Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups 2018
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FEBRUARY 2019

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February 2019

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This report was prepared for the National Center for Education Statistics under Contract No. ED-IES-12-D-0002 with American Institutes for Research. Mention of trade names, commercial products, or organizations does not imply endorsement by the U.S. Government.

Suggested Citation

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Highlights

Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups examines the educational progress and challenges students face in the United States by race/ethnicity. Through indicators and spotlights—which examine selected topics in greater detail—this report shows that over time, increasing numbers of students in the racial/ethnic groups of White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and Two or more races have completed high school and continued their education in college. Despite these gains, the rate of progress has varied among these racial/ethnic groups and differences by race/ethnicity persist in terms of increases in attainment and progress on key indicators of educational performance.

Spotlights

Spotlight A. Characteristics of Public School Teachers by Race/Ethnicity

In 2015–16, public elementary and secondary schools that had more racial/ethnic diversity in their student populations also tended to have more racial/ethnic diversity among teachers. The percentage of minority teachers was highest at schools that had 90 percent or more minority students (55 percent) and was lowest at schools that had less than 10 percent minority students (2 percent).

Spotlight B. Characteristics of Postsecondary Institutions Serving Specific Minority Racial/Ethnic Groups

In 2016–17, there were 4,360 degree-granting institutions in the United States, including four types of institutions serving specific minority racial/ethnic communities: 102 historically Black colleges and universities, 290 Hispanic-serving institutions, 35 tribally controlled colleges and universities, and 113 Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander-serving institutions.

Demographics

Indicator 1. Population Distribution

Between 2000 and 2017, the percentage of U.S. school-age children who were White decreased from 62 to 51 percent and the percentage who were Black decreased from 15 to 14 percent. In contrast, the percentages of school-age children from other racial/ethnic groups increased: Hispanic children, from 16 to 25 percent; Asian children, from 3 to 5 percent; and children of Two or more races, from 2 to 4 percent. The percentage of school-age American Indians/Alaska Natives remained at 1 percent and the percentage of Pacific Islanders remained at less than 1 percent during this time.

Indicator 2. Nativity

In 2016, about 97 percent of U.S. children under age 18 were born within the United States. The percentages of Asian (80 percent), Pacific Islander (93 percent), and Hispanic children (94 percent) born within the United States were below the average of 97 percent for all children. In contrast, the percentages born within the United States for Black children (97 percent), White children and children of Two or more races (99 percent each), and American Indian/Alaska Native children (rounds to 100 percent) were above the average for all children.

Indicator 3. Children’s Living Arrangements

In 2016, the percentage of children living with married parents was highest for Asian children (84 percent), followed by White children (73 percent); children of Two of more races, Pacific Islander children, and Hispanic children (57 percent each); and American Indian/Alaska Native children (45 percent). The percentage was lowest for Black children (33 percent).

Indicator 4. Children Living in Poverty

In 2016, the percentage of children under the age of 18 in families living in poverty was higher for Black children than Hispanic children (31 and 26 percent, respectively), and the percentages for both of these groups were higher than for White and Asian children (10 percent each).

Among Hispanic subgroups in 2016, the percentage of children under age 18 living in poverty ranged from 11 to 38 percent. Among Asian subgroups, the percentage of children living in poverty ranged from 6 to 37 percent.
Preprimary, Elementary, and Secondary Education Participation

Indicator 5. Early Childcare and Education Arrangements

In 2016, about 29 percent of children under 6 years old who were not enrolled in kindergarten regularly received center-based care as their primary care arrangement. The percentage of children who regularly received center-based care was lower for Hispanic children (23 percent) than for children of Two or more races (34 percent) and for Black (32 percent), White (31 percent), and Asian children (31 percent).

Indicator 6. Elementary and Secondary Enrollment

Between fall 2000 and fall 2015, the percentage of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools who were White decreased from 61 to 49 percent. The percentage of Black students also decreased during this period from 17 to 15 percent. In contrast, there was an increase in the percentage of students enrolled in public schools who were Hispanic (from 16 to 26 percent) and Asian/Pacific Islander (4 to 5 percent) during this time period.

Indicator 7. Racial/Ethnic Concentration in Public Schools

In fall 2015, approximately 30 percent of public students attended public schools in which the combined enrollment of minority students was at least 75 percent of total enrollment. Over half of Hispanic (60 percent), Black (58 percent), and Pacific Islander students (53 percent) attended such schools. In contrast, less than half of Asian students (38 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native students (37 percent), students of Two or more races (19 percent), and White students (5 percent) attended such schools.

Indicator 8. English Language Learners in Public Schools

In fall 2015, about 4.9 million public school students were identified as English language learners (ELL). Over three-quarters of ELL students were Hispanic (77.7 percent, or 3.8 million students).

Indicator 9. Students With Disabilities

In school year 2015–16, the percentage of students served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) was highest for those who were American Indian/Alaska Native (17 percent), followed by those who were Black (16 percent), White (14 percent), of Two or more races (13 percent), Hispanic and Pacific Islander (12 percent each), and Asian (7 percent).

Achievement

Indicator 10. Reading Achievement

At grade 4, the White-Black gap in reading achievement scores narrowed from 32 points in 1992 to 26 points in 2017; the White-Hispanic gap in 2017 (23 points) was not measurably different from the gap in 1992. At grade 8, the White-Hispanic gap narrowed from 26 points in 1992 to 19 points in 2017; the White-Black gap in 2017 (25 points) was not measurably different from the gap in 1992.

Indicator 11. Mathematics Achievement

At grade 4, the White-Black achievement gap in mathematics achievement scores narrowed from 32 points in 1990 to 25 points in 2017; the White-Hispanic gap in 2017 (19 points) was not measurably different from the gap in 1990. At grade 8, there was no measurable difference in the White-Black achievement gap in 2017 (32 points) and 1990. Similarly, the White-Hispanic achievement gap at grade 8 in 2017 (24 points) was not measurably different from the gap in 1990.

Indicator 12. Absenteeism and Achievement

Students with fewer absences from school scored higher in reading and mathematics assessments than their peers with more absences. In 2017, the percentage of 8th-graders who reported that they had zero absences from school in the last month was higher for Asian students (62 percent) than for students who were Black (42 percent), White, Hispanic, of Two or more races (40 percent each), Pacific Islander (38 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (35 percent).
Indicator 13. High School Coursetaking

The percentage of students who were 9th-graders in fall 2009 earning their highest math course credit in calculus by 2013 was higher for Asian students (45 percent) than students of every other racial/ethnic group. The percentage earning their highest math course credit in calculus was also higher for White students (18 percent) than students of Two or more races (11 percent), Hispanic students (10 percent), and Black students (6 percent).

Indicator 14. Advanced Placement and International Baccalaureate

The percentage of students who were 9th-graders in fall 2009 earning any Advanced Placement/International Baccalaureate (AP/IB) credits by 2013 was higher for Asian students (72 percent) than for White students (40 percent). The percentages for Asian and White students were higher than the percentages for students of any other racial/ethnic group.

Student Behaviors and Persistence

Indicator 15. Retention, Suspension, and Expulsion

Between 2000 and 2016, the percentage of students retained in a grade decreased from 3.1 to 1.9 percent. This pattern was observed among White, Black, and Hispanic students.

In 2013–14, about 2.6 million public school students (5.3 percent) received one or more out-of-school suspensions. A higher percentage of Black students (13.7 percent) than of students from any other racial/ethnic group received an out-of-school suspension, followed by 6.7 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native students, 5.3 percent of students of Two or more races, 4.5 percent each of Hispanic and Pacific Islander students, 3.4 percent of White students, and 1.1 percent of Asian students.

Indicator 16. Safety at School

In 2015, the percentage of students in grades 9–12 who reported they had been in a physical fight on school property during the previous 12 months was 6 percent for White students; this was lower than the percentages of Hispanic students and students of Two or more races (9 percent each) and Black and American Indian/Alaska Native students (13 percent each).

Indicator 17. High School Status Dropout Rates

From 2000 to 2016, the Hispanic status dropout rate among 16- to 24-year-olds decreased from 28 to 9 percent, while the Black rate decreased from 13 to 6 percent, and the White rate decreased from 7 to 5 percent. Nevertheless, the Hispanic status dropout rate in 2016 remained higher than the Black and White rates. There was no measurable difference between the Black and White status dropout rates in 2016.

In 2016, among Hispanic 16- to 24-year-olds in the United States, the high school status dropout rate ranged from 2.4 percent for individuals of Peruvian descent to 22.9 percent for those of Guatemalan descent. Among Asian 16- to 24-year-olds, status dropout rates ranged from 0.7 percent for individuals of Korean descent to 29.7 percent for those of Burmese descent.

Indicator 18. High School Status Completion Rates

From 2000 to 2016, the high school status completion rate for Hispanic 18- to 24-year-olds increased from 64 to 89 percent, while the Black and White status completion rates increased from 84 to 92 percent and from 92 to 94 percent, respectively. Although the White-Hispanic and White-Black gaps in status completion rates narrowed between 2000 and 2016, the rates for Hispanic and Black 18- to 24-year-olds remained lower than the White rate in 2016.
Postsecondary Education

Indicator 19. College Participation Rates

In 2016, the total college enrollment rate was higher for Asian young adults (58 percent) than for young adults who were of Two or more races (42 percent), White (42 percent), Hispanic (39 percent), Black (36 percent), Pacific Islander (21 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (19 percent). From 2000 to 2016, total college enrollment rates increased for White (from 39 to 42 percent), Black (from 31 to 36 percent), and Hispanic young adults (from 22 to 39 percent) but were not measurably different for the other racial/ethnic groups during this time period.

Among Hispanic subgroups, the average college enrollment rate in 2016 ranged from 27 percent for Honduran 18- to 24-year-olds to 64 percent for Chilean 18- to 24-year-olds. Among Asian subgroups, the average college enrollment rate ranged from 23 percent for Burmese 18- to 24-year-olds to 81 percent for Other Southeast Asian (including Indonesian and Malaysian) 18- to 24-year-olds.

Indicator 20. Undergraduate Enrollment

Between 2000 and 2016, Hispanic undergraduate enrollment more than doubled (a 134 percent increase from 1.4 million to 3.2 million students). The enrollment for most other racial/ethnic groups increased during the first part of this period, then began to decrease around 2010.

In 2016, a greater percentage of undergraduates were female than male across all racial/ethnic groups. The gap between female and male enrollment was widest for Black students (62 vs. 38 percent) and narrowest for Asian students (53 vs. 47 percent).

Indicator 21. Postbaccalaureate Enrollment

Between 2000 and 2016, Hispanic postbaccalaureate enrollment more than doubled (a 134 percent increase, from 111,000 to 260,000 students) and Black postbaccalaureate enrollment doubled (a 100 percent increase, from 181,000 to 363,000).

In 2016, a greater percentage of postbaccalaureate students were female than male across all racial/ethnic groups. The gap between female and male enrollment was widest for Black students (70 vs. 30 percent) and narrowest for Asian students (56 vs. 44 percent).

Indicator 22. Financial Aid

Among full-time, full-year undergraduate students, 88 percent of Black students, 87 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native students, and 82 percent of Hispanic students received grants in 2015–16. These percentages were higher than the percentages for White (74 percent) and Asian (66 percent) students.

Among full-time, full-year undergraduate students, a higher percentage of Black students (71 percent) received loans in 2015–16 than students who were White (56 percent), of Two or more races (54 percent), Pacific Islander (53 percent), Hispanic (50 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (38 percent), and Asian (31 percent).

Indicator 23. Postsecondary Graduation Rates

The 6-year graduation rate for first-time, full-time undergraduate students who began their pursuit of a bachelor’s degree at a 4-year degree-granting institution in fall 2010 was highest for Asian students (74 percent), followed by White students (64 percent), students of Two or more races (60 percent), Hispanic students (54 percent), Pacific Islander students (51 percent), Black students (40 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native students (39 percent).

Indicator 24. Degrees Awarded

The number of bachelor’s degrees awarded to Hispanic students more than tripled between 2000–01 and 2015–16. During the same period, the number of degrees awarded also increased for students who were Asian/Pacific Islander (by 75 percent), Black (by 75 percent), and White (by 29 percent).
Indicator 25. Undergraduate and Graduate Degree Fields

In 2015–16, a higher percentage of bachelor’s degrees were awarded in business than in any other field across all racial/ethnic groups, with the percentages ranging from 16 percent for students of Two or more races to 22 percent for Pacific Islander students.

Indicator 26. STEM Degrees

Overall, a higher percentage of bachelor’s degrees were awarded to females than to males in 2015–16 (58 vs. 42 percent). However, in STEM fields, a lower percentage of bachelor’s degrees were awarded to females than to males (36 vs. 64 percent). This pattern—in which females received higher percentages of bachelor’s degrees overall but lower percentages of bachelor’s degrees in STEM fields—was observed across all racial/ethnic groups.

Outcomes of Education

Indicator 27. Educational Attainment

In 2016, the percentage of adults age 25 and over who had not completed high school was higher for Hispanic adults (33 percent) than for adults in any other racial/ethnic group (with percentages ranging from a low of 8 percent for White adults to a high of 17 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native adults).

In 2016, the percentage of Hispanic adults age 25 and older with a bachelor’s or higher degree ranged from 9 percent for Salvadorans and Guatemalan adults to 55 percent for Venezuelan adults. Among Asian subgroups, the percentage ranged from 10 percent for Bhutanese adults to 74 percent for Asian Indian adults.

Indicator 28. Unemployment

In 2016, unemployment rates among adults ages 25 to 64 were higher for American Indian/Alaska Native adults (11 percent) than for Black (8 percent), Hispanic (5 percent), White (4 percent), and Asian (4 percent) adults. In addition, a higher percentage of Black than of Hispanic, White, and Asian adults were unemployed.

Indicator 29. Youth and Young Adults Neither Enrolled in School nor Working

In 2017, the percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds who were neither enrolled in school nor working ranged from 10 percent for Asian young adults to 31 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native young adults.

Indicator 30. Earnings and Employment

In 2016, among those with a bachelor’s or higher degree, Asian full-time, year-round workers ages 25–34 had higher median annual earnings ($69,100) than their White peers ($54,700), and median earnings for both racial/ethnic groups were higher than those of their Black ($49,400) and Hispanic ($49,300) peers.
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Introduction

This report uses statistics to examine current conditions and changes over time in education activities and outcomes for different racial/ethnic groups in the United States. The indicators in this report show that some traditionally disadvantaged racial/ethnic groups have made strides in educational achievement, but that gaps still persist.

Disparities in the educational participation and attainment of different racial/ethnic groups in the United States are well documented. One study found that school readiness gaps narrowed between 1998 and 2010, but progress was uneven among racial/ethnic groups. For instance, the gap between White and Hispanic students in school readiness has narrowed, but the gap between White and Black students showed less movement. Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Group 2018 contributes to this body of research by examining the educational progress and challenges of students in the United States by race/ethnicity. The primary focus of this report is to examine differences in educational participation and attainment of students in the racial/ethnic groups of White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and Two or more races. The secondary focus of this report is to illustrate the changing demographics in the United States. Measuring population growth and diversity is important for anticipating the needs of schools and teachers. This report shows that over time, students in these racial/ethnic groups have completed high school and continued their education in college in increasing numbers. Despite these gains, the rate of progress has varied among these racial/ethnic groups and differences by race/ethnicity persist in terms of increases in attainment and progress on key indicators of educational performance. This report uses the most recent data available and reports on demographics, preprimary, elementary, and secondary education participation, student achievement, student behaviors and persistence, postsecondary education, and outcomes of education.


Organization of the Report

The report begins with demographic information (Chapter 1) and then is organized roughly according to the chronology of an individual’s education, starting with indicators on preprimary, elementary, and secondary participation (Chapter 2), and continuing with student achievement (Chapter 3), student behaviors and persistence in education (Chapter 4), postsecondary education (Chapter 5), and outcomes of education (Chapter 6). In addition, it includes two spotlight indicators: characteristics of public school teachers by race/ethnicity (Spotlight A) and characteristics of minority-serving institutions (Spotlight B).

Race and Ethnicity

The Office of Management and Budget (OMB) is responsible for the standards that govern the categories used to collect and present federal data on race and ethnicity. The OMB revised the guidelines on racial/ethnic categories used by the federal government in October 1997, with a January 2003 deadline for implementation. The revised standards, available here: https://www.federalregister.gov/documents/1997/10/30/97-28653/revisions-to-the-standards-for-the-classification-of-federal-data-on-race-and-ethnicity require a minimum of these five categories for data on race: American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, and White. The standards also require the collection of data on the ethnicity categories Hispanic or Latino and Not Hispanic or Latino. In support of the 1997 OMB guidelines, the Department of Education issued final guidance in 2007 on the collection and reporting of racial/ethnic data. More information on this guidance is available here: https://www2.ed.gov/policy/rschstat/guid/raceethnicity/index.html. It is important to note that Hispanic origin is an ethnicity rather than a race, and therefore persons of Hispanic
origin may be of any race. Origin can be viewed as the heritage, nationality group, lineage, or country of birth of the person or the person’s parents or ancestors before their arrival in the United States. The race categories White, Black, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, and American Indian or Alaska Native, as presented in these indicators, exclude persons of Hispanic origin unless noted otherwise.

The categories are defined as follows:

- **American Indian or Alaska Native**: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America) and maintaining tribal affiliation or community attachment.
- **Asian**: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent, including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam.
- **Black or African American**: A person having origins in any of the black racial groups of Africa.
- **Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander**: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands.
- **White**: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa.
- **Hispanic or Latino**: A person of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race.

Within these indicators, some of the category labels have been shortened in the text, tables, and figures. American Indian or Alaska Native is denoted as American Indian/Alaska Native (except when separate estimates are available for American Indians alone or Alaska Natives alone); Black or African American is shortened to Black; Hispanic or Latino is shortened to Hispanic; and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander is shortened to Pacific Islander.

The indicators draw from a number of different sources. Many are federal surveys that collect data using the OMB standards for racial/ethnic classification described above; however, some sources have not fully adopted the standards, and some indicators include data collected prior to the adoption of the OMB standards. This report focuses on the six categories that are the most common among the various data sources used: White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native. In some data sources, Asians and Pacific Islanders are combined into one category so data cannot be reported separately for these two groups.

Some of the surveys from which data are presented in these indicators give respondents the option of selecting either an “other” race category, a “Two or more races” or “multiracial” category, or both. Where possible, indicators present data on the “Two or more races” category; however, in some cases this category may not be separately shown because the information was not collected or due to other data issues such as small sample sizes. The “other” category is not separately shown. Any comparisons made between persons of one racial/ethnic group to “all other racial/ethnic groups” include only the racial/ethnic groups shown in the indicator. For postsecondary data, foreign students are counted separately and are therefore not included in any racial/ethnic category.

The American Community Survey (ACS), conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau, collects information regarding specific racial/ethnic ancestry. This survey is used as a source for several indicators in this publication. These indicators include Hispanic ancestry subgroups (e.g., Cuban, Dominican, Mexican, Other Central American, Puerto Rican, Salvadoran, and South American) and Asian ancestry subgroups (e.g., Asian Indian, Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese). For more information on the ACS, see the Guide to Sources (appendix A). For more information on race/ethnicity, see the Glossary (appendix B).

**Data Sources and Estimates**

The data in these indicators were obtained from many different sources—including students and teachers, state education agencies, local elementary and secondary schools, and colleges and universities—using surveys and compilations of administrative records. Users should be cautious when comparing data from different sources. Differences in aspects such as procedures, timing, question phrasing, and interviewer training can affect the comparability of results across data sources.

Most indicators summarize data from surveys conducted by NCES or by the Census Bureau with support from NCES. Brief explanations of the major NCES surveys used in these indicators can be found in the Guide to Sources (appendix A). Table A provides a summary of some of the variations in the design and coverage of data sources used in this report. More detailed explanations can be obtained on the NCES website (https://nces.ed.gov) under “Surveys and Programs.”
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The Guide to Sources also includes information on non-NCES sources used to compile indicators, such as the American Community Survey (ACS) and the Current Population Survey (CPS). These Census Bureau surveys are used extensively in the indicators. For further details on the ACS, see http://www.census.gov/acs/www/. For further details on the CPS, see https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/cps.html.

Data for indicators are obtained from two types of surveys: universe surveys and sample surveys. In universe surveys, information is collected from every member of the population. For example, in a survey regarding certain expenditures of public elementary and secondary schools, data would be obtained from each school district in the United States. When data from an entire population are available, estimates of the total population or a subpopulation are made by simply summing the units in the population or subpopulation. As a result, there is no sampling error, and observed differences are reported as true.

Since a universe survey is often expensive and time consuming, many surveys collect data from a sample of the population of interest (sample survey). For example, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) assesses a representative sample of students rather than the entire population of students. When a sample survey is used, statistical uncertainty is introduced, because the data come from only a portion of the entire population. This statistical uncertainty must be considered when reporting estimates and making comparisons.

Various types of statistics derived from universe and sample surveys are reported in the indicators. Many indicators report the size of a population or a subpopulation, and often the size of a subpopulation is expressed as a percentage of the total population. In addition, the average (or mean) value of some characteristic of the population or subpopulation may be reported. The average is obtained by summing the values for all members of the population and dividing the sum by the size of the population. An example is the annual average salaries of full-time instructional faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions. Another measure that is sometimes used is the median. The median is the midpoint value of a characteristic at or above which 50 percent of the population is estimated to fall, and at or below which 50 percent of the population is estimated to fall. An example is the median annual earnings of young adults who are full-time, full-year wage and salary workers.

**Standard Errors**

Using estimates calculated from data based on a sample of the population requires consideration of several factors before the estimates become meaningful. When using data from a sample, some margin of error will always be present in estimations of characteristics of the total population or subpopulation because the data are available from only a portion of the total population. Consequently, data from samples can provide only an approximation of the true or actual value. The margin of error of an estimate, or the range of potential true or actual values, depends on several factors such as the amount of variation in the responses, the size and representativeness of the sample, and the size of the subgroup for which the estimate is computed. The magnitude of this margin of error is measured by what statisticians call the “standard error” of an estimate.

When data from sample surveys are reported, the standard error is calculated for each estimate. The standard errors for all estimated totals, means, medians, or percentages are reported in the Reference tables.

In order to caution the reader when interpreting findings in the indicators, estimates from sample surveys are flagged with a “!” when the standard error is between 30 and 50 percent of the estimate, and suppressed with a “‡” when the standard error is 50 percent of the estimate or greater.
Data Analysis and Interpretation

When estimates are from a sample, caution is warranted when drawing conclusions about one estimate in comparison to another, or about whether a time series of estimates is increasing, decreasing, or staying the same. Although one estimate may appear to be larger than another, a statistical test may find that the apparent difference between them is not reliably measurable due to the uncertainty around the estimates. In this case, the estimates will be described as having no measurable difference, meaning that the difference between them is not statistically significant. Conversely, statistically significant differences may be referred to as “measurably different” in the text.

Whether differences in means or percentages are statistically significant can be determined using the standard errors of the estimates. In these indicators and other reports produced by NCES, when differences are statistically significant, the probability that the difference occurred by chance is less than 5 percent.

Data presented in the indicators do not investigate more complex hypotheses, account for interrelationships among variables, or support causal inferences. We encourage readers who are interested in more complex questions and in-depth analysis to explore other NCES resources, including publications, online data tools, and public- and restricted-use datasets at https://nces.ed.gov.

For all indicators that report estimates based on samples, differences between estimates are stated only when they are statistically significant. Findings described in this report with comparative language (e.g., higher, lower, increase, and decrease) are statistically significant. To determine whether differences reported are statistically significant, two-tailed \( t \) tests at the .05 level are typically used. The \( t \) test formula for determining statistical significance is adjusted when the samples being compared are dependent. The \( t \) test formula is not adjusted for multiple comparisons, with the exception of statistical tests conducted using the NAEP Data Explorer (https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/tdw/database/data_tool.asp). When the variables to be tested are postulated to form a trend, the relationship may be tested using linear regression, logistic regression, or ANOVA trend analysis instead of a series of \( t \) tests. These alternate methods of analysis test for specific relationships (e.g., linear, quadratic, or cubic) among variables. For more information on data analysis, please see the NCES Statistical Standards, Standard 5-1, available at https://nces.ed.gov/statprog/2012/pdf/Chapter5.pdf.

In general, only statistically significant findings are discussed in the text. However, statistically nonsignificant differences between groups may be highlighted for clarification purposes. Statistically nonsignificant differences may also be discussed when they relate to a primary focus of the report, such as if achievement gaps have remained unchanged over time.

A number of considerations influence the ultimate selection of the data years to feature in the indicators. To make analyses as timely as possible, the latest year of available data is shown. The choice of comparison years may be based on the need to show the earliest available survey year, as in the case of the NAEP survey. In the case of surveys with long time frames, such as surveys measuring enrollment, the decade’s beginning year (e.g., 2000 or 2010) often starts the trend line. In the figures and tables of the indicators, intervening years are selected in increments in order to show the general trend. The narrative for the indicators typically compares the most current year’s data with those from the initial year and then with those from a more recent period. Where applicable, the narrative may also note years in which the data begin to diverge from previous trends.

Rounding and Other Considerations

All calculations within the indicators are based on unrounded estimates. Therefore, the reader may find that a calculation, such as a difference or a percentage change, cited in the text or figure may not be identical to the calculation obtained by using the rounded values shown in the accompanying tables. Although values reported in the Reference tables are generally rounded to one decimal place (e.g., 76.5 percent), values reported in each indicator are generally rounded to whole numbers (with any value of 0.50 or above rounded to the next highest whole number). Due to rounding, cumulative percentages may sometimes equal 99 or 101 percent rather than 100 percent. While the data labels on the figures have been rounded to whole numbers for most indicators, the graphical presentation of these data is based on the unrounded estimates.

Limitations of the Data

The relatively small sizes of the American Indian/Alaska Native and Pacific Islander populations pose many measurement difficulties when conducting statistical analyses. Even in larger surveys, the numbers of American Indians/Alaska Natives and Pacific Islanders included in a sample are often small. Researchers studying data on these two populations often face small sample sizes that reduce the reliability of results. Survey data for these two groups often have somewhat higher standard errors than data for other racial/ethnic groups. Due to large standard errors, differences that appear substantial are often not statistically significant and, therefore, not cited in the text. Data on American Indians/Alaska Natives are often subject to uncertainties that can result from respondents self-identifying their race/ethnicity. According to research on the collection of race/ethnicity data conducted by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1995 (https://www.bls.gov/news.release/history/ethnic_102795.txt), the categorization of American Indian and Alaska Native is the least stable self-identification. The racial/ethnic categories presented to
a respondent, and the way in which the question is asked, can influence the response, especially for individuals who consider themselves of mixed race or ethnicity. These data limitations should be kept in mind when reading this report.

As mentioned above, Asians and Pacific Islanders are combined into one category in indicators for which the data were not collected separately for the two groups. The combined category can sometimes mask significant differences between subgroups. For example, prior to 2011, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) collected data that did not allow for separate reporting of estimates for Asians and Pacific Islanders. Information from the Digest of Education Statistics 2017 (table 101.20), based on the Census Bureau Current Population Reports, indicates that 96 percent of all Asian/Pacific Islander 5- to 24-year-olds are Asian. Thus, the combined category for Asians/Pacific Islanders is more representative of Asians than Pacific Islanders.

Relatively small sample sizes are also an issue for some of the Hispanic and Asian ancestry subgroups discussed in several indicators. Data on these subgroups are only available in the ACS. Even when data are available, the number of individuals within some of the subgroups can be small, often resulting in large standard errors.

Symbols

In accordance with the NCES Statistical Standards, many tables in this volume use a series of symbols to alert the reader to special statistical notes. These symbols, and their meanings, are as follows:

— Not available.
† Not applicable.
# Rounds to zero.
! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.
‡ Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is 50 percent or greater.
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The spotlight indicators in this chapter of *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups* examine selected topics in greater detail. These indicators feature innovative data collections and analyses from across the National Center for Education Statistics.

These spotlight indicators are available at the *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups* website: [https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/](https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/).
Spotlights

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Spotlight A

Characteristics of Public School Teachers by Race/Ethnicity

Schools that had more racial/ethnic diversity in their student populations also tended to have more racial/ethnic diversity among teachers. The percentage of minority teachers was highest at schools that had 90 percent or more minority students (55 percent) and was lowest at schools that had less than 10 percent minority students (2 percent).

The racial/ethnic diversity of public school students has increased over time (see Elementary and Secondary Enrollment). Research has shown that having a teacher of the same race/ethnicity can have positive impacts on a student’s attitudes, motivation, and achievement and minority teachers may have more positive expectations for minority students’ achievement than nonminority teachers. Additionally, other characteristics of the teacher workforce, such as their years of experience in the classroom, are also of frequent interest in examinations of teacher qualifications. Examining characteristics of the teacher population by race/ethnicity can help provide context on the diversity and experience of teachers in our public schools.

Figure A.1. Percentage distribution of teachers in public elementary and secondary schools, by race/ethnicity: School years 2003–04 and 2015–16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/ethnicity</th>
<th>2003–04</th>
<th>2015–16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
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<td>Asian</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

# Rounds to zero.

NOTE: Data are based on a head count of full-time and part-time teachers. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. Although rounded numbers are shown, figures are based on unrounded estimates.


The majority of public elementary and secondary school teachers were White in both 2003–04 (the first year for which teacher data for all racial/ethnic groups were available) and 2015–16. However, the percentage of teachers who were White was lower in 2015–16 than in 2003–04 (80 vs. 83 percent). The percentage of teachers who were Black was also lower in 2015–16 than in 2003–04 (7 vs. 8 percent). In contrast, the percentages of teachers who were Hispanic, Asian, and of Two or more races were higher in 2015–16 than in 2003–04. The percentages of teachers who were Pacific Islander in these two years were not measurably different, nor were the percentages who were American Indian/Alaska Native.
Schools with more racial/ethnic diversity in their student populations also tended to have more racial/ethnic diversity among teachers. The percentage of minority teachers was highest at schools that had 90 percent or more minority students (55 percent), followed by schools with 75 to 89 percent minority students (31 percent), schools with 50 to 74 percent minority students (20 percent), schools with 24 to 49 percent minority students (10 percent), and schools with 10 to 24 percent minority students (4 percent), and was lowest at schools with less than 10 percent minority students (2 percent). The opposite pattern was observed for White teachers, who accounted for 98 percent of teachers at schools with less than 10 percent minority students but made up only 45 percent of staff at schools with 90 percent or more minority students.

The distribution of teachers by race/ethnicity also varied by school classification. For example, the percentage of teachers who were of a minority race/ethnicity was higher at public charter schools (29 percent) than at traditional public schools (19 percent). The percentages of minority teachers within individual race/ethnicity groups was also higher at public charter schools than traditional public schools for Black teachers (9 vs. 7 percent), Hispanic teachers (14 vs. 9 percent), and teachers of Two or more races (2 vs. 1 percent). In contrast, the percentage of teachers who were White was higher at traditional public schools (81 percent) than at public charter schools (71 percent), and the same was true for the percentage of teachers who were American Indian/Alaska Native (it was 0.4 percent at traditional public and 0.2 percent at public charter schools).
The distribution of teachers by race/ethnicity also differed by school location. There was a higher percentage of teachers from minority racial/ethnic groups in city schools (31 percent) than in suburban schools (18 percent), town schools (12 percent), or rural schools (11 percent). Additionally, the percentage of minority teachers in suburban schools was higher than the percentages in town and rural schools. This same pattern held for teachers of these specific racial/ethnic groups: Black, Hispanic, and Asian. Conversely, the percentage of White teachers was higher in rural schools (89 percent) than in suburban schools (82 percent) or city schools (69 percent). In addition, the percentage of White teachers was higher in schools in towns (88 percent) and suburban areas than in city schools.
Teachers’ level of experience varied by race/ethnicity. In 2015–16, a higher percentage of teachers of Two or more races (17 percent) than of Black teachers (12 percent), Asian teachers (11 percent), and White teachers (9 percent) had less than 3 years of experience. The percentages of Black (12 percent) and Hispanic (13 percent) teachers with this level of experience were also higher than the percentage for White teachers. At the other end of the experience spectrum, a higher percentage of White teachers (24 percent) than of Black teachers (19 percent), Asian teachers (16 percent), teachers of Two or more races (16 percent), and Hispanic teachers (15 percent) had over 20 years of experience. The percentage who had over 20 years of experience was also higher for Black teachers than for Hispanic teachers, and higher for American Indian/Alaska Native teachers (26 percent) than for Asian and Hispanic teachers.
A higher percentage of Hispanic teachers (51 percent) than of teachers of Two or more races (42 percent), White teachers (40 percent), Black teachers (37 percent), and Asian teachers (35 percent) had earned a bachelor's degree as their highest degree. The percentage whose highest degree was a bachelor's was also higher for White teachers than for Black and Asian teachers, and higher for teachers of Two or more races than for Asian teachers.

A higher percentage of Asian teachers (50 percent) and White teachers (48 percent) than of Black teachers (45 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (40 percent), and Hispanic teachers (39 percent) had earned a master's degree as their highest degree. The percentages whose highest degree was a master's were also higher for teachers of Two or more races (46 percent) and Black teachers than for Hispanic teachers. A higher percentage of Black teachers (14 percent) and Asian teachers (11 percent) than of White teachers (8 percent), teachers of Two or more races (7 percent), and Hispanic teachers (7 percent) had earned an education specialist degree as their highest degree. The percentage whose highest degree was an education specialist degree was also higher for Black teachers than for American Indian/Alaska Native teachers (8 percent). A higher percentage of Black teachers (2 percent) than of White teachers, Hispanic teachers, and Asian teachers (1 percent for each) had earned a doctor's degree as their highest degree.

Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.

‡ Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.

1 Education specialist degrees or certificates are generally awarded for 1 year’s work beyond the master’s level. Includes certificate of advanced graduate studies.

NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. Although rounded numbers are shown, figures are based on unrounded estimates.

Endnotes:
5 Minority teachers include all racial/ethnic groups except for White. Minority teachers were combined in some instances in this indicator due to small sample sizes for some groups not allowing for a full distribution to be presented.

Reference tables: *Digest of Education Statistics 2017*, tables 209.10 and 209.23

Related indicators and resources: Characteristics of Public School Teachers (The Condition of Education); Elementary and Secondary Enrollment; Racial/Ethnic Concentration in Public Schools

Data sources: National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS) and Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS)

Glossary: Public school or institution
Spotlight B

Characteristics of Postsecondary Institutions Serving Specific Minority Racial/Ethnic Groups

In 2016–17, there were 4,360 degree-granting institutions in the United States, including four types of institutions serving specific minority racial/ethnic communities: 102 historically Black colleges and universities, 290 Hispanic-serving institutions, 35 tribally controlled colleges and universities, and 113 Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander-serving institutions.

In academic year 2016–17, there were 4,360 degree-granting institutions in the United States, including institutions serving specific minority racial/ethnic communities. This spotlight discusses the characteristics, enrollment, and degrees conferred at four types of these institutions: historically Black colleges and universities, Hispanic-serving institutions, tribally controlled colleges and universities, and Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander-serving institutions.

Figure B.1. Total enrollment and Black enrollment at historically Black colleges and universities: Selected years, fall 1976 through fall 2016

---

In fall 2016, there were 102 historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs), including twelve 2-year institutions and ninety 4-year institutions. HBCUs were established with the passing of the Higher Education Act of 1965, as amended, and are defined as “any historically Black college or university that was established prior to 1964, whose principal mission was, and is, the education of Black Americans.” This act, as well as subsequent executive orders, established federal programs “to overcome the effects of discriminatory treatment” by providing HBCUs with adequate resources and funds to strengthen the education of Black students in the United States. In 2016, there were HBCUs in 19 states, the District of Columbia, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. In 2016, there were 95 HBCUs in the South, while there were 4 HBCUs in the Midwest and 2 in the Northeast. Although HBCUs were originally founded to educate Black students, they also enroll students of other races. In 2016, non-Black students made up 23 percent of enrollment at HBCUs, compared with 15 percent in 1976.
In fall 2016, about 292,100 students, including 223,500 Black students, were enrolled at HBCUs. Overall enrollment at HBCUs increased 47 percent between 1976 and 2010 (from 222,600 to 326,600 students), and then decreased 11 percent between 2010 and 2016. In comparison, the number of students in all degree-granting institutions increased 91 percent between 1976 and 2010, and then decreased 6 percent between 2010 and 2016. While Black enrollment at HBCUs increased by 17 percent between 1976 and 2016 (from 190,300 to 223,500 students), the total number of Black students enrolled in all postsecondary institutions across the United States more than doubled, from 1.0 million students in 1976 to 2.6 million students in 2016. As a result, Black enrollment at HBCUs accounted for 9 percent of overall Black enrollment in 2016, which is a decrease from 18 percent in 1976.

Female enrollment at HBCUs has been higher than male enrollment in every year since 1976. The percentage of female enrollment at HBCUs increased from 53 percent in fall 1976 to 61 percent in fall 2016. Similarly, female students accounted for 62 percent of Black enrollment at HBCUs in 2016, an increase from 56 percent in 1976.

Figure B.2. Percentage distribution of degrees conferred at historically Black colleges and universities, by level of degree, race/ethnicity, and sex: Academic year 2015–16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of degree</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate’s</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctor’s</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Includes U.S. citizens, permanent residents, and nonresident alien students.

NOTE: Includes institutions from the 50 states, the District of Columbia, as well as one institution in the U.S. Virgin Islands. Includes only degree-granting institutions that grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Degrees conferred to Black students exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, figures are based on unrounded percentages. Detail may not sum to 100 percent because of rounding.


In academic year 2015–16, some 48,900 degrees were conferred by HBCUs. Of the degrees conferred by HBCUs, associate’s degrees accounted for 9 percent, more than two thirds were bachelor’s degrees (69 percent), master’s degrees accounted for 16 percent of degrees, and doctor’s degrees accounted for 5 percent.

Of the degrees awarded at HBCUs, the majority (75 percent) were conferred to Black students. Black students earned 46 percent of the associate’s degrees, 81 percent of the bachelor’s degrees, 70 percent of the master’s degrees, and 61 percent of the doctor’s degrees in 2015–16. At all levels, the majority of degrees awarded to Black students were awarded to Black female students: 71 percent of the associate’s degrees, 65 percent of the bachelor’s degrees, 71 percent of the master’s degrees, and 67 percent of the doctor’s degrees.

