This executive summary presents highlights drawn from the data compiled in "The African American Education Data Book, Volume I: Higher and Adult Education," the first broad national survey of the educational status, performance, progress, and financial support of African Americans in higher education and adult education. The report concludes that tremendous barriers to African American achievement remain and that many social challenges will have to be overcome before educational equality is achieved. The report notes that there are significant differences in the rates at which African American men and women enter, persist, and complete higher education degrees, and that as a result of these disparities, African Americans are less likely to fill work force positions that require college degrees. Other factors mentioned are low family incomes, which restrict entry to the full range of colleges and universities; the inadequate results of efforts to reduce attrition rates; the failure of research universities to attract representative numbers of African Americans; the persistence of test-score differences throughout undergraduate school; and choices of major fields of study (which typically limit the opportunities of African Americans to become college-level teachers and faculty). Lower participation by African Americans in adult education programs, especially career- and job-related programs, is also reported. The report text discusses these findings and illustrates some of the data in 18 charts. (CH)
THE AFRICAN AMERICAN EDUCATION DATA BOOK
Volume I: Higher and Adult Education

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The information in the 1997 African American Education Data Book was compiled from numerous databases and reveals the status, performance, progress, and financial support of African Americans in higher education. While there has been substantial progress in many areas, the data show that, on average, African Americans must achieve much more progress in order to catch their white counterparts.

This, the first of three volumes of the Data Book, includes a broad range of indicators about the education of African Americans including the following:

- representation overall and at each level in higher education;
- enrollment, persistence, and completion in various types of colleges and universities;
- student choices among the variety of higher education institutions;
- financial aid for undergraduate, graduate, and first-professional students;
- post-baccalaureate educational and career pursuits;
- graduate and first-professional school admissions test performance;
- characteristics, interests, and activities of doctoral degree recipients;
- faculty representation, distribution and status in various types of colleges and universities;
- participation in adult education courses and activities.

Altogether, the data and information presented in this volume represent the most comprehensive description ever compiled about African Americans in postsecondary education.

The data reveal that, although African Americans’ representation in higher education has grown in the past decade, it still is significantly below the percentage they represent in the general population. This underrepresentation is especially true at the more prestigious research universities and the most expensive four-year colleges and universities. The data also reveal that many of African Americans’ educational gains over the past decade are due to the huge increase in participation by African American women. Twice as many African American women as African American men obtain bachelor’s degrees and master’s degrees each year, and the number of African American women obtaining first-professional degrees increased by 219% during the past decade. African American women achieved these performance gains despite having lower SAT/ACT scores, more often taking remedial course work, and having a greater percentage as first generation college students than their African American male peers.

Meanwhile, tremendous barriers to African American achievement continue to exist. Compared with whites, a larger percentage of African Americans attending four-year institutions receive financial aid and financial aid accounts for a greater share of their college costs. African Americans at both two-year and four-year colleges and universities also have lower family incomes. Over one-half of African Americans enrolled in bachelor’s degree programs are in the lowest quarter of American socioeconomic status (compared to less than one-quarter of whites) and African Americans are almost three times as likely to have incomes below $20,000 as their white counterparts. Among recent African American bachelor’s degree recipients,
less than one-fifth of men and less than one-third of women completed their degrees within four years. And, although African Americans have raised their scores on graduate admissions exams, their scores remain substantially below the scores achieved by their white counterparts. African Americans are also less likely to obtain doctorates and to participate in adult education programs.

**Conclusions**

The information in the Data Book on African Americans in higher education suggest the following conclusions:

- Differences in the rates at which African American men and women enter, persist, and complete higher education suggest deep social challenges that must be overcome in order to achieve educational equality.
- Because of the disparity between African Americans and whites in the percentage who receive college degrees and in the highest degree field, African Americans are less likely to fill their share of new work force positions that require college degrees.
- Low family incomes are continuing to restrict the range of colleges and universities that African Americans have to choose from and their opportunities to pursue graduate and first-professional studies.
- Current efforts by the nation's colleges and universities appear to be inadequate in preventing the dramatic attrition rates among first-year African American college students.
- Research universities are not attracting African American undergraduate or graduate students in sufficiently representative numbers.
- Graduate admissions test score differences between African Americans and whites suggest that achievement differences observed prior to college entry are not being eliminated during undergraduate school.
- Because of their choice of both undergraduate and graduate majors, as well as type of college or university, African American students are limiting their opportunities to become college-level teachers and faculty.

The databases used for this publication were procured from the most renowned purveyors of national education data and information in the United States, including the United States Department of Education's National Center of Educational Statistics, the National Science Foundation, the U.S. Bureau of the Census, The College Board, the Educational Testing Service, and the American College Testing Company. Some of the databases are cross-sectional, meaning they provide a snapshot of people and institutions at one particular point in time; and others are longitudinal, tracking the same group of individuals over a period of time.

This volume presents a multi-dimensional picture of African Americans in postsecondary education revealing the challenges to be confronted at the end of the 20th century. Subsequent volumes of this Data Book will provide facts on pre-school through twelfth-grade education, as well as school to work and school to higher education transitions.

**African American Student Enrollments and Completions**

While African American enrollments and graduations have increased over the last decade, the representation of African Americans remains below their share of the population. Among African Americans, total enrollment is nearly one-quarter higher for women than for men, and women receive twice as many bachelor's and master's degrees. Compared to prior decades, even though a larger number of African Americans are attending Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs), a larger percentage of African Americans are receiving their degrees.
outside of HBCUs. But, among those who are receiving their degrees from colleges and universities other than HBCUs, African Americans are least well represented at the nation’s most prestigious universities.

**Large Male-female Differences**

African Americans show a steady increase in enrollments at all levels of postsecondary education. But, although their representation has grown overall from 8.8% in 1984 to 10.1% in 1994, their representation is far below the 14.3% they comprise of the traditional college-age U.S. population. Complicating these enrollment gains is the imbalance between the sexes. African American women make up 6.3% of the total higher education enrollment, compared with only 3.8% for African American men. In other words, African American female enrollment is 24% higher than African American male enrollment, compared to a 10% white female advantage in enrollment over white males.

