



# The Condition of Education 2017



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**Joel McFarland**

**Bill Hussar**

**Cristobal de Brey**

**Tom Snyder**

National Center for Education Statistics

**Xiaolei Wang**

**Sidney Wilkinson-Flicker**

**Semhar Gebrekristos**

**Jijun Zhang**

**Amy Rathbun**

American Institutes for Research

**Amy Barmer**

**Farah Bullock Mann**

**Serena Hinz**

RTI International

**Thomas Nachazel**

*Senior Editor*

**Wyatt Smith**

**Mark Ossolinski**

*Editors*

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Peggy G. Carr  
*Acting Commissioner*

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Potomac Center Plaza  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202

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**Content Contact**

Joel McFarland  
(202) 245-6637  
[Joel.McFarland@ed.gov](mailto:Joel.McFarland@ed.gov)

# *A Letter From the* **Commissioner of the National Center for Education Statistics**

May 2017

On behalf of the National Center for Education Statistics, I am pleased to present *The Condition of Education 2017*, a congressionally mandated annual report summarizing the latest data on education in the United States. This report is designed to help policymakers and the public monitor educational progress. This year's report includes 50 indicators on topics ranging from prekindergarten through postsecondary education, as well as labor force outcomes and international comparisons.

*The Condition* includes an [At a Glance](#) section, which allows readers to quickly make comparisons within and across indicators, and a [Highlights](#) section, which captures a key finding or set of findings from each indicator. The report contains a [Reader's Guide](#), a [Glossary](#), and a [Guide to Data Sources](#) that provide additional information to help place the indicators in context. In addition, each indicator references the data tables that were used to produce the indicator, most of which are in the *Digest of Education Statistics*.

In addition to the regularly updated annual indicators, this year's report highlights innovative data collections and analyses from across the Center:

- The first spotlight indicator examines the relationship between student risk factors at kindergarten entry (poverty and low parent educational attainment) and academic achievement in early elementary school. Drawing on data from the Center's Early Childhood Longitudinal Study (ECLS-K:2011), the indicator finds that both risk factors are [associated](#) with lower academic achievement in reading, mathematics, and science in kindergarten through grade 3.
- The second spotlight indicator draws on administrative data from the Center's *EDFacts* data collection and finds that 2.5 percent of students in U.S. public elementary and secondary schools were reported as [homeless](#) in 2014–15. The percentage of students reported as homeless ranged from 2.0 percent in suburban school districts to 2.4 percent in rural districts, 2.6 percent in town districts, and 3.7 percent in city districts.
- The third spotlight indicator draws on longitudinal data from the Beginning Postsecondary Students Study to examine the rates at which first-time college students [persist](#) toward completion of a degree or certificate. Among first-time college students in 2011–12, the percentage of students who were still enrolled or had graduated after 3 years was higher for students who began at 4-year institutions (80 percent) than for those who began at 2-year institutions (57 percent).
- The fourth spotlight indicator examines how [disability](#) rates for U.S. adults vary by educational attainment, finding that 16 percent of 25- to 64-year-olds who had not completed high school had one or more disabilities in 2015, compared to 4 percent of those who had completed a bachelor's degree and 3 percent of those who had completed a master's or higher degree. Differences in the employment and not-in-labor-force percentages between persons with and without disabilities are substantial, amounting to about 50 percentage points each. Among those who had obtained higher levels of education, the differences were smaller.

## A Letter From the Commissioner

- In addition, two indicators provide insights from the Center’s recent work on technology in education. The first previews key findings from the Center’s upcoming report, *Student Access to Digital Learning Resources Outside of the Classroom*. For example, the percentage of students who use the Internet at home varied by parental education level in 2015, ranging from 42 percent for children whose parents had not completed high school to 71 percent for those whose parents had completed a bachelor’s or higher degree. The second presents findings from the National Assessment of Educational Progress’s 8th-grade Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) assessment. For example, in 2014 female students scored higher than male students on the TEL assessment.

As new data are released throughout the year, indicators will be updated and made available on the *Condition of Education* website. In addition, the Center produces a wide range of reports and datasets designed to help inform policymakers and the public. For more information on our latest activities and releases, please visit us online or follow us on [Twitter](#) and [Facebook](#).



Peggy G. Carr, Ph.D.  
Acting Commissioner  
National Center for Education Statistics

## Reader's Guide

*The Condition of Education* contains indicators on the state of education in the United States, from prekindergarten through postsecondary education, as well as labor force outcomes and international comparisons. This report is available on the [National Center for Education Statistics \(NCES\) website](#) as a full PDF, as individual indicator PDFs, and in HTML. In both the PDF and HTML versions, indicators are hyperlinked to tables in the *Digest of Education Statistics*. These tables contain the source data used in the most recent edition of the *Condition of Education*.

### 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 in *The Condition of Education* summarize data from surveys conducted by NCES or by the Census Bureau with support from NCES. Brief descriptions of the major NCES surveys used in these indicators can be found in the [Guide to Sources](#). More detailed descriptions can be obtained on the [NCES website](#) under “Surveys and Programs.”

The Guide to Sources also includes information on non-NCES sources used to develop indicators, such as the Census Bureau's American Community Survey (ACS) and Current Population Survey (CPS). For further details on the ACS, see <http://www.census.gov/acs/www/>. For further details on the CPS, see <http://www.census.gov/cps/>.

Data for *The Condition of Education* 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 universe surveys are 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. For more information, please see the section on standard errors below.

Various types of statistics derived from universe and sample surveys are reported in *The Condition of Education*. 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. Larger standard errors typically mean that the estimate is less accurate, while smaller standard errors typically indicate that the estimate is more accurate.

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 whether one estimate is different in comparison to another; about whether a time series of estimates is increasing, decreasing, or staying the same; or about whether two variables are associated. Although one estimate may appear to be larger than another, a statistical test may find that the apparent difference between them is not 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.

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

For all indicators that report estimates based on samples, differences between estimates (including increases and decreases) are stated only when they are statistically significant. To determine whether differences reported are statistically significant, most indicators use two-tailed *t* tests at the .05 level. The *t* test formula for determining statistical significance is adjusted when the samples being compared are dependent. The analyses are not adjusted for multiple comparisons, with the exception of indicators that use NAEP data. All analyses in the NAEP indicators are conducted using the [NAEP Data Explorer](#), which makes adjustments for comparisons involving a variable with more than two categories. The NAEP Data Explorer makes such adjustments using the Benjamini-Hochberg False Discovery Rate. When the variables to be tested are postulated to form a trend over time, the relationship may be tested using linear regression or ANOVA trend analyses instead of a series of *t* tests. Indicators that use other methods of statistical comparison include a separate technical notes section. For more information on data analysis, please see the NCES Statistical Standards, Standard 5-1, available at <http://nces.ed.gov/statprog/2012/pdf/Chapter5.pdf>.

Multivariate analyses, such as ordinary least squares (OLS) regression models, provide information on whether the relationship between an independent variable and an outcome measure (such as group differences in the outcome measure) persists, after taking into account other variables, such as student, family, and school characteristics. For COE indicators that include a regression analysis, multiple categorical or continuous independent variables are entered simultaneously. A significant regression coefficient indicates an association between the dependent (outcome) variable and the

independent variable, after controlling for other independent variables included in the regression model.

Data presented in the indicators typically do not investigate more complex hypotheses 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 <http://nces.ed.gov>.

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 is often also based on the need to show the earliest available survey year, as in the case of the NAEP and the international assessment surveys. In the case of surveys with long time frames, such as surveys measuring enrollment, a decade's beginning year (e.g., 1990 or 2000) 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 in this report 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, the graphical presentation of these data is based on the unrounded estimates.

## 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 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 ethnicity categories, at a minimum, Hispanic or Latino and Not Hispanic or Latino. 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 for ease of reference. 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; and Hispanic or Latino is shortened to Hispanic. Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander is shortened to Pacific Islander.

The indicators in this report draw from a number of different data 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. Asians and Pacific Islanders are combined into one category in indicators for which the data were not collected separately for the 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. In general, 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. In some surveys, respondents are not given the option to select more than one race. In these surveys, respondents of Two or more races must select a single race category. Any comparisons between data from surveys that give the option to select more than one race and surveys that do not offer such an option should take into account the fact that there is a potential for bias if members of one racial group are more likely than members of the others to identify themselves as “Two or more races.”<sup>1</sup> 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. Selected indicators include Hispanic ancestry subgroups (such as Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Dominican, Salvadoran, Other Central American, and South American) and Asian ancestry subgroups (such as Asian Indian, Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese). In addition, selected indicators include “Two or more races” subgroups (such as White and Black, White and Asian, and White and American Indian/Alaska Native).

For more information on the ACS, see the [Guide to Sources](#). For more information on race/ethnicity, see the [Glossary](#).

## 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

<sup>1</sup> See Parker, J., Schenker, N., Ingram, D.D., Weed, J.A., Heck, K.E., and Madans, J.H. (2004). Bridging Between Two Standards for Collecting Information on Race and Ethnicity: An Application to Census 2000 and Vital Rates. *Public Health Reports*, 119(2): 192-205. Retrieved April 25, 2017, from <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/003335490411900213>.

on these two populations often face small sample sizes that reduce the reliability of results. Survey data for American Indians/Alaska Natives often have somewhat higher standard errors than data for other racial/ethnic groups. Due to large standard errors, differences that seem substantial are often not statistically significant and, therefore, not cited in the text.

Data on American Indians/Alaska Natives are often subject to inconsistencies 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, 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 as being of mixed race or ethnicity.

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 *Digest of Education Statistics 2016* (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. This combined category for Asians/Pacific Islanders is more representative of Asians than Pacific Islanders.

## 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.

\*  $p < .05$  Significance level.

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# The Condition of Education 2017 At a Glance

More information is available at [nces.ed.gov/programs/coe](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe).

Population Characteristics			
<b>Educational Attainment of Young Adults</b>	<b>2015</b>	<b>2016</b>	<b>Change between years</b>
Percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds with selected levels of educational attainment			
High school completion or higher	91%	92%	
Associate's or higher degree	46%	46%	
Bachelor's or higher degree	36%	36%	
Master's or higher degree	9%	9%	
<hr/>			
<b>International Educational Attainment</b>	<b>2014</b>	<b>2015</b>	
Percentage of the population 25 to 34 years old who completed high school			
United States	90%	90%	
Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries	83%	84%	▲
Percentage of the population 25 to 34 years old who attained a postsecondary degree			
United States	46%	47%	
OECD countries	41%	42%	▲
<hr/>			
<b>Annual Earnings of Young Adults</b>	<b>2014</b>	<b>2015</b>	
Median annual earnings for 25- to 34-year-olds <sup>1</sup>			
Total	\$40,000	\$39,900	
With less than high school completion	\$24,000	\$25,000	
Who completed high school as highest level	\$30,000	\$30,500	
Who completed some college but did not attain a degree	\$31,900	\$34,600	▲
Who attained an associate's degree	\$35,000	\$36,900	
Who attained a bachelor's or higher degree	\$52,000	\$53,800	
Who attained a bachelor's degree	\$49,900	\$50,000	
Who attained a master's degree or higher	\$59,200	\$60,000	

See notes at end of table.

LEGEND: ▲ = Higher, ▼ = Lower, Blank = Not measurably different

<b>Employment and Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment</b>	<b>2015</b>	<b>2016</b>	<b>Change between years</b>
Employment rates of 20- to 24-year-olds			
Total	71%	72%	
With less than high school completion	51%	48%	
Who completed high school as highest level	67%	69%	
Who attained a bachelor's or higher degree	89%	88%	
Unemployment rates of 20- to 24-year-olds			
Total	12%	11%	▼
With less than high school completion	20%	17%	
Who completed high school as highest level	16%	12%	▼
Who attained a bachelor's or higher degree	5%	5%	
<b>Characteristics of Children's Families</b>	<b>2010</b>	<b>2015</b>	
Highest level of education attained by parents of children under age 18			
Percentage whose parents' highest level of education was less than high school	11.6%	10.5%	▼
Percentage whose parents' highest level of education was a bachelor's or higher degree	35.3%	39.0%	▲
	<b>2014</b>	<b>2015</b>	
Percentage of children under age 18 living in mother-only households	27.3%	27.0%	▼
Percentage of children under age 18 in families living in poverty	21.2%	20.3%	▼
<b>Children's Access to and Use of the Internet</b>	<b>2013</b>	<b>2015</b>	
Percentage of children ages 3 to 18 who use the Internet from home			
3- and 4-year-olds	31%	39%	▲
5- to 10-year-olds	50%	54%	▲
11- to 14-year-olds	65%	65%	
15- to 18-year-olds	77%	76%	
<b>Participation in Education</b>			
<b>Preschool and Kindergarten Enrollment</b>	<b>2014</b>	<b>2015</b>	<b>Change between years</b>
Percentage of children enrolled in preprimary education			
3-year-olds	43%	38%	▼
4-year-olds	66%	67%	
5-year-olds	85%	87%	

See notes at end of table.

LEGEND: ▲ = Higher, ▼ = Lower, Blank = Not measurably different

At a Glance

	2013-14	2014-15	Change between years
<b>Elementary and Secondary Enrollment</b>			
Number of students enrolled in public schools	50.0 million	50.3 million	▲
Prekindergarten through grade 8	35.3 million	35.4 million	▲
Grades 9 through 12	14.8 million	14.9 million	▲
<b>Public Charter School Enrollment</b>			
Number of students enrolled in public charter schools	Fall 2013: 2.5 million	Fall 2014: 2.7 million	▲
Percentage of public school students enrolled in charter schools	5.1%	5.4%	▲
Number of public charter schools	6,470	6,750	▲
Percentage of public schools that are charter schools	6.6%	6.9%	▲
<b>Private School Enrollment</b>			
Total number of students enrolled in private schools (Prekindergarten through grade 12)	2011-12: 5.3 million	2013-14: 5.4 million	▲
Prekindergarten through grade 8	4.0 million	4.1 million	▲
Grades 9 through 12	1.3 million	1.3 million	
Percentage of all students enrolled in private schools (Prekindergarten through grade 12)	9.6%	9.7%	▲
<b>Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Public Schools</b>			
Percentage of public school students (Prekindergarten through grade 12)	Fall 2013	Fall 2014	
White	50.3%	49.5%	▼
Black	15.6%	15.5%	▼
Hispanic	24.9%	25.4%	▲
Asian/Pacific Islander	5.2%	5.3%	▲
American Indian/Alaska Native	1.0%	1.0%	▼ <sup>2</sup>
Two or more races	3.0%	3.2%	▲
<b>English Language Learners in Public Schools</b>			
Percentage of public school students who are English language learners	2013-14: 9.3%	2014-15: 9.4%	▲
<b>Children and Youth With Disabilities</b>			
Number of public school students ages 3–21 receiving special education services	2013-14: 6.5 million	2014-15: 6.6 million	▲
Percentage of public school students ages 3–21 receiving special education services	12.9%	13.0%	▲

See notes at end of table.

LEGEND: ▲ = Higher, ▼ = Lower, Blank = Not measurably different

At a Glance

	Fall 2014	Fall 2015	Change between years
<b>Undergraduate Enrollment</b>			
Total enrollment	17.3 million	17.0 million	▼
Full-time enrollment	10.8 million	10.6 million	▼
Part-time enrollment	6.5 million	6.4 million	▼
Percentage enrolled in any distance education course	27.7%	29.0%	▲
Percentage enrolled exclusively in distance education	12.1%	12.3%	▲
<b>Postbaccalaureate Enrollment</b>			
Total enrollment	2.91 million	2.94 million	▲
Full-time enrollment	1.67 million	1.69 million	▲
Part-time enrollment	1.24 million	1.25 million	▲
Percentage enrolled in any distance education course	33%	34%	▲
Percentage enrolled exclusively in distance education	25%	26%	▲
<b>Elementary and Secondary Education</b>			
<b>Characteristics of Traditional Public Schools and Public Charter Schools</b>			
	2013-14	2014-15	Change between years
Traditional public schools			
Total number of traditional public schools	91,810	91,430	▼
Percentage of traditional public schools			
With more than 50% White enrollment	59.8%	59.0%	▼
With more than 50% Black enrollment	9.1%	9.0%	▼
With more than 50% Hispanic enrollment	15.3%	15.7%	▲
Public charter schools			
Total number of public charter schools	6,470	6,750	▲
Percentage of public charter schools			
With more than 50% White enrollment	35.8%	35.7%	▼
With more than 50% Black enrollment	24.4%	23.6%	▼
With more than 50% Hispanic enrollment	23.4%	23.9%	▲
<b>Concentration of Public School Students Eligible for Free or Reduced-Price Lunch</b>			
	2013-14	2014-15	
Percentage of students attending public low-poverty schools <sup>3</sup>	20.2%	20.4%	▲
Percentage of students attending public high-poverty schools <sup>3</sup>	24.8%	24.3%	▼
<b>School Crime and Safety</b>			
	2013	2015	
Percentage of students ages 12-18 who reported criminal victimization at school during the previous 6 months	3%	3%	

See notes at end of table.

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At a Glance

	2013-14	2014-15	Change between years
<b>Teachers and Pupil/Teacher Ratios</b>			
Number of public school teachers	3.11 million	3.13 million	▲
Pupil/teacher ratio at public schools	16.1	16.1	▼ <sup>2</sup>
Number of private school teachers	441,000	436,000	▼
Pupil/teacher ratio at private schools	12.2	12.2	▼ <sup>2</sup>
<b>Public School Revenue Sources<sup>1</sup></b>			
Total revenues	\$622 billion	\$632 billion	▲
Federal sources	\$58 billion	\$55 billion	▼
State sources	\$281 billion	\$292 billion	▲
Local sources	\$283 billion	\$284 billion	▲
<b>Public School Expenditures<sup>1</sup></b>			
Total expenditures	\$625 billion	\$634 billion	▲
Current expenditures per student	\$11,093	\$11,222	▲
<b>Education Expenditures by Country (2013)</b>			
	U.S.	OECD	Difference between the U.S. and OECD
Expenditure per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student			
Elementary and secondary education	\$11,800	\$9,200	▲
Postsecondary education	\$27,900	\$14,800	▲
<b>Reading Performance</b>			
	2013	2015	Change between years
Percentage of students who scored at or above <i>Proficient</i> <sup>4</sup>			
4th-grade students	35%	36%	
8th-grade students	36%	34%	▼
12th-grade students	38%	37%	
<b>Mathematics Performance</b>			
	2013	2015	
Percentage of students who scored at or above <i>Proficient</i> <sup>4</sup>			
4th-grade students	42%	40%	▼
8th-grade students	35%	33%	▼
12th-grade students	26%	25%	
<b>Science Performance</b>			
	2009	2015	
Percentage of students who scored at or above <i>Proficient</i> <sup>4</sup>			
4th-grade student	34%	38%	▲
12th-grade student	21%	22%	
	2011	2015	
8th-grade student	32%	34%	

See notes at end of table.

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		2014	Change between years
<b>Technology and Engineering Literacy<sup>5</sup></b>	—		
Percentage of 8th-grade students who scored at or above <i>Proficient</i> <sup>4</sup>		43%	
<b>International Comparisons: Reading Literacy at Grade 4 (2011)</b>	U.S. average score	International average score	Difference between the U.S. average and the international average
Progress in International Reading Literacy Study			
Reading literacy scores of 4th-grade students	556	500	▲
<b>International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders' Mathematics and Science Achievement (2015)</b>	U.S. average score	TIMSS scale centerpoint	Difference between the U.S. average and the TIMSS scale centerpoint
Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)			
Mathematics scores of 4th-grade students	539	500	▲
Mathematics scores of 8th-grade students	518	500	▲
Science scores of 4th-grade students	546	500	▲
Science scores of 8th-grade students	530	500	▲
TIMSS Advanced			
Advanced Mathematics scores of 12th-grade students	485	500	▼
Physics Scores of 12th-grade students	437	500	▼
<b>International Comparisons: Science, Reading, and Mathematics Literacy of 15-Year-Old Students (2015)</b>	U.S. average score	OECD average score	Difference between the U.S. average and the OECD average
Program for International Student Assessment			
Science literacy scores of 15-year-old students	496	493	
Reading literacy scores of 15-year-old students	497	493	
Mathematics literacy scores of 15-year-old students	470	490	▼

See notes at end of table.

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At a Glance

	2013-14	2014-15	Change between years
<b>Public High School Graduation Rates</b>			
Adjusted Cohort Graduation Rate (ACGR) <sup>6</sup>	82%	83%	▲
<b>Status Dropout Rates</b>	<b>2014</b>	<b>2015</b>	
Percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds not enrolled in school who have not completed high school	6.5%	5.9%	
<b>Youth Neither Enrolled in School nor Working</b>	<b>2015</b>	<b>2016</b>	
Percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds neither enrolled in school nor working			
Total	17%	17%	
With less than high school completion	41%	42%	
High school completion	28%	26%	
Some college, no bachelor's degree	9%	9%	
Bachelor's or higher degree	8%	8%	
<b>Immediate College Enrollment Rate</b>	<b>2014</b>	<b>2015</b>	
Percentage of recent high school graduates enrolled in college	68%	69%	
2-year institutions	25%	25%	
4-year institutions	44%	44%	
<b>College Enrollment Rates</b>	<b>2014</b>	<b>2015</b>	
College participation rates for 18- to 24-year-olds			
Total, all students	40%	40%	
Male	37%	38%	
Female	43%	43%	
White	42%	42%	
Black	33%	35%	
Hispanic	35%	37%	
Asian	65%	63%	
Pacific Islander	41%	24%	
American Indian/Alaska Native	35%	23%	
Two or more races	32%	38%	

See notes at end of table.

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<b>Postsecondary Education</b>			
<b>Characteristics of Degree-Granting Postsecondary Institutions</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	<b>2015-16</b>	<b>Change between years</b>
Total number of degree-granting institutions with first-year undergraduates	4,207	4,147	▼
Number of 4-year institutions with first-year undergraduates	2,603	2,584	▼
Number of 2-year institutions with first-year undergraduates	1,604	1,563	▼
<b>Characteristics of Postsecondary Students</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	<b>2015-16</b>	
Total undergraduate enrollment	17.29 million	17.04 million	▼
4-year institutions			
Total enrollment	10.58 million	10.55 million	▼
Number enrolled full time	8.12 million	8.09 million	▼
Percentage enrolled full time	76.8%	76.7%	▼
2-year institutions			
Total enrollment	6.71 million	6.49 million	▼
Number enrolled full time	2.66 million	2.51 million	▼
Percentage enrolled full time	39.6%	38.7%	▼
<b>Characteristics of Postsecondary Faculty</b>	<b>2013-14</b>	<b>2015-16</b>	
Number of full-time instructional faculty <sup>7</sup>	791,000	807,000	▲
Number of part-time instructional faculty	754,000	744,000	▼
<b>Undergraduate Degree Fields</b>	<b>2013-14</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	
Number of bachelor's degrees awarded			
Business	358,000	364,000	▲
Health professions and related programs	199,000	216,000	▲
Social sciences and history	173,000	167,000	▼
<b>Graduate Degree Fields</b>	<b>2013-14</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	
Number of master's degrees awarded			
Business	189,000	185,000	▼
Education	155,000	147,000	▼
Health professions and related programs	97,000	103,000	▲

See notes at end of table.

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At a Glance

<b>Undergraduate Retention and Graduation Rates</b>	<b>2013-14</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	<b>Change between years</b>
4-year institutions			
Retention rate of first-time undergraduates	80.5%	80.8%	▲
Graduation rate (within 6 years of starting program) of first-time, full-time undergraduates	59.6%	59.4%	▼
2-year institutions			
Retention rate of first-time undergraduates	60.7%	61.2%	▲
Graduation rate (within 3 years of starting program) of first-time, full-time undergraduates	27.9%	29.1%	▲
<hr/>			
<b>Postsecondary Certificates and Degrees Conferred</b>	<b>2013-14</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	
Number of degrees/certificates conferred by postsecondary institutions			
Certificates below associate's degrees	969,000	961,000	▼
Associate's degrees	1.01 million	1.01 million	▲ <sup>2</sup>
Bachelor's degrees	1.87 million	1.89 million	▲
Master's degrees	755,000	759,000	▲
Doctor's degrees	178,000	179,000	▲
<hr/>			
<b>Price of Attending an Undergraduate Institution<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>2013-14</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	
Average net price at 4-year institutions			
Public, in-state	\$12,800	\$13,200	▲
Private nonprofit	\$25,000	\$25,400	▲
Private for-profit	\$21,100	\$21,500	▲
<hr/>			
<b>Loans for Undergraduate Students<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>2013-14</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	
Average tuition and fees	\$11,200	\$11,600	▲
Average student loan amount	\$7,100	\$7,000	▼
<hr/>			
<b>Sources of Financial Aid</b>	<b>2013-14</b>	<b>2014-15</b>	
Percentage of students receiving any financial aid at 4-year institutions	85%	86%	▲
Percentage of students receiving any financial aid at 2-year institutions	76%	79%	▲

See notes at end of table.

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At a Glance

	2013-14	2014-15	Change between years
<b>Postsecondary Institution Revenues<sup>1</sup></b>			
Revenue from tuition and fees per FTE student			
Public institutions	\$6,683	\$6,963	▲
Private nonprofit institutions	\$20,450	\$20,820	▲
Private for-profit institutions	\$19,586	\$15,089	▲
<b>Postsecondary Institution Expenses<sup>1</sup></b>			
Instruction expenses per FTE student			
Public institutions	\$8,126	\$8,433	▲
Private nonprofit institutions	\$17,135	\$17,426	▲
Private for-profit institutions	\$5,294	\$4,194	▼

— Not available.

<sup>1</sup> Data are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

<sup>2</sup> Data are measurably different, although they round to the same number.

<sup>3</sup> Low-poverty schools are defined as public schools where 25.0 percent or less of the students are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL). A high-poverty school is defined as a public school where more than 75 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL.

<sup>4</sup> *Proficient* indicates demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter.

<sup>5</sup> Comparisons against the prior year are not available, because the National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) technology and engineering literacy (TEL) assessment was first administered in 2014.

<sup>6</sup> The *Adjusted Cohort Graduation Rate* (ACGR) is the number of students who graduate in 4 years with a regular high school diploma divided by the number of students who form the adjusted cohort for the graduating class. From the beginning of 9th grade (or the earliest high school grade), students who enter that grade for the first time form a cohort that is “adjusted” by adding any students who subsequently transfer into the cohort and subtracting any students who subsequently transfer out, emigrate to another country, or die.

<sup>7</sup> Data are for full-time instructional faculty on 9-month contracts at degree-granting postsecondary institutions.

NOTE: All calculations within the At a Glance are based on unrounded numbers. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: *The Condition of Education 2017*.

LEGEND: ▲ = Higher, ▼ = Lower, Blank = Not measurably different

# Highlights From *The Condition of Education 2017*

## Spotlights



### Risk Factors and Academic Outcomes in Kindergarten Through Third Grade

During the 2010–11 school year, 6 percent of first-time kindergartners had both the risk factor of living in poverty and the risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school, 2 percent had the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school, and 18 percent had the single risk factor of living in poverty. Students who were living in poverty and who did not have a parent who completed high school tended to score lower in reading, mathematics, and science in each of their first four years of school compared to their peers who had neither risk factor at kindergarten entry.

### Homeless Children and Youth in Public Schools

In 2014–15, some 2.5 percent of students in U.S. public elementary and secondary schools were reported as homeless children or youth (1.3 million students). This percentage varied from 2.0 percent in suburban school districts to 2.4 percent in rural districts, 2.6 percent in town districts, and 3.7 percent in city districts. The largest numbers of homeless students were enrolled in city (578,000 students) and suburban districts (422,000 students), compared to rural (149,000 students) and town districts (139,000 students).

### First-Time Postsecondary Students' Persistence After 3 Years

Seventy percent of all first-time postsecondary students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions in 2011–12 were still enrolled or had attained a certificate or degree by spring 2014. However, this percentage, also known as a persistence rate, varied by institutional, academic, and student characteristics, including level (2- and 4-year) and control (public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit) of institution, SAT or ACT scores, student age, and race/ethnicity. For example, the persistence rate for students who began at 2-year institutions (57 percent) was 23 percentage points lower than for students who began at 4-year institutions (80 percent). At 4-year institutions, students who were 19 years old or younger when they began had a higher persistence rate (85 percent) than students who were 20 to 23 years old (53 percent), 24 to 29 years old (48 percent), and 30 years old or over (57 percent).

### Disability Rates and Employment Status by Educational Attainment

About 16 percent of 25- to 64-year-olds who had not completed high school had one or more disabilities in 2015, compared to 11 percent of those who had completed high school, 10 percent of those who had completed some college, 8 percent of those who had completed an associate's degree, 4 percent of those who had completed a bachelor's degree, and 3 percent of those who had completed a master's or higher degree. Differences in the employment and not-in-labor-force percentages between persons with and without disabilities were substantial, amounting to about 50 percentage points each. Among those who had obtained higher levels of education, the differences were smaller.

## Population Characteristics



### ATTAINMENT

#### Educational Attainment of Young Adults

Between 2000 and 2016, educational attainment rates among 25- to 29-year-olds increased. During this time, the percentage who had received at least a high school diploma or its equivalent increased from 88 to 92 percent, the percentage with an associate's or higher degree increased from 38 to 46 percent, the percentage with a bachelor's or higher degree increased from 29 to 36 percent, and the percentage with a master's or higher degree increased from 5 to 9 percent.

## International Educational Attainment

Between 2001 and 2015, the OECD average percentage of the adult population with any postsecondary degree rose to 35 percent, an increase of 12 percentage points. During the same period, the percentage of U.S. adults with any postsecondary degree rose to 45 percent, an increase of 7 percentage points.

### ECONOMIC OUTCOMES

#### Annual Earnings of Young Adults

In 2015, the median earnings of young adults with a bachelor's degree (\$50,000) were 64 percent higher than those of young adult high school completers (\$30,500). The median earnings of young adult high school completers were 22 percent higher than those of young adults who did not complete high school (\$25,000).

#### Employment and Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment

In 2016, the employment rate was higher for people with higher levels of educational attainment than for those with lower levels of educational attainment. For example, among 20- to 24-year-olds, the employment rate was 88 percent for those with a bachelor's or higher degree and 48 percent for those who did not complete high school.

### DEMOGRAPHICS

#### Characteristics of Children's Families

In 2015, some 10 percent of children under the age of 18 had parents who had not completed high school, 27 percent lived in mother-only households, 8 percent lived in father-only households, and 20 percent were living in poverty.

#### Children's Access to and Use of the Internet

In 2015, about 71 percent of children ages 3 to 18 used the Internet. Among these children, 86 percent used the Internet at home; 65 percent used it at school; 31 percent used it at someone else's home; 27 percent used it at a library, community center, or other public place; and 14 percent used it at a coffee shop or other business offering internet access. In addition, 27 percent of these children used the Internet while traveling between places.

## Participation in Education

### PREPRIMARY

#### Preschool and Kindergarten Enrollment

In 2015, the percentage of 3- to 5-year-olds enrolled in preschool programs was higher for children whose parents had a graduate or professional degree (48 percent) than for those whose parents had a bachelor's degree (42 percent), an associate's degree (37 percent), some college (37 percent), a high school credential (29 percent), and less than a high school credential (29 percent).

### ELEMENTARY/SECONDARY

#### Elementary and Secondary Enrollment

Between fall 2014 and fall 2026, total public school enrollment in prekindergarten through grade 12 is projected to increase by 3 percent (from 50.3 million to 51.7 million students), with changes across states ranging from an increase of 42 percent in the District of Columbia to a decrease of 14 percent in Connecticut.

## Public Charter School Enrollment

Between fall 2004 and fall 2014, overall public charter school enrollment increased from 0.9 million to 2.7 million. During this period, the percentage of public school students who attended charter schools increased from 2 to 5 percent.

## Private School Enrollment

Private school enrollment in prekindergarten (preK) through grade 12 increased from 5.9 million students in 1995–96 to 6.3 million in 2001–02, and then declined to 5.4 million in 2013–14.

## Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Public Schools

In fall 2014, the percentage of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools who were White was less than 50 percent (49.5 percent) for the first time and represents a decrease from 58 percent in fall 2004. In contrast, the percentage who were Hispanic increased from 19 to 25 percent during the same period.

## English Language Learners in Public Schools

The percentage of public school students in the United States who were English language learners (ELLs) was higher in school year 2014–15 (9.4 percent, or 4.6 million students) than in 2004–05 (9.1 percent, or 4.3 million students). In 2014–15, the percentage of public school students who were ELLs ranged from 1.0 percent in West Virginia to 22.4 percent in California.

## Children and Youth With Disabilities

In 2014–15, the number of children and youth ages 3–21 receiving special education services was 6.6 million, or 13 percent of all public school students. Among children and youth receiving special education services, 35 percent had specific learning disabilities.



## POSTSECONDARY

### Undergraduate Enrollment

Between 2000 and 2015, total undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions increased by 30 percent (from 13.2 million to 17.0 million). By 2026, total undergraduate enrollment is projected to increase to 19.3 million students.

### Postbaccalaureate Enrollment

Total enrollment in postbaccalaureate degree programs was 2.9 million students in fall 2015. Between 2015 and 2026, postbaccalaureate enrollment is projected to increase by 12 percent (from 2.9 million to 3.3 million students).

## Elementary and Secondary Education



## SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS AND CLIMATE

### Characteristics of Traditional Public Schools and Public Charter Schools

High-poverty schools, in which more than 75 percent of students qualify for free or reduced-price lunch under the National School Lunch Program, accounted for 25 percent of all public schools in 2014–15. In that year, 24 percent of traditional public schools were high-poverty compared with 36 percent of public charter schools.

### Concentration of Public School Students Eligible for Free or Reduced-Price Lunch

In school year 2014–15, nearly half of Hispanic and Black public school students, one-third of American Indian/Alaska Native students, and one-quarter of Pacific Islander students attended high-poverty schools. In contrast, 17 percent of students of Two or more races, 15 percent of Asian students, and 8 percent of White students attended high-poverty schools.

## School Crime and Safety

Between 2001 and 2015, the percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported being victimized at school during the previous 6 months decreased overall (from 6 to 3 percent), as did the percentages of students who reported theft (from 4 to 2 percent) and violent victimization (from 2 to 1 percent).



## TEACHERS AND STAFF

### Teachers and Pupil/Teacher Ratios

Of the 6.3 million staff members in public elementary and secondary schools in fall 2014, half (3.1 million) were teachers. The pupil/teacher ratio in public schools declined from 15.8 in 2004 to 15.3 in 2008. The pupil/teacher ratio then rose, reaching 16.1 in 2014.



## FINANCE

### Public School Revenue Sources

Elementary and secondary public school revenues totaled \$632 billion in school year 2013–14. Of this total, 9 percent of revenues were from federal sources, 46 percent were from state sources, and 45 percent were from local sources.

### Public School Expenditures

In 2013–14, public schools spent \$11,222 per student on current expenditures, a category which includes salaries, employee benefits, purchased services, and supplies. Current expenditures per student were 5 percent higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04, after adjusting for inflation. During this time period, current expenditures per student peaked in 2008–09 at \$11,699, declined to \$11,093 in 2012–13, and then rose 1 percent to \$11,222 in 2013–14.

### Education Expenditures by Country

In 2013, the United States spent \$11,800 per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student on elementary and secondary education, which was 28 percent higher than the OECD average of \$9,200. At the postsecondary level, the United States spent \$27,900 per FTE student, which was 89 percent higher than the OECD average of \$14,800.



## ASSESSMENTS

### Reading Performance

While the 2015 average 4th-grade reading score was not measurably different from the 2013 score, the average 8th-grade score was lower in 2015 than in 2013, according to data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress. At grade 12, the average reading score in 2015 was not measurably different from that in 2013.

### Mathematics Performance

The average 4th- and 8th-grade mathematics scores in 2015 were lower than the scores in 2013 but were higher than the scores in 1990, according to data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress. At grade 12, the average mathematics score in 2015 was lower than the score in 2013, but not measurably different from the score in 2005.

### Science Performance

The percentage of 4th-grade students scoring at or above the *Proficient* level was higher in 2015 (38 percent) than in 2009 (34 percent), according to data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress. In addition, the percentage of 8th-grade students scoring at or above the *Proficient* level was higher in 2015 (34 percent) than in 2009 (30 percent). The percentage of 12th-grade students scoring at or above the *Proficient* level in 2015 (22 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2009.

## Technology and Engineering Literacy

Overall, 43 percent of 8th-grade students performed at or above the *Proficient* level on the National Assessment of Educational Progress Technology and Engineering Literacy assessment in 2014. The percentage of students scoring at or above the *Proficient* level was higher for White and Asian students (56 percent each) than for Black students (18 percent), Hispanic students (28 percent), Pacific Islander students (30 percent), and students of Two or more races (45 percent).

## International Comparisons: Reading Literacy at Grade 4

In the 2011 Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), the average reading literacy score for 4th-grade students in the United States (556) was higher than the average score for participating countries (500). The United States was among the top 13 education systems in reading literacy and scored higher, on average, than 40 education systems.

## International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders' Mathematics and Science Achievement

According to the 2015 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), the United States was among the top 15 education systems in science (out of 54) at grade 4 and among the top 17 education systems in science (out of 43) at grade 8. In mathematics, the United States was among the top 20 education systems at grade 4 and top 19 education systems at grade 8.

## International Comparisons: Science, Reading, and Mathematics Literacy for 15-Year-Old Students

In 2015, there were 18 education systems with higher average science literacy scores for 15-year-olds than the United States, 14 with higher reading literacy scores, and 36 with higher mathematics literacy scores.



## STUDENT EFFORT, PERSISTENCE, AND PROGRESS

### Public High School Graduation Rates

In school year 2014–15, the adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) for public high school students rose to 83 percent, the highest rate since the measure was first collected in 2010–11. In other words, more than 4 out of 5 students graduated with a regular high school diploma within 4 years of starting 9th grade. Asian/Pacific Islander students had the highest ACGR (90 percent), followed by White (88 percent), Hispanic (78 percent), Black (75 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (72 percent) students.

### Status Dropout Rates

The status dropout rate decreased from 10.9 percent in 2000 to 5.9 percent in 2015. During this time, the Hispanic status dropout rate decreased by 18.6 percentage points, while the Black and White status dropout rates decreased by 6.6 and 2.4 percentage points, respectively. Nevertheless, in 2015 the Hispanic status dropout rate (9.2 percent) remained higher than the Black (6.5 percent) and White (4.6 percent) status dropout rates.

### Youth Neither Enrolled in School nor Working

In 2016, some 17 percent of 20- to 24-year-olds were neither enrolled in school nor working, compared to 12 percent of 18- and 19-year-olds and 5 percent of 16- and 17-year-olds. In each age group, the percentage who were neither in school nor working was higher for those in poor households than for those in nonpoor households. For example, among 20- to 24-year-olds in 2016, some 31 percent of those in poor households were neither in school nor working, compared to 13 percent of those in nonpoor households.

### Immediate College Enrollment Rate

The immediate college enrollment rate for high school completers increased from 63 percent in 2000 to 69 percent in 2015. The enrollment rate for those from high-income families (83 percent) was higher than the rate for those from low- and middle-income families (63 percent each) in 2015. The gap in enrollment rates between low- and high-income students narrowed from 30 percentage points in 2000 to 20 percentage points in 2015. The gap between low- and middle-income students was 12 percentage points in 2000, but there was no measurable gap between low- and middle-income students in 2015.

## → TRANSITION TO COLLEGE

### College Enrollment Rates

The overall college enrollment rate for young adults increased from 35 percent in 2000 to 40 percent in 2015. During this time period, the enrollment rates also increased for Black and Hispanic young adult males, as well as for White and Hispanic young adult females.

## Postsecondary Education

### POSTSECONDARY ENVIRONMENTS AND CHARACTERISTICS

#### Characteristics of Degree-Granting Postsecondary Institutions

In academic year 2015–16, some 28 percent of 4-year institutions had open admissions policies (accepted all applicants), an additional 29 percent accepted three-quarters or more of their applicants, 30 percent accepted from one-half to less than three-quarters of their applicants, and 13 percent accepted less than one-half of their applicants.

#### Characteristics of Postsecondary Students

Some 10.5 million undergraduate students attended 4-year institutions in fall 2015, while 6.5 million attended 2-year institutions. Some 77 percent of undergraduate students at 4-year institutions attended full time, compared with 39 percent at 2-year institutions.

#### Characteristics of Postsecondary Faculty

From fall 1995 to fall 2015, the number of full-time faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions increased by 47 percent, while the number of part-time faculty increased by 95 percent. As a result of the faster increase in the number of part-time faculty, the percentage of all faculty who were part time increased from 41 to 48 percent over this period.

### PROGRAMS, COURSES, AND COMPLETIONS

#### Undergraduate Degree Fields

For every racial/ethnic group, business was the most common field of study for bachelor's degrees conferred in 2014–15. Liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities; health professions and related programs; and business services were the top three associate's degree fields of study for all racial/ethnic groups in 2014–15.

#### Graduate Degree Fields

In 2014–15, nearly half of the 759,000 master's degrees conferred were concentrated in two fields of study: business (185,000 degrees) and education (147,000 degrees). Of the 179,000 doctor's degrees conferred, almost two-thirds were concentrated in health professions and related programs (71,000 degrees) and legal professions and studies (40,300 degrees).

#### Undergraduate Retention and Graduation Rates

About 59 percent of students who began seeking a bachelor's degree at a 4-year institution in fall 2009 completed that degree within 6 years; the graduation rate was higher for females than for males (62 percent vs. 56 percent).

#### Postsecondary Certificates and Degrees Conferred

The number of postsecondary certificates and degrees conferred at each degree level increased between 2004–05 and 2014–15. The number of certificates below the associate's degree level conferred during this period increased by 35 percent. The number of degrees conferred increased by 46 percent at the associate's level, by 32 percent at the bachelor's level, by 31 percent at the master's level, and by 33 percent at the doctor's level.



## **\$ FINANCE AND RESOURCES**

### **Price of Attending an Undergraduate Institution**

In 2014–15, the average net price of attendance (total cost minus grant and scholarship aid) at 4-year institutions for first-time, full-time undergraduate students (in constant 2015–16 dollars) was \$25,400 at private nonprofit institutions, \$21,500 at private for-profit institutions, and \$13,200 at public institutions.

### **Loans for Undergraduate Students**

In 2014–15, the average annual undergraduate student loan amount of \$7,000 was 10 percent lower than the 2009–10 average of \$7,700 (in constant 2015–16 dollars). For undergraduate students ages 18 to 24 in their 4th year of college or above, the average cumulative amount borrowed was \$26,600 in 2011–12 (in constant 2015–16 dollars).

### **Sources of Financial Aid**

The percentage of first-time, full-time undergraduate students at 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions awarded financial aid was higher in 2014–15 (86 percent) than in 2009–10 (85 percent).

### **Postsecondary Institution Revenues**

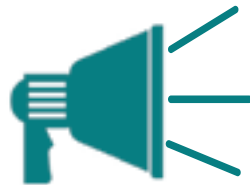
Between 2009–10 and 2014–15, revenues from tuition and fees per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student increased by 22 percent at public institutions (from \$5,724 to \$6,963 in constant 2015–16 dollars) and by 6 percent at private nonprofit institutions (from \$19,586 to \$20,820). At private for-profit institutions, revenues from tuition and fees per FTE student were 9 percent lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 (\$15,089 vs. \$16,531).

### **Postsecondary Institution Expenses**

In 2014–15, instruction expenses per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student (in constant 2015–16 dollars) was the largest expense category at public institutions (\$8,433) and private nonprofit institutions (\$17,426). At private for-profit institutions, the combined category of student services, academic support, and institutional support expenses per FTE student was the largest expense category (\$9,905).

The spotlight indicators in this chapter of *The Condition of Education* examine selected topics in greater detail. These indicators feature innovative data collections and analyses from across the National Center for Education Statistics.

This chapter's indicators, as well as spotlight indicators and special analyses from previous editions, are available at *The Condition of Education* website: <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe>.



# Spotlights

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## Risk Factors and Academic Outcomes in Kindergarten Through Third Grade

*During the 2010–11 school year, 6 percent of first-time kindergartners had both the risk factor of living in poverty and the risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school, 2 percent had the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school, and 18 percent had the single risk factor of living in poverty. Students who were living in poverty and who did not have a parent who completed high school tended to score lower in reading, mathematics, and science in each of their first four years of school compared to their peers who had neither risk factor at kindergarten entry.*

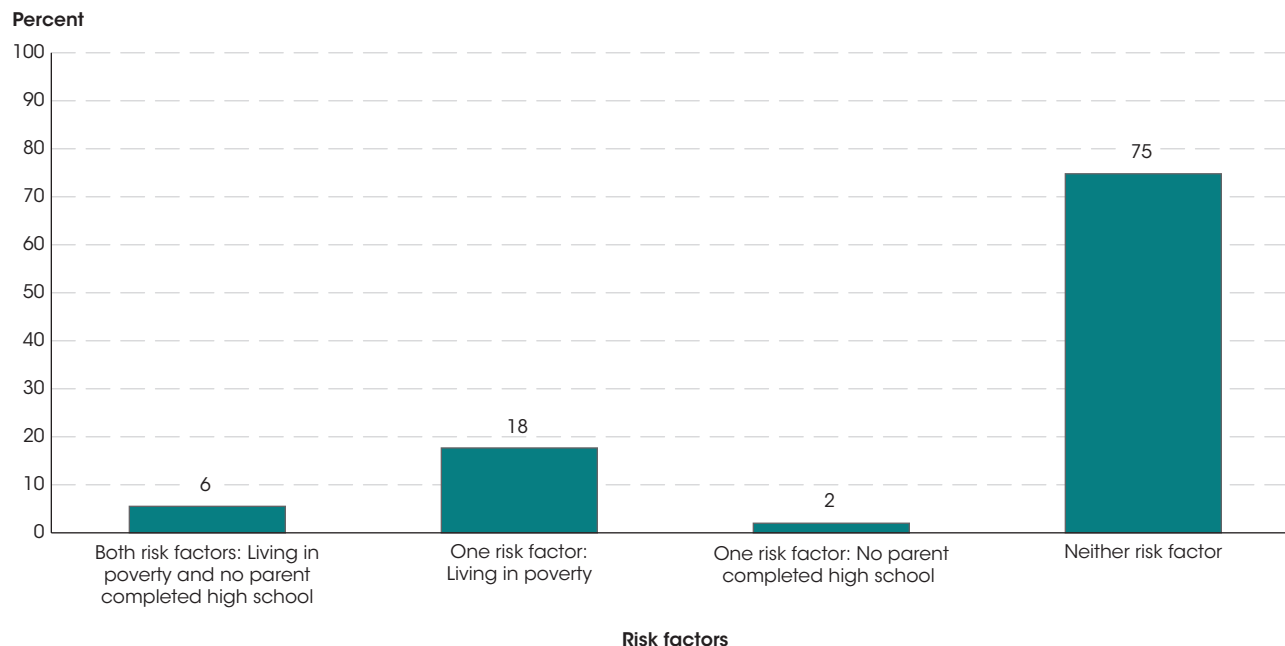
Prior research has found associations among family risk factors and poor educational outcomes, including low achievement scores, having to repeat a grade, and dropping out of high school.<sup>1</sup> Family risk factors include coming from a low-income family or single-parent household, not having a parent who completed high school, and living in a household where the primary language is not English. Young children vary in their academic skills at kindergarten entry, with those who have one or more family risk factors tending to score lower in reading and mathematics in kindergarten and over the first few years of elementary school compared to their peers with fewer or no risk factors. This Spotlight focuses on the characteristics of students who had two of these types of risk factors at kindergarten entry: living in households with income below the federal poverty threshold and not having a parent who completed high school. It then describes associations between the presence or absence of these two family risk factors and students' academic achievement from kindergarten through third grade.<sup>2</sup>

In the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011), information on family risk factors was collected through parent interviews. Household poverty status in kindergarten was based on whether the household's income fell below poverty thresholds defined by the U.S. Census Bureau. These thresholds reflect the amount of income that is considered sufficient to meet household needs, given family size and

composition.<sup>3</sup> Parents' highest level of education was measured in the fall of students' kindergarten year and reflects the highest level of education achieved by either of the parents or guardians in a two-parent household, by the only parent in a single-parent household, or by any guardian in a household with no parents.<sup>4</sup> For this spotlight, children living in households whose income fell below the federal poverty threshold are identified as "living in poverty," and children living in households in which no parent or guardian had completed high school are identified as "not having a parent who completed high school."

