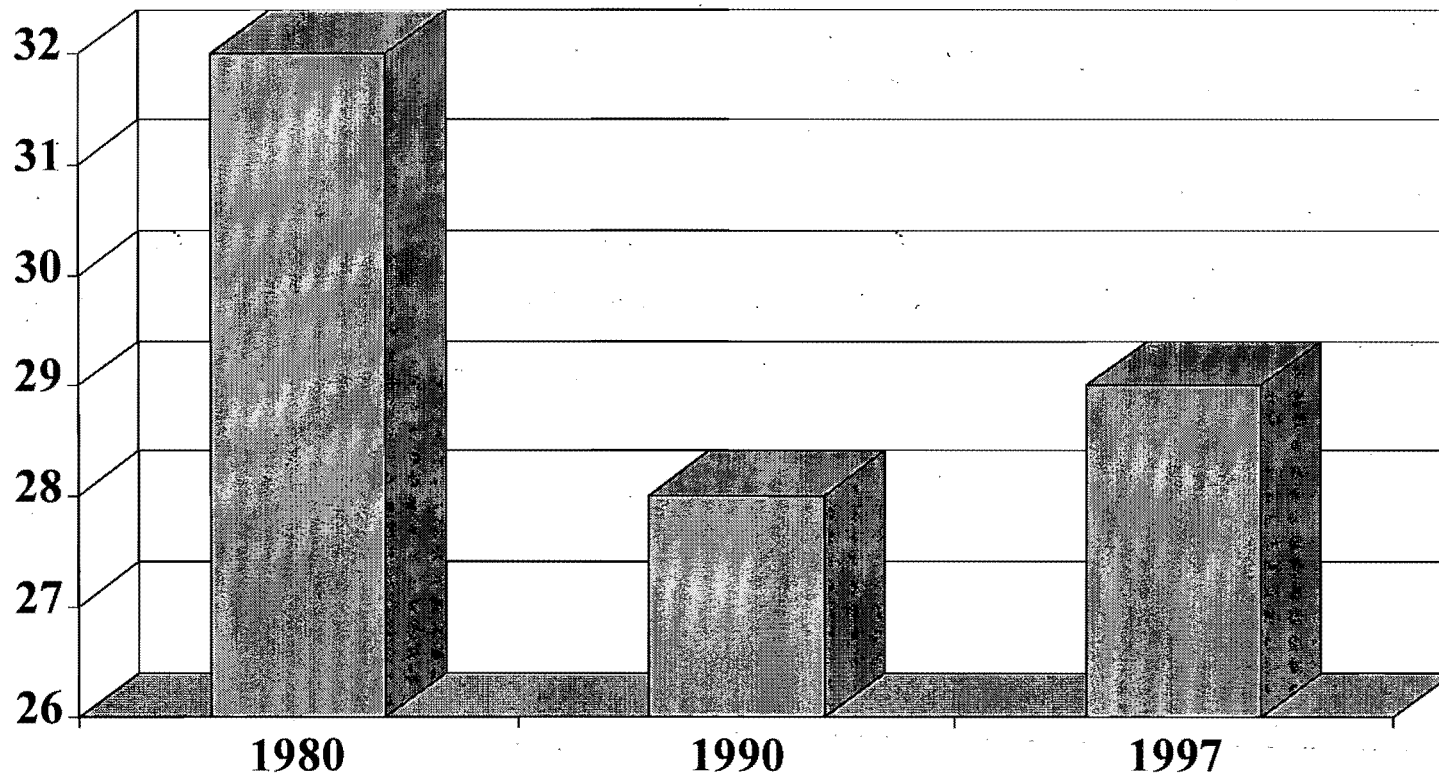
- Hispanic children 0-14 years of age are fast growing
 - increased from 4.7 million in 1970 (about the size of Minnesota today)
 - to 8.8 million in 1997 (about the size of Michigan today)
 - Hispanic children will number approximately 10.7 million in 2010 (about the size of Ohio)
 - and about 15.2 million in 2025 (larger than the size of Florida today)

Projections in Minority Children 2000 to 2025



Source: CPS, P25-1130

Percent of Hispanic Intermarriage, 1980 to 1997



Source: CPS, P20-509

**“Children: They are 28% of the
Population, but 100% of the Future”**