The degrees awarded to Black students by HBCUs accounted for 9 percent of degrees awarded to Black students by all institutions. However, the percentage of degrees conferred to Black students by HBCUs varied by degree level: 2 percent of associate’s degrees, 14 percent of bachelor’s degrees, 6 percent of master’s degrees, and 11 percent of doctor’s degrees.
In fall 2016, there were 290 Hispanic-serving institutions (HSIs), including 147 that were 2-year institutions and 143 that were 4-year institutions. If an institution has an enrollment of undergraduate full-time equivalent students that is at least 25 percent Hispanic and meets additional eligibility requirements, they can apply to be designated an Hispanic-serving institution. This designation allows an institution to apply for federal funding that focuses on expanding educational opportunities for, and improving the attainment of, Hispanic students. In 2016, there were HSIs in 18 states, with 157 HSIs in the West and 79 in the South. About 3.0 million students, including 1.5 million Hispanic students, were enrolled at HSIs in 2016. Hispanic enrollment at HSIs accounted for 44 percent of overall Hispanic enrollment.
In academic year 2015–16, some 185,100 degrees were conferred to Hispanic students by HSIs: more than half (54 percent) of these degrees were associate's degrees, 37 percent were bachelor's degrees, 8 percent were master's degrees, and 1 percent were doctor's degrees. The number of degrees awarded to Hispanic students by HSIs accounted for 37 percent of degrees awarded to Hispanic students by all institutions.

In academic year 2015–16, about 100,500 associate’s degrees were conferred to Hispanic students by HSIs, accounting for 51 percent of associate’s degrees conferred to Hispanic students by all institutions. For other degree levels, the percentage of degrees conferred to Hispanic students by HSIs was smaller: 29 percent for bachelor’s degrees, 23 percent for master’s degrees, and 15 percent for doctor’s degrees.
In fall 2016, there were 35 tribally controlled colleges and universities (TCUs), including twenty-two 2-year institutions and thirteen 4-year institutions. TCUs are members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium and are generally tribally controlled and located on or near reservations. These institutions create environments that foster American Indian culture, languages, and traditions. The 35 TCUs were in 13 states, mainly in the Midwest and West.

In fall 2016, some 16,900 students, including 13,200 American Indian/Alaska Native students, were enrolled at TCUs. Overall enrollment at TCUs was 23 percent higher in 2016 than in 2000, and the enrollment of American Indian/Alaska Native students at TCUs was 15 percent higher. In comparison, overall enrollment at all U.S. postsecondary institutions increased 30 percent, while the enrollment of American Indian/Alaska Native students in all institutions was 6 percent lower in 2016 than in 2000. As a result, American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment at TCUs accounted for 9 percent of overall American Indian/Alaska Native students enrolled in 2016, compared to 8 percent in 2000.
In academic year 2015–16, about 1,300 associate's degrees and 300 bachelor's degrees were conferred to American Indian/Alaska Native students by TCUs. The degrees conferred to American Indian/Alaska Native students by TCUs accounted for 14 percent of associate's degrees and 3 percent of bachelor's degrees conferred to American Indian/Alaska Native students by all institutions.
In fall 2016, there were 113 Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander-serving institutions (AANAPISIs), including forty-three 2-year institutions and seventy 4-year institutions. If an institution has an enrollment of undergraduate students that is at least 10 percent Asian and Pacific Islander and meets additional eligibility requirements, they can apply to be admitted to the Asian American and Native American Pacific Islander-Serving Institutions Program. This designation allows an institution to apply for federal funding to improve their academic quality, increase their self-sufficiency, and strengthen their capacity to serve Asian American students and Native American Pacific Islander students. There were AANAPISIs in 15 states, mainly in the West and Northeast.

In fall 2016, about 1.4 million students, including 277,400 Asian and 8,100 Pacific Islander students, were enrolled at an AANAPISI. Asian enrollment at AANAPISIs accounted for 22 percent of the overall Asian enrollment in all U.S institutions and Pacific Islander enrollment at AANAPISIs accounted for 15 percent of the overall Pacific Islander enrollment in all U.S. institutions.

In academic year 2015–16, some 235,700 degrees were conferred by AANAPISIs, with 20 percent of these degrees conferred to Asian or Pacific Islander students. The number of degrees awarded to Asian and Pacific Islander students by AANAPISIs accounted for 19 percent of the total number of degrees awarded to Asian and Pacific Islander students by all institutions. About half of the degrees conferred by AANAPISIs were bachelor’s degrees (54 percent) while associate’s degrees accounted for 27 percent, master’s degrees for 16 percent, and doctor’s degrees for 4 percent.
In academic year 2015–16, about 11,900 associate's degrees were conferred to Asian and Pacific Islander students by AANAPISIs, accounting for 22 percent of associate's degrees awarded to Asian and Pacific Islander students by all institutions. Similarly, the number of bachelor's degrees conferred by AANAPISIs to Asian and Pacific Islander students accounted for 21 percent of bachelor's degrees conferred to Asian and Pacific Islander students by all institutions. In contrast, the degrees conferred to Asian and Pacific Islander students by AANAPISIs accounted for 12 percent of master's degrees and 10 percent of doctor's degrees conferred to Asian and Pacific Islander students by all institutions.

Endnotes:
1 In this indicator, the United States is limited to the 50 states and the District of Columbia, except for the discussion of historically Black colleges and universities which also includes one institution in the U.S. Virgin Islands.
3 For more information regarding criteria for Hispanic-serving institutions, see: https://www2.ed.gov/programs/hsистем/index.html. For additional information on Hispanic-serving institutions, see: https://sites.ed.gov/hispanic-initiative/hispanic-serving-institutions-hsis/.
4 An additional 180,600 students, including 179,500 Hispanic students, are enrolled in 55 HSIIs located in Puerto Rico.
5 For more information regarding tribal colleges and universities, see: https://sites.ed.gov/whiaiane/tribes-ctus/tribal-colleges-and-universities/.
7 An additional 11,300 students, including 3,200 Asian students and 7,600 Pacific Islander students, are enrolled in 7 AANAPISIs located in American Samoa, Micronesia, Guam, the Marshall Islands, and the Northern Marianas.
The first chapter in this report presents demographic information that provides background and context for the education indicators presented in later chapters. In order to describe the status of the various racial/ethnic groups in the U.S. education system, it is important to provide contextual information on the relative size of each group, where the members of those groups come from, and other background characteristics.

This chapter’s indicators are available at the *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups* website: [https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/](https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/).
Chapter 1. Demographics

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Indicator 1

Population Distribution

Between 2000 and 2017, the percentage of U.S. school-age children who were White decreased from 62 to 51 percent and the percentage who were Black decreased from 15 to 14 percent. In contrast, the percentages of school-age children from other racial/ethnic groups increased: Hispanic children, from 16 to 25 percent; Asian children, from 3 to 5 percent; and children of Two or more races, from 2 to 4 percent.

The population of the United States has increased and become more diverse over the past two decades. Measuring population growth and diversity is important for anticipating the needs of schools and teachers.

An awareness of the shifting demographics of the U.S. population can help ensure that educators are prepared to work with diverse groups of students.¹

Figure 1.1. Estimates of the U.S. resident population, by age group: Selected years, 2000 through 2017

From 2000 to 2017, the U.S. population increased by 15 percent, from 282.2 million to 325.3 million. During this period, the population of adults (i.e., those age 25 and over) increased by 21 percent (from 182.5 million to 221.1 million). While the population of 18- to 24-year-olds (i.e., the traditional college-age population) increased 13 percent between 2000 and 2010 (from 27.3 million to 30.8 million), it then fluctuated between 2010 and 2017. Similarly, the population of children under age 5 increased from 19.2 million in 2000 to 20.2 million in 2010, and then fluctuated between 2010 and 2017. The population of 5- to 17-year-olds (i.e., school-age children) increased from 53.2 million in 2000 to 53.9 million in 2010 and then declined to 53.7 million in 2017.
Since 2000, the populations of all racial/ethnic groups have increased, with the population of those who were of Two or more races, Asian, Hispanic, and Pacific Islander increasing at a faster rate than the populations of those who were White, Black, and American Indian/Alaska Native. Between 2000 and 2017, the population of those of Two or more races doubled (from 3.5 to 7.0 million), the Asian population increased by 74 percent (from 10.5 million to 18.3 million), the Hispanic population increased by 64 percent (from 35.7 million to 58.6 million), and the Pacific Islander population increased by 56 percent (from 0.4 million to 0.6 million). During the same period, the Black population increased by 18 percent (from 34.4 million to 40.6 million), the American Indian/Alaska Native population increased by 14 percent (from 2.1 million to 2.4 million), and the White population increased by 1 percent (from 195.7 million to 198.0 million).

As a result of the differing rates of increase, the racial/ethnic composition of the U.S. population has shifted. The percentage of the population who were White decreased from 69 percent in 2000 to 61 percent in 2017. In contrast, the percentages of the population who were Asian and Hispanic increased from 4 to 6 percent and from 13 to 18 percent, respectively. In 2017, some 12 percent of the population was Black, 1 percent was American Indian/Alaska Native, and less than one-half of 1 percent was Pacific Islander. Between 2000 and 2017, these percentages changed by less than 1 percentage point.
The population of 5- to 17-year-olds, or school-age children, was higher in 2017 (53.7 million) than it was in 2000 (53.2 million). The racial/ethnic distribution of the school-age population in the United States changed during this period. Between 2000 and 2017, the percentage of school-age children who were White decreased from 62 percent to 51 percent and the percentage who were Black decreased from 15 to 14 percent. In contrast, the percentage of school-age children from other racial/ethnic groups increased: Hispanic children, from 16 to 25 percent; Asian children, from 3 to 5 percent; and children of Two or more races, from 2 to 4 percent. In 2017, the percentage of school-age children who were American Indian/Alaska Native was 1 percent, and the percentage who were Pacific Islander was less than one-half of 1 percent. Between 2000 and 2017, these percentages changed by less than 1 percentage point.
The 18- to 24-year-old population, or the traditional college-age population, increased from 27.3 million in 2000 to 30.6 million in 2017. The majority of the increase, about 3.5 million, occurred between 2000 and 2010. The changes in the racial/ethnic composition of the traditional college-age population in the United States were similar to the patterns in the school-age population, with the exception of the Black college-age population that increased compared to the decrease seen in the school-age population. Thus, from 2000 to 2017, the percentage of the college-age population which was White decreased from 62 to 54 percent, while the percentages of other races/ethnicities increased: Black, from 13.8 to 14.4 percent; Hispanic, from 18 to 22 percent; Asian, from 4 to 6 percent; and of Two or more races, from 1 to 3 percent. In both 2000 and 2017, less than one half of 1 percent of the college-age population was Pacific Islander and 1 percent of the college-age population was American Indian/Alaska Native.

Endnotes:

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2016 and 2017, table 101.20
Related indicators and resources: N/A

Data sources: Census Bureau Population Estimates
Glossary: N/A
Indicator 2

Nativity

In 2016, about 97 percent of U.S. children under age 18 were born within the United States. The percentages of Asian (80 percent), Pacific Islander (93 percent), and Hispanic children (94 percent) born within the United States were below the average of 97 percent for all children. In contrast, the percentages born within the United States for Black children (97 percent), White children and children of Two or more races (99 percent each), and American Indian/Alaska Native children (rounds to 100 percent) were above the average for all children.

The composition and size of the foreign-born population of the United States has changed dramatically since 1960, when foreign-born residents accounted for 5 percent of the U.S. population and came mostly from European countries. By 2010, the foreign-born population had grown to 13 percent of the total population and came mostly from Latin America and Asia. This indicator examines the percentage of the U.S. population born within the United States by racial/ethnic group, including for Hispanic and Asian subgroups.

Figure 2.1. Percentage of the population born within the United States, by race/ethnicity: 2010 and 2016

In 2016, about 86 percent of the U.S. population was born within the United States, which was lower than the corresponding percentage in 2010 (87 percent). The percentages of Asian (33 percent), Hispanic (66 percent), and Pacific Islander (78 percent) people born within the United States were below the national average of 86 percent in 2016. In contrast, the percentages of people who were Black (91 percent), of Two or more races (92 percent), White (96 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (99 percent) were above the national average. The percentage of the population born within the United States was lower in 2016 than in 2010 for Black people (91 vs. 92 percent); in contrast, this percentage was higher in 2016 than in 2010 for Hispanic people (66 vs. 63 percent) and people of Two or more races (92 vs. 91 percent).
In 2016, about 97 percent of children under age 18 were born within the United States. The percentages of Asian (80 percent), Pacific Islander (93 percent), and Hispanic children (94 percent) born within the United States were below the average of 97 percent for all children. In contrast, the percentages born within the United States for Black children (97 percent), children of Two or more races (98 percent), White children (99 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native children (rounds to 100 percent) were above the average for all children. The percentage of children born within the United States was higher in 2016 than in 2010 for Hispanic (94 vs. 92 percent) and Asian children (80 vs. 78 percent); in contrast, this percentage was lower in 2016 than in 2010 for Black children (97 vs. 98 percent).
In 2016, about 94 percent of Hispanic children under age 18 were born within the United States. The percentages were higher than the average for Hispanic children overall for the following Hispanic subgroups: Mexican (96 percent), Other Hispanic (those not included in other subgroups) (97 percent), Panamanian (98 percent), and Puerto Rican (rounds to 100 percent). The percentages for Costa Rican, Spanish, Chilean, and Nicaraguan children were not measurably different from the average for Hispanic children overall. The percentages for all other subgroups were lower than the Hispanic average, ranging from 67 percent for Venezuelan children to 91 percent for Ecuadorian children.
Among Asian children under age 18 in 2016, about 80 percent were born within the United States. The percentages were higher than the average for Asian children overall for the following Asian subgroups: Vietnamese (86 percent), Cambodian (90 percent), Other Asian (those not included in other subgroups) (91 percent), Hmong (95 percent), and Laotian (96 percent). The percentages for Filipino, Asian Indian, Bangladeshi, Bhutanese, Other Southeast Asian (which consists of Indonesian and Malaysian), Pakistani, and Thai children were not measurably different from the average for Asian children overall. The percentages for all other subgroups were lower than the Asian average, ranging from 42 percent for Burmese children to 77 percent for Chinese children.

Endnotes:
2 Consistent with the Census definition, “born within the United States” includes those born in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and the Northern Marianas, as well as those born abroad to U.S.-citizen parents. Asian category excludes persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.
3 Due to rounding, statistically significant differences may not always be apparent. The percentage of children under age 18 born within the United States was 96.6 percent overall and 97.2 percent for Black children.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 101.30
Related indicators and resources: English Language Learners in Public Schools
Data sources: American Community Survey (ACS)
Glossary: N/A
Indicator 3

Children’s Living Arrangements

In 2016, the percentage of children living with married parents was highest for Asian children (84 percent), followed by White children (73 percent); children of Two of more races, Pacific Islander children, and Hispanic children (57 percent each); and American Indian/Alaska Native children (45 percent). The percentage was lowest for Black children (33 percent).

In 2016, approximately 73.6 million children under age 18 lived in the United States. The living arrangements of these children varied: 63 percent lived with married parents, 27 percent lived with a female parent with no spouse present, and 8 percent lived with a male parent with no spouse present. In addition, 2 percent of these children lived in other arrangements. This indicator examines how children’s living arrangements varied across racial/ethnic groups.

Figure 3.1. Percentage distribution of children under age 18, by race/ethnicity and living arrangement: 2016

In 2016, across racial/ethnic groups, the majority of children under age 18 lived with married parents, with the exception of Black (33 percent) and American Indian/Alaska Native (45 percent) children. The percentage of children living with married parents was highest for Asian children (84 percent), followed by White children (73 percent); children of Two of more races, Pacific Islander children, and Hispanic children (57 percent each); and American Indian/Alaska Native children (45 percent). The percentage was lowest for Black children (33 percent). The percentage of children living with a female parent with no spouse present was highest for Black children (56 percent), followed by children who were American Indian/Alaska Native (38 percent); of
Two or more races (32 percent), Hispanic (31 percent), and Pacific Islander (30 percent); White (17 percent); and Asian (10 percent). Differences were statistically significant between the racial/ethnic groups for the percentages of children living with married parents or with a female parent and no spouse present, except for the differences among children of Two or more races, Hispanic children, and Pacific Islander children. The percentage of children living with a male parent with no spouse present was higher for American Indian/Alaska Native children (13 percent) than for children of all other racial/ethnic groups except Pacific Islander children (10 percent); conversely, the percentage was lowest for Asian children (4 percent).

**Figure 3.2. Percentage distribution of Hispanic children under age 18, by subgroup and living arrangement: 2016**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup</th>
<th>Married parents</th>
<th>Female parent, no spouse present</th>
<th>Male parent, no spouse present</th>
<th>All other children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Hispanic</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuban</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spaniard</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central American^1</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South American^2</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Hispanic or Latino^3</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

^1 Includes Costa Rican, Guatemalan, Honduran, Nicaraguan, Panamanian, Salvadoran, and other Central American subgroups.
^2 Includes Chilean, Colombian, Ecuadorian, Peruvian, Venezuelan, and other South American subgroups.
^3 Includes other Hispanic subgroups not separately shown.
^4 Includes foster children, children in unrelated subfamilies, children living in group quarters, and children who were reported as the householder or spouse of the householder.

NOTE: Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.


Among Hispanic children under age 18 in 2016, about 57 percent lived with married parents, 31 percent lived with a female parent with no spouse present, 10 percent lived with a male parent with no spouse present, and 2 percent lived in other arrangements. However, the percentages for some Hispanic subgroups differed from the Hispanic average. For instance, the percentages of children living with married parents were below the Hispanic average of 57 percent for Dominican (45 percent) and Puerto Rican (44 percent) children. In contrast, the percentages of Spaniard (69 percent), South American^1 (67 percent), and Mexican (59 percent) children living with married parents were higher than the Hispanic average. The percentages of children living with a female parent with no spouse present were below the Hispanic average of 31 percent for Mexican (30 percent), South American (24 percent), and Spaniard (22 percent) children, and were above the Hispanic average for Puerto Rican and Dominican children (45 percent each). The percentages of children living with a male parent with no spouse present were lower than the Hispanic average of 10 percent for South American (8 percent) and Spaniard (7 percent) children but were higher than the Hispanic average for Central American^2 children (12 percent).
Figure 3.3. Percentage distribution of Asian children under age 18, by subgroup and living arrangement: 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup</th>
<th>Total Asian</th>
<th>Chinese¹</th>
<th>Filipino</th>
<th>Japanese</th>
<th>Korean</th>
<th>South Asian²</th>
<th>Southeast Asian³</th>
<th>Other Asian⁴</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>84</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- All other children⁵
- Male parent, no spouse present
- Female parent, no spouse present
- Married parents

# Rounds to zero.

¹ Includes Taiwanese.
² Includes Asian Indian, Bangladeshi, Bhutanese, Nepalese, Pakistani, and Sri Lankan subgroups.
³ Includes Burmese, Cambodian, Hmong, Laotian, Thai, Vietnamese, and other Southeast Asian subgroups. Other Southeast Asian subgroups consist of Indonesian and Malaysian.
⁴ Includes other Asian subgroups not separately shown.
⁵ Includes foster children, children in unrelated subfamilies, children living in group quarters, and children who were reported as the householder or spouse of the householder.

NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.


However, the percentages for some Asian subgroups differed from the Asian average. Overall, in 2016, about 84 percent of Asian children under age 18 lived with married parents, 10 percent lived with a female parent with no spouse present, 4 percent lived with a male parent with no spouse present, and 1 percent lived in other arrangements. The percentages of children living with married parents were below the Asian average of 84 percent for Filipino (77 percent) and Southeast Asian (73 percent) children. In contrast, the percentages of South Asian (93 percent) and Korean (87 percent) children living with married parents were higher than the Asian average. The percentages of children living with a female parent with no spouse present were below the Asian average of 10 percent for Japanese (7 percent) and South Asian (5 percent) children, and were above the Asian average for Southeast Asian (18 percent) and Filipino (15 percent) children. The percentages of children living with a male parent with no spouse present were lower than the Asian average of 4 percent for Korean (3 percent) and South Asian (2 percent) children but were higher than the Asian average for Southeast Asian (7 percent) and Filipino (6 percent) children.
Endnotes:
1 Includes all children who live either with their parent(s) or with a householder to whom they are related by birth, marriage, or adoption (except a child who is the spouse of the householder). Children are classified by their parents’ marital status or, if no parents are present in the household, by the marital status of the householder who is related to the children. Living arrangements with only a “female parent” or “male parent” are those in which the parent or the householder who is related to the child does not have a spouse living in the household. The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit.
2 Includes foster children, children in unrelated subfamilies, children living in group quarters, and children who were reported as the householder or spouse of the householder. Due to the small percentage of children in this category, racial/ethnic differences are not discussed in the indicator.
3 Includes Chilean, Colombian, Ecuadorian, Peruvian, Venezuelan, and other South American subgroups.
4 Includes Costa Rican, Guatemalan, Honduran, Nicaraguan, Panamanian, Salvadoran, and other Central American subgroups.
5 Includes Burmese, Cambodian, Hmong, Laotian, Thai, Vietnamese, and other Southeast Asian subgroups. Other Southeast Asian subgroups consist of Indonesian and Malaysian. 6 Includes Asian Indian, Bangladeshi, Bhutanese, Nepalese, Pakistani, and Sri Lankan subgroups.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 102.20
Related indicators and resources: Characteristics of Children’s Families (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: American Community Survey (ACS)
Glossary: N/A
Indicator 4

Children Living in Poverty

In 2016, the percentage of children under the age of 18 in families living in poverty was higher for Black children than Hispanic children (31 and 26 percent, respectively), and the percentages for both of these groups were higher than for White and Asian children (10 percent each).

Research suggests that living in poverty during early childhood is associated with lower-than-average academic performance that begins in kindergarten1 and extends through high school, leading to lower-than-average rates of school completion.2 This indicator examines the percentage of children under the age of 18 in families living in poverty by race/ethnicity using two different poverty measures, the official poverty measure and the Supplemental Poverty Measure (SPM).

Figure 4.1. Percentage of children under age 18 in families living in poverty based on the official poverty measure, by race/ethnicity: 2000 through 2016

The official poverty measure was developed in 1960 and consists of a set of income thresholds for families of different sizes and compositions that are compared to before-tax cash income to determine a family’s poverty status. According to this measure, 16 percent of all related children under age 18 were in families living in poverty in 2000. The rate rose to 21 percent in 2010, before decreasing to 18 percent in 2016. From 2000 to 2016, the official poverty measure rate increased for White children (from 9 to 10 percent), but did not change measurably for Black, Hispanic, and Asian3 children.

The percentage of children under age 18 living in poverty based on the official poverty measure varied across racial/ethnic groups in 2016. The child poverty rate for Black children (31 percent) was higher than the rate for Hispanic children (26 percent), and the rates for both of these groups were higher than those for White and Asian children (10 percent each).

1 In 2000 and 2001, Asian includes Pacific Islanders as well as Asians.2 The official poverty measure includes all children who are related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption (except a child who is the spouse of the householder). The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit. Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutional population. The official poverty measure consists of a set of income thresholds for families of different sizes and compositions that are compared to before-tax cash income to determine a family’s poverty status. For more information about how the Census Bureau determines who is in poverty, see https://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html. Total includes other racial/ethnic groups not separately shown, including Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and two or more races. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.3 Total includes other racial/ethnic groups not separately shown, including Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and two or more races. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

Per centage of children under age 18 in families living in poverty based on the Supplemental Poverty Measure, by race/ethnicity: 2010 and 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/ethnicity</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: The measure of child poverty includes all children who are related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption (except a child who is the spouse of the householder). The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit. Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutional population. The Supplemental Poverty Measure (SPM) is based on a broader array of information than the official poverty measure and adds to family income the value of benefits from many government programs designed to assist low-income families, subtracts taxes and necessary expenses such as child care costs (for working families) and medical expenses, and adjusts poverty thresholds for geographic differences in housing costs. To match the population included in the current official poverty measure, SPM estimates presented here exclude unrelated children under age 15. For more information about the SPM, see https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2017/demo/p60-261.pdf. Total includes other racial/ethnic groups not separately shown, including Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and Two or more races. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.


The SPM is an alternative poverty measure developed more recently than the official poverty measure (the U.S. Census Bureau first published data using the SPM in 2011 for data years 2009 and later). The SPM is based on a broader array of information than the official poverty measure and adds to family income the value of benefits from many government programs designed to assist low-income families, subtracts taxes and necessary expenses such as child care costs (for working families) and medical expenses, and adjusts poverty thresholds for geographic differences in housing costs. Of all children under age 18, the percentage who were in families living in poverty based on the SPM was 15 percent in 2016, which was lower than the rate in 2010 (18 percent). A similar pattern was found across most racial/ethnic groups. There was no measurable difference between 2010 and 2016 for Asian children. A higher percentage of Black and Hispanic children (24 percent each) than of Asian (12 percent) and White (8 percent) children were living in poverty in 2016, according to the SPM. In addition, the SPM poverty rate for White children in 2016 was lower than the SPM rate for Asian children.
Comparing the poverty rate based on the official measure with the rate based on the SPM for children under age 18 provides a look into how poverty rates can differ when benefits from government programs, subtractions for taxes and necessary expenses, and housing cost adjustments are included as part of family income. In 2016, the rate of children under age 18 who were in families living in poverty based on the official poverty measure was higher than the rate in poverty based on the SPM (18 vs. 15 percent). A similar pattern was found across racial/ethnic groups, with the exception of Asian children, where there was no measurable difference between the rate based on the official measure and the rate based on the SPM. The percentage-point difference between the poverty rate based on the official measure and the rate based on the SPM was larger for Black children (7 percentage points) than for Hispanic (3 percentage points) and White children (2 percentage points).
Both the OPM and SPM help reveal an association between family structure and child poverty. Children living in mother-only households had higher rates of poverty according to both poverty measures than the overall child poverty rate; this pattern was also observed for all racial/ethnic groups.

In 2016, children under 18 living in mother-only households had a higher poverty rate based on the official measure than based on the SPM (42 vs. 31 percent). The same pattern was found for White, Black, and Hispanic children living in mother-only households.

Endnotes:
3 The Asian child poverty rate includes Pacific Islander children in 2000 but excludes them in 2016.
4 To match the population included in the current official poverty measure, SPM estimates presented here exclude unrelated children under age 15.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2015, table 102.50; Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 102.50 and 102.51
Related indicators and resources: Characteristics of Children’s Families (The Condition of Education); Children’s Living Arrangements; Snapshot of Children Living in Poverty for Racial/Ethnic Subgroups

Data sources: Current Population Survey (CPS)
Glossary: Poverty (official measure); Supplemental Poverty Measure (SPM)
Indicator 4: SNAPSHOT

Children Living in Poverty for Racial/Ethnic Subgroups

Among Hispanic subgroups in 2016, the percentage of children under age 18 living in poverty ranged from 11 to 38 percent. Among Asian subgroups, the percentage of children living in poverty ranged from 6 to 37 percent.

This snapshot examines the poverty rate of children of different racial/ethnic groups and subgroups, using the American Community Survey (ACS) rather than the Current Population Survey (CPS) which is used in the indicator Children Living in Poverty. The ACS includes a broader representation of American society than the CPS does by including people in institutions—such as hospitals, prisons, and the military—in addition to people in households. Also, the ACS allows for more precision in presenting data on smaller groups in the population, such as American Indians/Alaska Natives and Pacific Islanders. It also allows for the reporting of poverty rates for many specific Hispanic and Asian subgroups, including, for example, the Mexican, Puerto Rican, Chinese, and Asian Indian subgroups. The percentage of children under age 18 living in poverty is estimated using the official poverty measure.

Figure 4S.1. Percentage of children under age 18 living in poverty, by race/ethnicity: 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/ethnicity</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native†</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

† Includes persons reporting American Indian alone, persons reporting Alaska Native alone, and persons from American Indian and/or Alaska Native tribes specified or not specified.

NOTE: Data shown are based only on related children in a family; that is, all children in the household who are related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption (except a child who is the spouse of the householder). The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit. This figure includes only children related to the householder. It excludes unrelated children and householders who are themselves under the age of 18. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.


In 2016, about 19 percent of children under age 18 were living in poverty. The percentages of children living in poverty were highest for Black and American Indian/Alaska Native children (34 percent each), followed by Hispanic children (28 percent), Pacific Islander children (23 percent), and children of Two or more races (19 percent), and were lowest for White and Asian children (11 percent each).
In 2016, about 28 percent of Hispanic children under age 18 were living in poverty. Among Hispanic subgroups, the percentage of children under age 18 living in poverty ranged from 11 to 38 percent. The percentages of the Hispanic subgroups of Guatemalan (38 percent) and Honduran children (36 percent) living in poverty were higher than the overall Hispanic percentage. The percentages of Dominican, Mexican, and Puerto Rican children living in poverty were not measurably different from the overall Hispanic percentage. The percentages of children from all South American subgroups and Central American subgroups (except Guatemalan and Honduran) living in poverty were lower than the overall Hispanic percentage.
### Figure 4S.3. Percentage of children under age 18 living in poverty, by selected Asian subgroups: 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Indian</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>37†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutanese</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepalese</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burmese</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodian</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hmong</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laotian</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Southeast Asian</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Southeast Asian</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Percent**

0 10 20 30 40 50

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Indian</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>37†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutanese</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepalese</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burmese</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodian</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hmong</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laotian</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Southeast Asian</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Southeast Asian</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

About 11 percent of Asian children under age 18 were living in poverty in 2016. Among Asian subgroups, the percentage of children living in poverty ranged from 6 to 37 percent. The percentages of children living in poverty were higher than the overall Asian percentage in some of the Asian subgroups, ranging from 15 percent for Vietnamese children to 37 percent for Bangladeshi children. The percentages of Cambodian, Chinese, Korean, Laotian, Nepalese, and Thai children living in poverty were not measurably different from the overall Asian percentage. The percentages of Asian Indian, Filipino, and Japanese children living in poverty (6 percent each) were lower than the overall Asian percentage.

**Endnotes:**

1. Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.
2. Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.
3. Includes Taiwanese.
4. In addition to the subgroups shown, also includes Sri Lankan.
5. Consists of Indonesian and Malaysian.

**NOTE:** Data shown are based only on related children in a family; that is, all children in the household who are related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption (except a child who is the spouse of the householder). The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit. This figure includes only children related to the householder. It excludes unrelated children and householders who are themselves under the age of 18. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

**SOURCE:** U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2016. See Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 102.60.

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**Reference tables:** Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 102.60

**Related indicators and resources:** Characteristics of Children’s Families (The Condition of Education)

**Data sources:** American Community Survey (ACS)

**Glossary:** Poverty (official measure)
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This chapter examines characteristics of students in preprimary, elementary, and secondary education. The indicators focus on care arrangements for children under 6 years old who were not enrolled in kindergarten, the racial/ethnic distribution and concentration of public school students, and the demographics of children who may require special services in order to address their disabilities or the challenges they face in learning English.

This chapter’s indicators are available at the Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups website: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/.
Chapter 2. Preprimary, Elementary, and Secondary Education Participation

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Indicator 5

Early Childcare and Education Arrangements

In 2016, about 29 percent of children under 6 years old who were not enrolled in kindergarten regularly received center-based care as their primary care arrangement. The percentage of children who regularly received center-based care was lower for Hispanic children (23 percent) than for children of Two or more races (34 percent) and for Black (32 percent), White (31 percent), and Asian children (31 percent).

The type of nonparental early care and education setting in which a child regularly spends the most hours per week is referred to as a child’s primary care arrangement in this indicator. In 2016, about 40 percent of children under 6 years old who were not enrolled in kindergarten received care only from their parents1 and did not have primary care arrangement on a regular basis. The remaining 60 percent of young children2 had some type of regularly scheduled primary care arrangement: 29 percent received center-based care as their primary care arrangement, 19 percent received home-based relative care, 10 percent received home-based nonrelative care, and 2 percent regularly had multiple care arrangements for equal amounts of time. The percentages of the types of primary care arrangements received by children varied by child and family characteristics, such as child’s race/ethnicity and family poverty status.

Figure 5.1. Percentage distribution of children under 6 years old who are not enrolled in kindergarten, by race/ethnicity of child and type of primary care arrangement: 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/ethnicity</th>
<th>Percent Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>White</td>
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<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.

† Reporting standards not met. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is 50 percent or greater.

1 Children who spent an equal number of hours per week in multiple nonparental care arrangements.

2 Center-based arrangements include day care centers, Head Start programs, preschools, prekindergartens, and other early childhood programs.

NOTE: A child’s primary arrangement is the regular nonparental care arrangement or early childhood education program in which the child spent the most time per week. Data for Pacific Islanders and American Indians/Alaska Natives not shown because reporting standards were not met. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.


In 2016, among children under 6 years old who were not enrolled in kindergarten, the percentage who regularly received center-based care as their primary care arrangement was higher for children of Two or more races (34 percent) and for Black (32 percent), White (31 percent), and Asian children (31 percent) than for Hispanic children (23 percent). The percentage of young children who regularly received home-based relative care...
as their primary care arrangement was higher for Black children (25 percent) than for children of Two or more races (18 percent) and White children (16 percent). The percentage who regularly received home-based nonrelative care as their primary care arrangement was higher for White children (12 percent) than for Black (9 percent), Hispanic (7 percent), and Asian children (6 percent). The percentage of young children who received parental care only was higher for Hispanic children (49 percent) than for children of Two or more races (39 percent), White children (38 percent), and Black children (32 percent). In addition, the percentage receiving parental care only was higher for Asian children (43 percent) than for Black children.

In 2016, parental care only was the most common type of care arrangement for White, Hispanic, and Asian children. For instance, a higher percentage of Hispanic children received parental care only (49 percent) than received center-based care (23 percent), home-based relative care (20 percent), and home-based nonrelative care (7 percent) on a regular basis. The percentage of Black children who received parental care only was also higher than the percentage who regularly received home-based nonrelative care (32 vs. 9 percent); however, there was no measurable difference between the percentages of Black children who received parental care only and who regularly received center-based care and home-based relative care. For children of Two or more races, the percentage who received parental care only (39 percent) was higher than the percentages who regularly received home-based relative (18 percent) and nonrelative care (9 percent); however, there was no measurable difference between the percentages who received parental care only and who regularly received center-based care.

Figure 5.2. Percentage distribution of children under 6 years old who are not enrolled in kindergarten, by race/ethnicity of child, poverty status of household, and type of primary care arrangement: 2016

The types of regular primary care arrangements for children under 6 years old who were not enrolled in kindergarten differed by family poverty status. In 2016, a higher percentage of young children from nonpoor families than from poor families regularly received center-based care (37 vs. 20 percent). Similarly, a higher percentage of young children from nonpoor families than from poor families regularly received home-based nonrelative care (13 vs. 5 percent). On the other hand, the percentage of children who received parental care only was higher for children from poor families than for those from nonpoor families (54 vs. 31 percent). There was no measurable difference between the percentages of young children from poor and nonpoor families who regularly received home-based relative care as their primary care arrangement.

Early Childcare and Education Arrangements
Differences by family poverty status for White, Black, and Hispanic young children—the only groups for which data were available for poor and nonpoor families across types of care arrangements—followed a similar pattern as the differences for young children overall. A higher percentage of young children from nonpoor families than from poor families regularly received center-based care as their primary care among White (37 vs. 20 percent), Black (41 vs. 23 percent), and Hispanic (33 vs. 17 percent) children. In addition, a higher percentage of young children from nonpoor families than from poor families regularly received home-based nonrelative care among White (14 vs. 5 percent) and Hispanic (11 vs. 4 percent) children. On the other hand, a higher percentage of young children from poor families than from nonpoor families received parental care only among White (59 vs. 31 percent), Black (40 vs. 24 percent), and Hispanic (60 vs. 33 percent) children. There were no measurable differences by family poverty status in the percentages of White, Black, and Hispanic children who regularly received home-based relative care as their primary care arrangement.

Endnotes:
1 This group is identified as “parental care only” in the indicator text and figures.
2 In this indicator, the shortened forms “young children” and “children” are used interchangeably with “children under 6 years old who were not enrolled in kindergarten.”
3 Poor children are those whose family incomes were below the Census Bureau’s poverty threshold in the year prior to data collection, and nonpoor children are those whose family incomes were at or above 200 percent of the poverty threshold.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 202.30
Related indicators and resources: Early Childhood Care Arrangements: Choices and Costs (The Condition of Education 2018 Spotlight)
Data sources: National Household Education Surveys Program (NHES)
Glossary: Poverty (official measure); Preschool
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Indicator 6

Elementary and Secondary Enrollment

Between fall 2000 and fall 2015, the percentage of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools who were White decreased from 61 to 49 percent. The percentage of Black students also decreased during this period from 17 to 15 percent. In contrast, there was an increase in the percentage of students enrolled in public schools who were Hispanic (from 16 to 26 percent) and Asian/Pacific Islander (4 to 5 percent) during this time period.

Public elementary and secondary school enrollment increased from 47.2 million to 50.4 million between fall 2000 and fall 2015 and is projected to continue increasing to 52.1 million in fall 2027 (the last year for which projected data are available). In addition, racial/ethnic distributions of students in public schools have been shifting. Public schools include both traditional public schools and public charter schools. This indicator discusses overall public school enrollment, as well as enrollment in traditional public and public charter schools separately.

Figure 6.1. Percentage distribution of public school students enrolled in prekindergarten through 12th grade, by race/ethnicity: Fall 2000, fall 2015, and fall 2027

Between 2000 and 2015, the percentage of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools who were White decreased from 61 to 49 percent. The percentage of Black students also decreased during this period, from 17 to 15 percent. In contrast, there was an increase in the percentage of students enrolled in public schools who were Hispanic (from 16 to 26 percent) and Asian/Pacific Islander (4 to 5 percent) during this time period. The percentage of students enrolled in public schools who were American Indian/Alaska Native remained around 1 percent from 2000 to 2015. The percentage of students enrolled in public schools who were of Two or more races increased between 2008 (the first year for which data are available) and 2015 from 1 to 3 percent.
Between fall 2015 and fall 2027, the percentage of students enrolled in public schools who are White is projected to continue decreasing (from 49 to 45 percent). In contrast, the percentage is projected to increase over this period for students who are Hispanic (from 26 to 29 percent), Asian/Pacific Islander (from 5 to 6 percent), and of Two or more races (from 3 to 4 percent). The percentages of students who are Black and American Indian/Alaska Native in 2027 are projected to remain at 15 and 1 percent, respectively.