In addition, the ECLS-K:2011 assessed children's skills in reading, mathematics, and science in kindergarten through grade 3. Trained assessors conducted individually administered, two-stage adaptive assessments (with the exception of the spring kindergarten science assessment, which was a nonadaptive one-stage assessment) in which assessors asked children questions related to images presented on a small easel and entered the children's responses into a study computer. Reading and mathematics assessments were administered in the fall and spring of kindergarten through grade 2 and in the spring of grade 3. Science assessments were administered in the spring of kindergarten, in the fall and spring of grades 1 and 2, and in the spring of grade 3.<sup>5</sup> Possible scores on the assessments range from 0 to 141 in reading, 0 to 135 in mathematics, and 0 to 87 in science.

**Figure 1. Percentage distribution of fall 2010 first-time kindergartners, by risk factors related to parent education and poverty: School year 2010–11**



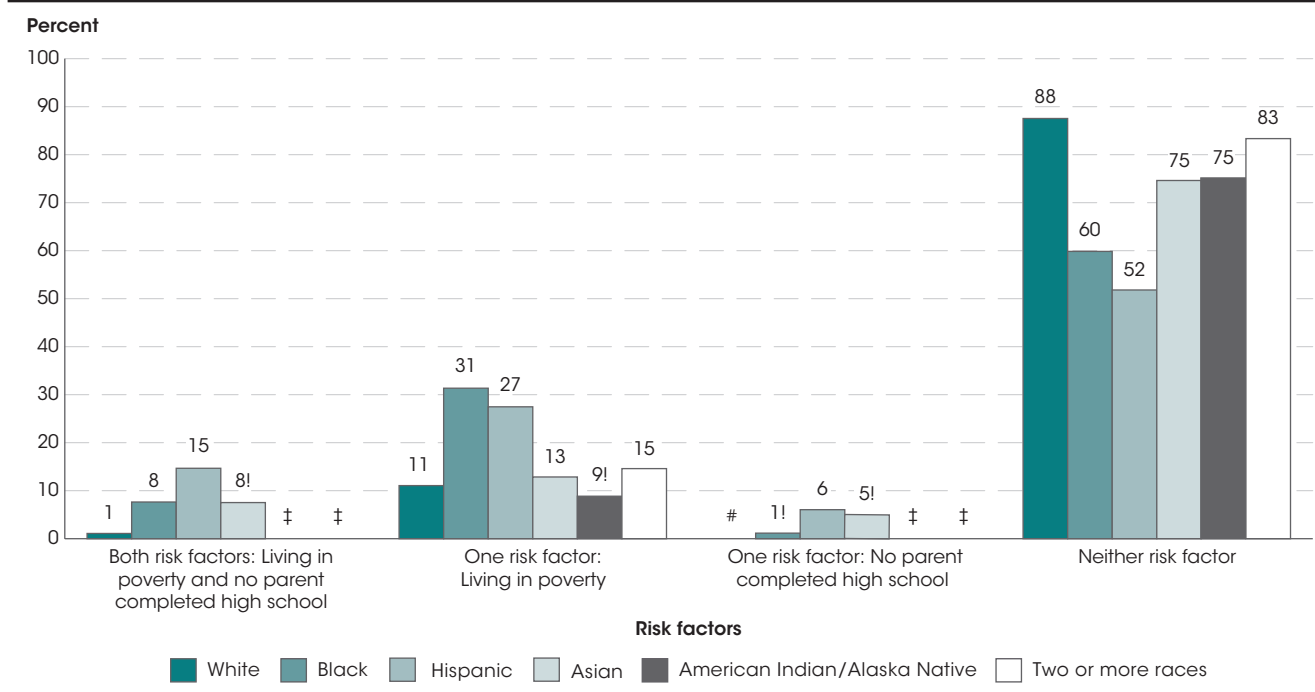
NOTE: Estimates weighted by W7C17P\_7T170. Estimates pertain to a sample of children who were enrolled in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010–11 school year. Estimates represent characteristics as of 2010–11, when the first wave of data collection occurred, and include the entire sample of 2010–11 first-time kindergartners. Parents’ highest level of education is the highest level of education achieved by either of the parents or guardians in a two-parent household, by the only parent in a single-parent household, or by any guardian in a household with no parents. Poverty status is based on preliminary U.S. Census income thresholds for 2010, which identify incomes determined to meet household needs, given family size and composition. For example, a family of three with one child was below the poverty threshold if its income was less than \$17,552 in 2010. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding and survey item nonresponse.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011), Kindergarten–Third Grade Restricted-Use Data File. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 220.39.

During the 2010–11 school year, 6 percent of first-time kindergartners had both the risk factor of living in poverty and the risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school, 18 percent had the single risk factor of living

in poverty, and 2 percent had the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school. About 75 percent of first-time kindergartners had neither of these two risk factors present during their kindergarten year.

**Figure 2. Percentage distribution of fall 2010 first-time kindergartners, by risk factors related to parent education and poverty and child’s race/ethnicity: School year 2010–11**

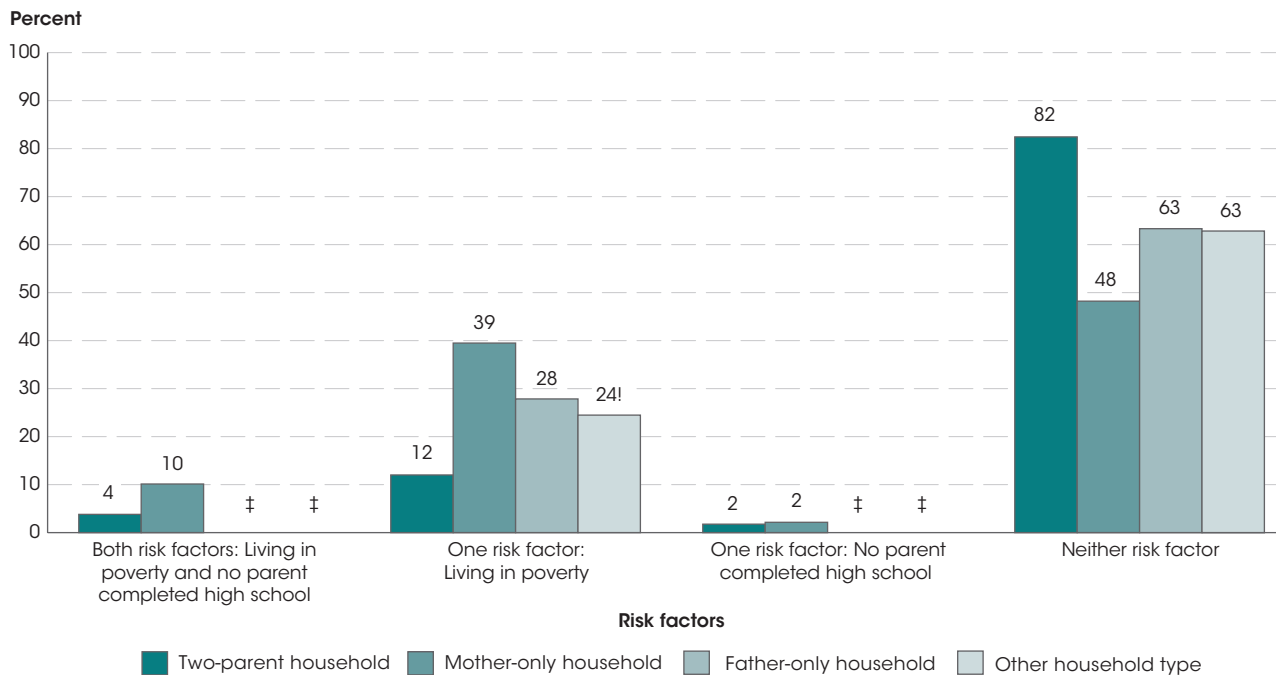


# Rounds to zero.  
 ! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.  
 ‡ Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.  
 NOTE: Estimates weighted by W7C17P\_7T170. Estimates pertain to a sample of children who were enrolled in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010–11 school year. Estimates represent characteristics as of 2010–11, when the first wave of data collection occurred, and include the entire sample of 2010–11 first-time kindergartners. Parents’ highest level of education is the highest level of education achieved by either of the parents or guardians in a two-parent household, by the only parent in a single-parent household, or by any guardian in a household with no parents. Poverty status is based on preliminary U.S. Census income thresholds for 2010, which identify incomes determined to meet household needs, given family size and composition. For example, a family of three with one child was below the poverty threshold if its income was less than \$17,552 in 2010. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding and survey item nonresponse. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Pacific Islander estimates are excluded from the figure due to insufficient sample sizes. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011), Kindergarten–Third Grade Restricted-Use Data File. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 220.39.

The percentage of first-time kindergartners who had family risk factors analyzed in this report differed with respect to their race/ethnicity, household type, and primary home language. The percentage of first-time kindergartners who had both risk factors of living in poverty and not having a parent who completed high school was higher for Hispanic students (15 percent) than for Black and Asian students (8 percent each), and the percentages for these three racial/ethnic groups were all higher than the percentage for White students (1 percent). Having the single risk factor of living in poverty was more common for Black (31 percent) and Hispanic kindergartners (27 percent) than it was for kindergartners of Two or more races (15 percent), Asian kindergartners (13 percent), White kindergartners (11 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native

kindergartners (9 percent). The percentages of Hispanic and Asian kindergartners with the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school (6 and 5 percent, respectively) were higher than the percentages for Black (1 percent) and White kindergartners (less than 1 percent). In contrast, the percentage of first-time kindergartners who had neither risk factor were higher for White kindergartners (88 percent), kindergartners of Two or more races (83 percent), and Asian and American Indian/Alaska Native kindergartners (75 percent each) than for Black (60 percent) and Hispanic kindergartners (52 percent). In addition, the percentage who had neither risk factor was higher for Black kindergartners than for Hispanic kindergartners, and was higher for White kindergartners than for Asian and American Indian/Alaska Native kindergartners.

**Figure 3. Percentage distribution of fall 2010 first-time kindergartners, by risk factors related to parent education and poverty and household type: School year 2010–11**



! 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.

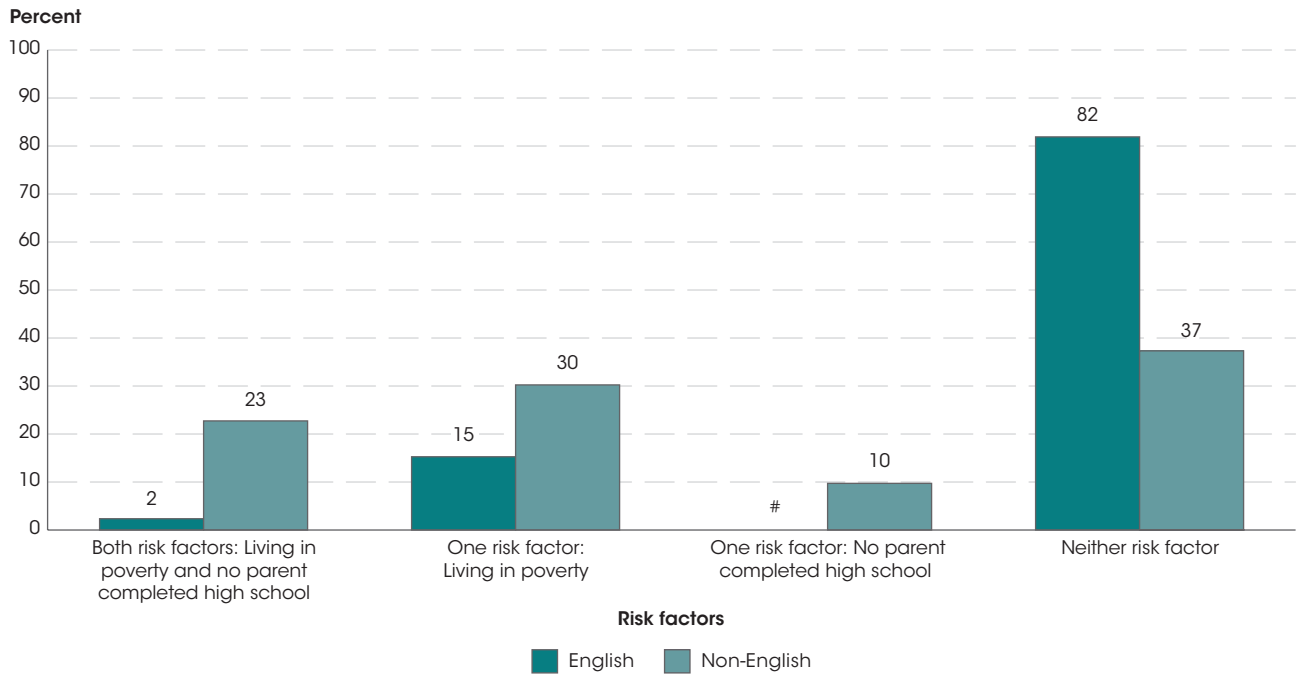
NOTE: Estimates weighted by W7C17P\_7T170. Estimates pertain to a sample of children who were enrolled in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010–11 school year. Estimates represent characteristics as of 2010–11, when the first wave of data collection occurred, and include the entire sample of 2010–11 first-time kindergartners. Parents' highest level of education is the highest level of education achieved by either of the parents or guardians in a two-parent household, by the only parent in a single-parent household, or by any guardian in a household with no parents. Poverty status is based on preliminary U.S. Census income thresholds for 2010, which identify incomes determined to meet household needs, given family size and composition. For example, a family of three with one child was below the poverty threshold if its income was less than \$17,552 in 2010. A two-parent household may have two biological parents, two adoptive parents, or one biological/adoptive parent and one other parent/partner. A mother-only or father-only household has one biological or adoptive parent only, without another parent/partner. In other household types, which do not include biological or adoptive parents, the guardian or guardians may be related or unrelated to the child. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding and survey item nonresponse. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011), Kindergarten–Third Grade Restricted-Use Data File. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 220.39.

With respect to household type,<sup>6</sup> the percentage of first-time kindergartners who had both the risk factor of living in poverty and the risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school was higher for students living in mother-only households (10 percent) than for students living in two-parent households (4 percent). Having the single risk factor of living in poverty was more common for students in mother-only (39 percent) and father-only households (28 percent) than it was for students in two-parent households (12 percent). No measurable

differences by household type were found with respect to the percentage of students with the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school. The percentage of first-time kindergartners who had neither risk factor was highest for students from two-parent households (82 percent) and lowest for students from mother-only households (48 percent); about 63 percent each of first-time kindergartners from father-only households and from other household types had neither risk factor.

**Figure 4. Percentage distribution of fall 2010 first-time kindergartners, by risk factors related to parent education and poverty and primary home language: School year 2010–11**



# Rounds to zero.

NOTE: Estimates weighted by W7C17P\_7T170. Estimates pertain to a sample of children who were enrolled in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010–11 school year. Estimates represent characteristics as of 2010–11, when the first wave of data collection occurred, and include the entire sample of 2010–11 first-time kindergartners. Parents’ highest level of education is the highest level of education achieved by either of the parents or guardians in a two-parent household, by the only parent in a single-parent household, or by any guardian in a household with no parents. Poverty status is based on preliminary U.S. Census income thresholds for 2010, which identify incomes determined to meet household needs, given family size and composition. For example, a family of three with one child was below the poverty threshold if its income was less than \$17,552 in 2010. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding and survey item nonresponse.

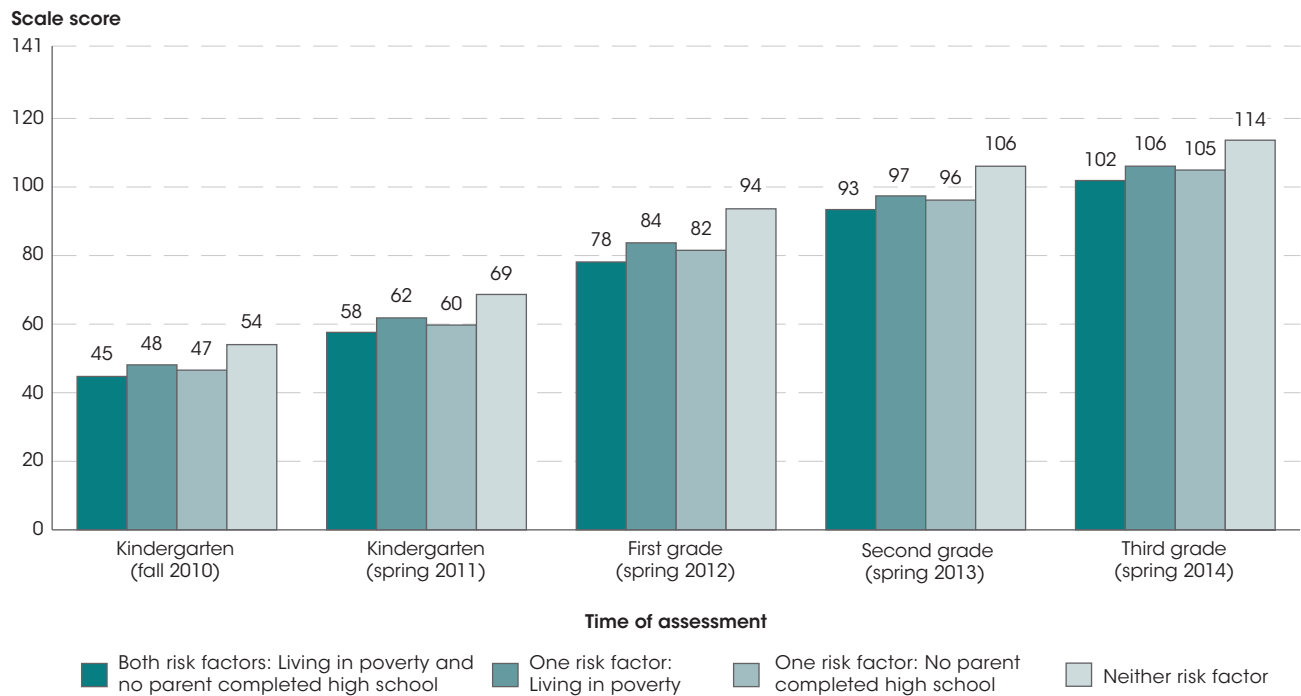
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011), Kindergarten–Third Grade Restricted-Use Data File. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 220.39.

About 23 percent of first-time kindergartners whose primary home language was not English had both the risk factor of living in poverty and the risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school, compared with 2 percent of kindergartners whose primary home language was English. Similarly, the percentage of students who had the single risk factor of living in poverty was higher for those whose primary home language was not English than for those whose primary home language was English (30 vs. 15 percent), and the percentage with the single risk

factor of not having a parent who completed high school was also higher for those whose primary home language was not English than for those whose primary home language was English (10 percent vs. less than 1 percent). In contrast, the percentage of first-time kindergartners who had neither risk factor was higher for kindergartners whose primary home language was English (82 percent) than for kindergartners whose primary home language was not English (37 percent).



**Figure 5. Average reading scale scores of fall 2010 first-time kindergartners, by time of assessment and risk factors related to parent education and poverty: Fall 2010 through spring 2014**

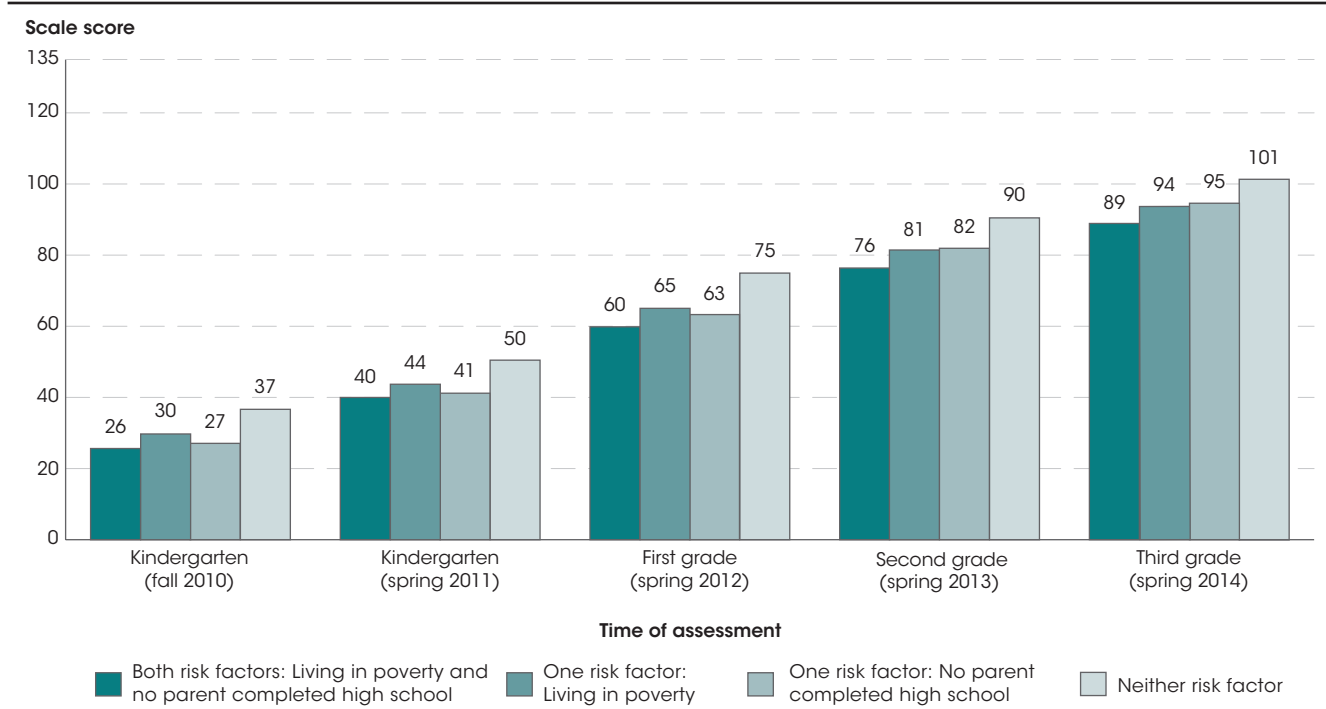


NOTE: Estimates weighted by W7C17P\_7T170. Scores on the reading assessments reflect performance on questions measuring basic skills (print familiarity, letter recognition, beginning and ending sounds, rhyming words, and word recognition); vocabulary knowledge; and reading comprehension, including identifying information specifically stated in text (e.g., definitions, facts, and supporting details), making complex inferences from texts, and considering the text objectively and judging its appropriateness and quality. Possible scores for the reading assessment range from 0 to 141. Estimates pertain to a sample of children who were enrolled in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010–11 school year. Most of the children were in first grade in 2011–12, second grade in 2012–13, and third grade in 2013–14, but some of the children were in other grades. In 2013–14, for example, 6 percent of the children were not in third grade (e.g., were in second grade, fourth grade, or ungraded classrooms). Information on risk factors and student and family characteristics are based on data collected during the kindergarten year. Parents’ highest level of education is the highest level of education achieved by either of the parents or guardians in a two-parent household, by the only parent in a single-parent household, or by any guardian in a household with no parents. Poverty status is based on preliminary U.S. Census income thresholds for 2010, which identify incomes determined to meet household needs, given family size and composition. For example, a family of three with one child was below the poverty threshold if its income was less than \$17,552 in 2010. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011), Kindergarten–Third Grade Restricted-Use Data File. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 220.40.

Students who were living in poverty and who did not have a parent who completed high school tended to score lower in reading, mathematics, and science over each of their first four years of school compared to their peers who had neither risk factor at kindergarten entry. In reading, for instance, fall kindergarten scores were higher, on average, for students who had neither risk factor (54 points) than for students who had the single risk factor of living in poverty (48 points), the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school (47 points), and both the risk factor of living in poverty and the risk factor of not having a parent who completed

high school (45 points).<sup>7</sup> This pattern persisted in the spring data collections in kindergarten, first grade, second grade, and third grade. For example, spring third-grade reading scores were higher, on average, for students who had neither risk factor (114 points) than for those with the single risk factor of living in poverty (106 points), those with the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school (105 points), and those with both risk factors (102 points). In addition, students with the single risk factor of living in poverty at kindergarten entry scored higher in reading across all data collections than students with both risk factors.

**Figure 6. Average mathematics scale scores of fall 2010 first-time kindergartners, by time of assessment and risk factors related to parent education and poverty: Fall 2010 through spring 2014**

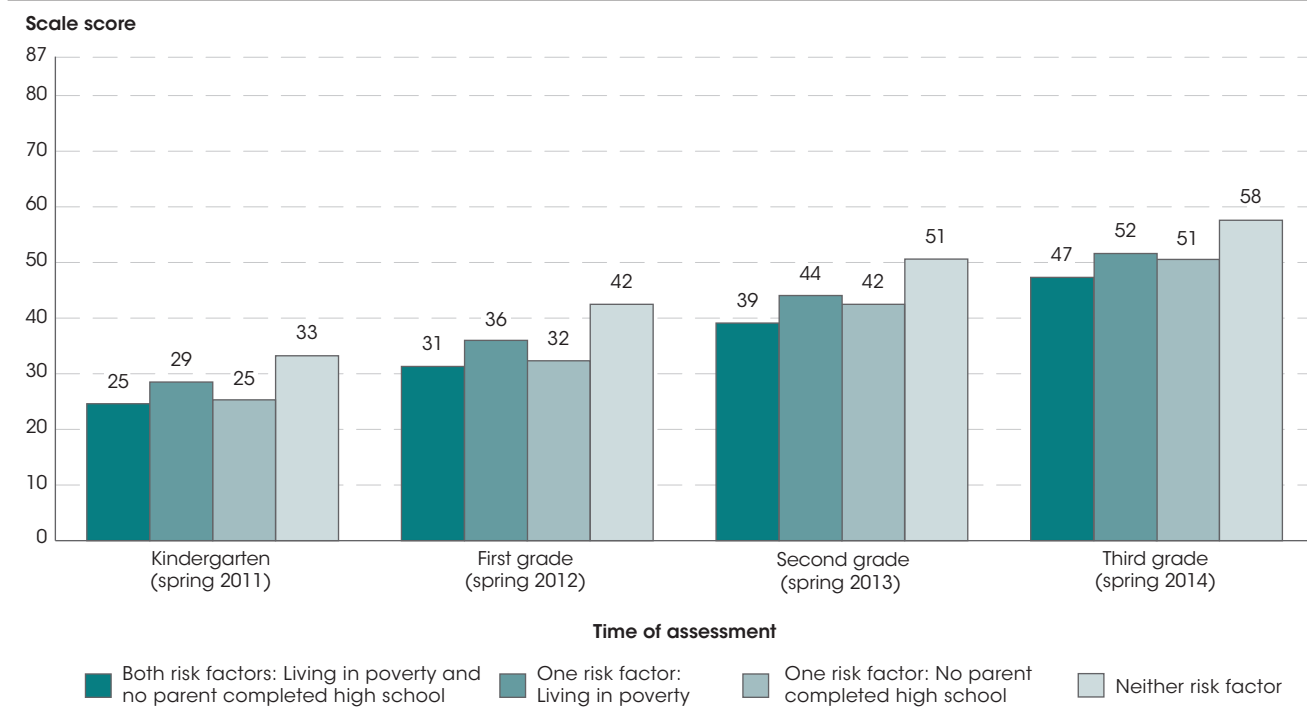


NOTE: Estimates weighted by W7C17P\_7T170. Scores on the mathematics assessments reflect performance on questions on number sense, properties, and operations; measurement; geometry and spatial sense; data analysis, statistics, and probability (measured with a set of simple questions assessing children’s ability to read a graph); and prealgebra skills such as identification of patterns. Possible scores for the mathematics assessment range from 0 to 135. Estimates pertain to a sample of children who were enrolled in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010–11 school year. Most of the children were in first grade in 2011–12, second grade in 2012–13, and third grade in 2013–14, but some of the children were in other grades. In 2013–14, for example, 6 percent of the children were not in third grade (e.g., were in second grade, fourth grade, or ungraded classrooms). Information on risk factors and student and family characteristics are based on data collected during the kindergarten year. Parents’ highest level of education is the highest level of education achieved by either of the parents or guardians in a two-parent household, by the only parent in a single-parent household, or by any guardian in a household with no parents. Poverty status is based on preliminary U.S. Census income thresholds for 2010, which identify incomes determined to meet household needs, given family size and composition. For example, a family of three with one child was below the poverty threshold if its income was less than \$17,552 in 2010. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011), Kindergarten–Third Grade Restricted-Use Data File. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 220.41.

In mathematics, while students who had neither risk factor scored highest at each data collection, differences in scores among the other risk factor groups varied by grade level. In the fall of kindergarten, the average score was highest for first-time kindergartners who had neither risk factor (37 points), and the average score for those who had the single risk factor of living in poverty (30 points) was higher than the average scores for those with the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school (27 points) and for those who had both the risk factor of living in poverty and the risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school (26 points).<sup>8</sup> In the spring data collections for kindergarten and first grade, students with neither risk factor had the highest average

scores, and students with the single risk factor of living in poverty had higher average scores than students with both risk factors. In the spring data collections for second and third grade, average mathematics scores were highest for students with neither risk factor and lowest for students with both risk factors; no measurable differences were observed between the average scores for students having either of the single risk factors. For instance, students with neither risk factor had the highest average spring third-grade score (101 points), and students who had either the single risk factor of living in poverty or the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school had higher average scores (94 and 95 points, respectively) than students who had both risk factors (89 points).

**Figure 7. Average science scale scores of fall 2010 first-time kindergartners, by time of assessment and risk factors related to parent education and poverty: Spring 2011 through spring 2014**



NOTE: Estimates weighted by W7C17P\_7T170. Science was not assessed in the fall of kindergarten. Scores on the science assessment reflect performance on questions on physical sciences, life sciences, environmental sciences, and scientific inquiry. Possible scores for the science assessment range from 0 to 87. Estimates pertain to a sample of children who were enrolled in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010–11 school year. Most of the children were in first grade in 2011–12, second grade in 2012–13, and third grade in 2013–14, but some of the children were in other grades. In 2013–14, for example, 6 percent of the children were not in third grade (e.g., were in second grade, fourth grade, or ungraded classrooms). Information on risk factors and student and family characteristics are based on data collected during the kindergarten year. Parents’ highest level of education is the highest level of education achieved by either of the parents or guardians in a two-parent household, by the only parent in a single-parent household, or by any guardian in a household with no parents. Poverty status is based on preliminary U.S. Census income thresholds for 2010, which identify incomes determined to meet household needs, given family size and composition. For example, a family of three with one child was below the poverty threshold if its income was less than \$17,552 in 2010. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011), Kindergarten–Third Grade Restricted-Use Data File. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 220.42.

Differences in science scores among the risk factor groups also varied by grade level. In the spring data collections for kindergarten and first grade, students with neither risk factor had the highest average science scores. In addition, students with the single risk factor of living in poverty had higher average scores than students with the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school as well as higher average scores than students with both the risk factor of living in poverty and the risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school. For example, the average spring kindergarten science score was highest for first-time kindergartners who had neither risk factor (33 points), and the average score for those who had the single risk factor of living in poverty (29 points) was higher than the average score for those with the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high

school and higher than the average score for those with both risk factors (25 points each).<sup>9</sup> Similar to the pattern observed in mathematics, average science scores in the spring data collections for second and third grade were highest for students who had neither risk factor and lowest for students who had both risk factors; no measurable differences were observed between the average scores for students who had either of the single risk factors. For instance, students with neither risk factor had the highest average spring third-grade score (58 points), and students who had either the single risk factor of living in poverty or the single risk factor of not having a parent who completed high school had higher average scores (52 and 51 points, respectively) than students who had both risk factors (47 points).

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Croninger, R.G., and Lee, V.E. (2001). Social Capital and Dropping Out of High School: Benefits to At-Risk Students of Teacher's Support and Guidance. *Teachers College Record*, 103(4): 548–581. Retrieved March 2, 2017, from <http://www.tcrecord.org/library/abstract.asp?contentid=10776>.

Natriello, G., McDill, E.L., and Pallas, A.M. (1990). *Schooling Disadvantaged Children: Racing Against Catastrophe*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Rathbun, A., and West, J. (2004). *From Kindergarten Through Third Grade: Children's Beginning School Experiences* (NCES 2004–007). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved March 2, 2017, from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2004007>.

Zill, N., and West, J. (2001). *Entering Kindergarten: A Portrait of American Children When They Begin School: Findings From The Condition of Education 2000* (NCES 2001–035). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved March 2, 2017, from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2001035>.

<sup>2</sup> Estimates pertain to a sample of children who were enrolled in kindergarten for the first time in the 2010–11 school year. Most of the children were in first grade in 2011–12, second grade in 2012–13, and third grade in 2013–14, but some of the children were in other grades. In 2013–14, for example, 6 percent of the children were not in third grade (e.g., were in second grade, fourth grade, or ungraded classrooms). Due to the study's large sample size, many differences (no matter how substantively minor) are statistically significant. In this indicator, mean score differences are considered substantively meaningful if they are at least one-fifth of a standard deviation in size. Therefore, mean score differences are reported only if they are statistically significant at the  $p < .05$  level and are at least one-fifth of a standard deviation in size.

<sup>3</sup> For example, based on preliminary U.S. Census income thresholds for 2010, a family of three that includes one child was below the poverty threshold if its income was less than \$17,552 in 2010.

<sup>4</sup> Parents are identified as having completed high school if they reported receiving a high school diploma or acquiring a GED (high school equivalency based on passing the GED exam).

<sup>5</sup> Although assessment data were also collected in the fall of grades 1 and 2, results are not included in this spotlight because the assessments were only administered to a subsample of ECLS-K:2011 students.

<sup>6</sup> A two-parent household may have two biological parents, two adoptive parents, or one biological/adoptive parent and one other parent/partner. A mother-only or father-only household has one biological or adoptive parent only, without another parent/partner. In other household types, which do not include biological or adoptive parents, the guardian or guardians may be related or unrelated to the child.

<sup>7</sup> The fall kindergarten reading score for the full ECLS-K:2011 sample has a mean of 51 and a standard deviation (SD) of 11.1. Scale score gaps that are greater than or equal to 2.2 points (0.2 of an SD) are considered substantively meaningful for the purposes of this analysis. For example, the scale score gap between students who had neither risk factor (54 points) and those who had both risk factors (45 points) was 0.8 SD.

<sup>8</sup> The fall kindergarten mathematics score for the full ECLS-K:2011 sample has a mean of 33 and a standard deviation (SD) of 11.4. Scale score gaps that are greater than or equal to 2.3 points (0.2 of an SD) are considered substantively meaningful for the purposes of this analysis. For example, the scale score gap between students who had neither risk factor (37 points) and those who had both risk factors (26 points) was 1.0 SD.

<sup>9</sup> The spring kindergarten science score for the full ECLS-K:2011 sample has a mean of 31 and a standard deviation (SD) of 6.9. Scale score gaps that are greater than or equal to 1.4 points (0.2 of an SD) are considered substantively meaningful for the purposes of this analysis. For example, the scale score gap between students who had neither risk factor (33 points) and those who had both risk factors (25 points) was 1.2 SD.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 220.39, 220.40, 220.41, and 220.42

**Related indicators and resources:** Characteristics of Children's Families; Preschool and Kindergarten Enrollment; Kindergarten Entry Status: On-Time, Delayed-Entry, and Repeating Kindergartners [*The Condition of Education 2013 Spotlight*]; Kindergartners' Approaches to Learning Behaviors and Academic Outcomes [*The Condition of Education 2015 Spotlight*]; Kindergartners' Approaches to Learning, Family Socioeconomic Status, and Early Academic Gains [*The Condition of Education 2016 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Educational attainment, Household, Poverty (official measure), Racial/ethnic group

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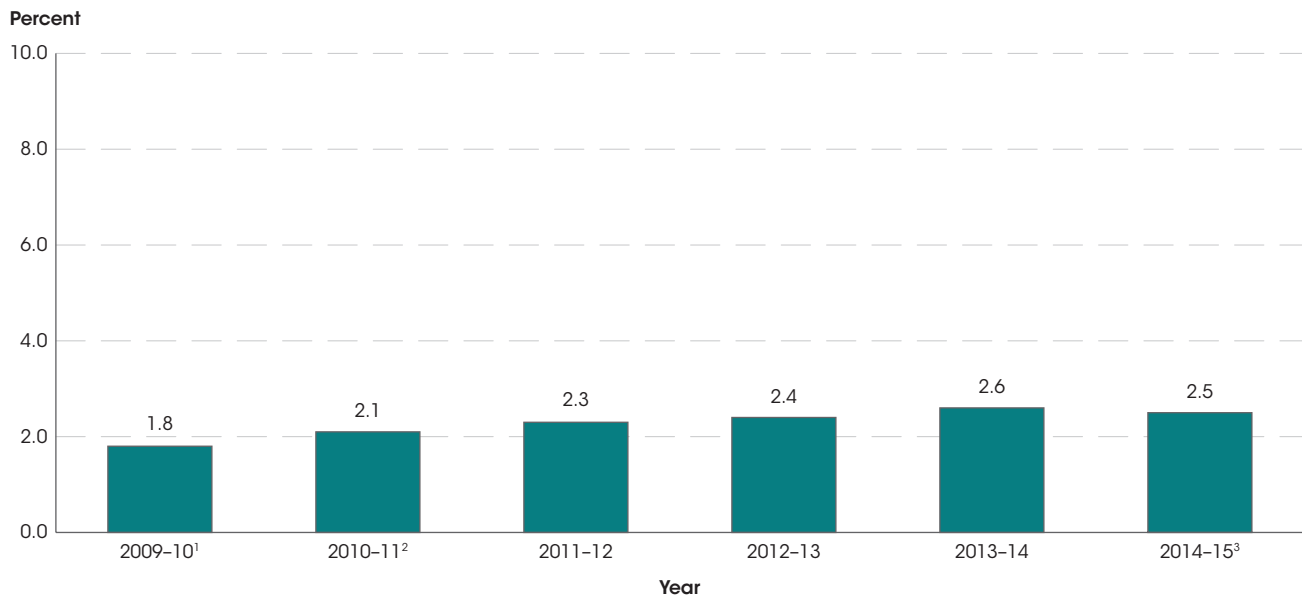
## Homeless Children and Youth in Public Schools

*In 2014–15, some 2.5 percent of students in U.S. public elementary and secondary schools were reported as homeless children or youth (1.3 million students). This percentage varied from 2.0 percent in suburban school districts to 2.4 percent in rural districts, 2.6 percent in town districts, and 3.7 percent in city districts. The largest numbers of homeless students were enrolled in city (578,000 students) and suburban districts (422,000 students), compared to rural (149,000 students) and town districts (139,000 students).*

Research has shown that children experiencing homelessness face a range of challenges related to their health, emotional well-being, and safety.<sup>1</sup> Unstable housing situations may lead to increased rates of transfer among public schools, resulting in further disruptions to the education of homeless students.<sup>2</sup> The U.S. Department of Education collects data on homeless students under the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act of 1987. This authority was recently renewed under the Every Student Succeeds Act of 2015. The McKinney-Vento Act requires that school districts identify students who are experiencing homelessness and guarantees their right to enroll in public schools and access educational and transportation services. Under this law, states report data to the Department of Education on the number of homeless students enrolled in public schools, as well as the characteristics of these students. Under the McKinney-Vento Act, students are identified as homeless if they lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence.<sup>3</sup>

Students experiencing homelessness may be temporarily doubled up with other families or sharing housing due to loss of housing, economic hardship, or other reasons (such as domestic violence); living in hotels or motels; living in shelters or other forms of temporary housing; or living in unsheltered situations (e.g., living in cars, parks, campgrounds, Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) trailers, or abandoned buildings).

Over time, the capacity of school systems to identify students experiencing homelessness, collect information, and report data to the Department of Education has improved.<sup>4</sup> Some of the change over time in the rates of homelessness among public school students may be attributable to improved reporting practices.<sup>5</sup> In addition, some of the variation across jurisdictions in the rates of homelessness and the characteristics of homeless students may be related to variation in reporting practices.

**Figure 1. Percentage of public school students who were identified as homeless: School years 2009–10 through 2014–15**

<sup>1</sup> Data for 2009–10 exclude Maine and Oklahoma.

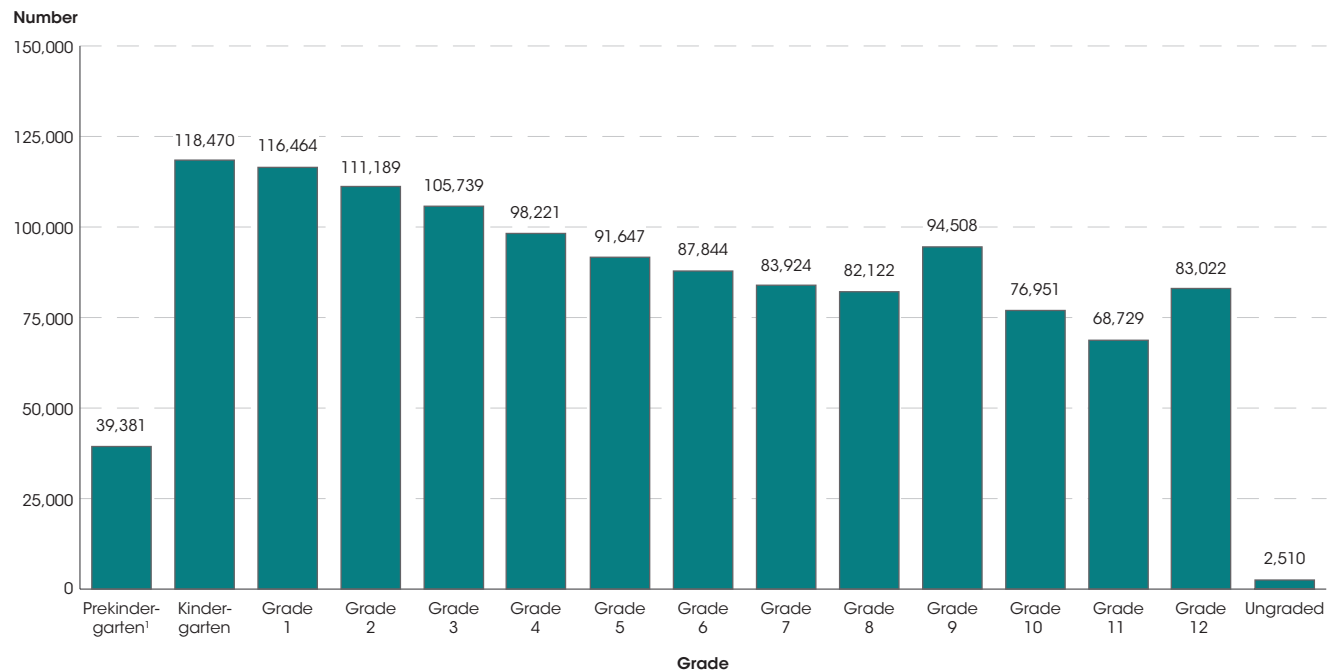
<sup>2</sup> Data for 2010–11 exclude Oklahoma.

<sup>3</sup> The decrease in homeless students in 2014–15 was caused in part by changes to California’s data collection systems. For more information, see section 1.9 of California’s 2014–15 Consolidated State Performance Report (<https://www2.ed.gov/admins/lead/account/consolidated/sy14-15part1/ca.pdf>). NOTE: Homeless students are defined as children/youth who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence. For more information, see “C118–Homeless Students Enrolled” at <https://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/sy-14-15-nonxml.html>. Data include all homeless students enrolled at any time during the school year. Data exclude Puerto Rico and the Bureau of Indian Education. This figure is based on state-level data. Percentage is based on sum of counts by grade, including prekindergarten.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, EDData file 118, Data Group 655, extracted October 14, 2016, from the EDData Data Warehouse (internal U.S. Department of Education source); and Common Core of Data (CCD), “State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary and Secondary Education,” 2009–10 through 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.75a.

The number of U.S. public elementary and secondary students reported as homeless increased from 910,000 in 2009–10 to 1.3 million in 2014–15.<sup>6</sup> During this

time, the percentage of public school students who were reported as homeless increased from 1.8 percent in 2009–10 to 2.5 percent in 2014–15.

**Figure 2. Number of public school students who were identified as homeless, by grade: School year 2014–15**

<sup>1</sup> Includes all 3- to 5-year-old homeless children who are not in kindergarten.

NOTE: Homeless students are defined as children/youth who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence. For more information, see "C118–Homeless Students Enrolled" at <https://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/sy-14-15-nonxml.html>. Data include all homeless students enrolled at any time during the school year. Data exclude Puerto Rico and the Bureau of Indian Education. This figure is based on state-level data.

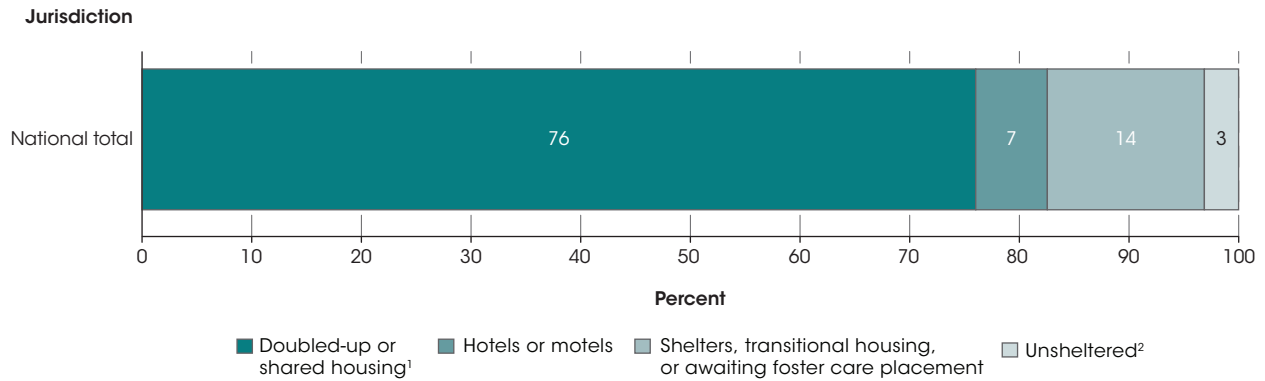
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, ED*Facts* file 118, Data Group 655, extracted October 14, 2016, from the ED*Facts* Data Warehouse (internal U.S. Department of Education source). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.75a.

