PREFACE

In 2002, the U.S. Census Bureau celebrates its 100th anniversary. Although a national population count had been conducted every 10 years since 1790, it was not until the early 1900s that the growing demand for information created a need for a permanent professional staff. As the country's appetite for information became more intense, the Census Bureau became increasingly responsible for collecting and releasing greater amounts of data — and the need for better ways to collect more timely and detailed information became apparent.

In the mid-1930s, the Census Bureau became a pioneer in the application of probability sampling to human populations. This innovation allowed the federal government to estimate the scope and breadth of unemployment during the Great Depression and to determine whether policy initiatives such as employment programs and Social Security were having the desired effect. In the early 1940s, the agency began conducting periodic surveys to meet the demand for up-to-date statistical measures on a variety of topics. Today's Census Bureau surveys touch on topics that the population census cannot even begin to address, such as computer use, voting behavior, and neighborhood crime.

The Population Profile of the United States: 2000 is an Internet publication containing a wide range of data on demographic, social, economic, and housing trends for the country as a whole. While emphasizing the last decade before the turn of the century, the report includes data collected throughout the 20th century and reflects the most recent information on each topic as of October 2001. The Population Profile serves as a portal leading the reader to the voluminous and more detailed reports that the Census Bureau is constantly producing.

Information from Census 2000 is rapidly becoming available. According to current plans, starting in 2004, the Census Bureau's new American Community Survey will be producing statistics every year for every state and for areas with populations of 65,000 or more. Right now, we are pleased to celebrate 100 years of service. The Census Bureau and its Demographic Directorate supply information that federal, state, and local governments need to govern, businesses need to stay in business, nonprofits need to serve their communities, and you need to make informed decisions. If you think the Census Bureau only provides population counts, think again. The Census Bureau can tell you more.

Nancy M. Gordon,
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Notes About This Report

The first issue of The *Population Profile of the United States* was published in 1974. Originally, updates were published every year, but soon the schedule was modified to every other year. The last published version of the *Population Profile* used 1999 data primarily and was issued in 2001. The *Population Profile of the United States: 2000 (Internet Release)* is the first Internet-only version of this U.S. Census Bureau product. It includes data from surveys conducted in 2000 and earlier, as well as some limited Census 2000 data.

The *Population Profile of the United States: 2000* is an attempt to provide the public with updated information in the years in which a print version is not issued. While a few chapters have not been updated, the report provides the most recent information on each topic as of October 2001. Some chapters have been expanded to include information that was not available in the last publication. For instance, the chapter on mobility now includes a sidebar on why people move. One completely new chapter on the demographics of men and women has been added. To see which chapters have been updated, expanded, or added, see the Contents.

The primary sources for this report are the Census Bureau's Decennial Census of Population and Housing, the Current Population Survey (CPS), the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP), and the American Housing Survey (AHS). Data for the United States include the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The different population universes for these surveys are noted in each chapter. Estimates using sample data from the CPS, SIPP, and the AHS are weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census adjusted for estimated net undercount. As such, these estimates are not consistent with population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program (which are not adjusted for estimated net census undercount), or the 2000 decennial census. See Appendix B for source and accuracy information.

All Current Population Reports and Current Housing Reports listed in this publication are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC 20402 or on the Census Bureau's Web site at *www.census.gov.*

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Appendix B.

SOURCE AND ACCURACY OF DATA

Chapter 1. AMERICA AT THE DAWN OF A NEW CENTURY:

An Introduction

Findings from the U.S. Census Bureau reveal the complexity of American life at the beginning of the 21st century.

Researchers scour thousands of official documents, media reports, books, and letters chronicling the key events and people of the last 100 years and looking for trends that will take this country into the next century. But where do they turn when they want to find the facts about the everyday lives of people living in the United States? Throughout most of the 20th century, the U.S. Census Bureau has been the source for information on things that matter — family, income, poverty, education, and more.

The Census Bureau uses censuses, surveys, and administrative records to get the numbers that policymakers and government officials must have to make informed decisions. Educators need to know if existing schools will be adequate to house the next generation of students. Human resource planners demand the facts on today's working-age adults. Healthcare providers want to know how they can best balance the competing requirements of young and old. Nonprofit organizations look to Census Bureau numbers to evaluate both their clients' needs and their sponsors' resources. Moreover, the facts that the Census Bureau collects are versatile. The same statistics that are of interest to educators are also of interest to toy manufacturers. The facts on working-age adults serve both employers and union leaders. The information on the well-being of the American public is a concern for everyone living in the United States.

The Population Profile of the United States: 2000 (Internet Release), which is available only on the Internet, is an update of *The Population Profile of the United States: 1999,* which was published in 2001. Using the new numbers from Census 2000 and recently available surveys,[1] it carries the reader into the 21st century. The wide variety of available information indicates that the population of the United States is both diverse and dynamic.

[1] Estimates from Census Bureau survey data are calculated using sample data, weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. As such, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

WHAT'S NEW in the *Population Profile of the United States: 2000*

- The 33 million people added to the U.S. population between 1990 and 2000 is the largest census-to-census increase ever. (See the chapter on population distribution and composition.)
- Between March 1999 and 2000, 1.7 million people moved into the United States from abroad. Two-thirds of these movers were foreign-born and not U.S. citizens. And most (1.2 million) moved into the South and West. (See the chapter on geographical mobility.)
- Almost one in every five people who moved within the United States wanted a new or better house or apartment. More than one in ten moved out of a rented home and into an owned home. (See the chapter on geographical mobility.)
- In 2000, only 11 percent of women ended their childbearing years with four or more children, compared with 36 percent of women in 1976. (See the chapter on fertility.)
- Families represented 81 percent of households in 1970, but only 69 percent of households in 2000. The decline in the proportion of married-couple families with children under age 18 was especially evident, falling from 40 percent of all households in 1970 to 24 percent in 2000. (See the chapter on families and living arrangements.)
- Eighty-eight percent of children living with two parents lived with both their biological mother and biological father in 1996. An additional 9 percent lived with a biological parent and a stepparent. Just over 2 percent of children in two-parent households lived with two adoptive parents or a combination of adoptive, biological, or stepparents. (See the chapter on the living arrangements of children.)

- Much of the growth in elementary and high school enrollment has been driven by the increase in births that took place between 1981 and 1994 as women born during the baby boom reached their peak childbearing ages. In 2000, 65 percent of students had a baby-boomer parent.[2] (See the chapter on school enrollment.)

- The educational attainment of young adults may be leveling off. The percentage of people aged 25 to 29 in 2000 who had completed high school was 88 percent, no different than it was in 1998 or 1999. (See the chapter on educational attainment.)

- Even small amounts of postsecondary education are associated with higher earnings. People who had "some college, but no degree" studied, on average, less than 1 year past high school. However, this additional education was enough to increase their average earnings by $340 per month. (See the chapter on educational attainment.)

- The majority of students (57 percent) had access to a computer both at home and at school in 2000. Twenty-three percent of children had computer access only at school, while 10 percent had access only at home. The remaining 10 percent of students had no access. (See the chapter on computer use.)

- Real median household income did not change significantly between 1999 and 2000 after experiencing 5 consecutive years of annual increases. (See the chapter on income.)

- Although children under age 18 were only 26 percent of the total population in 2000, they represented 37 percent of the poor. (See the chapter on poverty.)

- Among the native population in the United States, 12 percent were not covered by health insurance in 2000 at any time during the year. However, 16 percent of naturalized citizens and 41 percent of noncitizens were not covered. (See the chapter on health insurance coverage.)

[2] The term "baby-boomer parent" refers to native parents and does not include foreign-born parents.

- Thirty-nine percent of the foreign-born population entered the United States in 1990 or later and 28 percent in the 1980s. More than one in every three foreign-born people in the United States was a naturalized citizen. Among those who entered the country before 1970, eight out of ten were naturalized. (See the chapter on the foreign-born population.)

- Among children aged 6 to 14 in 1999, 6 percent had a physical, learning, or mental condition that affected their ability to do regular schoolwork. (See the chapter on people with disabilities.)

- Sixty-one percent of women aged 16 and older were working or looking for work in 2000, compared with 74 percent of men, according to the Current Population Survey. Earnings were lower for women than they were for men. The 1999 median earnings for women aged 15 and older who worked full time, year-round was $26,300, compared with $36,500 for their male counterparts.[3] (See the chapter on women and men.)

[3] Information on income was collected in the March 2001 Current Population Survey and reflects incomes in the previous calendar year.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- Read on to find out more about people living in the United States.

- Use the box at the end of each chapter to find easily accessible Internet sources, e-mail addresses, and telephone contacts for more information.

- Check Appendix A, "The Census Can Tell You More," for the names of important Census Bureau reports and how to obtain them. Also listed in this section are important contacts in your area: Regional Census Offices, State Data Centers, and Census Depository Libraries.

Chapter 2.

ALL ACROSS THE U.S.A.:

Population Distribution and Composition, 2000

During the 1990s, the population center of the United States shifted 12 miles south and 33 miles west, from a location near Steelville, Missouri, to a spot near Edgar Springs, Missouri.

Counting every person living in the United States is always a colossal undertaking. Census 2000 was the largest census in the history of the United States, counting 281 million people. In fact, the 33 million people added to the U.S. population between 1990 and 2000 is the largest census-to-census increase ever. New questions and procedures in Census 2000 provide unprecedented geographic[1] and racial detail. And new innovations in products and access modes will provide more data to more people faster than ever.

The decade of the 1990s was the only decade of the 20th century when every state gained population.

The growth rate during the 1990s (13 percent) was more than the rate in the 1980s (10 percent), but significantly less than the rate experienced during 1950s — when a baby boom contributed appreciably to the 18-percent gain.

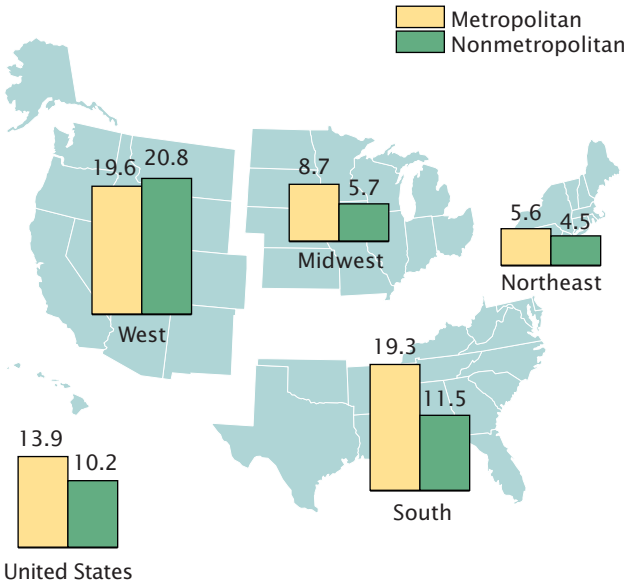
With an overall 20 percent growth rate, the West grew more rapidly than any other region. Nevada swelled 66 percent and Arizona gained 40 percent. California had the largest numerical gain of any state, adding 4.1 million people. Altogether, the West gained 10.4 million new residents.

The South was the second fastest growing region, increasing 17 percent. With a 26 percent gain, Georgia was the most rapidly growing state in this region. Texas and Florida had the largest numerical increases in the South, 3.8 million and 3.0 million, respectively. The total gain for the South (nearly 14.8 million) was the most of any region.

[1] The minimum population for Census Designated Places was dropped, generating more information on small areas than ever before.

Figure 2-1.

Percentage Change in Metropolitan and Nonmetropolitan Populations by Region: 1990 to 2000



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Census 2000 and 1990 census.

The population in the Midwest grew almost 8 percent, adding 4.7 million people. Minnesota was the Midwest's fastest growing state, increasing by more than 12 percent. A band of counties stretching across

Words That Count

- **Resident population** includes all people living in the United States.
- **The four statistical regions of the United States** are groups of states for which data are presented. They include the Northeast, the Midwest, the South, and the West.
- **Median age** is the age at which half the population is older and half is younger.

Table 2-1.

Population by Race and Hispanic Origin for the United States: 2000

Race and Hispanic or Latino	Number (in thousands)	Percent of total population
RACE		
Total Population	281,421	100.0
One race	274,595	97.6
White	211,460	75.1
Black or African American	34,658	12.3
American Indian and Alaska Native	2,475	0.9
Asian	10,242	3.6
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander	399	0.1
Some other race	15,359	5.5
Two or more races	6,826	2.4
HISPANIC OR LATINO		
Total population	281,421	100.0
Hispanic or Latino	35,305	12.5
Not Hispanic or Latino	246,116	87.5

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Census 2000.

the Great Plains from the Canadian border to the Mexican border lost population.

The increase in the Northeast was 6 percent or 2.8 million people. Within the region, New Hampshire was the fastest growing state, increasing 11 percent. A band of slow growth counties included much of the interior Northeast and Appalachia, extending from Maine through western Pennsylvania and spilling over into the southern states of West Virginia and Kentucky.

In general, metropolitan areas across the United States grew faster than nonmetropolitan areas, 14 percent and 10 percent, respectively. In the Northeast, the population in metropolitan areas increased 6 percent, while population in nonmetropolitan areas increased 5 percent. In the Midwest the metropolitan areas had a 9-percent gain, compared with a 6-percent gain in nonmetropolitan areas. The South saw a population increase of 19 percent in metropolitan areas, compared with an increase of only 12 percent in nonmetropolitan areas. However, the West did not follow the trend. While metropolitan areas in the West increased almost 20 percent, nonmetropolitan areas grew 21 percent.

For the first time ever, respondents to the census were allowed to indicate more than one race.

The overwhelming majority of respondents to Census 2000 (98 percent) reported only one race. The largest group (75 percent) reported White alone. Another 12 percent reported Black or African American alone. Just under 1 percent of the population indicated only American Indian and Alaska Native, and 4 percent indicated Asian only. Among those indicating only one race, the smallest race group was the population of Native Hawaiians and Other Pacific Islanders, accounting for only 0.1 percent of the total U.S. population. The remainder of the single-race respondents (5 percent) indicated that they were Some other race alone.

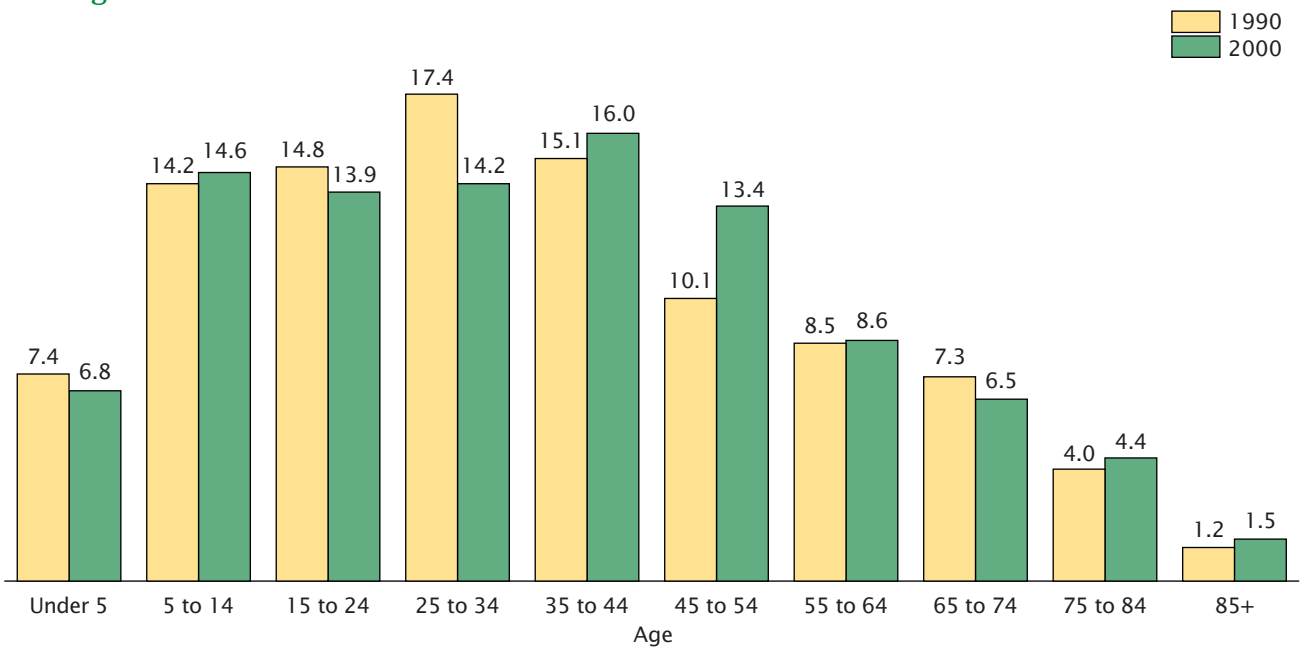
Just over 2 percent of the population indicated more than one race. The most common combination was "White ***and*** Some other race," accounting for 32 percent of all respondents in this category. This group was followed by "White ***and*** American Indian and Alaska Native" (16 percent), "White ***and*** Asian" (13 percent), and "White ***and*** Black or African American" (11 percent). Of all respondents reporting more than one race, 7 percent indicated three or more races.

The federal government considers race and Hispanic origin to be two separate and distinct concepts. For Census 2000, about 13 percent of the total U.S. population indicated that they were Hispanic or Latino. The racial distribution of this group contrasted sharply with the racial distribution of the population as a whole. Nearly half (48 percent) of Hispanics indicated that they were White alone. Another 42 percent indicated that they were Some other race alone. Less than 4 percent reported Black or African American alone, American Indian and Alaska Native alone, or Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander alone. Approximately 6 percent of all Hispanics reported two or more races. In fact nearly one-third of all respondents reporting more than one race were also Hispanic.

The U.S. population is growing older.

The median age of the U.S. population in 2000 was 35.3 — the highest it has ever been. In 1990, the median was 32.9. The rise reflects a 4-percent decline in

Figure 2-2.
U.S. Age Distribution in Percent: 1990 and 2000



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Census 2000 and 1990 census.

the number of people aged 18 to 34 and a 28-percent increase in the number aged 35 to 64. As the large generation of baby boomers[2] began passing their 45th birthday, the population aged 45 to 54 swelled 49 percent during the decade.

For the first time in the history of the census, the population aged 65 and older increased at a slower rate than the population as a whole. The percentage of people in this age group fell from 12.6 percent in 1990 to 12.4 percent in 2000. Relatively low birth rates during the late 1920s and early 1930s meant a relatively small number of people celebrated their 65th birthday in time for Census 2000.

[2] Baby boomers are generally defined as people born from 1946 to 1964.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, see the following Census 2000 Briefs, *Population Change and Distribution* by Marc J. Perry and Paul J. Mackun and *Overview of Race and Hispanic Origin* by Elizabeth M. Grieco and Rachel C. Cassidy.
- Look for detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (*www.census.gov*) and select "Census 2000."
- Contact the Statistical Information Staff of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2422 or e-mail *pop@census.gov*.

Chapter 3.

PEOPLE ON THE MOVE:

Geographical Mobility, 1999-2000

Migration is a basic component of population growth and decline.

People move into better housing and away from high-crime neighborhoods. Some seek greater economic opportunity and others want to start a whole new life. The U.S. Census Bureau studies the patterns of relocation in hopes of finding clues about future population growth and decline.

Forty-three million people or 16 percent of the population aged 1 and older living in the United States moved between March 1999 and March 2000.

Recent moving rates have changed only moderately from one year to the next, but there has been an overall drop of about 4 percentage points since the 1950s and 1960s, according to the Current Population Survey (CPS).[1]

Fifty-six percent of the 43 million people who moved between March 1999 and March 2000 moved from one residence to a different residence in that same county. The next largest share of movers (20 percent) stayed within a state, but moved to a different county. An additional 19 percent moved between states and 4 percent moved into the United States from abroad.

Young adults, with their relatively higher rates of marriage, childbirth, and job changes, were more likely to move than older adults. Between March 1999 and March 2000, one-third of 20- to- 29-year-olds moved, a little more than twice the rate for all movers. Among those aged 65 to 84, only 4 percent relocated.

Marital status also had some bearing on moving rates. Singles and divorced people were more likely to move than married people. However, people who were widowed were the least likely to move.

[1] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

Words That Count

- **Movers** are all people aged 1 and older who were living in a different residence at the time of the March Current Population Survey than they were 1 year earlier.

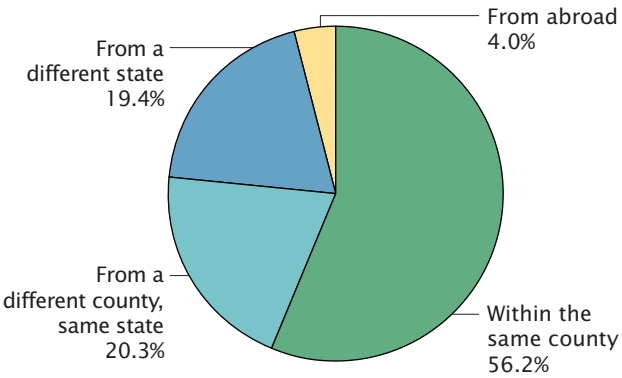
Differences in age distribution may account for some of the differences in moving rates among the racial and ethnic groups. White non-Hispanics, the oldest group, had the lowest moving rate, 14 percent. The rate for Blacks was 19 percent, and the rate for both Asians and Pacific Islanders and Hispanics[2] was 20 percent. However, standardized overall moving rates indicate that even if the Hispanic population had the same age distribution as White non-Hispanics, the moving rate would still have been higher for Hispanics.

Renters have vastly higher mobility rates than homeowners. Between 1999 and 2000, almost 1 in

[2] Hispanics may be of any race.

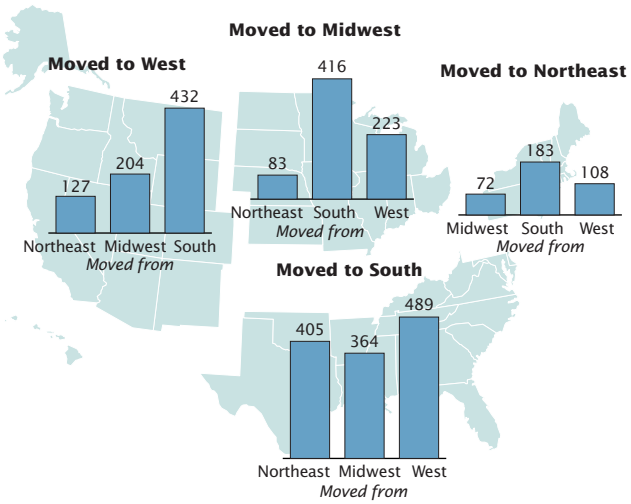
Figure 3-1.
Movers by Type of Move: 1999 to 2000
(Percent distribution of movers aged 1 and older)

Total movers = 43.3 million



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

Figure 3-2.
Region-to-Region Migration: March 1999 to 2000
(Numbers in thousands)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

every 3 people living in a rental unit made a move, compared with 1 in every 11 people living in an owner-occupied dwelling. Housing tenure is closely related to age, race, Hispanic origin, and income — other factors that influence moving rates.

People living in lower income households were more likely to move than those living in higher-income households. Twenty-one percent of people living in households with incomes of less than $25,000 moved, compared with only 12 percent of those living in households with incomes of $100,000 or more.

Even though moving rates varied by educational attainment, these differences were small. While 12 percent of people with only a high school diploma moved, 15 percent of those with a bachelor's degree did. However, movers with a high school diploma were much less likely than those with a bachelor's degree to move outside their 1999 county of residence, 34 percent compared with 47 percent.

Migrants swell the population of some areas while diminishing the population of others.

Region-to-region migration favored the South and drained the Northeast. Throughout the 1990s, more people moved out of the Northeast than into it. Between March 1999 and March 2000, the Northeast experienced a net loss due to migration of 252,000 people. Among the remaining regions, only the South had a significant net gain, with 227,000 more people moving in than moving out.

Between March 1999 and 2000, 1.7 million people moved into the United States from abroad. Two-thirds of these movers were foreign-born and not U.S. citizens. And most (1.2 million) moved into the South and West. Although the CPS does not collect data on the number of people who move away from the United States, it is possible to estimate net international migration using data from other sources. These estimates indicate that 852,000 more people came into the United States than left between July 1, 1998, and July 1, 1999, the latest year for which these estimates are available.

When estimates of net international migration are applied to regional migration, they indicate that all regions except the Northeast showed significant population gains from migration. Although the Northeast still experienced population loss, this loss was mitigated by net international migration. And even though the West did not experience a significant population gain from domestic migration, it did grow when international migrants are taken into account.

SPOTLIGHT ON WHY PEOPLE MOVE

Reasons for moving differ for people making a long haul and those just moving down the block.

Between 1999 and 2000, the majority of movers (52 percent) moved for housing-related reasons. Almost one in every five moved into a new or better house or apartment. More than one in ten moved out of a rented home and into a home of their own. And more than one in twenty wanted cheaper housing.

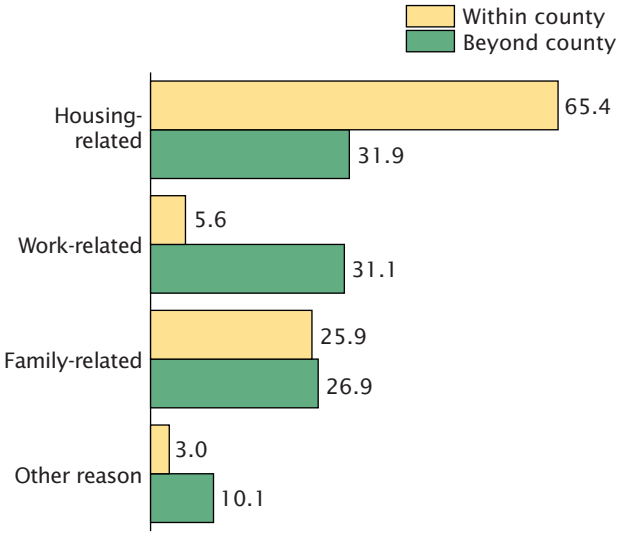
More than one in four movers (26 percent) made the change for family-related reasons. Establishing a new household (7 percent) and a change in marital status (6 percent) were the primary motivators for this type of move. Work-related reasons were given by about 16 percent of movers. Ten percent had a new job or a job transfer and about 4 percent expected an easier commute to work from their new location.

However, work-related reasons were more important for long-distance movers than those moving within a

Figure 3-3.

Reasons for Moving by Type of Move: March 1999 - 2000

(Percent distribution of movers within the United States, aged 1 and older)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

county. While only 6 percent of those who moved within a county said they moved for a work-related reason, 31 percent of those who went further gave this response. Almost two-thirds of people who moved within a county relocated for housing-related reasons while less than one-third of people who went beyond the county limits did.

Education is an important factor in the decision to move.

The greater a householder's education, the more likely that the move was made for work-related reasons. In 2000, only 14 percent of high school graduates moved for work-related reasons, compared with 25 percent of those with a bachelor's degree and 28 percent of those with a master's degree or higher. Most of this difference can be attributed to people relocating for a new job or job transfer.