Degree attainment rates reflect this enrollment imbalance. Between 1976 and 1994 the...
number of associate's degrees awarded to African Americans increased by 37.3%. The number awarded to African American women rose by 60.1%, compared to an increase of 10.9% for African American men. Similarly, African Americans increased their number of bachelor's degrees by 40.2% from 1977 to 1994, compared with an overall nationwide increase of 27.2%. The number of bachelor's degrees awarded to African American men grew by 19.6% (from 25,147 to 30,086), while the number awarded to African American women increased by 55.4% (from 33,489 to 52,179).

Similarly, in 1993/94 almost twice as many African American women (13,890) as African American men (7,002) received master's degrees, although the total number of master's degrees awarded to African Americans declined by 0.6% from 1977 to 1994. Over the same period, African Americans decreased their share of doctoral degrees by 7.3%, despite a 20.5% decline in the number awarded to men. Of all levels of higher education enrollment, African Americans are least well represented at the doctoral degree level. In 1994, the 1,344 African American doctoral degree recipients represented only 3.1% of all doctoral degree recipients in the United States.

Some of the biggest gains for African Americans have occurred in the area of first-professional degrees. While the number of these degrees increased nationally by 17.2% between 1977 and 1994, the number awarded to African Americans grew 70.6% over this period. Contributing to this gain was an astounding 219% increase among African American women and a 5.1% increase among African American men.

**Colleges and Universities Attended by African Americans**

While African American enrollments in historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) grew steadily between 1976 and 1994, the percentage of all African American college students attending them has declined. HBCUs enrolled 280,071 students in the fall of 1994, up from 222,613 in 1976. African Americans comprised a smaller share of HBCU enrollments in 1994 than in 1976 (82.2% in 1994 compared to 85.5% in 1976.) A smaller percentage of all African American college students are attending HBCUs.
today than two decades ago, not because of a decline in African American enrollments at HBCUs but rather because of an increase in African American enrollments elsewhere (18.6% of African American undergraduates at two- and four-year institutions enrolled in HBCUs in 1976 compared to 16% in 1994). Likewise, the decline in the proportion of African Americans who received bachelor’s degrees from HBCUs (from 35.4% in 1977 to 28.5% in 1994) is due to the overall increase in African Americans completing these degrees at other institutions rather than to a decline in numbers at HBCUs.

More disturbing is the relative infrequency with which African Americans receive degrees at all levels from research universities and the corresponding frequency with which African Americans at all levels receive degrees from lower status institutions.

Possibly due to the types of institutions they attended, African Americans chose a narrow range of fields in undergraduate, graduate, and
higher cost institutions than non-recipients. Nonetheless, African American financial aid recipients at four-year institutions attended lower cost institutions than their white counterparts. At four-year colleges and universities, African American financial aid recipients averaged $5,050 for full-time, full-year tuition and fees, compared with $6,130 for whites. At public, two-year colleges, African American financial aid recipients averaged $1,281 and whites, $1,669.

Differences between African American and white undergraduates in terms of financial need and institutional cost appear to be smaller among those attending public, two-year institutions than among those attending four-year institutions. For example, at public, two-year institutions, comparable proportions of African Americans (57.7%) and whites (57.0%) with family incomes below $20,000 received financial aid. But, of dependent students with family incomes below $20,000 who attended four-year institutions, a somewhat higher share of African American (92.9%) than their white counterparts (81.0%) received financial aid.

**Financial Aid and Sources of Aid**

African Americans attending four-year colleges and universities, but not two-year colleges, received a greater share of their college costs from financial aid than whites. African Americans averaged slightly higher amounts of financial aid than whites at four-year colleges and universities ($5,755 versus $5,419). The proportion of the total costs of attendance covered by financial aid was comparable for African Americans and whites attending public, two-year institutions (30.0% versus 30.8%), but higher for African Americans than whites attending four-year institutions (52.4% versus 43.4%). Net costs (total costs less total aid) were lower for African Americans than for whites at four-year institutions ($6,956 versus $8,852), but comparable for African Americans and whites at public, two-year institutions ($5,592 versus $5,418).

Since African Americans have lower average incomes and expected family contributions, it is not surprising that a higher proportion of African Americans than whites received need-based financial aid, including Pell Grants and other Title IV aid. Even though a larger number of whites (n = 1,008,513) than African Americans (n = 278,306) at four-year institutions received Pell Grants, the percentage of African Americans who received Pell Grants was higher than the percentage of whites (42.9% versus 18.6%). In addition, African Americans received higher amounts of Pell Grants than whites at four-year institutions ($1,765 versus $1,630). Although comparable shares of African Americans and whites received financial aid from institutional sources, the average amount of institutional aid was lower for African Americans than for whites at four-year institutions ($2,974 versus $3,404).

While a higher proportion of African Americans than whites received grants (57.4% versus 39.6% at four-year institutions and 31.9% versus 24.3% at public, two-year institutions) the average grant award was comparable for African Americans and whites attending the same type of institution. At four-year institutions, African Americans averaged $3,284 in grants and whites, $3,361. At public, two-year institutions, African Americans averaged $1,658 in grants and whites $1,518. A higher share of African American than white students attending four-year institutions relied upon loans (42.7% versus 29.0%). But, the average loan amount was lower for African Americans than whites at four-year institutions ($3,142 for African Americans and $3,482 for whites). At four-year institutions, a smaller share of African American financial aid recipients than of their white counterparts relied exclusively upon grants to finance the costs of their undergraduate education (25.3% versus 31.1%). Interestingly, about
the same percentage of African American four-year college students received merit-based aid as the overall population of four-year college students (9.5% compared to 10.3%).