In 2014–15, larger numbers of homeless students were enrolled in early elementary grades (excluding preschool) than in later grades. Over 100,000 students were reported

as homeless at each grade level from kindergarten to 3rd grade. In contrast, 68,700 students in 11th grade and 83,000 students in 12th grade were reported as homeless.



**Figure 3. Percentage distribution of public school students who were identified as homeless, by primary nighttime residence: School year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Refers to temporarily sharing the housing of other persons due to loss of housing, economic hardship, or other reasons (such as domestic violence).

<sup>2</sup> Includes living in cars, parks, campgrounds, temporary trailers—including Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) trailers—or abandoned buildings.

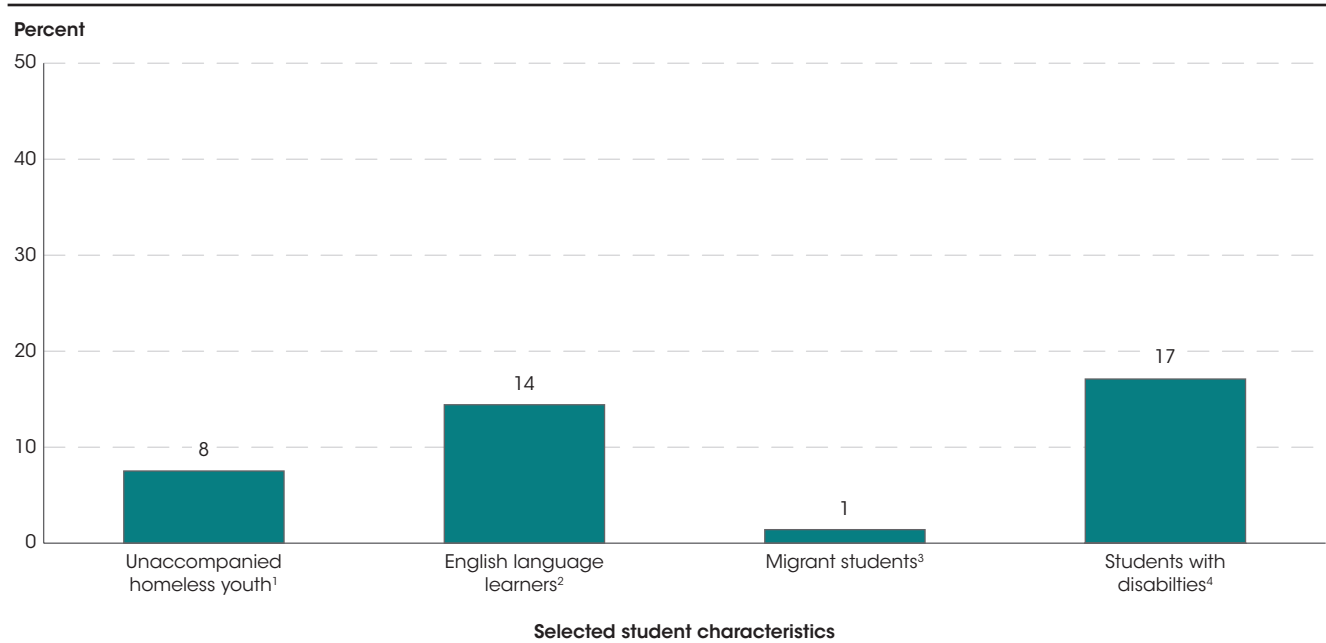
NOTE: Homeless students are defined as children/youth who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence. For more information, see “C118–Homeless Students Enrolled” at <https://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/sy-14-15-nonxml.html>. Data include all homeless students enrolled at any time during the school year. Data exclude Puerto Rico and the Bureau of Indian Education. This figure is based on state-level data.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, ED*Facts* file 118, Data Group 655, extracted October 14, 2016, from the ED*Facts* Data Warehouse (internal U.S. Department of Education source). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.75a.

The Department of Education also collects data on the primary nighttime residences of students reported as homeless. In 2014–15, some 76 percent of homeless students reported that they were doubled up with another family due to a loss of housing, economic hardship, or

other reasons (such as domestic violence). An additional 14 percent were housed in shelters or transitional housing, or were awaiting foster care placement. Seven percent resided in hotels or motels and 3 percent were unsheltered.

**Figure 4. Percentage of public school students who were identified as homeless, by selected student characteristics: School year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Youth who are not in the physical custody of a parent or guardian. Includes youth living on their own and youth living with a caregiver who is not their legal guardian.

<sup>2</sup> Students who met the definition of limited English proficient students as outlined in the ED*Facts* workbook. For more information, see <http://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/eden-workbook.html>.

<sup>3</sup> Students who met the definition of eligible migrant children as outlined in the ED*Facts* workbook. Such students are either migratory workers or the children or spouses of migratory workers and have moved within the preceding 36 months in order to obtain, or to accompany parents or spouses who moved in order to obtain, temporary or seasonal employment in agricultural or fishing work. For more information, see <http://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/eden-workbook.html>. Connecticut, the District of Columbia, Rhode Island, and West Virginia did not operate a migrant education program during the 2014–15 school year and therefore had no data to provide on migrant homeless students.

<sup>4</sup> Includes only students with disabilities who were served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA).

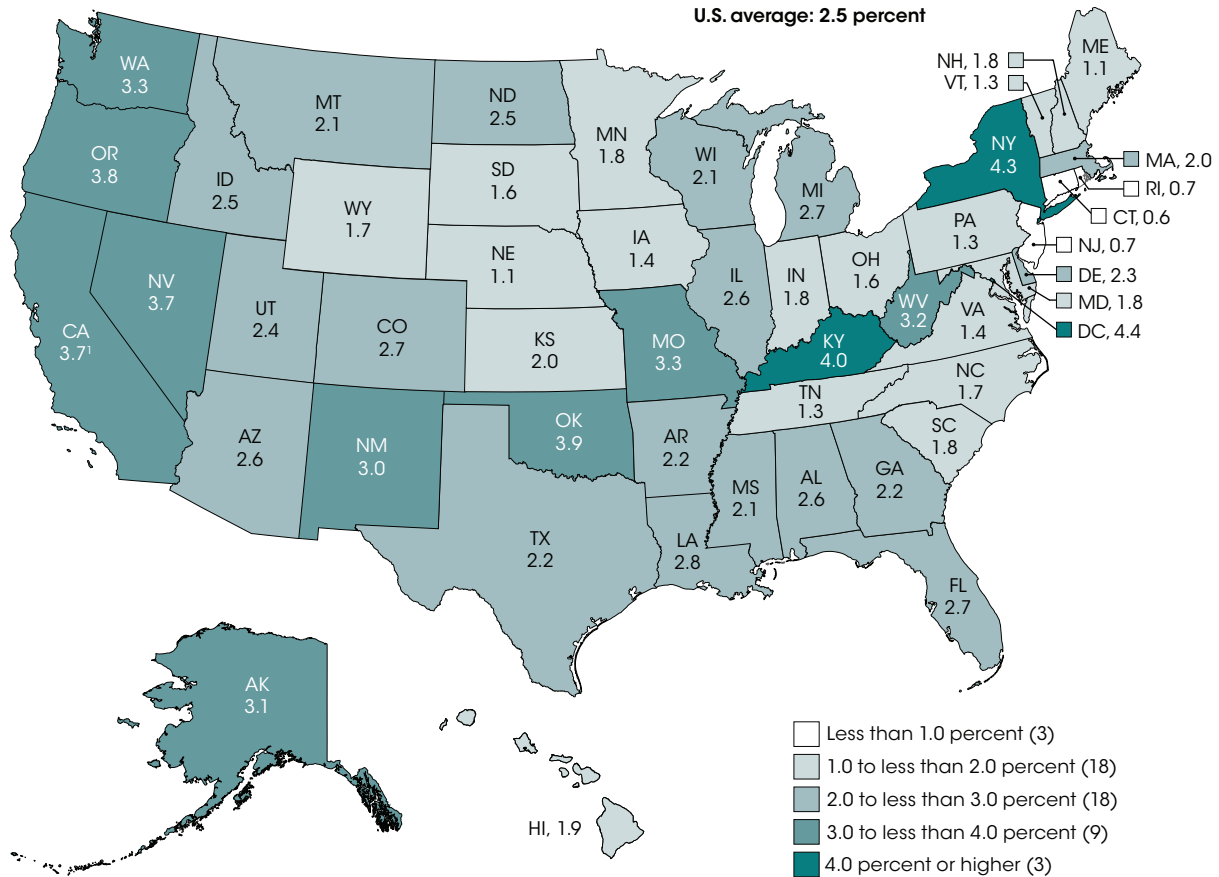
NOTE: Homeless students are defined as children/youth who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence. For more information, see "C118 - Homeless Students Enrolled" at <https://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/sy-14-15-nonxml.html>. Data include all homeless students enrolled at any time during the school year. Data exclude Puerto Rico and the Bureau of Indian Education. This figure is based on state-level data.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, ED*Facts* file 118, Data Group 655, extracted October 14, 2016, from the ED*Facts* Data Warehouse (internal U.S. Department of Education source). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.75a.

While most homeless students experience homelessness together with their family unit, 8 percent of homeless students in 2014–15 (94,800 students) were not in the physical custody of a parent or guardian. This group of students, known as unaccompanied homeless youth, includes individuals experiencing a range of personal circumstances, including runaway youth and youth who have been separated from their family due to conflict or loss of contact. The group also includes youth living with a caregiver who is not their legal guardian.

In addition, 14 percent of homeless students in 2014–15 were identified as English language learners, compared to 9 percent of all public school students (see indicator [English Language Learners in Public Schools](#)).<sup>7</sup> Seventeen percent of homeless students were identified as students with disabilities under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), compared to 13 percent of all public school students (see indicator [Children and Youth With Disabilities](#)).<sup>8</sup> Around 1 percent of homeless students were identified as migrant students.<sup>9</sup>

**Figure 5. Percentage of public school students who were identified as homeless, by state: School year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> California’s 2014–15 homeless count decreased from previous years in part because of changes to the state’s data collection systems. For more information, see section 1.9 of California’s 2014–15 Consolidated State Performance Report (<https://www2.ed.gov/admins/lead/account/consolidated/sy14-15part1/ca.pdf>).

NOTE: Homeless students are defined as children/youth who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence. For more information, see “C118–Homeless Students Enrolled” at <https://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/sy-14-15-nonxml.html>. Data include all homeless students enrolled at any time during the school year. Data exclude Puerto Rico and the Bureau of Indian Education. Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.

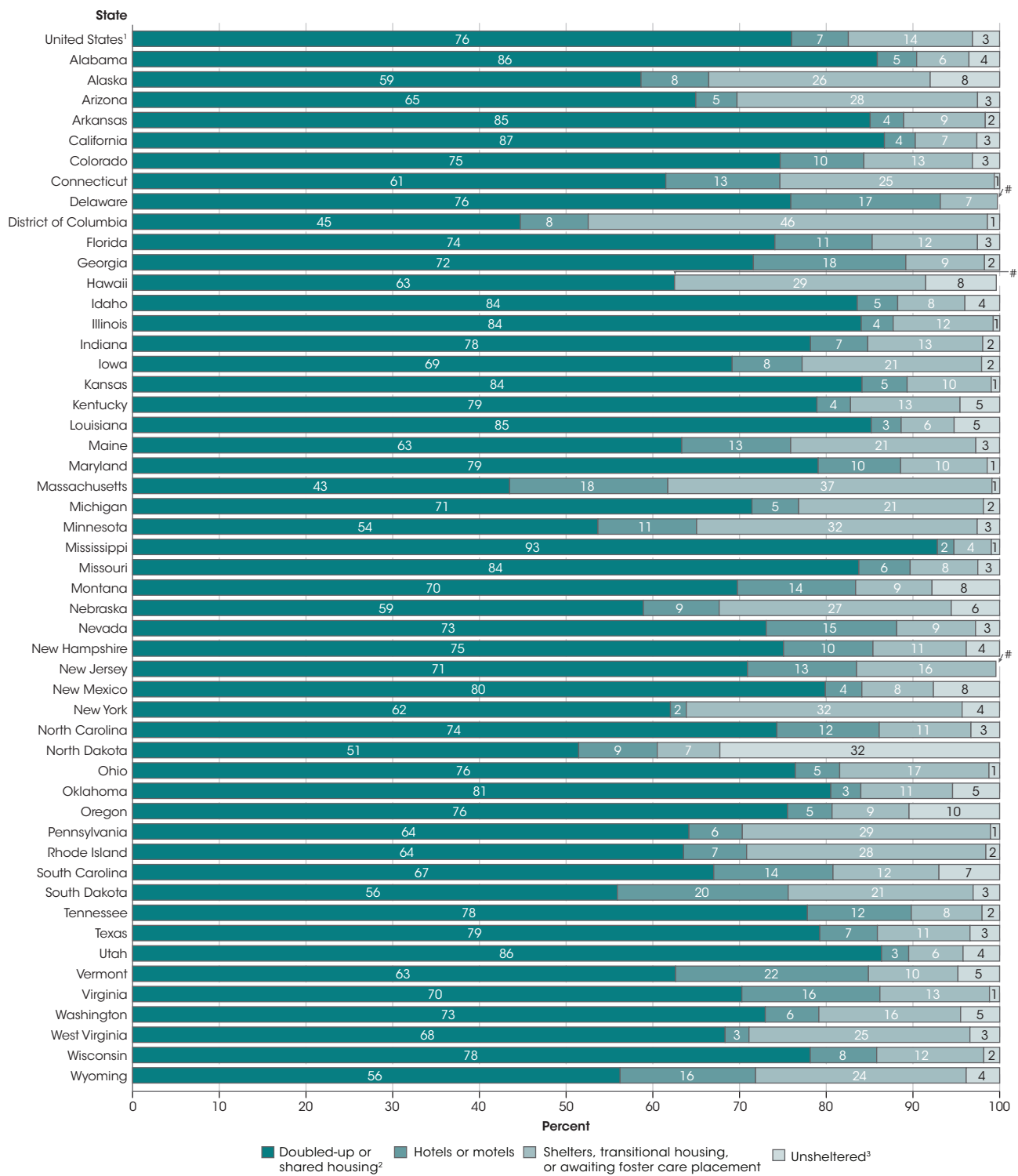
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, ED*Facts* file 118, Data Group 655, extracted October 14, 2016, from the ED*Facts* Data Warehouse (internal U.S. Department of Education source); Common Core of Data (CCD), “State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary and Secondary Education,” 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.75c.

At the state level, the percentage of public school students who were reported as homeless in 2014–15 ranged from less than 1 percent in Connecticut (0.6 percent), Rhode Island (0.7 percent), and New Jersey (0.7 percent) to 4 percent or more in Kentucky (4.0 percent), New York (4.3 percent), and the District of Columbia (4.4 percent).

In 2014–15, the number of homeless students enrolled in public schools was higher than in 2009–10 in 44 states and the District of Columbia. The increases during this

time period ranged from 1 percent in Rhode Island to 84 percent in Michigan, 94 percent in Nevada, 98 percent in Missouri, 99 percent in West Virginia, 113 percent in Montana, and 267 percent in North Dakota. In contrast, the number of homeless students enrolled in public schools was lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 in four states: Louisiana (19 percent lower), Arizona (6 percent lower), Delaware (4 percent lower), and Utah (1 percent lower).<sup>10</sup>

**Figure 6. Percentage distribution of public school students who were identified as homeless, by state and primary nighttime residence: School year 2014-15**



# Rounds to zero.

<sup>1</sup> Excludes Puerto Rico and the Bureau of Indian Education.

<sup>2</sup> Refers to temporarily sharing the housing of other persons due to loss of housing, economic hardship, or other reasons (such as domestic violence).

<sup>3</sup> Includes living in cars, parks, campgrounds, temporary trailers—including Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) trailers—or abandoned buildings.

NOTE: Homeless students are defined as children/youth who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence. For more information, see “C118—Homeless Students Enrolled” at <https://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/sy-14-15-nonxml.html>. Data include all homeless students enrolled at any time during the school year. This figure is based on state-level data. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

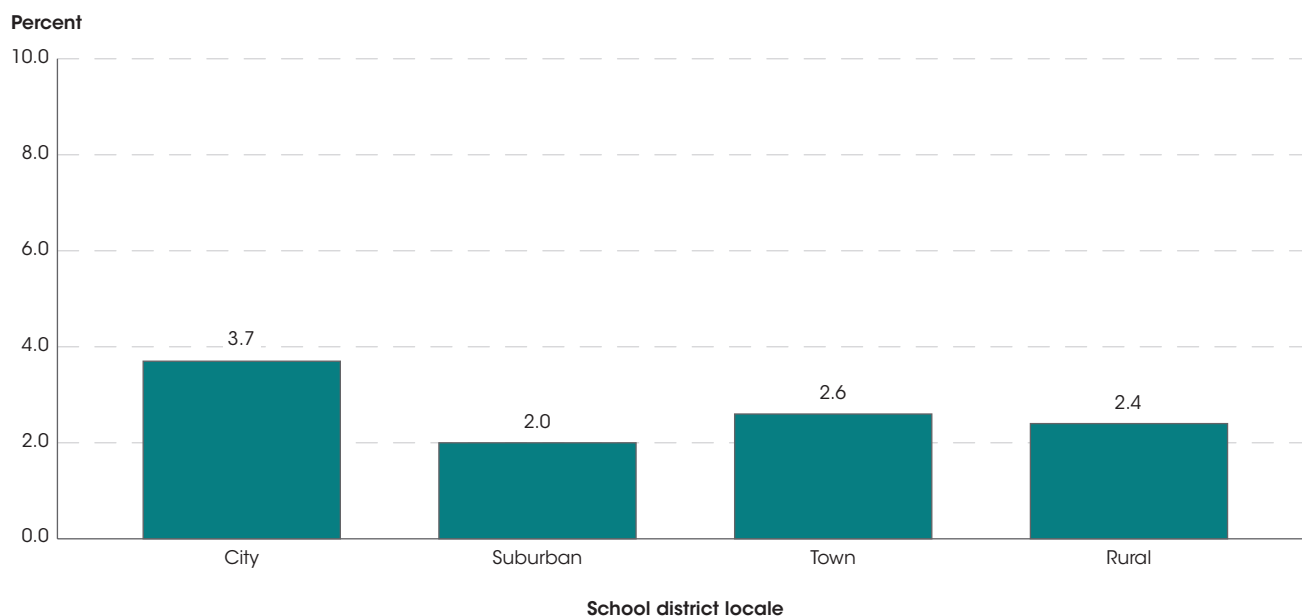
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, ED Facts file 118, Data Group 655, extracted October 14, 2016, from the ED Facts Data Warehouse (internal U.S. Department of Education source). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.75d.

The percentages of homeless students in each primary nighttime residence category varied across states in 2014–15, although in all 50 states the largest share were doubled up with other families. The percentage of homeless students living doubled up with other families ranged from 43 percent in Massachusetts to 93 percent in Mississippi. In the District of Columbia, however, a slightly larger share were in shelters (46 percent) than doubled up (45 percent). In addition to the District of Columbia, the percentage of homeless students in shelters was greater than 30 percent in New York (32 percent), Minnesota (32 percent), and Massachusetts (37 percent). The percentage of homeless students in hotels and motels

ranged from less than 1 percent in Hawaii to 22 percent in Vermont, and the percentage of homeless students who were unsheltered ranged from less than one half of 1 percent in New Jersey and Delaware to 32 percent in North Dakota.

Similarly, the percentage of unaccompanied youth among homeless students varied widely across states in 2014–15. New Jersey, West Virginia, and Wyoming reported zero unaccompanied homeless youth, while two states reported that more than 20 percent of their homeless students were unaccompanied youth: Alaska (22 percent) and Maine (23 percent).

**Figure 7. Percentage of public school students who were identified as homeless, by school district locale: School year 2014–15**



NOTE: Homeless students are defined as children/youth who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence. For more information, see “C118–Homeless Students Enrolled” at <https://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/sy-14-15-nonxml.html>. Data include all homeless students enrolled at any time during the school year. Data exclude Puerto Rico and the Bureau of Indian Education. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, *EDFacts* file 118, Data Group 655, extracted January 23, 2017, from the *EDFacts* Data Warehouse (internal U.S. Department of Education source). Common Core of Data (CCD), “Local Education Agency Universe Survey,” 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.75b.

In 2014–15, a higher percentage of students in city districts were homeless (3.7 percent) than in town (2.6 percent), rural (2.4 percent), and suburban districts (2.0 percent). Nevertheless, there was a large number of homeless students enrolled in suburban districts (422,000), which was second only to the number in city districts (578,000). Smaller numbers of homeless students were enrolled in rural (149,000) and town (139,000) districts.

“Doubled up” was the most common primary nighttime residence across the four locale categories (city, suburban, town, and rural) in 2014–15. The percentage of homeless students who were doubled up with other families ranged from 70 percent in city districts to 81 percent in rural districts. The percentage of homeless students who were

housed in shelters was higher in city districts (21 percent) than in suburban (11 percent), town (10 percent), and rural districts (9 percent). The percentages of homeless students who were unsheltered or living in hotels and motels varied less widely across locale categories.

Among the 120 largest school districts in the country in 2014–15, Santa Ana Unified (California) and New York City reported the highest percentages of students experiencing homelessness (10.6 and 10.1 percent, respectively). In New York City alone, 100,000 students were reported as homeless. The district with the next largest number of homeless students enrolled in public schools was Chicago, where 19,900 students were reported as homeless.

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Buckner, J.C. (2008). Understanding the Impact of Homelessness on Children: Challenges and Future Research Directions. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 51(6): 721–736. Retrieved May 2, 2017, from <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/0002764207311984>.

<sup>2</sup> Swick, K.J. (2005). Helping Homeless Families Overcome Barriers to Successful Functioning. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 33(3): 195–200. Retrieved May 2, 2017, from <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10643-005-0044-0>.

<sup>3</sup> For more information on the definition of homelessness used in this indicator, see “C118—Homeless Students Enrolled” at <https://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/sy-14-15-nonxml.html> and section 725(2) of the McKinney-Vento Homeless Education Assistance Improvements Act of 2001 at <https://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/pg116.html>.

<sup>4</sup> John McLaughlin, U.S. Department of Education, personal communication, August 25, 2016.

<sup>5</sup> For example, in 2014–15 California modified its data collection systems, resulting in a 17 percent decrease in the number of students reported as homeless. This change occurred, in part, because a student’s homeless status no longer rolled over from year to year and instead depended on yearly verification.

<sup>6</sup> National totals presented in this indicator exclude Puerto Rico and the Bureau of Indian Education. Due to missing data,

national totals for 2009–10 exclude Maine and Oklahoma and national totals for 2010–11 exclude Oklahoma. National totals for 2014–15 include imputations to address data quality issues.

<sup>7</sup> Includes students who met the definition of limited English proficient students as outlined in the *EDFacts* workbook. For more information, see <http://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/eden-workbook.html>.

<sup>8</sup> Includes only students with disabilities who were served under IDEA.

<sup>9</sup> Includes students who met the definition of eligible migrant children as outlined in the *EDFacts* workbook. Such students are either migratory workers or the children or spouses of migratory workers and have moved within the preceding 36 months in order to obtain, or to accompany parents or spouses who moved in order to obtain, temporary or seasonal employment in agricultural or fishing work. For more information, see <http://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/eden-workbook.html>. Connecticut, the District of Columbia, Rhode Island, and West Virginia did not operate a migrant education program during the 2014–15 school year and therefore had no data to provide on migrant homeless students. Comparable data on the percentage of all students identified as migrants were unavailable.

<sup>10</sup> 2009–10 data were unavailable for Maine and Oklahoma.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 204.75a, 204.75b, 204.75c, 204.75d, and 204.75e

**Related indicators and resources:** Elementary and Secondary Enrollment, English Language Learners in Public Schools, Children and Youth With Disabilities

**Glossary:** Disabilities, children with; English language learner (ELL); Enrollment; Locale codes; Public school or institution

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## First-Time Postsecondary Students' Persistence After 3 Years

*Seventy percent of all first-time postsecondary students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions in 2011–12 were still enrolled or had attained a certificate or degree by spring 2014. However, this percentage, also known as a persistence rate, varied by institutional, academic, and student characteristics, including level (2- and 4-year) and control (public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit) of institution, SAT or ACT scores, student age, and race/ethnicity. For example, the persistence rate for students who began at 2-year institutions (57 percent) was 23 percentage points lower than for students who began at 4-year institutions (80 percent). At 4-year institutions, students who were 19 years old or younger when they began had a higher persistence rate (85 percent) than students who were 20 to 23 years old (53 percent), 24 to 29 years old (48 percent), and 30 years old or over (57 percent).*

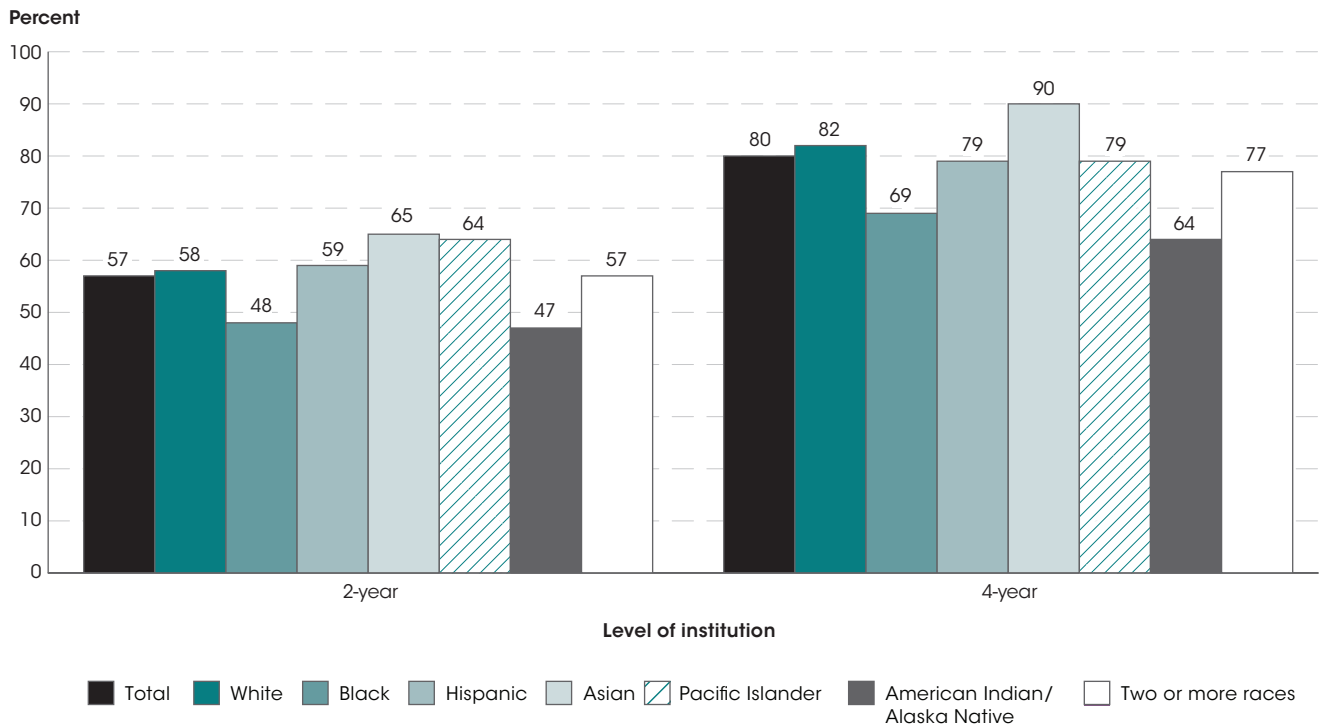
Persistence in postsecondary education is important as continued enrollment is a necessary condition for timely completion of a bachelor's or associate's degree. In this Spotlight, students are considered to have persisted if they were enrolled at any institution or had attained a degree or certificate 3 years after first enrolling. Research indicates that persistence and attainment rates for college students vary by socioeconomic, academic, and postsecondary institution characteristics. A National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) study found that male students were less likely than female students to attain an associate's or bachelor's degree 6 years after enrollment when controlling for other student, family, high school, and postsecondary institutional characteristics.<sup>1</sup> Moreover, among students from low socioeconomic backgrounds, high school noncompleters as well as completers with weak academic credentials (low scores and/or grades) were

less likely to enroll at 4-year institutions and ultimately complete undergraduate studies than their high school peers with stronger academic credentials.<sup>2</sup> Another NCES report found that persistence and attainment rates 5 years after first enrolling in college were lower for nontraditional students (identified as those who worked full time or had children, among other characteristics) than for traditional students.<sup>3</sup>

This Spotlight, using the latest data from NCES's Beginning Postsecondary Students (BPS) longitudinal study, explores differences in postsecondary persistence rates 3 years after initial enrollment. BPS follows a cohort of students who enrolled in postsecondary education for the first time in 2011–12 and collects data on student persistence, attainment, demographic characteristics, employment, marital status, income, and debt.



**Figure 1. Persistence rates of first-time postsecondary students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions during the 2011–12 academic year, by race/ethnicity: Spring 2014**



NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Students who first enrolled during the 2011–12 academic year are considered to have persisted if they were enrolled at any institution in Spring 2014 or had attained a degree or certificate by that time.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2012/14 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (BPS:12/14). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.50.

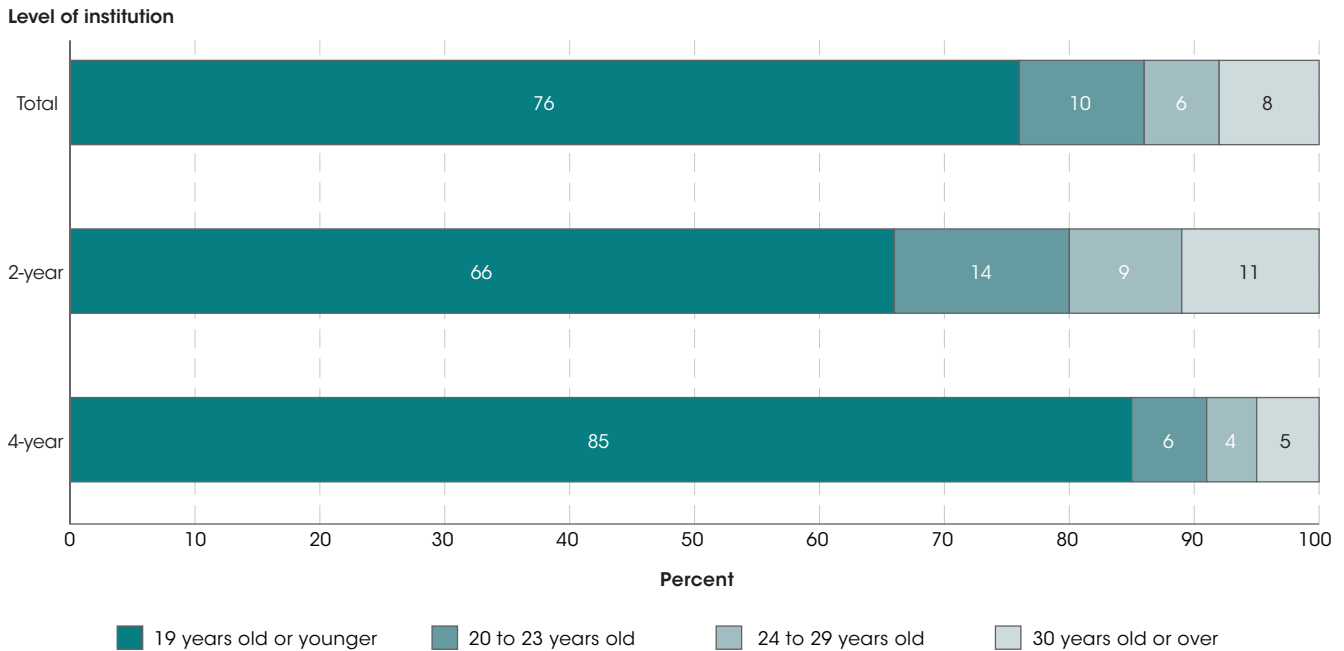
In spring 2014, the persistence rate for students who began at 2-year institutions (57 percent) in 2011–12 was 23 percentage points lower than for students who began at 4-year institutions (80 percent). This gap was observed for students who were White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and of Two or more races. The difference in persistence rates between students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions ranged from 19 percentage points for Hispanic students (59 versus 79 percent) to 25 percentage points for White students (58 versus 82 percent) and Asian students (65 versus 90 percent).

Among first-time students who began at 4-year institutions in 2011–12, Asian students had a higher persistence rate (90 percent) as of spring 2014 than White

students (82 percent). Both Asian and White students had a higher persistence rate than Hispanic (79 percent), Black (69 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native students (64 percent).

Black students who began at 2-year institutions had a lower persistence rate (48 percent) than their White (58 percent), Hispanic (59 percent), and Asian (65 percent) peers. However, there was no measurable difference in persistence rates among the other racial/ethnic groups. For instance, unlike at 4-year institutions, the persistence rate for Hispanic students who began at 2-year institutions was not measurably different from the persistence rates for Asian and White students.

**Figure 2. Percentage distribution of first-time postsecondary students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions during the 2011–12 academic year, by level of institution and age when first enrolled: 2012**

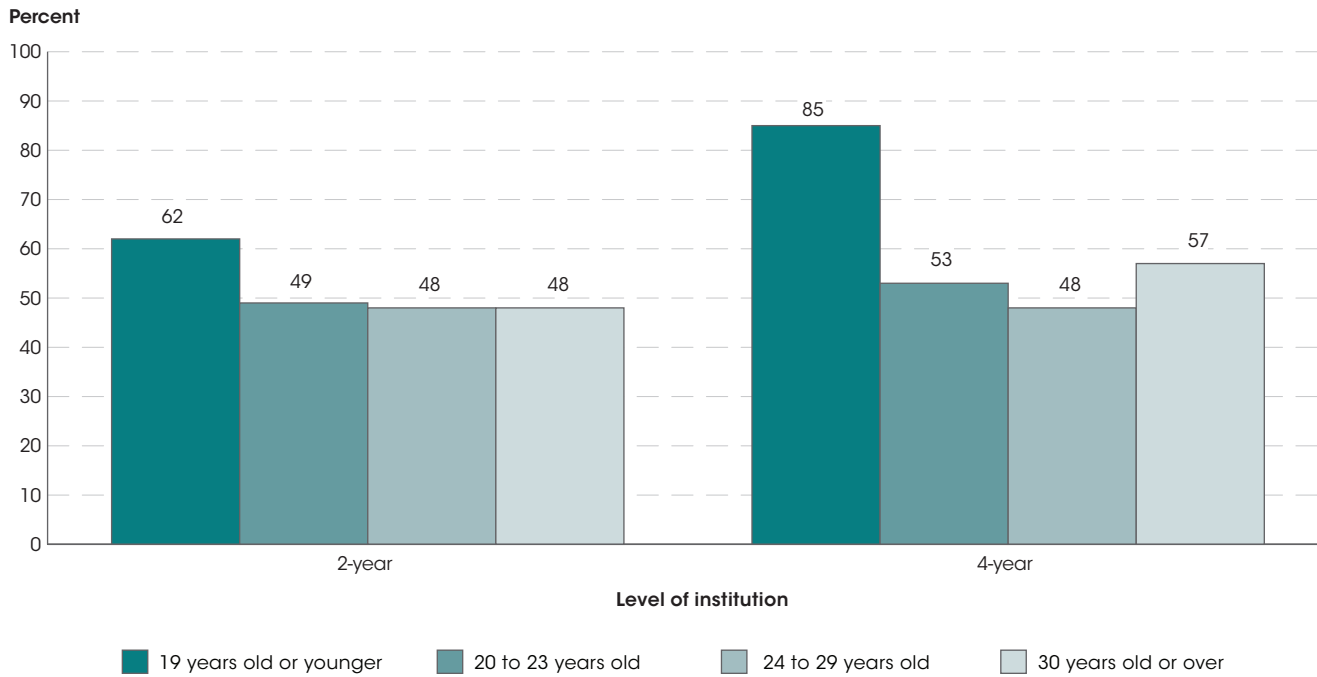


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2012/14 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (BPS:12/14). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.50.

Students 19 years old or younger as of December 2011 accounted for the majority of first-time postsecondary students in 2011–12, and students in this age group had higher persistence rates than students who began their postsecondary education when they were 20 to 23 years old, 24 to 29 years old, and 30 years or older. However, the distribution of students by age group differed by level of institution (i.e., 2- and 4-year institutions). At 4-year

institutions, students who were 19 years old or younger made up 85 percent of first-time students. This was nearly 20 percentage points higher than the share of students who were 19 years old or younger at 2-year institutions (66 percent). Conversely, students from the three older age groups combined to account for 15 percent of students who began at 4-year institutions, compared to 34 percent at 2-year institutions.

**Figure 3. Persistence rates of first-time postsecondary students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions during the 2011-12 academic year, by age when first enrolled: Spring 2014**



NOTE: Students who first enrolled during the 2011-12 academic year are considered to have persisted if they were enrolled at any institution in Spring 2014 or had attained a degree or certificate by that time.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2012/14 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (BPS:12/14). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.50.

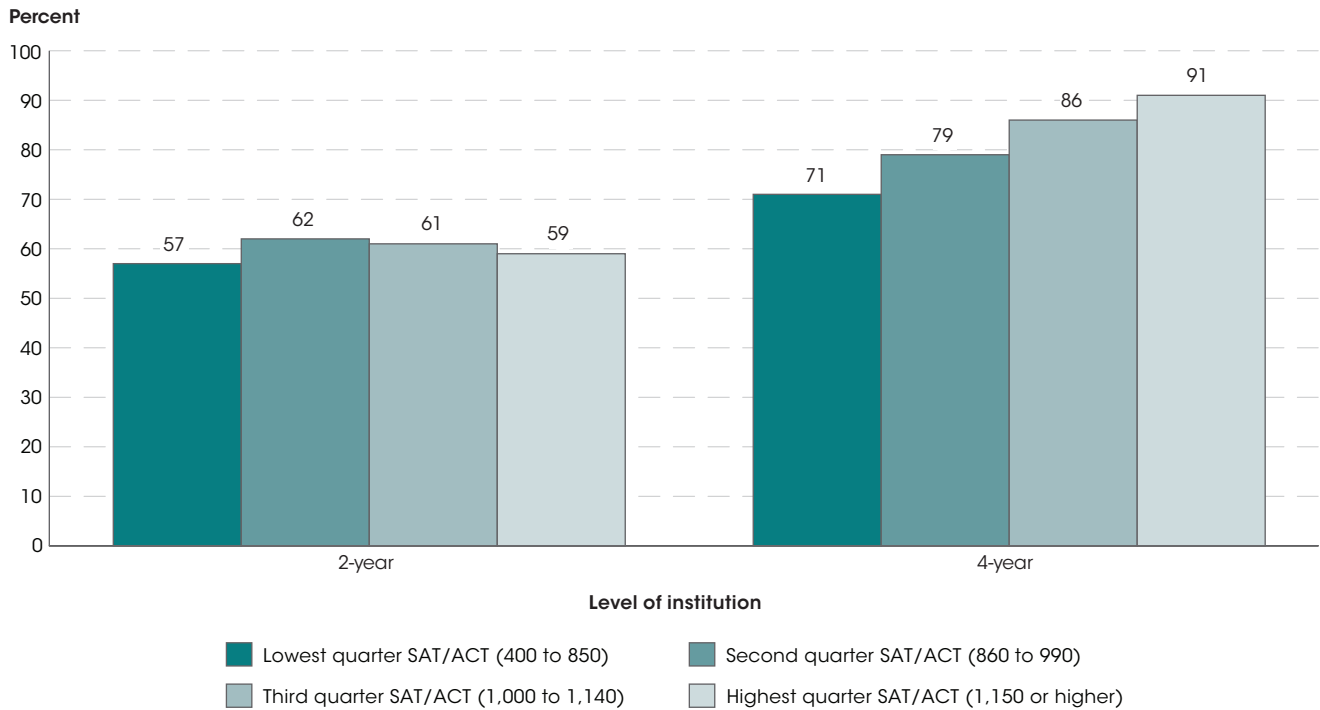
Among students who began at 4-year institutions, the persistence rate for students who were 19 years old or younger (85 percent) was higher than students who were 20 to 23 years old (53 percent), 24 to 29 years old (48 percent), and 30 years old or over (57 percent). There was no measurable difference between the persistence rates for the oldest three age groups who began at 4-year institutions. The same pattern was observed for first-time students who began at 2-year institutions. Students 19 years old or younger had the highest persistence rate (62 percent), while there was no measurable difference in persistence rates between the three older age groups, which ranged from 48 to 49 percent.

The persistence rate for students 19 years old or younger who began at 2-year institutions (62 percent) was

24 percentage points lower than the rate for their same-aged peers who began at 4-year institutions (85 percent). There were no measurable differences in persistence rates by level of institution for students who began their postsecondary education when they were 20 to 23 years old, 24 to 29 years old, and 30 years old or over.

Initial enrollment at 4-year institutions and persistence varied by SAT or ACT scores.<sup>4</sup> Some 41 percent of students who scored in the lowest quarter of SAT/ACT scores began at 4-year institutions, compared to 82 percent of students who scored in the highest quarter of SAT/ACT scores.

**Figure 4. Persistence rates of first-time postsecondary students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions during the 2011-12 academic year, by SAT/ACT score quarter: Spring 2014**

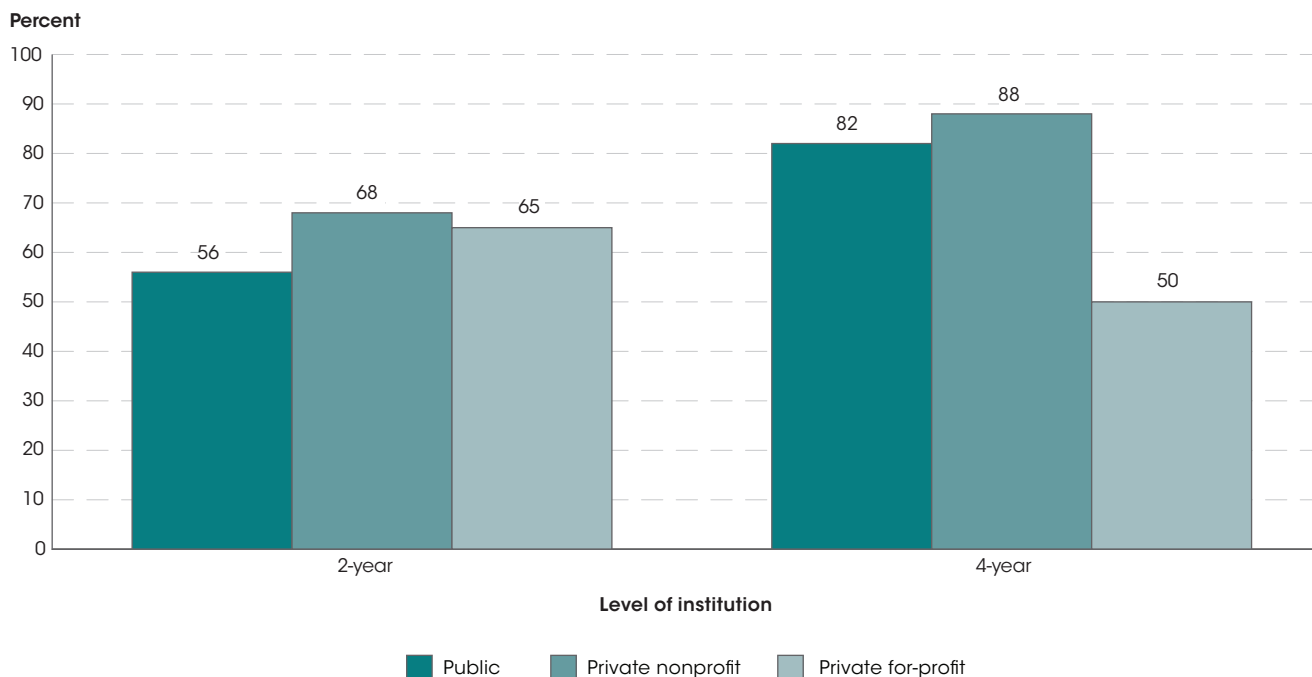


NOTE: Students who first enrolled during the 2011-12 academic year are considered to have persisted if they were enrolled at any institution in Spring 2014 or had attained a degree or certificate by that time. Score quarters are based on the SAT combined critical reading and mathematics score; scale ranges from 400 to 1600. ACT scores for students who only took the ACT exam were converted to SAT scores using a concordance table from the following source: Dorans, N. (1999). *Correspondences Between ACT and SAT I Scores* (College Board Report No. 99-1). New York: College Entrance Examination Board. SAT combined scores were restricted to respondents less than 30 years old.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2012/14 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (BPS:12/14). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.50.

Among students who began at 4-year institutions, students who scored in the highest quarter of SAT/ACT scores had higher persistence rates (91 percent) than students who scored in the third quarter (86 percent), second quarter (79 percent), and lowest quarter (71 percent) of SAT/ACT scores. There was no measurable difference in persistence rates between the

SAT/ACT score groups for students who began at 2-year institutions, which typically do not require SAT/ACT scores for admission. Within each SAT/ACT score quarter, persistence rates were higher for students who began at 4-year institutions than for students who began at 2-year institutions.

**Figure 5. Persistence rates of first-time postsecondary students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions during the 2011-12 academic year, by control of first institution: Spring 2014**

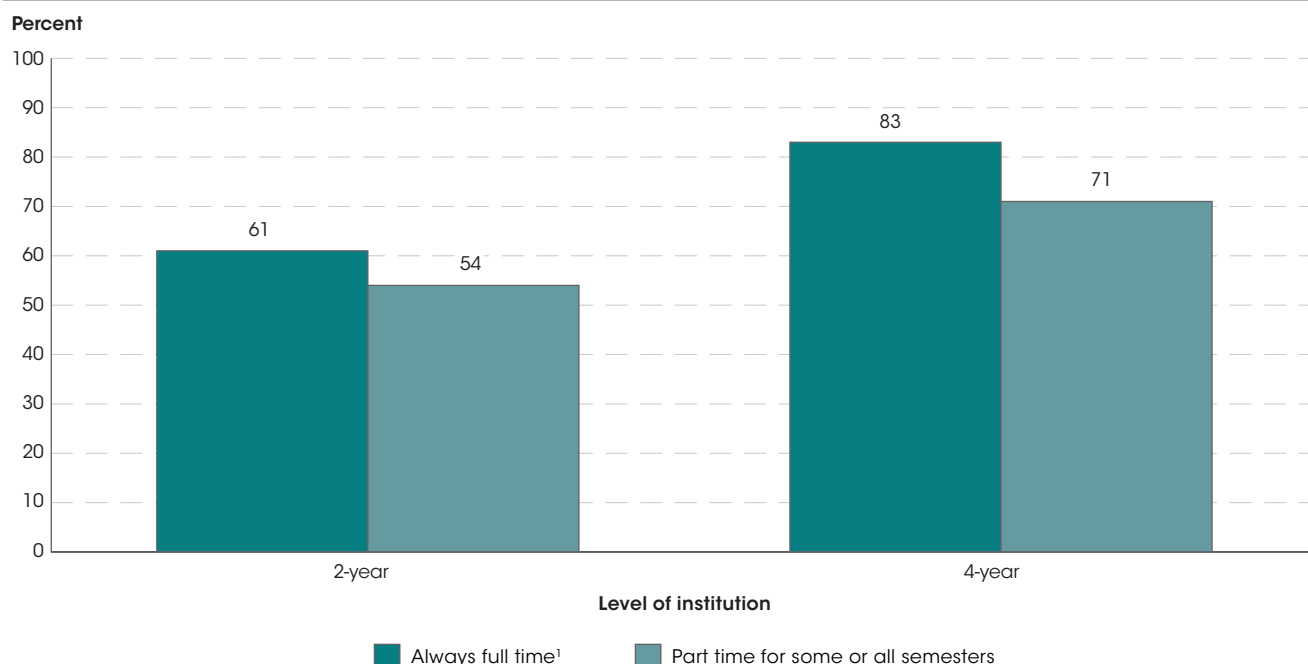


NOTE: Students who first enrolled during the 2011-12 academic year are considered to have persisted if they were enrolled at any institution in Spring 2014 or had attained a degree or certificate by that time.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2012/14 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (BPS:12/14). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.50.