Householders with higher educational attainment were less likely than others to move for family-related reasons. Only 22 percent of those with a bachelor's degree moved for family-related reasons, compared with 31 percent of those with only a high school diploma. Regardless of educational attainment, the largest share of people said they moved for housing-related reasons, including 47 percent of those holding a bachelor's degree and 49 percent of those with only a high school diploma.[3]

Classical economic theory suggests that geographical mobility is a mechanism to redistribute people and wealth.[4] Workers move from areas where jobs are dwindling to areas where workers are needed. Human capital economists see longer distance moves as economic investments to achieve higher wages.[5] These theories imply that the poor and unemployed should be particularly drawn to areas of economic opportunity — even though they may face barriers, such as moving costs. However, the 2000 Current Population Survey found that unemployed and poor respondents were somewhat less likely than employed and higher income respondents to make a move for a work-related reason. Fourteen percent of unemployed movers and 17 percent of employed movers gave a work-related reason for relocating, as did 12 percent of the poor movers and 17 percent of nonpoor movers. These findings suggest that work-related reasons for moving may not be as strong as economic theory suggests or that barriers, such as moving costs, are higher for the unemployed than the employed.

[3] The share of people moving for housing-related reasons is not statistically different for those holding bachelor's degrees and those holding a high school diploma.

[4] Michael Greenwood. 1986. "Human Migration: Theory, Models, and Empirical Studies," *Journal of Regional Science*, 25:521-44.

[5] Kathryn L. Shaw. 1991. "The Influence of Human Capital Investment on Migration and Industry Change," *Journal of Regional Science*, 31: 397-416.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Reports: *Geographical Mobility: March 1999 to March 2000* and *Why People Move: Exploring the March 2000 Current Population Survey,* both by Jason Schachter.
- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov*). Click on "G" and select "Geographic Mobility."
- Contact the Journey to Work and Migration Statistics Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2454 or e-mail *pop@census.gov.*
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 4.

MOTHERHOOD:

The Fertility of American Women, 2000

Childbearing patterns at the beginning of the 21st century sharply contrast with the wide swings of the preceding decades.

Hospitals, care providers, insurance companies, and baby food manufacturers all have a healthy interest in the number of newborns. The U.S. Census Bureau uses information on changing childbearing patterns to project the number of people who will be living in the United States in the future. Fertility differences among various population groups, in combination with immigration patterns, set nationwide population trends in motion.

A woman in the early 1900s could expect to give birth to about four children during her childbearing years[1] while a woman living during the Great Depression could expect to have only two. After World War II, the number of births per woman climbed to 3.7 in 1957, but fell to 1.8 by the mid-1970s.[2] With minor fluctuations, the rate has hovered around 2 births per woman over the last 20 years — a rate slightly below the long-term replacement level.

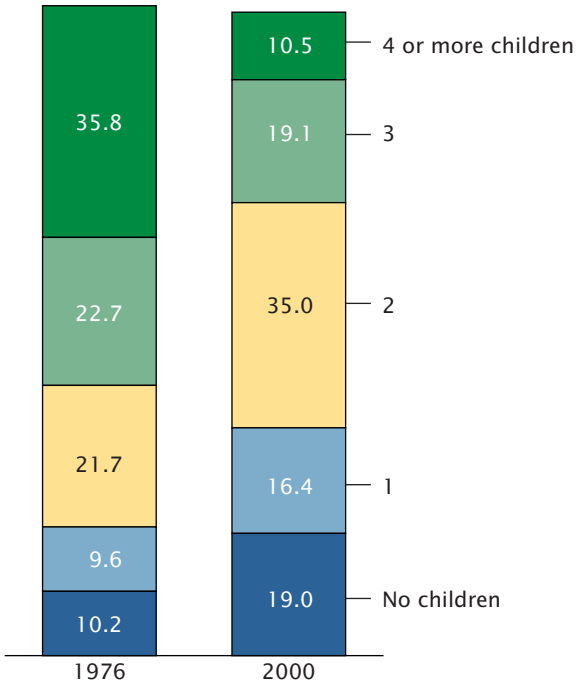
Women typically have fewer children today than in previous generations, according to the Current Population Survey (CPS).[3] In 2000, only about 11 percent of women ended their childbearing years with four or more children, compared with 36 percent of women in 1976. New mothers in 2000 were also more likely than new mothers in 1976 to work outside the home.

Words That Count

- **Fertility rate,** in this report, is defined as the number of women who reported having a child in a 12-month period ending in June 2000 per 1000 women aged 15 to 44. Nearly all women end their childbearing by age 45.
- **Replacement level fertility** is the number of births per woman required to maintain the population in the long term — approximately 2.1 births per woman.
- **Children ever born** is the number of children a woman has ever had, excluding stillbirths.

Figure 4-1.
Women Aged 40 to 44 by Number of Children Ever Born: 1976 and 2000

(Percent distribution)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Surveys, June 1976 and June 2000.

[1] Childbearing years are generally considered to be ages 15 to 44.
[2] These childbearing rates are total fertility rates, which are hypothetical estimates of lifetime childbearing based on age-specific birth rates for a calendar year.

[3] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

In 2000, 55 percent of mothers with infants (children less than 12 months old) were working or looking for work, almost twice the share in the labor market in 1976. However, this represents a decline since 1998 when the labor force participation rate was almost 59 percent.

In June 2000, 61 million women aged 15 to 44 lived in the United States. During the preceding 12 months, 3.9 million of these women had a birth, according to the CPS. Forty-one percent of these births were first births. The fertility rate for women aged 15 to 44 in the United States was 65 births per 1,000 women.

Childbearing patterns differ greatly among racial and ethnic groups.

With an average of 2.5 births by age 40 to 44, Hispanics were the only group reaching the end of their childbearing years with more births than the number required for natural replacement. Black women this age had fertility levels that were not significantly different from the replacement level (2.1 births). White non-Hispanic women were significantly below the replacement level, averaging only 1.8 births.

About 1.2 million women who had a birth in the 12 months preceding the June 2000 CPS were not married.

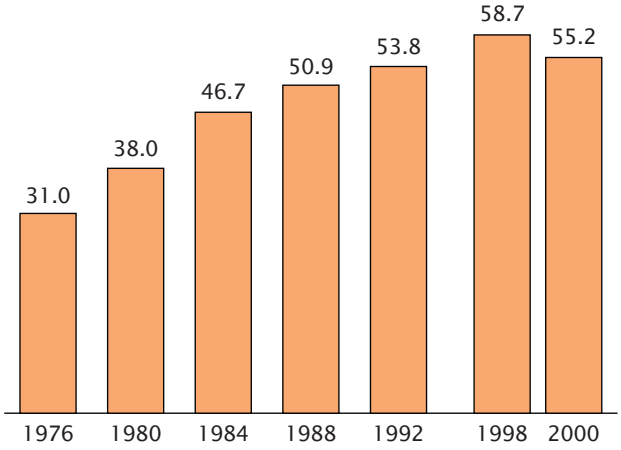
Thirty-one percent of births during the period occurred to an unmarried mother.[4] Out-of-wedlock childbearing occurred predominantly among younger women. Eight out of every ten teenagers giving birth were unmarried. Four in ten births to women in their early twenties were out of wedlock, compared with one in eight to women aged 30 and older.

The educational level of the mother was a significant factor in out-of-wedlock childbearing. During the 12 months prior to the 2000 survey, 54 percent of births to women who had not graduated from high school were out of wedlock. In contrast, 32 percent of the births to mothers with some college education and only 4 percent of the births to mothers with at least a bachelor's degree were out of wedlock.

[4] Unmarried mothers include women who were never married or are divorced or widowed.

Figure 4-2.
Labor Force Participation Rates for Women Who Had a Child in the Last Year: Selected Years, June 1976 to June 2000

(Percent)



Note: After 1990, the numbers are based on women aged 15 to 44.
Before 1990, the numbers are based on women aged 18 to 44.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, June 1976 to June 2000.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *Fertility of American Women: June 2000* by Amara Bachu and Martin O'Connell.
- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (*www.census.gov*). Click on "F" and select "Fertility of American Women Data."
- Contact the Fertility and Family Statistics Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2416 or e-mail *pop@census.gov*.
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 5.

LIVING TOGETHER, LIVING ALONE:

Families and Living Arrangements, 2000

The great variety of living arrangements that adults choose makes it no longer possible to point to the "typical" American household.

Many businesses are concerned about living arrangements because household composition influences purchasing behavior and service delivery. State and local governments pay attention to households when making decisions about everything from traffic patterns to neighborhood watch programs.

A substantial share of adults live alone, but the majority live with their spouses. Some live with grandparents, parents, aunts, uncles, sisters, brothers, and other relatives, but some live with people who are not related to them by blood or marriage. However, living arrangements take on even greater significance when children are involved. For instance, the definition of poverty is based on income thresholds that vary by size of family and number of children.

Words That Count

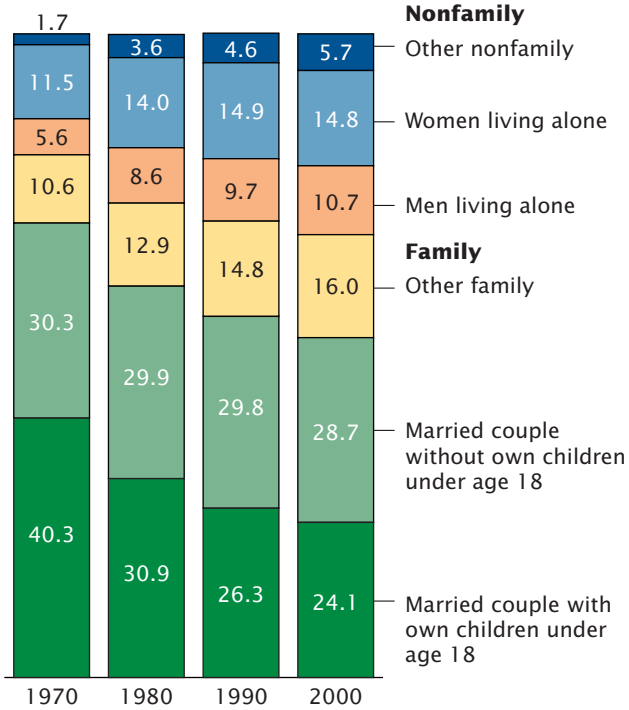
- A **household** consists of all the people who occupy a housing unit, regardless of their relationship. A family household has at least two members related by birth, marriage, or adoption, one of whom is related to the householder. A **nonfamily household** can either be a person living alone or a householder who shares the home with nonrelatives only; for example, boarders or roommates.
- **Householder** refers to the person (or one of the people) in whose name a housing unit is owned, rented, or maintained. If the house is owned or rented jointly by a married couple, the householder may be either the husband or the wife.
- **Marital status** includes the following categories: never married, married, separated, widowed, and divorced. For the purpose of this report, the term "unmarried" includes never-married, widowed, and divorced.

Families dominate American households, but less so today than they did in 1970.

Families represented 81 percent of households in 1970, but only 69 percent of America's 105 million households in 2000, according to the 2000 Current

Figure 5-1.
Households by Type: 1970 to 2000

(Percent distribution)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March: 1970 to 2000.

Population Survey.[1] The decline in married-couple families with children has been especially evident, falling from 40 percent of all households in 1970 to 24 percent in 2000. At the same time, the share of married couples without children remained relatively stable, accounting for 30 percent of all households in 1970 and 29 percent in 2000. However, the percentage of family households with no spouse present grew significantly, rising from 11 percent to 16 percent.

People living alone swelled from only 17 percent of all households in 1970 to 26 percent in 2000. Women living alone represented 67 percent of these households in 1970, but only 58 percent in 2000. Other nonfamily households, people who live with nonrelatives only, climbed from just 2 percent to nearly 6 percent of all households.

Cohabitating couples, people who lived with unmarried partners, represented almost 4 percent of all households in 2000.[2] However, this type of household may be classified as a family or a nonfamily household, depending on whether or not someone in the household is related to the householder. Two-fifths of unmarried-couple households included children under 18 years of age.

Households have decreased in size. Between 1970 and 2000, the share of households with five or more people dropped from 21 percent to 10 percent of all households, while those with only one or two members grew from 46 percent to 59 percent. In 2000, the average number of people per household was 2.62, compared with 3.14 in 1970.

The median age at first marriage[3] is rising for both men and women.

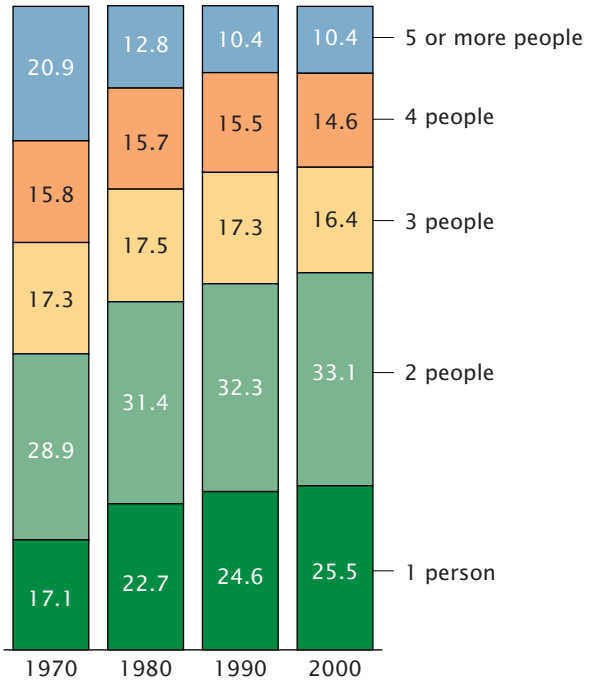
Changes in fertility, marriage, and divorce have all contributed to declines in the size of the American household. Between 1970 and 2000, both the proportion of births to unmarried women and the share of women who remain childless rose. Delayed marriage and increased divorce contributed to smaller household size. Better health status could increase the number of married couples, if both men and women lived longer.

One reason that nonfamily households have increased is postponement in marriage. In 1970, the median age at first marriage was 21 for women and 23 for men. By 2000, the median had risen to 25 for women and 27 for men. Delayed marriage has led to substantial increases in the percentage of young men and women who had never married.

The proportion of never-married women aged 20 to 24 doubled between 1970 and 2000, increasing from 36 percent to 73 percent. Among men this age, the share rose from 55 percent to 84 percent. The share of women aged 30 to 34 who were never married tripled, growing from just 6 percent to 22 percent. And the share of men this age who never married grew

Figure 5-2.
Households by Size: 1970 to 2000

(Percent distribution)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March: 1970 to 2000.

[1] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program or the 2000 decennial census.

[2] This number may underrepresent the true number of cohabitating couples, because only householders and their partners are tabulated, not all unmarried couples within the household. Also, respondents may be reluctant to classify themselves as such in a personal interview situation.

[3] Median age at first marriage in this report is calculated indirectly by estimating the proportion of young people who will marry during their lifetime, calculating one-half of this proportion, and determining the age (at the time of the survey) by interpolation of people at this half-way mark. It does not represent the actual median age of the population who married during the year.

from 9 percent to 30 percent. However, the vast majority of men and women do marry. By age 35, about 74 percent of men and women had been married. And by 65, 95 percent had been.

Differences in marriage and divorce patterns by age and sex translate into very different living arrangements. In 2000, 56 percent of men aged 18 to 24 lived at home with one or both parents. Although women typically marry at younger ages, a sizable proportion of women this age (43 percent) also lived at home with at least one parent. However, marriage is the modal type of living arrangement for people aged 25 to 34. In 2000, 50 percent of men and 57 percent of women this age were married and living with their spouse.

Interesting differences in living arrangements also occur among older adults. Among people aged 75 and older in 2000, men are more likely to live with a spouse than women, 67 percent compared with 29 percent. Forty-nine percent of women in this age group were living alone, while only 21 percent of men were.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *America's Families and Living Arrangements: 2000* by Jason Fields.

- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov).* Click on "H" and select "Households" or "M" and select "Marital status."

- Contact the Fertility and Family Statistics Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2465 or e-mail *pop@census.gov*.

- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 6.

FROM BIRTH TO SEVENTEEN:

The Living Arrangements of Children, 2000

Children live in a variety of family arrangements as a consequence of the marriage, divorce, and remarriage of their parents.

Where children live and grow up and the conditions that contribute to their well-being are all indicators monitored by the Census Bureau. Health care professionals, school planners, and childcare providers look to these numbers to decide if new facilities or services are needed. Census information on the living arrangements of children helps researchers understand the social implications of the different types of family situations that children experience while growing up.

The majority of the 72 million children who live in the United States live with two parents.

In 1980, 77 percent of all children under age 18 lived with two parents.[1] However, this share fell to 73 percent in 1990 and to 69 percent by 2000, according to the Current Population Survey (CPS).[2] Over the 20-year period, the share of children living with only their mother rose from 18 percent to 22 percent, and the share living with only their father grew from less than 2 percent to 4 percent. The remaining 4 percent of children lived with other relatives or nonrelatives.

In the early 1990s, researchers, policy makers, and the media began to notice an increase in the number of children living in their grandparent's household. By 2000, the CPS found 4 million children — about 5 percent of all children — living in the home of a grandparent. Only 14 percent of children who lived in a grandparent's home had both a mother and a father living with them. The greatest share, 45 percent, lived with a mother, but no father. Another 6 percent lived with a father, but no mother.[3] The remaining 35 percent of children who lived with a grandparent did not have a parent in the home.

[1] Both parents may or may not be biological parents.

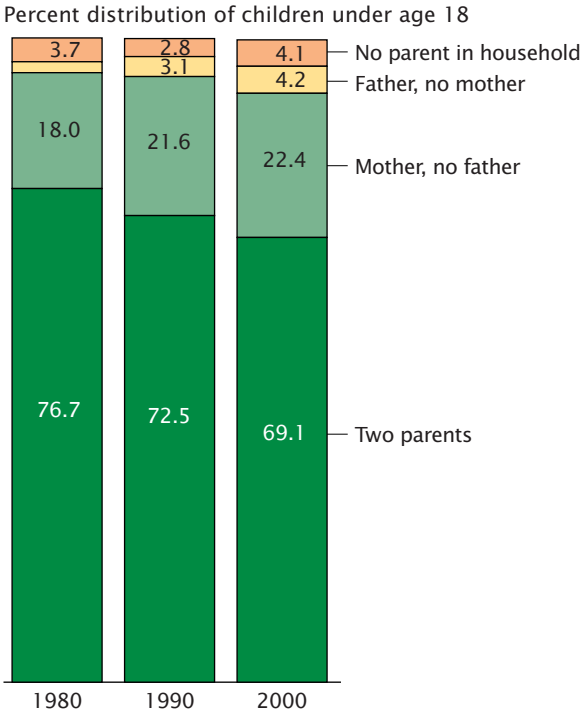
[2] This chapter includes estimates that are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey, weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their families on post. As such, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

[3] The percent of children who live in a grandparent's household with a father only is not significantly different than the percent of children who live in a grandparent's household.

Words That Count

- **Children** are all people under age 18, excluding those who maintain households, families, or subfamilies as a householder or spouse.
- **Own children** in a family are sons and daughters, including stepchildren and adopted children, of the householder. For each type of family unit identified in the Current Population Survey, the count of "own children under 18 years old" is limited to never-married children.
- **Related children** in a family include own children and all other children under 18 years old in the household who are related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption, such as grandchildren.
- **Cohabiting parent-child families** are those in which the child's parent is living with at least one nonrelated adult of the opposite sex. This additional adult may or may not be the biological parent of the child.
- **Blended families** are formed when remarriages occur and when children living in a household share one or no parents. The presence of a stepparent, stepsibling, or half-sibling designates a family as blended.
- **A extended household** is a household where a child lives with at least one parent and someone other than their parents or siblings, either a relative or nonrelative.

Figure 6-1.
Living Arrangements of Children Under Age 18: 1980, 1990, and 2000



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Surveys, March 1980, 1990, and 2000.

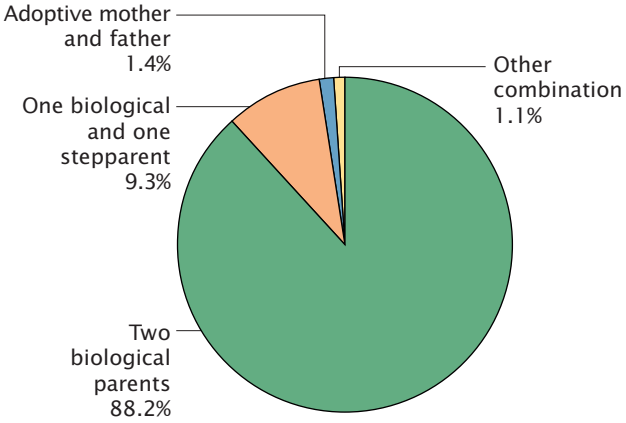
SPOTLIGHT ON CHILD WELL-BEING

Blended and extended families, half siblings and stepsiblings, and cohabiting parents are all part of the vocabulary of children's living arrangements.

- **Eighty-eight percent of children living with two parents lived with both their biological mother and biological father in 1996, according to the Survey of Income and Program Participation.**[4] An additional 9 percent lived with a biological parent and a stepparent, usually a biological mother and a stepfather. Just over 2 percent of children in two-parent households lived with two adoptive parents or a combination of adoptive, biological, or stepparents.

[4] This sidebar includes estimates that are calculated using sample data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation, weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the SIPP is the civilian noninstitutional population. As such, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

Figure 6-2.
Children Living With Two Parents by Type of Parent: 1996



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 Panel of the Survey of Income and Program Participation.

- **The rapid increase in cohabiting among adults over the past several decades**[5] **has led to significant proportions of children living with parents who are cohabiting with partners.** In 1996, about 5 percent of all children lived with an unmarried parent and their parent's partner.

- **Blended families are typically formed when remarriages occur and when stepparents enter the household accompanied by their children from previous marriages.** They may also form when a remarried parent has a child with the new spouse, producing a new half-bother or sister. In 1996, 17 percent of all children lived in blended families.

- **Seventy-nine percent of children lived with at least one sibling.** While 39 percent lived with one sibling, 34 percent lived with two or three siblings. Regardless of the household total, 11 percent of children lived with a half-sibling and 3 percent lived with a stepsibling.

- **Extended households are those where a child lives with at least one parent and someone other than their parents or siblings.** The majority of extended households are formed by the presence of

[5] Lynne M. Casper, Phillip N. Cohen, and Tavia Simmons, *How Does POSSLQ Measure Up?: Historical Estimates of Cohabitation*, Working Paper Series No. 36. Washington, DC, U.S. Census Bureau, 1999.

an additional relative. In 1996, 14 percent of all children lived in extended family households.

Living arrangements, economic and social environments, and types of neighborhoods contribute to child well-being and future development.

- **Children in two-parent families fare better developmentally than children in single-parent families.** Children with married parents are read to more frequently than children with separated, divorced, widowed, or never married parents, according to the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP). They are also more likely than other children to participate in sports, clubs, and lessons.

- **Diminished contact with the noncustodial parent can result in a loss of emotional support and supervision from adults.** Children in single-parent families generally have a lower economic standard of living and more frequently participate in government assistance programs than do children from two-parent families. Studies indicate all of these circumstances have a cumulative effect on the way children grow up and how prepared they are for young adulthood.

- **Neighborhood safety concerns, trust in neighbors to look out for each other, and the presence of negative influences in their children's environment were just a few of the topics explored in the 1993 panel of the SIPP.** Responses to questions on neighborhood trust and safety were combined into an index where a score of one indicated the worst neighborhood situation and a score of ten indicated the best neighborhood situation. Parents gave their neighborhoods an average rating of 6.6, indicating children were living in neighborhoods that were not ideal, but were far from unsatisfactory. However, the neighborhood index was higher for children living with two working parents (7.1) than for children in other types of households. Among single parents, the neighborhood score was 6.1 when the parent was employed and 5.1 when the parent was unemployed.

- **Being cared for by someone other than a family member is an increasingly common experience in a child's preschool years, according to the SIPP.** In 1993, 53 percent of all children under age 12 had been cared for regularly by someone other than immediate family members. Among children less than 3 years old, 46 percent had been in regular child care. On average, children less than 3 years old began their first child care experience at 6 months old and spent 30 hours each week in care.

- **Government assistance[6] does not appear to be a contributing factor in whether a child has been in a regular child care arrangement, according to the SIPP.** In 1993, the share of poor children aged 3 to 5 who were in child care was about the same whether or not they received government assistance – 47 percent and 49 percent, respectively. For children in families with incomes of 100 percent to 199 percent of the poverty threshold, 60 percent of those in families using assistance were in child care, compared with 56 percent of those in families who did not receive assistance.

In Spring 1998, 14 million parents had custody of 23 million children under 21 years of age[7] whose other parent lived somewhere else, according to the Current Population Survey (CPS).

- **More custodial parents worked and participation in public programs declined.** Between 1993 and 1997, the CPS found that the proportion of custodial parents employed in full-time, year-round jobs increased from 46 percent to 51 percent. At the same time the proportion participating in at least one public assistance program declined from 41 percent to 34 percent.

- **Between 1993 and 1997, poverty rates, although still quite high, declined for custodial parents.** While the 1997 poverty rate for all families was about 16 percent, the rate for custodial mothers (32 percent) was nearly three times higher than it was for custodial fathers (11 percent), according to the CPS.

- **Fifty-six percent of custodial parents had child support agreements, according to the 1998 CPS**. Most of these agreements were considered legal and were established by a court or

[6] For a discussion on children in poverty and government assistance programs, see the chapter on poverty.

[7] Because child support is frequently ordered until a child is 21 years old or completes college, this report specifically includes "own children" under 21 rather than the usual definition used by the Census Bureau of children under 18 years of age.

other government entity. However, 4 percent of custodial parents had nonlegal informal agreements or understandings. Custodial mothers were more likely than custodial fathers to be awarded child support, 59 percent compared with 38 percent.