**Characteristics of Beginning Postsecondary Students**

The data presented thus far are from cross-sectional databases. In addition to these snapshots from cross-sectional databases, longitudinal databases like the Beginning Postsecondary Student Survey (BPS) are important for providing information on student experiences and performance over several years. Data on first-time postsecondary students who entered college in 1989/90 reveal that too few African Americans enter America's colleges and universities relative to their representation in the college-age population. Of those who did enroll, far fewer African Americans than whites proportionately attended expensive, four-year colleges and universities; a smaller share of African Americans than whites attended their first-choice institution; and a smaller proportion of African Americans than whites were working toward bachelor's degrees (41.9% versus 51.4%), with African American women leaning toward vocational credentials and African American men tending to seek associate's degrees. Compared with Whites, African American students came from families with relatively low incomes and lower levels of parental education, and they had lower grade point averages. Despite higher levels of financial aid and remedial instruction, a greater percentage of African American students than others left college without receiving a degree.

**Economic Factors**

African Americans' choice of college or university and their underrepresentation at expensive four-year institutions may be related to their family income levels. About 36.5% of the African American students who were seeking bachelor's degrees had family incomes below $20,000 compared with only 12.8% of whites. Among those African Americans who began their postsecondary education in community colleges, the barriers posed by income were even more difficult: 43.4% of African Americans, compared with only 18.2% of whites, had family incomes below $20,000. Among African Americans, the percentage of women from low-income families was higher than that of men.

![Figure 9. Distribution of African American 1989/90 Beginning Postsecondary Education Students by Socioeconomic Status](image)
Over one-half of African Americans who were seeking bachelor's degrees came from households in the lowest quartile of American socioeconomic status (55.2% compared with 22.4% for whites). Of those who began their postsecondary education in community colleges, 64.9% of African American men and 60.4% of African American women were in households in the bottom half of American socioeconomic status, compared with 46.6% of white women and 32.4% of white men.

Lower family incomes appear to be reflected in the cost of institutions African Americans elect to attend. Among those seeking bachelor's degrees, costs were 22.1% lower for African Americans than for whites; among those enrolling in community colleges, costs of attendance were 28.6% lower for African Americans than for whites.

African Americans were also more likely than whites to be from families with lower levels of parental education. While this difference was less apparent among students at community colleges, among those seeking bachelor's degrees 37.8% of African Americans' parents had no education beyond high school, compared with 26.6% of whites'. Among students attending community colleges only 3.9% of African Americans' parents had advanced degrees compared with 11.6% of whites' parents.

The presence of larger amounts of financial aid for African Americans suggests some effort to compensate for income deficiencies. On average, African Americans seeking bachelor's degrees received $4,587 in financial aid, compared with $4,297 for whites. However, African Americans and whites who began their postsecondary education at community colleges received comparable amounts of financial aid ($1,971 versus $1,963). Besides receiving larger amounts of aid on average, a higher share of African Americans than whites seeking bachelor's degrees received financial aid. Among those seeking bachelor's degrees, 68.0% of African Americans, but only 48.2% of whites received aid. Among those who began at community colleges, similar percentages of African Americans and whites received aid (34.0% versus 27.6%).

Figure 10. Cost of Attendance, Financial Aid Received, and Expected Family Contribution at Institutions Attended by 1989/90 Beginning Postsecondary Students

Source: Beginning Postsecondary Student Survey, Second Follow-up (1994)


Staying in School

Financial aid appears to have only partly eliminated the obstacles that prevent African Americans from finishing college. While a higher percentage of African American financial aid recipients than of non-recipients completed bachelor’s degrees within five years of entering postsecondary education, the completion rates among those who received grants lagged behind those of whites.

Other differences between the two groups appear early in their college careers. During their first year of bachelor’s degree studies, a higher share of African Americans than whites received remedial instruction (29.0% versus 13.2%). African Americans who were seeking bachelor’s degrees also scored lower first-year grade point averages than whites (39.9% received 2.0 or lower, compared with 25.0% of whites).

The first year was also the most common time for both African American and white students to stop out or drop out of college. Among those who began at community colleges, 69.8% of African Americans and 60.1% of whites left during that time. Among those attending four-year colleges and universities, bachelor’s degree attainment rates were comparable for African Americans who did and did not attend HBCUs. About 56.8% of African Americans at HBCUs and 66.3% of their counterparts at non-HBCUs, left college during the 1989-1994 period. About 45.1% of African Americans at HBCUs and 43.5% of African Americans at four-year non-HBCUs attained bachelor’s degrees within five years of initial enrollment. Degree attainment rates were lower for African Americans than for students overall since 57.8% of all students at four-year non-HBCUs attained bachelor’s degrees within five years.

Comparison of Bachelor’s Degree Recipients

A study of 1992/93 graduates conducted one year after they completed college shows that African American women overcame greater difficulties than African American men on the way to achieving twice as many bachelor’s degrees. Compared with whites, a higher percentage of African Americans not only received financial aid but also received a larger percentage of their aid in the form of loans. Almost twice the proportion of African American graduates as white...
graduates were unemployed one year after graduating. But, average salaries were comparable for African Americans and whites who were employed.

**Background and College Experiences**

Many African American women bachelor's degree recipients appear to have overcome greater disadvantages than African American men. More of the women were first generation college students (49.0% of African American women versus 33.2% of African American men); more took remedial course work as undergraduates (14.6% of African American women versus 4.3% of African American men); and more had SAT/ACT scores in the lowest quartile (64.9% of African American women versus 45.5% of African American men). In addition, both African American men and women shared the problem of cumulative undergraduate grade point averages below 3.0 (60.8% of African American men and 50.9% of African American women, compared with 35.1% of white men and 21.7% of white women). Financially dependent African American men and women also had lower family incomes than their white counterparts, with one-half (51%) of African American degree recipients below $40,000, compared with 24.2% of whites.