Figure 6.2. Percentage distribution of public school students enrolled in prekindergarten through 12th grade, by region and race/ethnicity: Selected years, fall 2000 through fall 2015

Between fall 2000 and fall 2015, the percentages of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools who were White and who were Black decreased in all regions of the United States. In contrast, the percentage of Hispanic students increased in all regions of the United States between 2000 and 2015. The largest increase was in the South, where the percentage of Hispanic students increased by 11 percentage points. The percentages of Asian/Pacific Islander students in the Northeast, Midwest, and South increased by 1 to 3 percentage points between 2000 and 2015; however, the percentage did not change measurably for those enrolled in the West during this period.
time period. The difference between the percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native students in 2000 and 2015 was less than 1 percentage point in all regions. The percentage of students of Two or more races increased by 2 to 4 percentage points across all regions between 2009 (the first year for which data are available for all regions) and 2015.

In fall 2015, the percentage distribution of racial/ethnic groups enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools varied by state or jurisdiction. Among all states and jurisdictions, Vermont had the highest enrollment share of White students (at 91 percent), and the District of Columbia had the lowest (at 10 percent). The District of Columbia had the highest share of Black students (at 71 percent), and Montana had the lowest (at 1 percent). The highest share of Hispanic students was in New Mexico (at 61 percent), and the lowest was in West Virginia (at 2 percent). Hawaii had the highest share of Asian students (at 30 percent), and West Virginia had the lowest (at 1 percent). Hawaii also had the highest share of Pacific Islander students (at 30 percent), while 42 states and the District of Columbia had shares of Pacific Islander students of less than one-half of 1 percent. Alaska had the highest share of American Indian/Alaska Native students (at 23 percent), while 23 states and the District of Columbia had shares of American Indian/Alaska Native students of less than one-half of 1 percent. Hawaii had the highest share of students of Two or more races (at 12 percent), and Mississippi had the lowest (at 1 percent).

Figure 6.3.  Percentage distribution of public school students enrolled in prekindergarten through 12th grade, by race/ethnicity and traditional public or public charter school status: School year 2015–16

Although the majority of students enrolled in public schools are enrolled in traditional public schools, the number of students enrolled in public charter schools grew substantially from 2000–01 through 2015–16. Public charter school enrollment increased from 0.4 million students in the 2000–01 school year to 2.8 million students in the 2015–16 school year. There were differences in the racial/ethnic distribution of students attending traditional public schools and public charter schools in 2015–16. The shares of Black and Hispanic students in public charter schools (27 and 32 percent, respectively) were greater than the shares of Black and Hispanic students in traditional public schools (15 and 26 percent, respectively). In contrast, the shares of White and Asian/Pacific Islander students in public charter schools (33 and 4 percent, respectively) were less than the shares of White and Asian/Pacific Islander students in traditional public schools (50 and 5 percent, respectively).
There were also differences in the racial/ethnic distribution of students attending public schools overall (i.e., traditional public schools and public charter schools combined) and private schools. In fall 2015, the share of White students in private schools (69 percent) was higher than the share in public schools (49 percent), and the same pattern was evident for students who were Asian (6 vs. 5 percent), Pacific Islander (1 percent vs. less than 1 percent), and of Two or more races (4 vs. 3 percent). In contrast, the shares of students in private schools were lower than the shares in public schools for students who were Black (9 vs. 15 percent), Hispanic (10 vs. 26 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (less than 1 percent vs. 1 percent).

Figure 6.4.  Percentage distribution of private elementary and secondary students, by race/ethnicity and school type: Fall 2015

The share of enrollment in particular types of private schools also varied by race/ethnicity. In fall 2015, Hispanic students had a greater share of enrollment in Catholic schools (16 percent) than in other religious schools (7 percent) and in nonsectarian schools (8 percent). In contrast, White students had a greater share of enrollment in other religious schools (73 percent) than in Catholic schools (66 percent) and nonsectarian schools (65 percent). Black students also had a greater share of enrollment in other religious schools (11 percent) than in Catholic schools (8 percent). Asian students and students of Two or more races had a greater share of enrollment in nonsectarian schools than in Catholic and other religious schools. Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native students each had 1 percent or less of the share of enrollment in all types of private schools.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2015, table 203.50; Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 203.50, 203.70, 205.40, and 216.30

Related indicators and resources: Elementary and Secondary Enrollment (The Condition of Education); Private School Enrollment (The Condition of Education); Public Charter School Enrollment (The Condition of Education); Racial/Ethnic Concentration in Public Schools

Data sources: Common Core of Data (CCD) and Private School Universe Survey (PSS)

Glossary: Elementary school; Geographic region; Private school; Public charter school; Public school or institution; Secondary school; Traditional public school
Racial/Ethnic Concentration in Public Schools

In fall 2015, approximately 30 percent of public school students attended schools in which minority students comprised at least 75 percent of total enrollment. Over half of Hispanic, Black, and Pacific Islander students attended such schools.

Racial/ethnic distributions of public school students have shifted between fall 2000 and fall 2015 (see indicator Elementary and Secondary Enrollment). As a result, the proportion of minority students who attended public schools with a majority-minority enrollment has increased over time. Minority students include students who are Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races.

In fall 2015, public schools where minority students comprised at least 75 percent of the student population enrolled 30 percent of all public elementary and secondary students, compared with 21 percent in fall 2000. Among individual racial/ethnic groups, the percentage of students enrolled in these schools increased between 2000 and 2015 for White, Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native students. For example, the percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native students in such schools increased from 29 percent in 2000 to 37 percent in 2015. Similarly, the percentage of Black students in these schools increased from 51 percent in 2000 to 58 percent in 2015. Increases in enrollments in these schools was 4 percentage points for Hispanic students and 2 percentage points for White students during this time.
For students who are Asian, Pacific Islander, and of Two or more races, separate data was not available until fall 2010. Between 2010 and 2015, the percentage of Asian students enrolled in public schools where minority students comprised at least 75 percent of the student population increased 2 percentage points, from 36 percent in 2010 to 38 percent in 2015. However, the percentage of Pacific Islander students enrolled in these schools was 1 percentage point lower in 2015 (53 percent) than in 2010 (54 percent), and the percentage of students of Two or more races enrolled in these schools was less than 1 percentage point lower in 2015 (19 percent) than in 2010 (20 percent).

Figure 7.2. Percentage distribution of public elementary and secondary school students, by student race/ethnicity and percentage of minority enrollment in the school: Fall 2015

As noted above, in fall 2015, approximately 30 percent of public students attended public schools in which the combined enrollment of minority students was at least 75 percent of total enrollment. Over half of Hispanic (60 percent), Black (58 percent), and Pacific Islander students (53 percent) attended such schools. In contrast, less than half of Asian students (38 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native students (37 percent), students of Two or more races (19 percent), and White students (5 percent) attended such schools. Instead, the majority of White students (51 percent) attended schools where the combined enrollment minority students was 25 percent or less of total enrollment.
The enrollment data for the individual racial/ethnic data provide a more detailed look at the school enrollment patterns. These data show the extent to which students attend public schools with peers of the same racial/ethnic group. In fall 2015, some 51 percent of White students were enrolled in public schools that were predominantly composed of students of their own race (i.e., 75 percent or more of enrollment was White). Lower percentages of American Indian/Alaska Native (17 percent), Asian (3 percent), Pacific Islander (3 percent) students were enrolled in public schools that were predominantly composed of students of their own racial/ethnic group.

Instead, the majority of students of these racial/ethnic groups were enrolled in public schools in which less than a quarter of the students are of their own race. In comparison, 5 percent of White students were enrolled in such schools. About 26 percent of Black students were enrolled in public schools that were predominantly Black, while 31 percent of Black students were enrolled in schools in which less than a quarter of the students were Black. Similarly, 33 percent of Hispanic students were enrolled in public schools that were predominantly Hispanic, while 21 percent were enrolled in schools in which less than a quarter of the students were Hispanic.
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Indicator 8

English Language Learners in Public Schools

In fall 2015, about 4.9 million public school students were identified as English language learners (ELL). Over three-quarters of ELL students were Hispanic (77.7 percent, or 3.8 million students).

The racial/ethnic diversity of U.S. public school students has increased, reflecting the increase in the racial/ethnic diversity of the overall U.S. population. This diversity is also apparent in the number of students identified as English language learners (ELL). ELL students are individuals who have sufficient difficulty speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language to be unable to learn successfully in classrooms or to participate fully in the larger U.S. society. ELL students often participate in language assistance programs, such as English as a Second Language, High Intensity Language Training, and bilingual education to help ensure that they attain English proficiency, develop high levels of academic attainment in English, and meet the same academic content and academic achievement standards that all students are expected to meet. Participation in these types of programs can improve students’ English language proficiency, which, in turn, can improve their educational outcomes. This indicator examines all students identified as ELL, whether or not they participated in such programs.

In fall 2015, about 4.9 million public school students were identified as ELL, representing 9.9 percent of overall public school enrollment. Over three-quarters of ELL students were Hispanic (77.7 percent, or 3.8 million students). Asian students were the second largest group (10.5 percent), with 511,700 ELL students. White students accounted for 6.1 percent (294,800 students) of ELL students, and Black students accounted for 3.7 percent (178,100 students). American Indian/Alaska Native students (38,800 students), students of Two or more races (31,100 students), and Pacific Islander students (27,000 students) each made up less than 1 percent of ELL students.
In 2015, a higher percentage of Hispanic students (29.8 percent), Asian students (20.7 percent), and Pacific Islander students (15.6 percent) were identified as ELL than students overall (9.9 percent). In contrast, a lower percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native students (7.9 percent), Black students (2.4 percent), students of Two or more races (1.9 percent), and White students (1.2 percent) were identified as ELL than students overall.
Indicator 9

Students With Disabilities

In school year 2015–16, the percentage of students served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) was highest for those who were American Indian/Alaska Native (17 percent), followed by those who were Black (16 percent), White (14 percent), of Two or more races (13 percent), Hispanic and Pacific Islander (12 percent each), and Asian (7 percent).

Students with disabilities may require services to provide them access to the same learning opportunities as students without disabilities. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) supports states and localities in their efforts to aid children and youth with disabilities—and their families—protecting their rights, meeting their individual needs, and improving their educational outcomes. This indicator examines the percentage of students ages 3–21 served by IDEA and the percentage distribution of children and youth receiving services for specific disabilities. The indicator also examines the rate at which students ages 14–21 served by IDEA exited school in school year 2014–15 and the reasons why they exited.

Figure 9.1. Percentage of 3- to 21-year-olds served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), Part B, by race/ethnicity: School year 2015–16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/ethnicity</th>
<th>Percent</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Total</td>
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<tr>
<td>White</td>
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<td>Black</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Data include only those children served for whom race/ethnicity was reported. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded data. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) database, retrieved July 10, 2017, from https://www2.ed.gov/programs/osepidea/618-data/state-level-data-files/index.html; and National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD); State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education, 2015–16. See Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 204.40.

Thirteen percent of students ages 3–21 enrolled in public schools were served under IDEA in school year 2015–16, a total of 6.7 million individuals. The percentage served varied by race/ethnicity: it was highest for those who were American Indian/Alaska Native (17 percent), followed by those who were Black (16 percent), White (14 percent), of Two or more races (13 percent), Hispanic and Pacific Islander (12 percent each), and Asian (7 percent).
Among students ages 3–21 who were served under IDEA in 2015–16, the percentages who received services for some types of disabilities differed by race/ethnicity. For example, the percentage of students who received services for a specific learning disability was higher for those who were Pacific Islander (43 percent), Hispanic (42 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (40 percent), and Black (37 percent) than for those of the other races/ethnicities shown (with the percentages ranging from 21 to 31 percent). The percentage of students served under IDEA who received services for a speech or language impairment was highest for those who were Asian (26 percent); the percentages for students of the other races/ethnicities shown ranged from 13 to 21 percent. The percentage of students served under IDEA who received services for autism was highest for those who were Asian (21 percent); the percentages for students of the other races/ethnicities shown ranged from 5 to 10 percent. Additionally, the percentage of students served under IDEA who received services for an intellectual disability was highest for those who were Black (9 percent); the percentages for students of the other races/ethnicities shown ranged from 5 to 7 percent.
Data are also available for students ages 14–21 who received special education services under IDEA and exited school during school year 2014–15, including the reasons why they exited. In 2014–15, approximately 395,000 of these 14- to 21-year-olds exited school: over two-thirds (69 percent) graduated with a regular high school diploma, 11 percent received an alternative certificate,3 18 percent dropped out, 1 percent reached maximum age,4 and less than one-half of 1 percent died.

Endnotes:

1 Formerly known as the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, amended in the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act of 2004 (P.L. 94-152). See Appendix A: Guide to Sources for more information about the history and requirements of IDEA.

2 "Specific learning disability" is defined as a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using spoken or written language, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, motor, or intellectual disabilities, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

3 Received a certificate of completion, modified diploma, or similar document, but did not meet the same standards for graduation as did students without disabilities.

4 Each state determines its maximum age to receive special education services. At the time these data were collected, the maximum age across states generally ranged from 20 to 22 years old.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 204.40, 204.50, and 219.90

Related indicators and resources: Children and Youth With Disabilities (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and Common Core of Data (CCD)

Glossary: Disabilities, children with; Individuals With Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)
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This chapter focuses on different measures of academic achievement for elementary and secondary students including gaps between racial/ethnic groups. The indicators examine student achievement on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading and mathematics assessments, as well as the relationship between student absences from school and assessment scores. Another way to measure student progress is by the courses that students complete in high school. Other indicators examine high school coursework and enrollment in Advanced Placement and International Baccalaureate programs.

This chapter’s indicators are available at the Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups website: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/.
Chapter 3. Achievement

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Indicator 10

Reading Achievement

From 1992 through 2017, the average reading scores for White 4th- and 8th-graders were higher than those of their Black and Hispanic peers; however, some achievement gaps have narrowed over time. For example, the White-Hispanic achievement gap at grade 8 narrowed from 26 points in 1992 to 19 points in 2017.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) assesses student performance in reading at grades 4, 8, and 12 in both public and private schools across the nation. NAEP reading scores range from 0 to 500 for all grade levels. NAEP reading assessments have been administered periodically since 1992, more frequently in grades 4 and 8 than in grade 12.¹ The most recent reading assessments were conducted in 2017 for grades 4 and 8 and in 2015 for grade 12.²

Figure 10.1. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scale scores of 4th-grade students, by race/ethnicity: Selected years, 1992–2017

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<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2011</td>
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<tr>
<td>2013</td>
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<tr>
<td>2015</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2017</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Testing accommodations (e.g., extended time, small group testing) for children with disabilities and English language learners were not permitted in 1992 or 1994. The reading scale scores range from 0 to 500. Scale scores for American Indian/Alaska Native students were suppressed in 1992 and 1998 because reporting standards were not met (either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater). Data on race/ethnicity are based on school reports. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), selected years, 1992–2017 Reading Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 221.10.
At grade 4, the 2017 average reading scores for White (232), Black (206), Hispanic (209), and Asian/Pacific Islander students (239) were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015, but the average score for each group was higher in 2017 than in 1992 (224, 192, 197, and 216, respectively). In 2017, the average score for American Indian/Alaska Native 4th-graders (202) was not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015 and 1994 (1994 was the first year data for American Indian/Alaska Native students met reporting standards). In 2011, NAEP began reporting separate data for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races. At grade 4, the 2017 average reading scores for Pacific Islander students (212) and students of Two or more races (227) were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015 and 2011. The 2017 average reading score for Asian students (241) was not measurably different from the corresponding score in 2015, but it was higher than the corresponding score in 2011 (236).

At grade 4 in 2017, White students scored 30 points higher than American Indian/Alaska Native students, 26 points higher than Blacks students, 23 points higher than Hispanic students, 20 points higher than Pacific Islander students, and 5 points higher than students of Two or more races. Asian students scored 9 points higher than White students.

Closing achievement gaps is a goal among education policymakers. Between 1992 and 2017, the average reading score for White 4th-graders was higher than the scores for their Black and Hispanic peers in each assessment year. However, the White-Black gap narrowed from 32 points in 1992 to 26 points in 2017. The White-Hispanic gap in 2017 (23 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 1992. The White-Black and White-Hispanic gaps in 2017 were not measurably different from the corresponding gaps in 2015.
At grade 8, the 2017 average reading scores for White (275), Black (249), Hispanic (255), and Asian/Pacific Islander (282) students were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015, but the average score for each group was higher in 2017 than in 1992 (267, 237, 241, and 268, respectively). For American Indian/Alaska Native students, the average score in 2017 (253) was not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015 and 1994. The average scores for Pacific Islander students (255) and students of Two or more races (272) in 2017 were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015 and 2011. The 2017 average score for Asian students (284) was not measurably different from the corresponding score in 2015, but it was higher than the corresponding score in 2011 (277).

At grade 8 in 2017, White students scored 25 points higher than Black students, 22 points higher than American Indian/Alaska Native students, 20 points higher than Pacific Islander students, and 19 points higher than Hispanic students. The 2017 average reading score for White students was not measurably different from the score for students of Two or more races. Asian students scored 9 points higher than White students and 11 points higher than students of Two or more races. The White-Hispanic achievement gap narrowed from 26 points in 1992 to 19 points in 2017, while the White-Black gap in 2017 (25 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 1992.
At grade 12, the 2015 average reading scores for White (295) and Hispanic (276) students were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2013 and 1992. For Black students, the 2015 average score (266) was lower than the 1992 score (273) but not measurably different from the 2013 score. The 2015 scores were not measurably different from the corresponding 2013 scores for students who were Asian, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races.

At grade 12 in 2015, White students scored 30 points higher than Black students and 20 points higher than Hispanic students. However, there were no measurable differences between the average reading scores for White students and those for students who were Asian, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races. The White-Black achievement gap was wider in 2015 (30 points) than in 1992 (24 points), while the White-Hispanic gap in 2015 (20 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 1992.
Endnotes:
1 This indicator presents data from the Main NAEP reading assessment, which is not directly comparable with the Long-Term Trend NAEP reading assessment. The Main NAEP reading assessment was first administered in 1992 and assesses student performance at grades 4, 8, and 12; the Long-Term Trend NAEP reading assessment was first administered in 1971 and assesses student performance at ages 9, 13, and 17. In addition, the two assessments differ in the content assessed, how often the assessment is administered, and how the results are reported.

2 NAEP reading scores for 4th-grade students in 2017 had a mean of 222 and a standard deviation (SD) of 38. NAEP reading scores for 8th-grade students in 2017 had a mean of 267 and an SD of 36. NAEP reading scores for 12th-grade students in 2015 had a mean of 287 and an SD of 41 (retrieved March 13, 2018, from the Main NAEP Data Explorer, https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/).

3 While NAEP reported some data on students of Two or more races for earlier years, the reporting standards changed in 2011.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 221.10
Related indicators and resources: Mathematics Achievement; Mathematics Performance (The Condition of Education); Reading Performance (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)
Glossary: Achievement gap
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Indicator 11

Mathematics Achievement

From 1990 through 2017, the average mathematics scores for White 4th- and 8th-graders were higher than those of their Black and Hispanic peers; however, some achievement gaps have narrowed over time. For example, the White-Black achievement gap at grade 4 narrowed from 32 points in 1990 to 25 points in 2017.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) assesses student performance in mathematics at grades 4, 8, and 12 in both public and private schools across the nation. NAEP mathematics scores range from 0 to 500 for grades 4 and 8 and from 0 to 300 for grade 12. NAEP mathematics assessments have been administered periodically since 1990, more frequently in grades 4 and 8 than in grade 12.1 The most recent mathematics assessments were conducted in 2017 for grades 4 and 8 and in 2015 for grade 12.2

Figure 11.1. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale scores of 4th-grade students, by race/ethnicity: Selected years, 1990–2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale score</th>
<th>Selected years, 1990-2017</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/Pacific Islander</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale score | 2017 |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian/Pacific Islander</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>240 248 223 229 258 260 229 227 245</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Includes public and private schools. The mathematics scale scores range from 0 to 500. Testing accommodations (e.g., extended time, small group testing) for children with disabilities and English language learners were not permitted in 1990 and 1992. Scale scores for American Indian/Alaska Native students were suppressed in 1990 and 1992 and for Asian/Pacific Islander students in 2000 because reporting standards were not met (either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater). Data on race/ethnicity are based on school reports. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

At grade 4, the 2017 average mathematics scores for White (248), Black (223), Hispanic (229), and Asian/Pacific Islander students (258) were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015, but the average score for each group was higher in 2017 than in 1990 (220, 188, 200, and 225, respectively). In 2017, the average score for American Indian/Alaska Native 4th-graders (227) was not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015 and 1996 (1996 was the first year data for American Indian/Alaska Native students at grade 4 met reporting standards).

In 2011, NAEP began reporting separate data for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races. At grade 4, the 2017 average mathematics scores for Asian students (260), Pacific Islander students (229), and students of Two or more races (245) were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015 and 2011.

At grade 4 in 2017, White students scored 25 points higher than Black students, 21 points higher than American Indian/Alaska Native students, 19 points higher than both Hispanic and Pacific Islander students, and 4 points higher than students of Two or more races. Asian students scored 12 points higher than White students.

Closing achievement gaps is a goal among education policymakers. Between 1990 and 2017, the average mathematics score for White 4th-graders was higher than the scores for their Black and Hispanic peers in each assessment year. However, the White-Black gap narrowed from 32 points in 1990 to 25 points in 2017. The White-Hispanic gap in 2017 (19 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 1990.
At grade 8, the 2017 average mathematics scores for White (293), Black (260), Hispanic (269), and Asian/Pacific Islander (310) students were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015, but the average score for each group was higher in 2017 than in 1990 (270, 237, 246, and 275, respectively). For American Indian/Alaska Native students, the average score in 2017 (267) was not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015 and 2000 (2000 was the first year data for American Indian/Alaska Native students at grade 8 met reporting standards). The average scores for Pacific Islander students (274) and students of Two or more races (287) in 2017 were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2015 and 2011. The 2017 average score for Asian students (312) was not measurably different from the corresponding score in 2015, but it was higher than the corresponding score in 2011 (305).

At grade 8 in 2017, White students scored 32 points higher than Black students, 25 points higher than American Indian/Alaska Native students, 24 points higher than Hispanic students, 18 points higher than Pacific Islander students, and 6 points higher than students of Two or more races. Asian students scored 19 points higher than White students. The White-Black achievement gap in 2017 (32 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 1990. Similarly, the White-Hispanic achievement gap in 2017 (24 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 1990.
At grade 12, the 2015 average mathematics scores were not measurably different from the 2013 scores for any racial/ethnic group. The 2015 scores were higher for White (160), Black (130), and Hispanic (139) students than in 2005 (157, 127, and 133, respectively), the first year a comparable assessment was administered.\textsuperscript{4,5}

Achievement gaps were also evident for 12th-grade students. At grade 12 in 2015, White students scored 30 points higher than Black students and 22 points higher than both American Indian/Alaska Native and Hispanic students (2015 data for Pacific Islander students did not meet reporting standards). Asian students scored 11 points higher than White students. The scores for White 12th-grade students were higher than the scores for their Black and Hispanic peers in every survey year since 2005. The White-Black achievement gap in 2015 (30 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 2005. Similarly, the White-Hispanic achievement gap in 2015 (22 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 2005.
Endnotes:
1 This indicator presents data from the Main NAEP mathematics assessment, which is not directly comparable with the Long-Term Trend NAEP mathematics assessment. The Main NAEP mathematics assessment was first administered in 1990 and assesses student performance at grades 4, 8, and 12; the Long-Term Trend NAEP mathematics assessment was first administered in 1973 and assesses student performance at ages 9, 13, and 17. In addition, the two assessments differ in the content assessed, how often the assessment is administered, and how the results are reported.
2 NAEP mathematics scores for 4th-grade students in 2017 had a mean of 240 and a standard deviation (SD) of 31. NAEP mathematics scores for 8th-grade students in 2017 had a mean of 283 and an SD of 39. NAEP mathematics scores for 12th-grade students in 2015 had a mean of 152 and an SD of 34 (retrieved March 13, 2018, from the Main NAEP Data Explorer, https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/naepdata/).
3 While NAEP reported some data on students of Two or more races for earlier years, the reporting standards changed in 2011.
4 Prior to 2011, separate data for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races were not collected; therefore, these groups were not included in the comparison of 2005 and 2015 scores.
5 The 2005 mathematics framework for grade 12 introduced changes from the previous framework in order to reflect adjustments in curricular emphases and to ensure an appropriate balance of content. Consequently, the 12th-grade mathematics results in 2005 and subsequent years could not be compared to previous assessments, and a new trend line was established beginning in 2005.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 222.10
Related indicators and resources: Mathematics Performance (The Condition of Education); Reading Achievement; Reading Performance (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)
Glossary: Achievement gap
Absenteism and Achievement

In 2017, the percentage of 8th-graders who reported that they had zero absences from school in the last month was higher for Asian students (62 percent) than for students who were Black (42 percent), White, Hispanic, of Two or more races (40 percent each), Pacific Islander (38 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (35 percent).

Children who are frequently absent from school may experience academic difficulties and are less likely to complete school if no intervention takes place.1 Using data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), this indicator examines racial/ethnic differences in the percentage of 8th-grade students absent from school in the last month, focusing on students with zero absences and students with more than 10 absences (i.e., students at the low and high ends of the range). It also examines differences in the mathematics and reading achievement of 8th-grade students on NAEP by number of absences and race/ethnicity.

As part of the 2017 NAEP, students reported how many days they were absent from school in the last month. A higher percentage of Asian 8th-grade students (62 percent) reported that they had zero absences from school in the last month than did students who were Black (42 percent), White, Hispanic, of Two or more races (40 percent each), Pacific Islander (38 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (35 percent).

Conversely, a lower percentage of Asian students (2 percent) were absent 5–10 days in the last month than students who were White (5 percent), Hispanic (5 percent), Black (5 percent), of Two or more races (7 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (8 percent), and Pacific Islander (11 percent). Additionally, the percentages of White and Hispanic students were lower than that of students who were of Two or more races, American Indian/Alaska Native, and Pacific Islander.
In general, students with fewer absences from school scored higher on the NAEP 2017 mathematics assessment than their peers with more absences. Within the White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Two or more races groups, 8th-grade students who had zero absences in the last month had higher mathematics scale scores than their peers who had any other number of absences. In addition, American Indian/Alaska Native students who had zero absences scored higher than those who were absent more than 10 days. Pacific Islander students who had zero absences or who were absent 1–2 days scored higher than those who were absent 3–4 days, but their scores were not measurably different from the scores of those who were absent 5–10 days.

For students with similar numbers of absences, mathematics achievement in 2017 can also be compared across racial/ethnic groups. Asian 8th-grade students who had zero absences from school in the last month had higher NAEP mathematics scores than students from every other racial/ethnic group with zero absences in the last month. Conversely, Black students who had zero absences from school in the last month scored lower in math than students from every other racial/ethnic group with zero absences in the last month. Among students who were absent more than 10 days in the last month, Asian students scored higher than students who were White, Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native. Additionally, students who were White or of Two or more races scored higher than students who were Black and Hispanic.

Figure 12.2. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale score of 8th-grade students, by race/ethnicity and number of days absent from school in the last month: 2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/ethnicity</th>
<th>0 days</th>
<th>1–2 days</th>
<th>3–4 days</th>
<th>5–10 days</th>
<th>More than 10 days</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>244</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>317</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>278</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian/Alaska Native</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>269</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

† Reporting standards not met (too few cases for a reliable estimate).

NOTE: At grade 8, the mathematics scale ranges from 0 to 500. Includes public and private schools. Includes students tested with accommodations (9 to 12 percent of all students, depending on assessment and grade level); excludes only those students with disabilities and English language learners who were unable to be tested even with accommodations (2 percent of all students). Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

Similar to the mathematics assessment, 8th-graders with fewer absences generally scored higher on the NAEP 2017 reading assessment. The exception was Pacific Islander students, whose reading scores did not measurably differ by number of days absent. For White and Black students, those who had zero absences from school in the last month had higher reading scale scores than those who had any other number of absences. Among Hispanic students, reading scores were higher for those who had zero absences or were absent 1–2 days in the last month than for those who were absent 3–4 days, 5–10 days, and more than 10 days. Among Asian students, reading scores were higher for those who had zero absences in the last month than for those who were absent 1–2 days, 3–4 days, and more than 10 days, and were not measurably different from the scores for those who were absent 5–10 days. Among both American Indian/Alaska Native students and students of Two or more races, reading scores were higher for those who had zero absences or were absent 1–2 days in the last month than for those who were absent 3–4 days and 5–10 days.

Reading achievement in 2017 can also be compared among students of different racial/ethnic groups who had similar numbers of absences in the last month. Asian 8th-grade students who had zero absences in the last month scored higher in reading than students of every other racial/ethnic group with zero absences. Conversely, Black students who had zero absences from school in the last month scored lower in reading than students of every other racial/ethnic group with zero absences. Conversely, Black students who had zero absences from school in the last month scored lower in reading than students with zero absences who were Asian, Two or more races, White, and Hispanic. Among students who were absent more than 10 days, Asian and White students scored higher than Black and Hispanic students.

Endnotes:

2 Pacific Islander students who were absent more than 10 days in the last month are not included in this comparison because data were not available due to the small sample size.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 227.50
Related indicators and resources: Mathematics Achievement; Mathematics Performance (The Condition of Education); Reading Achievement; Reading Performance (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP)
Glossary: N/A
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Indicator 13

High School Coursetaking

A higher percentage of Asian students (45 percent) earned their highest math course credit in calculus than students of every other racial/ethnic group. The percentage earning their highest math course credit in calculus was also higher for White students (18 percent) than students of Two or more races (11 percent), Hispanic students (10 percent), and Black students (6 percent).

As part of the High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09), high school transcripts were obtained in 2013 from a nationally representative sample of both public and private school students who were 9th-graders in 2009.1 Transcript data provide an account of the high school courses in which students earned credits. One credit is the equivalent of a year-long course of study. This indicator examines the average number of credits students earned in different academic subject areas by students’ race/ethnicity. It also examines differences by students’ race/ethnicity for the highest mathematics and science courses in which they earned credit.

Figure 13.1. Average high school credits earned by students in STEM academic subject areas, by race/ethnicity: 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic subject area</th>
<th>Number of credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Math</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>3.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Science</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>3.3</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Computer and information sciences</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>White</td>
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<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Engineering and technology</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: High school transcripts were obtained in 2013 from a nationally representative sample of students who were ninth-graders in 2009. Estimates include ninth-graders who dropped out or did not obtain a high school credential by 2013. STEM refers to science, technology, engineering, and mathematics. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09), First Follow-Up and High School Transcript Study Public-Use File. See HSLS:09 2013 Update and High School Transcript Study: A First Look at Fall 2009 Ninth-Graders in 2013, table 3.

STEM-related courses include core coursework in math, science, computer and information sciences, as well as engineering and technology. Asian students earned more high school credits in math (3.9 credits) than students of every other racial/ethnic group.2 Additionally, White students earned more credits (3.7 credits) than Hispanic students (3.5 credits) and students of Two or more races (3.5 credits). Asian students earned more credits in science (3.9 credits) than White students (3.4 credits), and both Asian and White students earned more credits in science than students in any other racial/ethnic group. There were no measurable differences in the number of credits earned in computer and information sciences by racial/ethnic group. White students earned more credits in engineering and technology (0.2 credits) than students in any other racial/ethnic group.
Figure 13.2. Average high school credits earned by students in non-STEM academic subject areas, by race/ethnicity: 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic subject area</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Hispanic</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Two or more races</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social studies</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign language</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine arts</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: High school transcripts were obtained in 2013 from a nationally representative sample of students who were ninth-graders in 2009. Estimates include ninth-graders who dropped out or did not obtain a high school credential by 2013. STEM refers to science, technology, engineering, and mathematics. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.


Non-STEM related coursework includes subjects such as English, social studies, foreign language, and fine arts. White students earned fewer credits in English (4.0 credits) than Asian (4.2 credits) and Hispanic students (4.1 credits). Asian students earned more credits in social studies (3.9 credits) than students of all other racial/ethnic groups. In addition, White students earned more credits in social studies (3.7 credits) than students of Two or more races (3.6 credits), Hispanic students (3.5 credits), and Black students (3.4 credits). Similarly, Asian students earned more credits in foreign language (2.4 credits) than students of all other racial/ethnic groups. White students earned more credits in foreign language (1.9 credits) than Hispanic students (1.8 credits), and students in both groups earned more credits than Black students (1.6 credits). White students earned more credits in fine arts (2.0 credits) than Asian students (1.8 credits), and both groups earned more credits than Hispanic students (1.6 credits) and Black students (1.5 credits). Additionally, students of Two or more races earned more credits in fine arts (1.9 credits) than Hispanic students and Black students.
Career and technical education (CTE) includes vocational education courses, as well as courses that teach general life or employment skills. White students earned more credits in CTE (3.2 credits) than students of Two or more races (2.9 credits), Hispanic students (2.6 credits), and Asian students (2.2 credits). There were no measurable differences in the amount of CTE credits earned by White students and Black students (2.9 credits). Asian students also earned fewer CTE credits than students of Two or more races and Black students.
Figure 13.4. Percentage distribution of students by highest mathematics course in which high school credit was earned, by race/ethnicity: 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest mathematics course</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Hispanic</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Two or more races</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No math</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below algebra I</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebra I</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geometry</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebra II</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other math</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precalculus</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calculus</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.
2 Reporting standards not met. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is 50 percent or greater.
3 Includes basic math, applied math, other math such as history of math and mathematics–test preparation, and pre-algebra.
4 Includes integrated math, trigonometry, algebra III, probability and statistics, and noncalculus Advanced Placement (AP) or International Baccalaureate (IB) courses.

NOTE: High school transcripts were obtained in 2013 from a nationally representative sample of students who were ninth-graders in 2009. Estimates include ninth-graders who dropped out or did not obtain a high school credential by 2013. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. Details may not sum to 100 because of rounding.


In addition to examining the average number of credits earned in a particular subject area, transcript data can provide information on the specific math courses (e.g., algebra I, geometry, calculus) that students took while in high school. Math courses were coded using a common classification system and students were placed into groups based on the most difficult, or highest, course in which a student earned credit. A higher percentage of Black students earned no credit in math courses in high school (3 percent) than Hispanic students (1 percent) and White students (1 percent). There were no measurable differences in the percentages of White, Black, and Hispanic students and students of Two or more races who earned their highest credit in a math course below algebra I. A similar pattern was evident for students whose highest math course was algebra I, except that the percentage of Hispanic students (6 percent) was higher than the percentage of White students (4 percent). The percentage of Hispanic students for whom geometry was their highest math course (17 percent) was higher than that for students of Two or more races (11 percent), Black students (9 percent), White students (9 percent), and Asian students (4 percent).

The percentage of students whose highest math course was algebra II was lower for Asian students (11 percent) than students of all other racial/ethnic groups. The percentage of students who earned their highest math course credit in some other math course was higher for Black students (32 percent) than students of all other racial/ethnic groups. A higher percentage of White students earned their highest math credit in precalculus (22 percent) than Hispanic students (17 percent), students of Two or more races (16 percent), and Black students (16 percent). The percentage was also higher for Asian students (22 percent) than students of Two or more races and Black students. A higher percentage of Asian students (45 percent) earned their highest math course credit in calculus than students of all other racial/ethnic groups. The percentage earning their highest math course credit in calculus was also higher for White students (18 percent) than students of Two or more races (11 percent), Hispanic students (10 percent), and Black students (6 percent), and lower for Black students than students of Two or more races and Hispanic students.
Science courses were also coded using a common classification system and students were placed into groups based on the most difficult, or highest, course in which a student earned credit. A higher percentage of Black students (3 percent) and Hispanic students (3 percent) earned no credit in science courses in high school than White students (2 percent). A lower percentage of Asian students (28 percent) earned their highest science course credit in general science than students of all other racial/ethnic groups. The percentage was also lower for White students (42 percent) than Hispanic students (50 percent) and Black students (49 percent). A lower percentage of Asian students (24 percent) earned their highest science credit in specialty science than students of every other racial/ethnic group. A higher percentage of White students (6 percent) earned their highest science credit in advanced studies than students of Two or more races (3 percent), Hispanic students (3 percent), and Black students (3 percent). The percentage of Asian students (40 percent) who earned their highest science credit in Advanced Placement (AP) or International Baccalaureate (IB) science was higher than the percentage of White students (16 percent), and both these percentages were higher than the percentages of every other racial/ethnic group. Additionally, a higher percentage of students of Two or more races (12 percent) than Black students (8 percent) earned credit in AP or IB science as their highest science course.

Endnotes:
1 In some measures of coursetaking, high school dropouts were included, while they were excluded in others. See figure notes for more detail.
2 The racial/ethnic groups included in this indicator are White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Two or more races. Students of all other races were excluded from the comparisons between racial/ethnic groups made in this indicator.

Reference tables: High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09); 2013 Update and High School Transcript Study: A First Look at Fall 2009 Ninth-Graders in 2013, tables 2, 3, 4, and 6
Related indicators and resources: High School Coursetaking (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09)
Glossary: Career and technical education (CTE); Transcript
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Indicator 14

Advanced Placement and International Baccalaureate Coursetaking

The percentage of high school students earning any Advanced Placement/International Baccalaureate credits was higher for Asian students (72 percent) than for White students (40 percent), and the percentages for Asian and White students were higher than the percentages for students in all other racial/ethnic groups.

As part of the High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09), high school transcripts were obtained in 2013 from a nationally representative sample of students who were 9th-graders in 2009. Transcripts included information about the number of credits earned in Advanced Placement (AP) and International Baccalaureate (IB) courses. One credit is the equivalent of a year-long course of study in high school, and students who take AP and IB courses in high school are eligible to earn college credit for those courses. This indicator examines the average number of credits earned in AP/IB courses as well as the percentage of students who earned any credits in AP/IB courses by race/ethnicity.