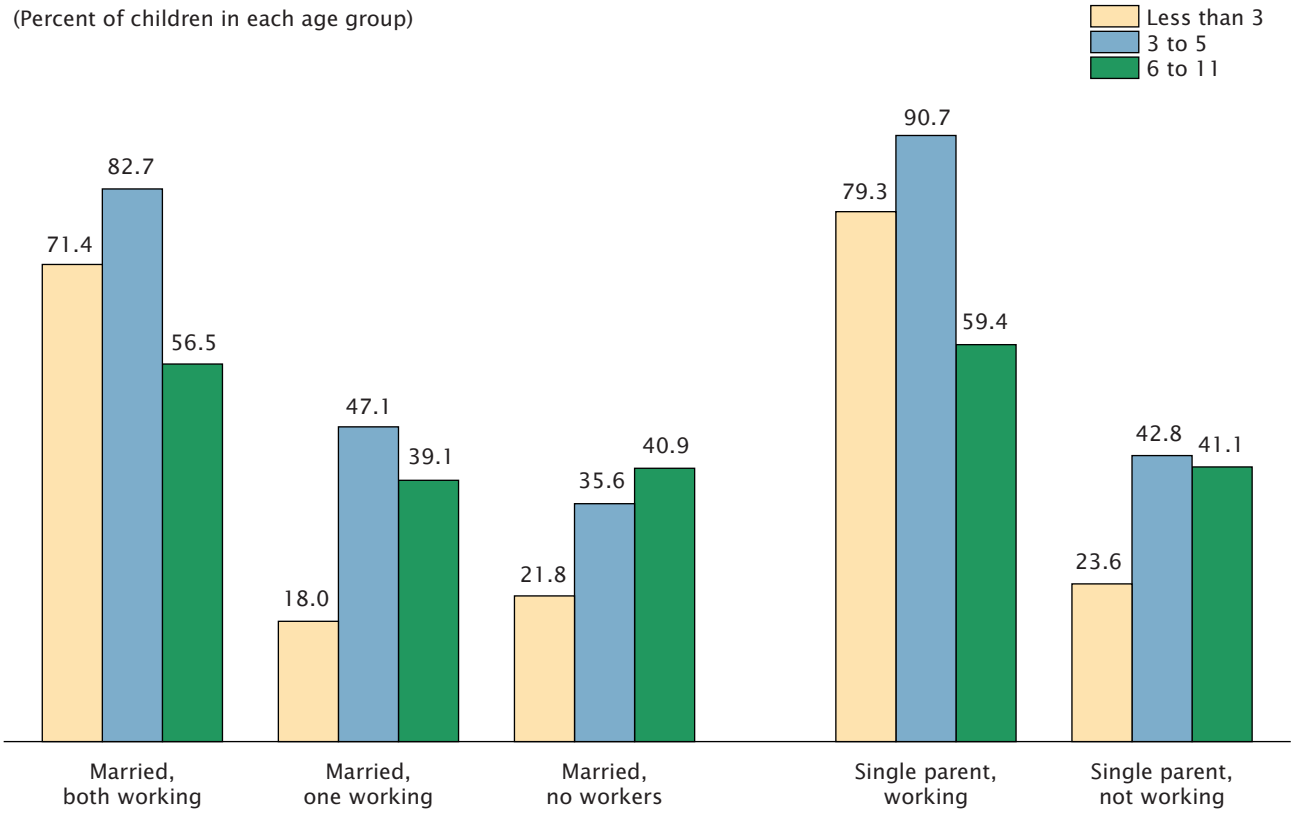
- **In 1997, more custodial parents were receiving the full payments and fewer received partial payments, according to the CPS.** Of the 7.9 million parents with child support agreements or awards, about 7.0 million were due payments in 1997. Of these, about two-thirds reported receiving either part or full payment, statistically unchanged from 1993. However, the proportion of custodial parents receiving all payments they were due increased from 35 percent to 41 percent, while those receiving partial payments fell from 35 percent to 27 percent. The average amount of support received by custodial mothers who received any payment in 1997 was $3,700, not statistically different from the amount received by custodial fathers — $3,300.

- **Child support compliance was highly influenced by joint custody and visitation.** Among the 7 million custodial parents due child support in 1997, the CPS found most (84 percent) had arrangements with

Figure 6-3.

Children Under Age 12 Who Have Ever Been in Child Care by Age of Child, and Parents' Marital and Employment Status: 1994

(Percent of children in each age group)



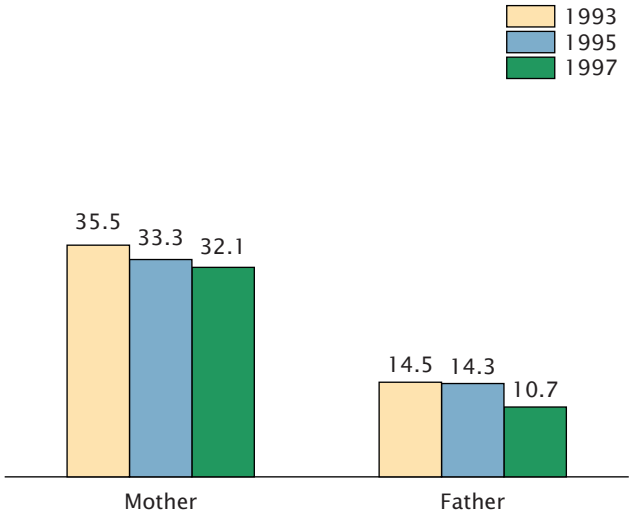
Note: Employment status is for the month before the survey.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Wave 9 (October 1994 - January 1995) of the 1992 Panel of the the Survey of Income and Program Participation and Wave 6 (October 1994-January 1995) of the 1993 Panel of the Survey of Income and Program Participation.

the nonresident parents for joint custody or visitation privileges with their children. Although about 73 percent of these parents received at least some of their child support payments, only 36 percent without joint custody or visitation arrangements received any payment.

Figure 6-4.

Poverty Status of Custodial Mothers and Fathers: 1993, 1995, and 1997

(Percent of custodial parents in poverty)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, April 1994, 1996, and 1998 Current Population Surveys.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau reports: *A Child's Day: Home, School, and Play (Selected Indicators of Child Well-Being): 1994* by Jason M. Fields, Kristen Smith, Loretta E. Bass, and Terry Lugaila; *Who's Minding the Kids? Child Care: Fall 1995* by Kristen Smith; *Living Arrangements of Children: 1996* by Jason Fields; and *Child Support for Custodial Mothers and Fathers: 1997* by Timothy Grall.

- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (*www.census.gov*). Click on "M" and select "Marital Status and Living Arrangements," "H" and select "Households," or "C" and select "Child Care" or "Child Support."

- Contact the Fertility and Family Statistics Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2465 or e-mail pop@census.gov.

- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 7. THE PLACES PEOPLE LIVE: Housing, 1999

Knowing about the quality of housing in the United States is essential to understanding the quality of life in this country.

The structures people live in are as diverse as their occupants are. Since 1973, the Census Bureau has used the American Housing Survey (AHS)[1] to gather information on occupancy, housing costs, fuel usage, water quality, repairs and improvements, and many other housing related topics. This information helps determine the number of people who live in inadequate housing and how many may need housing assistance.

More than three out of every four housing units in the United States were located in metropolitan areas in 1999.

Almost half (46 percent) of the country's 115 million total housing units were located in the suburban parts of metropolitan areas, according to the 1999 American Housing Survey (AHS).[2] Another 30 percent of housing units were located in central cities, the large incorporated areas within metropolitan areas. The remaining 24 percent were located outside of metropolitan areas.

Forty-three percent of housing units in central cities were multifamily, compared with 20 percent of the housing units in suburban areas and 12 percent in nonmetropolitan areas. Mobile homes were the most common in nonmetropolitan areas — accounting for 16 percent of all housing units. In metropolitan areas, mobile homes accounted for 7 percent of the housing in the suburbs and only 1 percent in central cities.

Housing in suburban and nonmetropolitan areas was more likely than housing in central cities to be newly constructed (built in the 4 years prior to the 1999 AHS). Only 3 percent of the housing units in the central cities were newly constructed, compared with about 7 percent of the housing units in the suburbs and nonmetropolitan areas.[4]

Half of all housing units in central cities were built in 1959 or before. The median year of construction for housing in nonmetropolitan areas was 1970. And about half of all housing units in the suburbs were built in 1973 or later.

In 1999, 92 percent of the country's 112 million year-round housing units were occupied.

Recent homeownership rates are among the highest the Census Bureau has ever measured. At the beginning of the 20th century, fewer than half of all householders were homeowners, according to the 1900 Census. However, every census since 1950 has counted more homeowners than renters. The American dream of homeownership was a reality for two-thirds of householders in 1999, according to the AHS.

Ownership rates were highest in the suburbs and nonmetropolitan areas, 74 and 75 percent, respectively. In central cities, only about half of year-round occupied housing units were owner-occupied.

Eighty-two percent of homeowners lived in detached single-unit housing, according to AHS, and another 5 percent lived in attached single-unit housing, such as townhouses. Eight percent lived in mobile homes. The remainder lived in various types of multiunit housing.

Renters also lived in a variety of housing types. One-third of renters occupied single-unit attached and

[1] The Census Bureau also collects data on housing through its Housing Vacancy Survey, a quarterly supplement to the Current Population Survey.

[2] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the American Housing Survey, weighted by housing units controls based on the 1990 decennial census. These controls were adjusted for census undercount, additions to the housing inventory, and losses to the housing inventory. As a result, these estimates will differ from housing unit estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

[4] The percentage of newly constructed housing units is not statistically different in suburban and nonmetropolitan areas.

Words That Count

- **A housing unit** is a house, apartment, group of rooms, or single room occupied or intended for occupancy as separate living quarters. Separate living quarters are those in which the occupants live and eat separately from any other people in the building and which have direct access from the outside of the building or through a common hallway.

- **Occupied units** are those occupied by at least one person who usually lives in the unit. By definition, the count of occupied housing units is the same as the count of households.

- **Year-round housing units** include all occupied and vacant units, regardless of design, that are intended for occupancy at all times of the year.

- **A single family detached unit** is a single-unit housing structure with open space on all four sides.

- **A single family attached unit** is a single-unit housing structure that has one or more unbroken walls extending from ground to roof separating it from adjoining structures, such as a townhouse.

- **Multifamily units** are housing units contained in multiunit structures, such as apartment buildings.

- **Monthly housing costs for owner-occupied units** include monthly payments for all mortgages or installment loans or contracts, except reverse annuity mortgages and home equity lines of credit. Costs also include real estate taxes (including taxes on mobile homes and mobile home sites if the site is owned), property insurance, homeowner's association fees, cooperative or condominium fees, mobile home park fees, land rent, and utility costs. Costs do not include maintenance and repairs.

- **Monthly housing costs for renter-occupied housing units** include the contract rent, utilities, property insurance, and mobile home park fees. Renter housing units occupied without payment of cash rent are shown separately as no cash rent. For rental units subsidized by a housing authority, the federal government, or state or local governments, the monthly rental costs reflect only the portion paid by the household and not the portion subsidized. The figures do not adjust for lost security deposits, or the benefit of free months' rent offered by some owners.

- **Housing with severe physical problems** has at least one of the following:

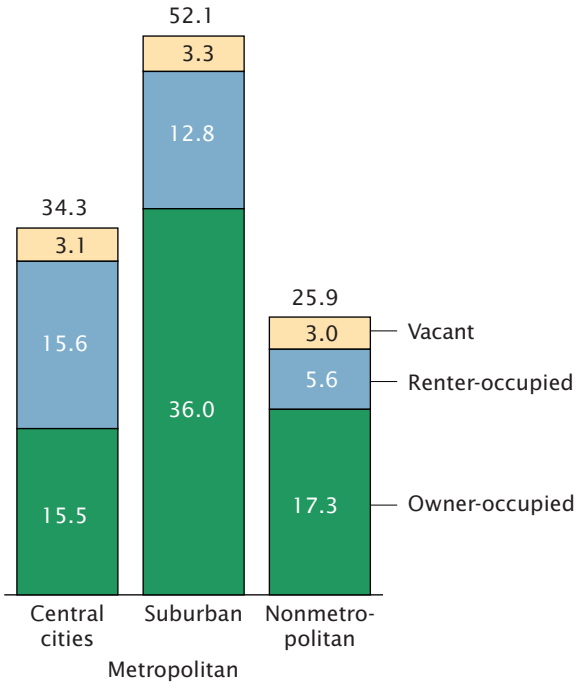
  (1) Lacking hot or cold piped water or flush toilet or lacking both tub and shower for the exclusive use of occupants; (2) Having been uncomfortably cold last winter for 24 hours or more because heating equipment broke down at least three times for at least 6 hours each time; (3) Having no electricity, or all of the three electric problems: exposed wiring, a room with no working wall outlet, or three blown fuses or tripped circuit breakers in the last 90 days; (4) In public areas, having no working light fixtures, loose or missing steps, loose or missing railings, and for buildings with 3 or more floors, no working elevator; or (5) Having any five of the following six maintenance problems: water leaks from outside, inside leaks from pipes or plumbing fixtures, holes in the floors, holes or cracks in the walls or ceilings, more than 88 square inches of peeling paint or broken plaster, or signs of rats in the last 90 days.

Figure 7-1.

Total Year-Round Housing Units by Tenure and Metropolitan Status: 1999

(Total year-round, housing units = 112.3 million)

Millions of units



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1999 American Housing Survey.

detached housing. Another one-third lived in multifamily units with fewer than 10 units in the structure.[5] Of the remainder, most lived in larger multifamily structures. However, 3 percent rented mobile homes.

The median monthly cost of housing was $581 for homeowners and $580 for cash renters.[6] However, owner costs more than renter costs tended toward extremes. While 27 percent of owners had monthly costs of less than $300, only 12 percent of cash renters did. And even though 26 percent of owners had costs of $1,000 or more, only 10 percent of cash renters did.

Housing conditions vary for different population groups.

Asian and Pacific Islanders, Blacks, and Hispanics[7] were more likely than White non-Hispanics to live in rental housing, according to the 1999 AHS. About 51 percent of Asian and Pacific Islander householders, 46 percent of Black householders, and 45 percent of Hispanic householders were homeowners, compared with 74 percent of White non-Hispanic householders.[8]

[5] There is no statistical difference between the percentage of renters living in single family attached and detached structures and the percentage living in multifamily structures with fewer than 10 units.

[6] There is no statistical difference between the median monthly costs for homeowners and cash renters.

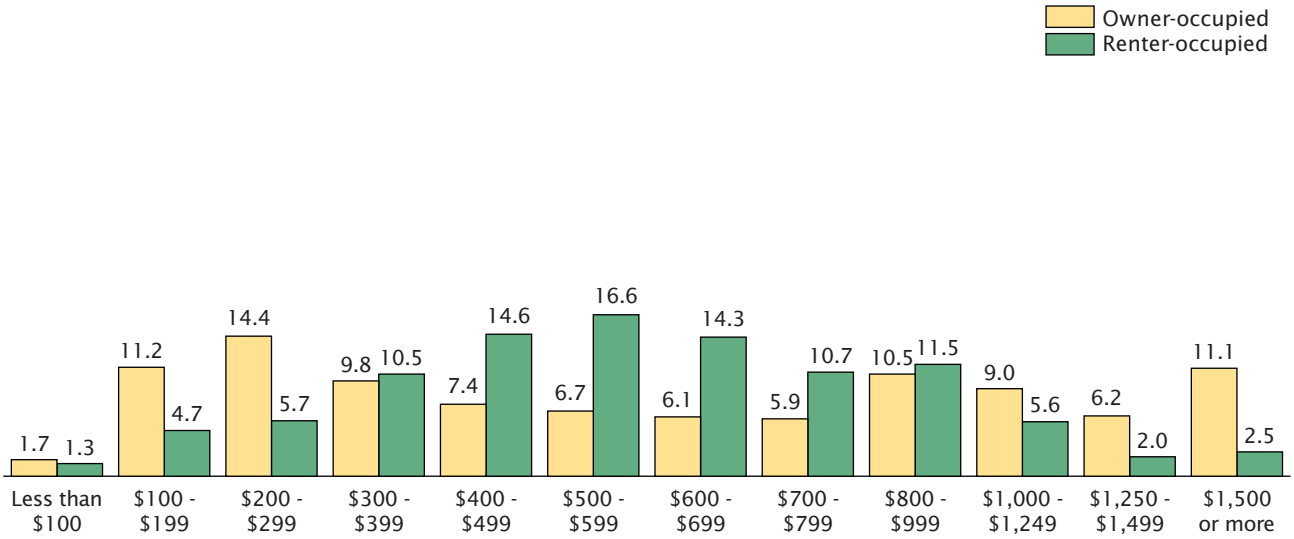
[7] Hispanics may be of any race.

[8] There is no statistical difference between the percentage of Black and Hispanic householders who are homeowners.

Figure 7-2.

Monthly Housing Costs by Tenure: 1999

(Percent distribution)



Note: This chart excludes "no cash rent."
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1999 American Housing Survey.

Overall, 2.0 percent of occupied housing units had severe physical problems with plumbing, heating, electricity, public areas, or maintenance. The share of householders living in housing with severe problems was 1.5 percent among White non-Hispanic householders and 1.7 percent among Asian and Pacific Islander householders. About 3.4 percent of Black householders and 3.8 percent of Hispanic householders lived in housing units that could be classified as having severe problems.[9]

The proportion of householders living in newly constructed housing also varied by race and ethnicity. About 6 percent of both White non-Hispanic and Asian and Pacific Islander householders lived in housing that was built in the 4 years prior to the survey, compared with 5 percent of Black householders and 4 percent of Hispanic householders.[10]

In 1999, one in five householders was aged 65 or older.

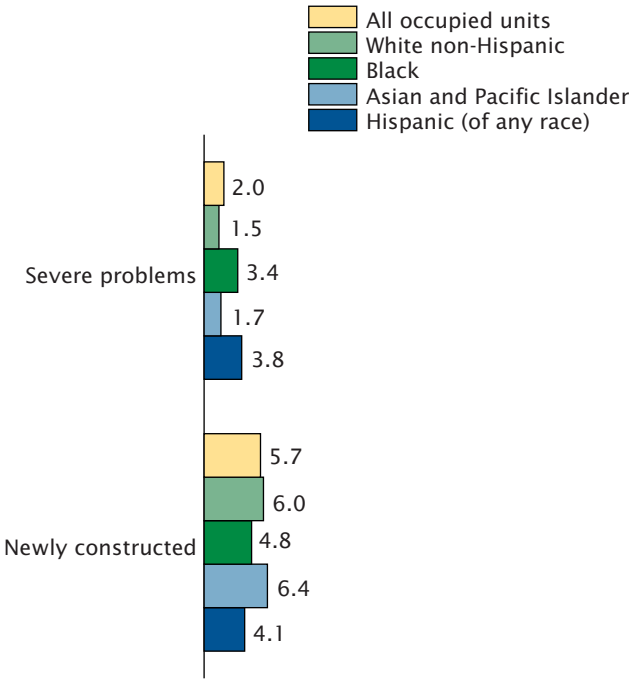
The Census Bureau collects information on housing that can help identify potential problems for older adults, including lighting in public hallways, availability of cooking and laundry equipment, heating reliability, transportation availability, and neighborhood conditions. Eighty percent of householders aged 65 and older owned their own homes in 1999. About 75 percent lived in single-unit detached housing and mobile homes and about 45 percent lived alone.

[9] There is no statistical difference between the percentage of White non-Hispanic householders and Asian and Pacific Islander householders in housing with severe physical problems and there is no statistical difference between the percentage of Black householders and Hispanic householders in housing with severe physical problems.

[10] There is no statistical difference between the percentage of White non-Hispanic householders and Asian and Pacific Islander householders in newly constructed housing and there is no statistical difference between the percentage of Black householders and Hispanic householders in newly constructed housing.

Figure 7-3.
Characteristics of Occupied Housing Units by Race and Hispanic Origin of Householder: 1999

(Percent of households in group)



Note: Newly constructed units are those built in the four years prior to the 1999 survey.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1999 American Housing Survey.

All householders in the American Housing Survey were asked to rate the structure they lived in from 1 (the worst) to 10 (the best). More than half of elderly householders gave their housing a score of 9 or 10. Only about 6 percent gave their housing a score of 5 or less. About 2 percent of housing occupied by elderly householders could be classified as having severe physical problems.

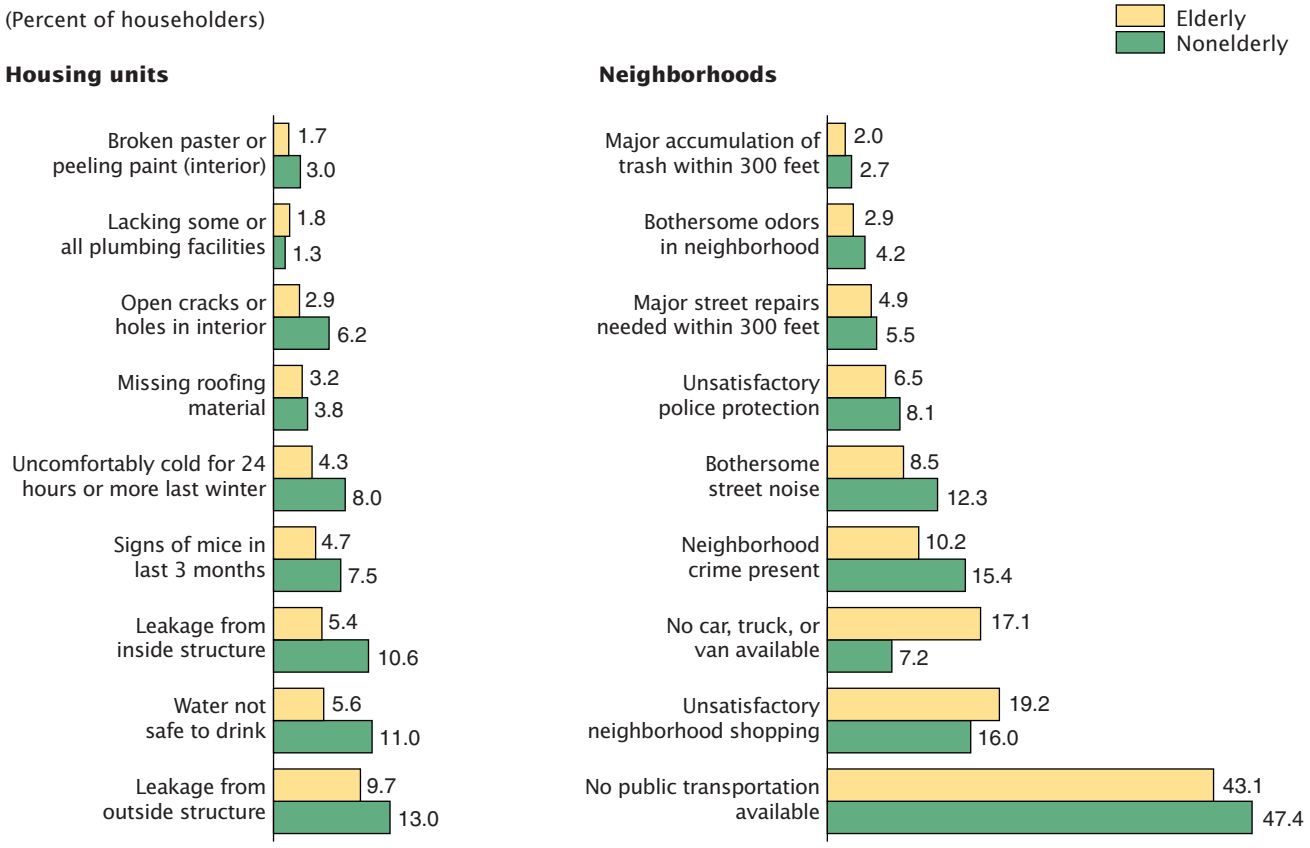
All householders were also asked to rate the quality of their neighborhoods from 1 (the very worst) to 10 (the very best). Again, more than half of elderly householders gave their neighborhoods a score of 9 or 10. Only 8 percent gave their neighborhoods a score of 5 or less. Ten percent said there was crime in their neighborhoods and 19 percent said that neighborhood shopping was not satisfactory. Seventeen percent of elderly householders had no car, truck, or van available, and 43 percent lived in a neighborhood where there was no public transportation.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Housing Report: *American Housing Survey for the United States: 1999.*
- For complete reports and detailed tables go to the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (*www.census.gov*). Click on "H" for "Housing" and then select the American Housing Survey (AHS).
- Contact the Housing and Household Economic Statistics' Statistical Information Office at 301-457-3242 or e-mail *hhes-info@census.gov.*
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Figure 7-4.
Selected Characteristics of Housing Units and Neighborhoods of Elderly and Nonelderly Householders: 1999

(Percent of householders)



Note: Elderly householders are those aged 65 and older.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1999 American Housing Survey.

Chapter 8.

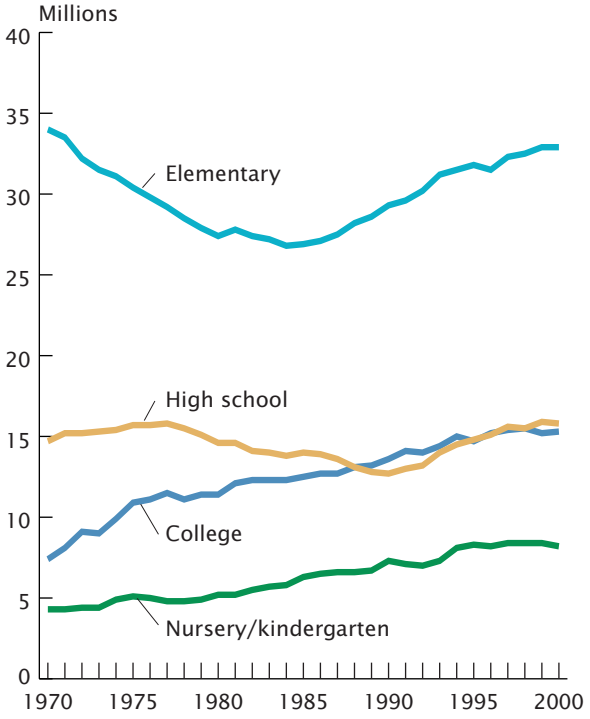
SCHOLARS OF ALL AGES:

School Enrollment, 2000

Education is not just our future, it is very much a part of our daily lives with more than one in four Americans aged 3 and older — 72 million people — enrolled in school.

To determine the needs of next year's class, educators begin by looking at last year's statistics. Businesses supplying paper, pens, desks, and computers are also interested in the facts about changing school enrollment. Human resource planners look to these numbers to see where the next generation of workers will come from and how well prepared they will be.

Figure 8-1.
Students by Level of School Enrollment: 1970-2000



Note: The figures for 1970 and 1971 do not include students aged 35 and older.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey October 1970 to October 2000.

Eight million children were enrolled in nursery school or kindergarten and 33 million in elementary school,[1] according to the October 2000 Current Population Survey (CPS).[2] Sixteen million students attended high schools and 15 million attended college.[3]

For many children, nursery school enrollment has replaced kindergarten as their first school experience.

In 1964, the first year these data were collected, only about one-half million children attended nursery school, compared with the 2000 enrollment of about 4 million. The majority of White non-Hispanic, Black,

[1] Junior high school students are included with elementary school students for the purposes of this report.
[2] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program or the 2000 decennial census.
[3] The estimates for high school and college enrollment were not significantly different from each other.

Words That Count

- **Regular schools** include public, parochial, and other private schools that advance a student toward an elementary or high school diploma, or a college, university, or professional school degree. Trade schools, business colleges, and schools for the mentally handicapped, which do not advance students to regular school degrees, are not included.

- **Nursery schools** are regular schools that provide educational experiences for children during the years preceding kindergarten. Private homes that provide primarily custodial care are not considered nursery schools. Children in Head Start or similar programs are counted under nursery school or kindergarten, as appropriate.

and Asian and Pacific Islander 3- and 4-year olds were enrolled in school.[4] About 36 percent of Hispanic children[5] this age also were enrolled.

Since nursery school is predominantly private in most areas, the cost of attending may prevent some families from sending their children. In 2000, 61 percent of 3- and 4-year-olds in families with incomes of $40,000 or more attended school, compared with 46 percent of children this age in families with incomes less than $20,000.

Among 3- and 4-year olds, school enrollment is also related to education and labor force participation of a child's mother. In 2000, children of mothers who were college graduates were substantially more likely to attend nursery school than children whose mother did not finish high school — 68 percent, compared with 36 percent. And children of mothers in the labor force[6] were more likely to attend school than those whose mothers were not working nor looking for work — 56 percent, compared with 47 percent.

In October 2000, the vast majority of 5-year-olds were enrolled in school — 94 percent. Most 5-year olds, 73 percent, were in kindergarten. However, 14 percent were in nursery school and 6 percent were in first grade.

The total enrollment in kindergarten was about 4 million. During the past three decades, the number of children attending kindergarten all day increased from one in ten to six in ten. Moreover, most of these children (60 percent) were enrolled in nursery school in the preceding year.[7]

In 2000, the number of students enrolled in elementary and high school (49 million) matched the previous record set in 1970 when the baby-boom[8] children were in school.