Persistence rates at 4-year institutions varied by control of institution (public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit). Students who began at private nonprofit 4-year and public 4-year institutions had persistence rates (88 percent and 82 percent, respectively) more than

30 percentage points higher than students who began at private, for profit 4-year institutions (50 percent). Among students who began at 2-year institutions, there was no measurable difference in persistence rates by control of institution.

**Figure 6. Persistence rates of first-time postsecondary students who began at 2- and 4-year institutions during the 2011–12 academic year, by attendance intensity: Spring 2014**



<sup>1</sup> Full-time undergraduate students are typically enrolled for at least 12 semester or quarter hours per term or at least 24 clock hours per week. NOTE: Students who first enrolled during the 2011–12 academic year are considered to have persisted if they were enrolled at any institution in Spring 2014 or had attained a degree or certificate by that time. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2012/14 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (BPS:12/14). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.50.

The persistence rate for students who began at 4-year institutions and were full-time students<sup>5</sup> from 2011–12 to spring 2014 (83 percent) was 12 percentage points higher than for students who began at 4-year institutions and were part-time students for at least one semester

(71 percent). Likewise, students who began at 2-year institutions and remained full-time students throughout had a higher persistence rate (61 percent) than their peers who began at 2-year institutions and were part-time students for at least one semester (54 percent).

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Ross, T., Kena, G., Rathbun, A., KewalRamani, A., Zhang, J., Kristapovich, P., and Manning, E. (2012). *Higher Education: Gaps in Access and Persistence Study* (NCES 2012-046). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved December 14, 2016, from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2012/2012046/>.

<sup>2</sup> Finn, J.D. (2006). *The Adult Lives of At-Risk Students: The Roles of Attainment and Engagement in High School*. (NCES 2006-328). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved May 3, 2017, from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2006328>.

<sup>3</sup> Horn, L.J. (1997). *Nontraditional Undergraduates: Trends in Enrollment From 1986 to 1992 and Persistence and Attainment Among 1989–90 Beginning Postsecondary Students* (NCES 97-578). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved May 3, 2017, from

<https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=97578>.

Nontraditional students were identified as those who delayed postsecondary entry by 1 or more years, enrolled part time in the fall of first year, were financially independent, worked 35 or more hours per week, were single parents, had children, or did not receive a standard high school diploma.

<sup>4</sup> SAT/ACT score quarters were derived from SAT I combined (critical reading and math) scores or an ACT composite score converted to an estimated SAT I combined score using a College Board concordance table. Students who did not take the SATs nor ACTs or students with missing values were excluded from these comparisons.

<sup>5</sup> Full-time undergraduate students are typically enrolled for at least 12 semester or quarter hours per term or at least 24 clock hours per week.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.50

**Related indicators and resources:** Undergraduate Enrollment, Immediate Transition to College, College Enrollment Rates, Undergraduate Retention and Graduation Rates, Differences in Postsecondary Enrollment Among Recent High School Completers [*The Condition of Education 2016 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Control of institutions, Gap, Postsecondary education, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group, SAT

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## Disability Rates and Employment Status by Educational Attainment

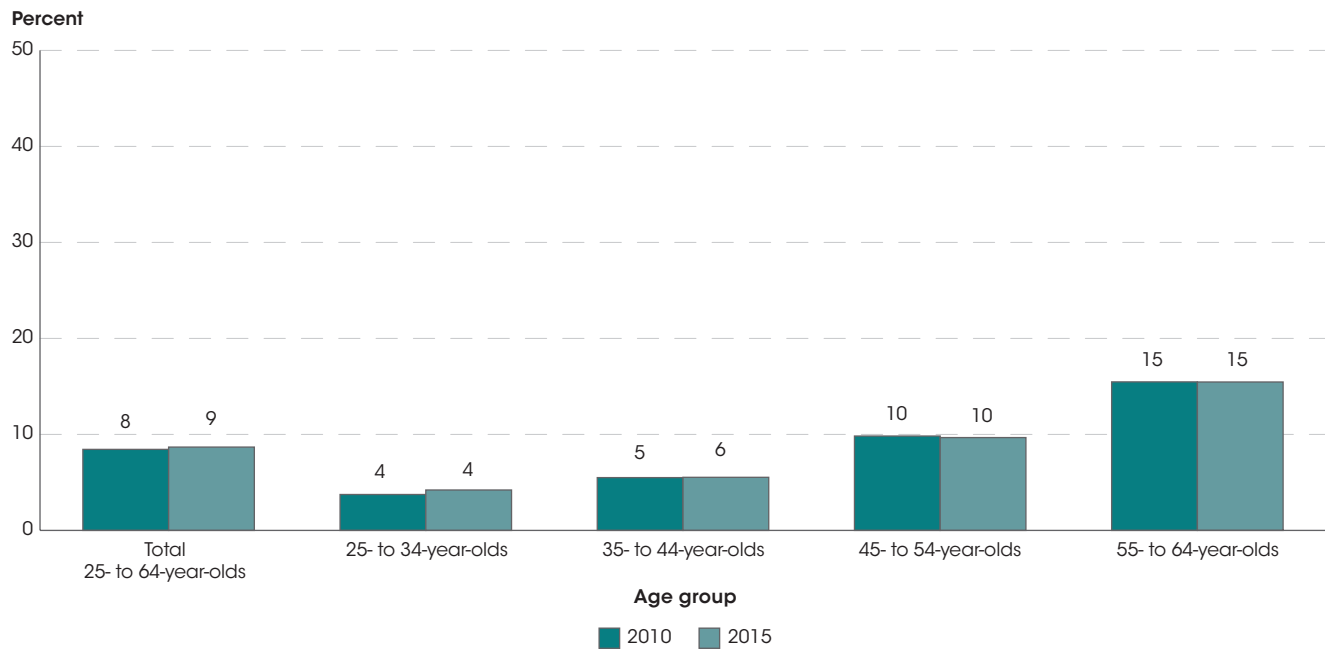
*About 16 percent of 25- to 64-year-olds who had not completed high school had one or more disabilities in 2015, compared to 11 percent of those who had completed high school, 10 percent of those who had completed some college, 8 percent of those who had completed an associate's degree, 4 percent of those who had completed a bachelor's degree, and 3 percent of those who had completed a master's or higher degree. Differences in the employment and not-in-labor-force percentages between persons with and without disabilities were substantial, amounting to about 50 percentage points each. Among those who had obtained higher levels of education, the differences were smaller.*

Persons with disabilities have lower employment rates than persons without disabilities, according to reports produced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS).<sup>1</sup> For all age groups, BLS found that the 2015 employment-population ratio was lower for persons with disabilities than for those with no disability. This spotlight indicator looks at the employment of persons with disabilities in the context of educational attainment. For the purposes of this analysis, individuals are classified as employed,<sup>2</sup> unemployed (individuals without jobs who are actively looking for work), or not in the labor force (individuals

without jobs who are not actively looking for work). This indicator finds that, on average, disability rates are higher among persons with lower levels of education and that individuals with disabilities have lower levels of employment than persons who do not have disabilities. The comparatively lower level of employment for persons with disabilities overall reflects both the generally lower level of employment for persons with less education and the lower level of employment for people with disabilities within each level of educational attainment.



**Figure 1. Percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with disabilities, by age group: 2010 and 2015**



NOTE: 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. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2010 and 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 104.75.

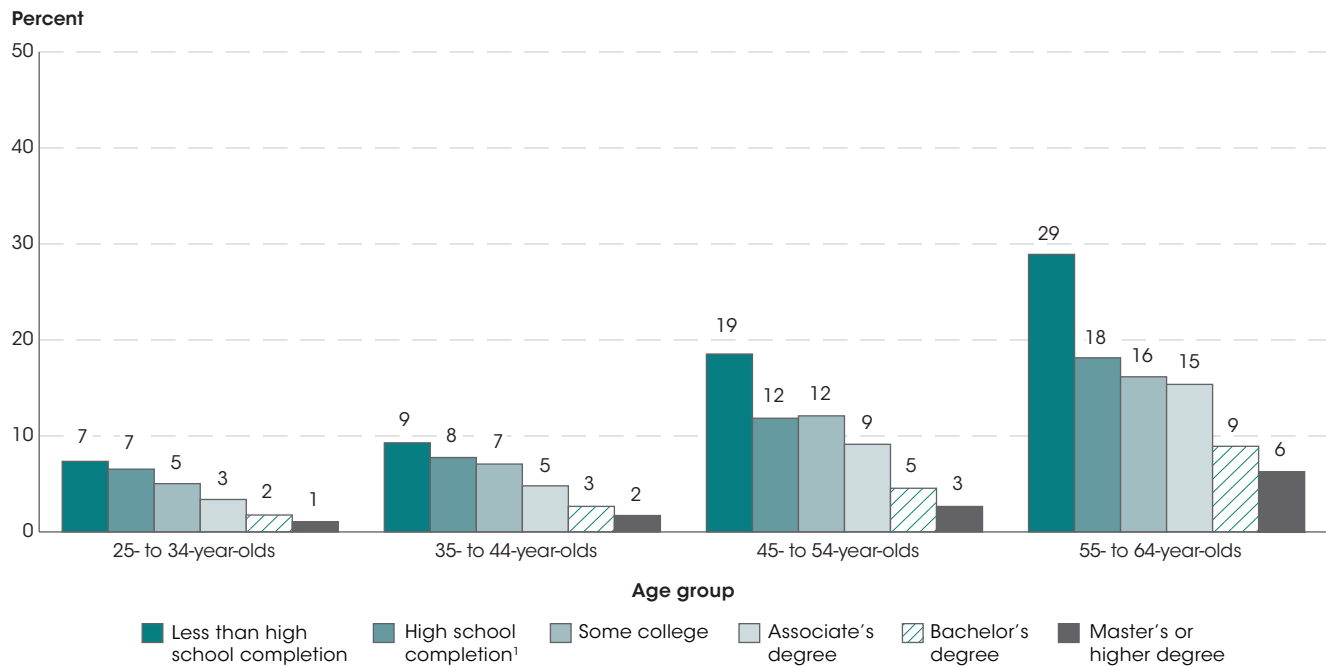
### Percentages of persons with disabilities

In this indicator, persons were classified as having one or more disabilities if they reported having any of the following characteristics: deafness or serious difficulty hearing; blindness or serious difficulty seeing even when wearing glasses; serious difficulty concentrating, remembering, or making decisions because of a physical, mental, or emotional condition; serious difficulty walking or climbing stairs; difficulty dressing or bathing; and difficulty doing errands alone such as visiting a doctor’s office or shopping because of a physical, mental, or emotional condition. Overall, 14.4 million, or 9 percent, of the 25- to 64-year-old population reported at least one of these disabilities in 2015. The number of 25- to

64-year-olds with disabilities was higher in 2015 than in 2010 (13.6 million). To some extent, this change reflects population growth between 2010 and 2015, as there was no measurable change over this period in the percentage of persons with disabilities.

A higher percentage of older persons had disabilities compared to younger persons in 2015. For example, the disability rate was 15 percent for 55- to 64-year-olds, compared to 10 percent for 45- to 54-year-olds, 6 percent for 35- to 44-year-olds, and 4 percent for 25- to 34-year-olds. The disability rate for 25- to 34-year-olds was higher in 2015 (4.2 percent) than in 2010 (3.7 percent). For other age groups, the disability rate in 2015 was not measurably different from the rate in 2010.

**Figure 2. Percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with disabilities, by age group and educational attainment: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Includes completion of high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.  
 NOTE: 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. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 104.75.

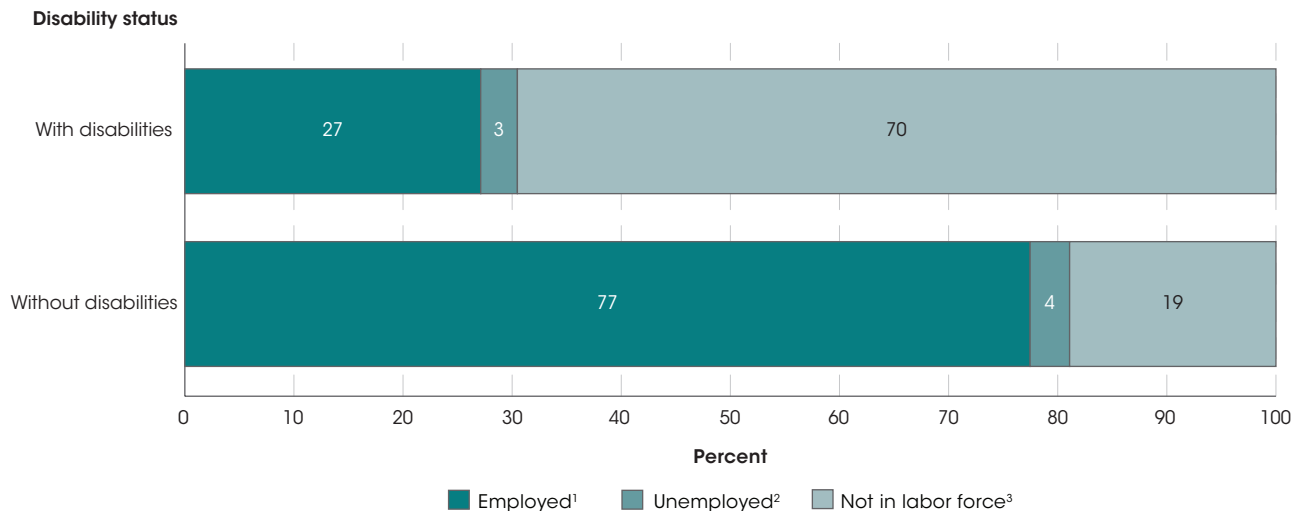
In 2015, the disability rate was higher for persons with less education than for those with higher educational attainment, both overall and within each age group. The disability rate was 16 percent for 25- to 64-year-olds who had not completed high school, compared to 11 percent for those who had completed high school, 10 percent for those who had completed some college, 8 percent for those with an associate’s degree, 4 percent for those with a bachelor’s degree, and 3 percent for those with a master’s or higher degree. These patterns were generally observed within each age group, with few exceptions. For example, among 25- to 34-year-olds, there was no measurable difference between the disability rates for those who had not completed high school and those who had completed high school (both 7 percent), but both were higher than the disability rates for those with more education.

The gap in disability rates between the lowest and highest educational attainment groups is larger for the oldest group (55- to 64-year-olds) than for the youngest group (25- to 34-year-olds). Specifically, among 55- to 64-year-olds, the disability rate was 23 percentage points higher for persons who had not completed high school (29 percent) than for those with a master’s or higher degree (6 percent). In contrast, among 25- to 34-year-

olds, the disability rate was 6 percentage points higher for those who had not completed high school (7 percent) than for those who had completed a master’s or higher degree (1 percent). While disability rates are generally higher for older adults than for younger adults, the gaps by educational attainment within each age group are large enough that the disability rate for 25- to 34-year-olds who had not completed high school was not measurably different from the rate for 55- to 64-year-olds who had completed a master’s degree.

There was no measurable difference between the disability rates for male and female 25- to 64-year-olds in 2015 (both were 9 percent). However, there were differences by race/ethnicity. Among 25- to 64-year-olds, disability rates were lower for those who were Asian (3 percent), Pacific Islander (5 percent), and Hispanic (7 percent) than for those who were White (9 percent), Black (12 percent), of Two or more races (14 percent), and American Indian/ Alaska Native (15 percent). The pattern of higher disability rates for persons who had not completed high school compared to those with a bachelor’s or higher degree was observed across all racial/ethnic groups with available data in 2015 (White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Two or more races).

**Figure 3. Percentage distribution of 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities, by labor force status: 2015**



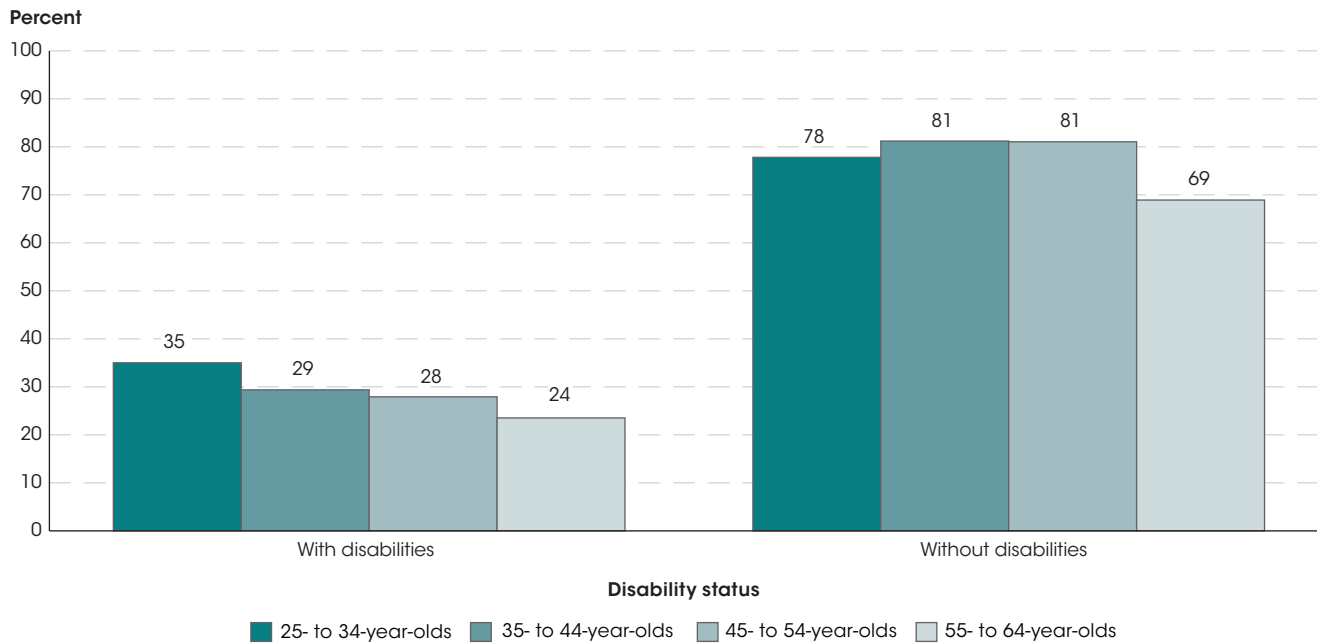
<sup>1</sup> Respondents were classified as employed if they worked during any part of the survey week as paid employees. Those who were employed but not at work during the survey week were also included.  
<sup>2</sup> The unemployed population consists of individuals without jobs who are actively looking for work. The unemployment percentages shown in this figure are not comparable to the Bureau of Labor Statistics' unemployment rates, which excludes from the denominator individuals who are not in the labor force.  
<sup>3</sup> The population not in the labor force consists of persons who are neither employed nor seeking employment.  
 NOTE: 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.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.35.

**Employment of 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities**

Studies by BLS have found that persons with disabilities participate in the labor force at lower rates than persons without disabilities.<sup>1</sup> The analysis below builds on those findings by examining patterns in labor force outcomes (percentages of individuals who were employed, unemployed, or not in the labor force) by educational attainment. Overall, 27 percent of 25- to 64-year-olds with disabilities were employed in 2015, compared to

77 percent of those without disabilities. On the other hand, 70 percent of those with disabilities were not in the labor force, compared to 19 percent of those without disabilities. There was no measurable difference between the overall unemployment percentages for individuals with and without disabilities (3 and 4 percent, respectively). Note that the unemployment percentage presented here is not comparable to unemployment rates produced by BLS, which exclude individuals not in the labor force.

**Figure 4. Employment percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities, by age group: 2015**

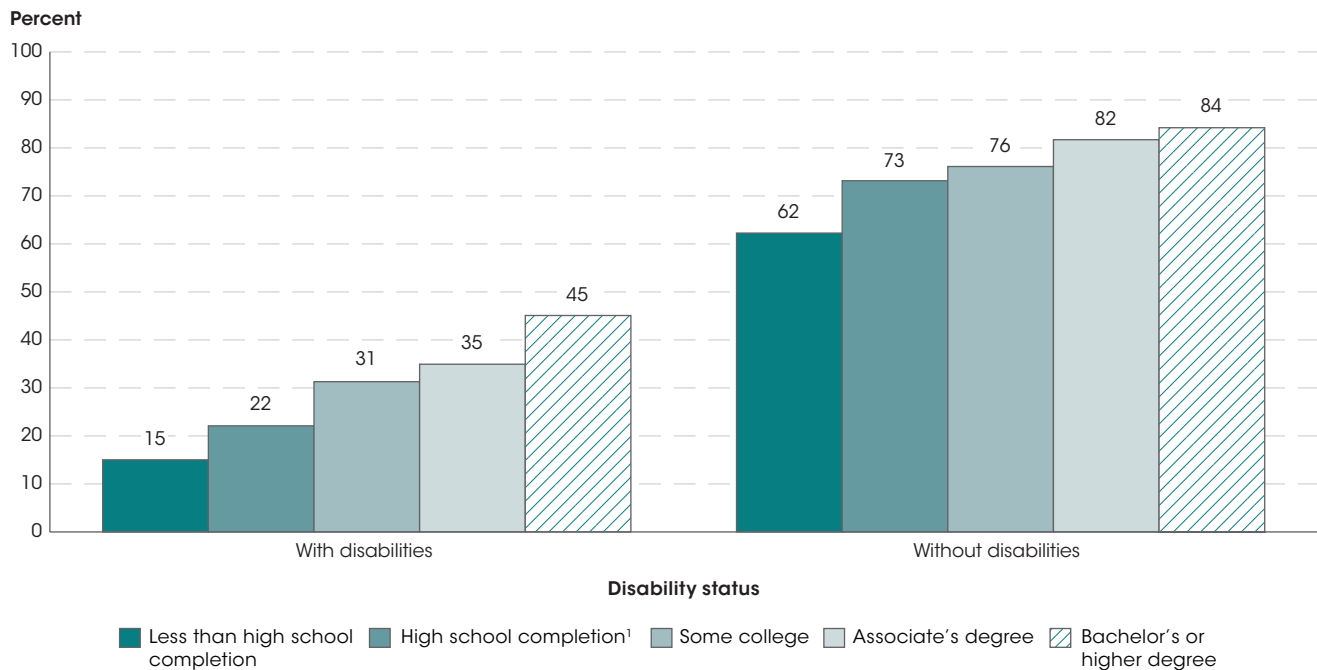


NOTE: Respondents were classified as employed if they worked during any part of the survey week as paid employees. Those who were employed but not at work during the survey week were also included. Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living 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. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.35.

In 2015, among each age group examined in this indicator, employment percentages were higher for persons without disabilities than for those with disabilities. The gap ranged from 43 percentage points for 25- to 34-year-olds to 53 percentage points for 45- to 54-year-olds. Among persons with disabilities, a higher percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds were employed (35 percent) than of 35- to 44-year-olds (29 percent), 45- to 54-year-olds

(28 percent), and 55- to 64-year-olds (24 percent). The pattern of employment by age group was somewhat different for persons without disabilities. Although the percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds who were employed (78 percent) was higher than the percentage for 55- to 64-year-olds (69 percent), it was lower than the percentages for 35- to 44-year-olds and 45- to 54-year-olds (both 81 percent).

**Figure 5. Employment percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities, by educational attainment: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Includes completion of high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.

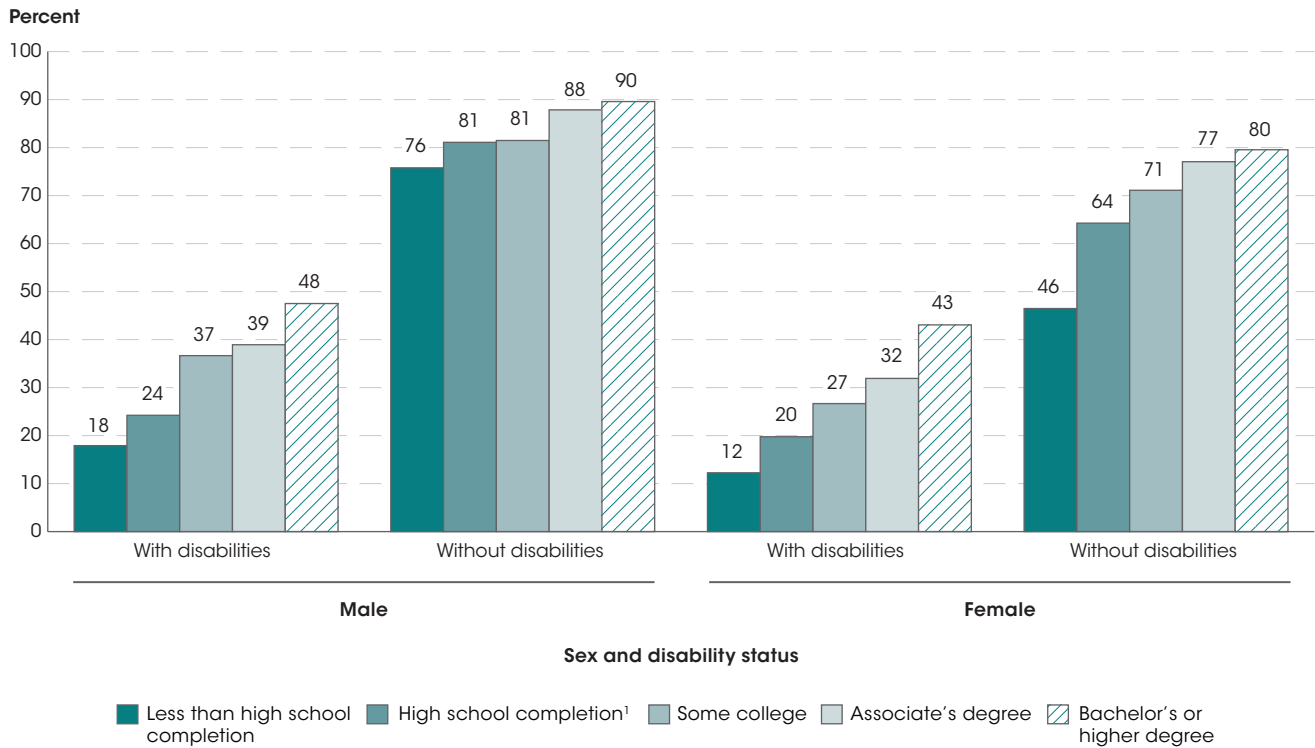
NOTE: Respondents were classified as employed if they worked during any part of the survey week as paid employees. Those who were employed but not at work during the survey week were also included. Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living 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.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.35.

In 2015, lower levels of educational attainment were associated with lower employment percentages both for persons with and without disabilities. Among 25- to 64-year-olds with disabilities, employment percentages for those who had not completed high school (15 percent) or had completed only high school (22 percent) were lower than for those who had completed some college (31 percent), an associate's degree (35 percent), or a bachelor's or higher degree (45 percent). Similarly, among those without disabilities, employment percentages for those who had not completed high school (62 percent)

or had completed only high school (73 percent) were lower than for those who had completed some college (76 percent), an associate's degree (82 percent), or a bachelor's or higher degree (84 percent). The gap in employment percentages between those with and without disabilities was smaller for those with a bachelor's or higher degree (39 percentage points) than for those with an associate's degree (47 percentage points), those with a high school credential (51 percentage points), and those who had not completed high school (47 percentage points).

**Figure 6. Employment percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities, by sex and educational attainment: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Includes completion of high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.

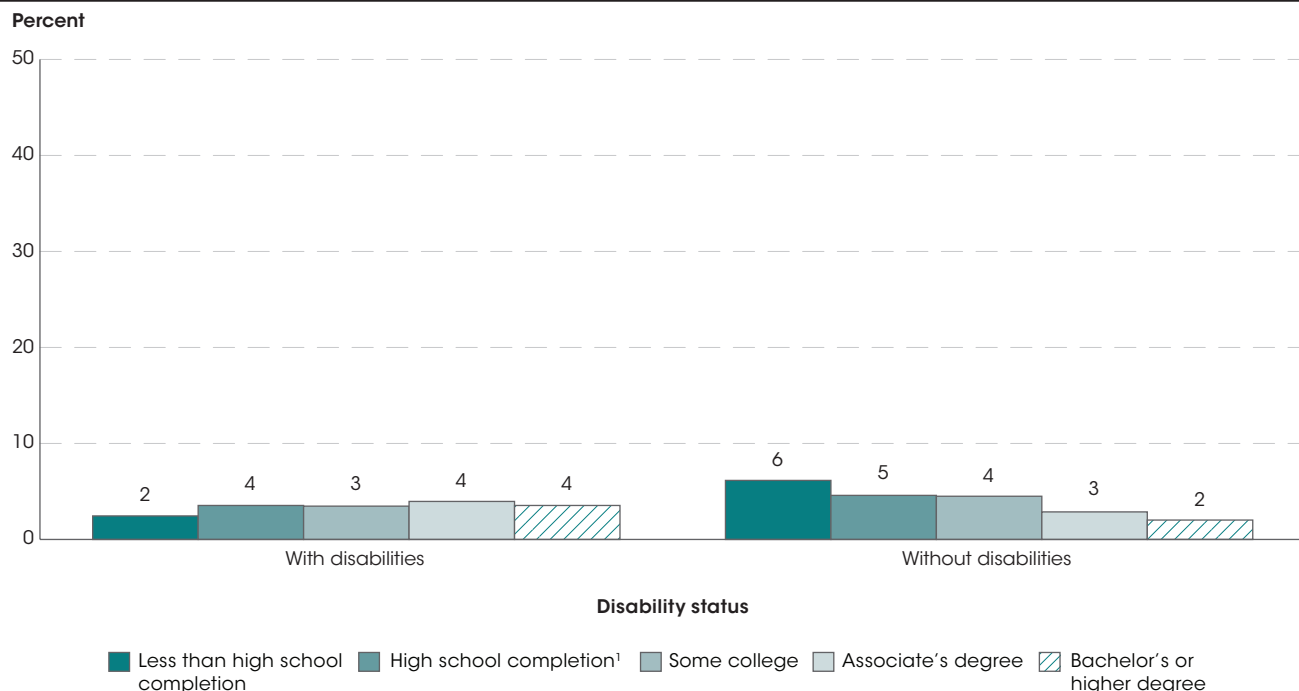
NOTE: Respondents were classified as employed if they worked during any part of the survey week as paid employees. Those who were employed but not at work during the survey week were also included. Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living 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. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.35.

Among 25- to 64-year-olds in 2015, the employment percentage for males was higher than for females, regardless of disability status. The male-female gap in employment percentages was smaller for persons with disabilities (5 percentage points) than for those without disabilities (13 percentage points). This pattern was also

observed among those who had not completed high school and those who had a high school credential. For example, among persons who had not completed high school, the male-female gap in employment percentages was 6 percentage points for those with disabilities and 29 percentage points for those without disabilities.

**Figure 7. Unemployment percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities, by educational attainment: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Includes completion of high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.

NOTE: The unemployed population consists of individuals without jobs who are actively looking for work. The percentages shown in this figure are not comparable to the Bureau of Labor Statistics' unemployment rates, which exclude from the denominator individuals who are not in the labor force. 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. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

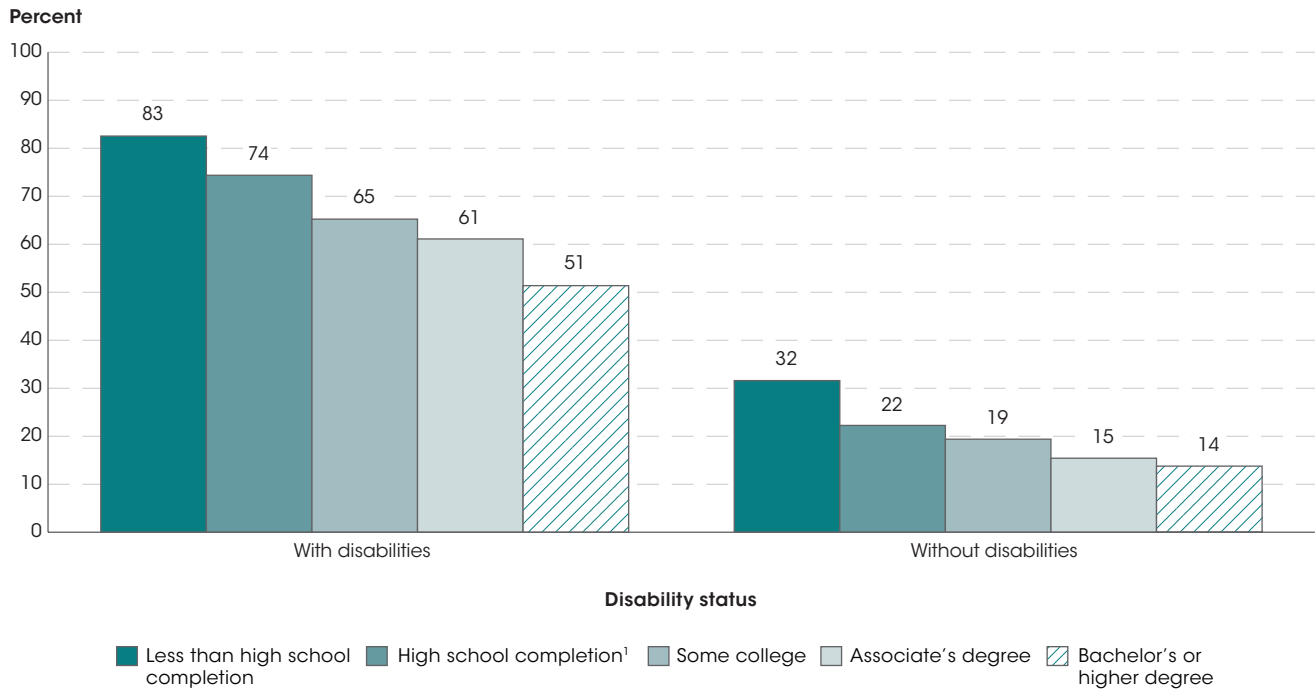
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.35.

### Unemployment percentages for 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities

In 2015, the percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with disabilities who were unemployed (3.4 percent) was not measurably different from the unemployment percentage of those without disabilities (3.6 percent); however, there were differences by educational attainment. It is important to keep in mind when interpreting these unemployment percentages that the employment percentage is lower for 25- to 64-year-olds with disabilities than for those without disabilities. Thus, the number of unemployed persons relative to employed persons (i.e., the unemployment rate as defined by BLS) is higher for 25- to 64-year-olds with disabilities (11.0 percent) than for those without disabilities (4.5 percent).<sup>1</sup>

For persons without disabilities, higher educational attainment was often associated with lower unemployment percentages. For example, those who had completed an associate's degree and those who had completed a bachelor's or higher degree had lower unemployment percentages than those who had not completed high school. Among those who had not completed high school, the unemployment percentage for persons with disabilities (2.4 percent) was lower than for persons without disabilities (6.1 percent). In contrast, among those who had completed a bachelor's or higher degree, the unemployment percentage was higher for persons with disabilities (3.5 percent) than for those without disabilities (2.0 percent).

**Figure 8. Not-in-labor-force percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities, by educational attainment: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Includes completion of high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.  
 NOTE: The population not in the labor force consists of persons who are neither employed nor seeking employment. 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.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.35.

**Not-in-labor-force percentages for 25- to 64-year-olds with and without disabilities**

Since there was no measurable overall difference in unemployment percentages in 2015 between those with and without disabilities, the differences in not-in-labor-force percentages between persons with and without disabilities largely reflected the relative percentages of persons employed. The percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds with disabilities who were not in the labor force (70 percent) was higher than the percentage for those without disabilities (19 percent).

While higher percentages of persons with disabilities were not participating in the labor force for all educational attainment groups in 2015, the largest differences were observed among those with lower levels of educational attainment. For example, among those who had not completed high school, the percentage of persons with disabilities not in the labor force (83 percent) was

51 percentage points higher than the percentage for those without disabilities (32 percent). The differences in the percentages for those not participating in the labor force were smaller at higher levels of educational attainment. For example, among those who had completed a bachelor's or higher degree, the not-in-labor force percentage for persons with disabilities (51 percent) was 38 percentage points higher than the percentage for those without disabilities (14 percent).

In summary, this indicator finds that in 2015, higher percentages of 25- to 64-year-olds with lower levels of education had disabilities compared to those with higher levels of education. Differences in the employment and not-in-labor-force percentages between persons with and without disabilities are substantial, amounting to about 50 percentage points each. Among those who had obtained higher levels of education, the differences were smaller.



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**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2016). *Persons With a Disability: Labor Force Characteristics—2015*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved March 17, 2017, from <https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/disabl.pdf>.

<sup>2</sup> Respondents were classified as employed if they worked during any part of the survey week as paid employees. Those who were employed but not at work during the survey week were also included.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 104.75 and 501.35

**Related indicators and resources:** Educational Attainment of Young Adults, Employment and Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment, Children and Youth With Disabilities

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**Glossary:** Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, College, Educational attainment (Current Population Survey), Employment status, Gap, High school completer, High school diploma, Master's degree, Racial/ethnic group

The indicators in this chapter of *The Condition of Education* report on educational attainment and economic outcomes for the United States as a whole. The level of education attained by an individual has implications for his or her median earnings and other labor outcomes, such as unemployment. Comparisons at the national level to other industrialized nations provide insight into our global competitiveness. In addition, this chapter contains indicators on key demographic characteristics, such as poverty.

This chapter's indicators, as well as additional indicators on population characteristics, are available at *The Condition of Education* website: <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe>.



# Chapter 1

## Population Characteristics

### Attainment

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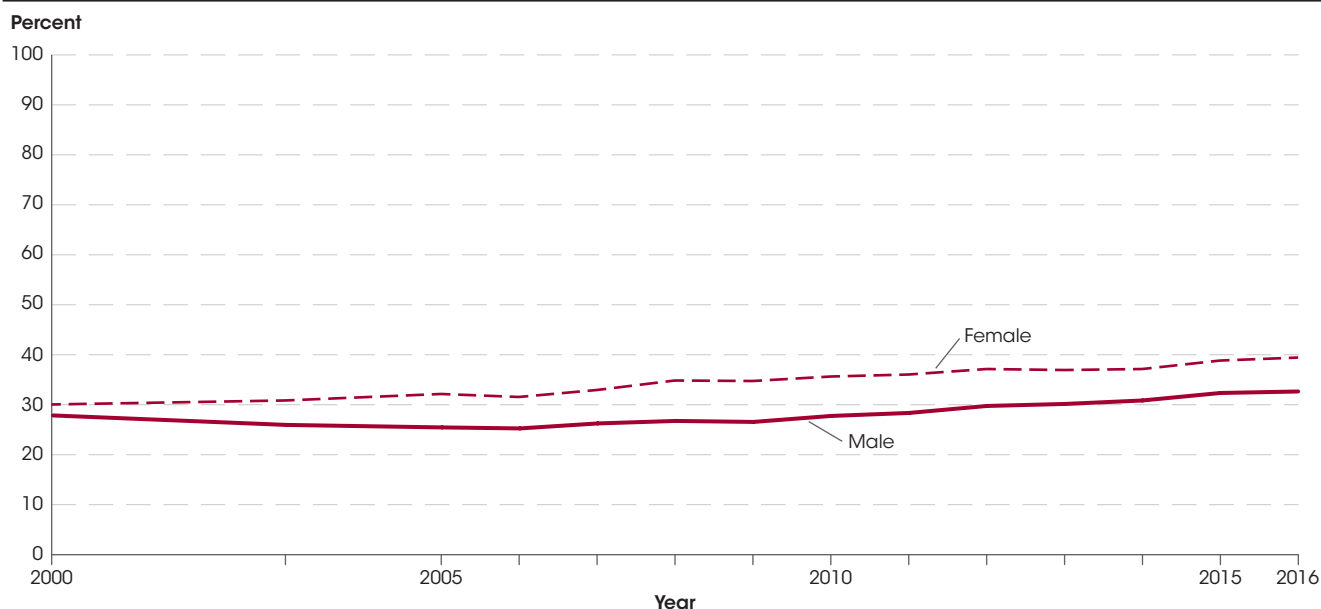
## Educational Attainment of Young Adults

*Between 2000 and 2016, educational attainment rates among 25- to 29-year-olds increased. During this time, the percentage who had received at least a high school diploma or its equivalent increased from 88 to 92 percent, the percentage with an associate's or higher degree increased from 38 to 46 percent, the percentage with a bachelor's or higher degree increased from 29 to 36 percent, and the percentage with a master's or higher degree increased from 5 to 9 percent.*

*Educational attainment* refers to the highest level of education completed (e.g., a high school diploma or equivalency certificate, an associate's degree, a bachelor's degree, or a master's degree). Between 2000 and 2016, educational attainment rates among 25- to 29-year-olds increased. During this time, the percentage who had received at least a high school diploma or its equivalent

increased from 88 to 92 percent, the percentage with an associate's or higher degree increased from 38 to 46 percent, the percentage with a bachelor's or higher degree increased from 29 to 36 percent, and the percentage with a master's or higher degree increased from 5 to 9 percent.

**Figure 1. Percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds with a bachelor's or higher degree, by sex: Selected years, 2000–2016**

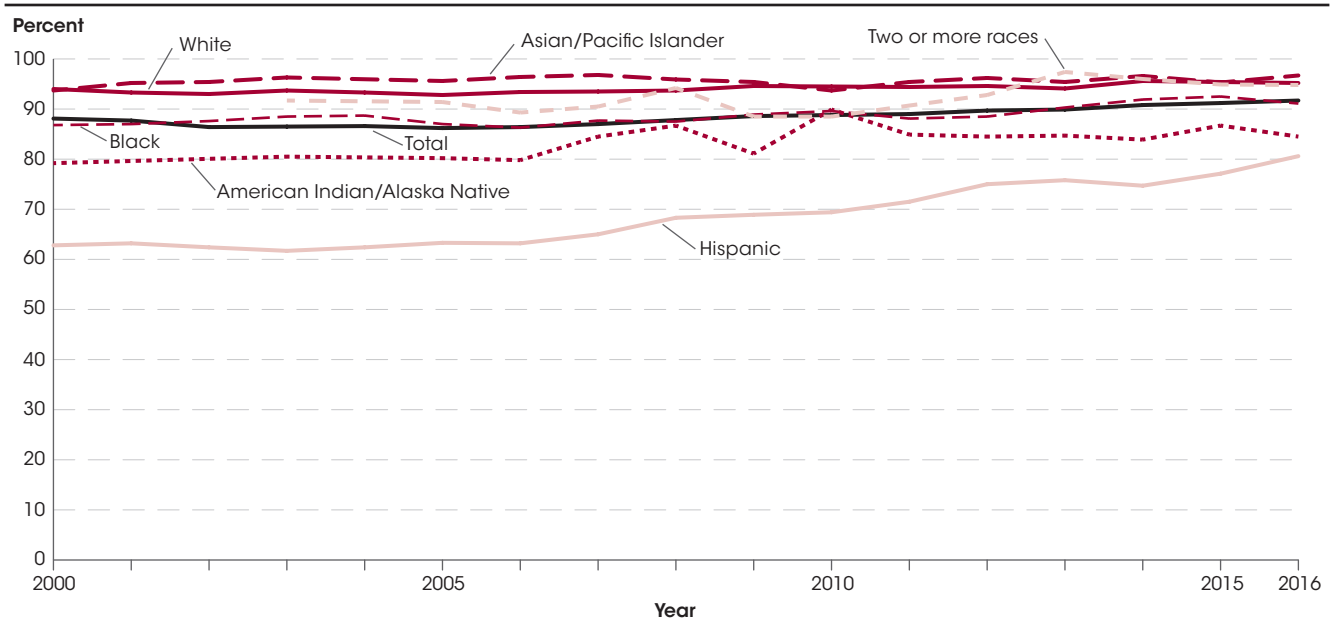


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, selected years, 2000–2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 104.20.

Since 2000, attainment rates among 25- to 29-year-olds have generally been higher for females than for males at each education level. Additionally, attainment rates have increased for both female and male 25- to 29-year-olds across all education levels. During this time period, there was no measurable change in the gender gap at the high school completion level, while the gender gaps have widened at the associate's and higher degree levels. Among 25- to 29-year-olds who had completed an associate's or higher degree, the gender gap widened from 5 percentage

points in 2000 to 10 percentage points in 2011, but has remained around 9 percentage points in every year since. Similarly, among 25- to 29-year-olds who had completed a bachelor's or higher degree, the gender gap widened from 2 percentage points in 2000 to 8 percentage points in 2009, but the gender gap has remained between 6 and 8 percentage points since 2009. Among 25- to 29-year-olds who had completed a master's or higher degree, the gender gap widened from 1 percentage point in 2000 to 4 percentage points in 2016.

**Figure 2. Percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds with at least a high school diploma or its equivalent, by race/ethnicity: 2000-2016**

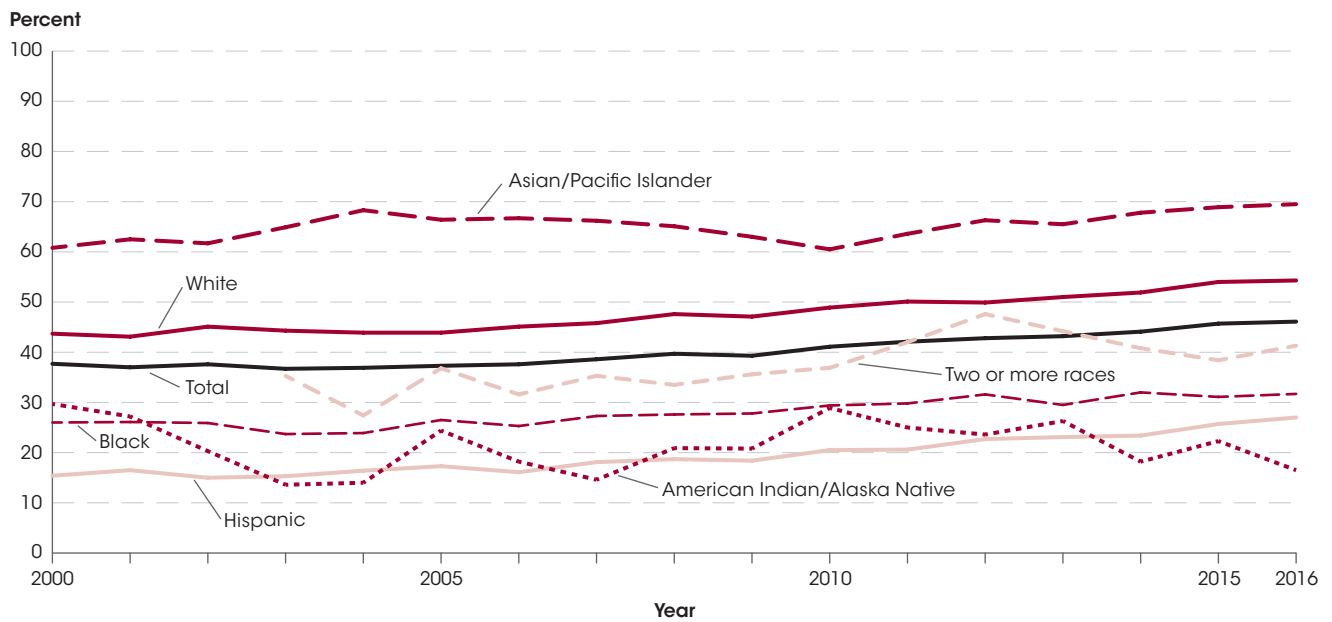


NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Prior to 2003, separate data on persons of Two or more races were not available and data were missing in 2004. Data on Asians/Pacific Islanders were missing in 2004. Data on American Indians/Alaska Natives were missing in 2001, 2002, and 2004. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, selected years, 2000-2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2011*, table 8 and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 104.20.