Figure 14.1. Percentage of students earning any credit in Advanced Placement (AP) or International Baccalaureate (IB) courses, by academic subject area and race/ethnicity: 2013

The percentage of students earning any AP/IB credits was higher for Asian students (72 percent) than for White students (40 percent), and the percentages for Asian and White students were higher than the percentages for students in all other racial/ethnic groups. In contrast, the percentage of students earning any AP/IB credits was lowest for Black students (23 percent). The same patterns emerged for the percentage of students earning any AP/IB credits in math and science with one exception: there was no measurable difference between the percentages of Black and Hispanic students who earned any AP/IB credits in science.
Figure 14.2. Average high school credits earned by students in Advanced Placement (AP) or International Baccalaureate (IB) courses for students who earned any AP/IB credits, by academic subject area and race/ethnicity: 2013

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic subject area</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>Black</th>
<th>Hispanic</th>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>Two or more races</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Math</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Includes all subjects (not only math and science).

NOTE: IB Middle Years Program courses are not included. High school transcripts were obtained in 2013 from a nationally representative sample of students who were ninth-graders in 2009. Estimates include ninth-graders who dropped out or did not obtain a high school credential by 2013. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.


Even among students who took AP/IB courses there were some racial/ethnic differences in the number of courses they took, and therefore the number of credits they earned. For students who took any AP/IB courses in high school, the average number of AP/IB course credits earned by Asian students (4.5 credits) was higher than the averages for students of all other racial/ethnic groups. Additionally, White students earned a higher number of total AP/IB credits (3.1 credits) than did Black students (2.7 credits). The same pattern emerged when examining AP/IB credits earned in math. The average number of AP/IB credits earned in science was highest for Asian students (1.7 credits) and lowest for Black students (1.1 credits).

Endnotes:

1 The racial/ethnic groups included in this indicator are White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Two or more races. Students of All other races were excluded from the comparisons between racial/ethnic groups made in this indicator.


Data sources: High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09)

Glossary: Advanced Placement (AP); International Baccalaureate (IB)
This chapter looks at measures of student behavior and persistence. The indicators examine the rates of retention, suspension, and expulsion, as well as high school status dropout rates and completion rates. In addition, another indicator provides information on safety at school, such as how often students reported being threatened or injured with a weapon on school property or how often they had been offered illegal drugs.

This chapter’s indicators are available at the Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups website: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/.
Chapter 4. Student Behaviors and Persistence

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Indicator 15

Retention, Suspension, and Expulsion

Between 2000 and 2016, the percentage of students retained in a grade decreased from 3.1 to 1.9 percent. This pattern was observed among White, Black, and Hispanic students.

This indicator examines racial/ethnic differences in the percentages of students who were retained in a grade, received one or more out-of-school suspensions, and were expelled by race/ethnicity. Retention, suspension, and expulsion are all associated with negative outcomes, such as an increased risk of dropping out of school. Suspensions and expulsions are disciplinary actions taken by a school or district in response to a student's behavior. Retention, however, can be related to both disciplinary and academic issues; a student might be retained because of behavioral issues or because the student is not academically ready to progress to the next grade level.

The Current Population Survey asks parents to report the grade in which their child is enrolled in October of the current school year, and the grade in which their child was enrolled in October of the prior school year. Retention rates include students in kindergarten through grade 12 in public and private schools.

Figure 15.1. Percentage of elementary and secondary school students retained in grade, by race/ethnicity: 2000–2016

In 2016, about 1.9 percent of students in kindergarten through grade 12 were retained in the same grade in which they were enrolled in the prior school year. This percentage was lower than the percentage of students retained in 2015 (2.2 percent). Between 2000 and 2016, the percentage of students retained decreased from 3.1 to 1.9 percent. This pattern was observed among White, Black, and Hispanic students. However, in all years between 2000 and 2016, a higher percentage of Black students than of White students were retained. The percentage of Hispanic students who were retained was also higher than the percentage of White students retained for most years over the same period, although the percentages of White and Hispanic students retained in 2016 were not measurably different.
In 2016, the percentage of Black students retained in kindergarten through grade 12 (2.7 percent) was higher than the percentage of White students retained (1.7 percent) but was not measurably different from the percentage of Hispanic students retained (1.9 percent). Among those in kindergarten through grade 8, a higher percentage of Black students (2.6 percent) than of White and Hispanic students (both 1.5 percent) were retained. Among those in grades 9 through 12, there were no measurable differences in the percentages of White, Black, and Hispanic students retained.

For White and Hispanic students in 2016, the percentage of kindergarten through 8th-grade students who were retained in grade (both 1.5 percent) was lower than the percentage of 9th- through 12th-grade students who were retained (2.2 and 2.7 percent, respectively). The percentage of Black students in kindergarten through 8th grade who were retained was not measurably different from the corresponding percentage of those in 9th through 12th grade.
Students may be suspended (in- or out-of-school) or expelled (with or without educational services) for disciplinary purposes. The Civil Rights Data Collection provides data on the number of public school students who were disciplined during the 2013–14 school year by the type of disciplinary action (e.g., suspension, expulsion). The remainder of this indicator discusses the percentages of public school students who received an out-of-school suspension and were expelled, by race/ethnicity.

Figure 15.3. Percentage of public school students who received out-of-school suspensions, by race/ethnicity and sex: 2013–14

In 2013–14, about 2.6 million public school students (5.3 percent) received one or more out-of-school suspensions. A higher percentage of Black students (13.7 percent) than of students from any other racial/ethnic group received an out-of-school suspension, followed by 6.7 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native students, 5.3 percent of students of Two or more races, 4.5 percent each of Hispanic and Pacific Islander students, 3.4 percent of White students, and 1.1 percent of Asian students.

Data by race/ethnicity exclude students with disabilities served only under Section 504 (not receiving services under Individuals with Disabilities Act [IDEA]) since suspensions for these students are not available disaggregated by race/ethnicity in the underlying data. Students with disabilities served only under Section 504 made up approximately 2 percent of public school enrollment in 2013–14.

NOTE: An out-of-school suspension is an instance in which a student is temporarily removed from his or her regular school for disciplinary purposes for at least half a day (but less than the remainder of the school year) to another setting (e.g., home or behavior center). The percentage of students receiving a disciplinary action is calculated by dividing the cumulative number of students receiving that type of disciplinary action for the entire 2013–14 school year by the student enrollment based on a count of students taken on a single day between September 27 and December 31. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

More than twice as many male students (7.3 percent) than female students (3.2 percent) received one or more out-of-school suspensions in 2013–14. This pattern of higher percentages of male than female students receiving out-of-school suspensions was observed for all racial/ethnic groups. For example, 17.6 percent of Black male students received one or more out-of-school suspensions compared with 9.6 percent of Black female students. The percentage of Black male students who received out-of-school suspensions (17.6 percent) was the highest of male students from any racial/ethnic group. This percentage was nearly twice the percentage of the next highest racial/ethnic group—American Indian/Alaska Native male students with 9.1 percent—and was more than twice the percentage of male students from any other racial/ethnic group. A similar pattern was observed among female students, with Black female students receiving the highest percentage of out-of-school suspensions (9.6 percent).

About 111,000 students were expelled in 2013–14, amounting to 0.2 percent of public school students. The percentages of Black and American Indian/Alaska Native students who were expelled (both 0.4 percent) were higher than the percentages for students of all other racial/ethnic groups. Among other racial/ethnic groups, 0.3 percent of students of Two or more races, 0.2 percent of White students, 0.1 percent of Hispanic and of Pacific Islander students, and less than 0.1 percent of Asian students were expelled. As with the percentages of students who received out-of-school suspensions, a higher percentage of male (0.3 percent) than of female (0.1 percent) students were expelled. This pattern of higher percentages of male than female students receiving expulsions was observed for all racial/ethnic groups.

Endnotes:
1 Retained students are defined as those who remain in the same grade from one school year to the next. Grade retention can happen at any school level.
3 Retention data are only available for White, Black, and Hispanic students. There are too few cases to conduct reliable analyses for students of other racial/ethnic groups.
4 An in-school suspension is an instance in which a student is temporarily removed from his or her regular classroom(s) for at least half a day but remains under the direct supervision of school personnel. An out-of-school suspension is an instance in which a student is temporarily removed from his or her regular school for disciplinary purposes for at least half a day (but less than the remainder of the school year) and sent to another setting (e.g., home or behavior center).
5 Expulsions are actions taken by a local education agency that result in the removal of a student from his or her regular school for disciplinary purposes for the remainder of the school year or longer in accordance with local education agency policy. Expulsions also include removals resulting from violations of the Gun Free Schools Act that are modified to less than 365 days.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 225.90, 233.27, and 233.28
Related indicators and resources: High School Status Dropout Rates; School Crime and Safety (The Condition of Education); Snapshot of High School Status Dropout Rates for Racial/Ethnic Subgroups; Status Dropout Rates (The Condition of Education)
Data sources: Current Population Survey (CPS) and Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC)
Glossary: Expulsion; Retention in grade; Suspension
Indicator 16

Safety at School

In 2015, the percentage of students in grades 9–12 who reported they had been in a physical fight on school property during the previous 12 months was 6 percent for White students; this was lower than the percentages of Hispanic students and students of Two or more races (9 percent each) and Black and American Indian/Alaska Native students (13 percent each).

The Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS) and the School Crime Supplement (SCS) to the National Crime Victimization Survey collect information on public and private school students’ safety at school by asking a series of questions on their experiences at school. Specifically, the 2015 YRBS asked students in grades 9–12 whether they had carried a weapon such as a gun, knife, or club on school property during the previous 30 days; whether they had been threatened or injured with a weapon on school property during the previous 12 months; and whether they had been in a physical fight on school property during the previous 12 months. Students were also asked whether someone had offered, sold, or given them an illegal drug on school property during the previous 12 months. The 2015 SCS asked students ages 12–18 about the presence of gangs at their school, how often they had been afraid of attack or harm at school or on the way to and from school, and whether they had avoided one or more places in school because of fear of attack or harm during the school year.

Figure 16.1. Percentage of students in grades 9–12 who reported carrying a weapon on school property at least 1 day during the previous 30 days or being threatened or injured with a weapon on school property during the previous 12 months, by race/ethnicity: 2015

Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.

1 Respondents were asked about carrying “a weapon such as a gun, knife, or club” at least 1 day during the previous 30 days.

2 Respondents were asked about being threatened or injured “with a weapon such as a gun, knife, or club on school property” during the previous 12 months.

NOTE: “On school property” was not defined for respondents. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.


In 2015, about 4 percent of students in grades 9–12 reported carrying a weapon such as a gun, knife, or club on school property during the previous 30 days. The percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native students who reported carrying such a weapon on school property (10 percent) was higher than the percentage of Hispanic (5 percent), White (4 percent), Black (3 percent), and Asian students (2 percent) who reported doing so.
Additionally, the percentage of Pacific Islander students (15 percent) who reported carrying a weapon was higher than the percentage of Asian students (2 percent), although the percentage for Pacific Islander students was not measurably different from the percentages reported by students of the other racial/ethnic groups. In the same year, 6 percent of students in grades 9–12 reported being threatened or injured with a weapon on school property during the previous 12 months. Higher percentages of Pacific Islander (20 percent) and Black students (8 percent) than of White (5 percent) and Asian students (4 percent), as well as a higher percentage of Hispanic students (7 percent) than of White students, reported being threatened or injured with a weapon on school property during the previous 12 months.

In 2015, about 8 percent of students in grades 9–12 reported that they had been in a physical fight on school property during the previous 12 months. A lower percentage of White students (6 percent) than of Hispanic students and students of Two or more races (9 percent each), Black and American Indian/Alaska Native students (13 percent each), and Pacific Islander students (21 percent) reported being in a physical fight on school property in the previous 12 months. In addition, the percentage reporting that they had been in a physical fight on school property in the previous 12 months was lower for Asian students (6 percent) than for Black students.
Figure 16.3. Percentage of students in grades 9–12 who reported that illegal drugs were made available to them on school property during the previous 12 months, by race/ethnicity: 2015

Approximately 22 percent of students in grades 9–12 reported in 2015 that illegal drugs were offered, sold, or given to them on school property during the previous 12 months. A higher percentage of Hispanic students (27 percent) than of Black (21 percent), White (20 percent), and Asian (15 percent) students reported that illegal drugs were made available to them on school property. Also, a higher percentage of students of Two or more races (25 percent) than of Asian students reported that illegal drugs were made available to them on school property.

NOTE: “On school property” was not defined for respondents. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

According to data collected in the 2015 SCS, about 11 percent of students ages 12–18 reported that gangs were present at their school during the school year. The percentages of students who reported the presence of gangs at their school were higher for Black students (17 percent) and Hispanic students (15 percent) than for White students (7 percent). About 3 percent of students ages 12–18 reported in 2015 that they had been afraid of attack or harm at school during the school year, with a higher percentage of Hispanic students (5 percent) than of White students (3 percent) reporting this concern. In addition, approximately 4 percent of students ages 12–18 reported in 2015 that they avoided one or more places in school because of fear of attack or harm during the school year, with no measurable differences in percentages between racial/ethnic groups.

Endnotes:

1 “On school property” was not defined for respondents.
2 All gangs, whether or not they are involved in violent or illegal activity, are included.
3 “At school” includes in the school building, on school property, on a school bus, and going to and from school.
4 Places that students were asked about avoiding included the school entrance, hallways or stairs in school, parts of the school cafeteria or lunchroom, school restrooms, and other places inside the school building.


Related indicators and resources: School Crime and Safety (The Condition of Education); Status Dropout Rates (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) and School Crime Supplement (SCS) to the National Crime Victimization Survey

Glossary: N/A
Indicator 17

High School Status Dropout Rates

From 2000 to 2016, the Hispanic status dropout rate decreased from 27.8 to 8.6 percent, while the Black rate decreased from 13.1 to 6.2 percent, and the White rate decreased from 6.9 to 5.2 percent. Nevertheless, the Hispanic status dropout rate in 2016 remained higher than the Black and White status dropout rates. There was no measurable difference between the Black and White status dropout rates in 2016.

Status dropouts are no longer attending school (public or private) and do not have a high school level of educational attainment. The status dropout rate measures the percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds in the United States who are not enrolled in school and have not earned a high school credential. In this indicator, status dropout rates are estimated using both the Current Population Survey (CPS) and the American Community Survey (ACS). CPS data have been collected annually for decades, allowing for the analysis of detailed long-term trends, or changes over time, for the civilian, noninstitutionalized population. ACS data, which are available for more recent years, cover individuals living in households and noninstitutionalized group quarters (such as college or military housing), and can provide detail on smaller demographic groups.

Data from the CPS show that in 2016, approximately 2.3 million 16- to 24-year-olds were not enrolled in high school and had not earned a high school diploma or an equivalency credential. These status dropouts accounted for 6.1 percent of the 38.4 million noninstitutionalized, civilian 16- to 24-year-olds living in the United States. The White status dropout rate (5.2 percent) was lower than the Hispanic rate (8.6 percent), but not measurably different from the Black rate (6.2 percent). Additionally, the Black status dropout rate was lower than the Hispanic rate.

Figure 17.1. Status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds, by race/ethnicity: 2000 through 2016

NOTE: The status dropout rate is the percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds who are not enrolled in school and have not earned a high school credential (either a diploma or an equivalency credential such as a GED certificate). Data for total include other racial/ethnic categories not separately shown. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutionalized population.


The status dropout rate for all 16- to 24-year-olds decreased from 10.9 percent in 2000 to 6.1 percent in 2016. In each year from 2000 to 2015, the status dropout rate was lower for White than for Black 16- to 24-year-olds, but in 2016 there was no measurable difference between the White and Black status dropout rates. In all years from 2000 to 2016, the status dropout rates for both White and Black 16- to 24-year-olds were lower than the rates for their Hispanic peers. During this period, the rate for White individuals declined from 6.9 to
High School Status Dropout Rates

Based on data from the ACS, the status dropout rate in 2016 was lower for individuals who were Asian (2.0 percent) than for those who were White (4.5 percent) and of Two or more races (4.8 percent), and the rates for all three groups were lower than the rates for Pacific Islander (6.9 percent), Black (7.0 percent), Hispanic (9.1 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (11.0 percent) individuals. Additionally, the rates for individuals who were Black or Pacific Islander were lower than the rates for those who were Hispanic and American Indian/Alaska Native.

In 2016, the male status dropout rate (6.8 percent) was higher than the female rate (4.7 percent). This pattern of higher male status dropout rates was also evident for individuals who were American Indian/Alaska Native, Black, Hispanic, of Two or more races, and White. For example, the gap between male and female dropout rates was 4.7 percentage points for American Indian/Alaska Native 16- to 24-year-olds and 1.4 percentage points for White 16- to 24-year-olds.
Status dropout rates also varied between U.S.- and foreign-born 16- to 24-year-olds living in the United States. In 2016, Pacific Islander, Hispanic, and Asian 16- to 24-year-olds born in the United States\(^1\) had lower status dropout rates than did their counterparts born outside of the United States. The gap between status dropouts born in the United States and born outside the United States was 9.8 percentage points for Pacific Islander (3.9 vs. 13.7 percent), 9.6 percentage points for Hispanic 16- to 24-year-olds (6.5 vs. 16.1 percent), and 2.0 percentage points for Asian 16- to 24-year-olds (1.0 vs. 3.0 percent). There were no measurable differences by nativity in the status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds who were White, Black, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races.

Endnotes:
\(^1\) Includes those living in the 50 states and the District of Columbia.
\(^2\) High school credentials include either a diploma or an equivalency credential such as a GED certificate.

\(^3\) Unlike those living in the United States, which only includes the 50 states and the District of Columbia, those born in the United States include individuals born in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and the Northern Marianas.


Related indicators and resources: Status Dropout Rates (The Condition of Education)

Data source: Current Population Survey (CPS) and American Community Survey (ACS)

Glossary: Dropout; Group quarters; Status dropout rate (American Community Survey); Status dropout rate (Current Population Survey)
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Indicator 17: SNAPSHOT

High School Status Dropout Rates for Racial/Ethnic Subgroups

In 2016, among Hispanic 16- to 24-year-olds in the United States, the high school status dropout rate ranged from 2.4 percent for individuals of Peruvian descent to 22.9 percent for those of Guatemalan descent. Among Asian 16- to 24-year-olds, status dropout rates ranged from 0.7 percent for individuals of Korean descent to 29.7 percent for those of Burmese descent.

While the indicator *High School Status Dropout Rates* presents overall high school status dropout rates for Hispanic and Asian 16- to 24-year-olds, the rates vary within both of these groups. The Census Bureau’s American Community Survey can be used to estimate the status dropout rates for many specific Asian and Hispanic subgroups, including, for example, Mexican, Puerto Rican, Chinese, and Vietnamese.

**Figure 17S.1.** Status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds, by selected Hispanic subgroups: 2016

The status dropout rate is the percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds who are not enrolled in school and have not earned a high school credential. In 2016, the high school status dropout rate for all Hispanic 16- to 24-year-olds was 9.1 percent. Status dropout rates for individuals of Guatemalan (22.9 percent), Honduran (16.7 percent),...
and Salvadoran (13.3 percent) descent were higher than the total rate for all Hispanic individuals. In contrast, six subgroups had status dropout rates that were lower than the total Hispanic rate: Spaniard (6.5 percent), Ecuadorian (6.1 percent), Cuban (5.4 percent), Venezuelan (3.3 percent), Colombian (2.9 percent), and Peruvian (2.4 percent). The status dropout rates for the remaining Hispanic subgroups, including individuals of Mexican (9.0 percent) and Puerto Rican (9.1 percent) descent, were not measurably different from the total Hispanic rate. When looking at the dropout rate by region, the overall rate for individuals of Central American (15.4 percent) descent was higher than the total Hispanic rate, while the overall status dropout rate for individuals of South American (3.6 percent) descent was lower than the total Hispanic rate.

Figure 17S.2. Status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds, by selected Asian subgroups: 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>0.7!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Indian</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladeshi</td>
<td>4.3!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bhutanese</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepalese</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>1.3!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burmese</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodian</td>
<td>3.4!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hmong</td>
<td>3.6!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lao</td>
<td>2.0!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.
† Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.
‡ Consists of Indonesian and Malaysian.
§ Includes Taiwanese.
* In addition to the subgroups shown, also includes Sri Lankan.
† Consists of Indonesian and Malaysian.

NOTE: The status dropout rate is the percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds who are not enrolled in school and have not earned a high school credential (either a diploma or an equivalency credential such as a GED certificate). Data are based on sample surveys of persons living in households and noninstitutionalized group quarters. Noninstitutionalized group quarters include college and university housing, military quarters, facilities for workers and religious groups, and temporary shelters for the homeless. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.


Among all Asian 16- to 24-year-olds, the high school status dropout rate was 2.0 percent in 2016. The status dropout rate for individuals of Burmese (29.7 percent) descent was higher than the total Asian rate, while the rates for individuals of Korean (0.7 percent) and Chinese (0.8 percent) descent were lower than the total Asian rate. Status dropout rates for the remaining Asian subgroups were not measurably different from the total rate for all Asian 16- to 24-year-olds. When looking at the dropout rate by region, the overall rate for individuals of Southeast Asian (4.0 percent) descent was higher than the total Asian rate.
Endnotes:
1 High school credentials include either a diploma or an equivalency credential such as a GED certificate.

| Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 219.80 |
| Related indicators and resources: Status Dropout Rates (The Condition of Education) |
| Data sources: American Community Survey (ACS) |
| Glossary: Dropout; GED certificate; Group quarters; High school diploma; High school equivalency certificate; Status dropout rate (American Community Survey) |
High School Status Completion Rates

From 2000 to 2016, the high school status completion rate for Hispanic 18- to 24-year-olds increased from 64 to 89 percent, while the Black and White status completion rates increased from 84 to 92 percent and from 92 to 94 percent, respectively. Although the White-Hispanic and White-Black gaps in status completion rates narrowed between 2000 and 2016, the rates for Hispanic and Black 18- to 24-year-olds remained lower than the White rate in 2016.

The status completion rate measures the percentage of 18- to 24-year-old young adults living in the United States1 who hold a high school diploma or an alternative credential.2 Young adults who are still enrolled in high school or a lower level of education are excluded from the calculation of this measure. Unlike high school graduation rates, which measure the percentage of students who graduate during a specific school year, status completion rates include all individuals in a specified age range who hold a high school diploma or alternative credential, regardless of when it was attained. The high school completion rates presented in this indicator use data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), allowing for the analysis of detailed long-term trends in the civilian noninstitutionalized population.

Of the 28.0 million 18- to 24-year-old young adults who were not enrolled in high school in October 2016, approximately 26.1 million (93 percent) had earned a high school diploma or alternative credential. In 2016, the Asian status completion rate (97 percent) was higher than the White rate (94 percent), and the rates for both groups were higher than the rates for Black (92 percent), Hispanic (89 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (75 percent) young adults. In addition, the Black status completion rate was higher than the Hispanic and American Indian/Alaska Native rates. The rate for young adults of Two or more races (96 percent) was higher than the rates for Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native young adults, but not measurably different from the rates for the other racial/ethnic groups. The Pacific Islander status completion rate (84 percent) was not measurably different from the rate for any group included in this analysis.
The overall status completion rate of 18- to 24-year-old young adults increased from 86 percent in 2000 to 93 percent in 2016. During this time, the Hispanic status completion rate increased from 64 percent to 89 percent, the Black status completion rate increased from 84 percent to 92 percent, and the White status completion rate increased from 92 to 94 percent. As a result of these increases, the White-Hispanic gap in status completion rates narrowed from 28 percentage points in 2000 to 5 percentage points in 2016. The White-Black gap also narrowed during this period, from 8 percentage points in 2000 to 2 percentage points in 2016.
In 2016, the status completion rates of 18- to 24-year-olds also varied by recency of immigration. The status completion rate for foreign-born Hispanic young adults was 80 percent, which was lower than the rates for their Hispanic peers who were first generation and second generation or higher (92 percent for both). Among non-Hispanics, the status completion rate for first-generation young adults (97 percent) was higher than the rate for their second-generation or higher (94 percent) peers. However, the rate for foreign-born non-Hispanic young adults (94 percent) was not measurably different from the rates for first-generation and second-generation or higher non-Hispanic young adults. Among both foreign-born and first-generation young adults, status completion rates were lower for Hispanics than for non-Hispanics. Among young adults who were second generation or higher, there was no measurable difference between the status completion rates for Hispanics and non-Hispanics.

**Endnotes:**

1. Includes those living in the 50 states and the District of Columbia.
2. The alternative credentials counted in the status completion rate include, for example, GED certificates and credentials earned by individuals who completed their education outside of the United States.
3. The recency of immigration categories used in this analysis are as follows: (i) foreign-born individuals; (ii) first-generation individuals (those who were born in the United States but have at least one foreign-born parent); and (iii) individuals who are second generation or higher (those who were born in the United States and whose parents were both born in the United States). Those born in the United States include individuals born in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and the Northern Marianas.

**Reference tables:** Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 219.65 and 219.67

**Data sources:** Current Population Survey (CPS)

**Glossary:** GED certificate; High school completer; High school diploma; High school equivalency certificate
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This chapter focuses on indicators of participation in postsecondary education, such as enrollment, financial aid received, graduation rates, and degrees awarded.

This chapter’s indicators are available at the Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups website: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/.
Chapter 5. Postsecondary Education

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Indicator 19

College Participation Rates

From 2000 to 2016, total college enrollment rates increased for White (from 39 to 42 percent), Black (from 31 to 36 percent), and Hispanic young adults (from 22 to 39 percent). The 2016 total college enrollment rate for American Indian/Alaska Native young adults (19 percent) was not measurably different from their 2000 rate. Also, the 2016 rates for Asian young adults (58 percent), young adults of Two or more races (42 percent), and Pacific Islander young adults (21 percent) were not measurably different from the corresponding rates in 2003, when the collection of separate data on Asian and Pacific Islander young adults began.

The percentage of 18- to 24-year-olds enrolled in college has increased since 2000. College participation can be measured and described in terms of the total college enrollment rate, as well as the immediate college enrollment rate. The total college enrollment rate is defined as the percentage of all 18- to 24-year-olds (referred to as “young adults” in this indicator) enrolled as undergraduate or graduate students in 2- or 4-year colleges and universities. The immediate college enrollment rate is discussed later in this indicator.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pacific Islander</td>
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<td>—</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two or more races</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Not available.

I Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.

NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutionalized population. Totals include other racial/ethnic groups not separately shown. Separate data for Asians, Pacific Islanders, and persons of Two or more races were not available in 2000. After 2002, data for individual race categories exclude persons of Two or more races. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

The total college enrollment rate for young adults overall increased from 35 percent in 2000 to 41 percent in 2016, though the 2016 rate was not measurably different from the 2010 rate. From 2000 to 2016, total college enrollment rates increased for White (from 39 to 42 percent), Black (from 31 to 36 percent), and Hispanic young adults (from 22 to 39 percent). The 2016 total college enrollment rate for American Indian/Alaska Native young adults (19 percent) was not measurably different from their 2000 rate. Also, the 2016 rates for Asian young adults (58 percent), young adults of Two or more races (42 percent), and Pacific Islander young adults (21 percent) were not measurably different from the corresponding rates in 2003.1 More recently, total college enrollment rates were higher for Hispanic young adults in 2016 than in 2010 (39 vs. 32 percent) and lower for American Indian/Alaska Native young adults (19 vs. 41 percent), but not measurably different for young adults in the other racial/ethnic groups.

In 2016, the total college enrollment rate was higher for Asian young adults (58 percent) than for young adults who were of Two or more races (42 percent), White (42 percent), Hispanic (39 percent), Black (36 percent), Pacific Islander (21 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (19 percent). Enrollment rates in 2016 were also higher for White and Hispanic young adults and those of Two or more races than for Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native young adults. Additionally, the rate for Black young adults was higher than the rate for American Indian/Alaska Native young adults.
From 2003 to 2016, the Asian-Hispanic gap in total college enrollment rates narrowed, from 38 to 18 percentage points. The Asian-Black gap in total college enrollment rates was smaller in 2016 (21 percentage points) than in 2003 (29 percentage points). From 2000 to 2016, the White-Hispanic gap in total college enrollment rates also narrowed: while the rate for White young adults was 17 percentage points higher than the rate for Hispanic young adults in 2000, there was no measurable difference between the two rates in 2016. The White-Black gap in total college enrollment rate in 2016 (6 percentage points) was not measurably different than the corresponding gap in 2000.
Between 2000 and 2016, college enrollment rates increased overall for both young adult males (from 33 to 39 percent) and young adult females (from 38 to 44 percent). Among young adult males, enrollment rates were higher in 2016 than in 2000 for those who were White (40 vs. 36 percent), Black (33 vs. 25 percent), and Hispanic (35 vs. 18 percent). Among young adult females, rates were also higher for those who were White (44 vs. 41 percent) and Hispanic (44 vs. 25 percent). However, the rate for Black young adult females in 2016 (39 percent) was not measurably different from the rate in 2000.

This pattern was also observed for White and Hispanic young adults among the racial/ethnic groups examined. For example, in 2016 the male-female gap in total college enrollment rate was 5 percentage points for young adults overall, 5 percentage points for White young adults, and 9 percentage points for Hispanic young adults. Among Black young adults, in 2000 the enrollment rate for females (35 percent) was 10 percentage points higher than the rate for males (25 percent); however, there was no measurable difference between the two rates in 2016.

In every year since 2000, college enrollment rates among young adults were higher for females than for males.
The immediate college enrollment rate is defined as the annual percentage of high school completers (referred to as “students” in this indicator), including GED recipients, who enroll in 2- or 4-year colleges and universities in the fall immediately following high school completion. Similar to the pattern observed for the overall total college enrollment rate, the overall immediate college enrollment rate increased from 63 percent in 2000 to 70 percent in 2016, though the 2016 rate was not measurably different from the 2010 rate. The immediate college enrollment rate for White students was higher in 2016 (71 percent) than in 2000 (65 percent), and the rate for Asian students was higher in 2016 (87 percent) than in 2003 (74 percent). For both White and Asian students, the immediate college enrollment rate increased until 2010, then fluctuated from 2010 to 2016. For Hispanic students, the immediate enrollment rate increased from 49 percent in 2000 to 71 percent in 2016. For Black students, the immediate college enrollment rate increased from 56 percent in 2000 to 66 percent in 2010, then decreased back to 56 percent in 2016.

In 2016, the immediate college enrollment rate for Asian students (87 percent) was higher than the rates for Hispanic (71 percent), White (71 percent), and Black (56 percent) students. Additionally, the rates for White and Hispanic students were higher than the rate for Black students.

From 2003 to 2016, the Asian-White gap in immediate college enrollment rates widened, from 6 to 17 percentage points. The Asian-Black gap in immediate college enrollment rates was larger in 2016 (31 percentage points) than in 2003 (14 percentage points). The Asian-Hispanic gap in immediate college enrollment rate in 2016 (17 percentage points) was not measurably different than the corresponding gap in 2003. From 2000 to 2016, the White-Hispanic gap in immediate college enrollment rates narrowed: while the rate for White students was 17 percentage points higher than the rate for Hispanic students in 2000, there was no measurable difference between the two rates in 2016. The White-Black gap in immediate college enrollment rate in 2016 (14 percentage points) was not measurably different than the corresponding gap in 2000.
Endnotes:

1 Prior to 2003, data were collected for the combined race category of Asian/Pacific Islander young adults, and separate data for young adults of Two or more races were not collected.

2 Percentages for racial/ethnic groups are based on moving averages, which are used to produce more stable estimates. A 3-year moving average is a weighted average of the year indicated, the year immediately preceding, and the year immediately following. Three-year moving averages are presented in all but two instances: the moving average for Asian data in 2003 reflects an average of 2003 and 2004 data, and the moving average for 2016 reflects an average of 2015 and 2016 data.

3 Prior to 2003, data were collected for the combined race category of Asian/Pacific Islander students.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 101.20
Related indicators and resources: College Enrollment Rates (The Condition of Education); Immediate College Enrollment Rate (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: Census Bureau
Glossary: N/A
**Indicator 19: SNAPSHOT**

**College Participation Rates for Racial/Ethnic Subgroups**

Among Hispanic subgroups, the average college enrollment rate in 2016 ranged from 27 percent for Honduran 18- to 24-year-olds to 64 percent for Chilean 18- to 24-year-olds. Among Asian subgroups, the average college enrollment rate ranged from 23 percent for Burmese 18- to 24-year-olds to 81 percent for Other Southeast Asian (including Indonesian and Malaysian) 18- to 24-year-olds.

While the indicator College Participation Rates uses data from the Current Population Survey (CPS) to present overall average college enrollment rates for Hispanic and Asian young adults, there is much diversity within both racial/ethnic groups. This snapshot uses data from the American Community Survey (ACS) to estimate average college enrollment rates for Hispanic and Asian subgroups, including, for example, Mexican, Puerto Rican, Chinese, and Asian Indian. The indicator also examines average college enrollment rates by sex for Hispanic and Asian subgroups. The average college enrollment rate is defined as the percentage of 18- to 24-year-olds enrolled in degree-granting postsecondary institutions.

**Figure 19S.1.** Average college enrollment rates of 18- to 24-year-olds in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by selected Hispanic subgroups: 2016

![Bar chart showing college enrollment rates for Hispanic subgroups](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subgroup</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuban</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexican</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spaniard</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total¹</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rican</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemalan</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduran</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaraguan</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panamanian</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salvadoran</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chilean</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombian</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuadorian</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peruvian</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuelan</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Hispanic</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Includes other Central American subgroups not shown separately.

NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the entire population in the given age range residing within the United States, including both noninstitutionalized persons (e.g., those living in households, college housing, or military housing located within the United States) and institutionalized persons (e.g., those living in prisons, nursing facilities, or other healthcare facilities). Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

In 2016, the average college enrollment rate for Hispanic 18- to 24-year-olds was 36 percent. Average college enrollment rates for the Honduran (27 percent), Guatemalan (29 percent), Puerto Rican (34 percent), and Mexican (35 percent) subgroups were lower than the rate for Hispanic young adults overall. The average college enrollment rates for the Salvadoran, Dominican, and Nicaraguan subgroups were not measurably different from the overall Hispanic rate. The average college enrollment rates for the remaining Hispanic subgroups were higher than the overall rate for Hispanic young adults and ranged from 42 percent for Other Hispanic young adults—who could not be classified into one of the predetermined subgroup categories—to 64 percent for Chilean young adults.

In 2016, the average college enrollment rate for female Hispanic young adults (41 percent) was higher than the enrollment rate for male Hispanic young adults (32 percent). This same pattern was observed for the Chilean, Spaniard, Colombian, Dominican, Puerto Rican, Honduran, Cuban, Mexican, Guatemalan, and Other Hispanic subgroups. The female-male enrollment gap ranged from 7 percentage points for Other Hispanic young adults to 33 percentage points for Chilean young adults. The average college enrollment rates for males and females were not measurably different for the Costa Rican, Ecuadorian, Nicaraguan, Other South American, Panamanian, Peruvian, Salvadoran, and Venezuelan subgroups.
The average college enrollment rate for Asian 18- to 24-year-olds was 67 percent in 2016. The rates for the following Asian subgroups were lower than the overall Asian rate: Burmese (23 percent), Hmong (39 percent), Laotian (43 percent), Thai (45 percent), Cambodian (47 percent), Bangladeshi (56 percent), and Filipino (56 percent). Conversely, the average college enrollment rates for Chinese (78 percent) and Other Southeast Asian1 young adults (81 percent) were higher than the overall Asian rate. The enrollment rates for other Asian subgroups were not measurably different from the overall Asian rate.

In 2016, the average college enrollment rate for female Asian young adults (68 percent) was higher than the enrollment rate for male Asian young adults (66 percent). This same pattern was observed for the Laotian, Other Asian, and Filipino subgroups. The female-male enrollment gap was 6 percentage points for Filipino young adults, 11 percentage points for Other Asian young adults, and 24 percentage points for Laotian young adults. Conversely, the average college enrollment rate for female Nepalese young adults (48 percent) was lower than the enrollment rate for male Nepalese young adults (67 percent). The average college enrollment rates for males and females were not measurably different for the remaining twelve Asian subgroups.

### Endnotes:
1 Other Southeast Asian consists of Indonesian and Malaysian and excludes Burmese, Cambodian, Hmong, Laotian, Thai, and Vietnamese, which are shown separately.

### Reference tables:
*Digest of Education Statistics 2017*, table 302.62

### Related indicators and resources:
- College Enrollment Rates
  - College Participation Rates
  - Undergraduate Enrollment

### Data sources:
- American Community Survey (ACS)

### Glossary:
- College; Enrollment; High school completer; Postsecondary education; Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level)
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**Indicator 20**

**Undergraduate Enrollment**

Between 2000 and 2016, Hispanic undergraduate enrollment more than doubled (a 134 percent increase from 1.4 million to 3.2 million students). The enrollment for most other racial/ethnic groups increased during the first part of this period, then began to decrease around 2010.

This indicator examines the racial/ethnic differences in undergraduate fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by sex and institution type for U.S. citizens and permanent residents. Of the 16.3 million undergraduate students in fall 2016, about 9.1 million were White, 3.2 million were Hispanic, 2.2 million were Black, 1.1 million were Asian, 596,000 were of Two or more races, 129,000 were American Indian/Alaska Native, and 47,000 were Pacific Islander.

**Figure 20.1.** Undergraduate student enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity: Fall 2000 through 2016

Between 2000 and 2016, Hispanic undergraduate enrollment more than doubled (a 134 percent increase, from 1.4 million to 3.2 million students). In contrast, undergraduate enrollment for other racial/ethnic groups with available data for 2000 to 2016 increased between 2000 and 2010 and then began to decrease around 2010. For instance, Black enrollment increased by 73 percent between 2000 and 2010 (from 1.5 million to 2.7 million students) but then decreased by 17 percent to 2.2 million students in 2016. Similarly, American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment increased by 29 percent between 2000 and 2010 (from 139,000 to 179,000 students) before decreasing by 28 percent to 129,000 students in 2016. Additionally, White enrollment increased by 21 percent between 2000 and 2010 (from 9.0 million to 10.9 million students), then decreased by 17 percent to 9.1 million students in 2016.