Much of the growth in enrollment has been driven by an increase in births that took place between 1981 and 1994 as women born during the baby boom reached their peak childbearing ages. In 2000, 65 percent of elementary and high school students had baby-boomer parents.[9] Immigration has been another factor contributing to growing enrollment. Among school-aged children, 19 percent had at least one foreign-born parent — and 5 percent of elementary and high school students were foreign-born themselves.

Students enrolled in elementary and high schools in 2000 came from diverse backgrounds. About 63 percent were White non-Hispanics, 16 percent were Black, and 4 percent were Asian and Pacific Islander. Fifteen percent of these students were Hispanic, an ethnic group that contains people of all races.

Seventy percent of students lived in married-couple households. An additional 24 percent lived with only a mother, and 5 percent lived with only a father. More than half of elementary and high school students came from families with annual incomes of $40,000 or more, but almost one in five came from families with annual incomes below $20,000.

During the 1-year period ending in October 2000, 488,000 students — almost 5 percent of all students in the 10th, 11th, and 12th grades — dropped out of high school.[10] The rate was 5.2 percent for boys and 3.9 percent for girls.[11] The high school dropout rates were higher for Blacks (5.6 percent) and Hispanics (6.9 percent) than for White non-Hispanics (3.9 percent).[12] The likelihood of dropping out was higher for students from lower-income families than for students from higher-income families. While 10.1 percent of high school students from families with annual incomes below $20,000 dropped out, only 2.6 percent of those from families with annual incomes of $40,000 or more left before graduation.

The end of high school presents a multitude of pathways, but many continue on in school.

Among the population aged 18 to 24 in 2000, 12 percent were no longer in school, but had not graduated from high school. However, 82 percent were

[4] There is no statistical difference between the percentages of White non-Hispanic, Black, and Asian and Pacific Islander 3- and 4-year olds enrolled in school.

[5] Hispanics may be of any race.

[6] The labor force includes people who are employed and those who are unemployed but looking for work.

[7] The percentage of kindergarten children enrolled in nursery school in the preceding year is not significantly different than the percentage of kindergarten children who attend school full day.

[8] The term "baby boom" refers to the large number of children born from 1946 to 1964.

[9] The term "baby-boomer parent" refers to native parents and does not include foreign-born parents.

[10] The dropout rate has remained the same since 1997. The total dropout rate in 2000 is not statistically different than the rate for males, females, White non-Hispanics, and Blacks.

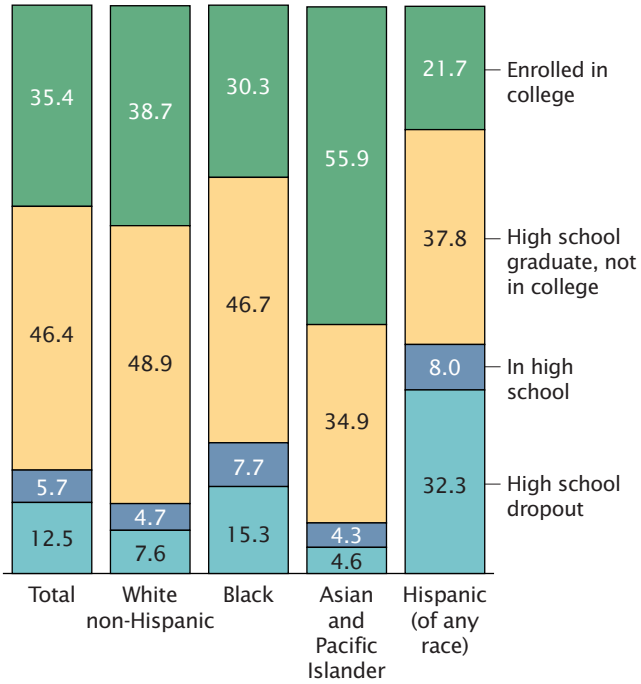
[11] The dropout rate for boys in 2000 is not significantly different than the rate for Blacks or Hispanics, and the rate for girls is not statistically different than the rate for White non-Hispanics.

[12] The dropout rates for Blacks and Hispanics in 2000 are not statistically different.

Figure 8-2.

People Aged 18 to 24 by Enrollment Status and Race and Hispanic Origin: October 2000

(Percent distribution of people in age group)

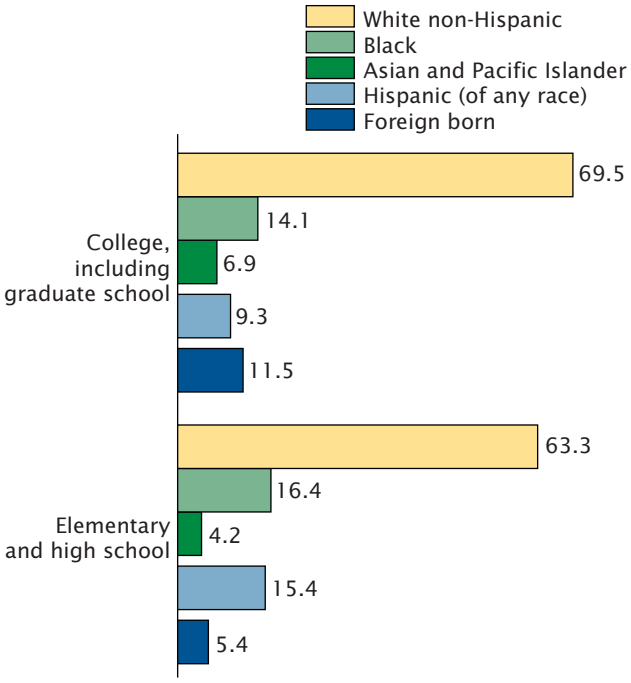


Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, October 2000.

Figure 8-3.

Students by Level of School and Race, Hispanic Origin, and Foreign-born Status: October 2000

(Percent of students by level of school)



Note: The categories overlap and will add to more than 100 percent.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, October 2000.

high school graduates and 43 percent of these graduates were enrolled in college.

In October 2000, 15 million students were enrolled in college. This number was not significantly different from that of the previous year, but it was higher than it was a decade earlier when 14 million students were enrolled. The number of college students under age 25 continued at the record high, reaching nearly 10 million in 2000. This peak was fueled by the growing proportion of high school graduates who went directly into college, as well as the fact that there were more people in this age group. Six million students aged 25 and older were also enrolled in college in 2000 — slightly fewer than in 1998. These older college students accounted for about 37 percent of all college students in 2000.

Women accounted for 56 percent of all college students, continuing the majority role they established in 1979. However, women constituted a greater share of older students than of those under age 25. Women represented 54 percent of students under age 25 and 60 percent of older students.

The race and ethnic composition of college students has shifted during the last two decades. In 1979, 84 percent of students were White non-Hispanic and 10 percent were Black. In 2000, 69 percent were White non-Hispanic and 14 percent were Black. While few students were of other races in 1979, Asians and Pacific Islanders accounted for 7 percent of college enrollment in 2000. Additionally, Hispanic enrollment grew from 4 percent of all students in 1979 to 9 percent in 2000. And in 2000, 12 percent of all U.S. college students were foreign born.

One-third of college students were enrolled part-time in 2000. A greater proportion of women than men went to school part time, 36 percent compared with 31 percent. Older students were especially in need of flexibility to schedule their college careers around jobs and families. While only 16 percent of students under age 25 attended college part-time, 63 percent of older students did.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *School Enrollment — Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1999* by Amie Jamieson, Andrea Curry, and Gladys Martinez and *School Enrollment — Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 2000*.

- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (www.census.gov). Click on "S" and select "School Enrollment."

- Contact the Education and Social Stratification Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2464 or e-mail pop@census.gov.

- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 9.

THE GRADUATES:

Educational Attainment, 2000

Americans are more educated than ever before.

Greater educational attainment spells greater socio-economic success for individuals and the country. For every progressively higher level of education, earnings are higher.[1] This relationship holds true, not only for the population as a whole, but also for population sub-groups, including men and women and various racial and ethnic groups.

Although the overall trend has been toward a more educated society, significant differences exist among various population segments. Nevertheless, the educational attainment of young adults, those aged 25 to 29, provides a glimpse of our country's future and indicates continued dramatic improvements by groups who historically have been less well educated.

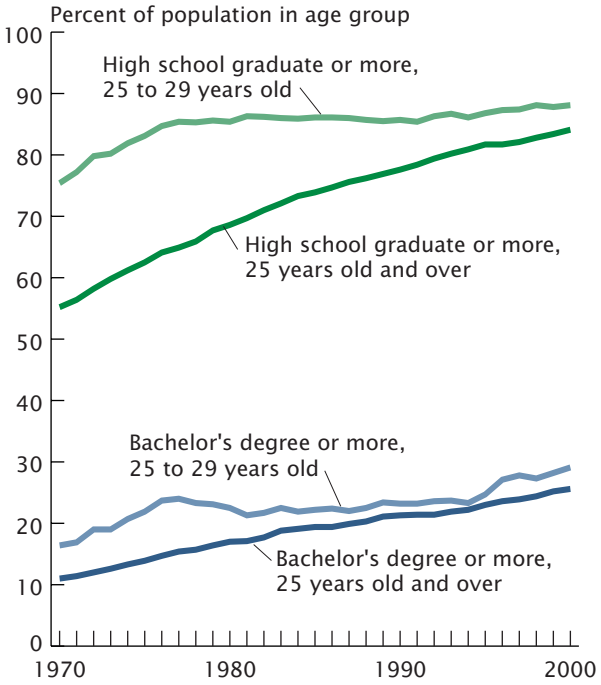
The percentage of the adults who are high school graduates continued to rise in 2000.

The Current Population Survey (CPS)[2] has tracked improvements in educational levels since 1947. By 2000, over four-fifths of all adults aged 25 and older had completed at least high school. More than one in four adults held a bachelor's degree or higher.

However, the educational attainment of young adults may be leveling off. The percentage of people aged 25 to 29 in 2000 who had completed high school was 88 percent, no different than it was in 1998 or 1999. The percentage of young adults who had completed a bachelor's degree was 29 percent in 2000, compared with 28 percent in 1999 and 27 percent in 1998.[3]

Men and women aged 25 and older were equally likely to have completed high school — 84 percent in 2000. However, men were more likely than women to have

Figure 9-1.
High School and College Graduates: 1970 - 2000



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 1970 to March 2000.

Words That Count

- **Educational attainment** is reported for the population aged 25 and older. It is derived from a single question asked in the Current Population Survey: "What is the highest grade of school ... completed, or the highest degree ... received?" Before 1992, educational attainment was measured in the CPS only by years of schooling completed.

[1] See chapter on income.

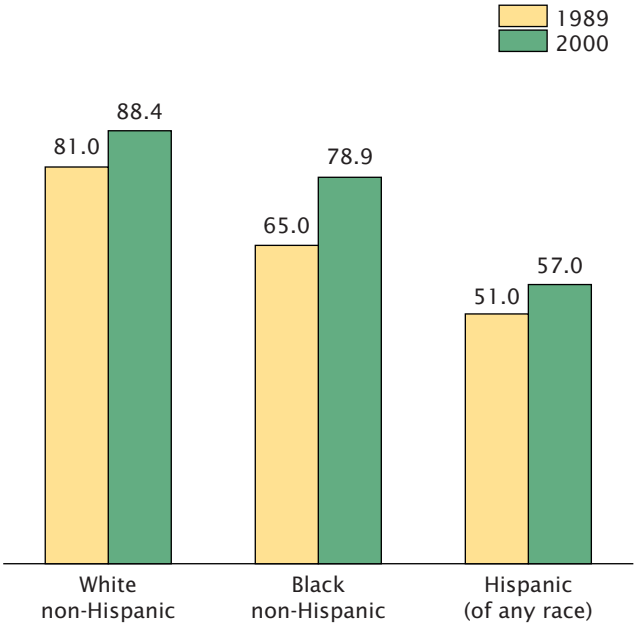
[2] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program or the 2000 decennial census.

[3] The percentage of adults aged 25 to 29 in 2000 was not statistically different than it was in 1999, nor was 1999 statistically different than 1998.

Figure 9-2.

People Aged 25 and Older Who Have Completed High School or More for Selected Racial and Ethnic Groups: 1989 and 2000

(Percent of population aged 25 and older)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 1989 and 2000.

completed college, 28 percent compared with 24 percent. The situation was quite different among adults aged 25 to 29. In 2000, 89 percent of young women were high school graduates and 30 percent had completed a bachelor's degree or higher. Among young men, 87 percent were high school graduates and 28 percent held a bachelor's degree or higher.[4]

Educational attainment differs by race and ethnicity.[5]

Among White non-Hispanics, 88 percent were high school graduates, surpassing the record high reached in 1999. The percentage of Blacks who were high school graduates was 79 percent, also a new record high for this group. Over the past decade, the differences in the percentages of Blacks and White non-Hispanics who had completed high school narrowed as Black high school graduation rates improved. For the population aged 25 and older, the difference between the two groups decreased from 16 percentage points in 1989 to about 10 percentage points in 2000.

[4] The percentage of men aged 25 and older who hold a bachelor's degree or higher is not statistically different than the percentage of men aged 25 to 29 who hold a bachelor's degree or higher.

[5] The racial categories used in this chapter (White non-Hispanic, Black non-Hispanic, and Asian and Pacific Islander non-Hispanic) exclude Hispanics.

In 2000, 86 percent of Asians and Pacific Islanders held a high school diploma or better — not significantly different from the peak reached in 1998. However, Asians and Pacific Islanders have the greatest proportion of college graduates. Among those aged 25 and older, 44 percent held a college degree or more education in 2000. In contrast, 28 percent of White non-Hispanics and 17 percent of Blacks in this age group were college graduates.

The Hispanic population was less likely than other groups to have completed high school or college. In 2000, 57 percent of Hispanics aged 25 and older were high school graduates — a significant improvement over the 1989 share of 51 percent. However, the percentage of Hispanics that held a bachelor's degree or higher, 11 percent, was not significantly different than the percentage in 1989.

SPOTLIGHT ON EDUCATION AND EARNINGS

As the economic rewards of education continue to rise, so do the numbers of people with degrees and credentials.

In 1996, more people in the United States held postsecondary education credentials than ever before,[6] according to the 1996 Panel of the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP).[7] Thirty-one percent of the population aged 18 and older had degrees or certificates above the high school level in 1996 — up from 21 percent in 1984, the first year covered by a report from this series. Bachelor's degrees, associate degrees, and vocational degrees accounted for most of the increase.

Business was a popular field of training at all levels beyond high school. This major was the most popular choice of those with associate and bachelor's degrees

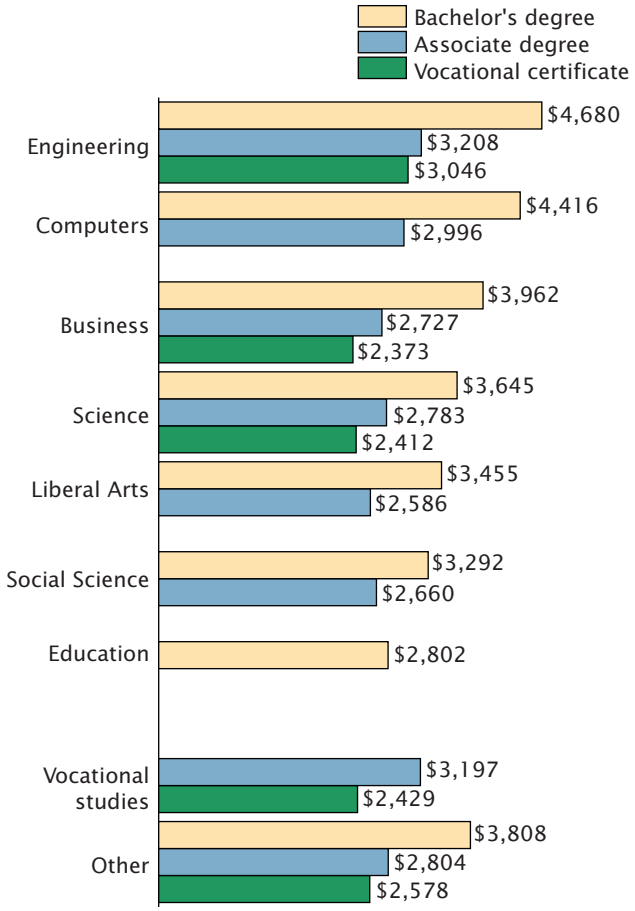
[6] The 31.2 percent of people over age 18 with postsecondary degrees in the 1996 SIPP data is significantly greater than the percentage in earlier SIPP surveys dating back to 1984. The percentage of people with postsecondary credentials did not exceed 25 percent before 1984, according to estimates that can be calculated from the report *Educational Attainment in the United States: March 1999.*

[7] This sidebar includes estimates that are calculated using sample data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation, weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. As such, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

Figure 9-3.

Monthly Earnings by Field of Training for Selected Education Levels: 1996

(Average earnings in dollars for people employed full-time for the previous 4 months)



Note: All levels of education do not apply to every field of training.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Survey of Income and Program Participation, 1996 Panel.

and was one of the most common majors among those with vocational certificates. In 1996, 7.5 million adults held bachelor's degrees in business, 2.8 million held associate degrees, and 1.9 million held MBAs or other advanced degrees in business. Other common degrees and certificates were in education, engineering, and health care. By contrast, few people had degrees in computer science and computer related subjects. This may be partially due to the fact that computer science degrees were relatively rare before 1975.[8]

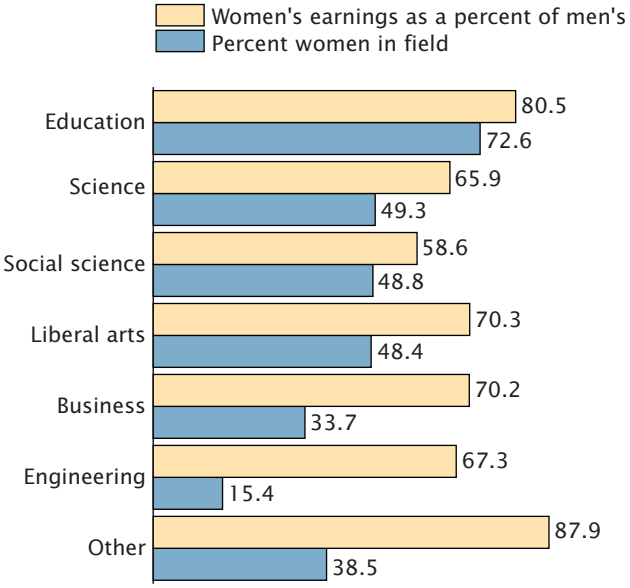
Some fields of training are more likely than others to lead to higher degrees. Seventy-two percent of people who reported their college major as "preprofessional"

[8] In 1970, around 0.3 percent of bachelor's degrees awarded were in computer and information sciences, compared with 2.3 percent in 1998. See National Center for Education Statistics, 1999, NCES 2000-031, by Thomas D. Snyder and Charlene M. Hoffman, Washington, DC, 2000, Table 255, p. 292.

Figure 9-4.

Relative Earnings and Proportion of Bachelor's Degree Holders Who Are Women by Field of Training: 1996

(Percents are based on women and men aged 18 and older, whose highest degree is a bachelor's degree, with earnings, employed full-time for the previous 4 months)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Survey of Income and Program Participation, 1996 Panel.

(such as premedicine or prelaw) went on to get an advanced degree. However, only 20 percent of people with degrees in art or architecture, business, communications, or computer science went on for advance degrees. Between 25 and 50 percent of people with other fields of training completed advanced degrees.[9]

One reason that people pursue higher education is to gain access to professional and managerial occupations.

Of all adults with managerial jobs, 46 percent had a bachelor's degree or higher. Of the people in professional occupations, 71 percent had this much education. By comparison, no more than 8 percent of those in craft, service, farm, and production occupations held at least a bachelor's degree.

[9] Although art/architecture, business, communications, and computer sciences are classified at 20 percent, and agriculture and health sciences are classified as 25 percent or higher, the only significant difference is between health care and business majors completing advanced degrees. All other differences between the proportion of these six majors completing advance degrees were not significant.

In 1996, the average monthly earnings of full-time workers with professional degrees were approximately $7,000, compared with $2,000 for full-time workers who did not complete high school. Even small amounts of postsecondary education were associated with higher earnings. People who had "some college, but no degree" studied, on average, less than 1 year past high school. However, this additional education was enough to increase their earnings by $340 per month.

Women earned less than men did at every degree level. Women with a high school diploma or less education earned just under $600 per month less than men with comparable schooling. Women with bachelor's degrees earned, on average, $1,400 less per month than men. Among those with advanced degrees, the difference was about $2,000 per month. The fact that men pursued fields with higher earnings is part of the reason that men's earnings were higher overall. However, if women with bachelor's degrees had pursued fields of training in the same proportion as men with bachelor's degrees, the earnings gap at that level would drop from $1,380 to $1,250 — a decline of only 9.5 percent.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Reports: *Educational Attainment in the United States (Update): March 2000* by Eric C. Newburger and Andrea E. Curry and *What's It Worth? Field of Training and Economic Status* by Kurt J. Bauman and Camille L. Ryan.

- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov*). Click on "E" and select "Educational Attainment."

- Contact the Education and Social Stratification Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2464 or e-mail *pop@census.gov.*

- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 10.

THE PC GENERATION:

Computer Use, 2000

In the majority of U.S. homes, computers are part of the décor.

In an environment of rapidly changing technology, information about computer use can seem as outdated as last year's models. But because the Census Bureau has been collecting data on computers since 1984, it can provide valuable insights into changing computer usage.

The majority of households (51 percent) had access to a computer, up from 42 percent in 1998, according to the August 2000 Current Population Survey (CPS).[1] The proportion of households with Internet access more than doubled between 1997 (the first year data were collected on this topic) and 2000 — growing from 18 percent to 42 percent.

Among family households with incomes of $75,000 or more during the 12 months prior to the survey, 88 percent had at least one computer, and 79 percent had at least one household member who used the Internet at home. Only 28 percent of family households with incomes less than $25,000 had access to a computer, and just 19 percent had Internet access.

Households with two or more people were more likely to have a computer (58 percent) than one-person households (30 percent). Twenty-four percent of one-person households had Internet access versus 48 percent of households with two or more people.

Sixty-four percent of married-couple households had access to a computer, and 53 percent had Internet access. Fewer than half of all other households had a computer, and less than one-third had Internet access. Households with children age 6 to 17 years old were more likely to have a computer (67 percent) than households without children this age (45 percent).

[1] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey, weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

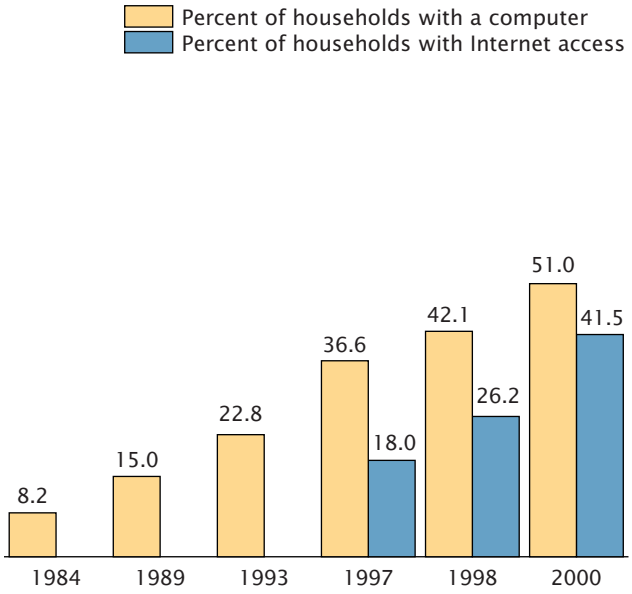
More school-age children use computers at school than have access to them at home.

School is a major influence on children's access to computers. Fifty-seven percent of school-age children (6 to 17 years old) had access to a computer both at home and at school in 2000. Twenty-three percent of children had computer access only at school, while 10 percent had access only at home. The remaining 10 percent had no access.

School is an important provider of computer access for children in families with lower incomes. Only 35 percent of school-age children in families with income less than $25,000 had access to a computer at

Figure 10-1.
Computers and Internet Access in the Home: 1984 to 2000

(Percent of households)



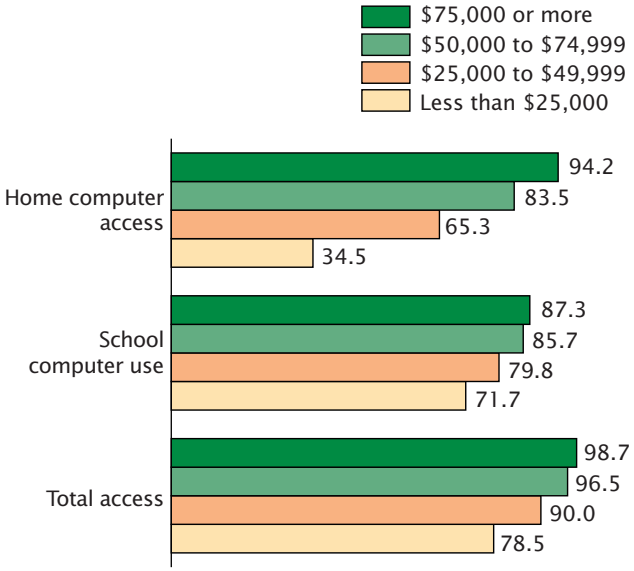
Note: Data on Internet access were not collected before 1997.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, various years.

home, whereas 72 percent of these children had computer access at school. Seventy-nine percent of school-age children in families with incomes less than $25,000 had access to a computer either at home or at school. For children in families with incomes more than $75,000, computer access was ubiquitous. Ninety-nine percent of school-age children in families with incomes more than $75,000 had access to a computer either at home or at school, 94 percent of these children had computer access at home, and 87 percent had access at school.

Internet use is influencing how society manages information.

The Internet has become a major venue for the dissemination of news. Among adults, nearly one in five used the Internet at home to check on news, weather, or sports. Nearly one in four adults used the Internet for other sorts of information searches, such as information about businesses, health practices, or government services. The Internet also affects interpersonal communication. About one in three adults used e-mail from home. More than one in five children (22 percent) used home e-mail.

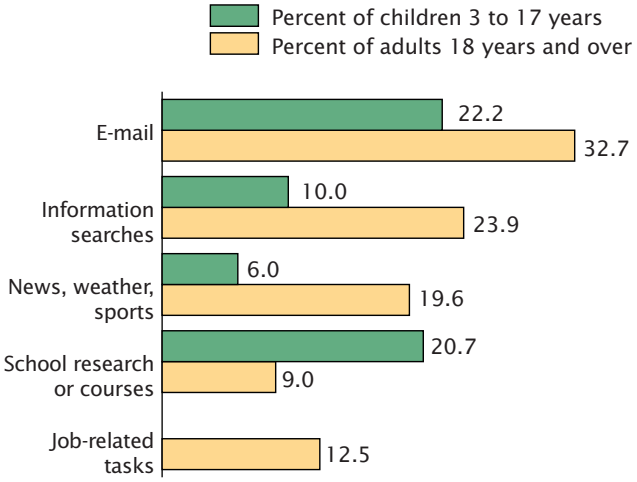
Figure 10-2.
Percent of Children Aged 6 to 17* Who Have Computer Access at Home and School by Annual Family Income: August 2000



*Among children in families.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, August 2000.