A higher proportion of African American bachelor's degree recipients than of their white counterparts began their postsecondary education in private four-year institutions (32.4% versus 28.3%) and a smaller share of African Americans than whites began in public, two-year institutions (9.4% versus 15.7%). Overall, African Americans who received bachelor's degrees tended to attend comprehensive universities (45.0% versus 35.6% of whites) and liberal arts II institutions (18.7% versus 9.7% of whites) rather than research universities (18.6% versus 31.0% of whites).

Although African American and white bachelor's degree recipients attended institutions with comparable costs of attendance ($12,417 versus $12,979), a higher proportion of these African Americans than whites received some type of financial aid (59.5% versus 46.3%), need-based financial aid (51.0% versus 36.2%), federal financial aid (49.9% versus 32.2%), and Pell Grants (31.8% versus 14.5%). Moreover, the average amount of financial aid received was 45.0%
higher for African Americans than for whites ($3,569 versus $2,462). Loans were a higher proportion of the aid package for African Americans than for whites (41.8% versus 37.7%). The average amount of undergraduate debt reported by 1992/93 college graduates ranged from $4,799 for white women and $5,063 for white men to $6,129 for African American women and $6,528 for African American men.

On average, African American men took more time to complete their bachelor's degrees than African American women, white men, and white women. Of those who entered college at age 18, 32.4% of African Americans, but 40.9% of whites, completed their degrees within four years.

**Post-Graduate Activities**

The transition from postsecondary education to the work force generally appears to be more difficult for African Americans than for whites, as evident from their higher unemployment rates. About 9.4% of African Americans, but only 5.5% of whites were not employed and not enrolled in higher education one year after receiving their bachelor's degrees. A smaller share of African American college graduates than of whites who had considered teaching as a profession had taught, were certified to teach, or expected to be teaching in the future. This suggests that the underrepresentation of African Americans among America's public school teachers will not be resolved through new graduates any time soon.

On average, African Americans and whites who were employed full-time received comparable salaries ($22,367 versus $23,917). But, a smaller percentage of African Americans than whites owned an automobile (67.4% versus 84.6%) or a house or condominium (18.1% versus 22.6%).

African American bachelor's degree recipients reported higher educational expectations, and a higher share of African Americans than of whites had applied to graduate school one year after graduation (35.7% versus 27.2%). Almost twice the proportion of African Americans as whites expected to earn first-professional degrees

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**Figure 13. Years from College Entry to Bachelor's Degree Attainment Among 1992/93 Bachelor's Degree Recipients**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>All Students</th>
<th>Students who were 18 at College Entry</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Four Years or Less</td>
<td>36.9%</td>
<td>40.9%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Four to Five Years</td>
<td>25.4%</td>
<td>32.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five to Six Years</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than Six Years</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>10.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25.1%</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31.6%</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Baccalaurate and Beyond Longitudinal Study, First Follow-up (B&B: 93/94)
(10.4% versus 5.6%) and doctoral degrees (27.9% versus 15.8%). But, African Americans were denied admission to graduate school at higher rates than whites (19.9% versus 11.5%). Moreover, a smaller percentage of African Americans than whites were admitted to their first-choice post-baccalaureate institution (65.7% versus 74.5%). Among those who did enroll, a higher percentage of African American men than white men majored in education (16.1% versus 9.0%), and a larger share of African American women than white women majored in business and management (22.3% versus 11.6%). African American men tended to cite financial factors and happiness with their current jobs as their reasons for not applying to graduate school.

Table 1. Top 15 Undergraduate Institutions Attended by African American GRE Examinees: 1991/92

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>HBCU</th>
<th>Number GRE Examinees</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>African American</th>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Southern University A &amp; M College</td>
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<td>413</td>
<td>401</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Howard University</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>323</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Hampton University</td>
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<td>291</td>
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<td>Jackson State University</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>252</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Florida A &amp; M University</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>250</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Spelman College</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>169</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Tuskegee University</td>
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<td>143</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>North Carolina A&amp;T State Univ.</td>
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<td>160</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Grambling State University</td>
<td>Yes</td>
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<td>128</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Florida State University</td>
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<td>Prairie View A&amp;M University</td>
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<td>South Carolina State College</td>
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<td>University of Michigan</td>
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<td>1824</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Xavier University of Louisiana</td>
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<td>118</td>
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Figure 14. Mean Total Scores of Students Taking The Graduate Management Admissions Test: 1991 to 1995

Source: Profile of Graduate Management Admission Test Candidates Five-Year Summary, Graduate Management Admission Council, 1996.
African American Performance on Graduate Admissions Tests

Databases maintained by testing and assessment companies show growing numbers of African Americans are taking tests that are required for admission by graduate and professional schools. But, despite some score gains during the past twenty-five years, African Americans continue to achieve lower scores than their white peers across the entire range of graduate admission testing programs.

For example, African American participation in the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) more than doubled between 1981 (N=9,885) and 1995 (N=20,064). Since the GRE general test and 16 subject tests are used by graduate programs for determining admission and for awarding fellowships, teaching assistantships, and research assistantships, this trend suggests that increased African American participation in the GRE program may ultimately result in more African Americans in graduate schools. Overall, this increased participation reflects a raise in African American representation among GRE candidates from 6.3% in 1981 to 8.2% in 1995. However, the previous gender imbalance noted in undergraduate enrollments continues here, with females constituting about two-thirds (66% to 71%) of African American GRE examinees. Of the 15 institutions with the most African American GRE examinees, 13 were HBCUs.

Scores for African American GRE examinees rose steadily between 1981 and 1995, with a gain more striking than for any other racial/ethnic group. Nevertheless, in 1995, each of the African American mean scores (Verbal, Quantitative, Analytical) was about one standard deviation below the mean for white examinees.

African Americans were similar to other GRE test-takers in that social sciences and education were the most popular fields among the subject tests. The least popular fields among African Americans were business, biological sciences, engineering and physical sciences, and mathematics.