Between 2000 and 2016, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds who had completed at least a high school diploma or its equivalent increased for those who were White (from 94 to 95 percent), Black (from 87 to 91 percent), Hispanic (from 63 to 81 percent), and Asian/Pacific Islander (from 94 to 97 percent). The percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native 25- to 29-year-olds with at least a high school diploma or its equivalent in 2016 (84 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2000, and the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds of Two or more races who had attained this level of education in 2016 (95 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2003, the first year for which data on persons of Two or more races were available.

Between 2000 and 2016, the percentage of White 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained at least a high school diploma or its equivalent remained higher than the percentages of Black and Hispanic 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained this education level. However, the White-Black attainment gap at this education level narrowed from 7 to 4 percentage points over this period. The White-Hispanic gap at this education level narrowed from 31 to 15 percentage points, primarily due to the increase in the percentage of Hispanic 25- to 29-year-olds who had completed at least a high school diploma.

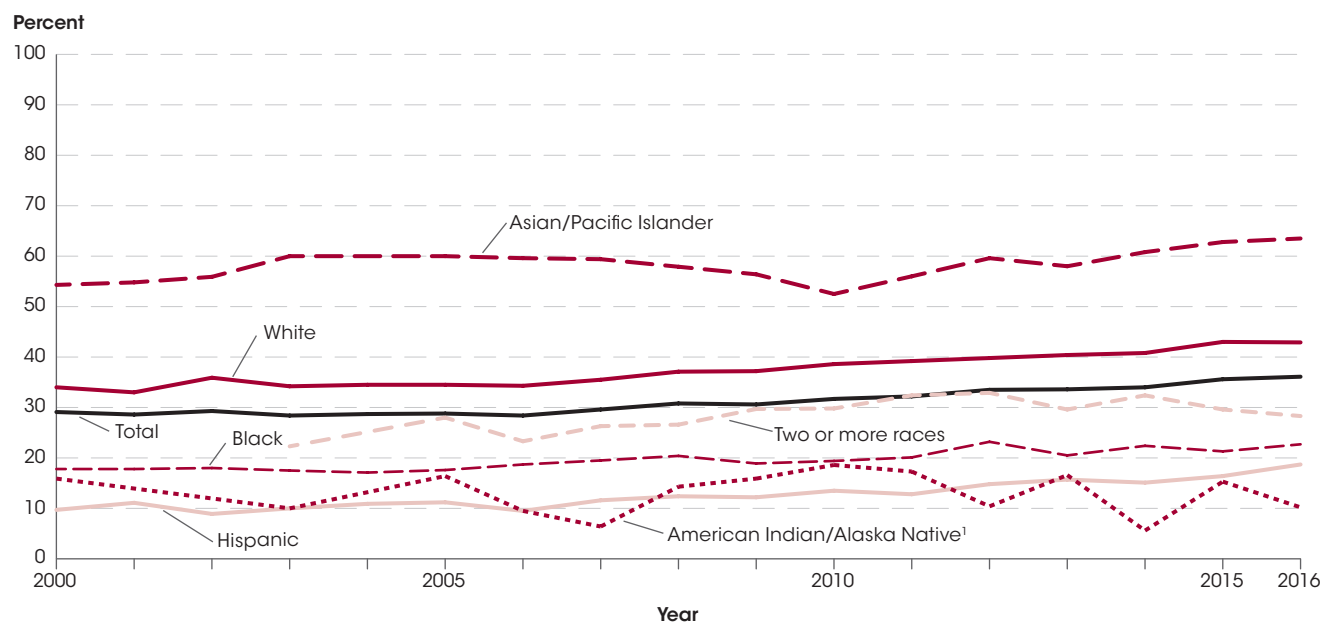
Figure 3. Percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds with an associate's or higher degree, by race/ethnicity: 2000-2016



NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Prior to 2003, separate data on persons of Two or more races were not available.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2000-2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 104.65 and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 104.20.

From 2000 to 2016, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained an associate's or higher degree increased for those who were White (from 44 to 54 percent), Black (from 26 to 32 percent), Hispanic (from 15 to 27 percent), and Asian/Pacific Islander (from 61 to 69 percent). The 2016 percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native 25- to 29-year-olds (17 percent) who had attained an associate's or higher degree was not measurably different from the corresponding percentage in 2000. Similarly, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds of Two or more races in 2016 with an associate's or higher

degree (41 percent) was not measurably different from the corresponding percentage in 2003. Between 2000 and 2016, the gap between the percentages of White and Black 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained an associate's or higher degree widened from 18 to 23 percentage points, primarily due to the increase in the percentage of White 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained this level of education. The White-Hispanic gap at this education level did not change measurably over this period; in 2016, the gap was 27 percentage points.

**Figure 4. Percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds with a bachelor's or higher degree, by race/ethnicity: 2000-2016**

<sup>1</sup> Interpret data for 2003, 2006, 2007, and 2014 with caution. The coefficients of variation (CVs) for these estimates are between 30 and 50 percent. NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Prior to 2003, separate data on persons of Two or more races were not available and data were missing in 2004. Data on Asians/Pacific Islanders were missing in 2004. Data on American Indians/Alaska Natives were missing in 2001, 2002, and 2004. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, selected years, 2000-2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2011*, table 8 and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 104.20.

From 2000 to 2016, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained a bachelor's or higher degree increased for those who were White (from 34 to 43 percent), Black (from 18 to 23 percent), Hispanic (from 10 to 19 percent), and Asian/Pacific Islander (from 54 to 64 percent). The percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained a bachelor's or higher degree (10 percent) in 2016 was not measurably different from the corresponding percentage in 2000. Similarly, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds of Two or more races (28 percent) who had attained this level of education in 2016 was not measurably different from the percentage in 2003. In 2016, neither the gap between White and Black 25- to 29-year-olds nor the gap between White and Hispanic 25- to 29-year-olds at this education level was measurably different from its corresponding gap in 2000.

From 2000 to 2016, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained a master's or higher degree increased for those who were White (from 6 to 10 percent), Hispanic (from 2 to 4 percent), and Asian/Pacific Islander (from 16 to 24 percent). The 2016 percentage of Black 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained a master's or higher degree (5 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2000. Similarly, the percentage of 25- to 29-year-olds of Two or more races with a master's or higher degree in 2016 (5 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2003.<sup>1</sup> The gap between the percentages of White and Black 25- to 29-year-olds who had attained this level of education widened from 2 to 5 percentage points from 2000 to 2016. The White-Hispanic gap also widened during this time, from 4 to 6 percentage points.

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> American Indian/Alaska Native students who had attained a master's or higher degree are not included in this comparison because sample sizes were too small to provide a reliable estimate in 2000.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 104.20

**Related indicators and resources:** International Educational Attainment, Annual Earnings of Young Adults, Trends in Employment Rates by Educational Attainment [*The Condition of Education 2013 Spotlight*], Disability Rates and Employment Status by Educational Attainment [*The Condition of Education 2017 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, Educational attainment (Current Population Survey), Gap, High school completer, High school diploma, Master's degree, Postsecondary education, Racial/ethnic group

# International Educational Attainment

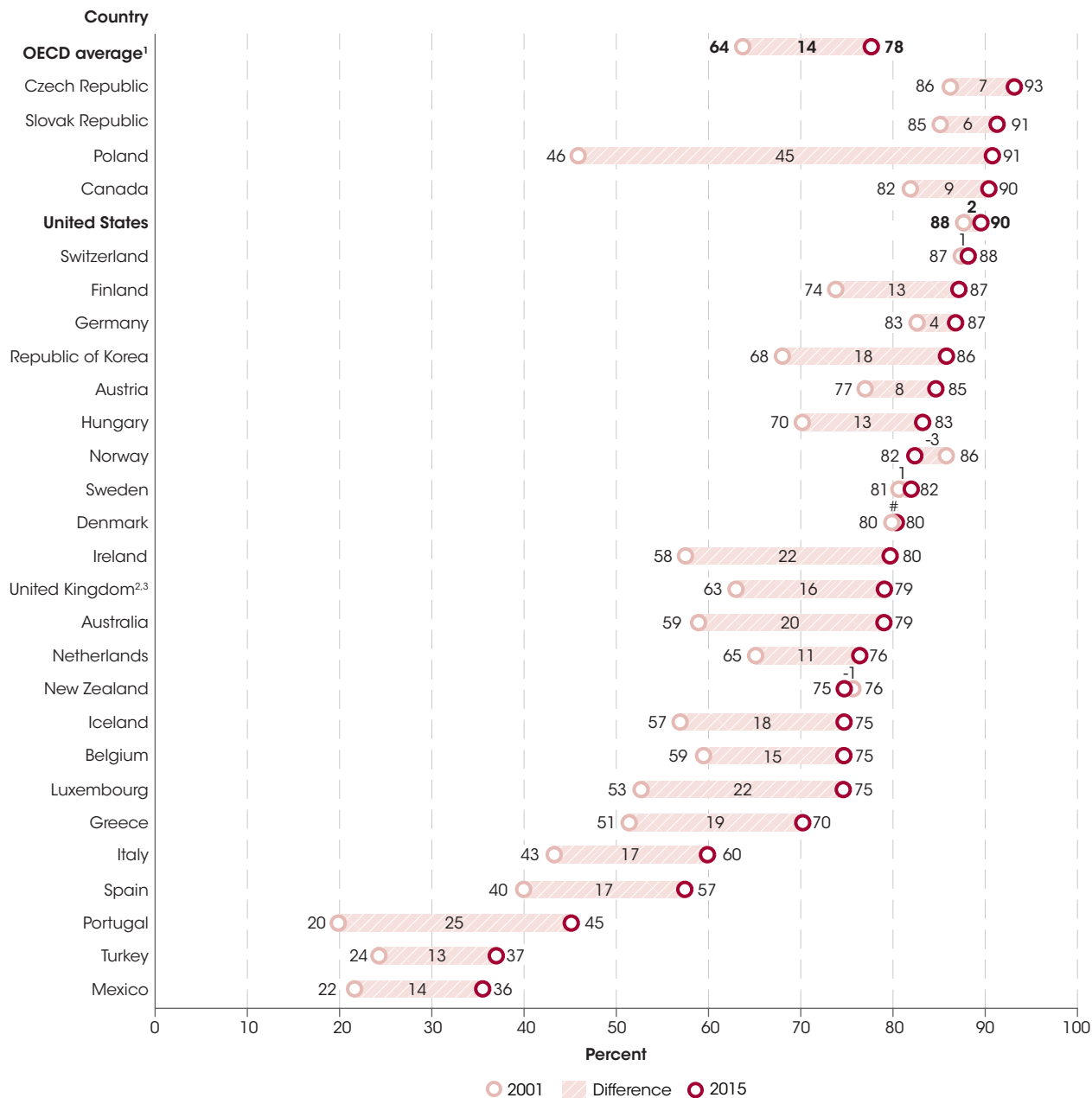
*Between 2001 and 2015, the OECD average percentage of the adult population with any postsecondary degree rose to 35 percent, an increase of 12 percentage points. During the same period, the percentage of U.S. adults with any postsecondary degree rose to 45 percent, an increase of 7 percentage points.*

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) is an organization of 35 countries whose purpose is to promote trade and economic growth. The OECD also collects and publishes an array of data on its member countries. This indicator uses OECD data to compare educational attainment across countries using two measures: *high school completion* and *attainment of any postsecondary degree*.<sup>1</sup> Among the 31 countries<sup>2</sup> that reported 2015 data to the OECD, the percentages of the adult populations (ages 25 to 64) who had completed high school ranged from under 40 percent

in Mexico and Turkey to over 90 percent in Canada, Poland, Estonia, the Slovak Republic, and the Czech Republic.<sup>3</sup> Seventeen countries reported that more than 80 percent of their adult populations had completed high school. Additionally, of the 31 OECD countries<sup>4</sup> that reported 2015 data on postsecondary attainment rates, the percentages of adults earning any postsecondary degree<sup>5</sup> ranged from under 20 percent in Mexico, Italy, and Turkey to 55 percent in Canada. Nineteen countries reported that more than 30 percent of their adult populations had earned any postsecondary degree.



Figure 1. Percentage of the population 25 to 64 years old who had completed high school in Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries: 2001 and 2015



# Rounds to zero.

<sup>1</sup> Refers to the mean of the data values for all reporting OECD countries, to which each country reporting data contributes equally. The average includes all current OECD countries for which a given year's data are available, even if they were not members of OECD in that year.

<sup>2</sup> Data for 2001 include some short secondary (ISCED 3C) programs.

<sup>3</sup> Data for 2015 include some persons who have completed a sufficient volume and standard of programs, any one of which individually would be classified as a program that only partially completes the high school (or upper secondary) level of education.

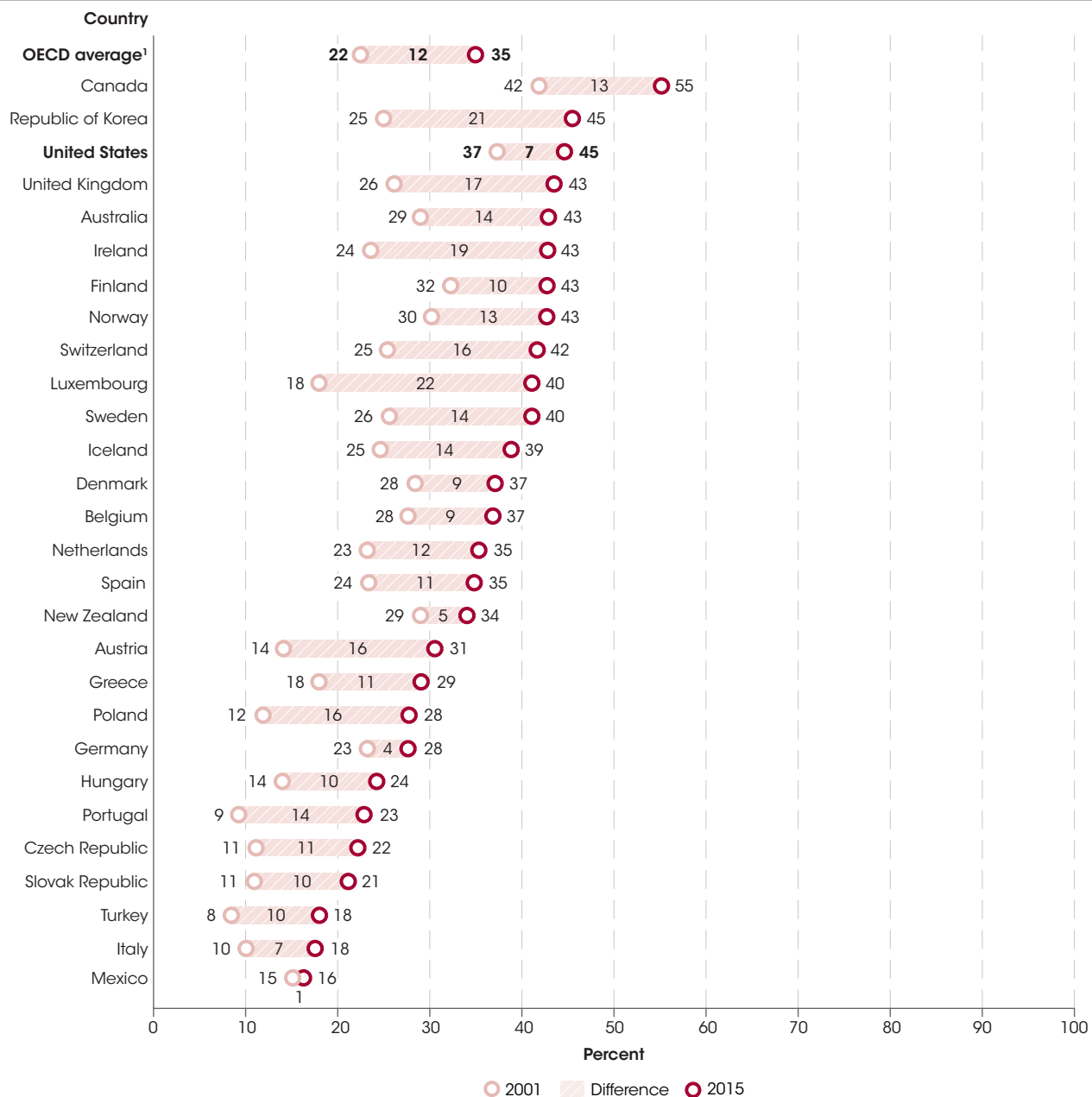
NOTE: Of the 35 OECD countries, 28 are included in this figure. Chile, Estonia, France, Israel, Japan, Latvia, and Slovenia are excluded from the figure because data are not available for these countries for either 2001 or 2015. The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) was revised in 2011. The previous version, ISCED 1997, was used to calculate all data for years prior to 2014. ISCED 2011 was used to calculate all data for 2014 and later years and may not be directly comparable to ISCED 1997. Data in this figure refer to degrees classified as ISCED level 3, which corresponds to high school completion in the United States, with the following exceptions: Programs classified under ISCED 1997 as level 3C short programs do not correspond to high school completion; these short programs are excluded from this analysis except where otherwise noted. Programs classified under ISCED 2011 as only partially completing level 3 are also excluded except where otherwise noted. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Education at a Glance 2002* and Online Education Database, retrieved October 21, 2016, from <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 603.10.

In nearly all of the 28 OECD countries<sup>6</sup> that reported data on high school completion rates in both 2001 and 2015, the percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds who had completed a high school education was higher in 2015 than in 2001. The exceptions were Norway, where the high school completion rate was 3 percentage points lower in 2015 than in 2001, and Denmark and New Zealand, where high school completion rates were not measurably different between the two years. The OECD average

percentage of the adult population with a high school education rose from 64 percent in 2001 to 78 percent in 2015. Meanwhile, the percentage of adults in the United States who had completed high school rose from 88 to 90 percent during this period. For 25- to 34-year-olds, the OECD average percentage with a high school education rose from 74 to 84 percent during this period, while the corresponding percentage for U.S. 25- to 34-year-olds increased from 88 to 90 percent.

**Figure 2. Percentage of the population 25 to 64 years old with any postsecondary degree in Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries: 2001 and 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Refers to the mean of the data values for all reporting OECD countries, to which each country reporting data contributes equally. The average includes all current OECD countries for which a given year's data are available, even if they were not members of OECD in that year.

NOTE: Of the 35 OECD countries, 28 are included in this figure. Chile, Estonia, France, Israel, Latvia, and Slovenia are excluded from the figure because data are not available for these countries for either 2001 or 2015. Data for Japan are excluded from the figure because Japan's postsecondary degree completion rates in 2015 include postsecondary non-higher-education. Data in this figure include all tertiary (postsecondary) degrees, which correspond to all degrees at the associate's level and above in the United States. The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) was revised in 2011. The previous version, ISCED 1997, was used to calculate all data for years prior to 2014. ISCED 2011 was used to calculate all data for 2014 and later years and may not be directly comparable to ISCED 1997. Under ISCED 2011, tertiary degrees are classified at the following levels: level 5 (corresponding to an associate's degree in the United States), level 6 (a bachelor's or equivalent degree), level 7 (a master's or equivalent degree), and level 8 (a doctoral or equivalent degree). Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

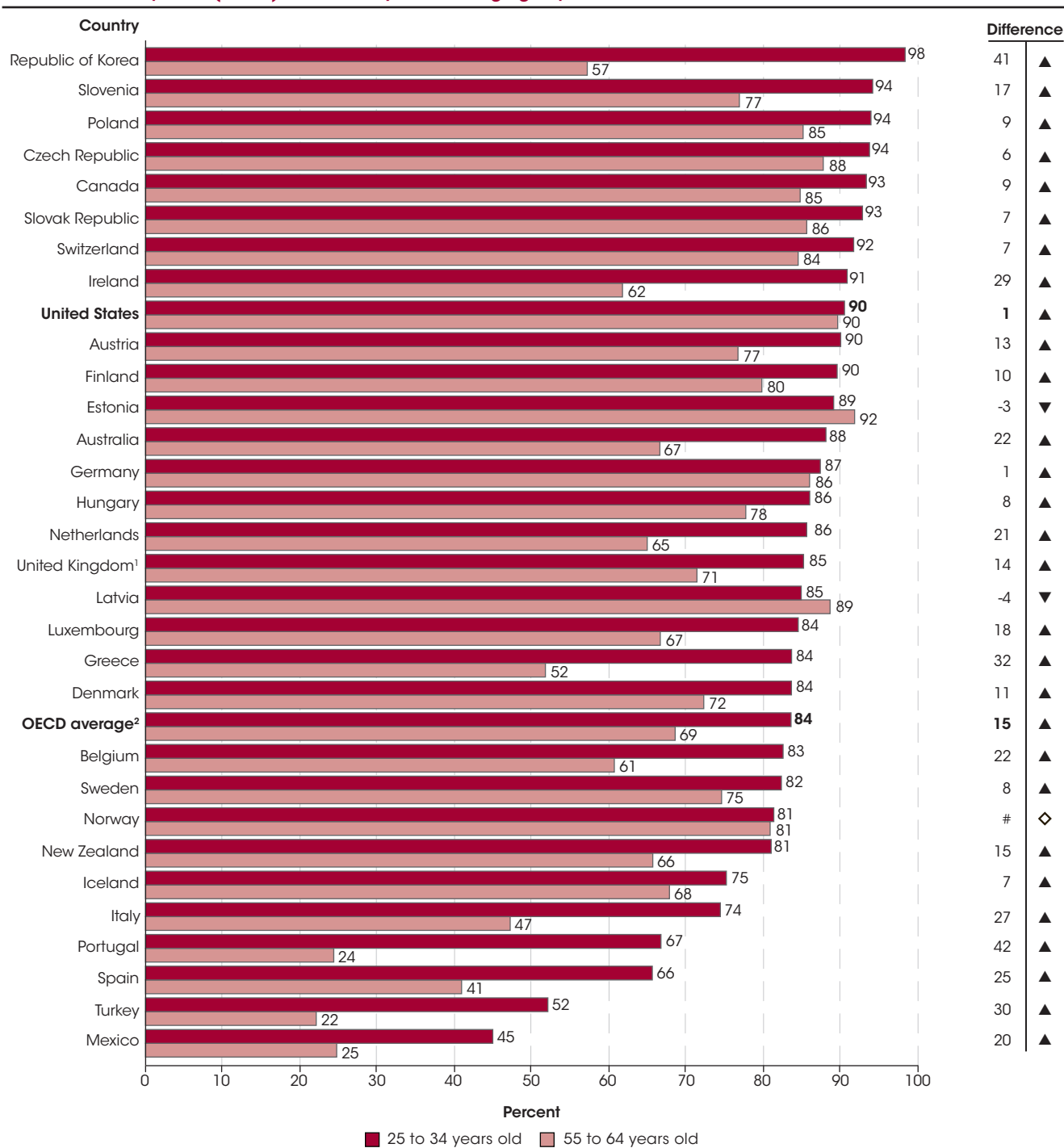
SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Education at a Glance 2003* and *Education at a Glance 2016*; and Online Education Database, retrieved October 18, 2016, from <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 603.20.

In each of the 28 OECD countries<sup>7</sup> that reported data on postsecondary attainment rates in both 2001 and 2015, the percentage of 25- to 64-year-olds who had earned any postsecondary degree was higher in 2015 than in 2001. During this period, the OECD average percentage of the adult population with any postsecondary degree increased by 12 percentage points to 35 percent in 2015, while the corresponding percentage for U.S. adults increased by 7 percentage points to 45 percent.

For 25- to 34-year-olds, the OECD average percentage with any postsecondary degree rose from 28 percent in

2001 to 42 percent in 2015. The corresponding percentage for 25- to 34-year-olds in the United States rose from 39 to 47 percent. As a result of the relatively larger increases in postsecondary degree attainment among the 25- to 34-year-old populations in several OECD countries, the attainment gap at this level of education between the U.S. and OECD average percentages decreased between 2001 and 2015. In 2001, the rate of attainment of any postsecondary degree among 25- to 34-year-olds in the United States was 11 percentage points higher than the OECD average; by 2015, this gap had decreased to 4 percentage points.

**Figure 3. Percentage of the population who had completed high school in Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, by selected age groups: 2015**



▲ The percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds who had completed high school is higher than the percentage of 55- to 64-year-olds who had completed high school.  
 ▼ The percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds who had completed high school is lower than the percentage of 55- to 64-year-olds who had completed high school.  
 ◇ The percentages of 25- to 34-year-olds and 55- to 64-year-olds who had completed high school are not significantly different.  
 # Rounds to zero.

<sup>1</sup> Data for 2015 include some persons who have completed a sufficient volume and standard of programs, any one of which individually would be classified as a program that only partially completes the high school (or upper secondary) level of education.

<sup>2</sup> Refers to the mean of the data values for all reporting OECD countries, to which each country reporting data contributes equally. The average includes all current OECD countries for which a given year's data are available, even if they were not members of OECD in that year.

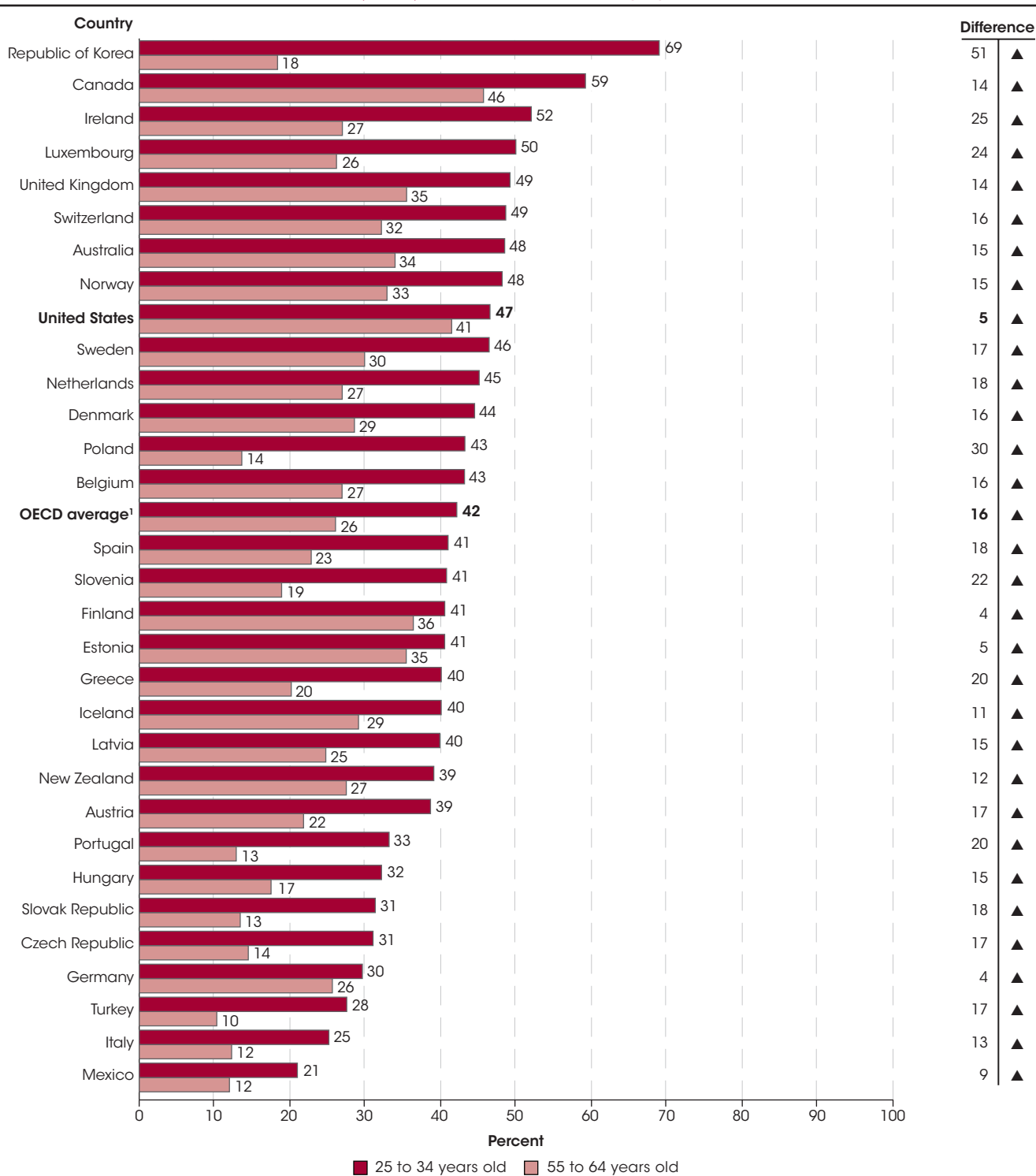
NOTE: Of the 35 OECD countries, 31 are included in this figure. Chile, France, and Japan are excluded from the figure because data are not available for these countries for 2015. Israel did report 2015 data, but did not report standard errors. Israel is excluded from the figure because tests of statistical significance for Israel's estimates cannot be performed without standard errors. Data in this figure refer to degrees classified as ISCED level 3, which corresponds to high school completion in the United States. Programs classified under ISCED 2011 as only partially completing level 3 are also excluded except where otherwise noted. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Online Education Database, retrieved October 21, 2016, from <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 603.10.

In nearly all of the 31 OECD countries that reported 2015 data on high school completion rates, higher percentages of 25- to 34-year-olds than of 55- to 64-year-olds had completed high school. Across OECD countries, the average high school completion percentage was generally higher for 25- to 34-year-olds (84 percent) than for 55- to 64-year-olds (69 percent). The exceptions were Estonia and Latvia, where high school completion rates for 55- to 64-year-olds were 3 and 4 percentage points higher, respectively, than high school completion rates for 25- to 34-year-olds. In Norway, high school completion percentages of 25- to 34-year-olds and 55- to 64-year-olds were not measurably different from each other (both 81 percent). In 24 countries, including the United States, over 80 percent of 25- to 34-year-olds had completed high school in 2015. In comparison, the percentage of 55- to 64-year-olds who completed high school was more than 80 percent in only 10 countries (Norway, Switzerland, Canada, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Germany, the Czech Republic, Latvia, the United States, and Estonia).

The same general pattern of higher percentages of the youngest age group attaining a given level of education also applied to the attainment of postsecondary degrees in 2015. In all of the 31 OECD countries that reported 2015 data on postsecondary attainment rates, a higher percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds than of 55- to 64-year-olds had earned any postsecondary degree in 2015. Across OECD countries, 42 percent of 25- to 34-year-olds had earned any postsecondary degree in 2015 compared with 26 percent of 55- to 64-year-olds. In the United States, 47 percent of 25- to 34-year-olds and 41 percent of 55- to 64-year-olds had earned any postsecondary degree. Canada was the only other country where more than 40 percent of 55- to 64-year-olds had earned any postsecondary degree. In comparison, more than 40 percent of 25- to 34-year-olds had earned any postsecondary degree in 14 countries in 2015.

**Figure 4. Percentage of the population who have attained any postsecondary degree in Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, by selected age groups: 2015**



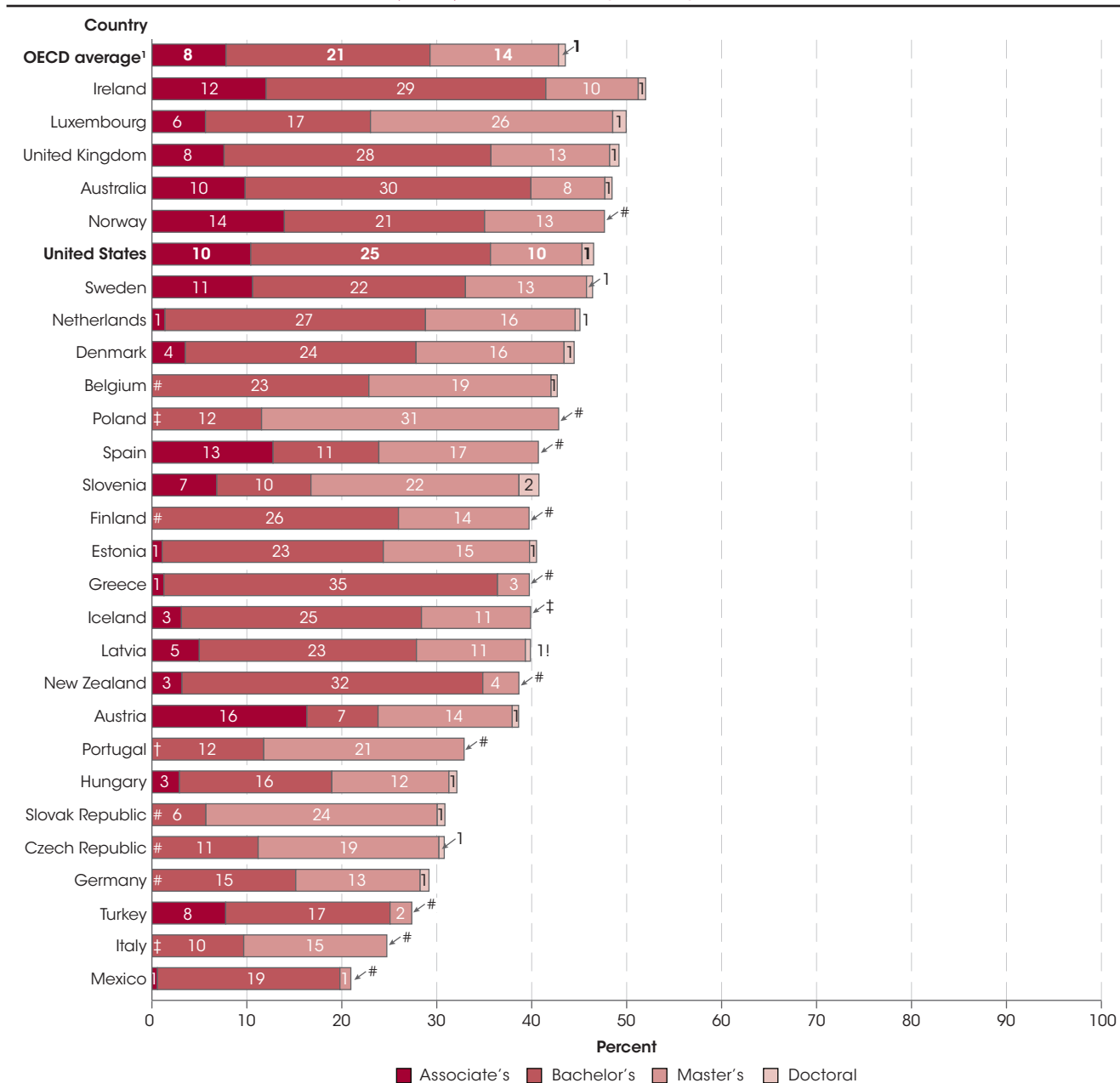
▲ The percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds with any postsecondary degree is higher than the percentage of 55- to 64-year-olds with any postsecondary degree.

<sup>1</sup> Refers to the mean of the data values for all reporting OECD countries, to which each country reporting data contributes equally. The average includes all current OECD countries for which a given year's data are available, even if they were not members of OECD in that year.

NOTE: Of the 35 OECD countries, 31 are included in this figure. Chile and France are excluded from the figure because data are not available for these countries for 2015. Israel did report 2015 data, but did not report standard errors. Israel is excluded from the figure because tests of statistical significance for Israel's estimates cannot be performed without standard errors. Data for Japan are excluded from the figure because Japan's postsecondary degree completion rates in 2015 include postsecondary non-higher-education. All data in this figure were calculated using the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 2011 classification of tertiary (postsecondary) degrees. Includes degrees at ISCED 2011 level 5 (short-cycle tertiary, which corresponds to the associate's degree in the United States), level 6 (bachelor's or equivalent degree), level 7 (master's or equivalent degree), and level 8 (doctoral or equivalent degree). Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Education at a Glance 2016*; and Online Education Database, retrieved October 18, 2016, from <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 603.20.

Figure 5. Percentage of the population 25 to 34 years old with a postsecondary degree in Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, by highest degree attained: 2015



† Not applicable.

# Rounds to zero.

! Interpret data with caution. Country indicated that this value fell below a specified reliability threshold, which varies from country to country. (For more information, see <https://www.oecd.org/education/skills-beyond-school/EAG2016-Annex3.pdf>.)

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

<sup>1</sup> Refers to the mean of the data values for all reporting OECD countries, to which each country reporting data contributes equally. The average includes all current OECD countries for which a given year's data are available, even if they were not members of OECD in that year.

NOTE: Of the 35 OECD countries, 28 are included in this figure. Data for Canada, Chile, Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Switzerland are excluded from the figure because separate data are not available for all attainment levels. France is excluded because 2015 data are not available. Israel did report 2015 data, but did not report standard errors. Israel is excluded from the figure because tests of statistical significance for Israel's estimates cannot be performed without standard errors. All data in this figure were calculated using the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 2011 classification of tertiary (postsecondary) degrees. Includes degrees at ISCED 2011 level 5 (short-cycle tertiary, which corresponds to the associate's degree in the United States), level 6 (bachelor's or equivalent degree), level 7 (master's or equivalent degree), and level 8 (doctoral or equivalent degree). Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Education at a Glance 2016*; and Online Education Database, retrieved October 18, 2016, from <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 603.30.



The percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds who had attained specific postsecondary degrees<sup>8</sup> (e.g., associate's degrees, bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and doctoral degrees) varied across OECD countries in 2015. Among the 28 OECD countries<sup>9</sup> that reported 2015 data for all attainment levels, the percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds whose highest degree attained was an associate's degree ranged from less than 1 percent in the Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Belgium, the Slovak Republic, and Mexico to 16 percent in Austria. The percentage in the United States (10 percent) was slightly higher than the OECD average (8 percent). Meanwhile, the percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds whose highest degree attained was a bachelor's degree ranged from 6 percent in the

Slovak Republic to 35 percent in Greece, while the percentage whose highest degree attained was a master's degree ranged from 1 percent in Mexico to 31 percent in Poland. In the United States, the percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds whose highest degree attained was a bachelor's degree (25 percent) was higher than the OECD average (21 percent). In contrast, the percentage of U.S. 25- to 34-year-olds whose highest degree attained was a master's degree (10 percent) was lower than the OECD average (14 percent). The percentage of 25- to 34-year-olds attaining doctoral degrees did not vary as widely across OECD countries; with the exception of Slovenia, all countries reported that less than 2 percent of 25- to 34-year-olds had attained this level of education.

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**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Attainment data in this indicator refer to comparable levels of degrees, as classified by the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). ISCED was revised in 2011. The previous version, ISCED 1997, was used to calculate data for all years prior to 2014. ISCED 2011 was used to calculate data for 2014 and later years and may not be directly comparable to ISCED 1997.

<sup>2</sup> Chile, France, and Japan are excluded because 2015 data on high school completion rates are not available for these countries. Israel did report 2015 data, but did not report standard errors. Tests of statistical significance for Israel's estimates cannot be performed without standard errors. Therefore, Israel is excluded from analysis throughout this indicator.

<sup>3</sup> Data in this section refer to degrees classified as ISCED level 3, which corresponds to high school completion in the United States, with the following exceptions: Programs classified under ISCED 1997 as level 3C short programs do not correspond to high school completion; these short programs are excluded except for in 2001 in the United Kingdom. Programs classified under ISCED 2011 as only partially completing level 3 are also excluded except for in 2015 in the United Kingdom.

<sup>4</sup> Chile and France are excluded because 2015 data on postsecondary attainment rates are not available for these countries. Data for Japan are excluded because, unlike all other reporting countries, Japan's postsecondary degree completion rates in 2015 include postsecondary non-higher-education. Israel is excluded because it did not report standard errors.

<sup>5</sup> Postsecondary degrees correspond to all degrees at the associate's degree or higher level in the United States. Under ISCED 2011, postsecondary degrees are classified at the following levels: level 5 (corresponding to an associate's degree in the United States), level 6 (a bachelor's or equivalent degree), level 7 (a master's or equivalent degree), and level 8 (a doctoral or equivalent degree).

<sup>6</sup> Chile, Estonia, France, Israel, Japan, Latvia, and Slovenia are excluded because data on high school completion rates are not available for these countries for either 2001 or 2015.

<sup>7</sup> Chile, Estonia, France, Israel, Japan, Latvia, and Slovenia are excluded because data on postsecondary attainment rates are not available for these countries for either 2001 or 2015.

<sup>8</sup> In 1999, European countries agreed to standardize the architecture of the European higher education system. Through the Bologna Process, they agreed to adopt a basic framework for three levels of higher education qualifications: bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and doctoral degrees. ISCED 2011, which reflects this framework, allows for comparisons at the bachelor's and master's levels. Comparisons at these levels prior to ISCED 2011 should be made with caution since European countries had differing higher education frameworks.

<sup>9</sup> Canada, Chile, Japan, the Republic of Korea, and Switzerland are excluded from this analysis because separate data are not available for all attainment levels for these countries. France is excluded because 2015 data are not available. Israel is excluded because it did not report standard errors.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 603.10, 603.20, and 603.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Educational Attainment of Young Adults; Education Expenditures by Country; International Comparisons: Reading Literacy at Grade 4; International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders' Mathematics and Science Achievement; International Comparisons: Science, Reading, and Mathematics Literacy of 15-Year-Old Students; Trends in Employment Rates by Educational Attainment [*The Condition of Education 2013 Spotlight*]

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**Glossary:** Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, Doctor's degree, Educational attainment, Gap, High school completer, International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), Master's degree, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Postsecondary education

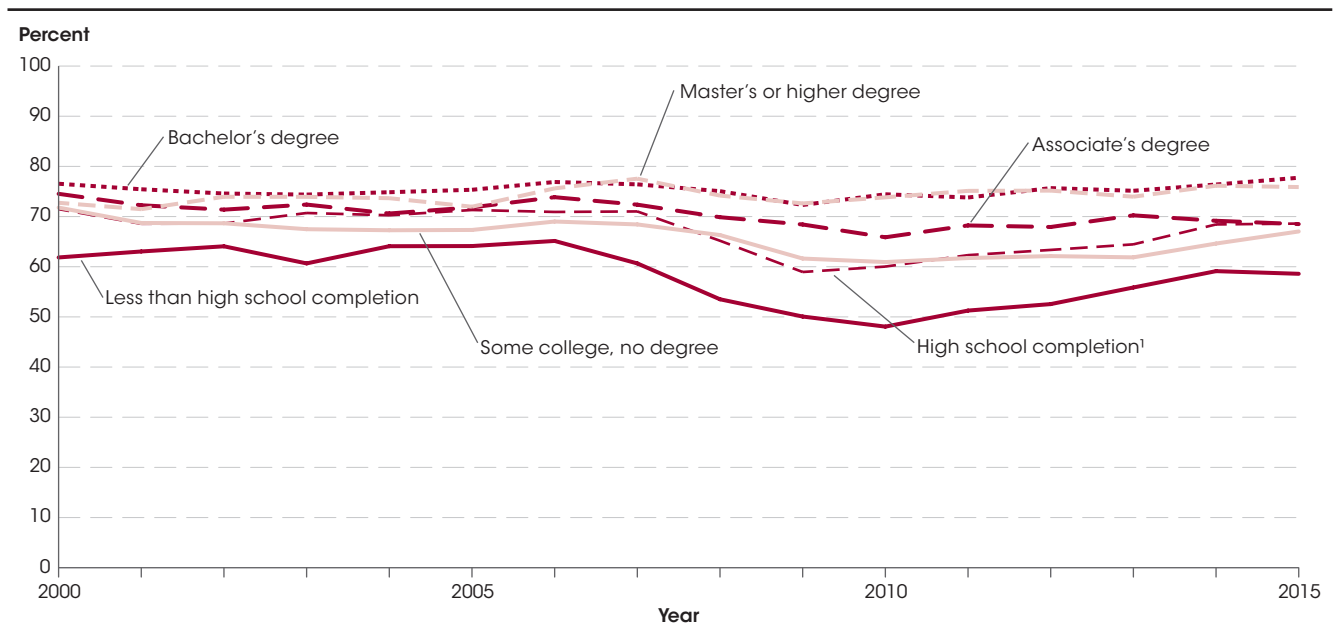
## Annual Earnings of Young Adults

*In 2015, the median earnings of young adults with a bachelor's degree (\$50,000) were 64 percent higher than those of young adult high school completers (\$30,500). The median earnings of young adult high school completers were 22 percent higher than those of young adults who did not complete high school (\$25,000).*

This indicator examines the annual earnings of young adults ages 25–34 who had full-time, year-round employment (i.e., worked 35 or more hours per week for 50 or more weeks per year). Many people in this age group have recently completed their education and may be entering the workforce or transitioning from part-time to full-time work. In 2015, some 71 percent of young adults ages 25–34 who were in the labor force worked full time,

year round. The percentage of young adults in the labor force working full time, year round was generally higher for those with higher levels of educational attainment. For example, 78 percent of young adults with a bachelor's degree worked full time, year round in 2015, compared with 69 percent of young adult high school completers (those with only a high school diploma or its equivalent).