Finally, the Internet acts as a venue for work and school to enter the home. One adult in eight used the Internet to perform job-related tasks using a home Internet connection. Twenty-one percent of children used the Internet to perform school-related tasks, such as research for assignments, or taking courses online.

Figure 10-3.
Adults and Children Using the Internet for a Specific Task: August 2000



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, August 2000.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *Home Computers and Internet Use in the United States: August 2000* by Eric C. Newburger.
- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov).* Click on "C" and select "Computer Use and Ownership."
- Contact the Education and Social Stratification Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2464 or e-mail *pop@census.gov.*
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 11. THE BALLOT BOX:

Voting and Registration, 1998

When elections are over and the results are in, don't think you know the whole story until you have seen the results from the U.S. Census Bureau.

On Election Day, the media looks for quick answers from exit polls conducted outside the voting sites. However, these findings tend to be biased toward certain groups — such as highly educated people who may be more willing to answer questions. Two weeks after Congressional and Presidential elections, the U.S. Census Bureau uses a special November supplement of the Current Population Survey (CPS)[1] to find out who casts a ballot and why others do not. The CPS provides a more accurate picture because it makes use of a nationally representative sample with very high response rates.

The vote is in for the 2000 Presidential elections and the Census Bureau is currently processing these data. At the time of this publication, however, the most recent information available on voting and registration patterns is from the 1998 Congressional elections. Although Congressional elections typically have lower turnouts than elections where voters select a President, the data indicate significant long-term trends in U.S. voting patterns.

About 198 million people, 62 percent of the voting-age population, reported that they were registered to vote in 1998 — not significantly different from the 1990 and 1994 Congressional elections. However, only 42 percent of the voting-age population reported voting in the 1998 Congressional election, compared with 45 percent of the population in the previous Congressional election in 1994. This turnout is the lowest recorded since the Census Bureau began collecting voting data in the CPS in 1966. Between 1994 and 1998, the number of people who showed up at the polls declined from 86 million to 83 million. Turnout declined for people of all ages, for both men and women, and for White non-Hispanics.

[1] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

Words That Count

- **Voting and registration rates** have been based on citizens aged 18 and older since 1994. Previously, they were based on the total resident population aged 18 and older, including noncitizens — referred to as the **voting-age population** in this report. This change raises the 1998-voting rate for the population as a whole — from 42 to 45 percent — but affects some population segments more than others. The voter turnout levels for both Hispanics and Asians and Pacific Islanders increases nearly 13 percentage points when citizens are used as the base instead of the total voting-age population. However, because all data collected prior to 1994 uses total voting-age population, these data are used for historical comparisons in this report.

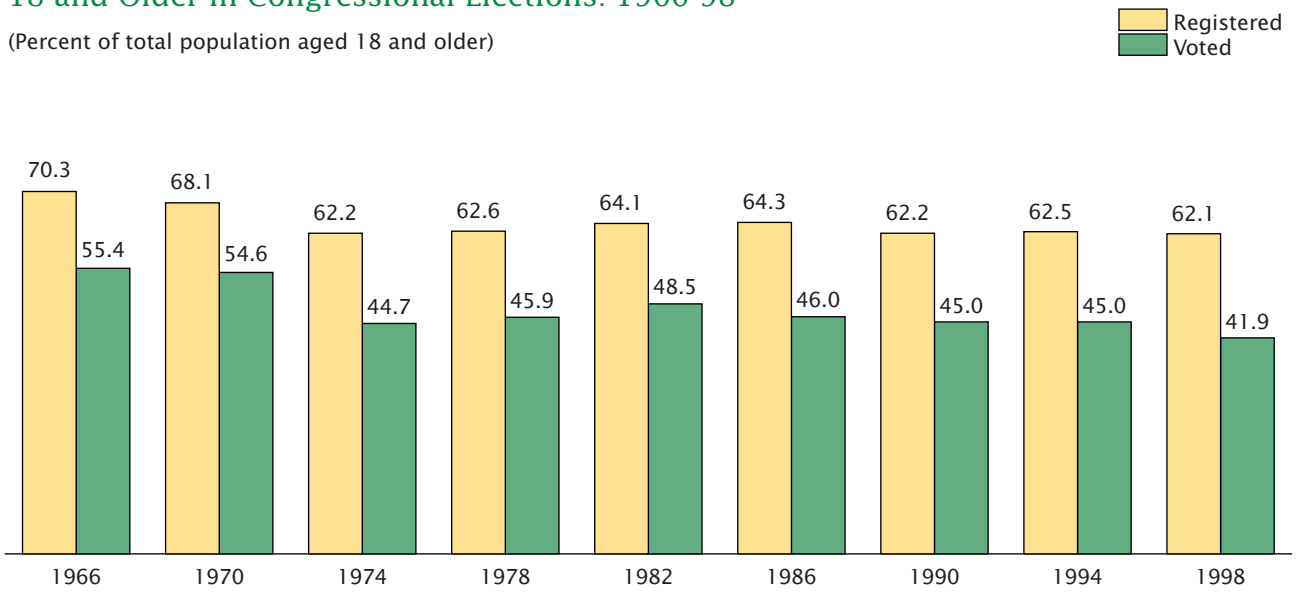
  Voting and registration rates historically have been higher in years with Presidential elections than in the "off" years. For the purposes of this report, the 1998 data (a non-Presidential election year) are compared with previous non-Presidential election years (1994, 1990, 1986, etc.).

  To avoid confusion with the Presidential elections, this report refers to non-Presidential elections as Congressional elections.

Figure 11-1.

Registration and Voting Rates Among the Resident Population Aged 18 and Older in Congressional Elections: 1966-98

(Percent of total population aged 18 and older)

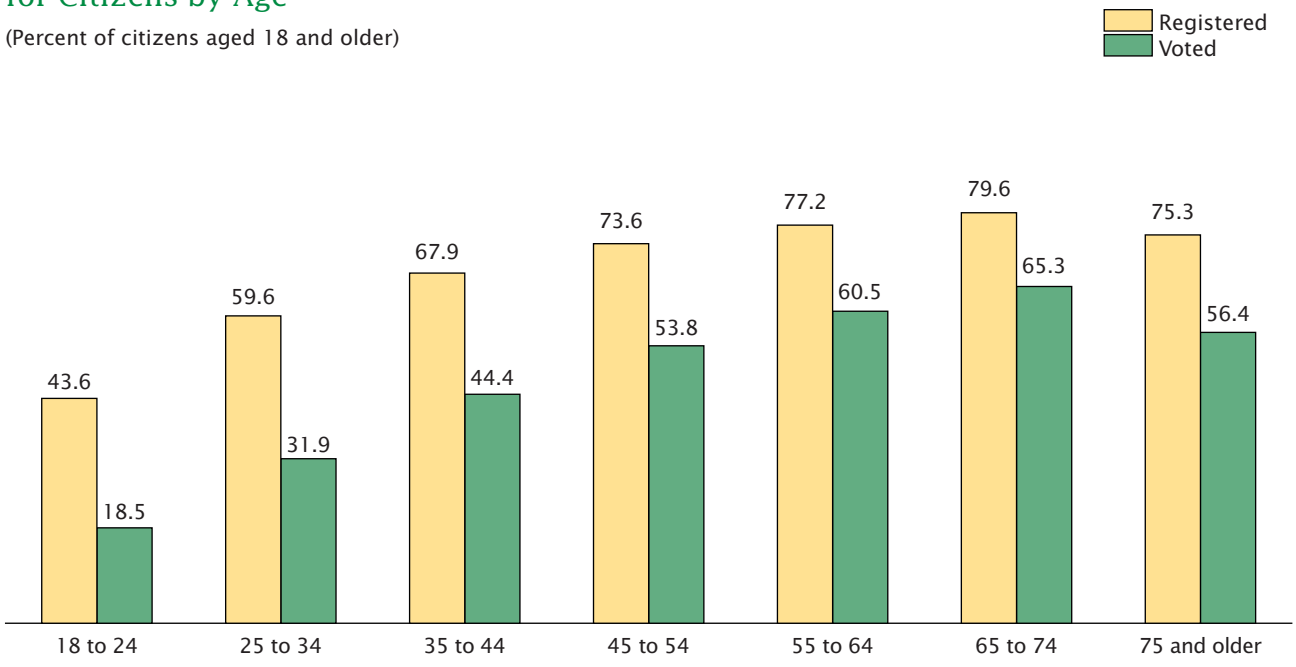


Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Surveys, November 1966 to November 1998.

Figure 11-2.

Registration and Voting Rates in the 1998 Congressional Election for Citizens by Age

(Percent of citizens aged 18 and older)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, November 1998.

Between 1994 and 1998, the drop in participation rates among the voting-age population was greater for some groups than others.

The voting rate is much higher among older people than younger people and the decline affected young voters more than the older ones. Among those aged 18 to 24, there was a 3 percentage-point decline, compared with a 2 percentage-point decline among the population aged 65 and older.

Among citizens in 1998, the peak ages for voter participation were 65 to 74. Almost two-thirds of the citizens in this age group voted. Even among the group aged 75 and older more than half voted. The lowest voting rates were among 18- to 24-year-old citizens. Only 18 percent of this group made it to the voting booths in 1998.

The share of White non-Hispanic citizens who voted (47 percent), represented a 4 percentage-point decline from the previous Congressional election. In contrast to the general trend of declining voter participation, the percentage of Black non-Hispanic citizens who voted rose 3 percentage points to 42 percent. Among citizens, the share of Hispanics[2] and Asian and Pacific Islander non-Hispanics who voted was 33 percent and 32 percent, respectively.

In 1998, citizens with more education, higher incomes, and employment voted at higher rates than others. Also, homeowners and long-time residents were more likely to vote than people who were renters or recent movers. When these characteristics were taken into account, racial differences diminished. For instance, even though Black non-Hispanics were significantly less likely to vote than White non-Hispanics, voting patterns became similar when people shared characteristics, such as age, educational attainment, family income, and tenure.

[2] Hispanics may be of any race.

The 1998 CPS asked people why they did not vote.

Of the 40 million registered voters who did not vote, about one-third claimed they were too busy or had conflicting work or school schedules. Another 13 percent did not vote because they were not interested or felt their vote would not make a difference. Eleven percent reported illness, disability, or a family emergency and about 8 percent said they were out of town. Other specified reasons for not voting included not liking the candidates or campaign issues (6 percent), forgetting (5 percent), confusion about registration (4 percent), and transportation problems (2 percent).

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *Voting and Registration in the Election of November 1998* by Jennifer C. Day and Avalaura L. Gaither.
- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (*www.census.gov*). Click on "V" and select "Voting and Registration Data."
- Contact the Census Bureau's Education and Social Stratification Branch at 301-457-2464 or e-mail *pop@census.gov.*
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 12. MONEY MATTERS:

Money Income, 2000

Income held steady in 2000 with some population groups posting gains.

For more than 50 years, analysts, researchers, and policymakers have used the Current Population Survey (CPS)[1] to examine annual changes in income and earnings and to compare them with historical trends. The federal government uses information on income to provide a general measure of economic well-being, to determine the extent of poverty, and to assess the need for various types of assistance. Television, radio, and newspapers draw upon this source for their news stories on jobs, income, poverty, and other topics.

Median household income was $42,100 in 2000. Real median household income did not change significantly between 1999 and 2000, after experiencing 5 consecutive years of annual increases. Calendar year 1998 was the first year that the real median income of households surpassed the peak reached in 1989.

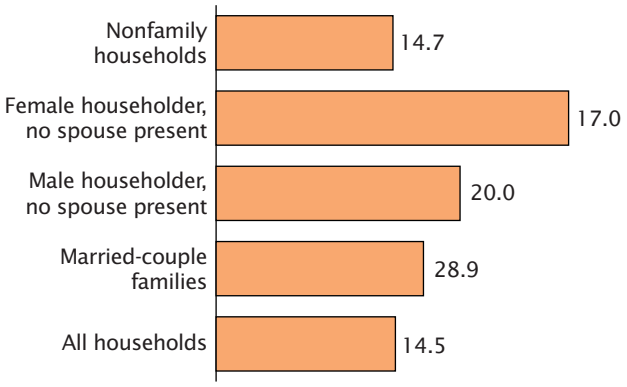
The 2000 median household income for both family ($51,800) and nonfamily households ($25,400) remained statistically unchanged from the previous year. Still, the median varied significantly by type of family. The 2000 median for married-couple households was $59,300, while the median for a family maintained by a man with no spouse present was $42,100 and by a woman with no spouse present was $28,100. And all household types showed a significant gain since 1993, the low point for the decade.

[1] This chapter includes estimates that are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

Words That Count

- **Income**, for each person aged 15 and older, includes earnings, unemployment compensation, workers compensation, social security, supplemental security income, public assistance, veterans payments, survivor benefits, disability benefits, pension or retirement income, interest, dividends, rents, royalties, estates and trusts, educational assistance, alimony, child support, financial assistance from outside of the household, and other income.
- **Earnings** include gross (before any deductions) money wage or salary income and net income from farm and nonfarm self-employment.
- **Median income** and median earnings are derived by dividing the income or earnings distribution into two equal groups, so that half are above the value and half are below the value.
- **Real or adjusted dollars** have been adjusted for changes in the cost of living. For this report, all of the income numbers have been adjusted to 2000 dollars using the Consumer Price Index Research Series. Information on income and earnings in 2000 was collected in the March 2001 Current Population Survey.
- **Net worth** is the sum of the market value of assets owned by every member of a household minus liabilities (secured or unsecured) owed by the members.

Figure 12-1.
Percent Change in Real Median Household Income by Household Type: 1993 to 2000



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Surveys, March 1994 and March 2001.

From 1999 to 2000, households in metropolitan areas experienced significant gains in real median income.

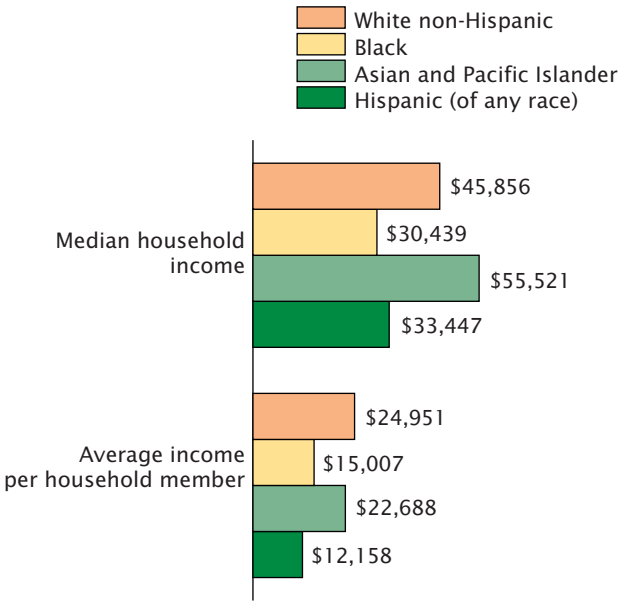
Real median income for households in metropolitan areas increased 1.7 percent, going from $44,200 in 1999 to $45,000 in 2000. This increase was driven by the 1.9 percent growth in income for households in the suburbs (from $49,300 to $50,300).[2] In contrast, the median income of households outside metropolitan areas dropped by 3.8 percent, going from $34,100 to $32,800. The median income of households located in central cities of metropolitan areas remained statistically unchanged at $37,000.

The Northeast was the only region to post a statistically significant change between 1999 and 2000. Real median household income in the Northeast increased 3.9 percent to $45,100. The South continues to have the lowest median household income among the regions — $38,400. The median household incomes in the other regions were $44,700 in the West and $44,600 in the Midwest.[3]

[2] There was no statistical difference between the 1999- to 2000-percent increases in median income for households in metropolitan areas and those in suburbs.

[3] The differences among the 2000 median household incomes for the Northeast, Midwest, and West were not statistically significant.

Figure 12-2.
Median Income for Households and Average Income Per Household Member by Race and Hispanic Origin of Householder: 2000



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2001.

The 2000 median income was the highest ever recorded in real terms for Hispanic and Black households.

Hispanic households had a median income of $33,400 in 2000, up 5.3 percent from $31,800 in 1999. Black median household income was $30,400 in 2000, up 5.5 percent from $28,800 in 1999.[4] The median incomes of White non-Hispanic ($45,900) and Asian and Pacific Islander ($55,500) households were statistically equal to the values for 1999, the highest levels ever recorded.

Even though White non-Hispanic households did not experience an increase in income between 1999 and 2000, they had experienced significant annual increases in median household income in each of the past 5 years. For Hispanic households, the increase in income between 1999 and 2000 continued the annual increases of the past 4 consecutive years. Black households experienced annual increases in income in 4 of the 6 years since 1994. Asian and Pacific

[4] There was no statistical difference between the percent increases for Black and Hispanic household income.

Islander households experienced an increase in income between 1998 and 1999, but showed no other significant annual increases in income since 1989.

Although Asians and Pacific Islanders as a group had the highest median household income in 2000, their income per household member was lower ($22,700) than for White non-Hispanic households ($25,000). Asian and Pacific Islander households typically have more people — 3.10 people on average — compared with 2.45 people for White non-Hispanic households. The income-per-household-member figures for Black (average size of 2.67 people) and Hispanic (average size of 3.49 people) households were $15,000 and $12,200, respectively.

Workers with higher educational attainment have higher earnings.

The 2000 median earnings for women aged 25 and older who worked full-time, year-round and held a bachelor's degree was $38,200. However, the median for women in this same category who held only a high school diploma or GED was $23,700. When women had some high school experience, but no diploma, the median was only $17,200. The pattern was similar for men aged 25 and older who worked full-time, year-round. When they had a bachelor's degree the median earnings in 2000 was $53,500, but for those with a high school diploma or GED it was $32,500. And for those with some high school, but no diploma, the earnings were only $24,400.

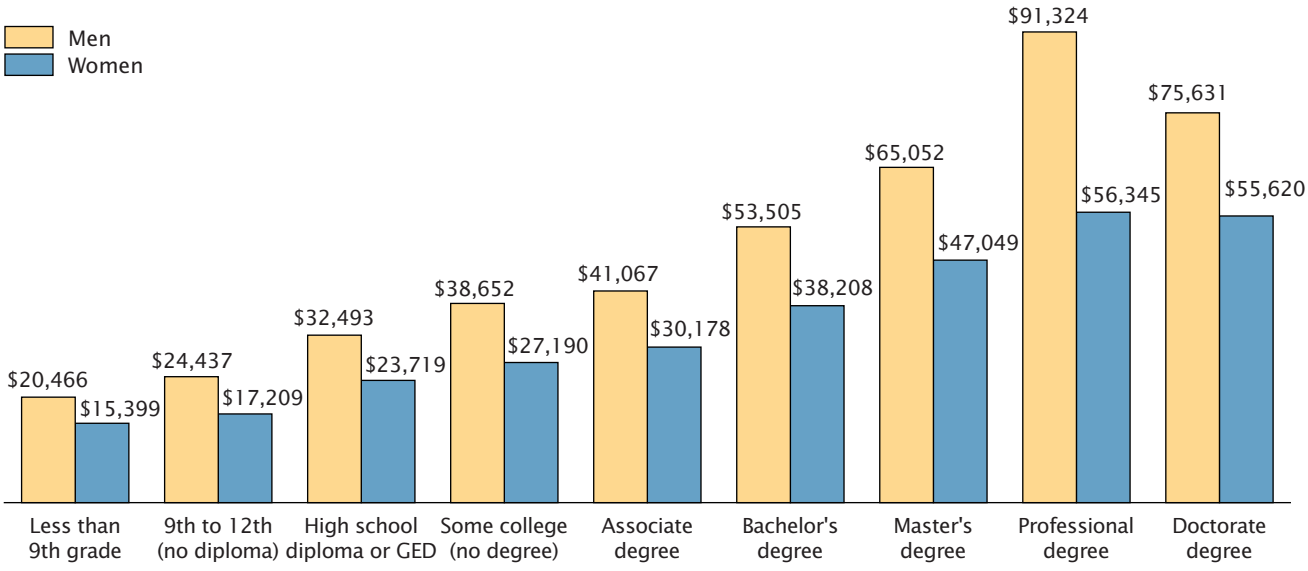
From 1999 to 2000, the real median earnings for all men who worked full-time, year-round fell 1 percent to $37,300, while the median earnings for women who worked that much remain statistically unchanged at $27,400. In 2000, women earned about 73 cents for every dollar men made, comparable to the all time high of 74 cents set in 1996.

SPOTLIGHT ON WEALTH

Income by itself is an imperfect measure of the economic health of households.

A high-income householder may be burdened with a large amount of credit-card debt. On the other hand, a low-income retired householder may live in a house with no mortgage, drive a paid-off car, and have a substantial amount of money invested in stocks. To help policymakers and others understand the relationship between income and wealth, the Census Bureau's Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP)[5]

Figure 12-3.
Median Earnings of Men and Women Aged 25 and Older Who Work Full-Time, Year-Round by Educational Attainment: 2000

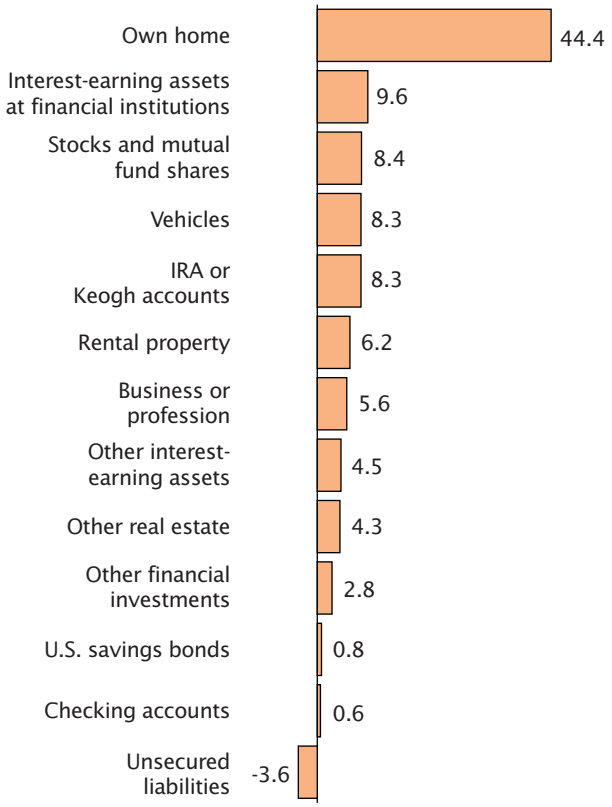


Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2001.

Figure 12-4.

Distribution of Assets and Liabilities: 1995

(Percent of total household net worth)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Wave 7 (February - May 1995) of the 1993 Panel of the Survey of Income and Program Participation.

periodically collects detailed data on the value of assets and liabilities.

While income is the flow of resources from a job, transfer program, or some other source, wealth is the level of economic resources that a person or household possesses at any given time. Net worth includes assets, such as savings and investments, real estate, and motor vehicles, minus liabilities, such as credit card debt and student loans. The economic well-being of households depends upon both income and wealth.

[5] This sidebar includes estimates that are calculated using sample data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the SIPP is the civilian noninstitutional population. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

Home equity (the value of the home net of mortgages) constitutes the largest share of household net worth, according to data collected by the SIPP between February and May 1995. Sixty-four percent of households reported owning a home in 1995 and household equity accounted for 44 percent of all household net worth. Interest-earning assets at financial institutions made up the next largest share of net worth in 1995. About 69 percent of households held this type of asset and it accounted for about 10 percent of total net worth. The remainder of net worth consisted of a variety of property and investments, including stocks and mutual funds, IRAs (Individual Retirement Accounts) and Keoghs, vehicles, rental property, and business or professional assets.

Age was an important determinant of net worth in 1995. Median net worth peaked among householders aged 65 to 69. Households maintained by someone under age 35 tend to have more income, but lower net worth than households maintained by someone aged 65 and older. Age, income, and wealth are all interrelated.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *Money Income in the United States: 2000.*
- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (*www.census.gov*). Click on "I" and select "Income" or "W" and select "Wealth/Asset Ownership of Households."
- Contact the Housing and Household Economic Statistics' Statistical Information Office at 301-457-3242 or e-mail *hhes-info@census.gov*.
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 13. IDENTIFYING NEED:

Poverty, 2000

The bad news is that 31 million people in the United States were poor in 2000. The good news is that the percentage of people in poverty (11.3 percent) is the lowest since 1979.

The poverty rate — with all its implications for health care, housing, and education — is one of this country's most important measures of well-being. Eleven percent of people in the United States were classified as poor in 2000,[1] according to the March 2001 Current Population Survey (CPS).[2] The average poverty threshold for a family of four was $17,603. The average income deficit for poor families — the amount needed to raise a family out of poverty — was $6,820. However, averages cannot adequately describe this phenomenon which visits all communities but burdens some more greatly than others.

Words That Count

- **Poverty** is defined according to the Office of Management and Budget's (OMB's) Statistical Policy Directive 14. The Census Bureau uses a set of money income thresholds that vary by family size and composition to determine who is poor. If a family's total income is less than the threshold, the family and every individual in it is considered poor. The poverty thresholds do not vary geographically, but they are updated annually for inflation using the official consumer price index. The official poverty definition counts money income before taxes and excludes capital gains and the value of noncash benefits (such as public housing, Medicaid, and food stamps). Information on poverty in 2000 was collected in the March 2001 Current Population Survey.

The poverty experience varies by family type, age group, and employment status.

Married-couple families had the lowest poverty rate (5 percent) of all family types in 2000. But because this family type is the most common, they still accounted for a large share of all poor families (42 percent). Female-householder families with no husband present had the highest poverty rate (25 percent). Although they were only 17 percent of all families, they represented 50 percent of poor families.

In 2000, the child poverty rate dropped to 16 percent — the lowest rate since 1979. However, the poverty rate for children under age 18 remained significantly higher than that for adults. Although children were only 26 percent of the total population, they represented 37 percent of the poor. Even though 1 in 6 children was poor, the ratio was 1 in 10 for both people aged 18 to 64 and those aged 65 and older.

People aged 16 and older who worked at any time during the year had a lower poverty rate than nonworkers, 6 percent compared with 20 percent. Among poor people aged 16 and older, 41 percent worked. However, the share who worked full-time, year-round was 12 percent. In the general population aged 16 and older, 70 percent worked and 47 percent were employed full-time, year-round.

Blacks and Hispanics experienced poverty rate decreases between 1999 and 2000. Among Blacks, the poverty rate fell 1½ percentage points, dropping to the lowest point since 1959, the first year these statistics were available. Blacks also had a decrease in the number of poor in 2000 — down to 7.9 million. Despite this decrease, the poverty rate for Blacks

[1] The poverty rate and the number of poor are estimates for the 2000 calendar year are based on data collected in the March 2001 Current Population Survey, conducted by the Census Bureau.

[2] This chapter includes estimates that are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base and with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

(22 percent) remained nearly three times as high as the rate for White non-Hispanics (8 percent). About 14.6 million White non-Hispanics lived in poverty in 2000.

Twenty-one percent of the Hispanic population[3] was poor in 2000 — statistically equivalent to the lowest rates recorded for this group during the 1970s. The earliest poverty rates for this group were available in 1972. The number of poor Hispanics did not change significantly between 1999 and 2000 (7.2 million in 2000).