The number of African Americans taking the Graduate Management Admissions Test (GMAT) remained stable between 1991 and 1995, averaging between 10,000 and 11,000 candidates each year. But, the male-female distribution of African American GMAT examinees presents a curious anomaly. While in 1995, about 61% of the GMAT test-takers were male, only 44% of the African American examinees that year were male. As with the GRE, despite a slight increase each year between 1991 and 1995, African American scores were consistently lower than those of whites, averaging 411 in 1995, compared with 523 for whites.

![Figure 15. Mean Scores of Students Taking the Medical College Admission Test (MCAT): 1992 and 1995](image-url)

Source: Medical College Admissions Test Summary of Score Distributions, by year published, Association of Medical Colleges.
African Americans have more than doubled their numbers taking the Law School Admissions Test (LSAT) between 1984/85 and 1994/95 (from 4,406 to 9,560). This gain has increased their representation among LSAT-takers from 7.3% in 1984/85 to 11.5% in 1994/95. This increase appears to be reflected in the higher African American law school populations reported by the American Bar Association. While the overall law school population grew only slightly from 1980/81 to 1994/95, the percentage of African Americans in these institutions rose from 4.6% (N = 5,505) to 7.5% (N = 9,681). Similar to the gender mix for the GMAT, women represented a majority (59%) of African American candidates taking the LSAT, while white women constituted only 43% of white test-takers. Scores for the LSAT have remained stable between 1990/91 and 1994/95, with the 1994/95 African American mean of 142.6 somewhat below the white mean of 153.7.

The share of African Americans among Medical College Admissions Test (MCAT) examinees increased from 7.8% in 1980 to 8.8% in 1995. While African American mean scores on individual sections of the test appeared to edge upward from 1980 to 1988, they stabilized in 1992 and 1995 at a lower level than white scores for all sections.

**Financial Aid Received by Graduate and First-Professional Students**

A higher percentage of African Americans than whites enrolled in doctoral degree programs on a full-time basis, while comparable percentages of African Americans and whites attended master’s degree and first-professional programs full-time. Among graduate and professional students, African Americans and whites generally attended institutions with comparable tuition and fees. The percentage of African Americans who received financial support from their institutions was comparable to the percentage of whites among master’s degree and doctoral degree students, but higher than the percentage of whites among law students, medical students, and other first-professional students.

**Need for Aid**

Comparable percentages of African Americans and whites were enrolled full-time in fall 1992 among law students (90.8% versus 88.8%), medical students (95.0% versus 94.8%), other first-professional students (76.2% versus 75.7%), and master’s degree students (29.7% versus 29.0%). But, a higher percentage of African American than white doctoral students were enrolled full-
time (74.4% versus 57.5%).

On average, African American and white first-professional and graduate students attended institutions with comparable tuition rates and fees. Among first-professional students, a higher percentage of African Americans than whites with the same family incomes received financial aid. For example, of first-professional students with family incomes below $10,000, 98.4% of African Americans and 89.1% of whites received financial aid. However, among graduate students, comparable shares of African American and white students with similar family incomes received aid.

**Graduate Financial Aid**

Important differences exist between graduate students and first-professional students both in terms of receiving financial aid and the amounts of aid they receive. In fall 1992, 75.3% of law students and 79.2% of medical students received aid, compared with only 38.5% of master's degree and 55.9% of doctoral degree students. Financial aid awards were generally higher for first-professional students in medical and law programs ($15,946 and $14,278) than for master’s degree and doctoral degree students ($6,964 and $10,640). African American medical students appeared to receive higher amounts of financial aid than whites ($19,969 versus $15,331). African American and white master’s and doctoral degree students received comparable amounts of financial aid (for master’s students, $7,618 versus $6,888 and for doctoral degree students, $9,929 versus $10,585). But, the share of African Americans who received financial aid was larger than the share of whites among law students (91.4% versus 73.3%), medical students (89.9% versus 78.4%), and doctoral students (76.3% versus 55.2%).

A higher proportion of African Americans than whites received loans among master’s degree students (22.8% versus 17.6%) and doctoral degree students (35.4% versus 20.6%). A higher percentage of African Americans than whites received grants among law students (50.4% versus 30.3%), medical students (65.0% versus 34.3%), and doctoral degree students (51.4% versus 33.8%). But, among master’s degree students, comparable shares of African Americans and whites received grants (21.2% versus 24.1%). About 22.2% of white male doctoral students received assistantships, compared with 15.3% of

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**Figure 17. Trends in Representation of African Americans Among Doctoral Recipients: Selected Years from 1975 to 1995**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td>(n=1211)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>4.9%</td>
<td>(n=1439)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>(n=1353)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
<td>(n=1798)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

white women, 10.1% of African American men, and 11.9% of African American women. Comparable percentages of African Americans and whites received financial support from institutional sources among master's degree students (17.9% versus 17.9%) and doctoral degree students (42.9% versus 39.4%). However, a higher percentage of African Americans than whites received financial aid from institutional sources among law students (53.8% versus 29.8%), medical students (64.2% versus 31.4%), and other first-professional students (40.0% versus 31.6%).

**Characteristics of Doctoral Degree Recipients**

The representation of African Americans among doctoral degree recipients rose slightly between 1975 and 1995 largely because of the increase in African American women. However, the percentage of African Americans who earned their doctorates at research universities declined, as did the percentage who earned their bachelor's degrees from HBCUs. A greater percentage of African American doctoral degree recipients were employed by educational institutions, worked as assistant professors, and were on the tenure track but were not tenured.

**Preparation of Doctoral Degree Recipients**

An increase in the number of African American women receiving doctorates has helped to increase the share of African American doctorates slightly from 4.0% in 1975 to 4.5% in 1995. During this period, African American women increased their representation among African American doctoral degree recipients from 29.7% in 1975 to 51.5% in 1995. The percentage of African American doctoral degree recipients who were women was higher than the percentage of women in any other racial/ethnic group. African Americans represented about 5.0% of doctoral degree recipients in social sciences, 4.8% in health sciences, 4.0% in psychology, 1.4% in physical science, 1.5% in computer science, 1.6% in mathematics, and 1.9% in agriculture.