**Figure 1. Percentage of the labor force ages 25–34 who worked full time, year round, by educational attainment: 2000–2015**



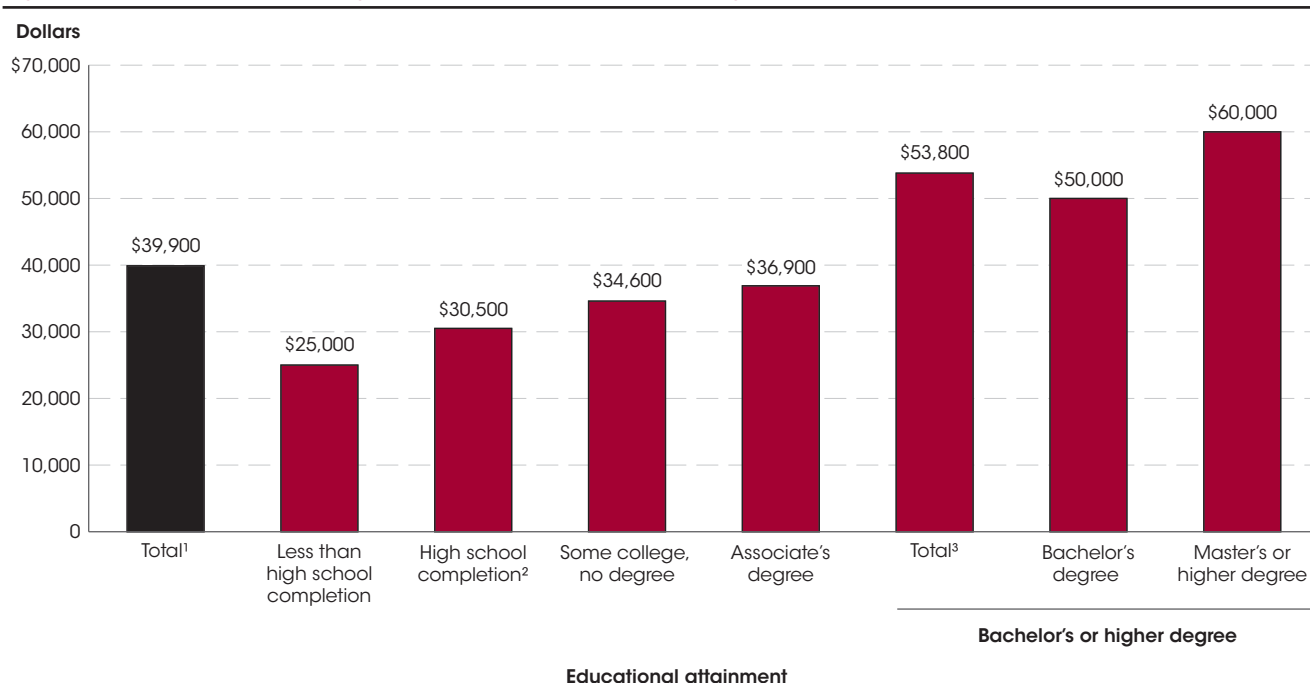
<sup>1</sup> Includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential.

NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities) and military barracks. *Full-time, year-round* workers are those who worked 35 or more hours per week for 50 or more weeks per year. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), "Annual Social and Economic Supplement," 2001–2016; and previously unpublished tabulations. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 502.30.

Changes over time in the percentage of young adults in the labor force who worked full time, year round varied by level of educational attainment. From 2000 to 2015, the percentage of young adult high school completers who worked full time, year round decreased from 71 percent to 69 percent. The corresponding percentage for young adults with an associate's degree decreased from 75 to 69 percent. In contrast, the percentage of young adults with a master's or higher degree who worked full time, year round increased from 73 to 76 percent during the

same period. However, in 2015 the percentages of young adults who did not complete high school (i.e., without a high school diploma or its equivalent) (59 percent) and those with a bachelor's degree (78 percent) who worked full time, year round were not measurably different from the corresponding percentages in 2000. Between 2014 and 2015, the percentages of young adults working full time, year round did not change measurably for any individual level of educational attainment.

**Figure 2. Median annual earnings of full-time, year-round workers ages 25–34, by educational attainment: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Represents median annual earnings of all full-time, year-round workers ages 25–34.

<sup>2</sup> Includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential.

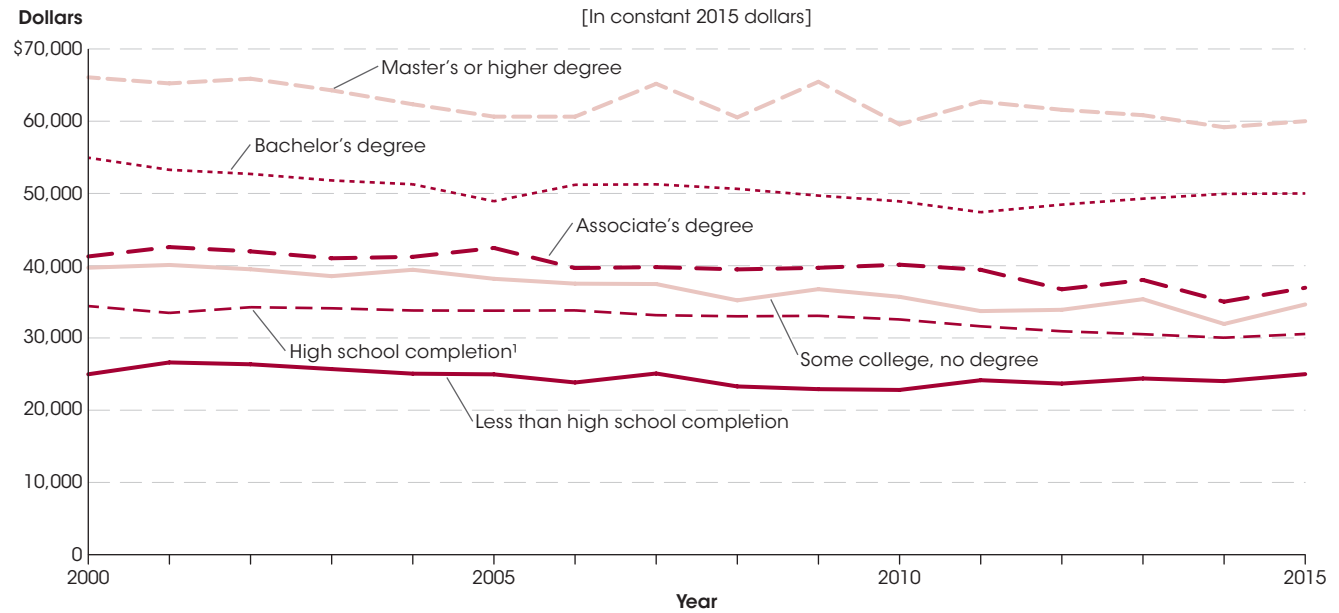
<sup>3</sup> Represents median annual earnings of full-time, year-round workers ages 25–34 with a bachelor's or higher degree.

NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities) and military barracks. *Full-time, year-round* workers are those who worked 35 or more hours per week for 50 or more weeks per year.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), "Annual Social and Economic Supplement," 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 502.30.

For young adults ages 25–34 who worked full time, year round, higher educational attainment was associated with higher median earnings;<sup>1</sup> this pattern was consistent from 2000 through 2015. For example, in 2015 the median earnings of young adults with a bachelor's degree (\$50,000) were 64 percent higher than those of young adult high school completers (\$30,500). The median earnings of young adult high school completers were 22 percent higher than those of young adults who did

not complete high school (\$25,000). In addition, median earnings of young adults with a master's or higher degree were \$60,000 in 2015, some 20 percent higher than those of young adults with a bachelor's degree. This pattern of higher earnings associated with higher levels of educational attainment also held for both male and female young adults as well as for White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian young adults.

**Figure 3. Median annual earnings of full-time, year-round workers ages 25-34, by educational attainment: 2000-2015**

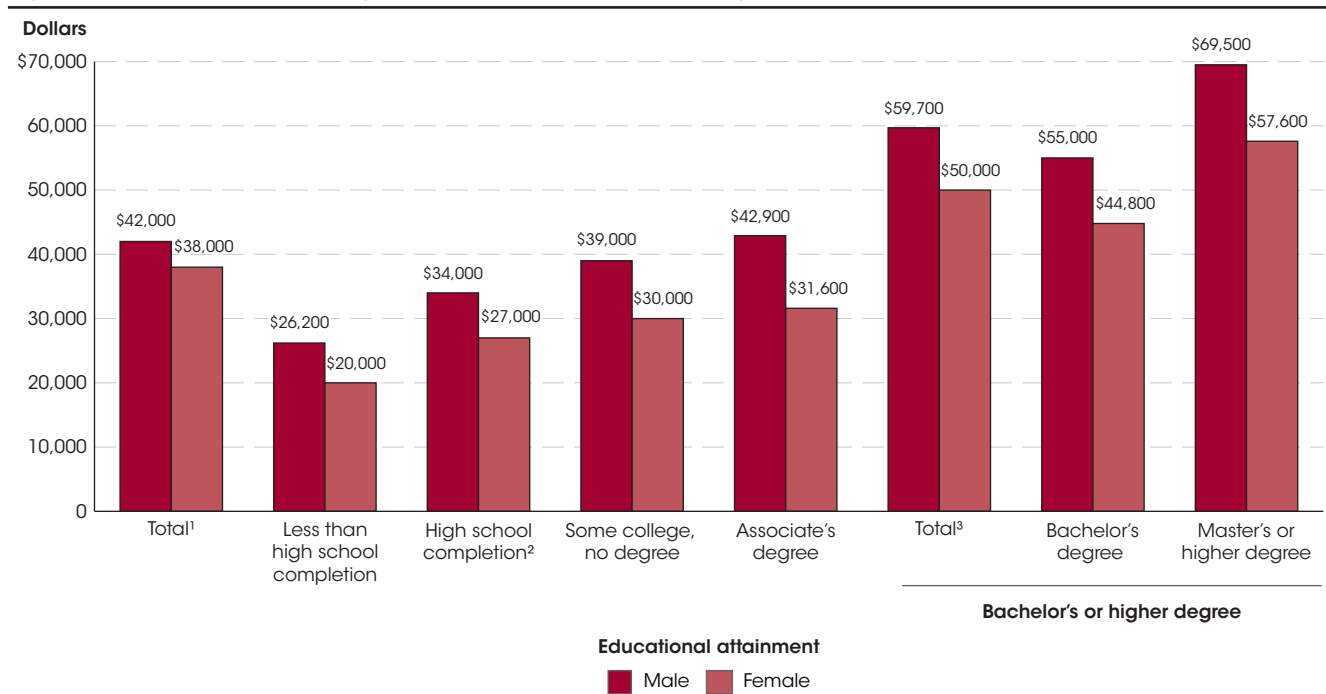
<sup>1</sup> Includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential.

NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities) and military barracks. *Full-time, year-round* workers are those who worked 35 or more hours per week for 50 or more weeks per year. Earnings are presented in constant 2015 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI), to eliminate inflationary factors and to allow for direct comparison across years. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS). "Annual Social and Economic Supplement," 2001-2016; and previously unpublished tabulations. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 502.30.

Median earnings (in constant 2015 dollars)<sup>2</sup> of young adults who worked full time, year round declined from 2000 to 2015 at most educational attainment levels, except for those who did not complete high school and those with a master's or higher degree, both of whom saw no measurable change in median earnings between these two years. During this period, the median earnings of young adult high school completers declined from \$34,400 to \$30,500 (an 11 percent decrease), and the median earnings of those with some college education declined from \$39,700 to \$34,600 (a 13 percent decrease). In addition, the median earnings of young adults with an associate's degree declined from \$41,300 to \$36,900 (a 10 percent decrease), and the median earnings of young

adults with a bachelor's degree declined from \$54,900 to \$50,000 (a 9 percent decrease).

The difference in median earnings between young adult high school completers and those who did not complete high school was smaller in 2015 than in 2000. In 2000, median earnings of young adult high school completers were \$9,400 higher than median earnings of those who did not complete high school; in 2015, this difference was \$5,600. Differences between median earnings of those with a bachelor's degree and high school completers and between those with a bachelor's degree and those with a master's or higher degree did not change measurably during the same period.

**Figure 4. Median annual earnings of full-time, year-round workers ages 25-34, by educational attainment and sex: 2015**

<sup>1</sup> Represents median annual earnings of all full-time, year-round workers ages 25-34.

<sup>2</sup> Includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential.

<sup>3</sup> Represents median annual earnings of full-time, year-round workers ages 25-34 with a bachelor's or higher degree.

NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities) and military barracks. *Full-time, year-round* workers are those who worked 35 or more hours per week for 50 or more weeks per year.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), "Annual Social and Economic Supplement," 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 502.30.

In 2015, median earnings of young adult males who worked full time, year round were higher than the corresponding median earnings of young adult females at every level of educational attainment. For example, median earnings of young adult males with an associate's degree were \$42,900 in 2015, while those of their female counterparts were \$31,600. The median earnings of young adult males with a high school credential were \$34,000, compared with \$27,000 for their female counterparts.

In the same year, median earnings of White young adults who worked full time, year round exceeded the corresponding median earnings of Black young adults at all attainment levels, except for those with less than high school completion and master's or higher degrees, where there were no measurable differences in median earnings between White and Black young adults. For instance, median earnings in 2015 for young adults

with a bachelor's degree were \$50,000 for White young adults, compared with \$42,800 for Black young adults. In addition, median earnings of White young adults were higher than those of their Hispanic peers among individuals who did not complete high school (\$29,800 and \$24,000, respectively) and high school completers (\$34,600 and \$29,700, respectively). At other attainment levels, there was no measurable difference between the median earnings of White and Hispanic young adults. Among those with a bachelor's degree and those with a master's or higher degree, Asian young adults had higher median earnings than their Black, Hispanic, and White peers. For example, median earnings in 2015 for young adults with at least a master's degree were \$74,800 for Asian young adults, \$60,000 for White young adults, \$54,300 for Hispanic young adults, and \$54,200 for Black young adults.

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Differences in earnings may also reflect other factors, such as differences in occupation. Please see the [Employment Outcomes of Bachelor's Degree Recipients](#) indicator.

<sup>2</sup> Constant dollars based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 502.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Employment Rates and Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment, Employment of STEM College Graduates, Employment Outcomes of Bachelor's Degree Recipients, Post-Bachelor's Employment Outcomes by Sex and Race/Ethnicity [*The Condition of Education 2016 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, Constant dollars, Consumer Price Index (CPI), Educational attainment (Current Population Survey), High school completer, High school diploma, Master's degree, Median earnings, Racial/ethnic group

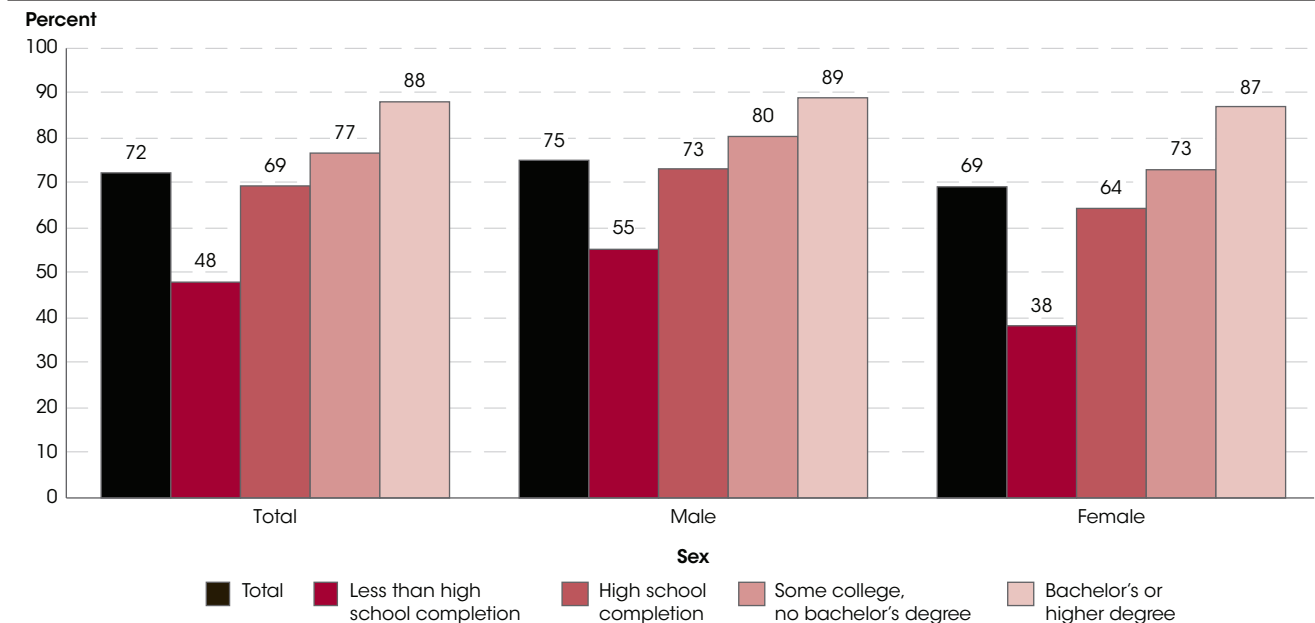
## Employment and Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment

*In 2016, the employment rate was higher for people with higher levels of educational attainment than for those with lower levels of educational attainment. For example, among 20- to 24-year-olds, the employment rate was 88 percent for those with a bachelor’s or higher degree and 48 percent for those who did not complete high school.*

This indicator examines recent trends in two distinct yet related measures of labor market conditions—the employment rate and the unemployment rate. The *employment rate* (also known as the employment to population ratio) is the number of persons in a given group who are employed as a percentage of the civilian population in that group. 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. Both the employment and unemployment rates exclude 20- to 24-year-olds (also referred to as “young adults” in this indicator) who are enrolled in school. Trends in the unemployment rate reflect net changes in the relative number of people who are looking for work, while the employment rate reflects whether the economy is generating jobs relative to population growth in a specific age group.

**Figure 1. Employment rates of 20- to 24-year-olds, by sex and educational attainment: 2016**



NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities); this figure includes data only on the civilian population (excludes all military personnel). For each group presented, the employment rate, or employment to population ratio, is the number of persons in that group who are employed as a percentage of the civilian population in that group. Data exclude persons enrolled in school. “Some college, no bachelor’s degree” includes persons with an associate’s degree. “High school completion” includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, March 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 501.50, 501.60, and 501.70.

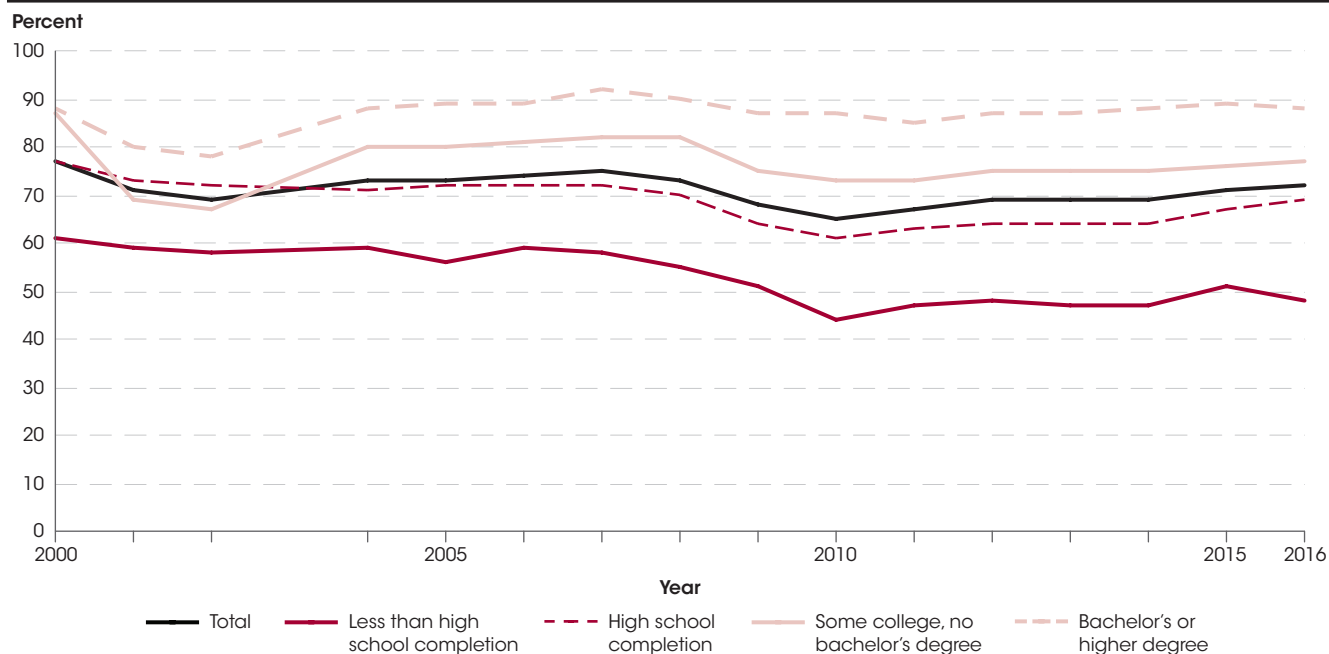
In 2016, the employment rate was higher for those with higher levels of educational attainment. For example, the employment rate was highest for young adults with a bachelor’s or higher degree (88 percent). The employment rate for young adults with some college<sup>1</sup> (77 percent) was higher than the rate for those who had completed high

school<sup>2</sup> (69 percent), which was, in turn, higher than the employment rate for those who had not finished high school (48 percent). This pattern of a positive relationship between employment rates and educational attainment was also seen for 25- to 64-year-olds (also referred to as “older adults” in this indicator).

Among young adults, employment rates were higher for males than for females at most levels of educational attainment in 2016. The employment rate for young adult males was higher than the rate for young adult females both overall (75 vs. 69 percent) and among those with some college (80 vs. 73 percent), those who had completed high school (73 vs. 64 percent), and those who had not

completed high school (55 vs. 38 percent). However, there was no measurable difference between the employment rates of young adult males and females with a bachelor's or higher degree. For older adults, employment rates were higher for males than for females at each level of educational attainment.

**Figure 2. Employment rates of 20- to 24-year-olds, by educational attainment: Selected years, 2000 through 2016**

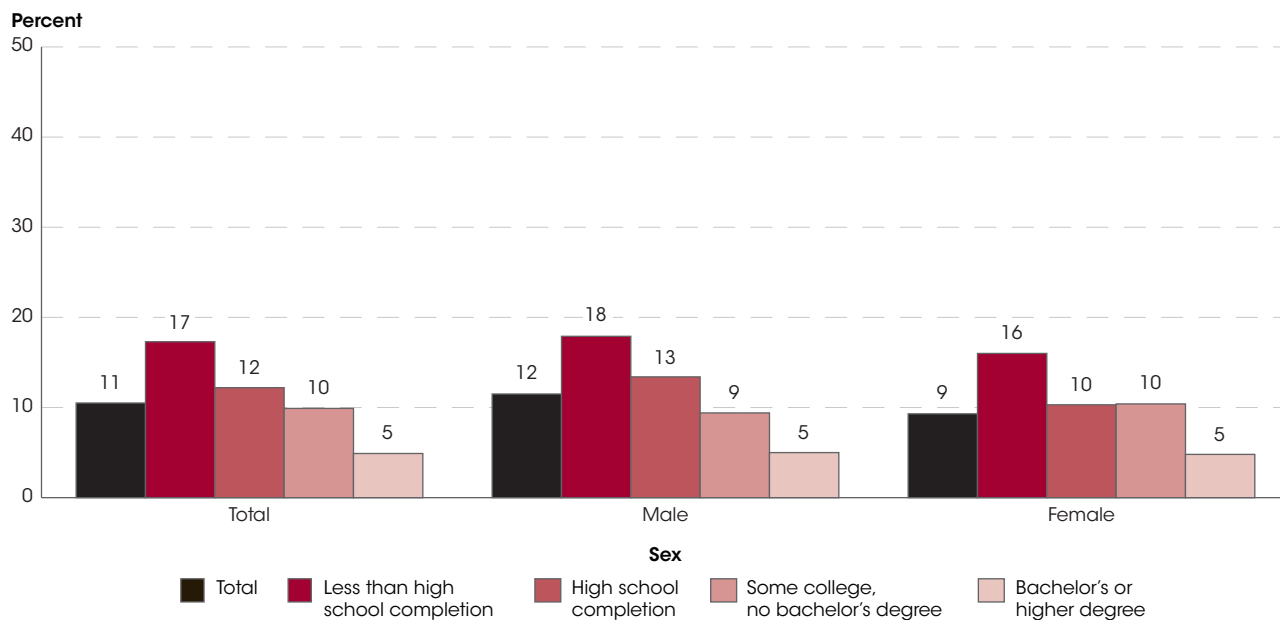


NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities); this figure includes data only on the civilian population (excludes all military personnel). For each group presented, the employment rate, or employment to population ratio, is the number of persons in that age group who are employed as a percentage of the civilian population in that age group. Data exclude persons enrolled in school. "Some college, no bachelor's degree" includes persons with an associate's degree for all data years except 2001 and 2002. "High school completion" includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, selected years, March 2000 through 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2002 and 2003*, table 378; and *Digest of Education Statistics 2013, 2014, and 2016*, table 501.50.

From December 2007 through June 2009, the U.S. economy experienced a recession.<sup>3</sup> For young adults, the employment rate was lower in 2008, near the beginning of the recession, than it was in 2000, prior to the recession (73 vs. 77 percent). The employment rate was even lower in 2010 (65 percent), after the end of the recession, than it was in 2008. While the employment rate for young adults was higher in 2016 (72 percent) than in 2010 (65 percent), the 2016 rate was lower than the rate in 2000 (77 percent) and not measurably different from the rate in 2008 (73 percent). During these years, patterns in the employment rate for young adults varied by educational

attainment. For young adults who had not completed high school, the employment rate in 2016 (48 percent) was lower than in 2000 (61 percent) and 2008 (55 percent), but not measurably different from the rate in 2010. For young adults with a bachelor's or higher degree, the employment rate in 2016 (88 percent) was not measurably different from the rates in 2000, 2008, and 2010. For older adults, the overall employment rate in 2016 (74 percent) was lower than in 2000 (78 percent) and 2008 (76 percent), but higher than in 2010 (72 percent). This pattern was also found among older adults who had a bachelor's or higher degree and those with some college.

Figure 3. Unemployment rates of 20- to 24-year-olds, by sex and educational attainment: 2016



NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities); this figure includes data only on the civilian population (excludes all military personnel). The unemployment rate is the percentage of persons in the civilian labor force who are not working and who made specific efforts to find employment sometime during the prior 4 weeks. The civilian labor force consists of all civilians who are employed or seeking employment. Data exclude persons enrolled in school. "Some college, no bachelor's degree" includes persons with an associate's degree. "High school completion" includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, March 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 501.80, 501.85, and 501.90.

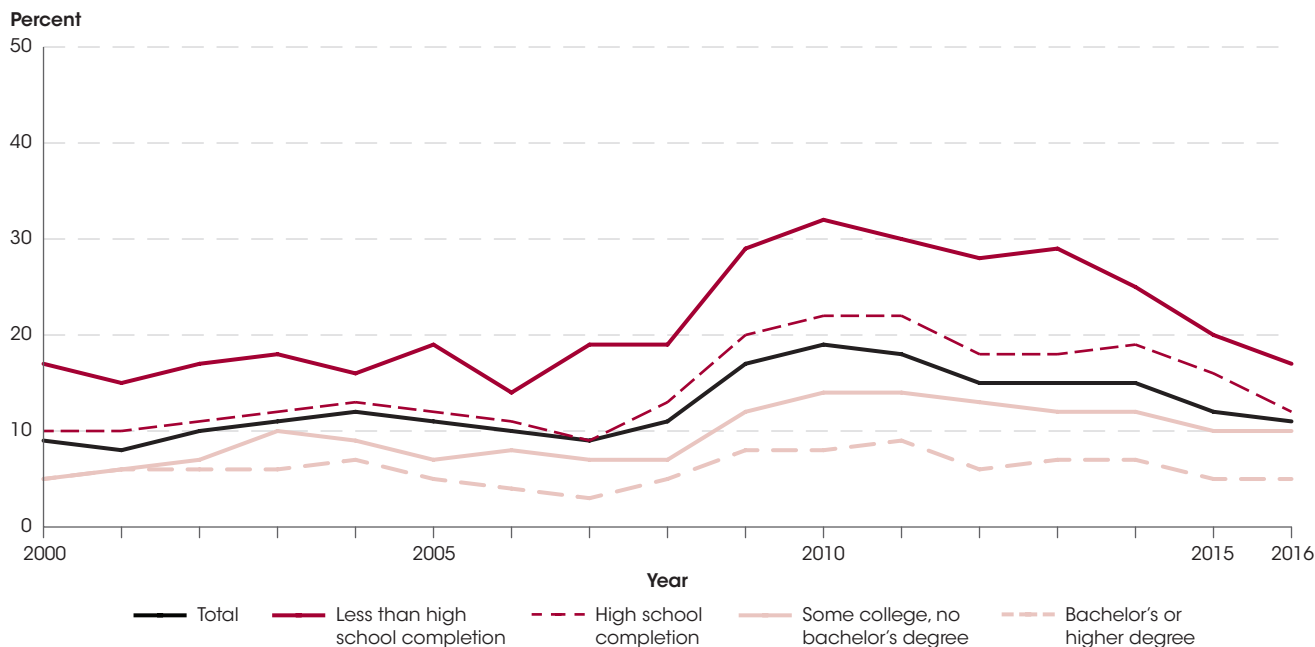
Generally, unemployment rates in 2016 were lower for those with higher levels of educational attainment. For example, the unemployment rate for young adults with a bachelor's or higher degree (5 percent) was lower than the rates for young adults with some college (10 percent), those who had completed high school (12 percent), and those who had not completed high school (17 percent). However, the unemployment rate for young adults with some college was not measurably different from the rate for those who had completed high school. For both young adult males and young adult females, unemployment rates were lowest for those who had a bachelor's or higher degree (5 percent for both). For young adult males the rate was also lower for those who had some college (9 percent) than for those who had completed high school (13 percent) and those who had not completed high school (18 percent). For young adult females, there was

no significant difference between the unemployment rates for those who had some college, those who had completed high school, and those who had not completed high school. The same pattern of lower unemployment rates for individuals with higher levels of education was also observed for older adult males and older adult females.

In 2016, the overall unemployment rate for young adults was higher for males than for females (12 vs. 9 percent). However, there were no measurable differences between the unemployment rates of male and female young adults at any individual level of educational attainment. For older adults, there were no measurable differences between the unemployment rates of males and females, neither overall nor at any individual level of educational attainment.



Figure 4. Unemployment rates of 20- to 24-year-olds, by educational attainment: 2000 through 2016



NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities); this figure includes data only on the civilian population (excludes all military personnel). The unemployment rate is the percentage of persons in the civilian labor force who are not working and who made specific efforts to find employment sometime during the prior 4 weeks. The civilian labor force consists of all civilians who are employed or seeking employment. Data exclude persons enrolled in school. "Some college, no bachelor's degree" includes persons with an associate's degree for all data years except 2001 and 2002. "High school completion" includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, March 2000 through 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2003*, table 380; and *Digest of Education Statistics 2013, 2014, and 2016*, table 501.80.

Both overall and for each of the four levels of educational attainment, the unemployment rates for both young adults and older adults were lower in 2016 than they were in 2010. For young adults, the post-recession unemployment rate in 2010 (19 percent) was higher than it was both at the beginning of the recession in 2008 (11 percent) and prior to the recession in 2000 (9 percent).

In 2016, while the unemployment rate for young adults (11 percent) was lower than it was in 2010 (19 percent), it was not measurably different from the rates in 2008 and 2000. Similar patterns were found for young adults with a bachelor's or higher degree, those who had completed high school, and those who had not completed high school.

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> In this indicator, "some college" includes those who have attended college, but did not obtain a bachelor's degree. This includes those who have completed an associate's degree for all years except 2001 and 2002. In 2001 and 2002, "some college, no degree" and "associate's degree" data were collected separately.

<sup>2</sup> Includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED.  
<sup>3</sup> See <http://www.nber.org/cycles.html>.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 501.50, 501.60, 501.70, 501.80, 501.85, and 501.90

**Related indicators and resources:** Annual Earnings of Young Adults, Employment of STEM College Graduates, Employment Outcomes of Bachelor's Degree Recipients, Trends in Employment Rates by Educational Attainment [*The Condition of Education 2013 Spotlight*], Post-Bachelor's Employment Outcomes by Sex and Race/Ethnicity [*The Condition of Education 2016 Spotlight*], Disability Rates and Employment Status by Educational Attainment [*The Condition of Education 2017 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Bachelor's degree, College, Educational attainment (Current Population Survey), Employment status, High school completer

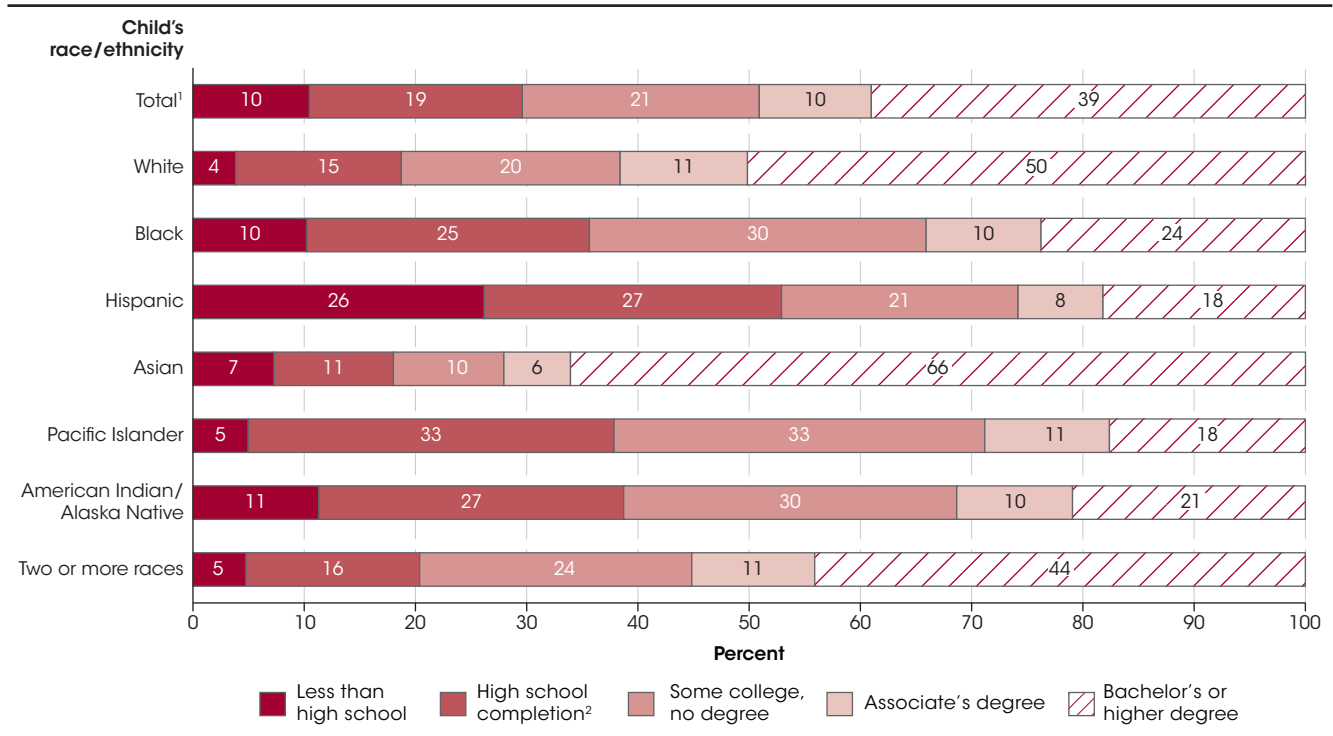
## Characteristics of Children’s Families

*In 2015, some 10 percent of children under the age of 18 had parents who had not completed high school, 27 percent lived in mother-only households, 8 percent lived in father-only households, and 20 percent were living in poverty.*

Characteristics of children’s families are associated with children’s educational experiences and their academic achievement. Prior research finds that risk factors, such as having a parent who did not complete high school, living in a single-parent household, and living in poverty, are associated with poor educational outcomes, including low achievement scores, having to repeat a grade, and dropping out of high school.<sup>1,2</sup> In 2015, some 10 percent of children under the age of 18 had parents who had not

completed high school,<sup>3</sup> 27 percent lived in mother-only households, 8 percent lived in father-only households, and 20 percent were in families living in poverty. This indicator examines the prevalence of these risk factors among racial/ethnic groups and, for poverty status, among states. For more information on associations of risk factors with early learning, please see the Spotlight indicator [Risk Factors and Academic Outcomes in Kindergarten Through Third Grade](#).

**Figure 1. Percentage distribution of children under age 18, by child’s race/ethnicity and parents’ highest level of educational attainment: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Total includes races/ethnicities not reported separately.

<sup>2</sup> Includes parents who completed high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.

NOTE: Includes only children under age 18 who resided with at least one of their parents (including an adoptive or stepparent). Parents’ highest level of educational attainment is the highest level of education attained by any parent residing in the same household as the child. Parents include adoptive and stepparents but exclude parents not residing in the same household as their child. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 104.70.

In 2015, some 39 percent of children under age 18 had parents whose highest level of educational attainment was a bachelor’s or higher degree: 21 percent had parents who had completed a bachelor’s degree, 12 percent had parents who had completed a master’s degree, and 5 percent had parents who had completed a doctor’s degree.<sup>4</sup> In addition, 10 percent of children had parents who had not

completed high school, 19 percent had parents who had only completed high school,<sup>5</sup> 21 percent had parents who attended some college but did not receive a degree, and 10 percent had parents who had completed an associate’s degree. The percentages of children whose parents had completed an associate’s degree or a bachelor’s or higher degree were greater in 2015 than in 2010. In contrast, the

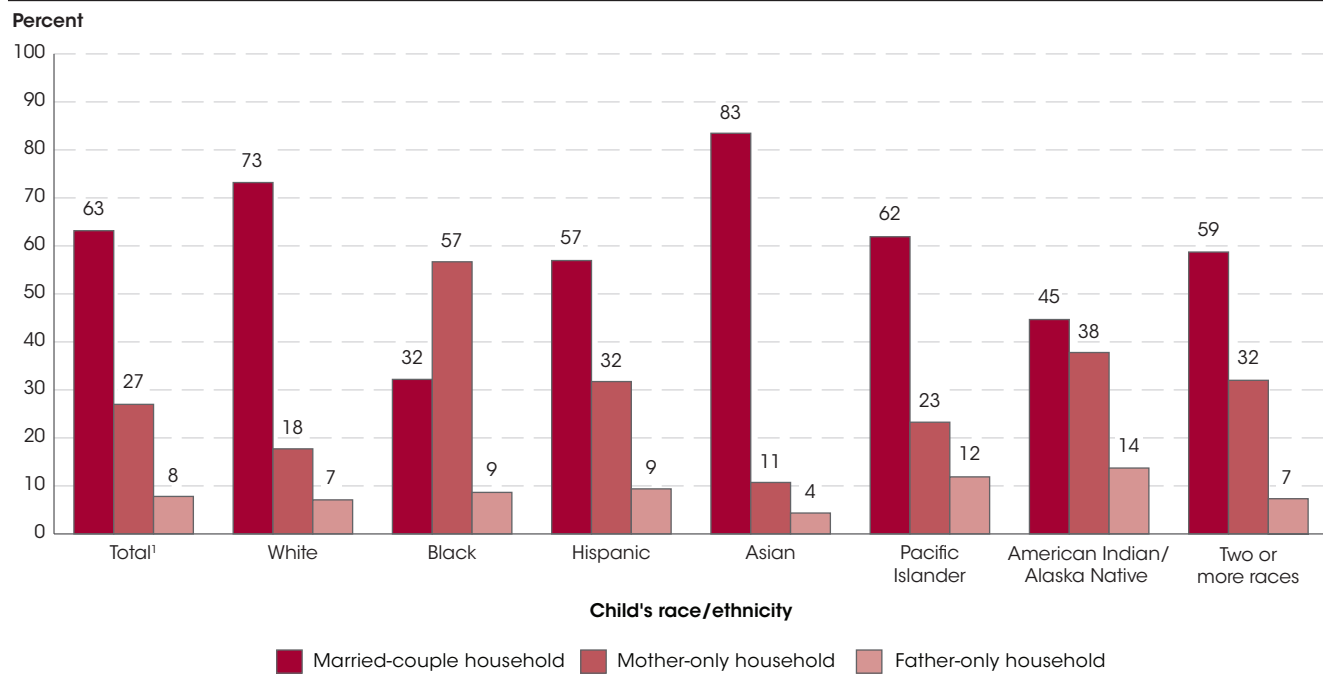
percentages of children whose parents had not completed high school, had only completed high school, and who attended some college but did not receive a degree were lower in 2015 than in 2010.

The percentage of children under age 18 whose parents had attained different levels of education varied across racial/ethnic groups in 2015. For example, the percentage of children whose parents had completed a bachelor's or higher degree was highest for Asian children (66 percent), followed by children who were White (50 percent), of Two or more races (44 percent), and Black (24 percent). Also, the percentage of children whose parents had completed a bachelor's or higher degree was higher for American Indian/Alaska Native children (21 percent) than for

Hispanic children (18 percent); however, the percentages for these two groups were not measurably different from the percentage for Pacific Islander children (18 percent).

In contrast, the percentage of children in 2015 whose parents did not complete high school was highest for Hispanic children (26 percent), followed by American Indian/Alaska Native children (11 percent) and Black children (10 percent). Also, the percentage of children whose parents did not complete high school was higher for Asian children (7 percent) than for children who were of Two or more races (5 percent) and White (4 percent); however, the percentages for these three groups were not measurably different from the percentage for Pacific Islander children (5 percent).

**Figure 2. Percentage of children under age 18, by child's race/ethnicity and family structure: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Total includes races/ethnicities not reported separately.

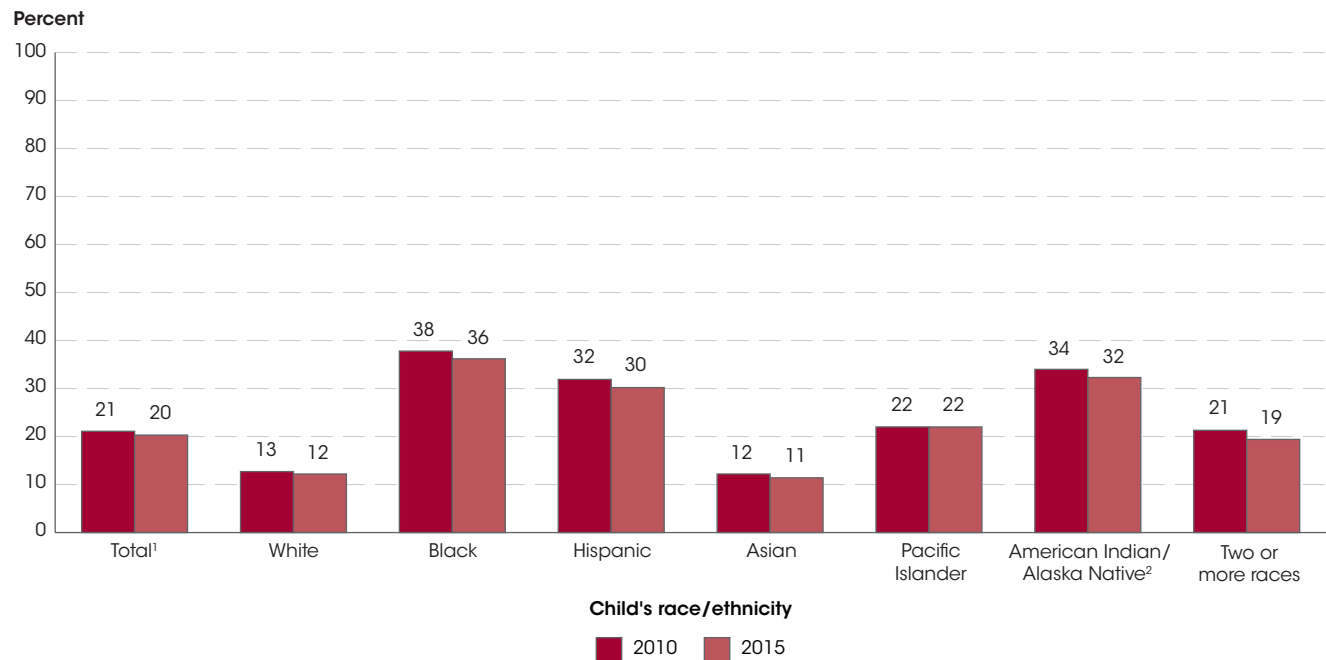
NOTE: Data does not include foster children, children in unrelated subfamilies, children living in group quarters, and children who were reported as the householder or spouse of the householder. A "mother-only household" has a female householder, with no spouse present (i.e., the householder is unmarried or their spouse is not in the household), while a "father-only household" has a male householder, with no spouse present. 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. The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 102.20.

In 2015, some 63 percent of children under age 18 lived in married-couple households, 27 percent lived in mother-only households, and 8 percent lived in father-only households.<sup>6</sup> This pattern of a higher percentage of children living in married-couple households than in mother- or father-only households was seen for children

across all racial/ethnic groups, except Black children. Some 57 percent of Black children lived in a mother-only household, compared with 32 percent who lived in a married-couple household and 9 percent who lived in a father-only household.

**Figure 3. Percentage of children under age 18 in families living in poverty, by child’s race/ethnicity: 2010 and 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Total includes races/ethnicities not reported separately.

<sup>2</sup> 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: 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. For additional information about poverty status, see <https://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html>. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

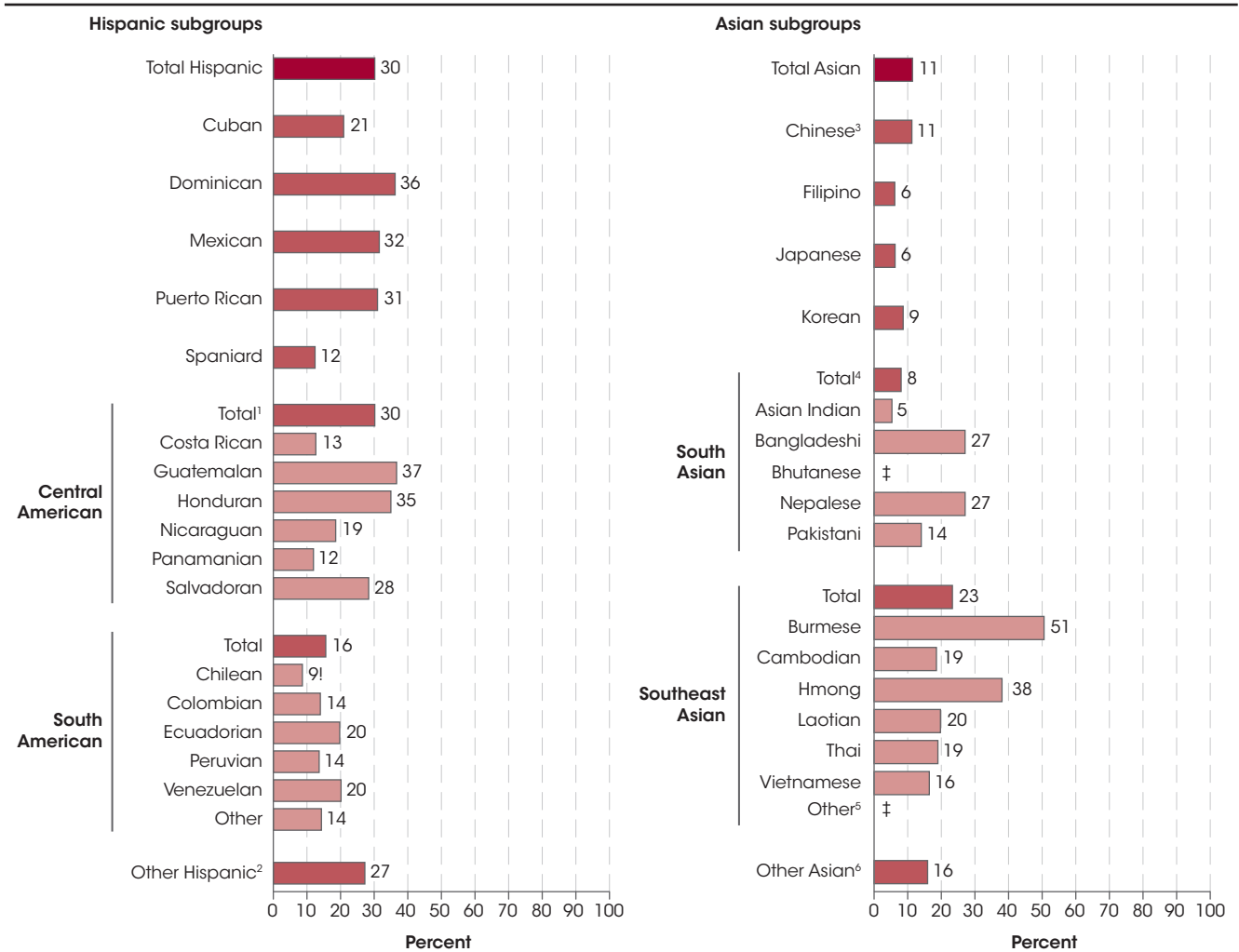
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2010 and 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 102.60.