In 2000, about 1.2 million Asians and Pacific Islanders lived in poverty. The 10.8 percent poverty rate for this population was not statistically different from the 1999 rate of 10.7 percent, but statistically equivalent to its record low. Poverty statistics on Asian and Pacific Islanders were first available in 1987.

In 2000, the native population had a lower poverty rate (11 percent) than the foreign-born population (16 percent). Among the foreign born, the poverty rate for noncitizens (19 percent) was almost double the rate for naturalized citizens (10 percent).

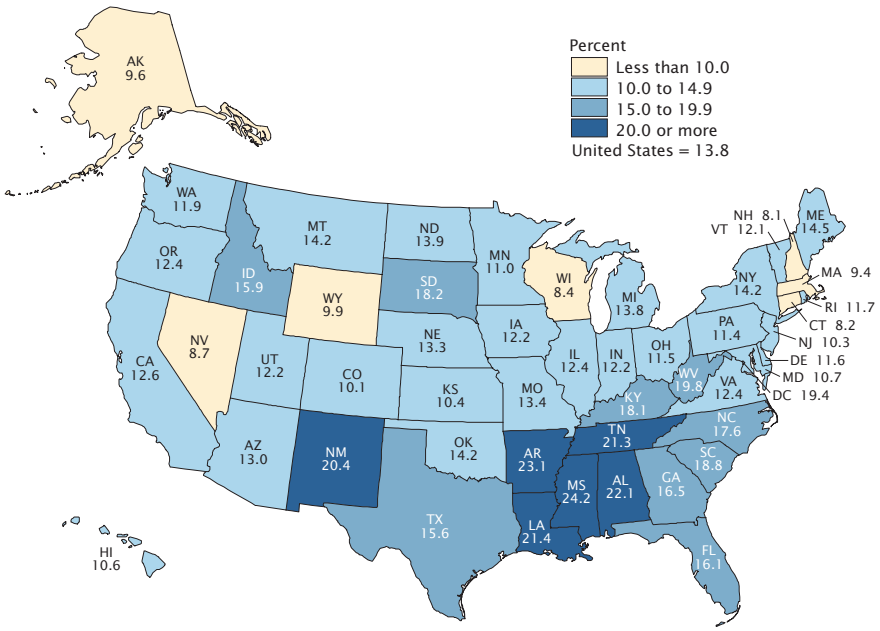
None of the four regions had a significant change in poverty rates or number of poor between 1999 and 2000. The poverty rate in 2000 was 10.3 percent for the Northeast, 9.5 percent for the Midwest, 12.5 percent for the South and 11.9 percent for the West.

[3] Hispanics may be of any race.

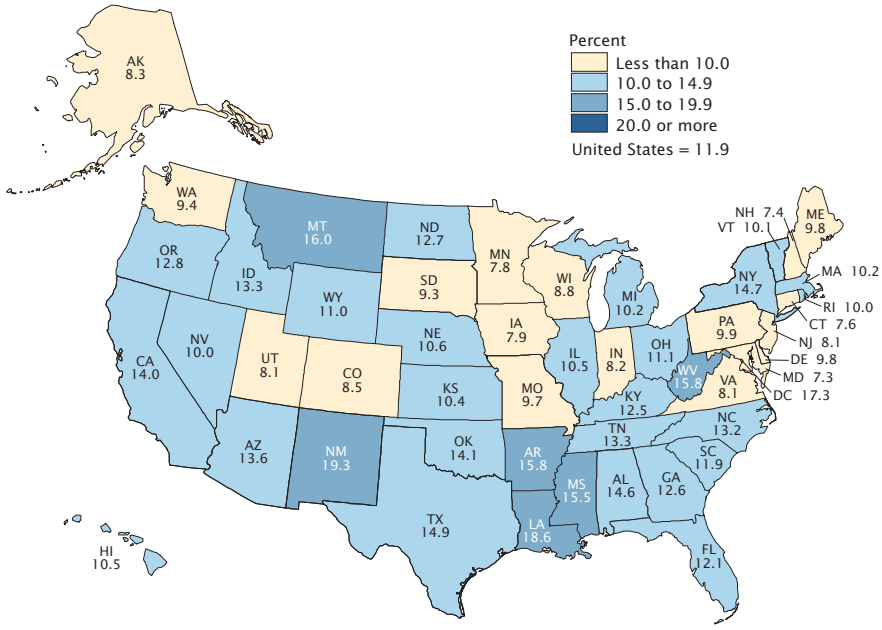
Figure 13-1.

Poverty Rate for Individuals by State: Annual Average 1980-1982 and 1998-2000

1980-82



1998-2000



Note: Numbers are 3-year averages.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Surveys, March 1981-1983 and March 1999-2001.

SPOTLIGHT ON WELFARE

About 15 percent of civilians in the United States participated in assistance programs during a typical month in 1993 and 1994.

Changes in the welfare system as a result of the Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act of 1996, also known as the welfare reform bill, have intensified the public's interest in information on the characteristics of people who participate in welfare programs. Because the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP)[4] follows individuals over time, it can track the movement of people in and out of the welfare programs.

In an average month during both 1993 and 1994, about 40 million people participated in means-tested assistance programs,[5] such as Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), General Assistance (GA), food stamps, Supplemental Security Income (SSI), Medicaid, and housing assistance. With an individual participation rate of 11 percent, Medicaid was the most frequently identified program of the major programs examined in the SIPP. In fact, people covered by Medicaid were more likely than people covered by other programs to participate for the entire 24-month period covered by this study.

The poor were much more likely than others to receive at least one type of benefit in 1994. Three out of every four people living in poverty were program participants during at least 1 month in 1994, compared with one in ten whose incomes were above the poverty threshold.

Participation rates vary dramatically among various demographic groups.

Since poverty and participation in the major programs are closely related, differences among racial and ethnic groups can, in part, be explained by differences in poverty rates. In 1994, the average monthly poverty rate was about 13 percent for Whites and 31 percent for Blacks, while their average monthly participation rates were 12 percent and 36 percent, respectively. The average monthly poverty rate was 14 percent for non-Hispanics and 31 percent for those of Hispanic origin, while their average monthly participation rates were 13 percent and 32 percent, respectively.

Children under 18 years old were more than twice as likely as older adults to receive some type of assistance. During an average month in 1994, 27 percent of children received some type of benefit, compared with 11 percent of people aged 18 to 64 and 12 percent of people aged 65 and older.[6] Children also tended to be long-term participants. Seventeen percent participated in all 24 months of the study, compared with 7 percent of people aged 18 to 64 and 10 percent of people aged 65 and older.

Individuals in households maintained by women were five times as likely to participate in means-tested programs than individuals in married-couple families — 45 percent versus 9 percent. And adults without a high

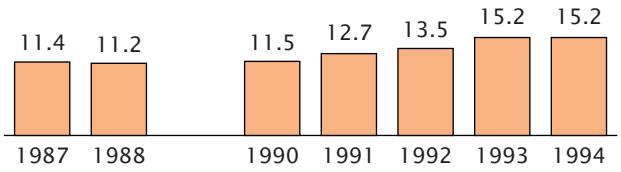
[4] This sidebar includes estimates that are calculated using sample data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the SIPP is the civilian noninstitutional population. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

[5] Means-tested programs are those that require the income and/or assets of individuals to be below a specified threshold in order to apply for cash or noncash benefits.

[6] There is no statistical difference between the percentage of people aged 18 to 64 and the percentage of people aged 65 and older who receive means-tested benefits.

Figure 13-2.
Average Monthly Participation in Means-Tested Programs: Selected Years 1987-94

(Percent of total population)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1987, 1990, 1991, and 1993 Longitudinal Files of the Survey of Income and Program Participation.

school diploma were more than twice as likely as high school graduates and five times as likely as people with some college to be participants. Their rates were 26 percent, 11 percent, and 5 percent, respectively.

Among people aged 18 and older, unemployed people and people who did not participate in the labor force were more likely to receive benefits than employed people. In an average month during 1994, 27 percent of the unemployed received benefits and 21 percent of people that same age who were not in the labor force were program participants. Only 4 percent of full-time workers and 9 percent of those with part-time jobs received some type of benefit. The unemployed may receive unemployment benefits in addition to major means-tested benefits. In 1994, 19 percent of the unemployed received unemployment compensation, while 11 percent received AFDC or GA, 17 percent were covered by Medicaid, and 20 percent received food stamps.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *Poverty in the United States: 2000* by Joseph Dalaker.
- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (*www.census.gov*). Click on "P" and select "Poverty" or "W" and select "Well-Being."
- Contact the Housing and Household Economic Statistics' Statistical Information Staff at 301-457-3242 or e-mail *hhes-info@census.gov*.
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 14.

PAYING THE BILLS:

Meeting Basic Needs, 1995

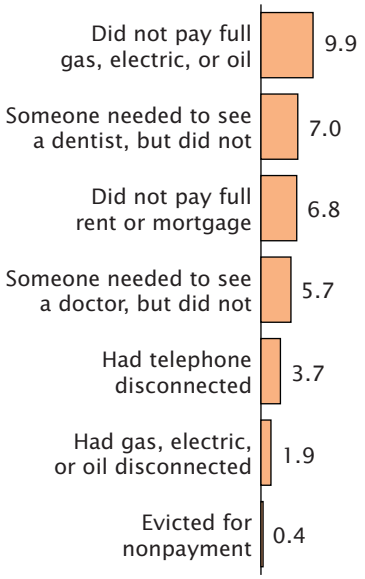
For most people who had difficulty meeting a basic need in 1995, it was not an isolated incident.

Most people have had times when paying the bills has been difficult. But what types of people find their budget exceeding their resources? How often do people end up with serious problems like not getting enough to eat or foregoing needed medical care? And where do they get help when the going gets rough? To answer these questions, the U.S. Census Bureau conducted a supplement to the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) in October 1995 through January 1996.[1]

[1] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the SIPP is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces off base or living with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

Figure 14-1.
People in Households With Difficulties Meeting Basic Needs: October 1995 - January 1996

(Percent of total population)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1993 Panel of the Survey of Income and Program Participation, October 1995 - January 1996.

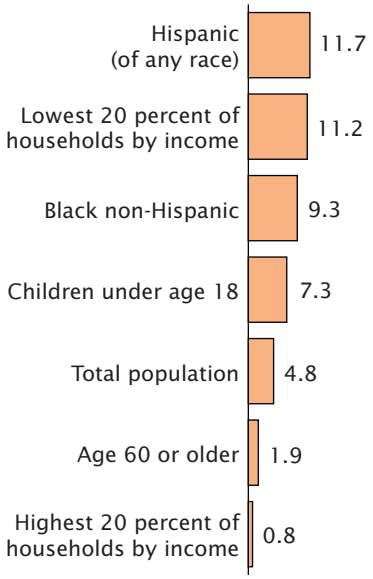
Forty-nine million people — about one person in five — lived in a household that had at least one difficulty in meeting a basic need during the year before the survey.

These included households that did not pay utility bills, did not pay the mortgage or rent, did not get needed medical attention, had a telephone or utility service shut off, were evicted, or did not get enough to eat.

When people had difficulty meeting a basic need, they often faced more than one problem at a time. In fact, 54 percent of those who had difficulties experienced more than one of these problems. Researchers who

Figure 14-2.
People With Not Enough Food in Household by Selected Characteristics: October 1995 - January 1996

(Percent of total population)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1993 Panel of the Survey of Income and Program Participation, October 1995 - January 1996.

have examined the "survival strategies" of families with limited budgets have noted that they often play one type of need against the other. They might scrimp on food to buy a Christmas present or forestall one bill to pay another.[2]

Household income, age, and other characteristics are associated with the ability to meet basic needs.

Meeting basic needs was a problem for 38 percent of people who lived in the 20 percent of households with lowest incomes. One in five people in these low-income households had difficulty with more than one basic need.

Nearly every type of difficulty was more common among children than among adults. Children were more likely than adults to live in households that did not pay gas or electric bills, did not pay the rent or mortgage, did not visit the doctor, or had telephone service disconnected. Nineteen percent of children lived in households that did not meet basic expenses, compared with 14 percent of people aged 18 to 29, 12 percent of people aged 30 to 59, and 5 percent of people aged 60 and older.

The oldest group reported that they were better able to meet basic needs even though, on average, they had low incomes. As people age, they tend to have fewer life changing events such as marriage, childbirth, job change, and migration that might lead to temporary strains on their budgets.[3] Older respondents to the SIPP may have lower expenses or they may be reluctant to admit their problems.

Other characteristics were associated with difficulties meeting basic needs. Blacks and Hispanics were more likely than White non-Hispanics to experience difficulties.[4] Greater difficulty was observed among the unemployed and people with a work disability. Renters were more likely than homeowners to encounter problems. People living in a household maintained by a woman were significantly more likely than people living in a household maintained by a man to have problems meeting basic needs.

[2] See Kathryn Edin and Laura Lein, *Making Ends Meet: How Single Mothers Survive Welfare and Low-Wage Work*, New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1997.

[3] For a discussion of this point, see Ronald R. Rindfuss, "The Young Adult Years: Diversity, Structural Change, and Fertility," *Demography*, November 1991.

[4] The Black population in this section of this report excludes Hispanics. Hispanics may be of any race

In 1995, 1 person in 20 lived in a household where everyone did not get enough to eat.

When food shortfalls occurred, they were fairly large. On average, respondents reporting food shortages said this condition lasted for over a week. It would have taken an average of $100 for these households to bring their food budgets into balance during the month that they were in need. Not getting enough food was strongly associated with income, age, race, and Hispanic origin.

Whether or not respondents needed assistance, they were asked where they would go if they had a problem. However, what people anticipated sharply contrasted with what actually happened when people were in need. Although 77 percent of all respondents said help would be available from some source, only 17 percent of those who had financial difficulties received help. And even though 88 percent of respondents who believed help would be forthcoming thought it would come from family, only 43 percent of those in need received help from this source. Community agencies were the source of help for 44 percent of needy respondents.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *Extended Measures of Well-Being: Meeting Basic Needs: 1995* by Kurt Bauman.
- Look for the complete report on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (*www.census.gov*). Click on "W" and select "Well-Being." Under "Extended Measures of Well-Being," click on "Extended Measures of Well-Being, Meeting Basic Needs."
- Contact the Census Bureau's Education and Social Stratification Branch at 301-457-2464 or e-mail *pop@census.gov.*
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 15.

PEOPLE AT RISK:

Health Insurance Coverage, 2000

Despite Medicaid, 30 percent of the poor had no health insurance of any kind during 2000 — about twice the share that went without insurance among the general population.

Most Americans have some type of health insurance and many people are covered by more than one provider. However, some segments of the population are particularly likely to lack coverage. The degree to which Americans are not covered by health insurance is an important measure of our country's well-being.

Employment-based private health insurance plans covered 64 percent of people in the United States in 2000, according to the Current Population Survey (CPS).[1] Twenty-four percent of Americans were covered by a government health plan, including Medicare (13 percent), Medicaid (10 percent), and military health insurance (3 percent). Many people were covered by more than one plan. Even so, 14 percent of the population lacked health insurance coverage for the entire year.

The share of the population without health insurance during the entire year declined from 14.3 in 1999 to 14.0 percent in 2000.[2] The number of people without health insurance coverage dropped by 0.6 million, leaving 38.7 million people uninsured.

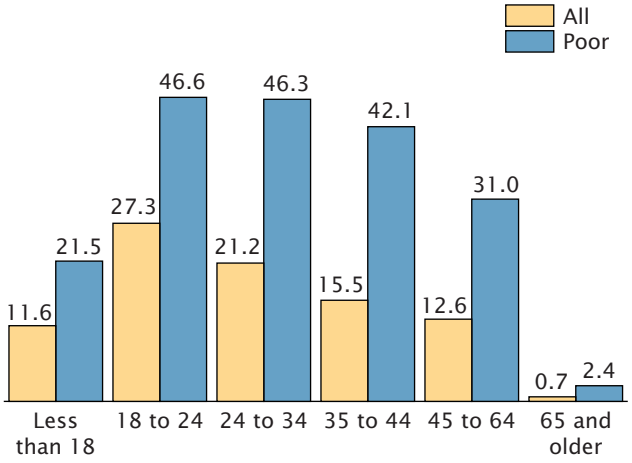
The chance of being uninsured varied by race and ethnicity, age, and employment status. About 12 percent of children under age 18 in the United States — 8.5 million young people — lacked coverage for the year. However, the poor were more likely to be uninsured in every category.

Race, ethnicity, and country of birth are key factors that influenced health insurance coverage.

Ten percent of White non-Hispanics lacked health insurance coverage in 2000. The rate was 19 percent

Figure 15-1.
People Without Health Insurance Coverage for the Entire Year, by Age and Poverty Status: 2000

(Percent of people in age group)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2001.

Words That Count

- **Private health insurance** is privately purchased insurance or health insurance offered through employment (either one's own or a relative's).
- **Government health insurance** includes Medicare, Medicaid, and military insurance, such as CHAMPUS or TRICARE.

[1] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey, weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base and with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

[2] These estimates reflect the results of followup health insurance verification questions, first implemented in the March 2000 Current Population Survey (CPS). Accordingly, the Census Bureau revised the estimates of health insurance coverage rates in 1999. As a result, the health insurance estimates for 1999 presented in this report differ from those published in last year's version of this report. These estimates are also not directly comparable with CPS estimates from earlier years, before the health insurance verification questions were added.

for Blacks and 18 percent for Asians and Pacific Islanders.[3] Among people of Hispanic origin,[4] 32 percent lacked health insurance coverage for all of 2000.

Among the native population in the United States, 12 percent were not covered by health insurance in 2000. However, 16 percent of naturalized citizens and 41 percent of noncitizens were not covered at any time during the year. Among poor noncitizens, 61 percent did not have health insurance.

Age was another important factor. With 27 percent uninsured, young adults, aged 18 to 24, were more likely than any other age group to lack coverage during the entire year. Because of Medicare, the elderly were at the other extreme with only about 1 percent lacking coverage. Children aged 12 to 17 were slightly more likely than younger children to lack health insurance, 12 percent compared with 11 percent. Among poor children, 22 percent were not covered in 2000.

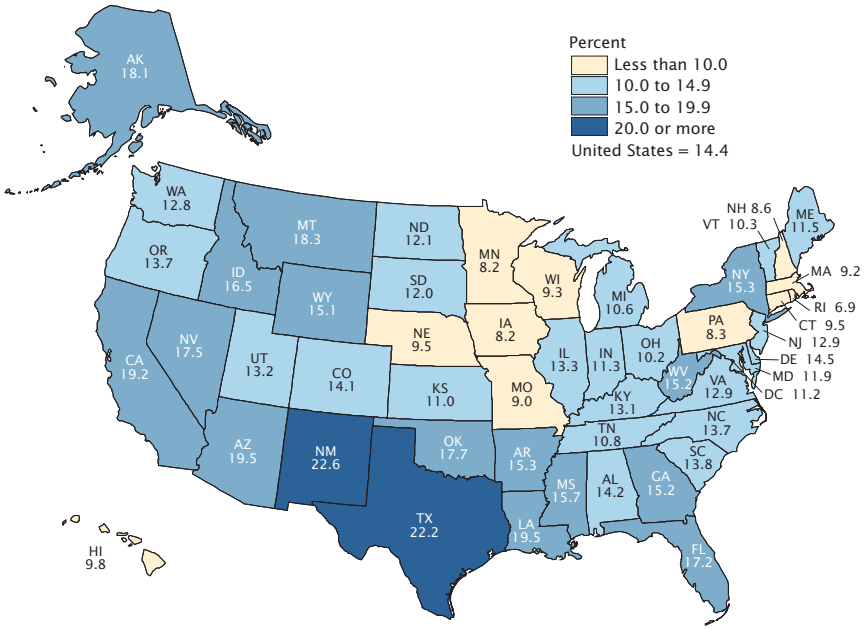
Employment status and income were also important. Among people aged 18 to 64 who were employed full time, about 15 percent lacked health insurance. However, the rate was 21 percent for people in the same age group who worked part time.[5] Poor workers were even less likely to be insured. Almost half (48 percent) of poor, full-time workers were uninsured in 2000.

Noncoverage rates fell as income rose. In 2000, only 7 percent of people who lived in households with annual incomes of $75,000 or more lacked insurance, compared with 23 percent of people who lived in households with incomes less than $25,000.

Coverage rates varied among the 50 states, as shown by the data from 1998 to 2000. Health insurance coverage rates were the highest in Rhode Island — where only one person in fourteen lacked health insurance coverage. On the other end of the scale were New Mexico and Texas — where one out of every four or five people was not covered.[5]

Figure 15-2.

People Without Health Insurance Coverage Throughout the Year by State: Annual Averages 1998-2000



Note: Numbers are 3-year averages.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Surveys, March 1999 through March 2001.

[3] The health insurance coverage rate for Blacks did not significantly differ from the rate for Asians and Pacific Islanders.

[4] Hispanics may be of any race.

[5] Workers were classified as part time if they worked less than 35 hours per week in the majority of weeks they worked in 1999.

[5] The estimates for New Mexico and Texas are not statistically different from each other. Because estimates contain sampling variation, the Census Bureau does not recommend ranking the states according to the estimates.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *Health Insurance Coverage: 2000* by Robert J. Mills.
- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov).* Click on "H" and select "Health Insurance."
- Contact the Housing and Household Economic Statistics' Statistical Information Office at 301-457-3242 or e-mail *hhes-info@census.gov.*
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 16.

OUR DIVERSE POPULATION:

Race and Hispanic Origin, 2000

In addition to the numerous official uses for information on race and Hispanic origin, many people are interested in learning about the demographic characteristics of their own population group.

A school system might use information on race and Hispanic origin to design cultural activities that reflect diversity in the community. A business could use it to select the mix of merchandise it will sell in a new store. All levels of government need information on race and Hispanic origin to implement and evaluate programs, such as the Equal Employment Opportunity Act, the Civil Rights Act, the Voting Rights Act, the Public Health Act, the Healthcare Improvement Act, the Job Partnership Training Act, the Equal Credit Opportunity Act, the Fair Housing Act, and others.

A question on race has been asked in U.S. censuses since 1790, but a question on Hispanic origin has been asked only since 1970. A new racial standard that permits respondents to select one or more racial categories was approved by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) in 1997 and introduced in Census 2000. However, the Current Population Survey (CPS) will not collect data on one or more races until 2003.

Words That Count

- **Racial and Hispanic origin classifications** used in this report adhere to Office of Management and Budget (OMB), Federal Statistical Policy Directive No. 15: "Race and Ethnic Standards for Federal Agencies and Administrative Reporting," Federal Register 43:19269-19270, May 4, 1978. New standards were adopted by OMB in October 1997 and will be implemented by all federal agencies no later than January 1, 2003. OMB sets the standards for federal statistics and administrative reporting on race and ethnicity.

- **Race** is based on self-identification by the respondents (the householder or someone who may be reporting race in his or her absence) in the Current Population Survey through a question that asks for an individual race. There are four groups including: White, Black, American Indian and Alaska Native, and Asian and Pacific Islander.

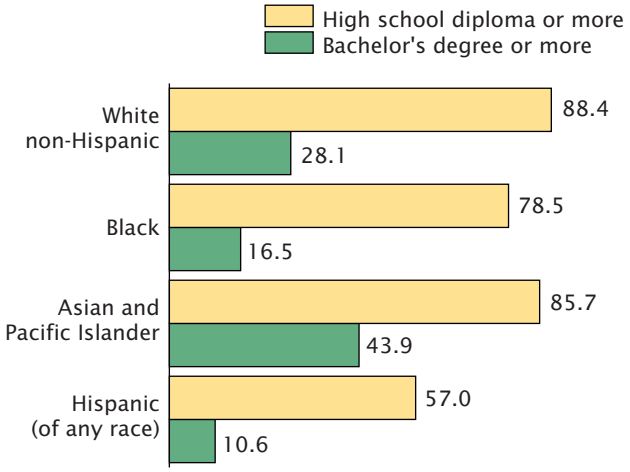
- **Hispanic origin** is based on self-identification by respondents (the householder or someone who may be reporting Hispanic origin in his or her absence) in the Current Population Survey through a question that asks for an individual's origin or descent. People of Hispanic origin are those who indicated that their origin was Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, or some other Hispanic origin. People of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

- **Non-Hispanic** refers to all people whose ethnicity is not Hispanic. Race and ethnicity are separate concepts, so the racial categories of White, Black, American Indian and Alaska Native, and Asian and Pacific Islander all contain some people of Hispanic origin. In this chapter and throughout most of this report, the term **White non-Hispanic** is used to indicate the White population minus that part of this group that is of Hispanic origin.

- **The civilian labor force** consists of all noninstitutionalized civilians aged 16 and older who are either working or looking for work (unemployed). The data in this report are for March 2000 and are not adjusted for seasonal changes. Therefore, they may not agree with data released by the Department of Labor.

Figure 16-1.
High School and College Graduates by Race and Hispanic Origin: 2000

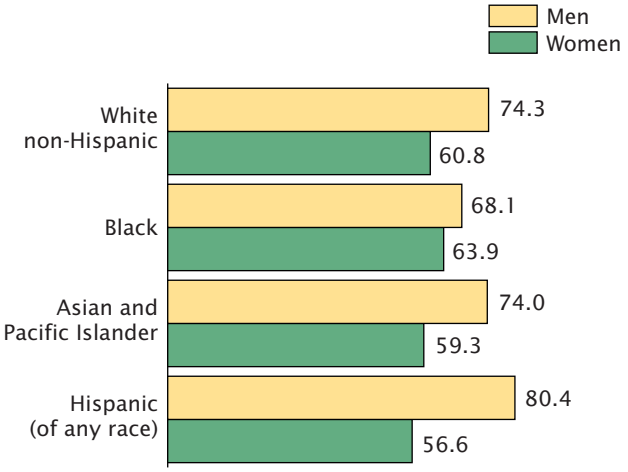
(Percent of the population aged 25 and older)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

Figure 16-2.
Civilian Labor Force Participation Rates by Sex, Race, and Hispanic Origin: 2000

(Percent of population aged 16 and older)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

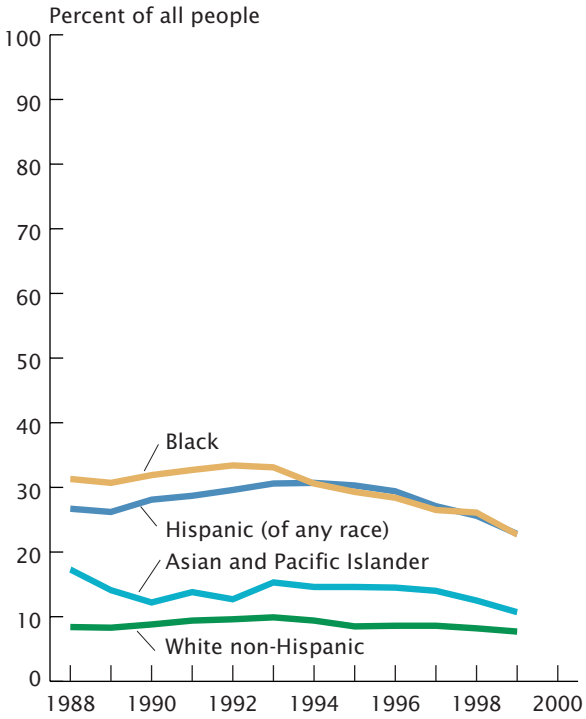
This section presents data from the CPS and provides valuable information on White non-Hispanics, Blacks, Asians and Pacific Islanders, and Hispanics.[1]

While these broad race and ethnic categories provide an overview of each population, they also mask many differences within each group. Every group contains new immigrants, urban and rural populations, and people from different cultures. The Asian and Pacific Islander population is made up of many different groups of people, including Asian Indians, Filipinos, Koreans, Native Hawaiians, and Samoans. Many of the people in some groups, such as the Chinese and Japanese, have been in the United States for generations. Other groups, such as the Hmong, Vietnamese, Laotians, and Cambodians, are comparatively recent arrivals to this country. People of Hispanic origin share an ethnicity, but may be of any race. Hispanics include Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans, South and Central Americans, and others with markedly different characteristics.