Compared to their 1975 counterparts, both African American and white 1995 doctoral degree recipients required nearly two additional years to complete their degrees. Including time spent in both undergraduate and graduate work, African Americans averaged 12.6 years to the doctorate in 1995, compared with only 10.4 years in 1975. The amount of time to degree was comparable for African Americans and whites.
Since 1975, the percentage of African Americans who received their doctorates from the nation's most prestigious research universities declined from 70.1% in 1975 to 57.0% in 1995. By comparison, 66.8% of whites received their doctorates from Research I universities in 1995. At present, an increasing number of African Americans are receiving their doctoral degrees from Doctoral Institutions (18.2% compared with 10.9% of whites in 1995). The number and percentage of African Americans who received their doctorates from HBCUs increased from 3.2% (N=39) in 1975 to 11.3% (N=153) in 1990, but declined to 8.2% in 1995 (N=148).

HBCUs continue to prepare large numbers of students for doctoral study, although the percentage of African American doctoral degree recipients who earned their bachelor's degrees at HBCUs declined from one-half (51.4%) in 1975 to one-quarter (24.7%) in 1995. HBCUs were particularly important as a source of undergraduate degrees for individuals who received their doctorates in education (33.0%), biological sciences (30.2%) and professional fields (25.2%). The increasing role of predominantly white colleges and universities is noteworthy for African Americans who received their doctorates in physical sciences. In 1975, HBCUs awarded undergraduate degrees to 60.5% of the African Americans who received doctorates in the physical sciences, compared to only 19.5% in 1995.

Employment of Doctoral Degree Recipients

A higher share of African American than white doctoral degree recipients gravitated to four-year colleges and universities for their initial employment. Of those who received their doctorates between 1980 and 1993, 61.7% of African Americans, but only 53.5% of whites were employed by some type of educational institution in 1993. Of recent (1980-1993) doctoral degree recipients, a higher share of African Americans than of other racial/ethnic groups held the rank of assistant professor (48.3% versus 38.0%). Moreover, a higher percentage of African Americans than whites were on tenure-track but were not tenured (44.2% versus 33.0%). Comparable proportions of African Americans and whites held tenured positions (28.1% versus 28.2%). Unlike other racial/ethnic groups, fewer African Americans with doctorates were pursuing or intended to pursue business-related careers (8.0% versus 20.3% of whites in 1995). Overall, African American and white doctoral degree recipients reported comparable annual earnings ($49,347 versus $50,858).

Representation of African Americans Among College and University Faculty

In fall 1992, African Americans comprised only 4.9% of America's college and university teaching faculty, a considerable underrepresentation relative to their 12.5% share of the U.S. population and nearly one-half their 9.6% share of students enrolled in higher education at that time. The African American faculty underrepresentation was most notable at public research universities where only 6.7% of all African American faculty were employed, compared with 12.5% of whites. Employment also differed by region with nearly one-half (48.1%) of all African American faculty employed in the southeastern United States. While African American and white women had similar representation, career status, and earnings (well behind those of men), African American men typically fared less well than white men (although generally better than women of each race).

Racial and Gender Differences

Regardless of race, the experiences of male and female faculty differ in several respects. Overall, women represented only 38.8% of all
faculty in 1992. Moreover, women faculty were generally younger than men, received lower salaries, held lower rank, and were less often tenured. For example, only 16.1% of women, but 40.4% of men, held the highest rank of full professor. Women also tended to work in less prestigious colleges and universities, with 31.9% of women versus 21.1% of men employed at public, two-year institutions.

On average, the status of African American women was similar to that of white women. Comparable percentages of African American women and white women held the ranks of full professor (17.1% versus 16.0%), associate professor (23.8% versus 22.5%), assistant professor (31.4% versus 31.1%), and instructor (21.3% versus 20.9%). African American women also compared favorably with white women faculty on tenure status (42.9% versus 43.7%). In addition, African American women and white women averaged similar salaries ($45,583 versus $45,773) and had comparable levels of educational attainment (40.3% of African American women and 41.6% of white women held doctorates). African American women and white women reported comparable numbers of years in their current position (9.6 years versus 9.6 years) and years since achieving their current rank (6.1 years versus 6.4 years).

The experiences of African American men, however, compared less favorably to those of white male faculty. Among regular, full-time faculty, a smaller share of African American men than of white men worked in research universities (13.5% versus 24.1%). Only 28.7% of African American men held the rank of full professor, compared with 40.8% of white men. The proportion of African American men who worked as instructors was about twice as large as the proportion of white men (22.2% versus 11.0%). A smaller percentage of African American men than of white men were tenured (58.2% versus 68.5%). Overall, African American men received lower salaries than white men ($53,900 versus $58,343). At research universities, African American men's salaries averaged $63,333 while white men's salaries averaged $71,100.

The lower status of African American male faculty relative to their white male counterparts may be related to differences in their career paths. The average age of African American men was comparable to that of white male faculty (49.4 years versus 50.3 years). But, compared with white male faculty, African American men generally held their current position (11.9 years versus 14.3 years), rank (8.5 years versus 9.6 years) and tenure status (12.1 years versus 14.7 years) for fewer years. Moreover, as a group, African American men received their highest educational degree more recently than white men (1977 versus 1974). Only 45.0% of African American male faculty, but 60.8% of white male faculty, held doctoral degrees.

**Adult Education**

A smaller share of Africans Americans than whites participated in adult education, particularly career- and job-related programs. This difference may be related to differences of region, urbanicity, income, and previous level of education.