Similarly, between 2010 and 2016, the enrollment of Pacific Islander students decreased by 18 percent (from 58,000 to 47,000). In contrast, during this period, the enrollment of students of Two or more races more than doubled (an increase of 103 percent, from 294,000 to 596,000) and the enrollment of Asian students was 2 percent higher in 2016 (1.1 million) than in 2010 (1.0 million).
As a result of the different growth rates of undergraduate enrollment between 2000 and 2016, the distribution of enrollment by racial/ethnic group changed. During this time, Hispanic enrollment as a percentage of total enrollment increased from 10 to 19 percent and Black enrollment increased from 12 to 14 percent of total enrollment. White enrollment as a percentage of total enrollment decreased between 2000 and 2016 (from 70 to 56 percent). During this time, American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment as a percentage of total enrollment decreased by less than 1 percentage point and remained around 1 percent.

Between 2010 and 2016, the enrollment of Asian students and Pacific Islander students as a percentage of total enrollment remained around 6 percent and less than one-half of 1 percent, respectively. The enrollment of students of Two or more races as a percentage of total enrollment increased during this between 2010 and 2016 (from 2 percent to 4 percent).
In 2016, a greater percentage of undergraduates were female than male across all racial/ethnic groups. The gap between female and male enrollment was widest for Black students (62 vs. 38 percent) and narrowest for Asian students (53 vs. 47 percent).
### Figure 20.4. Percentage distribution of undergraduate student enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity of student and control of institution: Fall 2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/ethnicity</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>Two or more races</td>
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<td>5</td>
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**NOTE:** Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded data. Details may not sum to totals because of rounding.


In 2016, some 78 percent of undergraduate students attended public institutions, 16 percent attended private nonprofit institutions, and 6 percent attended private for-profit institutions. The percentages of students attending public institutions were above the average (78 percent) for students who were Hispanic (85 percent), Asian (82 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (81 percent), and of Two or more races (79 percent); the percentages for all other racial/ethnic groups attending public institutions were below the average. The percentages students attending private nonprofit institutions were above the average (16 percent) for students who were White (19 percent), Pacific Islander (17 percent), and of Two or more races (16 percent); the percentages were lower than the average for students from all other racial/ethnic groups. The percentages of students attending private for-profit institutions were higher than the average (6 percent) for students who were Pacific Islander (14 percent), Black (12 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (7 percent); the percentages were lower than the average for students from all other racial/ethnic groups.

**Endnotes:**

1 Separate data on undergraduate enrollment for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races became available in 2010.

2 Although rounded numbers are discussed, comparisons are based on unrounded data.


**Related indicators and resources:** Postbaccalaureate Enrollment; Undergraduate Enrollment (The Condition of Education)

**Data sources:** Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS)

**Glossary:** Degree-granting institutions; For-profit institution; Nonprofit institution; Private institution; Public school or institution; Undergraduate students
**Indicator 21**

**Postbaccalaureate Enrollment**

*Between 2000 and 2016, Hispanic postbaccalaureate enrollment more than doubled (a 134 percent increase, from 111,000 to 260,000 students) and Black postbaccalaureate enrollment doubled (a 100 percent increase, from 181,000 to 363,000).*

This indicator examines the racial/ethnic differences in postbaccalaureate fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by sex and institution type for U.S. citizens and permanent residents. Postbaccalaureate degree programs include master’s and doctoral programs, as well as programs such as law, medicine, and dentistry. Of the 2.5 million postbaccalaureate students enrolled in fall 2016, some 1.6 million were White, 363,000 were Black, 260,000 were Hispanic, 200,000 were Asian, 71,000 were of Two or more races, 14,000 were American Indian/Alaska Native, and 6,100 were Pacific Islander.

Figure 21.1. Postbaccalaureate student enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity: 2000 through 2016

Between 2000 and 2016, Hispanic postbaccalaureate enrollment more than doubled (a 134 percent increase, from 111,000 to 260,000 students) and Black postbaccalaureate enrollment doubled (a 100 percent increase, from 181,000 to 363,000 students). In contrast, postbaccalaureate enrollment for other racial/ethnic groups with available data for 2000 to 2016 generally increased from 2000 to 2010 and then began to decrease around 2010. For instance, between 2000 and 2010, American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment increased by 36 percent (from 13,000 to 17,000 students) but then decreased by 20 percent to 14,000 students in 2016. Similarly, White enrollment increased by 23 percent between 2000 and 2010 (from 1.5 million to 1.8 million students) before decreasing by 11 percent to 1.6 million students in 2016.

Between 2010 and 2016, the enrollment of students of Two or more races more than doubled (an increase of 123 percent, from 32,000 to 71,000 students) and Asian enrollment increased by 7 percent (from 188,000 to 200,000 students). The enrollment of Pacific Islander students was 6 percent lower in 2016 (6,100) than in 2010 (6,500).

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NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Prior to 2010, separate data on Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races were not available. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

Figure 21.2. Percentage of total postbaccalaureate student enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity: 2000, 2010, and 2016

Due to the different growth rates of postbaccalaureate enrollment between 2000 and 2016, the distribution of enrollment by racial/ethnic group changed. During this time, Black enrollment as a percentage of total enrollment increased from 9 to 14 percent and Hispanic enrollment increased from 6 to 10 percent. Conversely, White enrollment as a percentage of total enrollment decreased from 77 to 64 percent and American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment decreased by less than 1 percentage point between 2000 and 2016.

Between 2010 and 2016, the enrollment of Asian students as a percentage of total enrollment increased from 7 to 8 percent and the enrollment of students of Two or more races increased from 1 to 3 percent. During the same period, the enrollment of Pacific Islander students as a percentage of total enrollment remained at less than one-half of 1 percent.
In 2016, a greater percentage of postbaccalaureate students were female than male across all racial/ethnic groups. The gap between female and male enrollment was widest for Black students (70 vs. 30 percent) and narrowest for Asian students (56 vs. 44 percent).
Figure 21.4. Percentage distribution of postbaccalaureate student enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by race/ethnicity of student and control of institution: 2016

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NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded data. Details may not sum to totals because of rounding.


In 2016, about 47 percent of postbaccalaureate students attended public institutions, 43 percent attended private nonprofit institutions, and 10 percent attended private for-profit institutions. The percentages of students attending public institutions were above the average (47 percent) for White students (50 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native students (50 percent), students of Two or more races (49 percent), and Hispanic students (49 percent); the percentages for all other racial/ethnic groups attending public institutions were below the average. The percentages of students attending private nonprofit institutions were above the average (43 percent) for Asian (49 percent), Pacific Islander (45 percent), and White (43 percent) students; the percentages attending private nonprofit institutions were below the average for students from all other racial/ethnic groups. The percentages of students attending private for-profit institutions were above the average (10 percent) for Pacific Islander (26 percent), Black (24 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (15 percent), and Hispanic (10 percent) students; the percentages attending private for-profit institutions were below the average for students from all other racial/ethnic groups.

Endnotes:
1 Prior to 2010, separate data on postsecondary enrollment for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races was not available.
2 Although rounded numbers are discussed, comparisons are based on unrounded data.


Related indicators and resources: Postbaccalaureate Enrollment; The Condition of Education; Undergraduate Enrollment

Data sources: Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS)

Glossary: Degree-granting institutions; For-profit institution; Nonprofit institution; Postbaccalaureate enrollment; Private institution; Public school or institution; Undergraduate students
**Indicator 22**

**Financial Aid**

Among full-time, full-year undergraduate students, 88 percent of Black students, 87 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native students, and 82 percent of Hispanic students received grants in 2015–16. These percentages were higher than the percentages for White (74 percent) and Asian (66 percent) students.

The cost of a postsecondary education is a potential burden for students in their completion of an undergraduate degree. Financial aid can help ease this burden. Grants and loans are the major forms of federal financial aid for degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students. Students who receive federal aid may receive grants, loans, or both. The largest federal grant program available to undergraduate students is the Federal Pell Grant program. To qualify for a Pell Grant, a student must demonstrate financial need. Federal loans, on the other hand, are available to all students regardless of financial need. In addition to federal financial aid, there are also grants from state and local governments, institutions, and private sources, as well as private loans.

**Figure 22.1. Percentage of full-time, full-year undergraduates who received financial aid from any source, by type of aid and race/ethnicity: 2015–16**

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¹ Includes Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS).

NOTE: Full-time, full-year undergraduates are those who were enrolled full time for 9 or more months at one or more institutions. Data include undergraduates in degree-granting and non-degree-granting institutions. Data exclude Puerto Rico. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.


In the 2015–16 school year, the percentage of full-time, full-year undergraduate students who received grants from any source varied by race/ethnicity. Higher percentages of Black (88 percent) and American Indian/Alaska Native (87 percent) students received grants than students who were of Two or more races (79 percent), White (74 percent), and Asian (66 percent). In addition, a higher percentage of Hispanic students (82 percent) than White and Asian students and a higher percentage of Pacific Islander students (84 percent) than Asian students received grants. Similar patterns emerged for the percentage of full-time undergraduate students who received Federal Pell Grants. The percentage of students who received Pell Grants was highest for Black students (72 percent) and lowest for Asian (36 percent) and White (34 percent) students.

In 2015–16, the percentage of full-time, full-year undergraduate students who received loans from any source also varied by racial/ethnic group. A higher percentage of Black students (71 percent) received loans than students who were White (56 percent), of Two or
more races (54 percent), Pacific Islander (53 percent), Hispanic (50 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (38 percent), and Asian (31 percent). The percentage of Asian students who received loans was lower than the percentages of most other racial/ethnic groups. The exception was that there was no measurable difference between the percentages of Asian students and American Indian/Alaska Native students who received loans.

Figure 22.2. Average annual amount of financial aid received by full-time, full-year undergraduates from any source, by type of aid and race/ethnicity: 2015–16

Among full-time, full-year undergraduate students who received grants from any source in 2015–16, the only measurable differences between racial/ethnic groups in the average annual amount of grant aid received were between Asian students and students of all other groups. Asian students received a higher average annual amount of grant aid ($13,840) than did students who were of Two or more races ($11,940), White ($11,420), Black ($11,390), Hispanic ($11,090), American Indian/Alaska Native ($10,750), and Pacific Islander ($10,280).

With respect to Federal Pell Grants, Asian students received a higher average annual amount of aid ($5,030) than did Hispanic ($4,860) and White ($4,610) students. Students who were Black ($4,900), Hispanic, and of Two or more races ($4,830) also received higher average annual amounts of Pell Grant aid than did White students.

Among full-time, full-year undergraduate students who received loans from any source in 2015–16, White students received a higher average annual amount of loan aid ($11,830) than did Black ($10,890), Asian ($10,700), and Hispanic ($10,270) students. In addition, Black students received a higher average annual amount of loan aid than did Hispanic students. American Indian/Alaska Native students received a lower average annual amount of loan aid ($9,000) than did any other racial/ethnic group, including Pacific Islander students ($12,280).
Among part-time or part-year undergraduate students in 2015–16, a higher percentage of Black students (65 percent) received grants from any source than did students who were of Two or more races (60 percent), Hispanic (58 percent), Pacific Islander (52 percent), White (51 percent), and Asian (49 percent). Additionally, higher percentages of American Indian/Alaska Native students (63 percent), students of Two or more races, and Hispanic students than of White and Asian students received grants in 2015–16. Similar to the patterns for grants overall, the percentages of part-time undergraduate students who received Federal Pell Grants were higher for American Indian/Alaska Native students (46 percent), students of Two or more races (38 percent), and Hispanic students (38 percent) than for White (30 percent), Pacific Islander (27 percent), and Asian (27 percent) students.

In 2015–16, the percentage of part-time or part-year undergraduate students who received loans from any source was higher for Black students (42 percent) than for students who were of Two or more races (35 percent), White (29 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (28 percent), Pacific Islander (24 percent), Hispanic (22 percent), and Asian (17 percent). In contrast, the percentage of students who received loans was lower for Asian students than for students of most other racial/ethnic groups. The exception was that there was no measurable difference between the percentages of Asian students and Pacific Islander students who received loans.
Among part-time or part-year undergraduate students who received grants from any source in 2015–16, Asian students received a higher average annual amount of grant aid ($5,420) than did students of any other racial/ethnic group: $4,710 for students of Two or more races, $4,390 for Black students, $4,220 for White students, $4,120 for Pacific Islander students, $4,030 for Hispanic students, and $3,750 for American Indian/Alaska Native students. Asian students also received a higher average annual amount of Federal Pell Grant aid ($3,410) than did students who were Hispanic ($3,170), Black ($3,110), of Two or more races ($3,090), White ($2,920), and American Indian/Alaska Native ($2,840).

Similar to the patterns for grants, Asian part-time or part-year undergraduate students received a higher average annual amount of loan aid ($8,540) from any source in 2015–16 than students who were Black ($7,230), White ($7,110), of Two or more races ($7,050), Hispanic ($6,940), and American Indian/Alaska Native ($6,110).

Endnotes:
1 Dollar amounts are expressed in constant 2016–17 dollars.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 331.35 and 331.37
Related indicators and resources: Sources of Financial Aid (The Condition of Education); Undergraduate Enrollment
Data sources: National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS)
Glossary: Financial aid; Full-time enrollment; Part-time enrollment
Indicator 23

Postsecondary Graduation Rates

The 6-year graduation rate for first-time, full-time undergraduate students who began their pursuit of a bachelor's degree at a 4-year degree-granting institution in fall 2010 was highest for Asian students (74 percent), followed by White students (64 percent), students of Two or more races (60 percent), Hispanic students (54 percent), Pacific Islander students (51 percent), Black students (40 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native students (39 percent).

The 1990 Student Right to Know Act requires degree-granting postsecondary institutions to report the percentage of students who complete their program within 150 percent of the normal time for completion (e.g., within 6 years for students seeking a bachelor's degree). Students who transfer without completing a degree are counted as noncompleters in the calculation of these rates regardless of whether they complete a degree at another institution. The 6-year graduation rate (150 percent graduation rate) in 2016 was 60 percent for first-time, full-time undergraduate students who began their pursuit of a bachelor’s degree at a 4-year degree-granting institution in fall 2010. In comparison, 41 percent of first-time, full-time undergraduates seeking a bachelor's degree received them within 4 years and 56 percent received them within 5 years.

Figure 23.1. Graduation rates from first institution attended for first-time, full-time bachelor's degree-seeking students at 4-year postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity and time to completion: Cohort entry year 2010

Among students of different racial/ethnic groups who began seeking a bachelor’s degree at a 4-year degree-granting institution in fall 2010, the 6-year graduation rate for first-time, full-time undergraduate students was highest for Asian students (74 percent), followed by White students (64 percent), students of Two or more races (60 percent), Hispanic students (54 percent), Pacific Islander students (51 percent), Black students (40 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native students (39 percent). In comparison, the 4-year graduation rates for first-time, full-time undergraduate students was 50 percent or less for each racial/ethnic group.
The 6-year graduation rate was higher for females than for males overall (63 vs. 57 percent) and within each racial/ethnic group. The gender gap was narrowest among Pacific Islander students (53 percent for females vs. 50 percent for males) and widest among Black students (44 percent for females vs. 34 percent for males).
Among first-time, full-time undergraduate students who began seeking a bachelor’s degree at a 4-year degree-granting institution in fall 2010, the 6-year graduation rate was 66 percent at private nonprofit institutions, 59 percent at public institutions, and 26 percent at private for-profit institutions. Private nonprofit institutions had the highest 6-year graduation rates for each racial/ethnic group: Asian students (79 percent) had the highest graduation rate at private nonprofit institutions and Black students (43 percent) had the lowest. At public institutions, the 6-year graduation rate was highest for Asian students (72 percent) and lowest for American Indian/Alaska Native students (36 percent). The 6-year graduation rate for students at private for-profit institutions was lower than those at public and private nonprofit institutions across all racial/ethnic groups. At private for-profit institutions, the 6-year graduation rate was highest for Asian students (48 percent) and lowest for Black students (18 percent). At each type of 4-year degree-granting institution, less than 50 percent of both Black students and American Indian/Alaska Native students graduated within 6 years.
At 2-year degree-granting institutions, 30 percent of first-time, full-time undergraduate students who began seeking a certificate or associate’s degree in fall 2013 attained it within 150 percent of the normal time required for completion of these programs (e.g., completing a 2-year degree within 3 years). The 150 percent graduation rate was highest for Asian students (36 percent), followed by Pacific Islander students (34 percent), White students (32 percent), Hispanic students (30 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native students (27 percent), students of Two or more races (25 percent), and Black students (23 percent).
The 150 percent graduation rate was twice as high at private nonprofit and private for-profit 2-year institutions (60 percent each) than it was at public 2-year institutions (24 percent). The 150 percent graduation rate in 2016 for first-time, full-time students at public 2-year institutions was highest for Asian students (32 percent) and lowest for Black students (13 percent). At private nonprofit 2-year institutions, the 150 percent graduation rate was highest for Asian students (75 percent) and lowest for Black students (50 percent). At private for-profit 2-year institutions, the 150 percent graduation rate was highest for Asian and Pacific Islander students (69 percent each) and lowest for Black students (48 percent).

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 326.10 and 326.20
Related indicators and resources: Undergraduate Retention and Graduation Rates (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS)
Glossary: Associate’s degree; Bachelor’s degree; Certificate; Degree-granting institution; For-profit institution; Full-time enrollment; Graduate; Nonprofit institution; Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level); Public school or institution; Undergraduate students
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Degrees Awarded

The number of bachelor’s degrees awarded to Hispanic students more than tripled between 2000–01 and 2015–16. During the same period, the number of degrees awarded also increased for students who were Asian/Pacific Islander (by 75 percent), Black (by 75 percent), and White (by 29 percent).

Between academic years 2000–01 and 2015–16, the total number of postsecondary degrees awarded increased at all degree levels: certificates by 70 percent (from 553,000 to 939,000), associate’s degrees by 74 percent (from 579,000 to 1.0 million), bachelor’s degrees by 54 percent (from 1.2 million to 1.9 million), master’s degrees by 66 percent (from 474,000 to 786,000), and doctor’s degrees by 49 percent (from 120,000 to 178,000). Reflecting the overall increase in the number of postsecondary degrees awarded at each level, the number of postsecondary degrees awarded generally increased for racial/ethnic groups at each level between 2000–01 and 2015–16.
The number of postsecondary certificates below the baccalaureate level awarded to Hispanic students more than doubled (a 146 percent increase, from 78,500 to 193,000) between academic years 2000–01 and 2015–16. During this period, the number of certificates awarded also increased by 63 percent for Black students (from 99,400 to 162,400), by 60 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native students (from 6,600 to 10,500), by 56 percent for Asian/Pacific Islander students (from 28,100 to 43,900), and by 49 percent for White students (from 333,500 to 496,500). As a result of the differing rates of increase over this period, the share of all certificates earned by Hispanic students increased by 6 percentage points (from 14 to 21 percent) between 2000–01 and 2015–16. In contrast, the share of certificates earned by White students decreased by 8 percentage points over this period (from 61 to 53 percent). The shares of all certificates earned by Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native students changed by 1 percentage point or less between 2000–01 and 2015–16.

At the associate’s degree level, the number of degrees awarded to Hispanic students more than tripled (a 242 percent increase, from 57,300 to 196,000) and the number of degrees awarded to Black students more than doubled (a 110 percent increase, from 63,900 to 134,000) between academic years 2000–01 and 2015–16. During this period, the number of associate’s degrees awarded also increased by 89 percent for Asian/Pacific Islander students (from 28,500 to 53,800), by 43 percent by American Indian/Alaska Native students (from 6,600 to 9,500), and by 38 percent for White students (from 411,100 to 566,700). As a result of the differing rates of increase over this period, the share of all associate’s degrees earned by Hispanic students increased by 10 percentage points (from 10 to 20 percent) between 2000–01 and 2015–16. In contrast, the share of associate’s degrees earned by White students decreased by 15 percentage points over this period (from 72 to 57 percent). Meanwhile, the shares of all associate’s degrees earned by Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native students changed by 2 percentage points or less between 2000–01 and 2015–16.
At the bachelor’s degree level, the number of degrees awarded to Hispanic students more than tripled between academic years 2000–01 and 2015–16 (a 202 percent increase, from 77,700 to 235,000). During this period, the number of bachelor’s degrees awarded also increased by 75 percent for both Asian/Pacific Islander students (from 78,900 to 138,300) and Black students (from 111,300 to 194,500), and by 29 percent for White students (from 927,400 to 1.2 million). The number of bachelor’s degrees awarded to American Indian/Alaska Native students was higher in 2015–16 (9,700) than in 2000–01 (9,000). As a result of the differing rates of increase over this period, the share of all bachelor’s degrees earned by Hispanic students increased by 6 percentage points (from 6 to 13 percent) between 2000–01 and 2015–16. In contrast, the share of bachelor’s degrees earned by White students decreased by 12 percentage points over this period (from 77 to 65 percent). Meanwhile, the shares of all bachelor’s degrees earned by Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native students changed by 1 percentage point or less between 2000–01 and 2015–16.
Across all racial/ethnic groups, female students earned the majority of certificates, associate’s degrees, and bachelor’s degrees. For example, the shares of bachelor’s degrees earned by female students were 64 percent for Black students, 61 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native students, 60 percent for Hispanic students, 59 percent for students of Two or more races, 56 percent for White students, and 54 percent for Asian/Pacific Islander students.
The distribution of graduate degrees by race/ethnicity between academic years 2000–01 and 2015–16 followed a pattern similar to that observed for undergraduate degrees. At the master’s degree level, the number of degrees awarded to Hispanic students almost tripled (an increase of 191 percent, from 21,700 to 62,900), and the number awarded to Black students more than doubled (an increase of 129 percent, from 38,900 to 88,800). The number of master’s degrees awarded during this period also increased by 87 percent for Asian/Pacific Islander students (from 24,500 to 45,900), by 42 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native students (from 2,500 to 3,500), and by 33 percent for White students (324,200 to 431,900). As a result of the differing rates of increase over this period, there was an increase of 4 percentage points each for the shares of all master’s degrees earned by Hispanic students (from 5 to 10 percent) and Black students (from 9 to 14 percent). In contrast, the share of all master’s degrees earned by White students decreased by 12 percentage points over this period (from 79 to 66 percent). Meanwhile, the shares of all master’s degrees earned by Asian/Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native students changed by 1 percentage point or less between 2000–01 and 2015–16.

At the doctor’s degree level, the number of degrees awarded to Hispanic students more than doubled (an increase of 126 percent, from 5,200 to 11,800) between academic years 2000–01 and 2015–16. During this period, the number of doctor’s degrees awarded also increased by 90 percent for Black students (from 7,000 to 13,400), by 69 percent for Asian/Pacific Islander students (from 11,600 to 19,600), by 30 percent for White students (from 82,300 to 107,100), and by 15 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native students (from 710 to 810). As a result of the changes over this period, the share of all doctor’s degrees earned by Hispanic students increased by 3 percentage points (from 5 to 8 percent), and there was an increase of 2 percentage points for the shares earned by Black students (from 7 to 9 percent) and Asian/Pacific Islander students (from 11 to 13 percent). In contrast, the share of doctor’s degrees earned by White students decreased by 9 percentage points (from 77 to 69 percent) and the share earned by American Indian/Alaska Native students decreased by less than 1 percentage point over this period.
In academic year 2015–16, female students earned the majority of both master's and doctor's degrees. This pattern was observed across all racial/ethnic groups, but was more pronounced for Black students than for students of other races/ethnicities. In 2015–16, female students earned 70 percent of the master's degrees earned by Black students. The shares of master's degrees earned by female students of other racial/ethnic groups ranged from 56 percent for Asian/Pacific Islander students to 65 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native students.

At the doctor's degree level, female students earned 66 percent of degrees earned by Black students; the shares of doctor's degrees earned by females of other racial/ethnic groups ranged from 53 percent for White students to 57 percent for Hispanic students.

Endnotes:
1 For the purposes of this indicator, the term “degree” is used to refer to a postsecondary award at any of the following levels: doctor's, master's, bachelor's, associate's, and certificate. Data reported by racial/ethnic groups includes only U.S. citizens and permanent residents.
2 Although rounded numbers are discussed, all calculations in this indicator are based on unrounded data.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 320.20, 321.20, 322.20, 323.20, and 324.20
Related indicators and resources: Postsecondary Certificates and Degrees Conferred (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS)
Glossary: Associate's degree; Bachelor's degree; Certificate; Degree-granting institutions; Doctor's degree; First-time student (undergraduate); Master's degree; Private institution; Public school or institution
Indicator 25

Undergraduate and Graduate Degree Fields

In 2015–16, a higher percentage of bachelor’s degrees were awarded in business than in any other field across all racial/ethnic groups, with the percentages ranging from 16 percent for students of Two or more races to 22 percent for Pacific Islander students.

There are varying outcomes for postsecondary degree recipients—in terms of educational attainment, labor force participation, and earnings—depending on their field of study. For example, certain degree fields are associated with higher median annual salaries. This indicator examines the five fields in which the greatest number of associate’s, bachelor’s, master’s, and doctor’s degrees were awarded to U.S. citizens and permanent residents in academic year 2015–16, both overall and by racial/ethnic group. Note that the five largest fields differ by level of degree.

Figure 25.1. Percentage of associate’s degrees awarded by postsecondary institutions in selected fields of study, by race/ethnicity: Academic year 2015–16

1 Nonresident alien students are not included in the total.

NOTE: These five fields were selected because they were the fields in which the largest percentages of associate’s degrees were awarded in 2015–16. To facilitate trend comparisons, certain aggregations have been made of the degree fields as reported in the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS): “Business” includes business management, marketing, and related support services and personal and culinary services. Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Reported racial/ethnic distributions of students by level of degree, field of degree, and sex were used to estimate race/ethnicity for students whose race/ethnicity was not reported. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded data. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2016, Completions component. See Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 321.30.
In 2015–16, over three-quarters of the associate’s degrees awarded were in the five largest fields: liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities (38 percent); health professions and related programs (19 percent); business (13 percent); homeland security, law enforcement, and firefighting (4 percent); and computer and information sciences (3 percent). Across racial/ethnic groups, the percentage of degrees awarded in liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities ranged from 33 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native and Asian students to 41 percent for Hispanic students. The percentage of degrees awarded in health professions and related programs ranged from 13 percent for Hispanic students to 22 percent for White students. For business degrees, the percentage awarded ranged from 11 percent for Hispanic students to 17 percent for Asian students. In homeland security, law enforcement, and firefighting (the fourth largest field), the percentage of degrees awarded ranged from 2 percent for Asian students to 5 percent for Black students and Hispanic students. Between 2 and 4 percent of students in each racial/ethnic group were awarded an associate’s degree in computer and information science.
Over half of the bachelor’s degrees awarded in 2015–16 were in the five largest fields: business (19 percent); health professions and related programs (12 percent); social sciences and history (8 percent); psychology (6 percent); and biological and biomedical sciences (6 percent).

Business was the most popular bachelor’s degree for all racial/ethnic groups, ranging from 16 percent of students of Two or more races to 22 percent for Pacific Islander students. Health professions and related programs was the second most popular field for White (13 percent), Black (14 percent), Hispanic (10 percent), Pacific Islander (16 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native students (11 percent), whereas social sciences and history was the second largest field for students of Two or more races (10 percent). Biological and biomedical sciences was the second largest field for Asian students (13 percent). The percentage of degrees awarded in the fourth largest field, psychology, ranged from 5 percent for Asian students to 8 percent for Black and Hispanic students. With the exception of Asian students, the percentage of degrees awarded in the field of biological and biomedical sciences ranged from 5 percent for Black, Hispanic, Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native students to 7 percent for students of Two or more races.
In 2015–16, about 73 percent of the master’s degrees awarded were in the five largest fields: business (24 percent); education (22 percent); health professions and related programs (16 percent); public administration and social services (7 percent); and psychology (4 percent). The percentage of master’s degrees awarded in business ranged from 22 percent for students who were White, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races to 31 percent for Pacific Islander students. The percentage of degrees awarded in education ranged from 10 percent for Asian students to 24 percent for White and American Indian/Alaska Native students. The percentage of degrees awarded in health professions and related programs ranged from 13 percent for Hispanic students to 20 percent for Pacific Islander students. The percentage of degrees awarded in the fourth largest field, public administration and social services, ranged from 4 percent for Asian students to 10 percent for Black and Hispanic students. The percentage of degrees awarded in psychology ranged from 2 to 5 percent across all racial/ethnic groups.
In 2015–16, over 80 percent of the doctor’s degrees awarded were in the five largest fields: health professions and related programs (46 percent); legal professions and studies (23 percent); education (7 percent); psychology (4 percent); and biological and biomedical sciences (4 percent). Compared to degrees at other levels, there was wider variability across racial/ethnic groups in the percentage of degrees awarded in these fields. The percentage of doctor’s degrees awarded in health professions and related programs ranged from 33 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native students to 67 percent for Asian students. The percentage of degrees awarded in legal professions and studies ranged from 13 percent for Asian students to 36 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native students. In the field of education, the percentage of degrees awarded ranged from 2 percent for Asian students to 17 percent for Black students. (Education was the third largest field for all groups except Asian students, for whom the third largest field was engineering.) Psychology was the fourth largest field, and the percentage of doctor’s degrees awarded ranged from 2 percent for Asian students to 5 percent for Black, Hispanic, and Pacific Islander students. In biological and biomedical sciences, the percentage of degrees awarded ranged from 2 to 4 percent across racial/ethnic groups.
Endnotes:
2 Nonresident alien graduates are not included in the totals presented here because data for these students are not reported by race/ethnicity.

Reference tables: *Digest of Education Statistics 2017*, tables 321.30, 322.30, 323.30, and 324.25
Related indicators and resources: Graduate Degree Fields (*The Condition of Education*); Undergraduate Degree Fields (*The Condition of Education*)

Data sources: Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS)
Glossary: Associate's degree; Bachelor's degree; Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP); Doctor's degree; Fields of study; Master's degree
**Indicator 26**

**STEM Degrees**

Overall, a higher percentage of bachelor’s degrees were awarded to females than to males in 2015–16 (58 vs. 42 percent). However, in STEM fields, a lower percentage of bachelor’s degrees were awarded to females than to males (36 vs. 64 percent). This pattern—in which females received higher percentages of bachelor’s degrees overall but lower percentages of bachelor’s degrees in STEM fields—was observed across all racial/ethnic groups.

Young adults with bachelor’s or higher degrees in the fields of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) tend to have more positive economic outcomes, such as higher median earnings, than do those with degrees in non-STEM fields. This indicator examines the percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded in STEM fields by race/ethnicity and gender for U.S. citizens and permanent residents.

**Figure 26.1.** STEM bachelor’s degrees as a percentage of total bachelor’s degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity: Academic year 2015–16

Of the 1.8 million bachelor’s degrees awarded in 2015–16, about 331,000 (18 percent) were in STEM fields. The percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded that were in STEM fields varied by race/ethnicity. For example, the percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded to Asian students that were STEM degrees (33 percent) was almost double the overall percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded in STEM fields. The percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded to students of Two or more races that were STEM degrees (20 percent) was also higher than the overall percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded in STEM fields. In contrast, the percentages of bachelor’s degrees awarded to Hispanic (15 percent), Pacific Islander (15 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (14 percent), and Black students (12 percent) that were STEM degrees were lower than the overall percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded in STEM fields. The percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded to White students that were STEM degrees (18 percent) was about the same as the overall percentage of bachelor’s degrees awarded in STEM fields.
Overall, a higher percentage of bachelor’s degrees were awarded to females than to males in 2015–16 (58 vs. 42 percent). However, in STEM fields, a lower percentage of bachelor’s degrees were awarded to females than to males (36 vs. 64 percent). This pattern—in which females received higher percentages of bachelor’s degrees overall but lower percentages of bachelor’s degrees in STEM fields—was observed across all racial/ethnic groups. The gap between the percentage of STEM bachelor’s degrees awarded to males and the percentage awarded to females was largest among White students (33 percentage points), followed by Pacific Islander (28 percentage points), Hispanic (25 percentage points), American Indian/Alaska Native (23 percentage points), Asian students (21 percentage points), and students of Two or more races (21 percentage points). Black students (11 percentage points) had the smallest gap between the percentage of STEM bachelor’s degrees awarded to males and the percentage awarded to females.

Endnotes:
1 For more information on economic outcomes by degree field, please see Digest of Education Statistics 2016, table 505.10.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, tables 318.45, 322.30, 322.40, and 322.50

Related indicators and resources: Undergraduate and Graduate Degree Fields: Undergraduate Degree Fields (The Condition of Education); Undergraduate Enrollment (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS)
Glossary: Bachelor’s degree; Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP); STEM fields
The final chapter of this report discusses measures of educational outcomes for adults by race/ethnicity. The indicators examine educational attainment among adults age 25 and older, median incomes, unemployment and employment rates, and the percentage of youth and young adults neither enrolled in school nor working.

This chapter’s indicators are available at the Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups website: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/raceindicators/.
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**Indicator 27**

**Educational Attainment**

*In 2016, the percentage of adults age 25 and over who had not completed high school was higher for Hispanic adults (33 percent) than for adults in any other racial/ethnic group (with percentages ranging from a low of 8 percent for White adults to a high of 17 percent for American Indian/Alaska Native adults).*

Educational attainment refers to the highest level of education completed (e.g., a high school diploma or equivalency certificate, some college, or a bachelor’s degree). In general, higher educational attainment is associated with higher median earnings and higher employment rates.\(^1\) This indicator examines educational attainment by race/ethnicity, focusing on adults age 25 and older at the lowest educational attainment level (less than high school completion), an intermediate attainment level (some college but no degree), and highest educational attainment level (a bachelor’s or higher degree).

**Figure 27.1.** Percentage of adults age 25 and older who had not completed high school, by race/ethnicity: 2010 and 2016

The percentage of adults age 25 and older who had not completed high school decreased from 14 percent in 2010 to 13 percent in 2016, a pattern also observed for most racial/ethnic groups. The percentage of adults age 25 and older who had not completed high school was lower in 2016 than 2010 for those who were White (8 and 9 percent, respectively), Black (15 and 18 percent, respectively), Hispanic (33 and 38 percent, respectively), Asian (13 and 14 percent, respectively), American Indian/Alaska Native (17 and 20 percent, respectively), and of Two or more races (9 and 12 percent, respectively).

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\(^1\) Total includes other racial/ethnic groups not separately shown as well as respondents who wrote in some other race that was not included as an option on the questionnaire and therefore could not be placed into any of the other groups.

NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

The percentage of adults age 25 and older who had completed some college but had not earned a degree decreased from 21.3 percent in 2010 to 20.6 percent in 2016. Similarly, the percentages for White and Asian adults were lower in 2016 than 2010. However, the percentages of adults 25 and older from the other racial/ethnic groups who had completed some college but had not earned a degree were not measurably different between 2010 and 2016.
The percentage of adults age 25 and older who had completed a bachelor’s or higher degree increased from 28 percent in 2010 to 31 percent in 2016. Similarly, the percentage who had completed a bachelor’s or higher degree was higher in 2016 than 2010 for adults who were White (35 and 31 percent, respectively), Black (21 and 18 percent, respectively), Hispanic (15 and 13 percent, respectively), Asian (54 and 50 percent, respectively), Pacific Islander (18 and 15 percent, respectively), and of Two or more races (34 and 29 percent, respectively).
In 2016, the percentage of adults age 25 and older who had not completed high school was highest for Hispanic adults (33 percent) followed by 17 percent of American Indian Alaska Native adults, 15 percent of Black adults, 13 percent of Asian adults, 13 percent of Pacific Islander adults, 9 percent of adults of Two or more races, and 8 percent of White adults. Most of the differences between these racial/ethnic groups were statistically significant; the exceptions were that the percentage of Pacific Islander adults who did not complete high school was not measurably different from the percentages of both Black and Asian adults.

The percentage of adults age 25 and older who had completed some college but had not earned a degree in 2016 was highest for American Indian/Alaska Native adults (26 percent) followed by 25 percent each for adults of Two or more races, Pacific Islander adults, and Black adults. Among the other racial/ethnic groups, 21 percent of White adults, 18 percent of Hispanic adults, and 12 percent of Asian adults had completed some college but had not earned a degree. While most of the differences between the racial/ethnic groups were measurably different, there were some that were not measurably different. The percentage of Pacific Islander adults who had completed some college but had not earned a degree was not measurably different from the corresponding percentages for adults who were Black, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races. In addition, the percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native adults who had completed some college but not earned a degree was not measurably different from the corresponding percentage for adults of Two or more races.

The percentage of adults age 25 and older who had earned a bachelor’s or higher degree in 2016 was highest for Asian adults (54 percent). Among the other racial/ethnic groups, 35 percent of White adults, 34 percent of adults of Two or more races, 21 percent of Black adults, 18 percent of Pacific Islander adults, and 15 percent each of American Indian/Alaska Native and Hispanic adults had earned a bachelor’s or higher degree. Most of the differences between these racial/ethnic groups were statistically significant; the exception was that there was no measurable difference between American Indian/Alaska Native and Hispanic adults.

Endnotes:
1 See Earnings and Employment.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 104.40
Related indicators and resources: Educational Attainment of Young Adults (The Condition of Education); Snapshot of Attainment of a Bachelor’s or Higher Degree for Racial/Ethnic Subgroups
Data sources: American Community Survey (ACS)
Glossary: Associate’s degree; Bachelor’s degree; Educational attainment; Educational attainment (Current Population Survey); High school completer
Attainment of a Bachelor’s or Higher Degree for Racial/Ethnic Subgroups

In 2016, the percentage of Hispanic adults age 25 and older with a bachelor’s or higher degree ranged from 9 percent for Salvadoran and Guatemalan adults to 55 percent for Venezuelan adults. Among Asian subgroups, the percentage ranged from 10 percent for Bhutanese adults to 74 percent for Asian Indian adults.

Attainment of a bachelor’s or higher degree is associated with positive economic outcomes, such as higher median earnings and higher employment rates. This indicator examines the percentage of adults age 25 and older who have attained a bachelor’s or higher degree for specific Hispanic and Asian subgroups (including, for example, the Mexican, Puerto Rican, Chinese, and Asian Indian subgroups).