In 2015, approximately 14.7 million children under age 18 were in families living in poverty.<sup>7</sup> The poverty rate for children in 2015 (20 percent) was lower than in 2010 (21 percent). This pattern was observed for White, Black, and Hispanic children and for children of Two or more races. For example, 30 percent of Hispanic children lived in poverty in 2015, compared with 32 percent in 2010. However, the 2015 poverty rates for Asian, Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native children were not measurably different than the rates in 2010.

The poverty rate for children under age 18 varied across racial/ethnic groups. In 2015, the poverty rate was highest for Black children (36 percent), followed by American

Indian/Alaska Native children (32 percent), and then Hispanic children (30 percent). In addition, the poverty rate was higher for Pacific Islander children (22 percent) than for White children (12 percent) and Asian children (11 percent). The rate for Pacific Islander children was not measurably different than the rate for children of Two or more races (19 percent). Compared to the national average (20 percent), Asian and White children had lower poverty rates, while Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native children had rates that were higher than the national average. The poverty rates for Pacific Islander children and children of Two or more races were not measurably different from the national average.

Figure 4. Percentage of children under age 18 in families living in poverty, by selected Hispanic and Asian subgroups: 2015

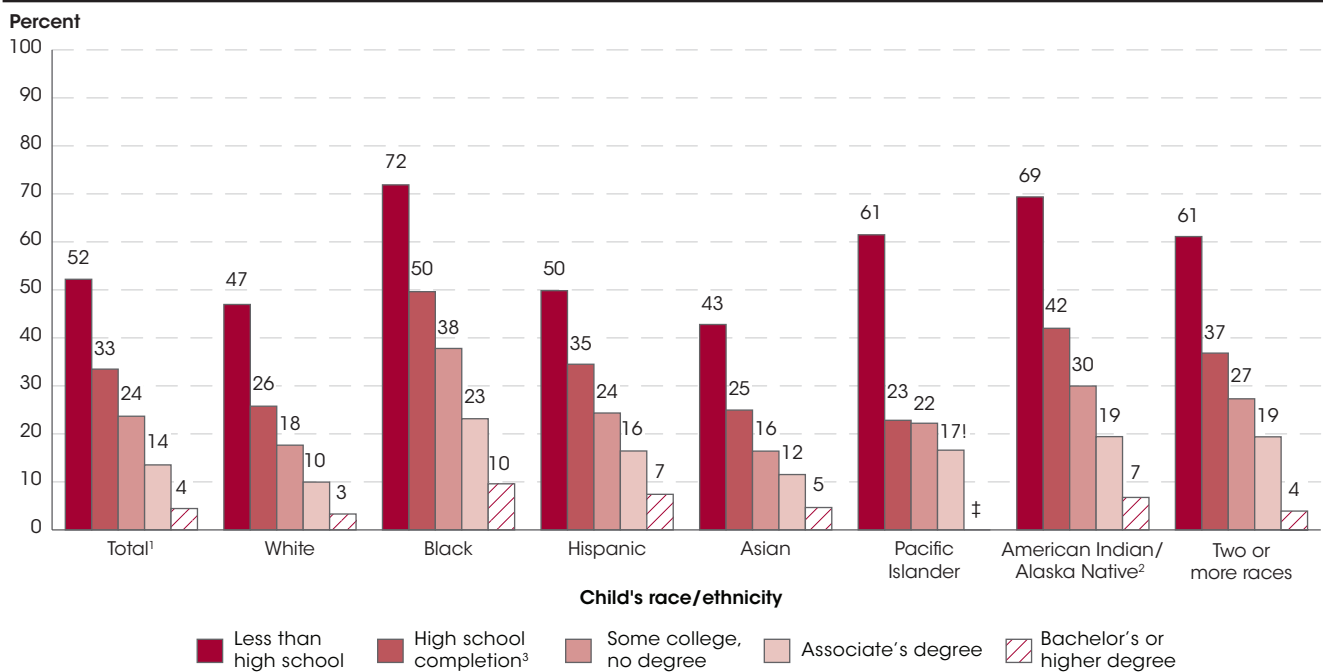


! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.  
 ‡ Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.  
<sup>1</sup> Includes other Central American subgroups not shown separately.  
<sup>2</sup> Includes children from Hispanic countries other than the ones shown.  
<sup>3</sup> Includes Taiwanese.  
<sup>4</sup> In addition to the South Asian subgroups shown, also includes Sri Lankan.  
<sup>5</sup> Includes children from Indonesia and Malaysia.  
<sup>6</sup> Includes children from Asian countries other than the ones shown.  
 NOTE: The national poverty rate average was 20 percent in 2015. 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. For additional information about poverty status, see <https://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html>.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2014. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 102.60.

In 2015, the overall poverty rate for Hispanic children under age 18 (30 percent) was higher than the national average of 20 percent. However, there was a range of rates among Hispanic subgroups, with some rates being lower or higher than the national average. For example, the poverty rates for Chilean children (9 percent) as well as Panamanian and Spaniard children (12 percent each) were lower than the national average, while the rates for Guatemalan children (37 percent) and Dominican children (36 percent) were higher than the national average.

The overall poverty rate for Asian children under age 18 in 2015 (11 percent) was lower than the national average, but there was a range of rates among Asian subgroups, with some rates being lower or higher than the national average. For example, the poverty rates for Asian Indian (5 percent), Filipino (6 percent), and Japanese children (6 percent) were lower than the national average, while the rates for Burmese (51 percent) and Hmong children (38 percent) were higher than the national average. For additional information about racial/ethnic subgroups, please refer to the *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups* report.

**Figure 5. Percentage of children under age 18 in families living in poverty, by child's race/ethnicity and parents' highest level of educational attainment: 2015**



! 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.

<sup>1</sup> Total includes race/ethnicities not reported separately.

<sup>2</sup> 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.

<sup>3</sup> Includes parents who completed high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.

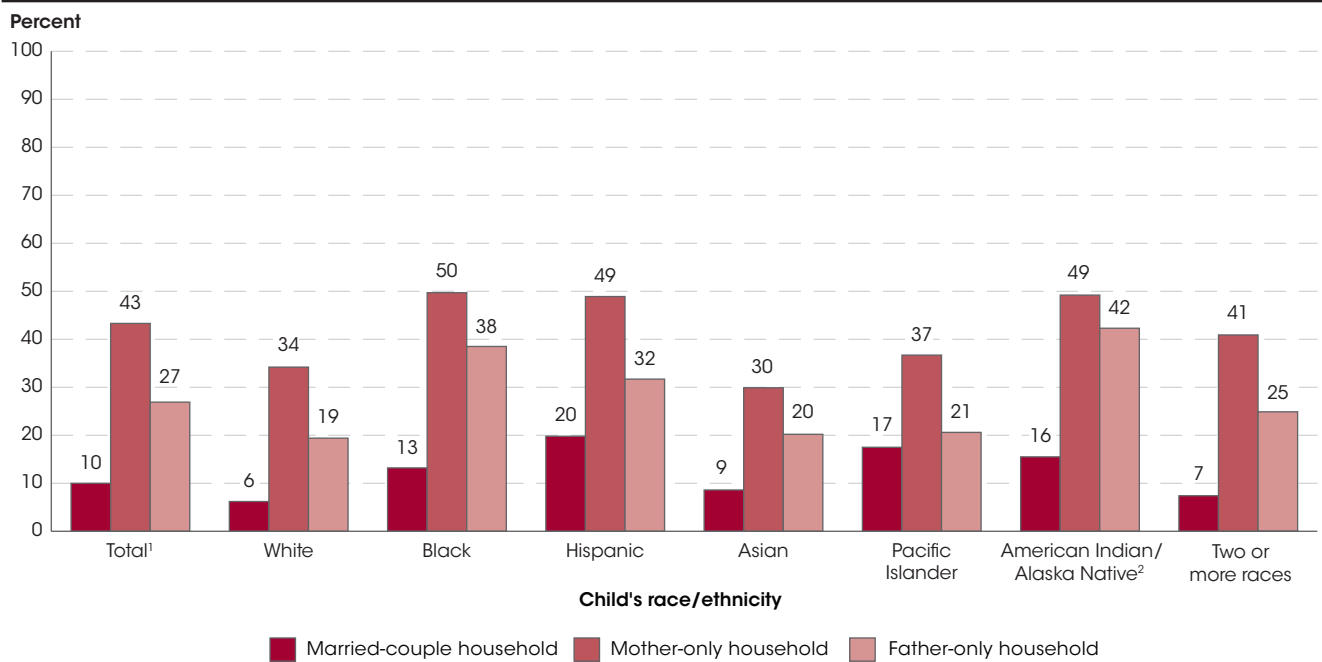
NOTE: Parents' highest level of educational attainment is the highest level of education attained by any parent residing in the same household as the child. Parents include adoptive and stepparents but exclude parents not residing in the same household as their child. The measure of child poverty includes 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. For additional information about poverty status, see <https://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html>. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 102.62.

In 2015, the poverty rate for children under age 18 was highest for those whose parents had not completed high school (52 percent) and lowest for those whose parents had attained a bachelor's or higher degree (4 percent). The pattern of higher poverty rates for children whose parents had lower levels of educational attainment was observed

across most racial/ethnic groups. For example, the poverty rate among Asian children was highest for those whose parents had not completed high school (43 percent) and lowest for those whose parents had attained a bachelor's degree or higher (5 percent).

**Figure 6. Percentage of children under age 18 in families living in poverty, by child’s race/ethnicity and family structure: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Total includes races/ethnicities not reported separately.

<sup>2</sup> 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.

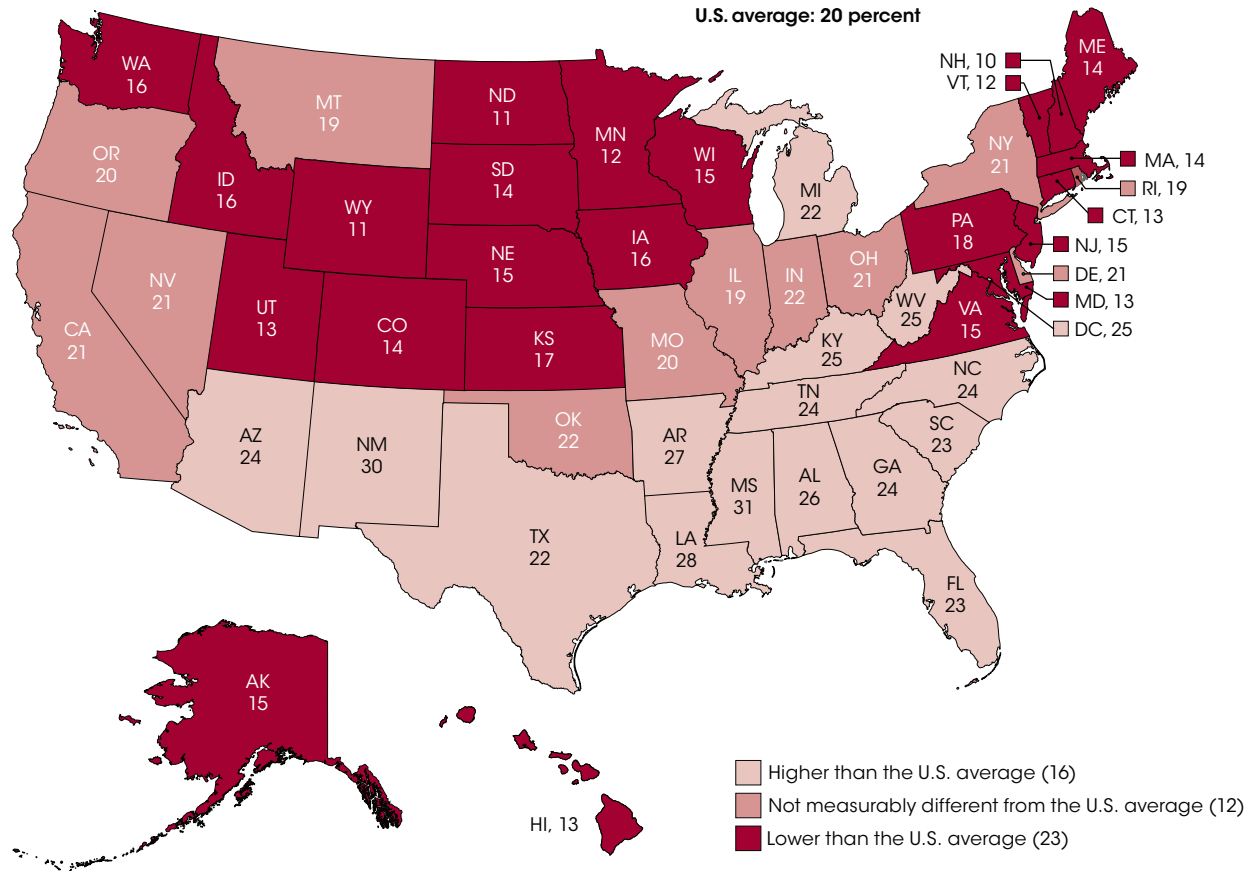
NOTE: A “mother-only household” has a female householder, with no spouse present (i.e., the householder is unmarried or their spouse is not in the household), while a “father-only household” has a male householder, with no spouse present. Includes all children who live either with their parent(s) or 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. The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit. For additional information about poverty status, see <https://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html>. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 102.60.

For children under age 18 in 2015, those living in a mother-only household had the highest poverty rate (43 percent) and those living in a father-only household had the next-highest rate (27 percent). Children living in a married-couple household had the lowest poverty rate, at 10 percent. This pattern of children living in married-couple households having the lowest rate of poverty was observed across most racial/ethnic groups. For example,

among Black children the poverty rates were 50 percent for those living in a mother-only household, 38 percent for those living in a father-only household, and 13 percent for those living in a married-couple household. The exception is that the apparent difference between the poverty rates for Pacific Islander children in a married-couple household and those in a father-only household was not statistically significant.

Figure 7. Percentage of children under age 18 in families living in poverty, by state: 2015



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. For additional information about poverty status, see <https://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html>. Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 102.40.

While the national average poverty rate for children under age 18 was 20 percent in 2015, the poverty rates among states ranged from 10 percent in New Hampshire to 31 percent in Mississippi. Twenty-three states had poverty rates for children that were lower than the national average, 15 states and the District of Columbia had rates that were higher than the national average, and 12 states had rates that were not measurably different from the

national average. Of the 16 jurisdictions (15 states and the District of Columbia) that had poverty rates higher than the national average, the majority (13) were located in the South. In 10 states, the poverty rates were lower in 2015 than in 2010. In the remaining 40 states and the District of Columbia, there was no measurable difference between the poverty rates in 2010 and 2015.



**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Pungello, E., Kainz, K., Burchinal, M., Wasik, B., Sparling, J.J., Ramey, C.T., and Campbell, F.A. (2010, January). Early Educational Intervention, Early Cumulative Risk, and the Early Home Environment as Predictors of Young Adult Outcomes Within a High-Risk Sample. *Child Development*, 81(1): 410–426. Retrieved February 7, 2017, from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2009.01403.x/full>.

<sup>2</sup> Ross, T., Kena, G., Rathbun, A., KewalRamani, A., Zhang, J., Kristapovich, P., and Manning, E. (2012). *Higher Education: Gaps in Access and Persistence Study* (NCES 2012-046). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved February 7, 2017, from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubinfo.asp?pubid=2012046>.

<sup>3</sup> In this indicator, “parents’ highest level of educational attainment” is the highest level of education attained by any parent residing in the same household as the child.

<sup>4</sup> Includes parents who had completed professional degrees.

<sup>5</sup> Includes parents who completed high school through equivalency programs, such as a GED program.

<sup>6</sup> A “mother-only household” has a female householder, with no spouse present (i.e., the householder is unmarried or their spouse

is not in the household) while a “father-only household” has a male householder, with no spouse present. 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. The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit.

<sup>7</sup> In this indicator, data on household income and the number of people living in the household are combined with the poverty threshold, published by the Census Bureau, to determine the poverty status of children. A household includes all families in which children are related to the householder by birth or adoption, or through marriage. The householder is the person (or one of the people) who owns or rents (maintains) the housing unit. In 2015, the poverty threshold for a family of four with two related children under 18 years old was \$24,036 (<http://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/cps/tables/time-series/historical-poverty-thresholds/thresh15.xls>).

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 102.20, 102.40, 102.60, 102.62, and 104.70

**Related indicators and resources:** Concentration of Public School Students Eligible for Free or Reduced-Price Lunch, Disparities in Educational Outcomes Among Male Youth [*The Condition of Education 2015 Spotlight*], Risk Factors and Academic Outcomes in Kindergarten Through Third Grade [*The Condition of Education 2017 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Associate’s degree, Bachelor’s degree, College, Doctor’s degree, Educational attainment, High school completer, Household, Master’s degree, Poverty (official measure), Racial/ethnic group

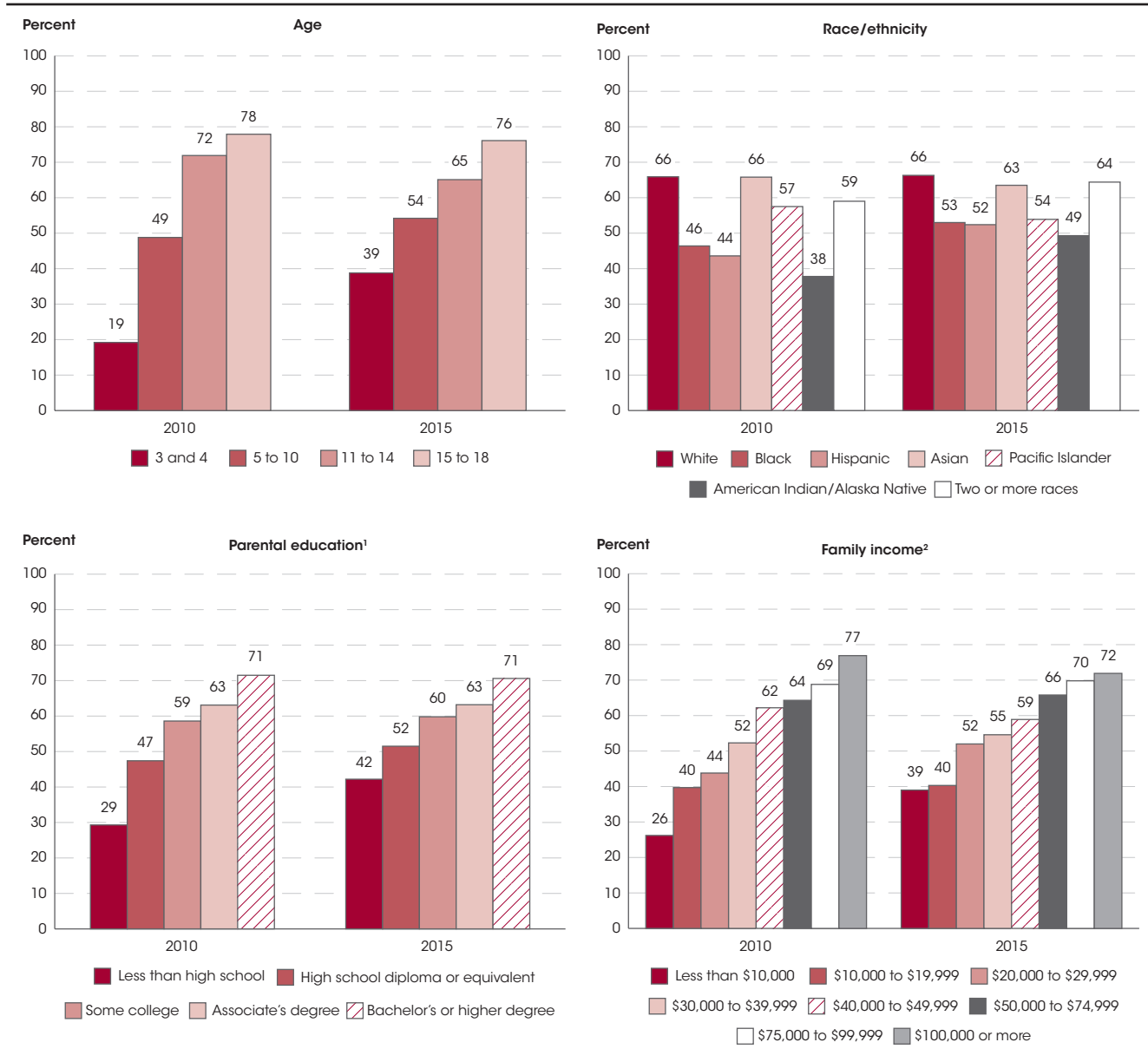
# Children's Access to and Use of the Internet

*In 2015, about 71 percent of children ages 3 to 18 used the Internet. Among these children, 86 percent used the Internet at home; 65 percent used it at school; 31 percent used it at someone else's home; 27 percent used it at a library, community center, or other public place; and 14 percent used it at a coffee shop or other business offering internet access. In addition, 27 percent of these children used the Internet while traveling between places.*

Studies have shown that differences in internet access exist among students with different demographic characteristics. For instance, households with members who are racial or ethnic minorities or have low levels of educational attainment or income have lower levels of computer use and internet access.<sup>1,2,3</sup> Using data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), this indicator first

describes the percentages of children between the ages of 3 and 18 who used the Internet from home in 2015, as well as changes from the corresponding percentages in 2010.<sup>4</sup> The indicator also describes, among children who used the Internet anywhere, the percentages of children who accessed the Internet in specific settings (e.g., home, school, library, etc.).

**Figure 1. Percentage of children ages 3 to 18 who used the Internet from home, by selected child and family characteristics: 2010 and 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Highest education level of any parent residing with the child (including an adoptive or stepparent). Includes only children who resided with at least one of their parents.

<sup>2</sup> In current dollars.  
NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Data exclude children living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities). Data for 2015 were collected in the July supplement to the Current Population Survey (CPS), while data for 2010 were collected in the October supplement. The 2015 July supplement consisted solely of questions about computer and internet use. In contrast, the 2010 October supplement focused on school enrollment, although it also included questions about computer and internet use. Measurable differences in estimates across years could reflect actual changes in the population; however, differences could also reflect seasonal variations in data collection or differences between the content of the July and October supplements. Therefore, caution should be used when making year-to-year comparisons.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2010 and July 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 702.15.

In the years between 2010 and 2015,<sup>5</sup> it was more common for older children than for younger children to use the Internet from home. In 2015, the percentage of all children using the Internet from home was highest among 15- to 18-year-olds (76 percent), followed by 11- to 14-year-olds (65 percent), 5- to 10-year-olds (54 percent), and 3- and 4-year-olds (39 percent). A higher percentage of children used the Internet at home in 2015 than in

2010 (61 vs. 58 percent). However, this pattern was not consistently observed for children from different age groups. During this period, the percentage of children using the Internet from home was higher in 2015 than in 2010 for children ages 3 and 4 (39 vs. 19 percent) and 5 to 10 (54 vs. 49 percent); in contrast, the percentage was lower in 2015 than in 2010 for children ages 11 to 14 (65 v. 72 percent) and 15 to 18 (76 vs. 78 percent).

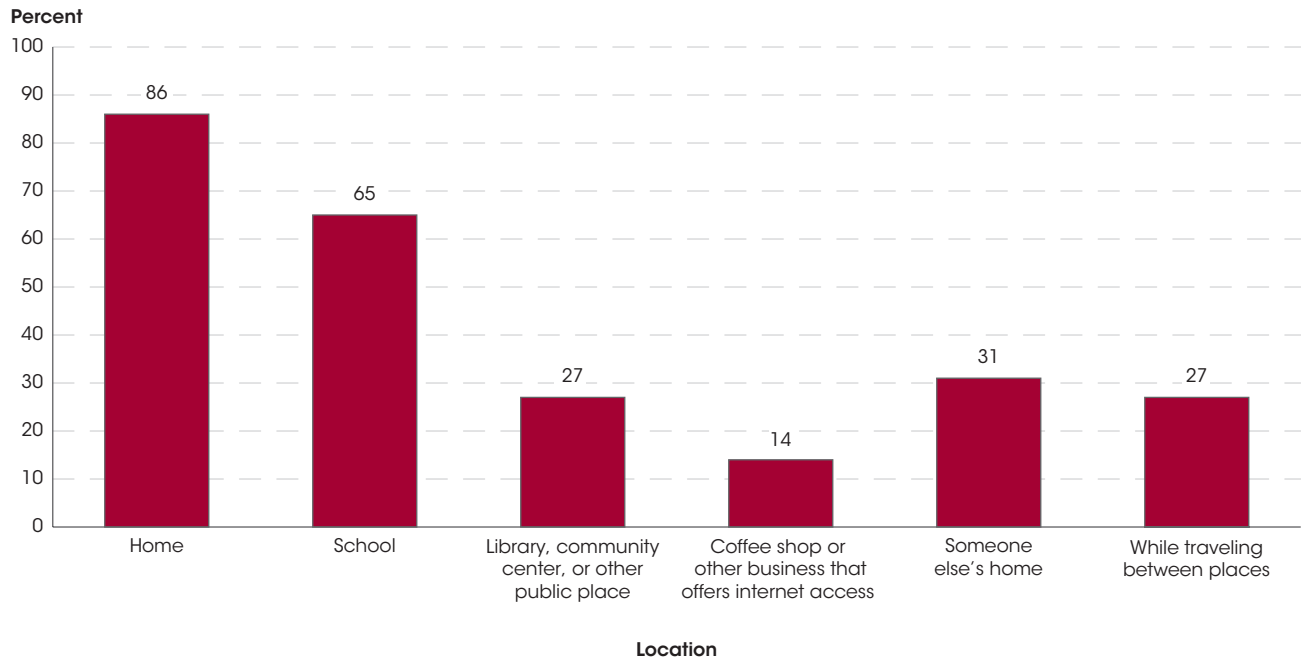
In the years between 2010 and 2015,<sup>5</sup> the percentage of children ages 3 to 18 using the Internet from home was higher for children who were White, Asian, and of Two or more races than for those who were Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native. In 2015, higher percentages of children who were White (66 percent), of Two or more races (64 percent), and Asian (63 percent) used the Internet from home than did Black (53 percent), Hispanic (52 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native children (49 percent). The percentage of Pacific Islander children (54 percent) was not measurably different from that of any other racial/ethnic group. The percentage of children using the Internet from home was higher in 2015 than in 2010 for Black (53 vs. 46 percent) and Hispanic children (52 vs. 44 percent), but was not measurably different for children from other racial/ethnic groups. As a result, the White-Black and White-Hispanic gaps in home internet use narrowed between 2010 and 2015. The White-Black gap narrowed from 19 percentage points in 2010 to 13 percentage points in 2015, and the White-Hispanic gap narrowed from 22 percentage points in 2010 to 14 percentage points in 2015.

In general, the percentage of children ages 3 to 18 using the Internet from home was higher for children whose parents had attained higher levels of education. For instance, 71 percent of children whose parents had attained a bachelor's or higher degree used the Internet from home in 2015, compared with 42 percent of children whose parents had not completed high school and 52 percent of children whose parents had completed high school only. The percentage of children using the

Internet from home was higher in 2015 than in 2010 for children whose parents had not completed high school (42 vs. 29 percent) and those who had completed high school only (52 vs. 47 percent), but was not measurably different for those whose parents had at least some college education. Consequently, from 2010 to 2015, the gap in home internet use between children whose parents had attained a bachelor's or higher degree and children whose parents had not completed high school narrowed from 42 to 28 percentage points, and the gap between children whose parents had a bachelor's or higher degree and children whose parents had completed high school narrowed from 24 to 19 percentage points.

The percentage of children ages 3 to 18 using the Internet from home was also generally higher for children with higher family income. In 2015, about 72 percent of children with a family income of \$100,000 or more and 70 percent of children with a family income between \$75,000 and \$99,999 used the Internet from home, compared with 39 percent of children with a family income of less than \$10,000 and 40 percent of children with a family income between \$10,000 and \$19,999. The percentage of children using the Internet from home was higher in 2015 than in 2010 for children with a family income of less than \$10,000 (39 vs. 26 percent), but it was lower in 2015 than in 2010 for children with a family income of \$100,000 or more (72 vs. 77 percent). As a result, the home internet use gap between children in these two groups narrowed from 51 percentage points in 2010 to 33 percentage points in 2015.

**Figure 2. Among those who used the Internet anywhere, percentage of children ages 3 to 18 using it in various locations: 2015**

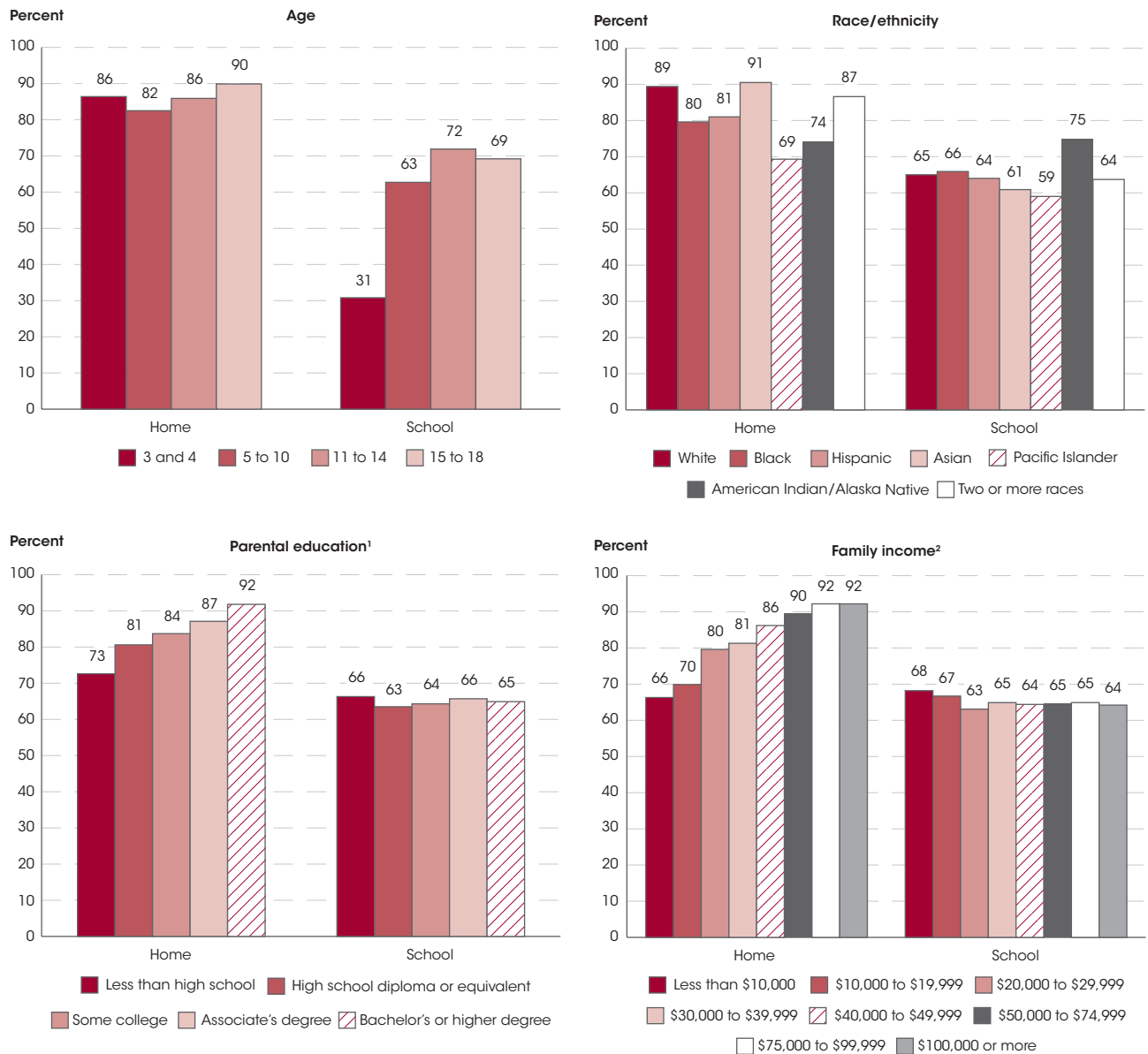


NOTE: Data exclude children living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities). Percentages sum to more than 100 because a child could have used the Internet in more than one location.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), July 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 702.20.

Children access the Internet from a wide range of settings. In 2015, about 71 percent of children ages 3 to 18 used the Internet anywhere. Among these children, 86 percent used the Internet at home; 65 percent used it at school; 31 percent used it at someone else’s home; 27 percent used

it at a library, community center, or other public place; and 14 percent used it at a coffee shop or other business offering internet access. In addition, 27 percent of these children used the Internet while traveling between places.

**Figure 3. Among those who used the Internet anywhere, percentage of children ages 3 to 18 who used the Internet at home and at school, by selected child and family characteristics: 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Highest education level of any parent residing with the child (including an adoptive or stepparent). Includes only children who resided with at least one of their parents.

<sup>2</sup> In current dollars.

NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Data exclude children living in institutions (e.g., prisons or nursing facilities).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), July 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 702.20.

Among children ages 3 to 18 who used the Internet anywhere, there were differences in children’s internet access at home across various child and family characteristics. For instance, among children who used the Internet anywhere in 2015, the percentage using it at home was higher for children who were Asian (91 percent), White (89 percent), and of Two or more

ages (87 percent) than for those who were Hispanic (81 percent), Black (80 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (74 percent). The percentage of children who used the Internet at home was also generally higher for older children, children whose parents had higher levels of educational attainment, and children with higher family incomes.

Compared to children's internet use at home, fewer differences by child and family characteristics were observed for children's internet use at school. In 2015, among children ages 3 to 18 who used the Internet anywhere, a higher percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native children (75 percent) used it at school than did children who were White (65 percent), Hispanic (64 percent), of Two or more races (64 percent), and Asian (61 percent); additionally, the percentage for White children was higher than for Asian children. There was no measurable difference in internet use at school among children who were White, Black, Hispanic, and of Two or more races. The percentage of children who used the Internet at school was generally higher for older children than for younger children. The only exception was that a higher percentage of children ages 11 to 14 than children ages 15 to 18 (72 vs. 69 percent) used the Internet at school. There were no measurable differences in the percentages of children using the Internet at school by family income or by highest level of education attained by either parent.

Children's internet use at libraries, community centers, or other public places<sup>6</sup> also varied by child and family characteristics. For instance, among children ages 3 to 18 who used the Internet anywhere in 2015, the percentage using it at a library, community center, or other public

place was higher for children who were Pacific Islander (46 percent), Black (34 percent), of Two or more races (34 percent), Asian (32 percent), and Hispanic (29 percent) than for White children (23 percent); additionally, it was higher for Black children than for Hispanic children and higher for Pacific Islander children than for American Indian/Alaska Native children (25 percent).

Furthermore, the percentage of children ages 3 to 18 who used the Internet at a library, community center, or other public place was lower for children whose parents had completed high school only (24 percent) than for those whose parents had not completed high school (30 percent), had some college education (28 percent), and had attained a bachelor's or higher degree (27 percent). The percentage of children who used the Internet at a library, community center, or other public place was higher for children with family incomes of less than \$20,000 than for children with family incomes of \$40,000 or higher. For example, among children who used the Internet anywhere, 32 percent of children with a family income of less than \$10,000 and 33 percent of children with a family income between \$10,000 and \$19,999 used the Internet at a library, community center, or other public place, while 25 percent of children with a family income between \$75,000 and \$99,999 and 26 percent of children with a family income of \$100,000 or more did so.

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#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> DeBell, M., and Chapman, C. (2006). *Computer and Internet Use by Students in 2003* (NCES 2006-065). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved February 17, 2017, from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2006/2006065.pdf>.

<sup>2</sup> File, T., and Ryan, C. (2014). *Computer and Internet Use in the United States: 2013* (ACS-28). U.S. Department of Commerce. Washington, DC: Census Bureau. Retrieved February 17, 2017, from <https://www.census.gov/history/pdf/2013computeruse.pdf>.

<sup>3</sup> Horrigan, J.B., and Duggan, M. (2015). *Home Broadband 2015*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center. Retrieved February 17, 2017, from <http://www.pewinternet.org/files/2015/12/Broadband-adoption-full.pdf>.

<sup>4</sup> Data for 2015 were collected in the July supplement to the CPS, while data for 2010 were collected in the October supplement. Measurable differences in estimates across years could reflect actual changes in the population; however, differences could also reflect seasonal variations in data collection or differences between the content of the July and October supplements. Therefore, caution should be used when making year-to-year comparisons.

<sup>5</sup> Includes 2010, 2011, 2012, 2013, and 2015. Data for 2014 were unavailable.

<sup>6</sup> Excludes coffee shops and other businesses that offer internet access.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 702.15 and 702.20

**Related indicators and resources:** Technology and Engineering Literacy

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**Glossary:** Bachelor's degree, College, Educational attainment (Current Population Survey), Gap, High school completer, Racial/ethnic group

The indicators in this chapter of *The Condition of Education* describe enrollment trends across all levels of education. Enrollment is a key indicator of the scope of and access to educational opportunities and functions as a basic descriptor of American education. Changes in enrollment may impact the demand for educational resources such as qualified teachers, physical facilities, and funding levels, all of which are required to provide high-quality education for our nation's students.

The indicators in this chapter include information on enrollment rates by age group as well as by level of the education system, namely, preprimary, elementary and secondary, undergraduate, and graduate and professional education. Some of the indicators in this chapter provide information about the characteristics of the students who are enrolled in formal education and, in some cases, how enrollment rates of different types of students vary across schools.

This chapter's indicators, as well as additional indicators on participation in education, are available at *The Condition of Education* website: <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe>.





# Chapter 2

## Participation in Education

### Preprimary

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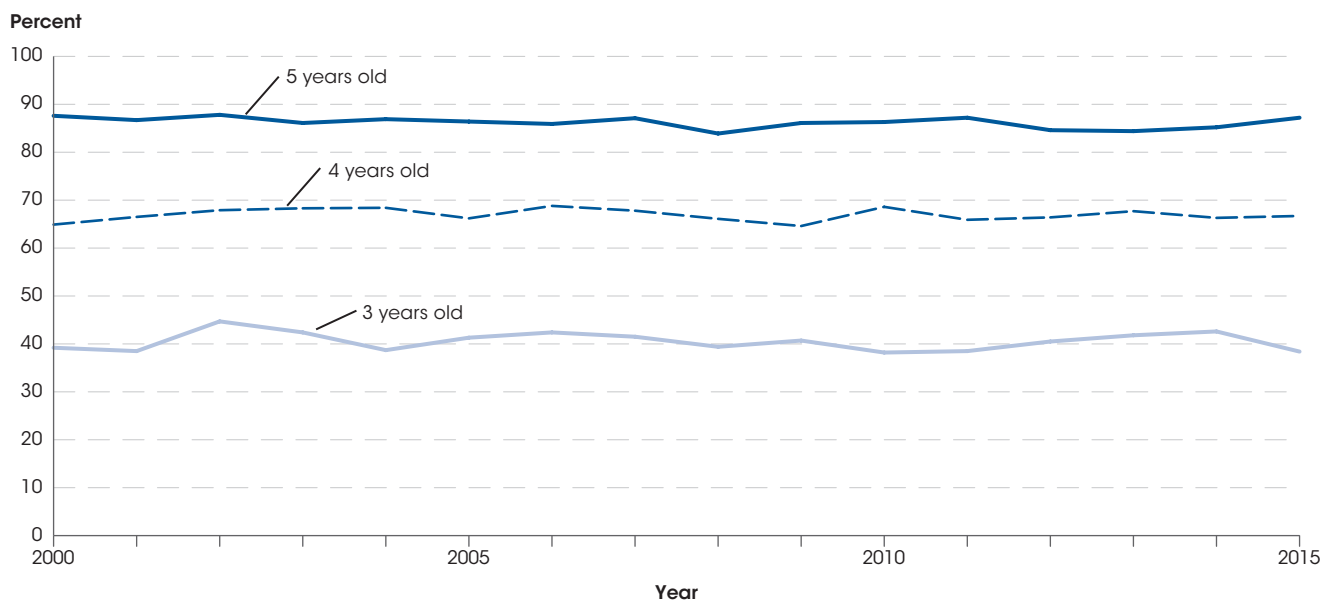
## Preschool and Kindergarten Enrollment

In 2015, the percentage of 3- to 5-year-olds enrolled in preschool programs was higher for children whose parents had a graduate or professional degree (48 percent) than for those whose parents had a bachelor's degree (42 percent), an associate's degree (37 percent), some college (37 percent), a high school credential (29 percent), and less than a high school credential (29 percent).

Preprimary programs are groups or classes that are organized to provide educational experiences for children and include kindergarten and preschool programs.<sup>1</sup> Child

care programs that are not primarily designed to provide educational experiences, such as daycare programs, are not included in preprimary programs.

Figure 1. Percentage of 3-, 4-, and 5-year-old children enrolled in preprimary programs: 2000 through 2015

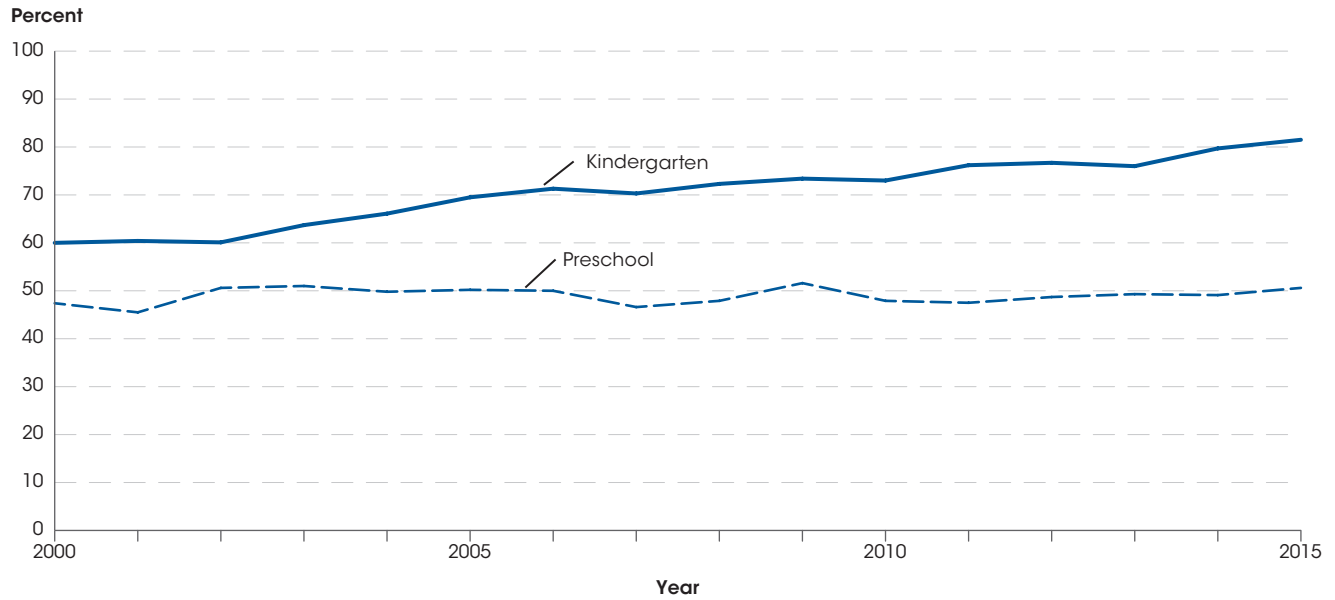


NOTE: "Preprimary programs" are groups or classes that are organized to provide educational experiences for children and include kindergarten, preschool, and nursery school programs. Enrollment data for 5-year-olds include only those students in preprimary programs and do not include those enrolled in primary programs. Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutional population.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2000 through 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2006*, table 41; *Digest of Education Statistics 2009*, table 43; *Digest of Education Statistics 2011*, table 53; and *Digest of Education Statistics 2013, 2015, and 2016*, table 202.10.

The percentages of 3-year-olds, 4-year-olds, and 5-year-olds enrolled in preprimary programs fluctuated between 2000 and 2015. In 2015, some 38 percent of 3-year-olds, 67 percent of 4-year-olds, and 87 percent of 5-year-olds were enrolled in preprimary programs, which were not measurably different from the percentages enrolled

in 2000 (39 percent, 65 percent, and 88 percent, respectively). In 2015, the percentage of children enrolled in preprimary programs remained higher for 5-year-olds than for 4-year-olds, and higher for 4-year-olds than for 3-year-olds.

**Figure 2. Percentage of 3- to 5-year-old children in preprimary programs attending full-day programs, by program type: 2000 through 2015**

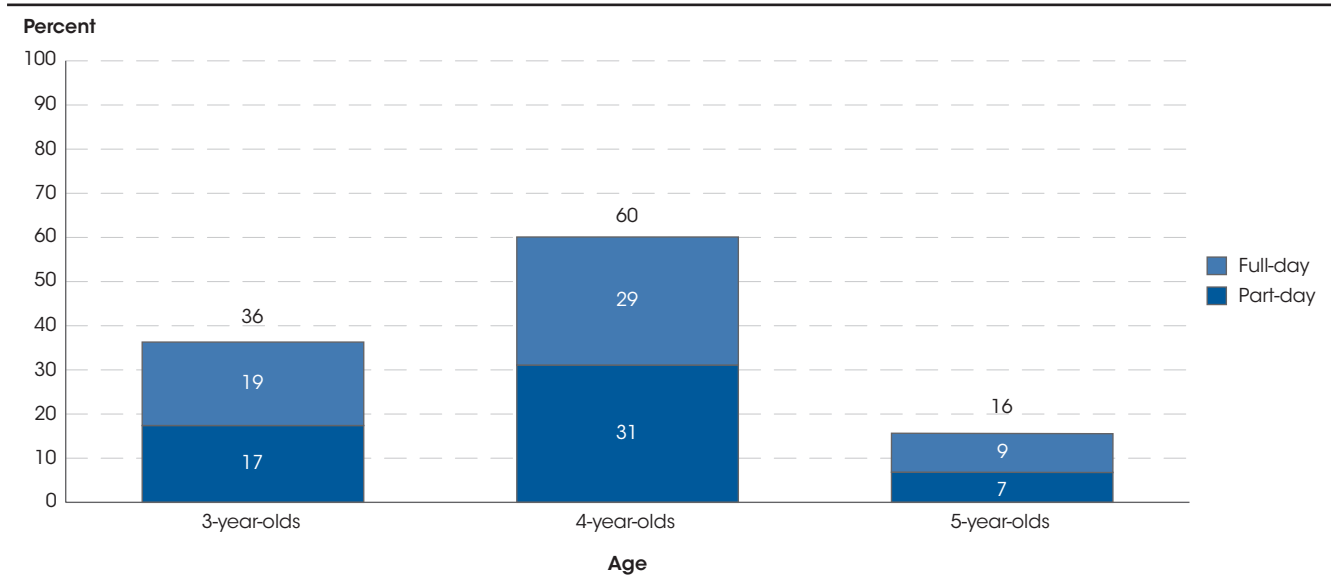


NOTE: "Preprimary programs" are groups or classes that are organized to provide educational experiences for children and include kindergarten, preschool, and nursery school programs. Enrollment data for 5-year-olds include only those students in preprimary programs and do not include those enrolled in primary programs. Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutional population. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2000 through 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2006*, table 41; *Digest of Education Statistics 2009*, table 43; *Digest of Education Statistics 2011*, table 53; and *Digest of Education Statistics 2013, 2015, and 2016*, table 202.10.