Educational attainment varies among the racial and ethnic groups.[2]

Among the population 25 years old and older, 86 percent of Asian and Pacific Islanders had at least completed high school, compared with 88 percent of White

Figure 16-3.
Poverty Rates for Individuals by Race and Hispanic Origin: 1988-99



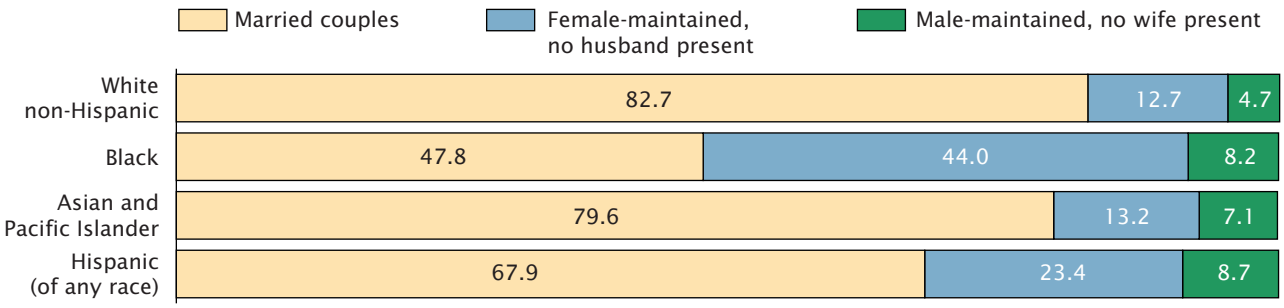
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Surveys, March 1989 to 2000.

[1] Although the Census Bureau produces intercensal estimates on the American Indian and Alaska Native population, the sample size of the Current Population Survey is too small to produce reliable estimates of characteristics for this group.

[2] See the chapter on Educational Attainment for more information.

Figure 16-4.
Family Type by Race and Hispanic Origin of Householder: 2000

(Percent distribution)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

non-Hispanics, according to the Current Population Survey.[3] However, 44 percent of Asians and Pacific Islanders in this age group held at least a bachelor's degree, compared with 28 percent of White non-Hispanics.

The proportion of the Black population aged 25 and older with a high school diploma, 79 percent, was 10 percentage points lower than the proportion among White non-Hispanics — a significant improvement over 1989 when the difference was 16 percentage points. In 2000, 17 percent of Blacks held a bachelor's degree or more.

In 2000, 57 percent of Hispanics had a high school diploma or better and 11 percent held at least a bachelor's degree. The share of Hispanics holding a high school diploma increased 6 percentage points since 1989, while the share holding a bachelor's degree or better was not significantly different from 11 years earlier.

In 2000, civilian labor force participation rates differed among the racial and ethnic groups and between men and women.

In March 2000, the share of men (74 percent) aged 16 and older who were working or looking for work was about the same for both White non-Hispanics and Asian and Pacific Islanders. And the difference in labor force participation rates between White non-Hispanic women and Asian and Pacific Islander women was also not statistically different, 61 percent compared with 59 percent. Sixty-eight percent of Black men and 64 percent of Black women were labor force participants, as were 80 percent of Hispanic men and 57 percent of Hispanic women.

The unemployment rates for White non-Hispanic and Asian and Pacific Islander men and women were not statistically different. Among White non-Hispanics it was 4 percent for men and 3 percent for women. Among Asians and Pacific Islanders it was 4 percent for both men and women. However, the unemployment rates were significantly higher in Hispanic and Black communities. Among Hispanic labor force participants, 6 percent of men and 8 percent of women were looking for work. And the unemployment rate was 8 percent for Black men and 7 percent for Black women.[4]

Poverty is a fact of life for every racial and ethnic group.[5]

While 8 percent of White non-Hispanics were poor in 1999, 11 percent of Asians and Pacific Islanders, 23 percent of Hispanics, and 24 percent of Blacks were poor.[6] Child poverty rates were generally higher: 9 percent for White non-Hispanic, 30 percent for Hispanic, and 33 percent for Black children.[7] However, the poverty rate for Asian and Pacific Islander children

[3] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program or the 2000 decennial census.

[4] Black male and female unemployment rates are not statistically different and there is no statistical difference between the unemployment rates for Black and Hispanic women.

[5] The 2000 Current Population Survey collects poverty statistics for 1999. See the chapter on poverty for more information.

[6] There is no statistical difference between the poverty rates for Blacks and Hispanics.

[7] There is no statistical difference between the child poverty rates for Blacks and Hispanics.

(12 percent)[8] was not statistically different than the total poverty rate for that group.

In 1999, Asian and Pacific Islander families were much more likely than White non-Hispanic families to live in poverty (10 percent and 6 percent, respectively). But the poverty rate was about 20 percent for Hispanic families and 22 percent for Black families.

Married couples have lower poverty rates than other types of families.[9] About 83 percent of White non-Hispanic families and 80 percent of Asian families were maintained by married couples. Married couples represented 68 percent of Hispanic families and fewer than half of all Black families.

Among both White non-Hispanic and Asian and Pacific Islander families, 13 percent were maintained by women with no husband present. Also, 44 percent of Black families and 23 percent of Hispanic families were this type. Families maintained by women with no husband present are among the poorest.

The racial and ethnic composition of the United States is changing.

To find out more about how many people are in each group and how they are distributed throughout the United States, see the chapter on population distribution. Many chapters in this report contain information by race and ethnicity. The most detailed information can be found in the specific reports listed below.

[8] There is no statistical difference between the child poverty rates for White Non-Hispanics and Asians and Pacific Islanders.

[9] See the chapter on income and poverty for more information.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Reports: *The Hispanic Population in the United States: March 2000* by Melissa Therrien and Roberto R. Ramirez; *The Black Population in the United States: March 1999* by Jesse D. McKinnon; and *The Asian and Pacific Islander Population in the United States: March 1999* by Karen Humes and Jesse D. McKinnon. Also see the detailed tables for *The Black Population in the United States: March 2000 (Update)* and *The Asian and Pacific Islander Population in the United States: March 2000 (Update)*.

- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site (www.census.gov). Click on "H" for "Hispanic" and "R" for "Race."

- Contact the Ethnic and Hispanic Statistics Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2403 or the Racial Statistics Branch at 301-457-2402 or e-mail pop@census.gov.

- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 17.

ADDING DIVERSITY FROM ABROAD:

The Foreign-Born Population, 2000

About 10 percent of Americans are foreign born — less than the highest share during the last century (15 percent in 1910), but more than the lowest share (5 percent in 1970).

Having all the facts on America's growing cultural diversity is essential for good government and good business. In some parts of the country, the characteristics of the foreign-born population must be taken into account when developing educational programs, designing street signs, and providing social services. However, this population defies generalization, because it is both diverse and rapidly changing.

Changes in the immigration laws from 1965 to 1990 contributed to increased migration from abroad and generated greater diversity among the newcomers. The foreign-born population in the United States grew from 10 million in 1970,[1] the lowest total in the 20th century, to 14 million in 1980, and 20 million in 1990. By March 2000, the estimated foreign-born population in the United States was 28 million, according to the Current Population Survey (CPS).[2]

[1] The number of people in the United States who were foreign born was 9.6 million in 1970 and 9.7 million in 1960.

[2] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program or the 2000 decennial census.

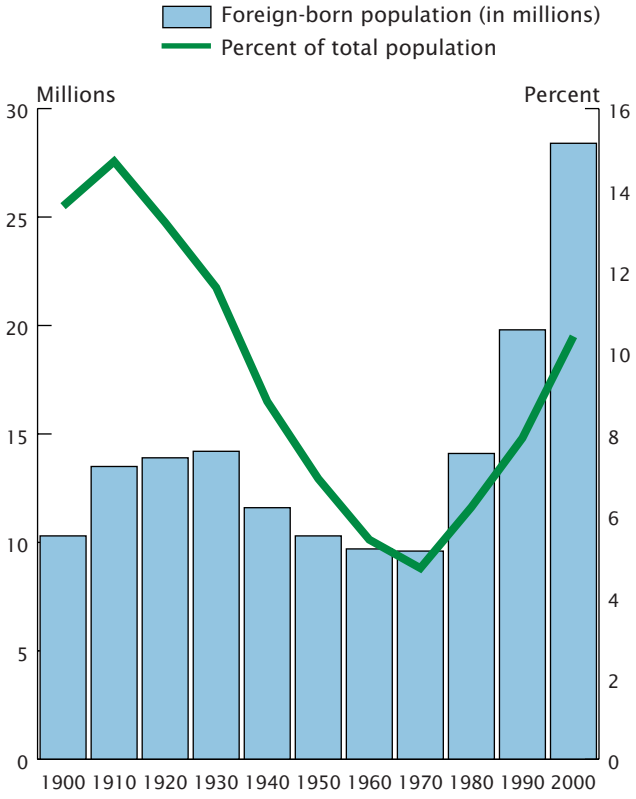
Words That Count

- **The foreign-born population** refers to people who were not U.S. citizens at birth.
- **The native population** refers to people who were either born in the United States or a U.S. Island Area, such as Puerto Rico, or who were born abroad of a U.S. citizen parent.

Since 1970, the composition of the foreign-born population has changed dramatically.

Between 1970 and 2000, the share of foreign-born U.S. residents from Europe dropped from 62 percent to 15 percent. Over the same period, the share of the foreign-born from Asia grew from 9 percent to 25 percent, and the share from Latin America increased from 19 percent to 51 percent. In 2000, two-thirds of foreign-born Latin Americans were from Central America (including Mexico).

Figure 17-1.
The Foreign-Born Population: 1900-2000



Source: U.S Census Bureau, decennial censuses, 1900 to 1990 and Current Population Survey, March 2000.

Thirty-nine percent of the foreign-born population entered the United States in 1990 or later and 28 percent in the 1980s. More than one in three foreign-born residents of the United States were naturalized citizens. Among those who entered the country before 1970, 80 percent were naturalized.

Significant differences exist between the foreign-born and native populations, as well as important differences among the major foreign-born population groups.

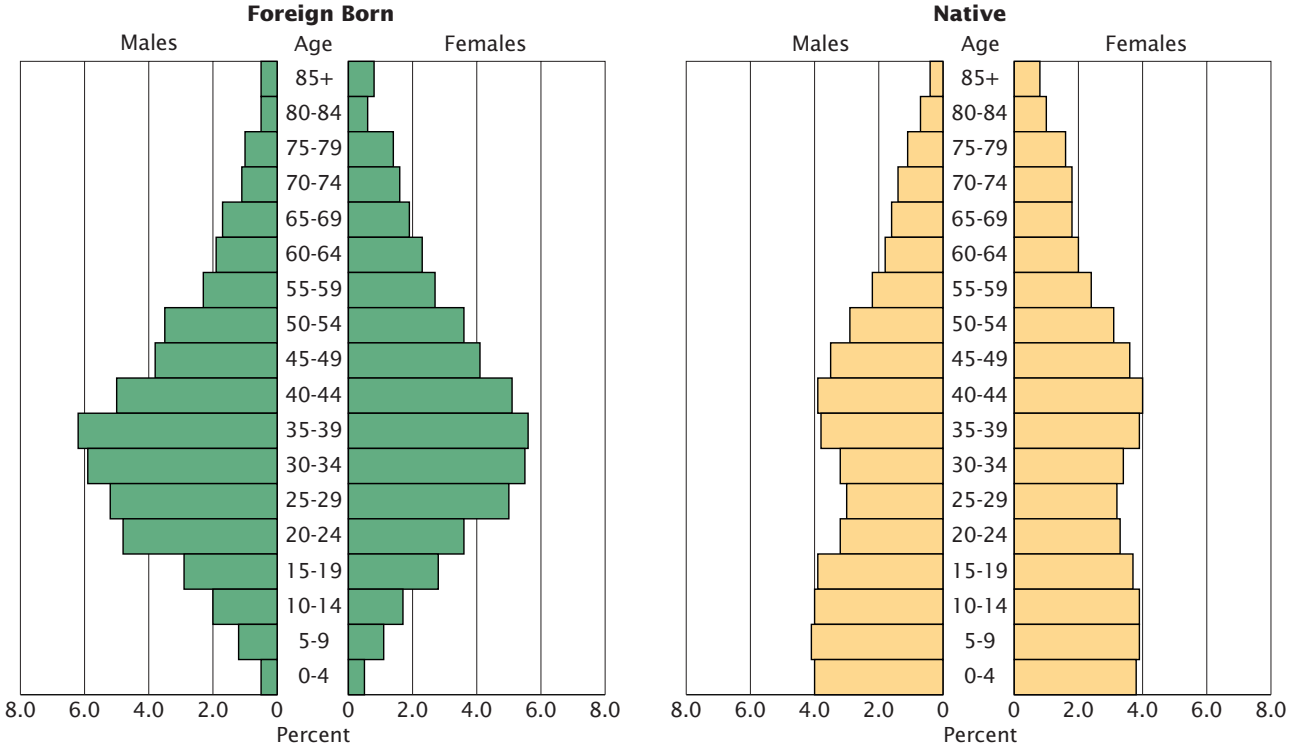
In 2000, 79 percent of foreign-born residents in the United States were aged 18 to 64, compared with 60 percent of native residents. The foreign-born population was particularly concentrated in the group aged 25 to 44. Although 44 percent of the foreign-born were in this age group, only 29 percent of the native population were. Relatively few of the foreign-born were less than 18 years old — 10 percent, compared with 28 percent among the native population. The primary reason for this disparity is that most of the foreign-born arrive in this country as adults and their children who are born here are U.S. citizens.

In 2000, 27 percent of family households maintained by a foreign-born householder had five or more members, compared with 13 percent of family households maintained by a native-born householder. Among family households with a Central American householder, 42 percent were this large, compared with only 10 percent of those with a European householder.

The foreign-born were less likely than the native population to have a high school diploma. Among the population aged 25 and older, 67 percent of the foreign-born were high school graduates, compared with 87 percent of the native-born population. The high school graduation rates ranged from 84 percent for those from Asia to 50 percent for those from Latin America.

The 1999 poverty rate was 17 percent for the foreign-born population, compared with 11 percent for the

Figure 17-2.
Population by Nativity, Age, and Sex: 2000
(In percent)[1]



[1]Each bar represents the population within a specified sex and age group, as a percent of the total foreign born or native population.
Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

native population.[3] Those without U.S. citizenship were more than twice as likely as naturalized citizens to be living below the poverty level (21 percent compared with 9 percent). Poverty rates for the foreign-born population ranged from 9 percent for Europeans to 22 percent for Latin Americans. Yet these figures masked further differences within each group. For example, among Latin Americans, the poverty rate for Central Americans (24 percent) was twice as high as the rate for South Americans (12 percent).

[3] The March 2000 Current Population Survey collected poverty statistics for 1999.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *The Foreign Born Population in the United States: March 2000* by Lisa Lollock.
- Look for complete reports and detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov)*. Click on "F" and select "Foreign-Born Population Data."
- Contact the Ethnic and Hispanic Statistics Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2403 or e-mail *pop@census.gov*.
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 18. KEEPING UP WITH OLDER ADULTS:

Older Adults, 2000

The characteristics of the older population are heavily influenced by the fact that women live longer than men.

A child born in the United States at the beginning of the 20th century might expect to live 47 years.[1] By the end of the century, life expectancy increased to 74 for men and 79 for women.[2] Futurists debate whether the rapidly growing older population[3] will burden the health care system or trick it by becoming the healthiest generation ever. Today's older adults — those aged 55 and older — are an important consumer market, as well as an influential political force.[4] The U.S. Census Bureau plays an essential role in getting the facts on this dynamic population of older adults.

In 2000, 25 million men and 31 million women were aged 55 and older.

For every 100 women aged 55 and older in 2000, there were only 81 men. This sex ratio dropped steadily with age, according to the March 2000 Current Population Survey (CPS).[5] For the group aged 55 to 64, there were 91 men for every 100 women. But among people aged 85 and older, there were only 50 men for every 100 women.

Women's longer life span is one reason why older women are more likely to be widowed than older men. Among the population aged 55 and older, 32 percent of women and only 9 percent of men were widowed in 2000. The likelihood that a woman was widowed rose rapidly with age: 12 percent for those aged 55 to 64, 41 percent for those aged 65 to 84, and 79 percent for women aged 85 and older.[6]

Men aged 55 and older were more likely than women that age to be married and living with their spouses in 2000. Among those aged 55 to 64, 76 percent of men and 65 percent of women were married. The gap widened among the older groups. Although 74 percent of men aged 65 to 84 were married, just 45 percent of women that age were. The percent married among the population aged 85 and older was lower for both sexes, 53 percent for men and 12 percent for women.[7]

College graduation rates, labor force participation rates, and poverty rates differ significantly among older men and women.

For most age groups above age 55, there was no significant difference between the share of men and women who had completed high school. However, older men were more likely than older women to have

Words That Count

- **Life expectancy at birth** is the average number of years that a person would live if he or she experienced the mortality rate at each year of age experienced by the actual population in a specific year.
- **The sex ratio** is the number of men per 100 women. The ratio was about 96 for the United States as a whole in 2000.

[1] The average life expectancy at birth in 1900 was 46 for men and 48 for women.

[2] Source: U.S. National Center for Health Statistics, *Vital Statistics of the United States*, annual, and *National Vital Statistics Reports* (NVSR).

[3] See chapter on population distribution for population by age.

[4] See chapter on voting.

[5] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their family on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program, or the 2000 decennial census.

[6] The proportion of widowed women aged 55 and older and the proportion of widowed men aged 85 and older is not significantly different. The proportion of widowed women aged 55 to 64 and the proportion of widowed men aged 65 to 84 is not significantly different. The proportion of widowed women aged 65 to 84 and the proportion of widowed men aged 85 and older is not significantly different.

[7] The proportion of married women aged 55 and older is not significantly different from the proportion of married women aged 65 to 84 or the proportion of married men aged 85 and older. The married women aged 65 to 84 is not significantly different from the proportion of married men aged 85 and older.

completed a bachelor's degree or higher. Among people aged 55 to 64, 28 percent of men and 19 percent of women held a bachelor's degree. College graduates accounted for 22 percent of men and 11 percent of women aged 65 to 84 and 17 percent of men and 11 percent of women aged 85 and older.

The proportion of older people working or looking for work decreased with age. In 2000, 75 percent of men aged 55 to 59 were in the civilian labor force, compared with 63 percent of women in this age group. By age 60 to 64, the shares dropped to 57 percent and 41 percent, respectively. Among people aged 65 and older, only 19 percent of men and 10 percent of women were labor force participants.

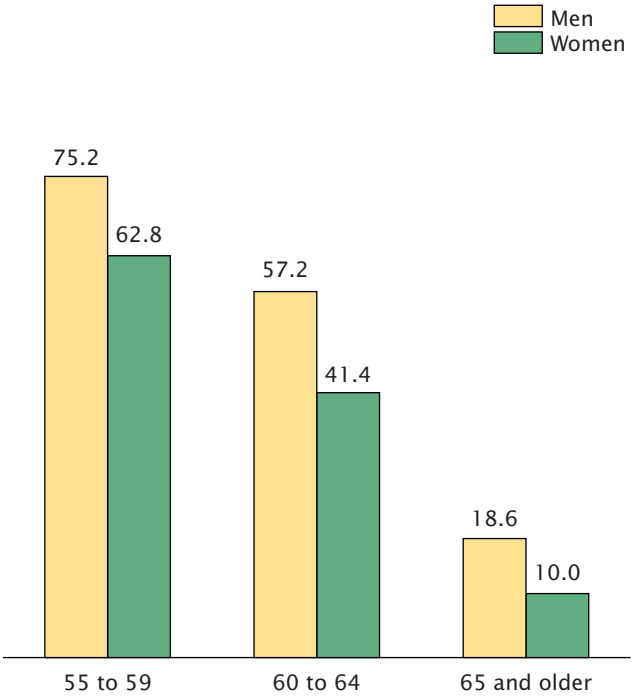
Of the 56 million people aged 55 and older, 9.6 percent were poor in 1999.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: 2001. *The Older Population in the United States: March 1999* by Denise Smith and Hava Tillipman.
- Look for complete reports and updated detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov).* Click on "O" and select "Older (55+) Population Data."
- Contact the Special Populations Branch of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2378 or e-mail *pop@census.gov.*
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Figure 18-1.
Labor Force Participation Rates for Men and Women Aged 55 and Older by Age: 2000

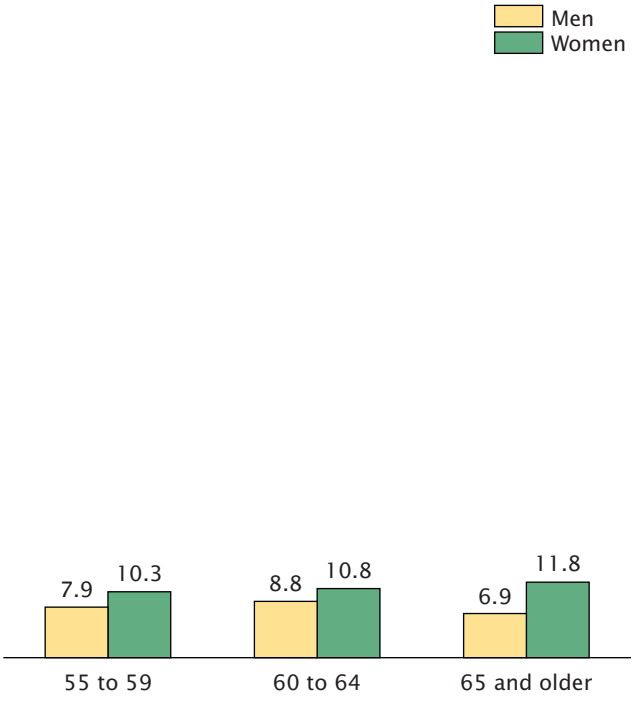
(Percent of population in each age group)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

Figure 18-2.
Poverty Rates for Men and Women Aged 55 and Older by Age: 2000

(Percent of population in each age group)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

Chapter 19.

MEETING THE CHALLENGE:

Americans With Disabilities, 1997

Among the 53 million adults with disabilities in the United States in 1997, 33 million had a severe disability and 10 million needed assistance in their daily lives.

Disability touches many lives — not just the lives of people who must assume their own personal challenge, but also the lives of their families, friends, and coworkers. With one adult in five living with a disability, according to the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP),[1] the consequences are enormous. Information on people with disabilities is sought after by health care providers, manufacturers of assistive devices, and policy makers.

In 1997, almost one in five adults had some type of disability and the likelihood of having a disability increased with age.

Among those aged 45 to 54, 23 percent had some form of a disability and 14 percent had a severe disability. Only 4 percent needed personal assistance. For those aged 80 and older, the proportion increased to 74 percent with some disability, 58 percent with a severe disability, and 35 percent needing assistance.

Among adults under age 25, women were less likely than men to have a disability. However, the relationship reversed for older adults. Because women made up a larger share of older adults than men, they also made up a larger share of people with disabilities. Among all adults, 24 million people with disabilities were men and 28 million were women. Among people with a severe disability 15 million were men and 18 million were women.

[1] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation, weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. As such, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program or the 2000 decennial census.

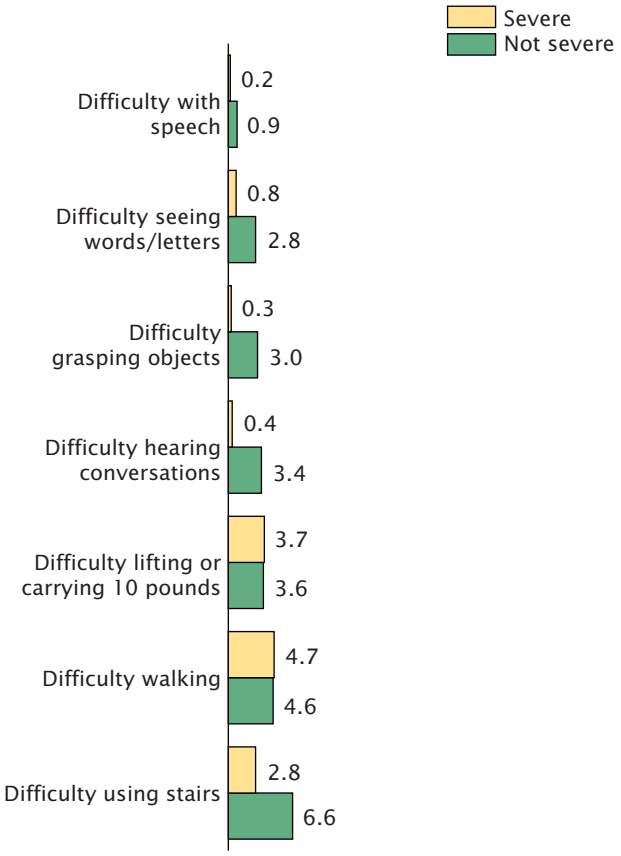
Words That Count

- **Adults with disabilities** are individuals, aged 15 and older, who meet one or more of the criteria below. An individual would have a **severe disability** if he or she met criteria 1, 4, or 6 or were unable to perform or needed help to perform one or more of the activities in criteria 2, 3, or 5:
  1) Use a wheelchair, cane, crutches, or a walker.
  2) Have difficulty seeing, hearing, speaking, or performing physical activities.
  3) Have difficulty performing one or more selected everyday activities (see ADLs and IADLs below).
  4) Have a mental or emotional condition that seriously interferes with everyday activities.
  5) Have a condition that limits working around the house or working at a job.
  6) Receive federal benefits based on an inability to work.
- **ADLs (activities of daily living)** include getting around inside the home, getting in or out of bed or a chair, bathing, dressing, eating, or toileting.
- **IADLs (instrumental activities of daily living)** include going outside the home, keeping track of money and bills, preparing meals, doing light housework, taking prescription medicines in the right amount at the right time, and using the telephone.
- **Children with disabilities** include those with developmental delays that cause children to be unable to perform activities that other children that same age perform. They also include physical disabilities that inhibit arm and leg movement among children under age 3 and interfere with running and playing among those aged 3 to 5.

Figure 19-1.

Disabilities Among Individuals Aged 15 and Older by Type and Severity: 1997

(Percent of population aged 15 and older)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 Panel of the Survey of Income and Program Participation, August - November 1997.

People with severe disabilities were more likely than others to be in financial need, according to the SIPP.

Among people aged 25 to 64 with no disability, slightly more than one person in one hundred received some type of cash assistance in 1997. Among those with a severe disability, one in four received cash assistance. Twenty percent received Supplemental Security Income (SSI) and 6 percent received some other cash assistance.