**Lower participation in Adult Education**

In 1995, 41.4% of African Americans and 45.3% of whites engaged in some type of organized educational activity, an apparent increase for both groups over 1991 participation rates of 32.3% for African Americans and 38.7% for whites. The lower representation of African Americans was largely attributable to their lower participation in career- and job-related programs. Only 15.8% of African American men and 16.6% of African American women participated in such programs.
American women participated in career- or job-related courses during 1995, compared with 23.9% of white men and 22.0% of white women. However, similar percentages of African Americans and whites participated in courses leading to educational credentials (10.5% versus 8.7%). Among those who had not completed high school, a higher percentage of African Americans than whites participated in basic skills courses (6.8% versus 3.5%).

Participation in adult education also varied by region, urbanicity, and poverty level of the community. In the South, but not elsewhere, a smaller share of African American adults than white adults participated in organized educational activities (37.8% versus 43.6%). In suburban and rural, but not in urban areas, smaller shares of African Americans than whites participated (suburban areas — 33.6% versus 44.9%; rural areas — 27.2% versus 38.6%). Participation rates were comparable for African Americans and whites living in areas in which less than 5% of children lived in poverty (53.1% versus 49.8%), as well as where 20% or more lived in poverty (35.9% versus 29.8%). But, among African Americans living in the poorest areas, participation rates were lower for men than for women (26.2% versus 41.3%). Participation rates were comparable for African Americans and whites regardless of the racial composition of the neighborhood.

Overall, the tendency to participate in adult education increased with the previous level of education attained and varied little among racial groups. Among those who had not finished high school, 15.3% of African Americans and 14.3% of whites participated in adult education; for those who earned only a high school degree, 44.6% of African Americans and 42.1% of whites took part; among those who earned associate's degrees, the rates rose to 65.7% for African Americans and 61.2% for whites; among those holding at least a bachelor's degree, the rates were 63.9% for African Americans and 62.9% for whites.

Effects of Employment and Income

Participation in adult education increased with household income. For those with household incomes of $10,000 or less, adult education participation rates were lower for African American men (20.2%) than for African American women (31.9%), white men (29.6%), and white women (26.6%).

In 1995, barriers to participation in organized educational activities appeared to be particularly great for unemployed African American men. Among the unemployed, only 24.0% of African American men participated in adult education compared with 44.6% of African American women, 47.0% of white men, and 55.0% of white women. Among those who were out of the labor force, adult education participation rates were comparable for African Americans and whites (23.5% versus 24.8%). Among the employed, the percentages of African American women (54.4%) and African American men (52.9%) who participated in adult education were comparable to the percentage of white men (50.9%), but smaller than the percentage of white women (61.3%).

Participation also varied by occupation, with a higher share of individuals in white-collar jobs than blue-collar jobs taking adult education courses. For adults who worked in occupations with no legal or professional requirements, the rate of participating in educational activities in 1995 was comparable for African Americans and whites (35.6% versus 38.5%). But, when only those adults who worked in occupations with legal or professional requirements are considered, just 59.1% of African Americans, compared with 71.2% of whites, participated.

On average, African Americans received comparable support from their employers for basic skills courses as whites. But, of those who had not completed high school and who had not taken basic skills courses in the past year,
African Americans appeared to face greater barriers to enrollment than whites. Transportation was a major obstacle for a higher share of African Americans than whites (54.0% versus 10.4%). Of those who did not take work- or career-related courses during the past year, a higher percentage of African Americans than whites were interested in taking such courses (29.4% versus 22.7%). Although levels of interest were higher among African Americans than whites, a smaller share of African Americans than whites knew of courses that they could take (55.2% versus 66.6%). While 29.0% of African Americans and 25.5% of whites reported ability to pay as an obstacle to work- or career-related coursework, 13.9% of African Americans but only 3.5% of whites reported transportation barriers.

CONCLUSION

This compilation of data about the higher education status and achievement of African Americans may serve various purposes for the overall general audience of readers and perhaps different purposes for various segments of the population of readers. For all readers, this Data Book provides the first broad representation of national data and information about the higher education of African Americans in a single document. This should permit readers to examine the progress and challenges of African Americans at each level while also examining the interrelations among the various levels of higher education. These data should also lead readers to raise questions about additional data that need to be gathered at the national, state, and institutional levels in order to paint a more complete picture of African American progress and challenges in higher education.

The data presented in this Data Book may also serve as a baseline of facts that are essential for taking appropriate action. Used in this way, college and university leaders, for example, may choose from among many data elements in the book to focus their efforts toward improvement.

Higher education leaders may use the Data Book to acknowledge the progress made thus far, identify the areas in greatest need of improvement, and begin developing strategies to make more progress. Such an approach might cause higher education leaders and policymakers to conclude from this volume that, in spite of the African American enrollment and degree attainment growth over the past decade, the African American underrepresentation in undergraduate, graduate, and professional schools, in adult education, and among college and university faculties requires either immediate action or greater research in search of appropriate remedies. Or, higher education leaders and policymakers might choose instead to focus upon ways to increase the admissions test scores of baccalaureate degree recipients who are seeking post-baccalaureate education opportunities, or upon ways to reduce the severe underrepresentation of African Americans enrolling in, receiving degrees from, and teaching in the nation's most prestigious research universities.

For researchers, one contribution of this Data Book may be to reveal gaps in the current knowledge base. Some of the questions that researchers must confront relate to the data that are not available, such as data that reveal cognitive and affective gains of students during the various levels of higher education or that describe the actual ways students use the precious financial aid dollars they receive. These are just a few examples of many issues covered in this volume that merit more probing by educational researchers. Among the questions of greatest importance to researchers at the Frederick D. Patterson Research Institute are the following:

Undergraduate Students

- What is the educational and economic value-added associated with attending various types of colleges and universities?
What lessons can be learned from the past decade of substantial gains made by African American women in both their enrollment and degree attainment that can be used in planning future progress?

What lessons can be learned from the success that HBCUs are having in producing African American bachelor’s degree recipients in such fields as the sciences, computer science, business, and teaching?