Figure 27S.1. Percentage of adults age 25 and older with a bachelor’s or higher degree, by selected Hispanic subgroups: 2016

In 2016, about 15 percent of Hispanic adults age 25 and older had earned a bachelor’s or higher degree. The percentage of adults who had earned a bachelor’s or higher degree was lower for some Hispanic subgroups than the average for Hispanic adults overall: Mexican (11 percent), Honduran (10 percent), Guatemalan (9 percent), and Salvadoran (9 percent). The percentages for all other subgroups were higher than the average for Hispanic adults overall and ranged from 18 percent for Puerto Rican and Dominican adults to 55 percent for Venezuelan adults.
Differences by Asian subgroup were also found in the percentage of adults age 25 and older who had earned at least a bachelor’s degree. In 2016, the percentages of Asian Indian (74 percent), Korean (56 percent), and Chinese (55 percent) adults who had earned at least a bachelor’s degree were higher than the average of 54 percent for all Asian adults. The percentage of Pakistani adults who had earned a bachelor’s or higher degree was not measurably different from the average for all Asian adults. The percentages for all other subgroups were lower than the average for all Asian adults and ranged from 10 percent for Bhutanese adults to 52 percent for Japanese adults.
**Indicator 28**

**Unemployment**

In 2016, unemployment rates among adults ages 25 to 64 were higher for American Indian/Alaska Native adults (11 percent) than for Black (8 percent), Hispanic (5 percent), White (4 percent), and Asian (4 percent) adults. In addition, a higher percentage of Black than of Hispanic, White, and Asian adults were unemployed.

The unemployment rate is the percentage of persons in the civilian labor force (i.e., all civilians who are employed or seeking employment) who are not working and who made specific efforts to find employment sometime during the prior 4 weeks. People who have no job and are not looking for employment (due to being retired, having unpaid employment, or some other reason) are not included in the labor force and are not considered unemployed. This indicator examines the differences in the unemployment rate by race/ethnicity, age group, and level of educational attainment.

![Figure 28.1. Unemployment rates of persons 16 to 64 years old, by selected age group and race/ethnicity: 2016](image)

In 2016, some 21 percent of youth ages 16 to 19 who were not enrolled in school were unemployed, as were 11 percent of youth ages 20 to 24 not enrolled in school, and 5 percent of adults ages 25 to 64 (including both those enrolled and not enrolled in school). This pattern of youth ages 16 to 19 and 20 to 24 having higher unemployment rates than adults ages 25 to 64 was observed across racial/ethnic groups in 2016.

Within each age group, there were differences in unemployment rates among racial/ethnic groups. Among youth ages 16 to 19 who were not enrolled in school, higher percentages of Black (32 percent) and American Indian/Alaska Native (27 percent) youth than of Hispanic (19 percent), White (19 percent), and Asian (14 percent) youth were unemployed. Among youth ages 20 to 24 who were not enrolled in school, a higher percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native youth (24 percent) than of Black (19 percent), Hispanic (12 percent), Asian (10 percent), and White (9 percent) youth were unemployed; additionally, a higher percentage of Black than of Hispanic, Asian, and White youth were unemployed. Similarly, among adults ages 25 to 64, a higher percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native adults (11 percent) than of Black (8 percent), Hispanic (5 percent), White (4 percent), and Asian (4 percent) adults were unemployed. In addition, a higher percentage of Black than of Hispanic, White, and Asian adults were unemployed.
While the overall unemployment rate in 2016 for adults ages 25 to 64 was 5 percent, it was 9 percent for those who had not completed high school, compared with 6 percent for those who had completed high school\(^1\) and 3 percent for those with a bachelor’s or higher degree. This pattern of higher unemployment rates being associated with lower levels of educational attainment was generally evident across all racial/ethnic groups. For example, the unemployment rate for American Indian/Alaska Native adults who had not completed high school was 19 percent, compared with 15 percent for those who had completed high school and 4 percent for those with a bachelor’s or higher degree. The unemployment rate for Black adults who had not completed high school was 18 percent, compared with 10 percent for those with completed high school and 4 percent for those with a bachelor’s or higher degree.

Differences in unemployment rates for adults ages 25 to 64 were also found between racial/ethnic groups within each level of educational attainment in 2016. Among those who had not completed high school, higher percentages of American Indian/Alaska Native (19 percent) and Black (18 percent) adults than of White (10 percent), Hispanic (6 percent), and Asian (5 percent) adults were unemployed, and a higher percentage of White adults than of Hispanic and Asian adults were unemployed. Among adults who had completed high school, the unemployment rate was highest for American Indian/Alaska Native adults (15 percent), followed by Black (10 percent), Hispanic (6 percent), White (5 percent), and Asian (5 percent) adults. Among adults with a bachelor’s or higher degree, higher percentages of American Indian/Alaska Native (4 percent), Black (4 percent), Hispanic (3 percent), and Asian (3 percent) adults than of White adults (2 percent) were unemployed. Additionally, a higher percentage of Black adults than of Hispanic and Asian adults were unemployed.

**Endnotes:**
\(^1\) High school completion includes those with equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential.
Youth and young adults who are neither enrolled in school nor working may face limited future opportunities because they are detached from these core activities for this age group. There are many reasons why youth and young adults between the ages of 18 and 24 may be neither enrolled in school nor working. For example, they may be seeking but unable to find work or they may have left the workforce or school—either temporarily or permanently—for financial or personal reasons related to illness, disability, or the care of family members. This indicator provides information on youth and young adults at an age when most are transitioning into postsecondary education or the workforce. This is a critical period for young people as they pursue educational, occupational, and other goals.

In 2017, lower percentages of youth ages 18 and 19 (11 percent) than of young adults ages 20 to 24 (14 percent) were neither enrolled in school nor working. This same pattern was observed for most racial/ethnic groups. For youth and young adults who were of Two or more races and who were Black, there were no measurable differences.

There were also differences among racial/ethnic groups in the percentages of youth and young adults neither enrolled in school nor working. Among youth ages 18 and 19, a higher percentage of Black youth (16 percent) were neither enrolled in school nor working than youth who were Hispanic (12 percent), of Two or more races (10 percent), White (9 percent), and Asian (4 percent).

Among young adults ages 20 to 24, a higher percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native young adults (31 percent) than of young adults of all other racial/ethnic groups were neither enrolled in school nor working. Additionally, the percentages of Black and Hispanic young adults (19 and 17 percent, respectively) neither enrolled in school nor working were higher than the percentages of White and Asian young adults (12 percent and 10 percent, respectively).
In 2017, the percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds neither in school nor working was generally higher for those with lower levels of educational attainment than for those with higher levels of educational attainment. This was also the case for White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian young adults. For instance, among White young adults, the percentage neither in school nor working was higher for those who had not completed high school (36 percent) than for those who had completed high school (22 percent), and the percentages for both groups were higher than the percentages for those with some college (7 percent) and those with a bachelor’s or higher degree (5 percent).

Similarly, among Black young adults, the percentage neither in school nor working was higher for those who had not completed high school (47 percent) than for those who had completed high school (29 percent), and the percentages for both groups were higher than the percentages for those with some college (7 percent) and those with a bachelor’s or higher degree (17 percent).

Endnotes:
2 Comparisons for Pacific Islanders could not be made due to reporting standards not being met for youth ages 18 to 19.
3 Comparisons for young adults who were of Two or more races, Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska were not made since most of their estimates did not meet reporting standards.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 501.30
Related indicators and resources: Employment and Unemployment Rate by Educational Attainment (The Condition of Education); Unemployment

Data sources: Current Population Survey (CPS)
Glossary: Employment status
Indicator 30

Earnings and Employment

In 2016, among those with a bachelor’s or higher degree, Asian full-time, year-round workers ages 25–34 had higher median annual earnings ($69,100) than their White peers ($54,700), and median earnings for both racial/ethnic groups were higher than those of their Black ($49,400) and Hispanic ($49,300) peers.

In 2016, economic outcomes for 25- to 34-year-olds varied by educational attainment and race/ethnicity. This indicator discusses the median annual earnings of full-time, year-round 25- to 34-year-old workers and the percentage of the 25- to 34-year-old labor force 2 who worked full time, year round across different racial/ethnic backgrounds and levels of educational attainment.

Figure 30.1. Median annual earnings of full-time year-round workers 25 to 34 years old, by race/ethnicity: 2016

Although the 2016 median earnings of full-time, year-round workers ages 25–34 were $40,000, median earnings varied by racial/ethnic group. Asian full-time workers ages 25–34 had the highest median earnings ($54,600) of any racial/ethnic group. In addition, the median earnings of White full-time, year-round workers ages 25–34 ($44,900) were higher than those of American Indian/Alaska Native ($35,900), Pacific Islander ($34,200), Hispanic ($33,900), and Black full-time workers ($33,700). Median earnings of full-time workers ages 25–34 of Two or more races ($41,700) were not measurably different from those of their White and American Indian/Alaska Native peers; however, the median earnings of full-time workers of Two or more races were higher than those of Pacific Islander, Hispanic, and Black full-time workers.

NOTE: Full-time year-round workers are those who worked 35 or more hours per week for 50 or more weeks per year. Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities); data include military personnel who live in households with civilians, but exclude those who live in military barracks. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), “Annual Social and Economic Supplement,” 2017. See Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 502.30.
Higher levels of educational attainment were generally associated with higher median earnings for full-time, year-round workers ages 25–34 in 2016. For example, the median earnings of full-time workers who had not completed high school ($25,400) were lower than the median earnings of those who had ($31,800). Both groups had lower median earnings than did full-time workers with an associate’s degree ($38,000), and full-time workers with a bachelor’s or higher degree had the highest median earnings ($54,800). This same pattern was observed for White and Hispanic full-time workers. A similar pattern was also observed for Black full-time workers, with the exception that the median earnings of those who had completed high school and those with an associate’s degree were not measurably different. The median earnings for Asian full-time workers ages 25–34 with and without a high school credential ($29,100 and $26,400, respectively) were not measurably different; however, median earnings for both groups were lower than for those with an associate’s degree ($39,600) and those with a bachelor’s or higher degree ($69,100). Data on median earnings for those of Two or more races who had not completed high school did not meet reporting standards; however, the median earnings of full-time workers of Two or more races who had completed high school ($32,500) were not measurably different from the median earnings of those with an associate’s degree, but were lower than the median earnings of those with a bachelor’s or higher degree ($57,000).
In 2016, median annual earnings of full-time workers ages 25–34 differed by race/ethnicity at most levels of educational attainment. For example, the median earnings of White full-time workers who had not completed high school ($29,100) were higher than the median earnings of their Hispanic peers ($25,000), and both racial/ethnic groups had higher median earnings than Black full-time workers ($21,400). Among those who had completed high school, median earnings of White full-time workers ($35,000) were higher than the median earnings of their Hispanic ($30,000), Asian ($29,100), and Black ($27,800) peers. Among those with an associate’s degree, median earnings of full-time workers who were of Two or more races ($45,000), White ($39,700), Asian ($39,600), and Hispanic ($34,900) were higher than the median earnings of their Black peers ($30,400), and the median earnings of White full-time workers were also higher than those of their Hispanic peers. Among those with a bachelor’s or higher degree, Asian full-time workers had higher median earnings ($69,100) than did their White peers ($54,700), and median earnings for both racial/ethnic groups were higher than those of their Black ($49,400) and Hispanic ($49,300) peers. Median earnings of full-time workers of Two or more races with a bachelor’s or higher degree ($57,000) were not measurably different from those of their Asian, White, Black, or Hispanic peers.
As noted above, median earnings of White full-time workers ages 25–34 who worked full time, year round in 2016 exceeded the corresponding median earnings of Black and Hispanic full-time workers at most attainment levels, including at the combined bachelor’s or higher degree attainment level. However, different patterns were observed in median earnings among White, Black, and Hispanic full-time workers with a bachelor’s degree only and a Master’s or higher degree. Among those with a bachelor’s degree only, Asian full-time workers had higher median earnings ($59,700) than White ($50,000), Black ($45,800), and Hispanic ($44,700) full-time workers, and median earnings were also higher for White than for Hispanic full-time workers. However, median earnings of Black full-time workers were not measurably different from those of White and Hispanic full-time workers. Among those with a master’s or higher degree, Asian full-time workers had higher median earnings ($80,500) than White ($61,100), Black ($59,600), and Hispanic ($55,700) full-time workers. Unlike the pattern observed for lower attainment levels, the median earnings of White, Black, and Hispanic full-time workers with a Master’s or higher degree were not measurably different.
In 2016, the percentage of the 25- to 34-year-old labor force who worked full time differed by race/ethnicity for those with lower levels of educational attainment. For example, among those who had not completed high school, the percentage of the labor force who worked full time was higher for Asian (78 percent) and Hispanic 25- to 34-year-olds (65 percent) than for their White peers (58 percent), and all three groups had higher percentages of full-time workers than did Black 25- to 34-year-olds (39 percent). Among those who had completed high school, the percentage of the labor force who worked full time was higher for Asian 25- to 34-year-olds (80 percent) than for their Hispanic peers (72 percent), and both groups had higher percentages of full-time workers than did their peers who were White (68 percent), Black (66 percent), and of Two or more races (55 percent). In contrast, among those with an associate’s degree or a bachelor’s or higher degree, there were no measurable differences across racial/ethnic groups in the percentages of 25- to 34-year-olds who worked full time.
Endnotes:
1 “Full time, year round” is used interchangeably with the shortened form “full time.” It refers to those who worked 35 or more hours per week for 50 or more weeks per year.
2 The labor force consists of those who reported working or looking for work.
3 Differences in earnings may also reflect other factors, such as differences in occupation.

4 Median annual earnings and employment rates by educational attainment for Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native full-time year-round workers ages 25–34 are not available because these data did not meet reporting standards.

Reference tables: Digest of Education Statistics 2017, table 502.30
Related indicators and resources: Annual Earnings of Young Adults (The Condition of Education)

Data sources: Current Population Survey (CPS)
Glossary: Bachelor’s degree; Educational attainment (Current Population Survey); High school completer; Labor force; Median earnings
Appendix A.
Guide to Sources

The indicators in this report present data from a variety of sources. Brief descriptions of these sources and their data collections and data collection methods are presented below, grouped by sponsoring organization. Most of these sources are federal surveys and many are conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES).

The data were collected using many research methods, including surveys of a universe (such as all colleges) or of a sample and compilations of administrative records.

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)

Common Core of Data

The Common Core of Data (CCD) is NCES’s primary database on public elementary and secondary education in the United States. It is a comprehensive, annual, national statistical database of all public elementary and secondary schools and school districts containing data designed to be comparable across all states. This database can be used to select samples for other NCES surveys and provide basic information and descriptive statistics on public elementary and secondary schools and schooling in general.

The CCD collects statistical information annually from approximately 100,000 public elementary and secondary schools and approximately 18,000 public school districts (including supervisory unions and regional education service agencies) in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Department of Defense (DoD) dependents schools, the Bureau of Indian Education (BIE), Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, the Northern Mariana Islands, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. Three categories of information are collected in the CCD survey: general descriptive information on schools and school districts, data on students and staff, and fiscal data. The general school and district descriptive information includes name, address, phone number, and type of locale; the data on students and staff include selected demographic characteristics; and the fiscal data pertain to revenues and current expenditures.

The EDFACTS data collection system is the primary collection tool for the CCD. NCES works collaboratively with the Department of Education’s Performance Information Management Service to develop the CCD collection procedures and data definitions. Coordinators from state education agencies (SEAs) submit the CCD data at different levels (school, agency, and state) to the EDFACTS collection system. Prior to submitting CCD files to EDFACTS, SEAs must collect and compile information from their respective local education agencies (LEAs) through established administrative records systems within their state or jurisdiction.

Once SEAs have completed their submissions, the CCD survey staff analyzes and verifies the data for quality assurance. Even though the CCD is a universe collection and thus not subject to sampling errors, nonsampling errors can occur. The two potential sources of nonsampling errors are nonresponse and inaccurate reporting. NCES attempts to minimize nonsampling errors through the use of annual training of SEA coordinators, extensive quality reviews, and survey editing procedures. In addition, each year SEAs are given the opportunity to revise their state-level aggregates from the previous survey cycle.

The CCD survey consists of five components: The Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey, the Local Education Agency (School District) Universe Survey, the State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education, the National Public Education Financial Survey (NPEFS), and the School District Finance Survey (F-33).

Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey

The Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey includes all public schools providing education services to prekindergarten (preK), kindergarten, grades 1–13, and ungraded students. Grade 13 designates high school students who are enrolled in programs where they can earn college credit in an extended high school environment, or career and technical (CTE) students in a high school program that continues beyond grade 12. For school year (SY) 2015–16, the survey included records for each public elementary and secondary school in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, the DoD dependents schools (overseas and domestic), the Bureau of Indian Education (BIE), Puerto Rico, American Samoa, the Northern Mariana Islands, Guam, and the U.S. Virgin Islands.

The Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey includes data for the following variables: NCES school ID number, state school ID number, name of the school, name of the agency that operates the school, mailing address, physical location address, phone number, school type, operational status, locale code, latitude, longitude, county number, county name, full-time-equivalent (FTE) classroom teacher count, low/high grade span offered, congressional district code, school level, students eligible for free lunch, students eligible for reduced-price lunch, total students eligible for free and reduced-price lunch, and student totals and detail (by grade, by race/ethnicity, and by sex). The survey also contains flags indicating whether a school is Title I eligible, schoolwide Title I eligible, a magnet school, a charter school, a shared-time school, or a BIE school, as well as which grades are offered at the school.

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**State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education**

The State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education for the 2015–16 school year provides state-level, aggregate information about students and staff in public elementary and secondary education. It includes data from the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the U.S. Virgin Islands, the Northern Mariana Islands, Guam, and American Samoa. The DoD dependents schools (overseas and domestic) and the BIE are also included in the survey universe. This survey covers public school student membership by grade, race/ethnicity, and state or jurisdiction and covers number of staff in public schools by category and state or jurisdiction. Beginning with the 2006–07 school year, the number of diploma recipients and other high school completers are no longer included in the State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education File. These data are now published in the public-use CCD State Dropout and Completion Data File.

Further information on the nonfiscal CCD data may be obtained from

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https://nces.ed.gov/ccd

Further information on the fiscal CCD data may be obtained from

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**EDFacts**

EDFacts is a centralized data collection through which state education agencies submit preK–12 education data to the U.S. Department of Education (ED). All data in EDFacts are organized into “data groups” and reported to ED using defined file specifications. Depending on the data group, state education agencies may submit aggregate counts for the state as a whole or detailed counts for individual schools or school districts. EDFacts does not collect student-level records. The entities that are required to report EDFacts data vary by data group but may include the 50 states, the District of Columbia, the Department of Defense (DoD) dependents schools, the Bureau of Indian Education, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, the Northern Mariana Islands, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. More information about EDFacts file specifications and data groups can be found at [https://www.ed.gov/EDFacts](https://www.ed.gov/EDFacts).

EDFacts is a universe collection and is not subject to sampling error, but nonsampling errors such as nonresponse and inaccurate reporting may occur. The U.S. Department of Education attempts to minimize nonsampling errors by training data submission coordinators and reviewing the quality of state data submissions. However, anomalies may still be present in the data.

Differences in state data collection systems may limit the comparability of EDFacts data across states and across time. To build EDFacts files, state education agencies rely on data that were reported by their schools and school districts. The systems used to collect these data are evolving rapidly and differ from state to state.

In some cases, EDFacts data may not align with data reported on state education agency websites. States may update their websites on schedules different from those they use to report data to ED. Furthermore, ED may use methods for protecting the privacy of individuals represented within the data that could be different from the methods used by an individual state.

EDFacts data on homeless students enrolled in public schools are collected in data group 655 within file 118. EDFacts data on English language learners enrolled in public schools are collected in data group 678 within file 141. EDFacts four-year adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) data are collected in data group 695 within file 150 and in data group 696 within file 151. EDFacts collects these data groups on behalf of the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education.

Further information on EDFacts may be obtained from

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https://www2.ed.gov/about/inside/edfacts/index.html

**High School Longitudinal Study of 2009**

The High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09) is a nationally representative, longitudinal study of approximately 21,000 9th-grade students in 944 schools who will be followed through their secondary and postsecondary years. The study focuses on understanding students’ trajectories from the beginning of high school
into postsecondary education, the workforce, and beyond. The HSLS:09 questionnaire is focused on, but not limited to, information on science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) education and careers. It is designed to provide data on mathematics and science education, the changing high school environment, and postsecondary education. This study features a new student assessment in algebra skills, reasoning, and problem solving and includes surveys of students, their parents, math and science teachers, and school administrators, as well as a new survey of school counselors.

The HSLS:09 base year took place in the 2009–10 school year, with a randomly selected sample of fall-term 9th-graders in more than 900 public and private high schools that had both a 9th and an 11th grade. Students took a mathematics assessment and survey online. Students’ parents, principals, and mathematics and science teachers and the school’s lead counselor completed surveys on the phone or online.

The HSLS:09 student questionnaire includes interest and motivation items for measuring key factors predicting choice of postsecondary paths, including majors and eventual careers. This study explores the roles of different factors in the development of a student’s commitment to attend college and then take the steps necessary to succeed in college (the right courses, courses in specific sequences, etc.). Questionnaires in this study have asked questions of students and parents regarding reasons for selecting specific colleges (e.g., academic programs, financial aid and access prices, and campus environment).

The first follow-up of HSLS:09 occurred in the spring of 2012, when most sample members were in the 11th grade. Data files and documentation for the first follow-up were released in fall 2013 and are available on the NCES website.

A between-round postsecondary status update survey took place in the spring of students’ expected graduation year (2013). It asked respondents about college applications, acceptances, and rejections, as well as their actual college choices. In the fall of 2013 and the spring of 2014, high school transcripts were collected and coded.

A full second follow-up was conducted in 2016, when most sample members were 3 years beyond high school graduation. Additional follow-ups are planned, to at least age 30.

For more information on HSLS:09, contact:
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Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System

The Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) surveys over 7,300 postsecondary institutions, including universities and colleges, as well as institutions offering technical and vocational education beyond the high school level. IPEDS, an annual universe collection that began in 1986, replaced the Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS).

IPEDS consists of interrelated survey components that provide information on postsecondary institutions, student enrollment, programs offered, degrees and certificates conferred, and both the human and financial resources involved in the provision of institutionally based postsecondary education. Prior to 2000, the IPEDS survey had the following subject-matter components: Graduation Rates; Fall Enrollment; Institutional Characteristics; Completions; Salaries, Tenure, and Fringe Benefits of Full-Time Faculty; Fall Staff; Finance; and Academic Libraries (in 2000, the Academic Libraries component became a survey separate from IPEDS).

Since 2000, IPEDS survey components occurring in a particular collection year have been organized into three seasonal collection periods: fall, winter, and spring. The Institutional Characteristics and Completions components first took place during the fall 2000 collection; the Employees by Assigned Position (EAP), Salaries, and Fall Staff components first took place during the winter 2001–02 collection; and the Enrollment, Student Financial Aid, Finance, and Graduation Rates components first took place during the spring 2001 collection. In the winter 2005–06 data collection, the EAP; Fall Staff, and Salaries components were merged into the Human Resources component. During the 2007–08 collection year, the Enrollment component was broken into two separate components: 12-Month Enrollment (taking place in the fall collection) and Fall Enrollment (taking place in the spring collection). In the 2011–12 IPEDS data collection year, the Student Financial Aid component was moved to the winter data collection to aid in the timing of the net price of attendance calculations displayed on the College Navigator (https://nces.ed.gov/collegenavigator). In the 2012–13 IPEDS data collection year, the Human Resources component was moved from the winter data collection to the spring data collection, and in the 2013–14 data collection year, the Graduation Rates and Graduation Rates 200 Percent components were moved from the spring data collection to the winter data collection.

In the 2014–15 data collection year, a new component (Admissions) was added to IPEDS and a former IPEDS component (Academic Libraries) was reintegrated into IPEDS. The Admissions component, created out of admissions data contained in the fall collection’s Institutional Characteristics component, was made a part of the winter collection. The Academic Libraries component, after having been conducted as
a survey independent of IPEDS between 2000 and 2012, was reintegrated into IPEDS as part of the spring collection.

Beginning in 2008–09, the first-professional degree category was combined with the doctor's degree category. However, some degrees formerly identified as first-professional that take more than 2 full-time-equivalent academic years to complete, such as those in Theology (M.Div, M.H.L./Rav), are included in the master's degree category. Doctor's degrees were broken out into three distinct categories: research/scholarship, professional practice, and other doctor's degrees.

IPEDS race/ethnicity data collection also changed in 2008–09. The “Asian” race category is now separate from a “Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander” category, and a new category of “Two or more races” has been added.

The degree-granting institutions portion of IPEDS is a census of colleges that award associate’s or higher degrees and are eligible to participate in Title IV financial aid programs. Prior to 1993, data from technical and vocational institutions were collected through a sample survey. Beginning in 1993, all data are gathered in a census of all postsecondary institutions. Beginning in 1997, the survey was restricted to institutions participating in Title IV programs.

The classification of institutions offering college and university education changed as of 1996. Prior to 1996, institutions that had courses leading to an associate’s or higher degree or that had courses accepted for credit toward those degrees were considered higher education institutions. Higher education institutions were accredited by an agency or association that was recognized by the U.S. Department of Education or were recognized directly by the Secretary of Education. The newer standard includes institutions that award associate’s or higher degrees and that are eligible to participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Tables that contain any data according to this standard are titled “degree-granting” institutions. Time-series tables may contain data from both series, and they are noted accordingly. The impact of this change on data collected in 1996 was not large. For example, tables on faculty salaries and benefits were only affected to a very small extent. Also, degrees awarded at the bachelor’s level or higher were not heavily affected. The largest impact was on private 2-year college enrollment. In contrast, most of the data on public 4-year colleges were affected to a minimal extent. The impact on enrollment in public 2-year colleges was noticeable in certain states, such as Arizona, Arkansas, Georgia, Louisiana, and Washington, but was relatively small at the national level. Overall, total enrollment for all institutions was about one-half of 1 percent higher in 1996 for degree-granting institutions than for higher education institutions.

Prior to the establishment of IPEDS in 1986, HEGIS acquired and maintained statistical data on the characteristics and operations of higher education institutions. Implemented in 1966, HEGIS was an annual universe survey of institutions accredited at the college level by an agency recognized by the Secretary of the U.S. Department of Education. These institutions were listed in NCES’s Education Directory, Colleges and Universities.

HEGIS surveys collected information on institutional characteristics, faculty salaries, finances, enrollment, and degrees. Since these surveys, like IPEDS, were distributed to all higher education institutions, the data presented are not subject to sampling error. However, they are subject to nonsampling error, the sources of which varied with the survey instrument.

The NCES Taskforce for IPEDS Redesign recognized that there were issues related to the consistency of data definitions as well as the accuracy, reliability, and validity of other quality measures within and across surveys. The IPEDS redesign in 2000 provided institution-specific web-based data forms. While the new system shortened data processing time and provided better data consistency, it did not address the accuracy of the data provided by institutions.

Beginning in 2003–04 with the Prior Year Data Revision System, prior-year data have been available to institutions entering current data. This allows institutions to make changes to their prior-year entries either by adjusting the data or by providing missing data. These revisions allow the evaluation of the data’s accuracy by looking at the changes made.

NCES conducted a study (NCES 2005-175) of the 2002–03 data that were revised in 2003–04 to determine the accuracy of the imputations, track the institutions that submitted revised data, and analyze the revised data they submitted. When institutions made changes to their data, it was assumed that the revised data were the “true” data. The data were analyzed for the number and type of institutions making changes, the type of changes, the magnitude of the changes, and the impact on published data.

Because NCES imputes for missing data, imputation procedures were also addressed by the Redesign Taskforce. For the 2003–04 assessment, differences between revised values and values that were imputed in the original files were compared (i.e., revised value minus imputed value). These differences were then used to provide an assessment of the effectiveness of imputation procedures. The size of the differences also provides an indication of the accuracy of imputation procedures. To assess the overall impact of changes on aggregate IPEDS estimates, published tables for each component were reconstructed using the revised 2002–03 data. These reconstructed tables were then compared to the published tables to determine the magnitude of aggregate bias and the direction of this bias.

Since the 2000–01 data collection year, IPEDS data collections have been web-based. Data have been provided by “keyholders,” institutional representatives appointed
Fall (Institutional Characteristics)

This survey collects the basic information necessary to classify institutions, including control, level, and types of programs offered, as well as information on tuition, fees, and room and board charges. Beginning in 2000, the survey collected institutional pricing data from institutions with first-time, full-time, degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students. Unduplicated full-year enrollment counts and instructional activity are now collected in the 12-Month Enrollment survey. Beginning in 2008–09, the student financial aid data collected include greater detail. The overall unweighted response rate was 100.0 percent for Title IV degree-granting institutions for 2009 data.

In the fall 2016 data collection, the response rate for Title IV entities on the Institutional Characteristics component rounded to 100 percent: Of the 6,834 Title IV entities that were expected to respond, only 1 response was missing.

The Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System Data Quality Study (NCES 2005-175) looked at tuition and price in Title IV institutions. Only 8 percent of institutions in 2002–03 and 2003–04 reported the same data to IPEDS and Thomson Peterson—a company providing information about institutions based on the institutions’ voluntary data submissions—consistently across all selected data items. Differences in wordings or survey items may account for some of these inconsistencies.

Further information on the IPEDS Institutional Characteristics component may be obtained from

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Winter (Graduation Rates and Graduation Rates 200 Percent)

In IPEDS data collection years 2012–13 and earlier, the Graduation Rates and Graduation Rates 200 Percent components were collected during the spring collection. In the IPEDS 2013–14 data collection year, however, the Graduation Rates and Graduation Rates 200 Percent collections were moved to the winter data collection.

The 2016–17 Graduation Rates component collected counts of full-time, first-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students beginning their postsecondary education in the specified cohort year and their completion status as of 150 percent of normal program completion time at the same institution where the students started. If 150 percent of normal program completion time extended...
beyond August 31, 2016, the counts as of that date were collected. Four-year institutions used 2010 as the cohort year, while less-than-4-year institutions used 2013 as the cohort year. Of the 5,995 institutions that were expected to respond to the Graduation Rates component, responses were missing for 11 institutions, resulting in a response rate that rounded to 100 percent.

The 2016–17 Graduation Rates 200 Percent component was designed to combine information reported in a prior collection via the Graduation Rates component with current information about the same cohort of students. From previously collected data, the following counts were obtained: the number of students entering the institution as full-time, first-time degree/certificate-seeking students in a cohort year; the number of students in this cohort completing within 100 and 150 percent of normal program completion time; and the number of cohort exclusions (such as students who left for military service). Then the number of additional cohort exclusions and additional program completers between 151 and 200 percent of normal program completion time was collected. Four-year institutions reported on bachelor’s or equivalent degree-seeking students and used cohort year 2008 as the reference period, while less-than-4-year institutions reported on all students in the cohort and used cohort year 2012 as the reference period. Of the 5,594 institutions that were expected to respond to the Graduation Rates 200 Percent component, responses were missing for 10 institutions, resulting in a response rate that rounded to 100 percent.

Further information on the IPEDS Graduation Rates and Graduation Rates 200 Percent components may be obtained from Andrew Mary Postsecondary Branch Administrative Data Division National Center for Education Statistics 550 12th Street SW Washington, DC 20202 andrew.mary@ed.gov https://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/

Spring (Fall Enrollment)

This survey has been part of the HEGIS and IPEDS series since 1966. Response rates have been relatively high, generally exceeding 85 percent. Beginning in 2000, with web-based data collection, higher response rates were attained. In the spring 2017 data collection, the Fall Enrollment component covered fall 2016. Of the 6,742 institutions that were expected to respond, 6,734 provided data, for a response rate that rounded to 100 percent. Data collection procedures for the Fall Enrollment component of the spring 2017 data collection are presented in Enrollment and Employees in Postsecondary Institutions, Fall 2016; and Financial Statistics and Academic Libraries, Fiscal Year 2016: First Look (Provisional Data) (NCES 2018-002).

Beginning with the fall 1986 survey and the introduction of IPEDS (see above), the survey was redesigned. The survey allows (in alternating years) for the collection of age and residence data. Beginning in 2000, the survey collected instructional activity and unduplicated headcount data, which are needed to compute a standardized, full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment statistic for the entire academic year. As of 2007–08, the timeliness of the instructional activity data has been improved by collecting these data in the fall as part of the 12-Month Enrollment component instead of in the spring as part of the Fall Enrollment component.

The Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System Data Quality Study (NCES 2005-175) showed that public institutions made the majority of changes to enrollment data during the 2004 revision period. The majority of changes were made to unduplicated headcount data, with the net differences between the original data and the revised data being about 1 percent. Part-time students in general and enrollment in private not-for-profit institutions were often underestimated. The fewest changes by institutions were to Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP) code data. (The CIP is a taxonomic coding scheme that contains titles and descriptions of primarily postsecondary instructional programs.)

Further information on the IPEDS Fall Enrollment component may be obtained from Aida Aliyeva Postsecondary Branch Administrative Data Division National Center for Education Statistics 550 12th Street SW Washington, DC 20202 aaliyeva@air.org https://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/

Spring (Finance)

This survey was part of the HEGIS series and has been continued under IPEDS. Substantial changes were made in the financial survey instruments in fiscal year (FY) 1976, FY 1982, FY 1987, FY 1997, and FY 2002. While these changes were significant, a considerable effort has been made to present only comparable information on trends and to note inconsistencies. The FY 1976 survey instrument contained numerous revisions to earlier survey forms, which made direct comparisons of line items very difficult. Beginning in FY 1982, Pell Grant data were collected in the categories of federal restricted grant and contract revenues and restricted scholarship and fellowship expenditures. The introduction of IPEDS in the FY 1987 survey included several important changes to the survey instrument and data processing procedures. Beginning in FY 1997, data for private institutions were collected using new financial concepts consistent with Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) reporting standards,
National Assessment of Educational Progress

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) is a series of cross-sectional studies initially implemented in 1969 to assess the educational achievement of U.S. students and monitor changes in those achievements. In the main national NAEP, a nationally representative sample of students is assessed at grades 4, 8, and 12 in various academic subjects. The assessment is based on frameworks developed by the National Assessment Governing Board (NAGB). It includes both multiple-choice items and constructed-response items (those requiring written answers). Results are reported in two ways: by average score and by achievement level. Average scores are reported for the nation, for participating states and jurisdictions, and for subgroups of the population. Percentages of students performing at or above three achievement levels (Basic, Proficient, and Advanced) are also reported for these groups.

Main NAEP Assessments

From 1990 until 2001, main NAEP was conducted for states and other jurisdictions that chose to participate. In 2002, under the provisions of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, all states began to participate in main NAEP, and an aggregate of all state samples replaced the separate national sample. (School district-level assessments—under the Trial Urban District Assessment [TUDA] program—also began in 2002.)


The revised mathematics framework focuses on two dimensions: mathematical content and cognitive demand. By considering these two dimensions for each item in the assessment, the framework ensures that NAEP assesses an appropriate balance of content, as well as a variety of ways of knowing and doing mathematics.

Since the 2005 changes to the mathematics framework were minimal for grades 4 and 8, comparisons over time can be made between assessments conducted before and after the framework’s implementation for these grades. The changes that the 2005 framework made to the grade 12 assessment, however, were too drastic to allow grade 12 results from before and after implementation to be directly compared. These changes included adding more questions on algebra, data analysis, and probability to reflect changes in high school mathematics standards and coursework; merging the measurement and geometry content...
Trend results for previous assessment years in these three NAEP U.S. history, geography, and civics assessments. (NCES 2015-112) provides grade 8 results for the 2014 U.S. History, Geography, and Civics at Grade 8. The online interactive report The Nation's Report Card: 2014 U.S. History, Geography, and Civics at Grade 8 (NCES 2015-112) provides grade 8 results for the 2014 NAEP U.S. history, geography, and civics assessments. Trend results for previous assessment years in these three subjects, as well as information on school and student participation rates and sample tasks and student responses, are also presented.

In 2014, the first administration of the NAEP Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) Assessment asked 8th-graders to respond to questions aimed at assessing their knowledge and skill in understanding technological principles, solving technology and engineering-related problems, and using technology to communicate and collaborate. The online report The Nation's Report Card: Technology and Engineering Literacy (NCES 2016-119) presents national results for 8th-graders on the TEL assessment. The Nation's Report Card: 2015 Mathematics and Reading Assessments (NCES 2015-136) is an online interactive report that presents national and state results for 4th- and 8th-graders on the NAEP 2015 mathematics and reading assessments. The report also presents TUDA results in mathematics and reading for 4th- and 8th-graders. The online interactive report The Nation's Report Card: 2015 Mathematics and Reading at Grade 12 (NCES 2016-018) presents grade 12 results from the NAEP 2015 mathematics and reading assessments.

Results from the 2015 NAEP science assessment are presented in the online report The Nation's Report Card: 2015 Science at Grades 4, 8, and 12 (NCES 2016-162). The assessment measures the knowledge of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-graders in the content areas of physical science, life science, and Earth and space sciences, as well as their understanding of four science practices (identifying science principles, using science principles, using scientific inquiry, and using technological design). National results are reported for grades 4, 8, and 12, and results from 46 participating states and one jurisdiction are reported for grades 4 and 8. Since a new NAEP science framework was introduced in 2009, results from the 2015 science assessment can be compared to results from the 2009 and 2011 science assessments, but cannot be compared to the science assessments conducted prior to 2009.

NAEP is in the process of transitioning from paper-based assessments to technology-based assessments; consequently, data are needed regarding students’ access to and familiarity with technology, at home and at school. The Computer Access and Familiarity Study (CAFS) is designed to fulfill this need. CAFS was conducted as part of the main administration of the 2015 NAEP. A subset of the grade 4, 8, and 12 students who took the main NAEP were chosen to take the additional CAFS questionnaire. The main 2015 NAEP was administered in a paper-and-pencil format to some students and a digital-based format to others, and CAFS participants were given questionnaires in the same format as their NAEP questionnaires.

The online Highlights report 2017 NAEP Mathematics and Reading Assessments: Highlighted Results at Grades 4 and
8 for the Nation, States, and Districts (NCES 2018-037) presents an overview of results from the NAEP 2017 mathematics and reading reports. Highlighted results include key findings for the nation, states/jurisdictions, and 27 districts that participated in the Trial Urban District Assessment (TUDA) in mathematics and reading at grades 4 and 8.