People with severe disabilities were also more likely than those without disabilities to receive food stamps or subsidized housing. Sixteen percent of people aged 25 to 64 with severe disabilities received food stamps compared with 2 percent of people in that age group with no disabilities. Within this age group, 9 percent of people with severe disabilities lived in public or subsidized housing compared with 2 percent of those with no disabilities.

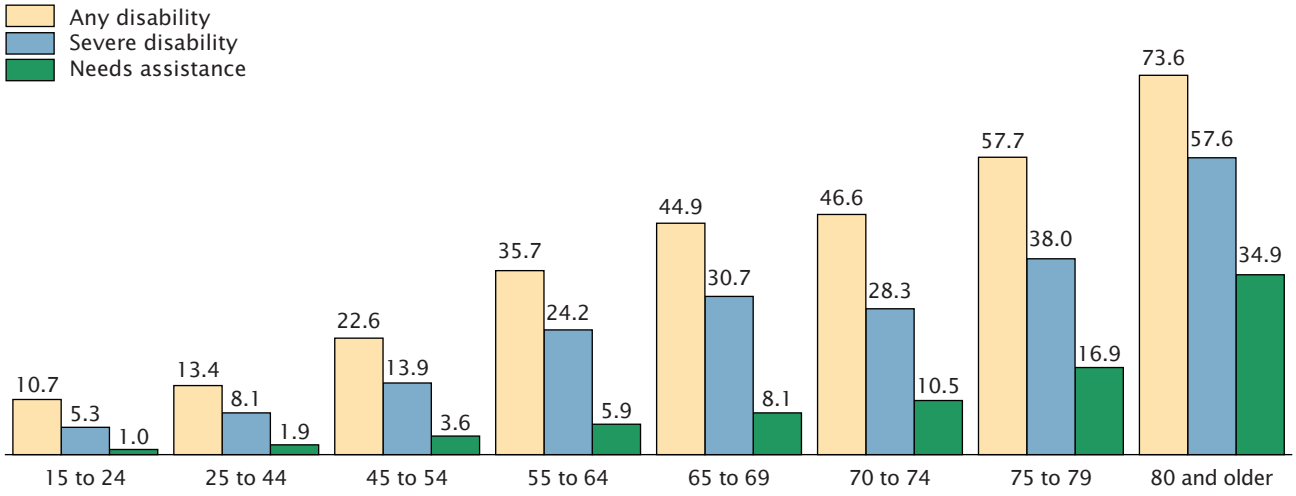
People with severe disabilities were also more likely than others to have low incomes and live in poverty. Eighty percent of people age 25 to 64 with a severe disability lived in a household with an annual income of $20,000 or less, compared with 44 percent of those with no disability. The poverty rate for individuals this age with a disability was 28 percent, compared with 8 percent for those with no disability.

Among people aged 21 to 64, 84 percent of people with no disability and 82 percent of people with a

Figure 19-2.

Disability Among Individuals Aged 15 and Older by Age and Severity: 1997

(Percent of population in each age group)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 Panel of the Survey of Income and Program Participation, August - November 1997.

nonsevere disability worked in 1997. However, the share was 31 percent among those with a severe disability. About 14 million people aged 21 to 64 with a disability were employed and 5 million of these men and women had a severe disability.

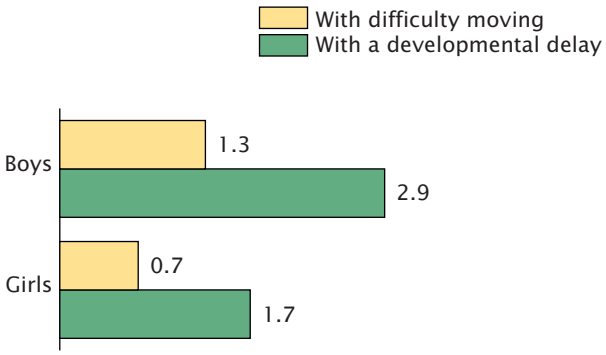
Earnings were lower for people with disabilities. The 1997 median earnings for people with no disability was $23,700, compared with $20,500 for those with a nonsevere disability and $13,300 for those with a severe disability. Among people with disabilities who worked, 34 percent were limited in the amount or kind of work that they could do. Among those surveyed by the SIPP, one in five workers with a disability had difficulty remaining employed or finding a job.

SPOTLIGHT ON CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES

Male children suffer from disabilities more frequently than female children.

Information about children with disabilities is important to educators, as well as healthcare and childcare providers. Eight percent of all children under age 15, 5 million children, had some type of disability in 1999, according to the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP). However, disability rates varied dramatically by sex and age. Among all disabled children under age 15, 38 percent were girls and 62 percent were boys. Although the percentage of children with a disability was less than 3 percent among those under age 6, it was almost 4 times as high among those aged 6 to 14.

Figure 19-3.
Percent of Children Under Age 6 by Sex and Type of Disability: 1999



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 Survey of Income and Program Participation, Wave 11, August 1999 - November 1999.

A total of 649,000 children under age 6 had some type of disability in 1999, according to the SIPP. Children under age 6 were twice as likely to have a developmental disability (2 percent) as they were to have a difficulty with movement (1 percent).

The share of children with disabilities goes up as children age.

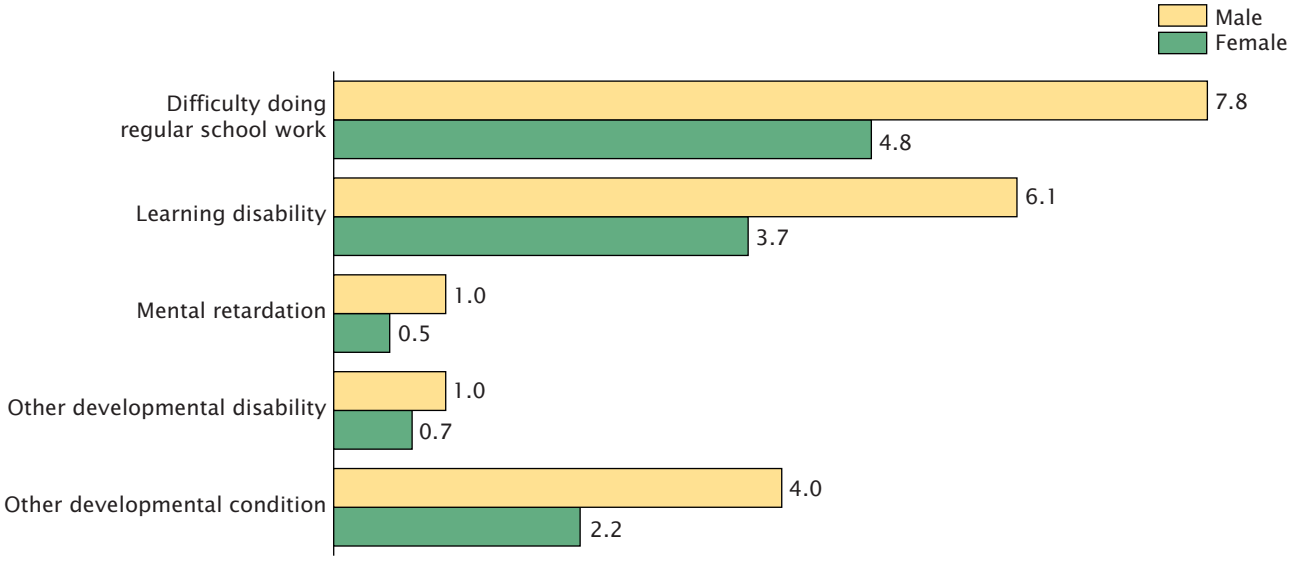
Among children aged 6 to 14, disabilities include developmental disabilities and developmental conditions[2], mental retardation, learning disabilities, difficulty doing regular schoolwork, and difficulty getting along with others. Physical disabilities include difficulty seeing, hearing, speaking, and walking or running. Children this age may also have difficulty with activities of daily living, including getting around inside or outside the home, getting in and out of bed, taking a bath or shower, dressing, eating, and toileting. Among children aged 6 to 14, 4 million or 11 percent had some type of disability in 1999. While 13 percent of boys had some type of disability, 8 percent of girls did. Of those children who were disabled, 41 percent had a severe disability.

Special educational services may be needed for many children with disabilities. Among children aged 6 to 14 in 1999, 6 percent had a physical, learning, or mental condition that affected the child's ability to do regular schoolwork. Five percent could be classified as having a learning disability, such as dyslexia. Two percent had an emotional or mental condition that made getting along with others difficult. Fewer than 1 percent could be classified as mentally retarded.

In 1999, 2 percent of children aged 6 to 14 had difficulties walking or running and an almost equal share had speech problems. However, the share of children with hearing and seeing difficulties was less than 1 percent each.

[2] A developmental condition may be temporary, while a developmental disability will remain with a person the rest of their life.

Figure 19-4.
Percent of Children Aged 6 to 14 by Selected Developmental Disabilities: 1999



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, 1996 Survey of Income and Program Participation, Wave 11, August 1999 - November 1999.

Resources and support vary for children with disabilities.

Among the 5 million children under age 15 with disabilities in 1999, 3 million (58 percent) lived in married-couple households and 2 million (35 percent) lived in single-parent households. The proportion of children with disabilities was about twice as high in single-parent families (12 percent) as in married-couple families (6 percent). The poverty rate among children with disabilities (25 percent) was higher than the rate among children without disabilities (20 percent).

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- For more detailed information, consult the following U.S. Census Bureau Current Population Report: *Americans With Disabilities: 1997* by Jack McNeil.
- For complete reports and detailed tables, go to the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov)*. Click on "D" and select "Disability."
- Contact the Housing and Household Economic Statistics' Statistical Information Staff at 301-457-3242 or e-mail *hhes-info@census.gov*.
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Chapter 20. HIS AND HER DEMOGRAPHICS: Women and Men, 2000

Women in the United States outnumber men, but they are hampered by higher poverty rates and lower earnings.

Statistics on women and men are clearly valuable to manufacturers and advertisers selling everything from automobiles to zinc oxide. However, these facts may be even more essential to health care planners and agencies supplying social services. As each generation comes of age, the roles of women and men change, creating a need to continually reexamine the numbers. Every year, new information on education, occupation, living arrangements, poverty status, and a variety of other topics comes from the U.S. Census Bureau's Current Population Survey.[1]

In 2000, the female population in the United States (140 million) was 6 million higher than the male population (134 million). Yet, among the group under age 20, there were 105 boys for every 100 girls. This male-to-female ratio declined as age increased. For men and women aged 20 to 44, the ratio was 98. But among the group aged 85 and older, there were only 50 men for every 100 women. In 2000, the projected average life expectancy at birth for women was 79 years, compared with 74 years for men.[2]

Education, employment, and occupation reflect important differences between men and women.

Among the population aged 25 and older in 2000, 84 percent of both men and women were high school graduates. Still, men this age were more likely than women to have graduated from college, 28 percent compared with 24 percent, respectively. On the other hand, young women were typically better educated than young men. Eighty-nine percent of women aged 25 to 29 were high school graduates in 2000, compared with 87 percent of men this age. Within this age group, 30 percent of women held a bachelor's degree or better, compared with 28 percent of men. Women have been the majority of college students since 1979.

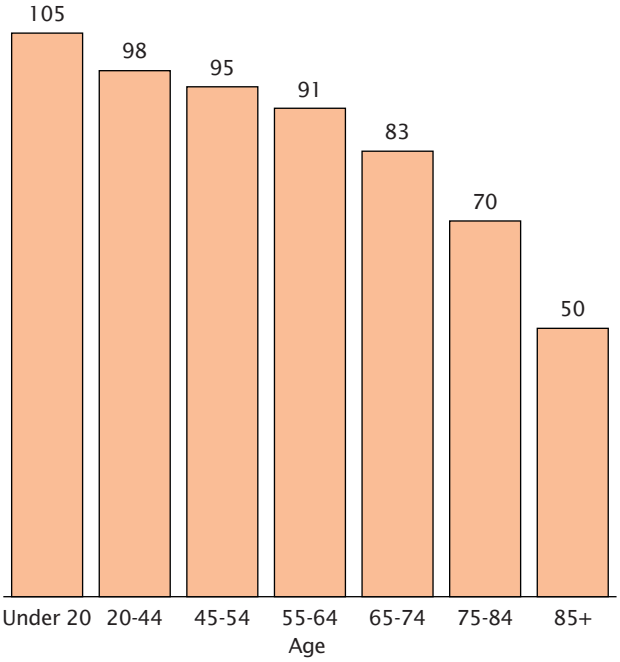
In 2000, 61 percent of women aged 16 and older were working or looking for work, compared with 74 percent of men. Earnings were lower for women than for men. The 1999 median earnings for women aged 15 and older who worked full time, year-round was $26,300, compared with $36,500 for men in this category.[3]

[1] Estimates in this chapter are calculated using sample data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census. The population universe for the March CPS is the civilian noninstitutional population plus armed forces living off base or with their families on post. As a result, these estimates will differ from population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program or the 2000 decennial census.

[2] Source: U.S. National Center for Health Statistics, *Vital Statistics of the United States*, annual, and *National Vital Statistics Reports* (NVSR).

[3] Information on income was collected in the March 2000 Current Population Survey and reflects incomes in the previous calendar year.

Figure 20-1.
Number of Men per 100 Women by Age Group: 2000

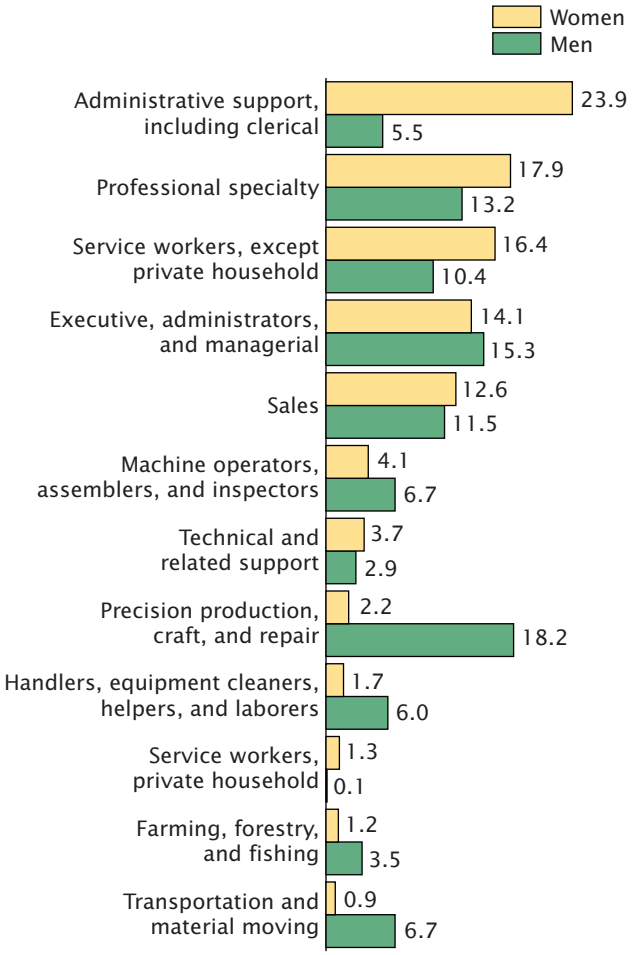


Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

Figure 20-2.

Detailed Occupation Groups of the Employed Civilian Population by Sex: March 2000

(Percent of employed civilians aged 16 and older)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, March 2000.

In 2000, 58 percent of women aged 16 and older worked in just three occupational categories. Twenty-four percent worked in administrative support, including clerical. Another 18 percent worked in professional specialty jobs, and 16 percent worked as service workers (excluding private household service workers). Men's occupations were less concentrated. The largest occupational category for men was precision production, craft and repair, accounting for 18 percent of employed men in the civilian labor force.

Men are somewhat more likely to be married and living with their spouse than women, but are also somewhat more likely to have never been married.

In 2000, 51 percent of women aged 15 and older were currently married and living with their spouse, compared with 55 percent of men. And even though 25 percent of women this age had never been married, 31 percent of men never had. About 2 percent of both men and women were separated. However, women were more likely than men to be divorced, 10 percent compared with 8 percent. Although 10 percent of women were widowed, only 3 percent of men were.[4]

In 1999, 13 percent of females and 10 percent of males lived in poverty. However the poverty rate was particularly high when women without spouses present maintained families. The 1999 rate for families maintained by a woman with no spouse present was 28 percent, compared with 12 percent for families maintained by a man with no spouse present. The rate for married-couple families was just 5 percent.

[4] The difference between the shares of divorced women and widowed women was not significant and the difference between the shares of separated women and widowed men was not significant.

The Census Bureau Can Tell You More

- Look for detailed tables on the Census Bureau's World Wide Web site *(www.census.gov)*. Click on "W" and select "Women." Under reports find PPL-121, "Women in the United States: March 2000."
- Contact the Special Populations Staff of the U.S. Census Bureau at 301-457-2378 or e-mail *pop@census.gov*.
- For information on publications and other resources, see Appendix A.

Appendix A.

THE CENSUS BUREAU CAN TELL YOU MORE:

Publications and Other Sources of Information

The public can access Census Bureau data through:

- The over 1,800 state and local organizations participating in Data Center Programs. Call the Customer Liaison Office at 301-457-1305 or go to *www.census.gov/clo/www/datacntr.html.*
- The 59 national and local minority organizations that are part of the Census Information Center Program. Call 301-457-1305.
- The 1,400 public and university libraries designated as Federal Depository Libraries. Call 888-293-6498.
- The 12 Regional Census Bureau Offices around the country that provide reports and CD-ROMs for public use and review (See Figure A-1).
- The Census Bureau's Web site at *www.census.gov:* Go to "How to Access and Use Census Bureau Data" (*www.census.gov/mso/www/npr/access.html*) for information on any of the above resources.

For reports available on the Census Bureau's Web site and information on obtaining paper copies, go to *www.census.gov* and select "Publications." Or contact the Census Bureau's Customer Service Office at 301-457-4100.

See the reports listed below for further information on the following topics:

CHILDREN AND YOUTH

Fields, Jason M. 2001. *Living Arrangements of Children: 1996,* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P70-74. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Fields, Jason M., Kristen Smith, Loretta E. Bass, and Terry Lugaila. 2000. *A Child's Day: Home, School, and Play (Selected Indicators of Child Well-Being):1994.* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P70-68. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Grall, Timothy. 2000. *Child Support for Custodial Mothers and Fathers: 1997.* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P60-212. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Smith, Kristin. 2000. *Who's Minding the Kids? Child Care Arrangements: Fall 1995.* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P70-70. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

COMPUTER USE

Newburger, Eric C. 1999. *Computer Use in the United States: October 1997.* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P20-522. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Newburger, Eric C. 2001. *Home Computer Use and Internet Use in the United States: August 2000.* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P23-207. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

EDUCATION

Bauman, Kurt J. and Camille L. Ryan, 2001. *What's It Worth? Field of Training and Economic Status: 1996,* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P70-72, Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Jamieson, Amie, Andrea Curry, and Gladys Martinez, 2001. *School Enrollment-Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 1999.* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P20-533. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Newburger, Eric C. and Andrea Curry. 2000. *Educational Attainment in the United States: March 1999.* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P20-528. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Newburger, Eric C. and Andrea Curry. 2000. *Educational Attainment in the United States: March 2000 (Update).* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P20-536. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

U.S. Census Bureau, 2001. *School Enrollment — Social and Economic Characteristics of Students: October 2000*, PPL-148.

FERTILITY

Bachu, Amara. 1999. *Trends in Premarital Childbearing: 1930 to 1994*. U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P23-197. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office,

Bachu, Amara, and Martin O'Connell. 2001. *Fertility of American Women: June 2000*. U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P20-543RV. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION

Lollock, Lisa, 2001. The Foreign-Born Population in the United States: March 2000. U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P20-534. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Schmidley, A. Dianne and Campbell Gibson, 1999. Profile of the Foreign-Born Population in the United States: 1997, Current Population Reports, Series P23-195. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

GEOGRAPHICAL MOBILITY

Schacter, Jason P. 2000. Geographical Mobility: 1990 to 1995, U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P23-200. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Schacter, Jason P. 2001, Geographical Mobility: March 1999 to March 2000, U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P20-538. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Schacter, Jason P. 2001. *Why People Move: Exploring the March 2000 Current Population Survey,* U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, Series P23-204. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

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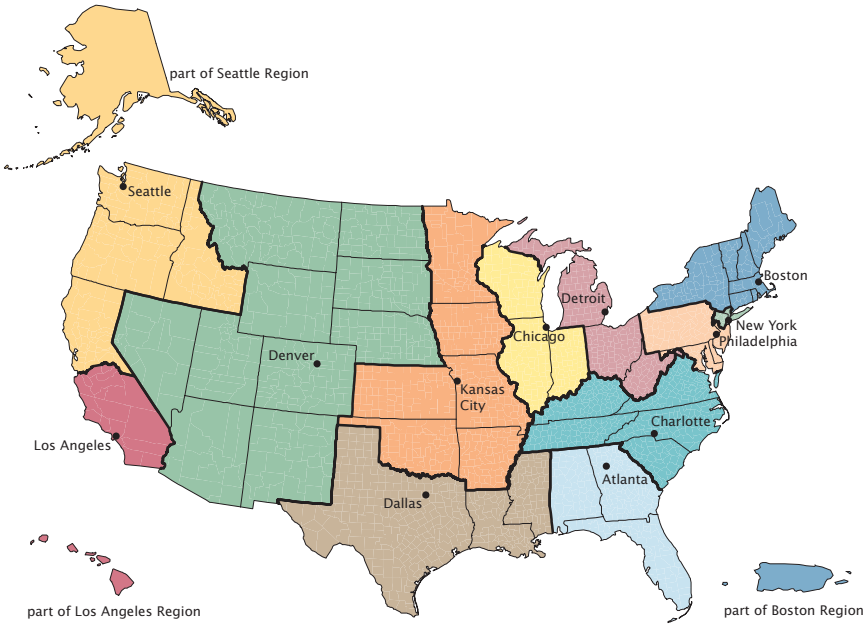
Figure A-1.

Areas Served by Census Regional Offices



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Regional Office Telephone Contacts for Partnership and Data Services

Atlanta, GA	404-730-3833
Boston, MA	617-424-0510
Charlotte, NC	704-344-6144
Chicago, IL	708-562-1350
Dallas, TX	214-253-4481
Denver, CO	303-969-7750
Detroit, MI	313-259-1875
Kansas City, MO	913-551-6711
Los Angeles, CA	818-904-6339
New York, NY	212-264-4730
Philadelphia, PA	215-656-7578
Seattle, WA	206-533-5835

Regional Office Liaison in Washington, DC, 301-457-2032

Appendix B. SOURCE AND ACCURACY OF DATA

Source of Data

The data for this report, which cover a wide range of topics and years, came from the Current Population Survey (CPS), the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP), the American Housing Survey (AHS), and the decennial censuses conducted by the Census Bureau. The surveys' estimation procedure adjusts weighted sample results to agree with independent estimates of the civilian noninstitutional population of the United States by age, sex, race, Hispanic/non-Hispanic ancestry, and state of residence.

The independent estimates are calculated based on information from four primary sources: the 1990 Decennial Census of Population and Housing, statistics on births, deaths, immigration, and emigration; statistics on the size of the Armed Forces; and starting in 1994, an adjustment for undercoverage in the 1990 decennial census. The estimation procedure for 1994 and later years used independent estimates based on the most recent decennial census at that time. (Data in some sections are revised for years prior to 1994.) This change in independent estimates had relatively little impact on summary measures, such as medians and percent distributions, but did have a significant impact on levels. For example, use of the 1990-based population controls resulted in about a 1-percent increase in the civilian noninstitutional population and in the number of families and households. Thus, estimates of levels for 1994 and later years will differ from those for earlier years by more than what could be attributed to actual changes in the population. These differences could be disproportionately greater for certain population subgroups than for the total population. The estimation procedures for the CPS, SIPP, and AHS data are discussed in more detail in the publications cited in Appendix A of this report.

Reliability of Estimates

Since the CPS, SIPP, and AHS estimates come from samples, they may differ from the figures from a complete census using the same questionnaires, instructions, and enumerators. This possible variation in the estimates due to sampling is known as "sampling variability." A sample survey estimate has two types of error: sampling and nonsampling. The accuracy of an estimate depends on both types of error. The nature of the sampling error is known given the survey design. The full extent of nonsampling error, however, is unknown.

To estimate the standard error of a CPS estimate, the Census Bureau uses replicated variance estimation methods. These methods primarily measure the magnitude of sampling error. However, they do measure some effects of nonsampling error as well. They do not measure systematic biases in the data due to nonsampling error. (Bias is the average of the differences, over all possible samples, between the sample estimates and the desired value.)

Since the full extent of nonsampling error is unknown, one should be particularly careful when interpreting results based on small differences between the estimates. Even a small amount of nonsampling error can cause a borderline difference to appear significant or not, thus distorting a seemingly valid hypothesis test. Caution should also be used when interpreting results based on a relatively small number of cases. Summary measures probably do not reveal useful information when computed on a base smaller than 75,000.

Sampling Error

Standard errors are not given in this report because of the wide range of topics included and the wide variety of data sources. Standard errors may be found in the publications that are noted at the end of most sections and in Appendix A or by contacting the subject specialist provided at the end of each section.

Nonsampling Variability

As in any survey work, the results are subject to errors of response and nonreporting in addition to sampling variability. Nonsampling errors can be attributed to many sources, including:

- Inability to obtain information about all cases
- Definitional difficulties
- Differences in the respondent interpretation of questions
- Respondent inability or unwillingness to provide correct information
- Respondent inability to recall information
- Errors made in collection such as recording or coding data
- Errors made in processing the data
- Errors made in estimating values for missing data
- Failure to represent all units with the sample (undercoverage)

Comparability of Data

Data obtained from sample surveys and other sources are not entirely comparable. This results from differences in interviewer training and experience and in differing survey processes. This is an example of nonsampling variability not reflected in the standard errors. Therefore, caution should be used in comparing results from different sources.

A number of changes were made in data collection and estimation procedures beginning with the January 1994 CPS. The major change was the use of a new questionnaire. The questionnaire was redesigned to measure the official labor force concepts more precisely, to expand the amount of data available, to implement several definitional changes, and to adapt to a computer-assisted interviewing environment. The March supplemental income questions were also modified for adaptation to computer-assisted interviewing, although there were no changes in definitions and concepts. Because of these and other changes, caution should be used when comparing estimates from data collected before 1994 with estimates from data collected in 1994 or later. See the publications noted in Appendix A and at the end of most sections for a description of these changes and the effect they had on the data.

Census 2000 data were used in Chapter 2 of this report, while all other chapters in this report use survey data. This report includes data for three different population universes: resident population (Census 2000): civilian noninstitutional population, plus Armed Forces living off post or with their families on post (SIPP and March CPS universe), as well as the universe of housing units (AHS). Estimates using sample data from the CPS, SIPP, and the AHS are weighted by population controls based on the 1990 decennial census adjusted for estimated net undercount. As such, these estimates are not consistent with population estimates computed from either the intercensal estimates program (which are not adjusted for estimated net census undercount), or the 2000 decennial census.

Two different methods are being used to evaluate undercount in Census 2000: Demographic Analysis (DA) and the Accuracy and Coverage Evaluation (ACE). For more information on the accuracy of the 2000 decennial census, see the Report of the Executive Steering Committee for Accuracy and Coverage Evaluation Policy, *(www.census.gov/dmd/www/pdf/Escap2.pdf).*