What new policies and innovations are needed in order to increase African American student representation at the undergraduate and graduate levels in such fields as the sciences and engineering where they are most severely underrepresented?

What new policies and practices are needed to increase African American student representation among undergraduate enrollments and baccalaureate degree recipients in the nation’s most prestigious research universities, where their current underrepresentation is most severe?

What improvements are needed in national financial aid policies to increase the access to and choices in higher education for African American and other undergraduates who need financial support?

What strategies are needed to increase the percentage of African Americans who complete their bachelor’s degrees within four years?

What actions are needed to improve academic performance, progress, and degree completion rates for African Americans attending the nation’s colleges and universities, including HBCUs?

How can transfer rates of African Americans from two-year to four-year institutions be improved?

What strategies should be undertaken to ensure that African American students receive adequate academic preparation, as evidenced by their SAT/ACT scores and their undergraduate grade point averages?

What new policies and procedures are needed to reduce the percentage of African Americans who are unemployed and to increase the percentage who are employed full-time after attaining their bachelor’s degrees?

**Graduate and First-Professional Students**

How can the transition from undergraduate school to graduate and first-professional degree programs be improved in order to increase African American student representation among those pursuing advanced degrees?

What new strategies are needed to eliminate the severe underrepresentation of African American men and women receiving doctoral degrees from the nation’s research universities?

What accounts for the relatively high contribution of HBCUs in awarding bachelor’s degrees to African Americans who eventually earn doctoral degrees?

What changes are needed in financial aid policies and practices in order to increase the likelihood that African Americans successfully enter and complete graduate and professional degrees?

What new actions are needed to increase African Americans’ performance on graduate and professional school admissions tests?

What actions are needed to ensure that high levels of undergraduate debt do not impede African Americans’ decision to enroll in graduate and professional schools?

What strategies are needed to ensure that the shift of financial aid from grants to loans
does not restrict African American and lower-income graduate and professional students' choice of institution to attend, selection of major field, and decision to attend and complete graduate and professional school?

- What role can HBCUs play in increasing African American student interest in and preparation for graduate and professional school?

**College and University Faculty**

- What new actions are needed to increase the representation of African American faculty, especially at research universities, where they are particularly underrepresented?
- What changes are needed in university promotion and compensation practices to ensure that African American faculty with education, experience, and productivity levels comparable to the level of White males are promoted and paid at equivalent rates?

**Adults**

- What strategies are needed to increase the representation and to remove the barriers that restrict the participation of African American adults in organized educational programs and activities?
- What roles should employers play to support their employees' participation in organized educational programs and activities?
- What strategies are needed to increase the participation in adult education activities of those who are out of the labor force and need such activities most?
- What is the socioeconomic value-added of various types of higher education for African Americans in the United States?
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8260 Willow Oaks Corporate Drive
P.O. Box 10444
Fairfax, Virginia 22301-4511
Phone (703) 205-3570  Fax (703) 205-2012

http://www.patterson-uncf.org

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Role and Mission Statement

The mission of the Frederick D. Patterson Research Institute is to design, conduct and disseminate research to policymakers, educators and the general public toward improving the educational opportunities and outcomes of African Americans. The research conducted by the Institute focuses upon the educational status and attainment of African Americans from preschool through adulthood. Through the joint efforts of a distinguished Advisory Committee, research staff, and consultants, the priorities and activities of the Institute seek to address the most important and challenging issues confronting African Americans in the United States.

The Frederick D. Patterson Research Institute is also committed to the training and development of educational researchers to study African American educational progress and attainment by offering research opportunities for doctoral students and other visiting scholars.

William H. Gray III
President and CEO
The College Fund/UNCF

"UNCF not only provides resources for African Americans in higher education, but will also be recognized as a major source of information with the establishment of the Frederick D. Patterson Research Institute."

On February 22, 1996, The College Fund/UNCF announced the creation of the Frederick D. Patterson Research Institute, named for the founder of UNCF. The Institute is the brainchild of the College Fund's President and CEO, William H. Gray III, and is the first African American-led research institute in the country to focus solely on education.

Michael T. Nettles, a professor at the University of Michigan's Center for the Study of Higher and Postsecondary Education, was named as the Frederick D. Patterson Research Institute's first Executive Director. Dr. Nettles has spent most of his career studying educational standards and testing, minority achievement, and issues related to historically black colleges and universities. During his first year in this post, Dr. Nettles is preparing the Institute by:

- recruiting an Advisory Committee and a team of researchers who will help plan and execute a research agenda for the Institute;
- planning and designing data acquisition and analyses for research and reporting on the status and progress of the education of African Americans in the United States; and
"The Patterson Institute will address the complex issues that affect today's educational policy and generate knowledge that can lead to better educational opportunities and outcomes."

- disseminating research and recommendations for improving the condition of the education of African Americans in the United States.

By providing original research and data collection, the research agenda of the Frederick D. Patterson Research Institute seeks to:

- improve the preparation, performance, and achievement of African Americans;

- expand the opportunities for African Americans; and

- examine the relationship between African Americans' educational preparation and the quality of their career and social achievement.

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I. DOCUMENT IDENTIFICATION:

Title: THE AFRICAN-AMERICAN EDUCATION DATA BOOK, VOLUME I: HIGHER AND ADULT EDUCATION.

with Executive Summary.

Author(s): Michael T. Netlles and Laura H. Perna

Corporate Source: Frederick D. Patterson Research Institute of The College Fund/UNCF

Publication Date: 1997

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Signature: Michael T. Netlles

Prined Name/Position/Title: Michael T. Netlles

Organizational Address: 8260 Willow Oaks Corporate Drive

P.O. Box 10444

FAIRFAX, VA 22031-4511

Telephone: 703-205-2001

FAX: 703-205-2012

Email Address: Netlles.M@patterson.uncf.org

Date: 3/31/97