Further information on NAEP may be obtained from:

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National Household Education Surveys Program

The National Household Education Surveys Program (NHES) is a data collection system that is designed to address a wide range of education-related issues. Surveys have been conducted in 1991, 1993, 1995, 1996, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2012, and 2016. NHES targets specific populations for detailed data collection. It is intended to provide more detailed data on the topics and populations of interest than are collected through supplements to other household surveys.

The topics addressed by NHES:1991 were early childhood education and adult education. About 60,000 households were screened for NHES:1991. In the Early Childhood Education Survey, about 14,000 parents/guardians of 3- to 8-year-olds completed interviews about their children's early educational experiences. Included in this component were participation in nonparental care/education; care arrangements and school; and family, household, and child characteristics. In the NHES:1991 Adult Education Survey, about 9,800 people 16 years of age and over, identified as having participated in an adult education activity in the previous 12 months, were questioned about their activities. Data were collected on programs and up to four courses, including the subject matter, duration, sponsorship, purpose, and cost. Information on the household and the adult's background and current employment was also collected.

In NHES:1993, nearly 64,000 households were screened. Approximately 11,000 parents of 3- to 7-year-olds completed interviews for the School Readiness Survey. Topics included the developmental characteristics of preschoolers; school adjustment and teacher feedback to parents for kindergartners and primary students; center-based program participation; early school experiences; home activities with family members; and health status.

In the School Safety and Discipline Survey, about 12,700 parents of children in grades 3 to 12 and about 6,500 youth in grades 6 to 12 were interviewed about their school experiences. Topics included the school learning environment, discipline policy, safety at school, victimization, the availability and use of alcohol/drugs, and alcohol/drug education. Peer norms for behavior in school and substance use were also included in this topical component. Extensive family and household background information was collected, as well as characteristics of the school attended by the child.

In NHES:1995, the Early Childhood Program Participation Survey and the Adult Education Survey were similar to those fielded in 1991. In the Early Childhood component, about 14,000 parents of children from birth to 3rd grade were interviewed out of 16,000 sampled, for a completion rate of 90.4 percent. In the Adult Education Survey, about 24,000 adults were sampled and 82.3 percent (20,000) completed the interview.

NHES:1996 covered parent and family involvement in education and civic involvement. Data on homeschooling and school choice also were collected. The 1996 survey screened about 56,000 households. For the Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey, nearly 21,000 parents of children in grades 3 to 12 were interviewed. For the Civic Involvement Survey, about 8,000 youth in grades 6 to 12, about 9,000 parents, and about 2,000 adults were interviewed. The 1996 survey also addressed public library use. Adults in almost 55,000 households were interviewed to support state-level estimates of household public library use.

NHES:1999 collected end-of-decade estimates of key indicators from the surveys conducted throughout the 1990s. Approximately 60,000 households were screened for a total of about 31,000 interviews with parents of children from birth through grade 12 (including about 6,900 infants, toddlers, and preschoolers) and adults age 16 or older not enrolled in grade 12 or below. Key indicators included participation of children in nonparental care and early childhood programs, school experiences, parent/family involvement in education at home and at school, youth community service activities, plans for future education, and adult participation in educational activities and community service.

NHES:2001 included two surveys that were largely repeats of similar surveys included in earlier NHES collections. The Early Childhood Program Participation Survey was similar in content to the Early Childhood Program Participation Survey fielded as part of NHES:1995, and the Adult Education and Lifelong Learning Survey was similar in content to the Adult Education Survey of NHES:1995. The Before- and After-School Programs and Activities Survey, while containing items fielded in earlier NHES collections, had a number of new items that collected information about what school-age children
were doing during the time they spent in child care or in other activities, what parents were looking for in care arrangements and activities, and parent evaluations of care arrangements and activities. Parents of approximately 6,700 children from birth through age 6 who were not yet in kindergarten completed Early Childhood Program Participation Survey interviews. Nearly 10,900 adults completed Adult Education and Lifelong Learning Survey interviews, and parents of nearly 9,600 children in kindergarten through grade 8 completed Before- and After-School Programs and Activities Survey interviews.

NHES:2003 included two surveys: the Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey and the Adult Education for Work-Related Reasons Survey (the first administration). Whereas previous adult education surveys were more general in scope, this survey had a narrower focus on occupation-related adult education programs. It collected in-depth information about training and education in which adults participated specifically for work-related reasons, either to prepare for work or a career or to maintain or improve work-related skills and knowledge they already had. The Parent and Family Involvement Survey expanded on the first survey fielded on this topic in 1996. In 2003, screeners were completed with 32,050 households. About 12,700 of the 16,000 sampled adults completed the Adult Education for Work-Related Reasons Survey, for a weighted response rate of 76 percent. For the Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey, interviews were completed by the parents of about 12,400 of the 14,900 sampled children in kindergarten through grade 12, yielding a weighted unit response rate of 83 percent.

NHES:2005 included surveys that covered adult education, early childhood program participation, and after-school programs and activities. Data were collected from about 8,900 adults for the Adult Education Survey, from parents of about 7,200 children for the Early Childhood Program Participation Survey, and from parents of nearly 11,700 children for the After-School Programs and Activities Survey. These surveys were substantially similar to the surveys conducted in 2001, with the exceptions that the Adult Education Survey addressed a new topic—informal learning activities for personal interest—and the Early Childhood Program Participation Survey and After-School Programs and Activities Survey did not collect information about before-school care for school-age children.

NHES:2007 fielded the Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey and the School Readiness Survey. These surveys were similar in design and content to surveys included in the 2003 and 1993 collections, respectively. New features added to the Parent and Family Involvement Survey were questions about supplemental education services provided by schools and school districts (including use of and satisfaction with such services), as well as questions that would efficiently identify the school attended by the sampled students. New features added to the School Readiness Survey were questions that collected details about TV programs watched by the sampled children. For the Parent and Family Involvement Survey, interviews were completed with parents of 10,680 sampled children in kindergarten through grade 12, including 10,370 students enrolled in public or private schools and 310 homeschooled children. For the School Readiness Survey, interviews were completed with parents of 2,630 sampled children ages 3 to 6 and not yet in kindergarten. Parents who were interviewed about children in kindergarten through 2nd grade for the Parent and Family Involvement Survey were also asked some questions about these children's school readiness.

The 2007 and earlier administrations of NHES used a random-digit-dial sample of landline phones and computer-assisted telephone interviewing to conduct interviews. However, due to declining response rates for all telephone surveys and the increase in households that only or mostly use a cell phone instead of a landline, the data collection method was changed to an address-based sample survey for NHES:2012. Because of this change in survey mode, readers should use caution when comparing NHES:2012 estimates to those of prior NHES administrations.

NHES:2012 included the Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey and the Early Childhood Program Participation Survey. The Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey gathered data on students age 20 or younger who were enrolled in kindergarten through grade 12 or who were homeschooled at equivalent grade levels. Survey questions that pertained to students enrolled in kindergarten through grade 12 requested information on various aspects of parent involvement in education (such as help with homework, family activities, and parent involvement at school) and survey questions pertaining to homeschooled students requested information on the student’s homeschooling experiences, the sources of the curriculum, and the reasons for homeschooling.

The 2012 Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey questionnaires were completed for 17,563 (397 homeschooled and 17,166 enrolled) children, for a weighted unit response rate of 78.4 percent. The overall estimated unit response rate (the product of the screener unit response rate of 73.8 percent and the Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey unit response rate) was 57.8 percent.

The 2012 Early Childhood Program Participation Survey collected data on the early care and education arrangements and early learning of children from birth through the age of 5 who were not yet enrolled in kindergarten. Questionnaires were completed for 7,893 children, for a weighted unit response rate of 78.7 percent. The overall estimated weighted unit response rate (the product of the screener weighted unit response rate of 73.8 percent and the Early Childhood Program Participation Survey unit weighted response rate) was 58.1 percent.
NHES:2016 used a nationally representative address-based sample covering the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The 2016 administration of NHES included a screener survey and three topical surveys: The Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey, the Early Childhood Program Participation Survey, and the Adult Training and Education Survey. The screener survey questionnaire identified households with children or youth under age 20 and adults ages 16 to 65. A total of 206,000 households were selected based on this screener, and the screener response rate was 66.4 percent. All sampled households received initial contact by mail. Although the majority of respondents completed paper questionnaires, a small sample of cases was part of a web experiment with mailed invitations to complete the survey online.

The 2016 Parent and Family Involvement in Education Survey, like its predecessor in 2012, gathered data about students age 20 or under who were enrolled in kindergarten through grade 12 or who were being homeschooled for the equivalent grades. The 2016 survey’s questions also covered aspects of parental involvement in education similar to those in the 2012 survey. The total number of completed questionnaires in the 2016 survey was 14,075 (13,523 enrolled and 552 homeschooled children), representing a population of 53.2 million students either homeschooled or enrolled in a public or private school in 2015–16. The survey’s weighted unit response rate was 74.3 percent, and the overall response rate was 49.3 percent.

The 2016 Early Childhood Program Participation Survey collected data about children from birth through age 6 who were not yet enrolled in kindergarten. The survey asked about children's participation in relative care, nonrelative care, and center-based care arrangements. It also requested information such as the main reason for choosing care, factors that were important to parents when choosing a care arrangement, the primary barriers to finding satisfactory care, activities the family does with the child, and what the child is learning. Questionnaires were completed for 5,844 children, for a weighted unit response rate of 73.4 percent and an overall estimated weighted unit response rate of 48.7 percent.

The third topical survey of NHES:2016 was a new NHES survey, the Adult Training and Education Survey. The survey collected information from noninstitutionalized adults ages 16 to 65 not enrolled in high school—it also collected information from adults living at residential addresses associated with educational institutions such as colleges (thus, it collected information from enrolled college students). One of the main goals of the Adult Training and Education Survey is to capture the prevalence of nondegree credentials, including estimates of adults with occupational certifications or licenses, as well as to capture the prevalence of postsecondary educational certificates. A further goal is to learn more about work experience programs. The survey’s data, when weighted, were nationally representative of noninstitutionalized adults ages 16 to 65, not enrolled in grades 12 or below. The total number of completed questionnaires was 47,744, representing a population of 196.3 million. The survey had a weighted response rate of 73.1 percent and an overall response rate of 48.5 percent.

Data for the three topical surveys in the 2016 administration of NHES are available in Parent and Family Involvement in Education: Results From the National Household Education Surveys Program of 2016 (NCES 2017-102); Early Childhood Program Participation, Results From the National Household Education Surveys Program of 2016 (NCES 2017-101); and Adult Training and Education: Results From the National Household Education Surveys Program of 2016 (NCES 2017-103rev).

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National Postsecondary Student Aid Study

The National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS) is a comprehensive nationwide study of how students and their families pay for postsecondary education. Data gathered from the study are used to help guide future federal student financial aid policy. The study covers nationally representative samples of undergraduates, graduates, and first-professional students in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, including students attending less-than-2-year institutions, community colleges, and 4-year colleges and universities. Participants include students who do not receive aid and those who do receive financial aid. Since NPSAS identifies nationally representative samples of student subpopulations of interest to policymakers and obtains baseline data for longitudinal study of these subpopulations, data from the study provide the base-year sample for the Beginning Postsecondary Students (BPS) longitudinal study and the Baccalaureate and Beyond (B&B) longitudinal study.

Originally, NPSAS was conducted every 3 years. Beginning with the 1999–2000 study (NPSAS:2000), NPSAS has been conducted every 4 years. NPSAS:08 included a new set of instrument items to obtain baseline measures of the awareness of two new federal grants introduced in 2006: the Academic Competitiveness Grant (ACG) and the
National Science and Mathematics Access to Retain Talent (SMART) grant.

The first NPSAS (NPSAS:87) was conducted during the 1986–87 school year. Data were gathered from about 1,100 colleges, universities, and other postsecondary institutions; 60,000 students; and 14,000 parents. These data provided information on the cost of postsecondary education, the distribution of financial aid, and the characteristics of both aided and nonaided students and their families.

For NPSAS:93, information on 77,000 undergraduates and graduate students enrolled during the school year was collected at 1,000 postsecondary institutions. The sample included students who were enrolled at any time between July 1, 1992, and June 30, 1993. About 66,000 students and a subsample of their parents were interviewed by telephone. NPSAS:96 contained information on more than 48,000 undergraduate and graduate students from about 1,000 postsecondary institutions who were enrolled at any time during the 1995–96 school year. NPSAS:2000 included nearly 62,000 students (50,000 undergraduates and almost 12,000 graduate students) from 1,000 postsecondary institutions. NPSAS:04 collected data on about 80,000 undergraduates and 11,000 graduate students from 1,400 postsecondary institutions. For NPSAS:08, about 114,000 undergraduate students and 14,000 graduate students who were enrolled in postsecondary education during the 2007–08 school year were selected from more than 1,730 postsecondary institutions.

NPSAS:12 sampled about 95,000 undergraduates and 16,000 graduate students from approximately 1,500 postsecondary institutions. Public access to the data is available online through PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab/).

NPSAS:16 sampled about 89,000 undergraduate and 24,000 graduate students attending approximately 1,800 Title IV eligible postsecondary institutions in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. The sample represents approximately 20 million undergraduate and 4 million graduate students enrolled in postsecondary education at Title IV eligible institutions at any time between July 1, 2015, and June 30, 2016.

Further information on NPSAS may be obtained from

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National Teacher and Principal Survey

The National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS) is a set of related questionnaires that collect descriptive data on the context of elementary and secondary education. Data reported by schools, principals, and teachers provide a variety of statistics on the condition of education in the United States that may be used by policymakers and the general public. The NTPS system covers a wide range of topics, including teacher demand, teacher and principal characteristics, teachers’ and principals’ perceptions of school climate and problems in their schools, teacher and principal compensation, district hiring and retention practices, general conditions in schools, and basic characteristics of the student population.

The NTPS was first conducted during the 2015–16 school year. The survey is a redesign of the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), which was conducted from the 1987–88 school year to the 2011–12 school year. Although the NTPS maintains the SASS survey’s focus on schools, teachers, and administrators, the NTPS has a different structure and sample than SASS. In addition, whereas SASS operated on a 4-year survey cycle, the NTPS operates on a 2-year survey cycle.

The school sample for the 2015–16 NTPS was based on an adjusted public school universe file from the 2013–14 Common Core of Data (CCD), a database of all the nation’s public school districts and public schools. The NTPS definition of a school is the same as the SASS definition of a school—an institution or part of an institution that provides classroom instruction to students, has one or more teachers to provide instruction, serves students in one or more of grades 1–12 or the ungraded equivalent, and is located in one or more buildings apart from a private home.

The 2015–16 NTPS universe of schools is confined to the 50 states plus the District of Columbia. It excludes the Department of Defense dependents schools overseas, schools in U.S. territories overseas, and CCD schools that do not offer teacher-provided classroom instruction in grades 1–12 or the ungraded equivalent. Bureau of Indian Education schools are included in the NTPS universe, but these schools were not oversampled and the data do not support separate BIE estimates.

The NTPS includes three key components: school questionnaires, principal questionnaires, and teacher questionnaires. NTPS data are collected by the U.S. Census Bureau through a mail questionnaire with telephone and in-person field follow-up. The school and principal questionnaires were sent to sampled schools, and the teacher questionnaire was sent to a sample of teachers working at sampled schools. The NTPS school sample consisted of about 8,300 public schools; the principal sample consisted of about 8,300 public school principals;
and the teacher sample consisted of about 40,000 public school teachers.

The school questionnaire asks knowledgeable school staff members about grades offered, student attendance and enrollment, staffing patterns, teaching vacancies, programs and services offered, curriculum, and community service requirements. In addition, basic information is collected about the school year, including the beginning time of students’ school days and the length of the school year. The weighted unit response rate for the 2015–16 school survey was 72.5 percent.

The principal questionnaire collects information about principal/school head demographic characteristics, training, experience, salary, goals for the school, and judgments about school working conditions and climate. Information is also obtained on professional development opportunities for teachers and principals, teacher performance, barriers to dismissal of underperforming teachers, school climate and safety, parent/guardian participation in school events, and attitudes about educational goals and school governance. The weighted unit response rate for the 2015–16 principal survey was 71.8 percent.

The teacher questionnaire collects data from teachers about their current teaching assignment, workload, education history, and perceptions and attitudes about teaching. Questions are also asked about teacher preparation, induction, organization of classes, computers, and professional development. The weighted response rate for the 2015–16 teacher survey was 67.8 percent.


For additional information about the NTPS program, please contact

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Private School Universe Survey


The PSS produces data similar to that of the Common Core of Data for public schools, and can be used for public-private comparisons. The data are useful for a variety of policy- and research-relevant issues, such as the growth of religiously affiliated schools, the number of private high school graduates, the length of the school year for various private schools, and the number of private school students and teachers.

The target population for this universe survey is all private schools in the United States that meet the PSS criteria of a private school (i.e., the private school is an institution that provides instruction for any of grades K through 12, has one or more teachers to give instruction, is not administered by a public agency, and is not operated in a private home).

The survey universe is composed of schools identified from a variety of sources. The main source is a list frame initially developed for the 1989–90 PSS. The list is updated regularly by matching it with lists provided by nationwide private school associations, state departments of education, and other national guides and sources that list private schools. The other source is an area frame search in approximately 124 geographic areas, conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau.

Of the 40,302 schools included in the 2009–10 sample, 10,229 were found ineligible for the survey. Those not responding numbered 1,856, and those responding numbered 28,217. The unweighted response rate for the 2009–10 PSS survey was 93.8 percent.

Of the 39,325 schools included in the 2011–12 sample, 10,030 cases were considered as out-of-scope (not eligible for the PSS). A total of 26,983 private schools completed a PSS interview (15.8 percent completed online), while 2,312 schools refused to participate, resulting in an unweighted response rate of 92.1 percent.

There were 40,298 schools in the 2013–14 sample; of these, 10,659 were considered as out-of-scope (not eligible for the PSS). A total of 24,566 private schools completed a PSS interview (34.1 percent completed online), while 5,073 schools refused to participate, resulting in an unweighted response rate of 82.9 percent.

The 2015–16 PSS included 42,389 schools, of which 12,754 were considered as out-of-scope (not eligible for the PSS). A total of 22,428 private schools completed a PSS interview and 7,207 schools failed to respond, which resulted in an unweighted response rate of 75.7 percent.
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Projections of Education Statistics
Since 1964, NCES has published projections of key statistics for elementary and secondary schools and higher education institutions. The latest report is Projections of Education Statistics to 2026 (NCES 2018-019). The Projections of Education Statistics series uses projection models for elementary and secondary enrollment, high school graduates, elementary and secondary teachers, expenditures for public elementary and secondary education, enrollment in postsecondary degree-granting institutions, and postsecondary degrees conferred to develop national and state projections. These models are described more fully in the report's appendix on projection methodology.

Differences between the reported and projected values are, of course, almost inevitable. An evaluation of past projections revealed that, at the elementary and secondary level, projections of public school enrollments have been quite accurate: mean absolute percentage differences for enrollment in public schools ranged from 0.3 to 1.2 percent for projections from 1 to 5 years in the future, while those for teachers in public schools were 3.1 percent or less. At the higher education level, projections of enrollment have been fairly accurate: mean absolute percentage differences were 5.9 percent or less for projections from 1 to 5 years into the future.

Further information on Projections of Education Statistics may be obtained from
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Other Department of Education Agencies
Office for Civil Rights
Civil Rights Data Collection
The U.S. Department of Education’s Office for Civil Rights (OCR) has surveyed the nation’s public elementary and secondary schools since 1968. The survey was first known as the OCR Elementary and Secondary School (E&S) Survey; in 2004, it was renamed the Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC). The survey collects data on school discipline, access to and participation in high-level mathematics and science courses, teacher characteristics, school finances, and other school characteristics. These data are reported by race/ethnicity, sex, and disability.

Data in the survey are collected pursuant to 34 C.F.R. Section 100.6(b) of the Department of Education regulation implementing Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. The requirements are also incorporated by reference in Department regulations implementing Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, and the Age Discrimination Act of 1975. School, district, state, and national data are currently available. Data from individual public schools and districts are used to generate national and state data.

The CRDC has generally been conducted biennially in each of the 50 states plus the District of Columbia. The 2009–10 CRDC was collected from a sample of approximately 7,000 school districts and over 72,000 schools in those districts. It was made up of two parts: part 1 contained beginning-of-year “snapshot” data and part 2 contained cumulative, or end-of-year, data.

The 2011–12 CRDC survey, which collected data from approximately 16,500 school districts and 97,000 schools, was the first CRDC survey since 2000 that included data from every public school district and school in the nation. The 2013–14 CRDC survey also collected information from a universe of every public school district and school in the nation.

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Office of Special Education Programs
Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act
The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) is a law ensuring services to children with disabilities throughout the nation. IDEA governs how states and public agencies provide early intervention, special education, and related services to more than 6.8 million eligible infants, toddlers, children, and youth with disabilities.
IDEA, formerly the Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA), requires the Secretary of Education to transmit, on an annual basis, a report to Congress describing the progress made in serving the nation’s children with disabilities. This annual report contains information on children served by public schools under the provisions of Part B of IDEA and on children served in state-operated programs for persons with disabilities under Chapter I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

Statistics on children receiving special education and related services in various settings, and school personnel providing such services, are reported in an annual submission of data to the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) by the 50 states, the District of Columbia, the Bureau of Indian Education schools, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, the Northern Mariana Islands, the U.S. Virgin Islands, the Federated States of Micronesia, the Republic of Palau, and the Republic of the Marshall Islands. The child count information is based on the number of children with disabilities receiving special education and related services on December 1 of each year. Count information is available from http://www.ideadata.org.

Since all participants in programs for persons with disabilities are reported to OSEP, the data are not subject to sampling error. However, nonsampling error can arise from a variety of sources. Some states only produce counts of students receiving special education services by disability category because Part B of the EHA requires it. In those states that typically produce counts of students receiving special education services by disability category without regard to EHA requirements, definitions and labeling practices vary.

Further information on this annual report to Congress may be obtained from
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https://sites.ed.gov/idea/
https://www.ideadata.org

Other Governmental Agencies and Programs

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention

Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System

The Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System (YRBSS) is an epidemiological surveillance system developed by the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) to monitor the prevalence of youth behaviors that most influence health. The YRBSS focuses on priority health-risk behaviors established during youth that result in the most significant mortality, morbidity, disability, and social problems during both youth and adulthood. The YRBSS includes a national school-based Youth Risk Behavior Survey (YRBS), as well as surveys conducted in states and large urban school districts.

The national YRBS uses a three-stage cluster sampling design to produce a nationally representative sample of students in grades 9–12 in the United States. The target population consists of all public and private school students in grades 9–12 in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The first-stage sampling frame includes selecting primary sampling units (PSUs) from strata formed on the basis of urbanization and the relative percentage of Black and Hispanic students in the PSU. These PSUs are either counties; subareas of large counties; or groups of smaller, adjacent counties. At the second stage, schools were selected with probability proportional to school enrollment size.

The final stage of sampling consists of randomly selecting, in each chosen school and in each of grades 9–12, one or two classrooms from either a required subject, such as English or social studies, or a required period, such as homeroom or second period. All students in selected classes are eligible to participate. In surveys conducted before 2013, three strategies were used to oversample Black and Hispanic students: (1) larger sampling rates were used to select PSUs that are in high-Black and high-Hispanic strata; (2) a modified measure of size was used that increased the probability of selecting schools with a disproportionately high minority enrollment; and (3) two classes per grade, rather than one, were selected in schools with a high percentage of combined Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, or American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment. In 2013, only selection of two classes per grade was needed to achieve an adequate precision with minimum variance. Approximately 16,300 students participated in the 1993 survey, 10,900 students participated in the 1995 survey, 16,300 students participated in the 1997 survey, 15,300 students participated in 1999, 13,600 students participated in 2001, 15,200 students participated in 2003, 13,900 participated in 2005, 14,000 participated in 2007, 16,400 participated in 2009, 15,400 participated in 2011, 13,600 participated in 2013, and 15,600 participated in 2015.

The overall response rate was 70 percent for the 1993 survey, 60 percent for the 1995 survey, 69 percent for the 1997 survey, 66 percent in 1999, 63 percent in 2001, 67 percent in 2003, 67 percent in 2005, 68 percent in 2007, 71 percent in 2009, 71 percent in 2011, 68 percent in 2013, and 60 percent in 2015. NCES standards call for response rates of 85 percent or greater for cross-sectional surveys, and bias analyses are required by NCES when that percentage is not achieved. For YRBS data, a full nonresponse bias analysis has not been done because the data necessary to do the analysis are not available. The
weights were developed to adjust for nonresponse and the oversampling of Black and Hispanic students in the sample. The final weights were constructed so that only weighted proportions of students (not weighted counts of students) in each grade matched national population projections.

State-level data were downloaded from the Youth Online: Comprehensive Results web page (https://nccd.cdc.gov/Youthonline/App/Default.aspx). Each state and district school-based YRBS employs a two-stage, cluster sample design to produce representative samples of students in grades 9–12 in their jurisdiction. All except a few state samples, and all district samples, include only public schools, and each district sample includes only schools in the funded school district (e.g., San Diego Unified School District) rather than in the entire city (e.g., greater San Diego area).

In the first sampling stage in all except a few states and districts, schools are selected with probability proportional to school enrollment size. In the second sampling stage, intact classes of a required subject or intact classes during a required period (e.g., second period) are selected randomly. All students in sampled classes are eligible to participate. Certain states and districts modify these procedures to meet their individual needs. For example, in a given state or district, all schools, rather than a sample of schools, might be selected to participate. State and local surveys that have a scientifically selected sample, appropriate documentation, and an overall response rate greater than or equal to 60 percent are weighted. The overall response rate reflects the school response rate multiplied by the student response rate. These three criteria are used to ensure that the data from those surveys can be considered representative of students in grades 9–12 in that jurisdiction. A weight is applied to each record to adjust for student nonresponse and the distribution of students by grade, sex, and race/ethnicity in each jurisdiction. Therefore, weighted estimates are representative of all students in grades 9–12 attending schools in each jurisdiction. Surveys that do not have an overall response rate of greater than or equal to 60 percent and that do not have appropriate documentation are not weighted and are not included in this report.

For the 2015 YRBS, data from 37 states and 19 large urban districts were weighted. (For information on the location of the districts, please see https://www.cdc.gov/healthyyouth/data/yrbs/participation.htm.) In 36 states and all large urban school districts, weighted estimates are representative of all students in grades 9–12 attending public schools in each jurisdiction. In one state (South Dakota), weighted estimates are representative of all students in grades 9–12 attending public and private schools. Student sample sizes ranged from 1,313 to 55,596 across the states and from 1,052 to 10,419 across the large urban school districts. Among the states, school response rates ranged from 70 percent to 100 percent, student response rates ranged from 64 percent to 90 percent, and overall response rates ranged from 60 percent to 64 percent to 88 percent.

In 2013, a total of 42 states and 21 districts had weighted data. Not all of the districts were contained in the 42 states. For example, California was not one of the 42 states that obtained weighted data, but it contained several districts that did. In sites with weighted data, the student sample sizes for the state and district YRBS ranged from 1,107 to 53,785. School response rates ranged from 70 to 100 percent, student response rates ranged from 60 to 94 percent, and overall response rates ranged from 60 to 87 percent.

Readers should note that reports of these data published by the CDC and in this report do not include percentages for which the denominator includes fewer than 100 unweighted cases.

In 1999, in accordance with changes to the Office of Management and Budget’s standards for the classification of federal data on race and ethnicity, the YRBS item on race/ethnicity was modified. The version of the race and ethnicity question used in 1993, 1995, and 1997 was

How do you describe yourself?
1. White—not Hispanic
2. Black—not Hispanic
3. Hispanic or Latino
4. Asian or Pacific Islander
5. American Indian or Alaskan Native
6. Other

The version used in 1999, 2001, 2003, and in the 2005, 2007, and 2009 state and local district surveys was

How do you describe yourself? (Select one or more responses.)
1. American Indian or Alaska Native
2. Asian
3. Black or African American
4. Hispanic or Latino
5. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander
6. White

In the 2005 national survey and in all 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, and 2015 surveys, race/ethnicity was computed from two questions: (1) “Are you Hispanic or Latino?” (response options were “Yes” and “No”), and (2) “What is your race?” (response options were “American Indian or Alaska Native,” “Asian,” “Black or African American,” “Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander,” or “White”). For the second question, students could select more than one response option. For this report, students
were classified as “Hispanic” if they answered “Yes” to the first question, regardless of how they answered the second question. Students who answered “No” to the first question and selected more than one race/ethnicity in the second category were classified as “More than one race.” Students who answered “No” to the first question and selected only one race/ethnicity were classified as that race/ethnicity. Race/ethnicity was classified as missing for students who did not answer the first question and for students who answered “No” to the first question but did not answer the second question.

CDC has conducted two studies to understand the effect of changing the race/ethnicity item on the YRBS. Brener, Kann, and McManus (Public Opinion Quarterly, 67:227–226, 2003) found that allowing students to select more than one response to a single race/ethnicity question on the YRBS had only a minimal effect on reported race/ethnicity among high school students. Eaton, Brener, Kann, and Pittman (Journal of Adolescent Health, 41: 488–494, 2007) found that self-reported race/ethnicity was similar regardless of whether the single-question or a two-question format was used.

Further information on the YRBSS may be obtained from:

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http://www.cdc.gov/yrbs

Census Bureau

American Community Survey

The Census Bureau introduced the American Community Survey (ACS) in 1996. Fully implemented in 2005, it provides a large monthly sample of demographic, socioeconomic, and housing data comparable in content to the Long Forms of the Decennial Census up to and including the 2000 long form. Aggregated over time, these data serve as a replacement for the Long Form of the Decennial Census. The survey includes questions mandated by federal law, federal regulations, and court decisions.

Since 2011, the survey has been mailed to approximately 295,000 addresses in the United States and Puerto Rico each month, or about 3.5 million addresses annually. A larger proportion of addresses in small governmental units (e.g., American Indian reservations, small counties, and towns) also receive the survey. The monthly sample size is designed to approximate the ratio used in the 2000 Census, which requires more intensive distribution in these areas. The ACS covers the U.S. resident population, which includes the entire civilian, noninstitutionalized population; incarcerated persons; institutionalized persons; and the active duty military who are in the United States. In 2006, the ACS began interviewing residents in group quarter facilities. Institutionalized group quarters include adult and juvenile correctional facilities, nursing facilities, and other health care facilities. Noninstitutionalized group quarters include college and university housing, military barracks, and other noninstitutionalized facilities such as workers and religious group quarters and temporary shelters for the homeless.


Further information about the ACS is available at http://www.census.gov/acs/www/.

Census of Population—Education in the United States

Some NCES tables are based on a part of the decennial census that consisted of questions asked of a 1 in 6 sample of people and housing units in the United States. This sample was asked more detailed questions about income, occupation, and housing costs, as well as questions about general demographic information. This decennial census “long form” has been discontinued and has been replaced by the American Community Survey (ACS).

School enrollment. People classified as enrolled in school reported attending a “regular” public or private school or college. They were asked whether the institution they attended was public or private and what level of school they were enrolled in.

Educational attainment. Data for educational attainment were tabulated for people ages 15 and over and classified according to the highest grade completed or the highest degree received. Instructions were also given to include the level of the previous grade attended or the highest degree received for people currently enrolled in school.

Poverty status. To determine poverty status, answers to income questions were used to make comparisons to the appropriate poverty threshold. All people except those
who were institutionalized, people in military group quarters and college dormitories, and unrelated people under age 15 were considered. If the total income of each family or unrelated individual in the sample was below the corresponding cutoff, that family or individual was classified as “below the poverty level.”

Further information on the 1990 and 2000 Census of Population may be obtained from

Population Division
Census Bureau
U.S. Department of Commerce
4600 Silver Hill Road
Washington, DC 20233

Current Population Survey

The Current Population Survey (CPS) is a monthly survey of about 54,000 households conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The CPS is the primary source of labor force statistics on the U.S. population. In addition, supplemental questionnaires are used to provide further information about the U.S. population. The March supplement (also known as the Annual Social and Economic [ASEC] supplement) contains detailed questions on topics such as income, employment, and educational attainment; additional questions, such as items on disabilities, have also been included. In the July supplement, items on computer and internet use are the principal focus. The October supplement also contains some questions about computer and internet use, but most of its questions relate to school enrollment and school characteristics.

CPS samples are initially selected based on results from the decennial census and are periodically updated to reflect new housing construction. The current sample design for the main CPS, last revised in July 2015, includes about 74,000 households. Each month, about 54,000 of the 74,000 households are interviewed. Information is obtained each month from those in the household who are 15 years of age and over, and demographic data are collected for children 0–14 years of age. In addition, supplemental questions regarding school enrollment are asked about eligible household members age 3 and over in the October CPS supplement.

In January 1992, the CPS educational attainment variable was changed. The “Highest grade attended” and “Year completed” questions were replaced by the question “What is the highest level of school . . . has completed or the highest degree . . . has received?” Thus, for example, while the old questions elicited data for those who completed more than 4 years of high school, the new question elicited data for those who were high school completers, i.e., those who graduated from high school with a diploma as well as those who completed high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.

A major redesign of the CPS was implemented in January 1994 to improve the quality of the data collected. Survey questions were revised, new questions were added, and computer-assisted interviewing methods were used for the survey data collection. Further information about the redesign is available in Current Population Survey, October 1995: (School Enrollment Supplement) Technical Documentation at http://www.census.gov/prod/techdoc/cps/cpsoct95.pdf.

Caution should be used when comparing data from 1994 through 2001 with data from 1993 and earlier. Data from 1994 through 2001 reflect 1990 census-based population controls, while data from 1993 and earlier reflect 1980 or earlier census-based population controls. Changes in population controls generally have relatively little impact on summary measures such as means, medians, and percentage distributions; they can, however, have a significant impact on population counts. For example, use of the 1990 census-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 data collected in 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 subpopulation groups than for the total population.

Beginning in 2003, the race/ethnicity questions were expanded. Information on people of Two or more races were included, and the Asian and Pacific Islander race category was split into two categories—Asian and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. In addition, questions were reworded to make it clear that self-reported data on race/ethnicity should reflect the race/ethnicity with which the responder identifies, rather than what may be written in official documentation.

The estimation procedure employed for monthly CPS data involves inflating weighted sample results to independent estimates of characteristics of the civilian noninstitutional population in the United States by age, sex, and race. These independent estimates are based on statistics from decennial censuses; statistics on births, deaths, immigration, and emigration; and statistics on the population in the armed services. Generalized standard error tables are provided in the Current Population Reports; methods for deriving standard errors can be found within the CPS technical documentation at http://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/cps/technical-documentation/complete.html. The CPS data are subject to both nonsampling and sampling errors.
Standard errors were estimated using the generalized variance function prior to 2005 for March CPS data and prior to 2010 for October CPS data. The generalized variance function is a simple model that expresses the variance as a function of the expected value of a survey estimate. Standard errors were estimated using replicate weight methodology beginning in 2005 for March CPS data and beginning in 2010 for October CPS data. Those interested in using CPS household-level supplement replicate weights to calculate variances may refer to Estimating Current Population Survey (CPS) Household-Level Supplement Variances Using Replicate Weights at http://thedataweb.rm.census.gov/pub/cps/supps/HH-level_Use of the Public Use Replicate Weight File.doc.

Further information on the CPS may be obtained from Education and Social Stratification Branch Population Division Census Bureau U.S. Department of Commerce 4600 Silver Hill Road Washington, DC 20233 http://www.census.gov/cps

Dropouts

Each October, the Current Population Survey (CPS) includes supplemental questions on the enrollment status of the population age 3 years and over as part of the monthly basic survey on labor force participation. In addition to gathering the information on school enrollment, with the limitations on accuracy as noted below under “School Enrollment,” the survey data permit calculations of dropout rates. Both status and event dropout rates are tabulated from the October CPS. Event rates describe the proportion of students who leave school each year without completing a high school program. Status rates provide cumulative data on dropouts among all young adults within a specified age range. Status rates are higher than event rates because they include all dropouts ages 16 through 24, regardless of when they last attended school.

In addition to other survey limitations, dropout rates may be affected by survey coverage and exclusion of the institutionalized population. The incarcerated population has grown rapidly and has a high dropout rate. Dropout rates for the total population might be higher than those for the noninstitutionalized population if the prison and jail populations were included in the dropout rate calculations. On the other hand, if military personnel, who tend to be high school graduates, were included, it might offset some or all of the impact from the theoretical inclusion of the jail and prison populations.

Another area of concern with tabulations involving young people in household surveys is the relatively low coverage ratio compared to older age groups. CPS undercoverage results from missed housing units and missed people within sample households. Overall CPS undercoverage for October 2016 is estimated to be about 11 percent. CPS coverage varies with age, sex, and race. Generally, coverage is larger for females than for males and larger for non-Blacks than for Blacks. This differential coverage is a general problem for most household-based surveys. Further information on CPS methodology may be found in the technical documentation at http://www.census.gov/cps.

Further information on the calculation of dropouts and dropout rates may be obtained from the Trends in High School Dropout and Completion Rates in the United States report at https://nces.ed.gov/programs/dropout/index.asp or by contacting

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Educational Attainment

Reports documenting educational attainment are produced by the Census Bureau using the March Current Population Survey (CPS) supplement (Annual Social and Economic supplement [ASEC]).

Currently, the ASEC supplement consists of approximately 70,000 interviewed households. Both recent and earlier editions of Educational Attainment in the United States may be downloaded at https://www.census.gov/topics/education/educational-attainment/data/tables.All.html.

In addition to the general constraints of CPS, some data indicate that the respondents have a tendency to overestimate the educational level of members of their household. Some inaccuracy is due to a lack of the respondent’s knowledge of the exact educational attainment of each household member and the hesitancy to acknowledge anything less than a high school education.

Further information on educational attainment data from CPS may be obtained from Education and Social Stratification Branch Census Bureau U.S. Department of Commerce 4600 Silver Hill Road Washington, DC 20233 https://www.census.gov/topics/education/educational-attainment/data.html

School Enrollment

Each October, the Current Population Survey (CPS) includes supplemental questions on the enrollment status of the population age 3 years and over. Currently, the October supplement consists of approximately 54,000 interviewed households, the same households interviewed
in the basic Current Population Survey. The main sources of nonsampling variability in the responses to the supplement are those inherent in the survey instrument. The question of current enrollment may not be answered accurately for various reasons. Some respondents may not know current grade information for every student in the household, a problem especially prevalent for households with members in college or in nursery school. Confusion over college credits or hours taken by a student may make it difficult to determine the year in which the student is enrolled. Problems may occur with the definition of nursery school (a group or class organized to provide educational experiences for children) where respondents’ interpretations of “educational experiences” vary.

For the October 2016 basic CPS, the household-level nonresponse rate was 12.7 percent. The person-level nonresponse rate for the school enrollment supplement was an additional 8.0 percent. Since the basic CPS nonresponse rate is a household-level rate and the school enrollment supplement nonresponse rate is a person-level rate, these rates cannot be combined to derive an overall nonresponse rate. Nonresponding households may have fewer persons than interviewed ones, so combining these rates may lead to an overestimate of the true overall nonresponse rate for persons for the school enrollment supplement.

Although the principal focus of the October supplement is school enrollment, in some years the supplement has included additional questions on other topics. In 2010 and 2012, for example, the October supplement included additional questions on computer and internet use.

Further information on CPS methodology may be obtained from http://www.census.gov/cps.

Further information on the CPS School Enrollment Supplement may be obtained from Education and Social Stratification Branch
Census Bureau
U.S. Department of Commerce
4600 Silver Hill Road
Washington, DC 20233
https://www.census.gov/topics/education/school-enrollment.html

Decennial Census, Population Estimates, and Population Projections

The decennial census is a universe survey mandated by the U.S. Constitution. It is a questionnaire sent to every household in the country, and it is composed of seven questions about the household and its members (name, sex, age, relationship, Hispanic origin, race, and whether the housing unit is owned or rented). The Census Bureau also produces annual estimates of the resident population by demographic characteristics (age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin) for the nation, states, and counties, as well as national and state projections for the resident population. The reference date for population estimates is July 1 of the given year. With each new issue of July 1 estimates, the Census Bureau revises estimates for each year back to the last census. Previously published estimates are superseded and archived.

Census respondents self-report race and ethnicity. The race questions on the 1990 and 2000 censuses differed in some significant ways. In 1990, the respondent was instructed to select the one race “that the respondent considers himself/herself to be,” whereas in 2000, the respondent could select one or more races that the person considered himself or herself to be. American Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut were three separate race categories in 1990; in 2000, the American Indian and Alaska Native categories were combined, with an option to write in a tribal affiliation. This write-in option was provided only for the American Indian category in 1990. There was a combined Asian and Pacific Islander race category in 1990, but the groups were separated into two categories in 2000.

The census question on ethnicity asks whether the respondent is of Hispanic origin, regardless of the race option(s) selected; thus, persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race. In the 2000 census, respondents were first asked, “Is this person Spanish/Hispanic/Latino?” and then given the following options: No, not Spanish/Hispanic/Latino; Yes, Puerto Rican; Yes, Mexican, Mexican American, Chicano; Yes, Cuban; and Yes, other Spanish/Hispanic/Latino (with space to print the specific group). In the 2010 census, respondents were asked “Is this person of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin?” The options given were No, not Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin; Yes, Mexican, Mexican Am., Chicano; Yes, Puerto Rican; Yes, Cuban; and Yes, another Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin—along with instructions to print “Argentinean, Colombian, Dominican, Nicaraguan, Salvadoran, Spaniard, and so on” in a specific box.

The 2000 and 2010 censuses each asked the respondent “What is this person’s race?” and allowed the respondent to select one or more options. The options provided were largely the same in both the 2000 and 2010 censuses: White; Black, African American, or Negro; American Indian or Alaska Native (with space to print the name of enrolled or principal tribe); Asian Indian; Japanese; Native Hawaiian; Chinese; Korean; Guamanian or Chamorro; Filipino; Vietnamese; Samoan; Other Asian; Other Pacific Islander; and Some other race. The last three options included space to print the specific race. Two significant differences between the 2000 and 2010 census questions on race were that no race examples were provided for the “Other Asian” and “Other Pacific Islander” responses in 2000, whereas the race examples of “Hmong, Laotian, Thai, Pakistani, Cambodian, and so on” and “Fijian, Tongan, and so on,” were provided
for the “Other Asian” and “Other Pacific Islander” responses, respectively, in 2010.

The census population estimates program modified the enumerated population from the 2010 census to produce the population estimates base for 2010 and onward. As part of the modification, the Census Bureau recoded the “Some other race” responses from the 2010 census to one or more of the five OMB race categories used in the estimates program (for more information, see http://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/popest/technical-documentation/methodology.html).

Further information on the decennial census may be obtained from http://www.census.gov.

**Department of Justice**

**Bureau of Justice Statistics**

A division of the U.S. Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs, the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) collects, analyzes, publishes, and disseminates statistical information on crime, criminal offenders, victims of crime, and the operations of the justice system at all levels of government and internationally. It also provides technical and financial support to state governments for development of criminal justice statistics and information systems on crime and justice.

For information on the BJS, see https://www.bjs.gov/.

**National Crime Victimization Survey**

The National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS), administered for the U.S. Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) by the U.S. Census Bureau, is the nation’s primary source of information on crime and the victims of crime. Initiated in 1972 and redesigned in 1992 and 2016, the NCVS collects detailed information on the frequency and nature of the crimes of rape, sexual assault, robbery, aggravated and simple assault, theft, household burglary, and motor vehicle theft experienced by Americans and American households each year. The survey measures both crimes reported to the police and crimes not reported to the police.

NCVS estimates presented may differ from those in previous published reports. This is because a small number of victimizations, referred to as series victimizations, are included using a new counting strategy. High-frequency repeat victimizations, or series victimizations, are six or more similar but separate victimizations that occur with such frequency that the victim is unable to recall each individual event or describe each event in detail. As part of ongoing research efforts associated with the redesign of the NCVS, BJS investigated ways to include high-frequency repeat victimizations, or series victimizations, in estimates of criminal victimization. Including series victimizations results in more accurate estimates of victimization. BJS has decided to include series victimizations using the victim’s estimates of the number of times the victimizations occurred over the past 6 months, capping the number of victimizations within each series at a maximum of 10. This strategy for counting series victimizations balances the desire to estimate national rates and account for the experiences of persons who have been subjected to repeat victimizations against the desire to minimize the estimation errors that can occur when repeat victimizations are reported. Including series victimizations in national rates results in rather large increases in the level of violent victimization; however, trends in violence are generally similar regardless of whether series victimizations are included. For more information on the new counting strategy and supporting research, see Methods for Counting High-Frequency Repeat Victimization in the National Crime Victimization Survey at https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/mchfry.pdf.

Readers should note that in 2003, in accordance with changes to the Office of Management and Budget’s standards for the classification of federal data on race and ethnicity, the NCVS item on race/ethnicity was modified. A question on Hispanic origin is now followed by a new question on race. The new question about race allows the respondent to choose more than one race and delineates Asian as a separate category from Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. An analysis conducted by the Demographic Surveys Division at the U.S. Census Bureau showed that the new race question had very little impact on the aggregate racial distribution of the NCVS respondents, with one exception: There was a 1.6 percentage point decrease in the percentage of respondents who reported themselves as White. Due to changes in race/ethnicity categories, comparisons of race/ethnicity across years should be made with caution.

There were changes in the sample design and survey methodology in the 2006 NCVS that may have affected survey estimates. Caution should be used when comparing the 2006 estimates to estimates of other years. Data from 2007 onward are comparable to earlier years. Analyses of the 2007 estimates indicate that the program changes made in 2006 had relatively small effects on NCVS estimates. For more information on the 2006 NCVS data, see Criminal Victimization, 2006, at https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv06.pdf; the NCVS 2006 technical notes, at https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv06tn.pdf; and Criminal Victimization, 2007, at https://www.bjs.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv07.pdf.

The NCVS sample was redesigned in 2016 in order to account for changes in the U.S. population identified through the 2010 Decennial Census and to make it possible to produce state- and local-level victimization estimates for the largest 22 states and specific metropolitan areas within those states. Because of this redesign, 2016 victimization data are not comparable to data from 2015.

The number of NCVS-eligible households in the sample in 2016 was about 134,690. Households were selected using a stratified, multistage cluster design. In the first stage, the primary sampling units (PSUs), consisting of counties or groups of counties, were selected. In the second stage, smaller areas, called Enumeration Districts (EDs), were selected from each sampled PSU. Finally, from selected EDs, clusters of four households, called segments, were selected for interview. At each stage, the selection was done proportionate to population size in order to create a self-weighting sample. The final sample was augmented to account for households constructed after the decennial census. Within each sampled household, the U.S. Census Bureau interviewer attempts to interview all household members age 12 and over to determine whether they had been victimized by the measured crimes during the 6 months preceding the interview.

The first NCVS interview with a housing unit is conducted in person. Subsequent interviews are conducted by telephone, if possible. Households remain in the sample for 3 years and are interviewed seven times at 6-month intervals. Since the survey’s inception, the initial interview at each sample unit has been used only for the effects of bounding and have been included in the survey estimates. After a household has been interviewed its seventh time, it is replaced by a new sample household. In 2016, the household response rate was about 78 percent and the completion rate for persons within households was about 84 percent. Weights were developed to permit estimates of crimes uncovered in these subsequent interviews. Beginning in 2006, data from the initial interview have been adjusted to account for the effects of bounding and have been included in the survey estimates. After a household has been interviewed its seventh time, it is replaced by a new sample household. In 2016, the household response rate was about 78 percent and the completion rate for persons within households was about 84 percent. Weights were developed to permit estimates for the total U.S. population 12 years and older.

Further information on the NCVS may be obtained from

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School Crime Supplement

Created as a supplement to the NCVS and co-designed by the National Center for Education Statistics and Bureau of Justice Statistics, the School Crime Supplement (SCS) survey has been conducted in 1989, 1995, and biennially since 1999 to collect additional information about school-related victimizations on a national level. The SCS was designed to assist policymakers, as well as academic researchers and practitioners at federal, state, and local levels, to make informed decisions concerning crime in schools. The survey asks students a number of key questions about their experiences with and perceptions of crime and violence that occurred inside their school, on school grounds, on the school bus, or on the way to or from school. Students are asked additional questions about security measures used by their school, students’ participation in after-school activities, students’ perceptions of school rules, the presence of weapons and gangs in school, the presence of hate-related words and graffiti in school, student reports of bullying and reports of rejection at school, and the availability of drugs and alcohol in school. Students are also asked attitudinal questions relating to fear of victimization and avoidance behavior at school.

The SCS survey was conducted for a 6-month period from January through June in all households selected for the NCVS (see discussion above for information about the NCVS sampling design and changes to the race/ethnicity variable beginning in 2003). Within these households, the eligible respondents for the SCS were those household members who had attended school at any time during the 6 months preceding the interview, were enrolled in grades 6–12, and were not home schooled. In 2007, the questionnaire was changed and household members who attended school sometime during the school year of the interview were included. The age range of students covered in this report is 12–18 years of age. Eligible respondents were asked the supplemental questions in the SCS only after completing their entire NCVS interview. It should be noted that the first or unbounded NCVS interview has always been included in analysis of the SCS data and may result in the reporting of events outside of the requested reference period.

The prevalence of victimization for 1995, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, and 2015 was calculated by using NCVS incident variables appended to the SCS data files of the same year. The NCVS type of crime variable was used to classify victimizations of students in the SCS as serious violent, violent, or theft. The NCVS variables asking where the incident happened (at school) and what the victim was doing when it happened (attending school or on the way to or from school) were used to ascertain whether the incident happened at school. Only incidents that occurred inside the United States are included.

In 2001, the SCS survey instrument was modified from previous collections. First, in 1995 and 1999, “at school” was defined for respondents as in the school building, on the school grounds, or on a school bus. In 2001, the definition for “at school” was changed to mean in the school building, on school property, on a school bus, or going to and from school. This change was made to the 2001 questionnaire in order to be consistent with
the definition of “at school” as it is constructed in the NCVS and was also used as the definition in subsequent SCS collections. Cognitive interviews conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau on the 1999 SCS suggested that modifications to the definition of “at school” would not have a substantial impact on the estimates.

In terms of the numbers of students participating in the SCS, 6,300 participated in 2005, 6,500 participated in 2007, 5,000 participated in 2009, 6,500 in 2011, 5,700 in 2013, and 4,700 in 2015.

In the 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, and 2015 SCS, the household completion rates were 91 percent, 90 percent, 92 percent, 91 percent, 86 percent, and 85 percent, respectively, and the student completion rates were 62 percent, 58 percent, 56 percent, 63 percent, 60 percent, and 58 percent, respectively. The overall SCS unit response rates (calculated by multiplying the household completion rate by the student completion rate) were about 56 percent in 2005, 53 percent in 2007, 51 percent in 2009, 57 percent in 2011, 51 percent in 2013, and 48 percent in 2015. (Starting in 2011, overall SCS unit response rates are weighted.)

There are two types of nonresponse: unit and item nonresponse. NCES requires that any stage of data collection within a survey that has a unit base-weighted response rate of less than 85 percent be evaluated for the potential magnitude of unit nonresponse bias before the data or any analysis using the data may be released (NCES Statistical Standards, 2002, at https://nces.ed.gov/statprog/2002/std4_4.asp). Due to the low unit response rate in 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, and 2015, a unit nonresponse bias analysis was done. Unit response rates indicate how many sampled units have completed interviews. Because interviews with students could only be completed after households had responded to the NCVS, the unit completion rate for the SCS reflects both the household interview completion rate and the student interview completion rate. Nonresponse can greatly affect the strength and application of survey data by leading to an increase in variance as a result of a reduction in the actual size of the sample and can produce bias if the nonrespondents have characteristics of interest that are different from the respondents.

In order for response bias to occur, respondents must have different response rates and responses to particular survey variables. The magnitude of unit nonresponse bias is determined by the response rate and the differences between respondents and nonrespondents on key survey variables. Although the bias analysis cannot measure response bias since the SCS is a sample survey and it is not known how the population would have responded, the SCS sampling frame has four key student or school characteristic variables for which data are known for respondents and nonrespondents—sex, race/ethnicity, household income, and urbanicity—all of which are associated with student victimization. To the extent that there are differential responses by respondents in these groups, nonresponse bias is a concern.

In 2005, the analysis of unit nonresponse bias found evidence of bias for the race, household income, and urbanicity variables. White (non-Hispanic) and Other (non-Hispanic) respondents had higher response rates than Black (non-Hispanic) and Hispanic respondents. Respondents from households with an income of $35,000–$49,999 and $50,000 or more had higher response rates than those from households with incomes of less than $7,500, $7,500–$14,999, $15,000–$24,999, and $25,000–$34,999. Respondents who live in urban areas had lower response rates than those who live in rural or suburban areas. Although the extent of nonresponse bias cannot be determined, weighting adjustments, which corrected for differential response rates, should have reduced the problem.

In 2007, the analysis of unit nonresponse bias found evidence of bias by the race/ethnicity and household income variables. Hispanic respondents had lower response rates than other races/ethnicities. Respondents from households with an income of $25,000 or more had higher response rates than those from households with incomes of less than $25,000. However, when responding students are compared to the eligible NCVS sample, there were no measurable differences between the responding students and the eligible students, suggesting that the nonresponse bias has little impact on the overall estimates.

In 2009, the analysis of unit nonresponse bias found evidence of potential bias for the race/ethnicity and urbanicity variables. White students and students of other races/ethnicities had higher response rates than did Black and Hispanic respondents. Respondents from households located in rural areas had higher response rates than those from households located in urban areas. However, when responding students are compared to the eligible NCVS sample, there were no measurable differences between the responding students and the eligible students, suggesting that the nonresponse bias has little impact on the overall estimates.

In 2011, the analysis of unit nonresponse bias found evidence of potential bias for the age variable. Respondents 12 to 17 years old had higher response rates than did 18-year-old respondents in the NCVS and SCS interviews. Weighting the data adjusts for unequal selection probabilities and for the effects of nonresponse. The weighting adjustments that correct for differential response rates are created by region, age, race, and sex, and should have reduced the effect of nonresponse.
In 2013, the analysis of unit nonresponse bias found evidence of potential bias for the age variable in the SCS respondent sample. Students age 14 and those from the western region showed percentage bias exceeding 5 percent; however, both subgroups had the highest response rate out of their respective categories. All other subgroups evaluated showed less than 1 percent nonresponse bias and had between 0.3 and 2.6 percent difference between the response population and the eligible population.

In the 2015 SCS, evidence of potential nonresponse bias was found in the race, urbanicity, region, and age subgroups. In addition, respondents in the age 14 and rural subgroups had significantly higher nonresponse bias estimates compared to other age and urbanicity subgroups, while respondents who were Asian and respondents who were from the Northeast had significantly lower response bias estimates compared to other race and region subgroups. Thus, the analysis indicates that there are significant nonresponse biases in the 2015 SCS data and that caution should be used when comparing responses among subgroups in the SCS.

For most survey items in most years of the SCS survey, however, response rates have been high—typically over 97 percent of all eligible respondents, meaning there is little potential for item nonresponse bias for most items in the survey. Weights have been developed to compensate for differential probabilities of selection and nonresponse. The weighted data permit inferences about the eligible student population who were enrolled in schools in all SCS data years.

Further information about the SCS may be obtained from Rachel Hansen
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https://nces.ed.gov/programs/crime
Appendix B. Glossary

A

Achievement gap See Gap.

Advanced Placement (AP) A program of tertiary-level courses and examinations, taught by specially qualified teachers, that provides opportunities for secondary school students to earn undergraduate credits for university courses. The schools and teachers offering AP programs must meet College Board requirements and are monitored by the College Board.

Associate’s degree A degree granted for the successful completion of a sub-baccalaureate program of studies, usually requiring at least 2 years (or equivalent) of full-time college-level study. This includes degrees granted in a cooperative or work-study program.

B

Bachelor’s degree A degree granted for the successful completion of a baccalaureate program of studies, usually requiring at least 4 years (or equivalent) of full-time college-level study. This includes degrees granted in a cooperative or work-study program.

Career and technical education (CTE) In high school, encompasses occupational education, which teaches skills required in specific occupations or occupational clusters, as well as nonoccupational CTE, which includes family and consumer sciences education (i.e., courses that prepare students for roles outside the paid labor market) and general labor market preparation (i.e., courses that teach general employment skills such as word processing and introductory technology skills).

Certificate A formal award certifying the satisfactory completion of a postsecondary education program. Certificates can be awarded at any level of postsecondary education and include awards below the associate’s degree level.

Charter school See Public charter school.

Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP) The CIP is a taxonomic coding scheme that contains titles and descriptions of primarily postsecondary instructional programs. It was developed to facilitate NCES’ collection and reporting of postsecondary degree completions by major field of study using standard classifications that capture the majority of reportable program activity. It was originally published in 1980 and was revised in 1985, 1990, 2000, and 2010.

College A postsecondary school that offers general or liberal arts education, usually leading to an associate’s, bachelor’s, master’s, or doctor’s degree. Junior colleges and community colleges are included under this terminology.

Constant dollars Dollar amounts that have been adjusted by means of price and cost indexes to eliminate inflationary factors and allow direct comparison across years.

Consumer Price Index (CPI) This price index measures the average change in the cost of a fixed market basket of goods and services purchased by consumers. Indexes vary for specific areas or regions, periods of time, major groups of consumer expenditures, and population groups. The CPI reflects spending patterns for two population groups: (1) all urban consumers and urban wage earners and (2) clerical workers. CPIs are calculated for both the calendar year and the school year using the U.S. All Items CPI for All Urban Consumers (CPI-U). The calendar year CPI is the same as the annual CPI-U. The school year CPI is calculated by adding the monthly CPI-U figures, beginning with July of the first year and ending with June of the following year, and then dividing that figure by 12.

D

Degree-granting institutions Postsecondary institutions that are eligible for Title IV federal financial aid programs and grant an associate’s or higher degree. For an institution to be eligible to participate in Title IV financial aid programs it must offer a program of at least 300 clock hours in length, have accreditation recognized by the U.S. Department of Education, have been in business for at least 2 years, and have signed a participation agreement with the Department.

Disabilities, children with Those children evaluated as having any of the following impairments and who, by reason thereof, receive special education and related services under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) according to an Individualized Education Program (IEP), Individualized Family Service Plan (IFSP), or a services plan. There are local variations in the determination of disability conditions, and not all states use all reporting categories.

Autism Having a developmental disability significantly affecting verbal and nonverbal communication and social interaction, generally evident before age 3, that adversely affects
educational performance. Other characteristics often associated with autism are engagement in repetitive activities and stereotyped movements, resistance to environmental change or change in daily routines, and unusual responses to sensory experiences. A child is not considered autistic if the child’s educational performance is adversely affected primarily because of an emotional disturbance.

**Deaf-blindness** Having concomitant hearing and visual impairments which cause such severe communication and other developmental and educational problems that the student cannot be accommodated in special education programs solely for deaf or blind students.

**Developmental delay** Having developmental delays, as defined at the state level, and as measured by appropriate diagnostic instruments and procedures in one or more of the following cognitive areas: physical development, cognitive development, communication development, social or emotional development, or adaptive development. Applies only to 3- through 9-year-old children.

**Emotional disturbance** Exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time, to a marked degree, and adversely affecting educational performance: an inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors; an inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers; inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances; a general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; or a tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or social problems. This term does not include children who are socially maladjusted, unless they also display one or more of the listed characteristics.

**Hearing impairment** Having a hearing impairment, whether permanent or fluctuating, which adversely affects the student’s educational performance, but which is not included under the definition of “deaf” in this section.

**Intellectual disability** Having significantly subaverage general intellectual functioning, existing concurrently with defects in adaptive behavior and manifested during the developmental period, which adversely affects the child’s educational performance.

**Multiple disabilities** Having concomitant impairments (such as intellectually disabled-blind, intellectually disabled-orthopedically impaired, etc.), the combination of which causes such severe educational problems that the student cannot be accommodated in special education programs solely for one of the impairments. Term does not include deaf-blind students.

**Orthopedic impairment** Having a severe orthopedic impairment which adversely affects a student’s educational performance. The term includes impairment resulting from congenital anomaly, disease, or other causes.

**Other health impairment** Having limited strength, vitality, or alertness due to chronic or acute health problems, such as a heart condition, tuberculosis, rheumatic fever, nephritis, asthma, sickle cell anemia, hemophilia, epilepsy, lead poisoning, leukemia, or diabetes which adversely affect the student’s educational performance.

**Specific learning disability** Having a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using spoken or written language, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, motor, or intellectual disabilities, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

**Speech or language impairment** Having a communication disorder, such as stuttering, impaired articulation, language impairment, or voice impairment, which adversely affects the student’s educational performance.

**Traumatic brain injury** Having an acquired injury to the brain caused by an external physical force, resulting in total or partial functional disability or psychosocial impairment or both, that adversely affects the student’s educational performance. The term applies to open or closed head injuries resulting in impairments in one or more areas, such as cognition; language; memory; attention; reasoning; abstract thinking; judgment; problem-solving; sensory, perceptual, and motor abilities; psychosocial behavior; physical functions; information processing; and speech. The term does not apply to brain injuries that are congenital or degenerative or to brain injuries induced by birth trauma.

**Visual impairment** Having a visual impairment which, even with correction, adversely affects the student’s educational performance. The term includes partially seeing and blind children.

**Doctor’s degree** The highest award a student can earn for graduate study. Includes such degrees as the Doctor of Education (Ed.D.); the Doctor of Juridical Science (S.J.D.); the Doctor of Public Health (Dr.P.H.); and the Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) in any field, such as agronomy, food technology, education, engineering, public administration, ophthalmology, or radiology.
choosing one of the following categories:

- High school graduate, high school diploma, or the equivalent (e.g., GED)
- Some college but no degree
- Associate's degree in college, occupational/ vocational program
- Associate's degree in college, academic program (e.g., A.A., A.S., A.A.S.)
- Bachelor's degree (e.g., B.A., A.B., B.S.)
- Master's degree (e.g., M.A., M.S., M.Eng., M.Ed., M.S.W., M.B.A.)
- Professional school degree (e.g., M.D., D.D.S., D.V.M., LL.B., J.D.)
- Doctor's degree (e.g., Ph.D., Ed.D.)

Elementary school A school classified as elementary by state and local practice and composed of any span of grades not above grade 8.

Employment status A classification of individuals as employed (either full or part time), unemployed (looking for work or on layoff), or not in the labor force (due to being retired, having unpaid employment, or some other reason).

English language learner (ELL) An individual who, due to any of the reasons listed below, has sufficient difficulty speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language to be denied the opportunity to learn successfully in classrooms where the language of instruction is English or to participate fully in the larger U.S. society. Such an individual (1) was not born in the United States or has a native language other than English; (2) comes from environments where a language other than English is dominant; or (3) is an American Indian or Alaska Native and comes from environments where a language other than English has had a significant impact on the individual's level of English language proficiency.

Enrollment The total number of students registered in a given school unit at a given time, generally in the fall of a year. At the postsecondary level, separate counts are also available for full-time and part-time students, as well as full-time-equivalent enrollment. See also Full-time enrollment and Part-time enrollment.

Expulsion Removing a student from his or her regular school for an extended length of time or permanently for disciplinary purposes.

Fields of study The primary field of concentration in postsecondary certificates and degrees. In the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), refers to degree programs that are broken out only to the 2-digit level of the Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP).

Financial aid Grants, loans, assistantships, scholarships, fellowships, tuition waivers, tuition discounts, veteran's benefits, employer aid (tuition reimbursement), and other monies (other than from relatives or friends) provided to students to help them meet expenses. Except where designated, includes Title IV subsidized and unsubsidized loans made directly to students.

First-time student (undergraduate) A student who has no prior postsecondary experience (except as noted below) attending any institution for the first time at the undergraduate level. Includes students enrolled in the fall term who attended college for the first time in the prior summer term, and students who entered with advanced standing (college credits earned before graduation from high school).

For-profit institution See Private institution.

Full-time enrollment The number of students enrolled in postsecondary education courses with total credit load equal to at least 75 percent of the normal full-time course load. At the undergraduate level, full-time enrollment typically includes students who have a credit load of 12 or more semester or quarter credits. At the postbaccalaureate level, full-time enrollment includes students who typically have a credit load of 9 or more semester or quarter credits, as well as other students who are considered full time by their institutions.
Gap Occurs when an outcome—for example, average test score or level of educational attainment—is higher for one group than for another group, and the difference between the two groups’ outcomes is statistically significant.

GED certificate This award is received following successful completion of the GED test. The GED program—sponsored by the GED Testing Service (a joint venture of the American Council on Education and Pearson)—enables individuals to demonstrate that they have acquired a level of learning comparable to that of high school graduates. See also High school equivalency certificate.

Geographic region One of the four regions of the United States used by the U.S. Census Bureau, as follows:

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Graduate An individual who has received formal recognition for the successful completion of a prescribed program of studies.

Group quarters Living arrangements where people live or stay in a group situation that is owned or managed by an entity or organization providing housing and/or services for the residents. Group quarters include such places as college residence halls, residential treatment centers, skilled nursing facilities, group homes, military barracks, correctional facilities, and workers’ dormitories.

Noninstitutionalized group quarters Include college and university housing, military quarters, facilities for workers and religious groups, and temporary shelters for the homeless.

Institutionalized group quarters Include adult and juvenile correctional facilities, nursing facilities, and other health care facilities.

High school completer An individual who has been awarded a high school diploma or an equivalent credential, including a GED certificate.

High school diploma A formal document regulated by the state certifying the successful completion of a prescribed secondary school program of studies. In some states or communities, high school diplomas are differentiated by type, such as an academic diploma, a general diploma, or a vocational diploma.

High school equivalency certificate A formal document certifying that an individual has met the state requirements for high school graduation equivalency by obtaining satisfactory scores on an approved examination and meeting other performance requirements (if any) set by a state education agency or other appropriate body. One particular version of this certificate is the GED test. The GED test is a comprehensive test used primarily to appraise the educational development of students who have not completed their formal high school education and who may earn a high school equivalency certificate by achieving satisfactory scores. GEDs are awarded by the states or other agencies, and the test is developed and distributed by the GED Testing Service (a joint venture of the American Council on Education and Pearson).

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) IDEA is a federal law enacted in 1990 and reauthorized in 1997 and 2004. IDEA requires services to children with disabilities throughout the nation. IDEA governs how states and public agencies provide early intervention, special education, and related services to eligible infants, toddlers, children, and youth with disabilities. Infants and toddlers with disabilities (birth–age 2) and their families receive early intervention services under IDEA, Part C. Children and youth (ages 3–21) receive special education and related services under IDEA, Part B.

International Baccalaureate (IB) A recognized international program of primary, middle, and secondary studies leading to the International Baccalaureate (IB) Diploma. This diploma (or certificate) is recognized in Europe and elsewhere as qualifying holders for direct access to university studies. Schools offering the IB program are approved by the International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO) and their regional office and may use IBO instructional materials, local school materials, or a combination.
Labor force  People employed (either full time or part time) as civilians, unemployed but looking for work, or in the armed services during the survey week. The “civilian labor force” comprises all civilians classified as employed or unemployed.

Master’s degree  A degree awarded for successful completion of a program generally requiring 1 or 2 years of full-time college-level study beyond the bachelor’s degree. One type of master’s degree, including the Master of Arts degree, or M.A., and the Master of Science degree, or M.S., is awarded in the liberal arts and sciences for advanced scholarship in a subject field or discipline and demonstrated ability to perform scholarly research. A second type of master’s degree is awarded for the completion of a professionally oriented program, for example, an M.Ed. in education, an M.B.A. in business administration, an M.F.A. in fine arts, an M.M. in music, an M.S.W. in social work, and an M.P.A. in public administration. Some master's degrees—such as divinity degrees (M.Div. or M.H.L./Rav), which were formerly classified as “first-professional”—may require more than 2 years of full-time study beyond the bachelor’s degree.

Median earnings  The amount which divides the income distribution into two equal groups, half having income above that amount and half having income below that amount. Earnings include all wage and salary income. Unlike mean earnings, median earnings either do not change or change very little in response to extreme observations.

Nonprofit institution  See Private institution.

Nursery school  An instructional program for groups of children during the year or years preceding kindergarten that provides educational experiences under the direction of teachers.

Part-time enrollment  The number of students enrolled in postsecondary education courses with a total credit load less than 75 percent of the normal full-time credit load. At the undergraduate level, part-time enrollment typically includes students who have a credit load of less than 12 semester or quarter credits. At the postbaccalaureate level, part-time enrollment typically includes students who have a credit load of less than 9 semester or quarter credits.

Postbaccalaureate enrollment  The number of students working towards advanced degrees and of students enrolled in graduate-level classes but not enrolled in degree programs.

Postsecondary education  The provision of formal instructional programs with a curriculum designed primarily for students who have completed the requirements for a high school diploma or equivalent. This includes programs of an academic, vocational, and continuing professional education purpose, and excludes avocational and adult basic education programs.

Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level)

4-year institution  An institution offering at least a 4-year program of college-level studies wholly or principally creditable toward a baccalaureate degree.

2-year institution  An institution offering at least a 2-year program of college-level studies which terminates in an associate degree or is principally creditable toward a baccalaureate degree. Data prior to 1996 include some institutions that have a less-than-2-year program, but were designated as institutions of higher education in the Higher Education General Information Survey.

Less-than-2-year  An institution that offers programs of less than 2 years’ duration below the baccalaureate level. Includes occupational and vocational schools with programs that do not exceed 1,800 contact hours.

Poverty (official measure)  The U.S. Census Bureau uses a set of money income thresholds that vary by family size and composition. A family, along with each individual in it, is considered poor if the family’s total income is less than that family’s threshold. The poverty thresholds do not vary geographically and are adjusted annually for inflation using the Consumer Price Index. The official poverty definition counts money income before taxes and does not include capital gains and noncash benefits (such as public housing, Medicaid, and food stamps). See also Supplemental Poverty Measure (SPM).

Prekindergarten  Preprimary education for children typically ages 3–4 who have not yet entered kindergarten. It may offer a program of general education or special education and may be part of a collaborative effort with Head Start.

Preschool  An instructional program enrolling children generally younger than 5 years of age and organized to provide children with educational experiences under professionally qualified teachers during the year or years immediately preceding kindergarten (or prior to entry into elementary school when there is no kindergarten). See also Nursery school and Prekindergarten.
**Private institution** An institution that is controlled by an individual or agency other than a state, a subdivision of a state, or the federal government, which is usually supported primarily by other than public funds, and the operation of whose program rests with other than publicly elected or appointed officials.

**Private nonprofit institution** An institution in which the individual(s) or agency in control receives no compensation other than wages, rent, or other expenses for the assumption of risk. These include both independent nonprofit institutions and those affiliated with a religious organization.

**Private for-profit institution** An institution in which the individual(s) or agency in control receives compensation other than wages, rent, or other expenses for the assumption of risk (e.g., proprietary schools).

**Private school** Private elementary/secondary schools surveyed by the Private School Universe Survey (PSS) are assigned to one of three major categories (Catholic, other religious, or nonsectarian) and, within each major category, one of three subcategories based on the school’s religious affiliation provided by respondents.

**Catholic** Schools categorized according to governance, provided by Catholic school respondents, into parochial, diocesan, and private schools.

**Other religious** Schools that have a religious orientation or purpose but are not Roman Catholic. Other religious schools are categorized according to religious association membership, provided by respondents, into Conservative Christian, other affiliated, and unaffiliated schools. Conservative Christian schools are those “Other religious” schools with membership in at least one of four associations: Accelerated Christian Education, American Association of Christian Schools, Association of Christian Schools International, and Oral Roberts University Education Fellowship. Affiliated schools are those “Other religious” schools not classified as Conservative Christian with membership in at least 1 of 11 associations—Association of Christian Teachers and Schools, Christian Schools International, Evangelical Lutheran Education Association, Friends Council on Education, General Conference of the Seventh-Day Adventist Church, Islamic School League of America, National Association of Episcopal Schools, National Christian School Association, National Society for Hebrew Day Schools, Solomon Schechter Day Schools, and Southern Baptist Association of Christian Schools—or indicating membership in “other religious school associations.” Unaffiliated schools are those “Other religious” schools that have a religious orientation or purpose but are not classified as Conservative Christian or affiliated.

**Nonsectarian** Schools that do not have a religious orientation or purpose and are categorized according to program emphasis, provided by respondents, into regular, special emphasis, and special education schools. Regular schools are those that have a regular elementary/secondary or early childhood program emphasis. Special emphasis schools are those that have a Montessori, vocational/technical, alternative, or special program emphasis. Special education schools are those that have a special education program emphasis.

**Public charter school** A school providing free public elementary and/or secondary education to eligible students under a specific charter granted by the state legislature or other appropriate authority, and designated by such authority to be a charter school.

**Public school or institution** A school or institution controlled and operated by publicly elected or appointed officials and deriving its primary support from public funds.

**R**

**Racial/ethnic group** Classification indicating general racial or ethnic heritage. Race/ethnicity data are based on the Hispanic ethnic category and the race categories listed below (five single-race categories, plus the Two or more races category). Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity unless otherwise noted.

**White** A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa.

**Black or African American** A person having origins in any of the black racial groups of Africa. Used interchangeably with the shortened term *Black*.

**Hispanic or Latino** A person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race. Used interchangeably with the shortened term *Hispanic*.

**Asian** A person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent, including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam. Prior to 2010–11, the Common Core of Data (CCD) combined Asian and Pacific Islander categories.

**Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander** A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands. Prior to 2010–11, the Common Core of Data (CCD) combined Asian and Pacific Islander categories. Used interchangeably with the shortened term *Pacific Islander*.

**American Indian or Alaska Native** A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America), and who maintains tribal affiliation or community attachment.
Two or more races  A person identifying himself or herself as of two or more of the following race groups: White, Black, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, or American Indian or Alaska Native. Some, but not all, reporting districts use this category. “Two or more races” was introduced in the 2000 Census and became a regular category for data collection in the Current Population Survey (CPS) in 2003. The category is sometimes excluded from a historical series of data with constant categories. It is sometimes included within the category “Other.”

Retention in grade  Retaining a student in the same grade from one school year to the next.

S

Secondary school  A school comprising any span of grades beginning with the next grade following an elementary or middle school (usually 7, 8, or 9) and ending with or below grade 12. Both junior high schools and senior high schools are included.

Status dropout rate (American Community Survey)  Similar to the status dropout rate (Current Population Survey), except that institutionalized persons, incarcerated persons, and active duty military personnel living in barracks in the United States may be included in this calculation.

Status dropout rate (Current Population Survey)  The percentage of civilian, noninstitutionalized young people ages 16–24 who are not in school and have not earned a high school credential (either a diploma or equivalency credential such as a GED certificate). The numerator of the status dropout rate for a given year is the number of individuals ages 16–24 who, as of October of that year, have not completed a high school credential and are not currently enrolled in school. The denominator is the total number of individuals ages 16–24 in the United States in October of that year. Status dropout rates also count the following individuals as dropouts: those who never attended school and immigrants who did not complete the equivalent of a high school education in their home country.

STEM fields  Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) fields of study that are considered to be of particular relevance to advanced societies. For the purposes of Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups 2018, STEM fields include biological and biomedical sciences, computer and information sciences, engineering and engineering technologies, mathematics and statistics, and physical sciences and science technologies. STEM occupations include computer scientists and mathematicians; engineers and architects; life, physical, and social scientists; medical professionals; and managers of STEM activities.

Supplemental Poverty Measure (SPM)  An alternative measure of poverty that supplements the U.S. Census Bureau’s official poverty measure by adding to family income the value of benefits—including nutritional assistance, housing subsidies, and home energy assistance—from many government programs designed to assist those with low incomes, subtracting taxes and necessary expenses such as child care costs (for working families) and out-of-pocket medical expenses, and adjusting poverty thresholds for geographic differences in housing costs. See also Poverty (official measure).

Suspension  Temporarily removing a student from his or her regular classroom (an in-school suspension) or from his or her regular school (an out-of-school suspension) generally for disciplinary purposes.

T

Traditional public school  Publicly funded schools other than public charter schools. See also Public school or institution and Charter school.

Transcript  An official list of all courses taken by a student at a school or college showing the final grade received for each course, with definitions of the various grades given at the institution.

U

Undergraduate students  Students registered at an institution of postsecondary education who are working in a baccalaureate degree program or other formal program below the baccalaureate, such as an associate’s degree, vocational, or technical program.
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