Among 3- to 5-year-olds who were enrolled in preschool programs in 2015, some 51 percent attended full-day programs. The percentage of 3- to 5-year-old preschool students attending full-day programs in 2015 was not measurably different from the percentage attending full-day programs in 2000. Among 3- to 5-year-olds attending kindergarten, the percentage attending full-day

programs increased from 60 percent in 2000 to 81 percent in 2015. In every year from 2000 to 2015, the percentage of 3- to 5-year-old kindergarten students enrolled in full-day programs was greater than the percentage of 3- to 5-year-old preschool students enrolled in full-day programs.

**Figure 3. Percentage of 3- to 5-year-old children enrolled in preschool programs, by child age and attendance status: October 2015**

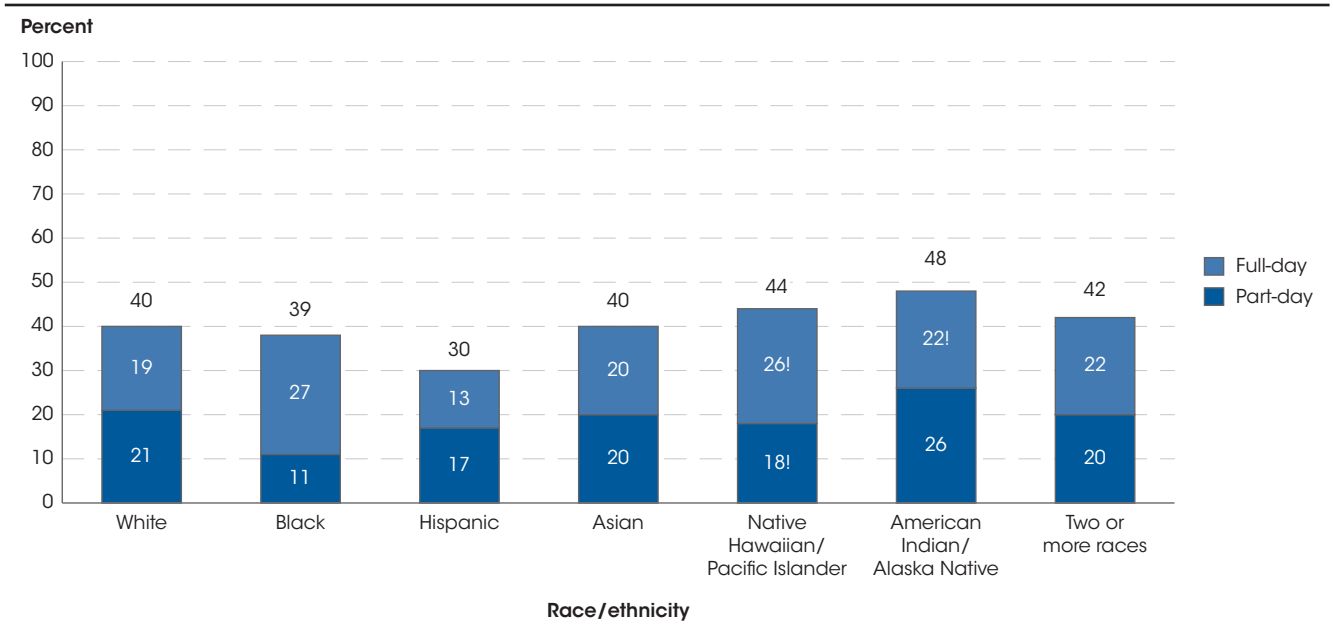


NOTE: Enrollment data include only those children in preschool programs and do not include those enrolled in kindergarten or primary programs. Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutional population. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 202.20.

In 2015, most 3- and 4-year-old children who were enrolled in preprimary programs attended preschool programs, while most 5-year-old children who were

enrolled in preprimary programs attended kindergarten. A higher percentage of 4-year-olds (60 percent) than of 3-year-olds (36 percent) attended preschool.

**Figure 4. Percentage of 3- to 5-year-old children enrolled in preschool programs, by race/ethnicity and attendance status: October 2015**



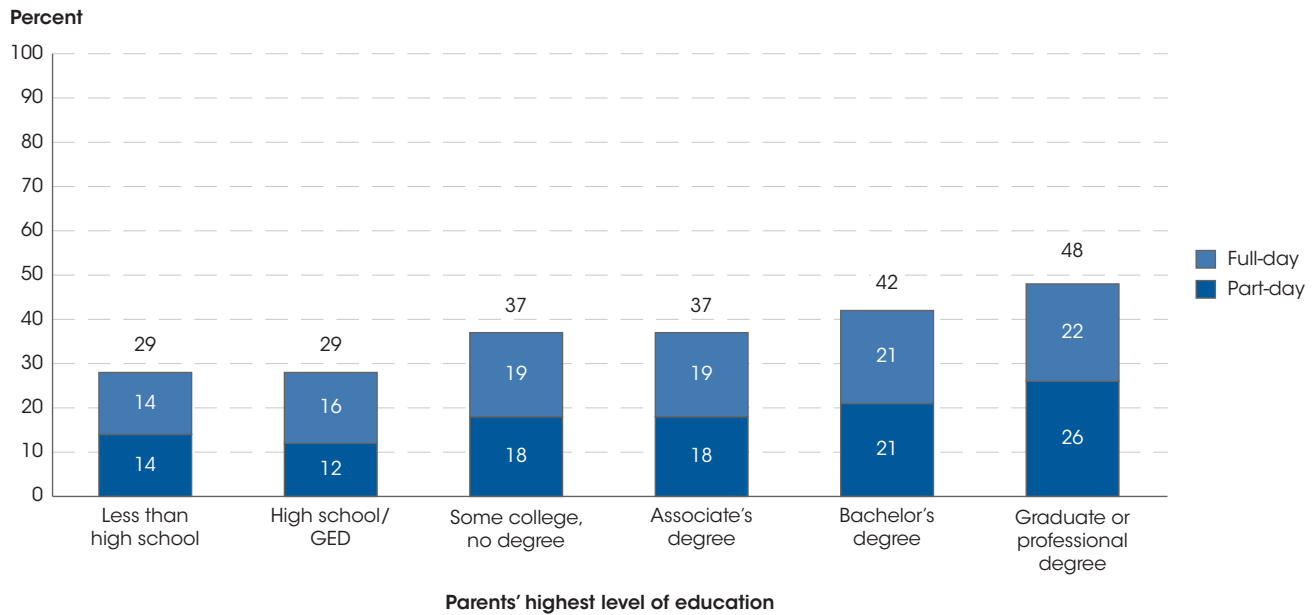
! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.  
NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Enrollment data include only those children in preschool programs and do not include those enrolled in kindergarten or primary programs. Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutional population. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 202.20.

In 2015, a lower percentage of Hispanic 3- to 5-year-olds (30 percent) were enrolled in preschool programs than of 3- to 5-year olds who were White (40 percent), Black (39 percent), Asian (40 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (48 percent), and of Two or more races (42 percent). There were no measurable differences in enrollment among children who were White, Black, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races.

In terms of attendance status, a higher percentage of Black children attended full-day than part-day preschool programs (27 vs. 11 percent). In contrast, a lower percentage of Hispanic children attended full-day than

part-day preschool programs (13 vs. 17 percent). For children in the other racial/ethnic groups, there were no measurable differences in the percentages enrolled in full-day compared to part-day programs. Enrollment in full-day preschool programs was higher for Black children (27 percent) than for White (19 percent), Hispanic (13 percent), and Asian (20 percent) children. The percentage of 3- to 5-year-olds enrolled in full-day preschool programs was also higher for children who were White, Asian, and of Two or more races (22 percent) than for Hispanic children. The corresponding percentage for Pacific Islander 3- to 5-year-olds was not measurably different from that of any other racial/ethnic group.

**Figure 5. Percentage of 3- to 5-year-old children enrolled in preschool programs, by parents' highest level of education and attendance status: October 2015**



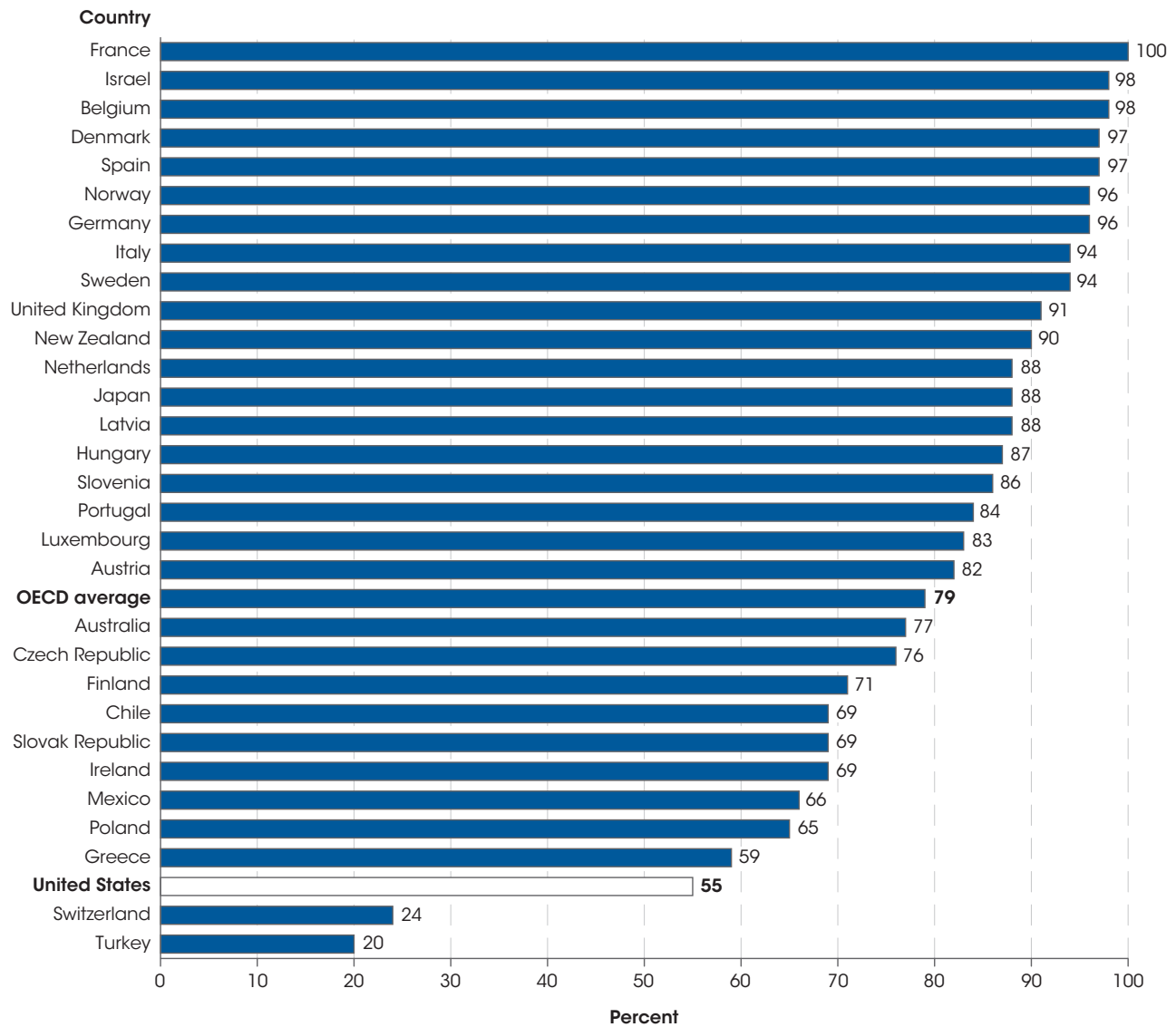
NOTE: Enrollment data include only those children in preschool programs and do not include those enrolled in kindergarten or primary programs. "Parents' highest level of education" is defined as the highest level of education attained by the most educated parent in the child's household. Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutional population. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 202.20.

Enrollment in preschool programs varied by parents' highest level of education, defined as the highest level of education attained by the most educated parent in the child's household. In 2015, the overall percentage of 3- to 5-year-olds enrolled in preschool programs was higher for those children whose parents had a graduate or professional degree (48 percent) than for those whose parents had a bachelor's degree (42 percent), an associate's degree (37 percent), some college (37 percent), a high school credential (29 percent), and less than a high school credential (29 percent). The overall preschool enrollment percentage was also higher for those children whose parents had a bachelor's degree, an associate's degree, and some college than for those whose parents had a high school credential and less than a high school credential.

The percentage of 3- to 5-year-olds enrolled in part-day and full-day preschool programs also varied by parents'

highest level of education. In 2015, for full-day preschool enrollment, the percentages were higher for those children whose parents had a graduate or professional degree (22 percent) and a bachelor's degree (21 percent) than for those children whose parents had a high school credential (16 percent) and less than a high school credential (14 percent). Among children whose parents' highest level of education was a high school credential, a greater percentage were enrolled in full-day than in part-day preschool programs (16 vs. 12 percent). There was no measurable difference between the percentages of children enrolled in full-day and part-day programs for children whose parents had other levels of educational attainment (graduate's degree or professional degree, bachelor's degree, associate's degree, some college, and less than a high school credential).

Figure 6. Percentage of 3- and 4-year-old children enrolled in school, by OECD country: 2014



NOTE: Enrollment rates should be interpreted with care. For each country, this figure shows the number of persons who are enrolled in that country as a percentage of that country's total population in the 3- and 4-year-old age group. However, some of a country's population may be enrolled in a different country, and some persons enrolled in the country may be residents of a different country. "OECD average" refers to the mean of the data values for all reporting Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, to which each country reporting data contributes equally. SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Education at a Glance 2016*; Online Education Database. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 601.35.

In 2014, some 55 percent of 3- and 4-year-olds in the United States were enrolled in school, compared to the average enrollment of 79 percent for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries. The OECD is an organization of 35 countries whose purpose is to promote trade and economic growth.

The OECD also serves as a statistical agency, collecting and publishing an array of data on its member countries. Among the 31 OECD countries reporting data that year, the percentage of 3- and 4-year-olds enrolled in school ranged from 20 percent in Turkey to 100 percent in France.

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**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Preschool programs are also known as nursery school programs.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 202.10, 202.20, and 601.35

**Related indicators and resources:** Elementary and Secondary Enrollment; Private School Enrollment; Kindergarten Entry Status: On-Time, Delayed-Entry, Repeating Kindergartners [*The Condition of Education 2013 Spotlight*]; Kindergartners' Approaches to Learning Behaviors and Academic Outcomes [*The Condition of Education 2015 Spotlight*]; Kindergartners' Approaches to Learning, Family Socioeconomic Status, and Early Academic Gains [*The Condition of Education 2016 Spotlight*]; Risk Factors and Academic Outcomes in Kindergarten Through Third Grade [*The Condition of Education 2017 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, College, Educational attainment (Current Population Survey), Enrollment, High school completer, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Preschool, Racial/ethnic group



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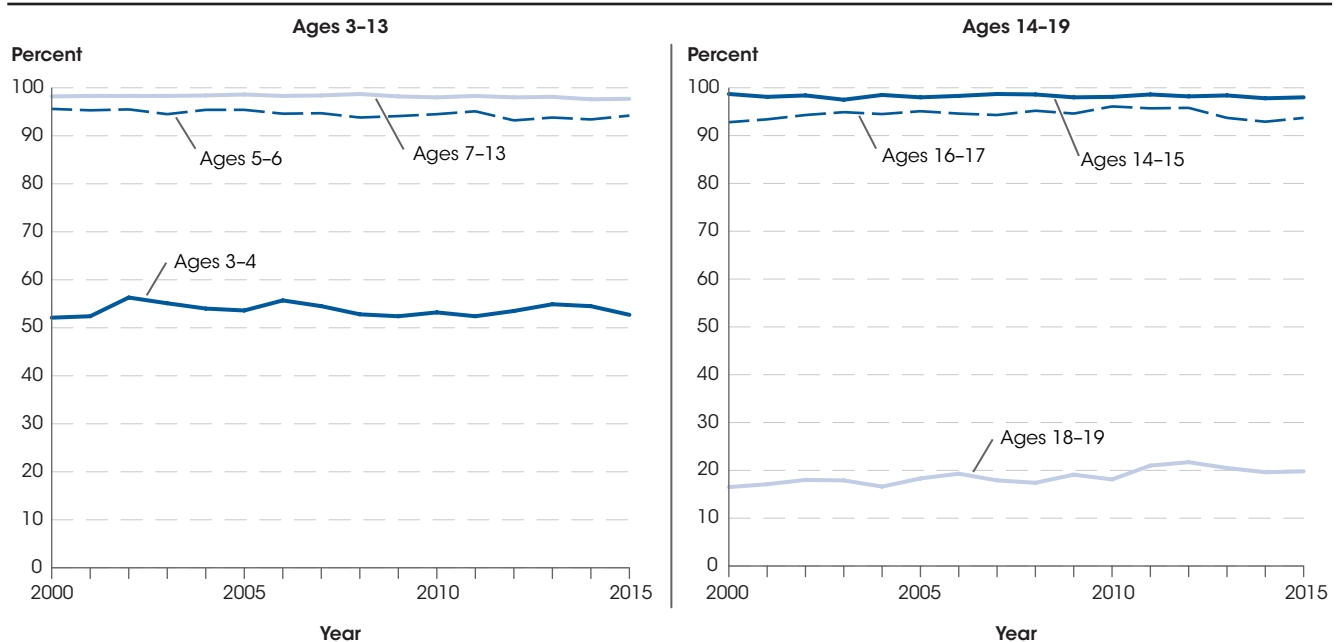
# Elementary and Secondary Enrollment

Between fall 2014 and fall 2026, total public school enrollment in prekindergarten through grade 12 is projected to increase by 3 percent (from 50.3 million to 51.7 million students), with changes across states ranging from an increase of 42 percent in the District of Columbia to a decrease of 14 percent in Connecticut.

Changes in elementary and secondary school enrollment are largely reflective of demographic changes in the population. This indicator discusses changes in the overall enrollment rate at schools of any type (including traditional public, public charter, parochial, and other private schools) as well as changes in the number of

students enrolled in public schools specifically (including both traditional public schools and public charter schools). Overall enrollment rates are calculated using data from the Current Population Survey (CPS); public school enrollment is calculated using data from the Common Core of Data (CCD).

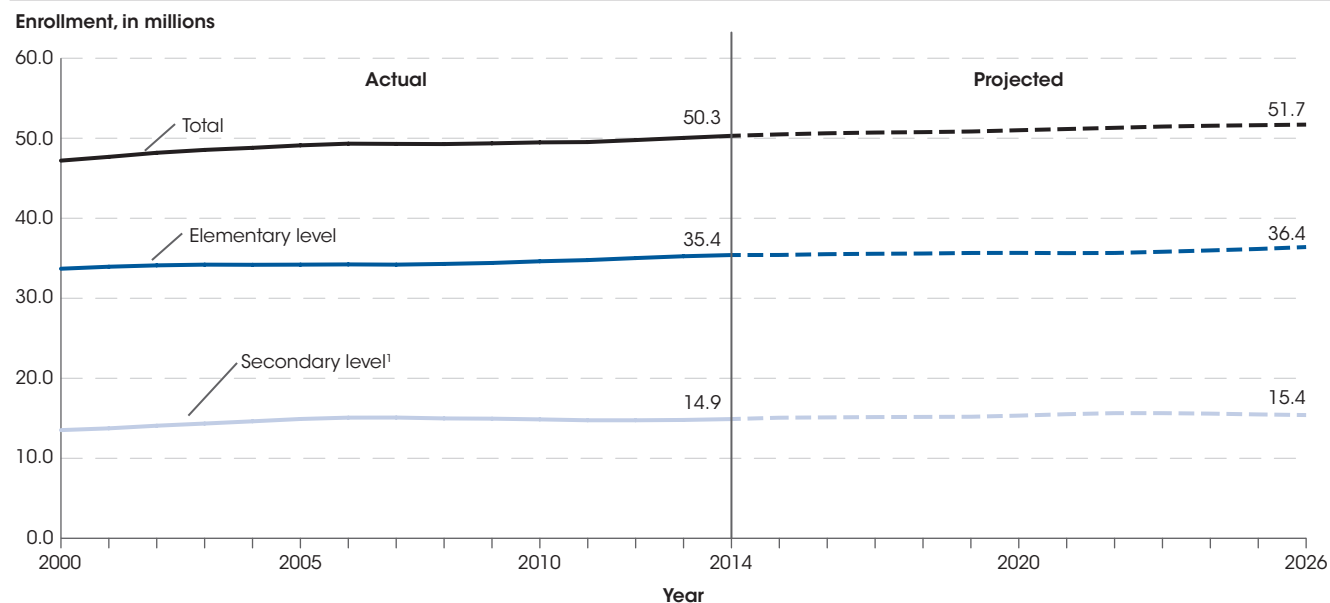
**Figure 1. Percentage of the population ages 3–19 enrolled in any type of elementary or secondary school, by age group: October 2000 to October 2015**



NOTE: This figure includes enrollment in traditional public, public charter, parochial, and other private schools, including nursery schools, kindergartens, elementary schools, and high schools.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October Supplement, 2000 through 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 103.20.

Shifts in the overall enrollment rates in schools of any type varied by age group. From October 2000 to October 2015, the enrollment rate for students ages 5–6, who are typically enrolled in kindergarten or grade 1, decreased from 96 to 94 percent, and the enrollment rate for students ages 7–13 decreased by less than 1 percentage

point to 98 percent. However, during this period the enrollment rate increased for students ages 18–19 in secondary education (from 16 to 20 percent) and did not change measurably for students ages 3–4, 14–15, and 16–17.

**Figure 2. Actual and projected public school enrollment, by level: Fall 2000 through fall 2026**

<sup>1</sup> Includes students reported as being enrolled in grade 13.

NOTE: The total ungraded counts of students were prorated to the elementary level (prekindergarten through grade 8) and the secondary level (grades 9 through 12).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education," 2000-01 through 2014-15; and State Public Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Projection Model, 1972 through 2026. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 203.10.

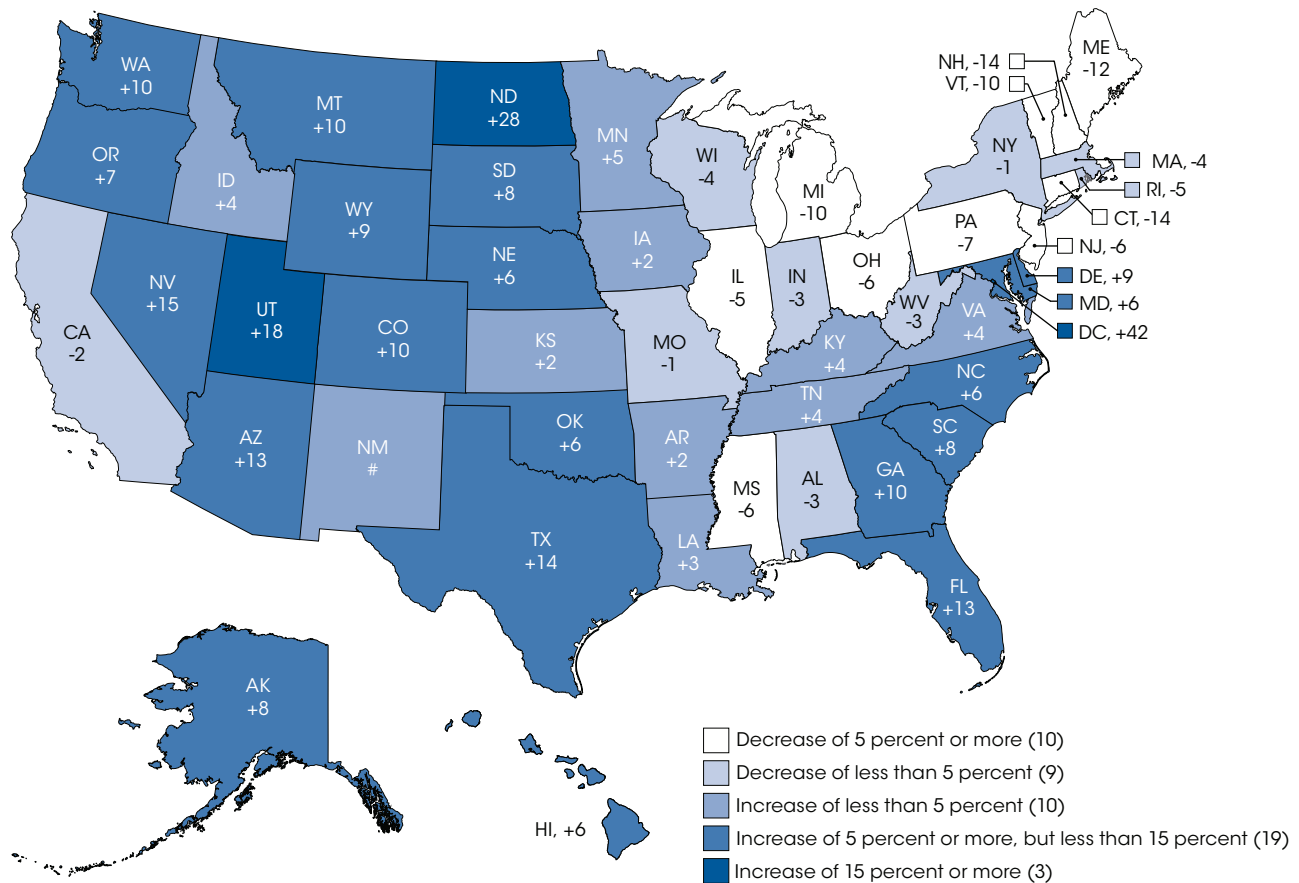
Between fall 2000 and fall 2014, total enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools (prekindergarten [preK] through grade 12) increased by 7 percent, reaching 50.3 million students. Of the 50.3 million students enrolled in fall 2014, some 70 percent were enrolled in preK through grade 8, and the remaining 30 percent were enrolled in grades 9 through 12. Enrollment in preK through grade 8 increased by 5 percent from fall 2000 to fall 2014, reaching 35.4 million students. While enrollment in grades 9 through 12 increased by 12 percent between fall 2000 and fall 2007 to 15.1 million students, enrollment in fall 2014 (14.9 million) was 1 percent lower than in fall 2007.

Total public school enrollment is projected to continue increasing through fall 2026 (the last year for which projected data are available). From fall 2014 to fall 2026, total public school enrollment is projected to increase by 3 percent to 51.7 million students. During this period,

public school enrollment in preK through grade 8 is projected to increase by 3 percent to 36.4 million students in fall 2026. Meanwhile, enrollment in grades 9 through 12 is projected to increase by 5 percent to 15.6 million between fall 2014 and fall 2022, and then decline by 2 percent to 15.4 million in fall 2026.

Changes in public elementary and secondary school enrollment varied by state. From fall 2000 to fall 2014, total public school enrollment in preK through grade 12 increased in 32 states and the District of Columbia, with increases of 15 percent or more occurring in the District of Columbia and nine states (Delaware, Idaho, North Carolina, Georgia, Colorado, Arizona, Texas, Utah, and Nevada). Enrollment declined during this period in the other 18 states, with decreases of 10 percent or more occurring in four states (Michigan, New Hampshire, Maine, and Vermont).

**Figure 3. Projected percentage change in public elementary and secondary school enrollment, by state: Between fall 2014 and fall 2026**



# Rounds to zero.

NOTE: Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education," 2014-15; and State Public Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Projection Model, 1980 through 2026. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 203.20.

Between fall 2014 and fall 2026, changes in total public school enrollment are projected to differ by state in preK through grade 8 as well as in grades 9 through 12. During this period, the District of Columbia is projected to have the largest increase (42 percent) in total enrollment, while the state with the largest projected increase is North Dakota (28 percent). The states that are projected to have the largest decreases in total public school enrollment are Connecticut and New Hampshire (14 percent each).

Reflecting the projected total public school enrollment increase between fall 2014 and fall 2026, some 30 states and the District of Columbia are projected to have enrollment increases in both preK through grade 8 and in grades 9 through 12. However, in 18 other states, enrollment is projected to decrease in both grade ranges. New Mexico is projected to have an increase in

enrollment in preK through grade 8, but a decrease in enrollment in grades 9 through 12; New York is projected to have a decrease in enrollment in preK through grade 8, but an increase in enrollment in grades 9 through 12. In preK through grade 8, enrollment is projected to increase by 15 percent or more in the District of Columbia and three states (North Dakota, Utah, and Arizona), but is projected to decrease by 10 percent or more in three states (Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Maine). During the same time period, enrollment in grades 9 through 12 is projected to increase by 15 percent or more in the District of Columbia and five states (North Dakota, Utah, Nevada, Texas, and Wyoming), but is projected to decrease by 10 percent or more in five states (New Hampshire, Connecticut, Michigan, Maine, and Vermont).

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 103.20, 203.10, 203.20, 203.25, and 203.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Public Charter School Enrollment, Private School Enrollment, Characteristics of Traditional Public Schools and Public Charter Schools, Teachers and Pupil/Teacher Ratios, Homeless Children and Youth in Public Schools [*The Condition of Education 2017 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Elementary school, Enrollment, Prekindergarten, Public school or institution, Secondary school

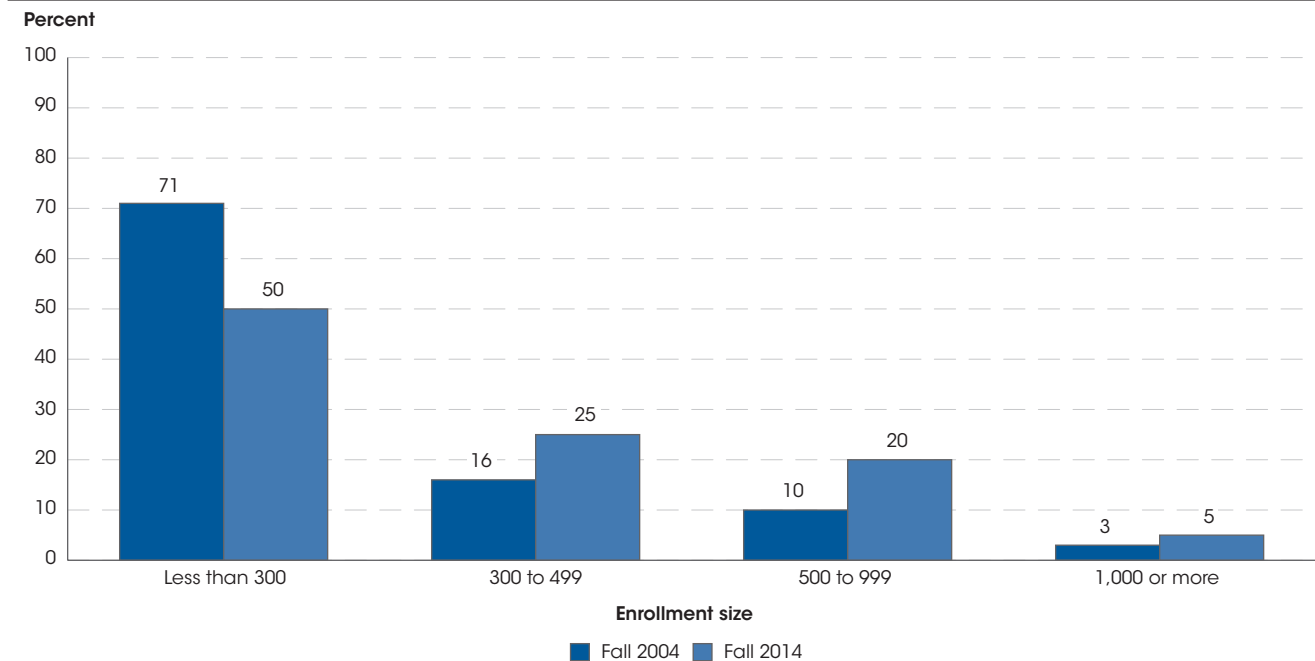
## Public Charter School Enrollment

Between fall 2004 and fall 2014, overall public charter school enrollment increased from 0.9 million to 2.7 million. During this period, the percentage of public school students who attended charter schools increased from 2 to 5 percent.

A *public charter school* is a publicly funded school that is typically governed by a group or organization under a legislative contract (or charter) with the state, district, or other entity. The charter exempts the school from certain state or local rules and regulations. In return for flexibility and autonomy, the charter school must meet

the accountability standards outlined in its charter. A school’s charter is reviewed periodically by the entity that granted it and can be revoked if guidelines on curriculum and management are not followed or if the accountability standards are not met.<sup>1</sup>

Figure 1. Percentage distribution of public charter schools, by enrollment size: Fall 2004 and fall 2014

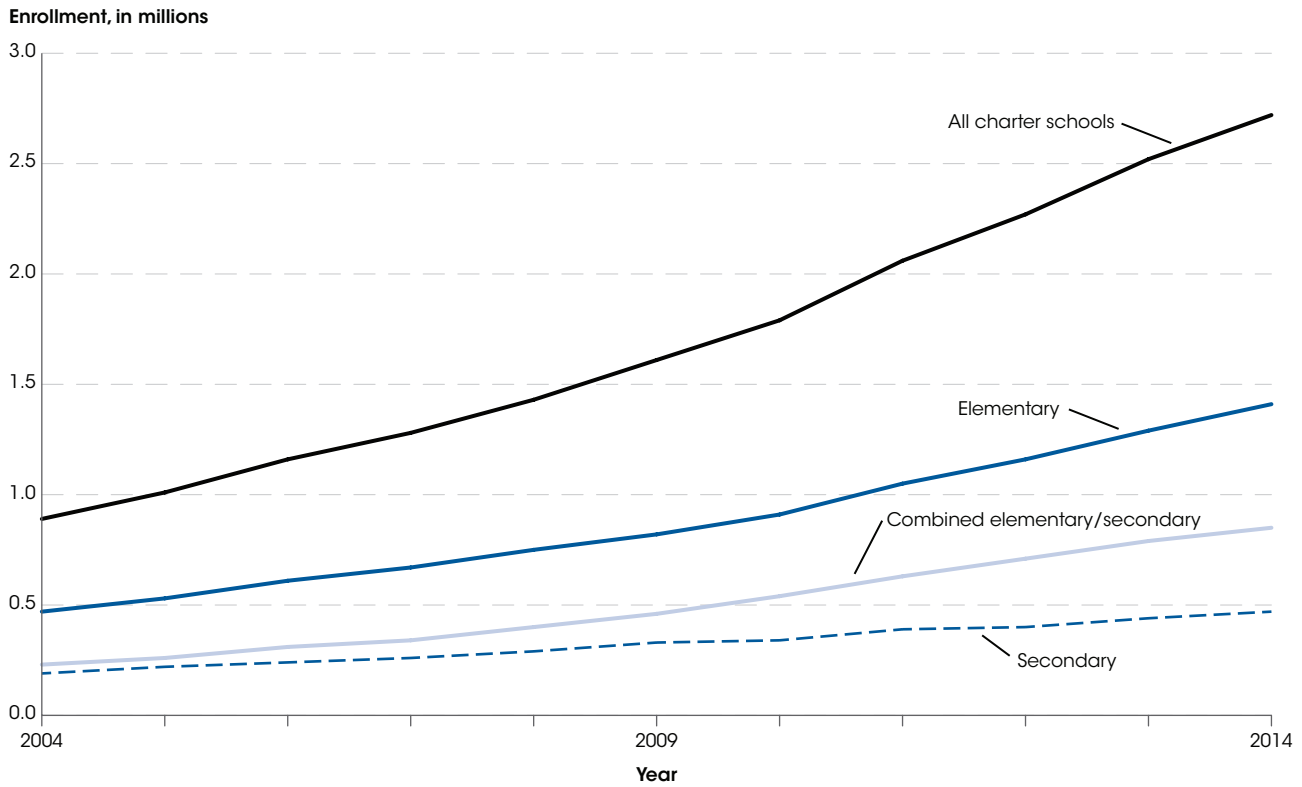


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), “Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey,” 2004–05 and 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.30.

Between school years 2004–05 and 2014–15, the percentage of all public schools that were charter schools increased from 4 to 7 percent, and the total number of charter schools increased from 3,400 to 6,750. In addition to increasing in number, public charter schools have also

generally increased in enrollment size over the last decade. From fall 2004 to fall 2014, the percentages of public charter schools with 300–499, 500–999, and 1,000 or more students each increased, while the percentage of charter schools with fewer than 300 students decreased.

Figure 2. Public charter school enrollment, by school level: Fall 2004 through fall 2014

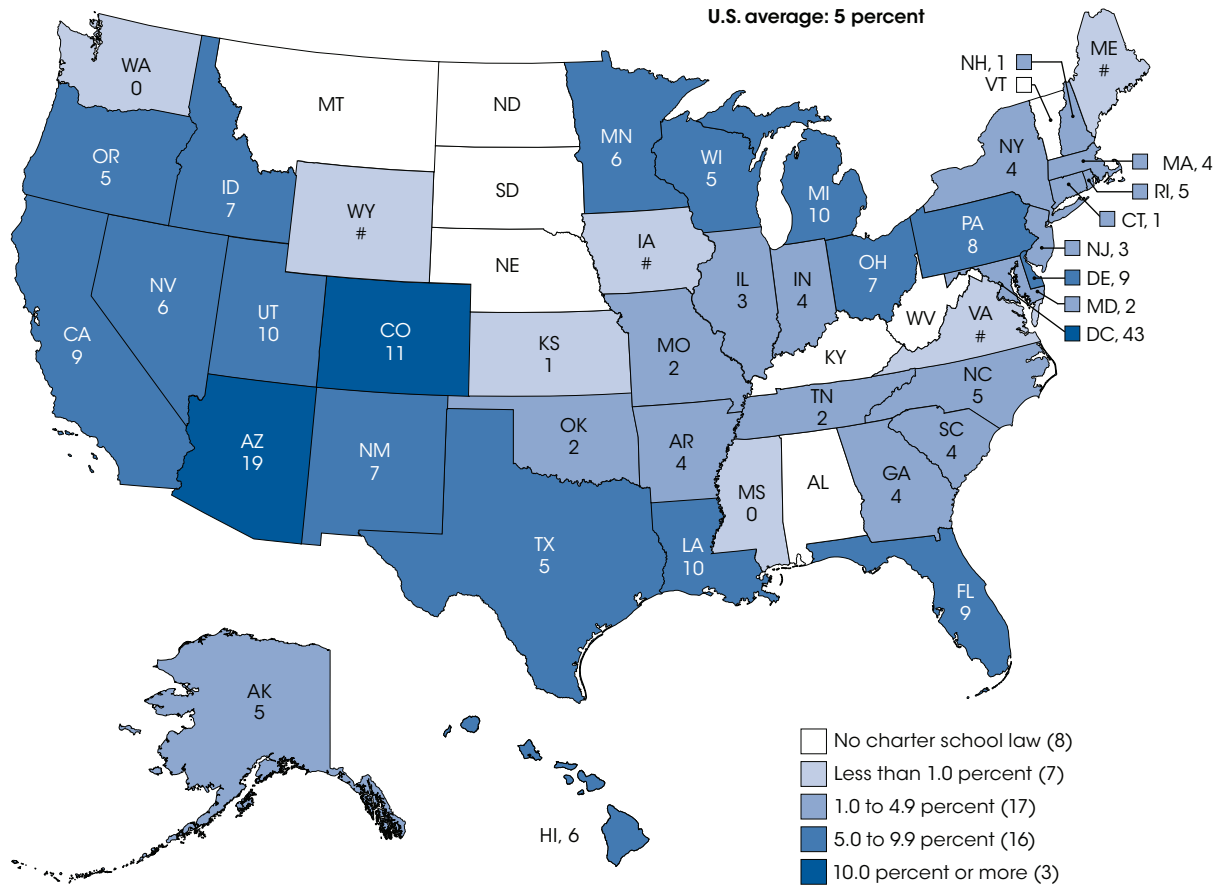


NOTE: "Elementary" includes schools beginning with grade 6 or below and with no grade higher than 8. "Secondary" includes schools with no grade lower than 7. "Combined elementary/secondary" includes schools beginning with grade 6 or below and ending with grade 9 or above. Other schools not classified by grade span are included in the "All charter schools" count but are not presented separately in the figure.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2004-05 through 2014-15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2013, 2014, 2015, and 2016*, table 216.20.

The percentage of public school students who attended public charter schools increased from 2 to 5 percent between fall 2004 and fall 2014. The number of students enrolled in public charter schools increased by 1.8 million students (from 0.9 million to 2.7 million), while the number of students attending traditional public schools

decreased by 0.4 million (see indicator Elementary and Secondary Enrollment). In each school year during that period, larger numbers of public charter school students were enrolled in elementary schools than in any of the other types of charter schools: secondary, combined, and other types that were not classified by grade span.

Figure 3. Percentage of all public school students enrolled in public charter schools, by state: Fall 2014



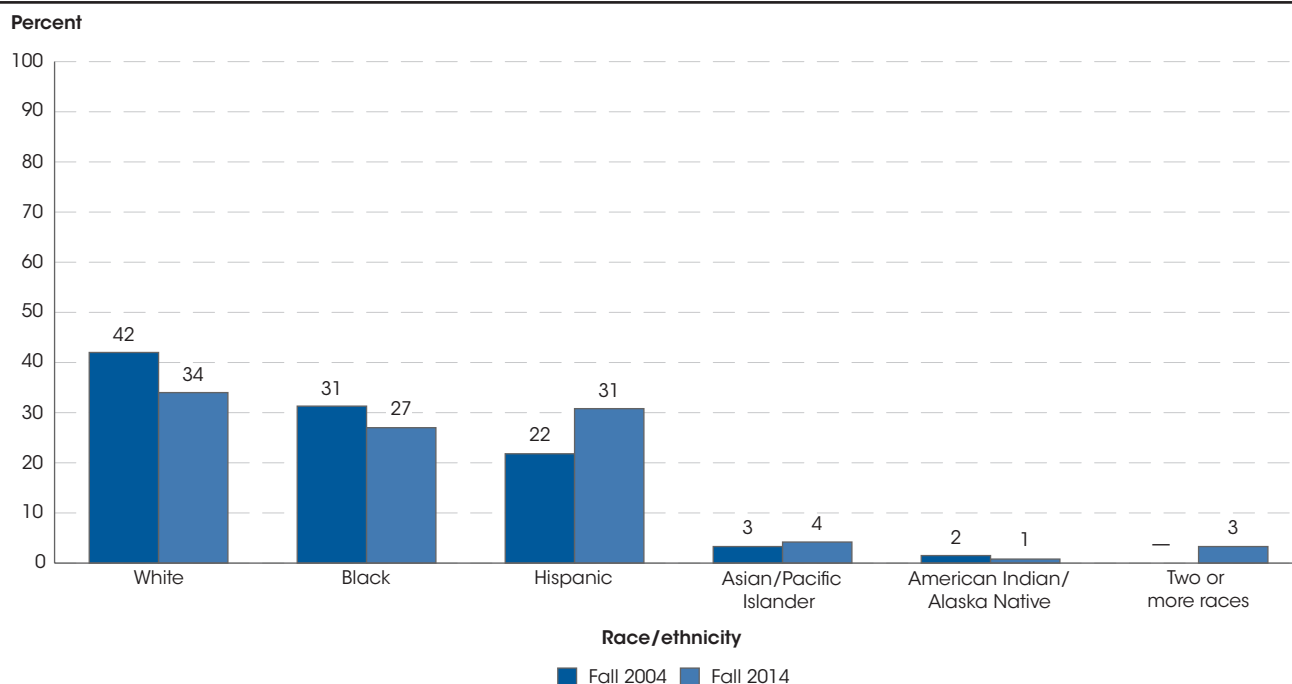
# Rounds to zero.  
NOTE: Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.90.

The first law allowing the establishment of public charter schools was passed in Minnesota in 1991.<sup>2</sup> As of school year 2014–15, charter school legislation had been passed in 42 states and the District of Columbia.<sup>1</sup> Despite legislative approval for public charter schools in Mississippi and Washington, none were operating in these states in school year 2014–15. The states in which public charter school legislation had not been passed by that time were Alabama, Kentucky, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont, and West Virginia.

Of the 43 jurisdictions with legislative approval for public charter schools in fall 2014, California had the largest

number of students enrolled in charter schools (544,290, representing 9 percent of all public school students in the state), and the District of Columbia had the highest percentage of public school students enrolled in charter schools (43 percent, representing 34,540 students). After the District of Columbia, Arizona had the next highest percentage of public school students enrolled in charter schools (19 percent, representing 206,670 students). In contrast, five states had less than 1 percent of their public school students enrolled in public charter schools in school year 2014–15: Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Virginia, and Wyoming.



**Figure 4. Percentage distribution of public charter school students, by race/ethnicity: Fall 2004 and fall 2014**

— Not available.

NOTE: Data for the "Two or more races" category were not available prior to fall 2009. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2004–05 and 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.30.

Between fall 2004 and fall 2014, public charter schools experienced changes in their demographic composition similar to those seen in public schools overall (see indicator [Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Public Schools](#)). The percentage of public charter school students who were Hispanic increased (from 22 to 31 percent), as did the percentage who were Asian/Pacific Islander (from 3 to 4 percent). In contrast, the percentage of public charter school students who were White decreased from 42 to 34 percent. The percentages decreased for Black (from 31 to 27 percent) and American Indian/Alaska Native (from 2 to 1 percent) public charter school students as well. Beginning in fall 2009, data were collected on students of Two or more races attending public charter

schools. Students of Two or more races accounted for 3 percent of public charter school students in fall 2014, compared to 1 percent in fall 2009.

In fall 2014, the percentage of students attending high-poverty schools—schools in which more than 75 percent of students qualify for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) under the National School Lunch Program—was higher for public charter school students (35 percent) than for traditional public school students (24 percent). In the same year, 21 percent of public charter school students and 20 percent of traditional public school students attended low-poverty schools—those in which 25 percent or less of students qualify for FRPL.

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Thomsen, J. (2016). *50-State Comparison: Charter School Policies*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States. Retrieved September 27, 2016, from <http://www.ecs.org/charter-school-policies/>.

<sup>2</sup> Finnigan, K., Adelman, N., Anderson, L., Cotton, L., Donnelly, M., and Price, T. (2004). *Evaluation of the Public*

*Charter Schools Program: Final Report*. U.S. Department of Education, Office of the Deputy Secretary. Washington, DC: Policy and Program Studies Service. Retrieved September 7, 2016, from <https://www2.ed.gov/rschstat/eval/choice/pcsp-final/finalreport.pdf>.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 216.20, 216.30, and 216.90

**Related indicators and resources:** Elementary and Secondary Enrollment, Private School Enrollment, Characteristics of Traditional Public Schools and Public Charter Schools

**Glossary:** Combined school, Elementary school, Enrollment, Free or reduced-price lunch, National School Lunch Program, Public charter school, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group, Secondary school, Student membership, Traditional public school

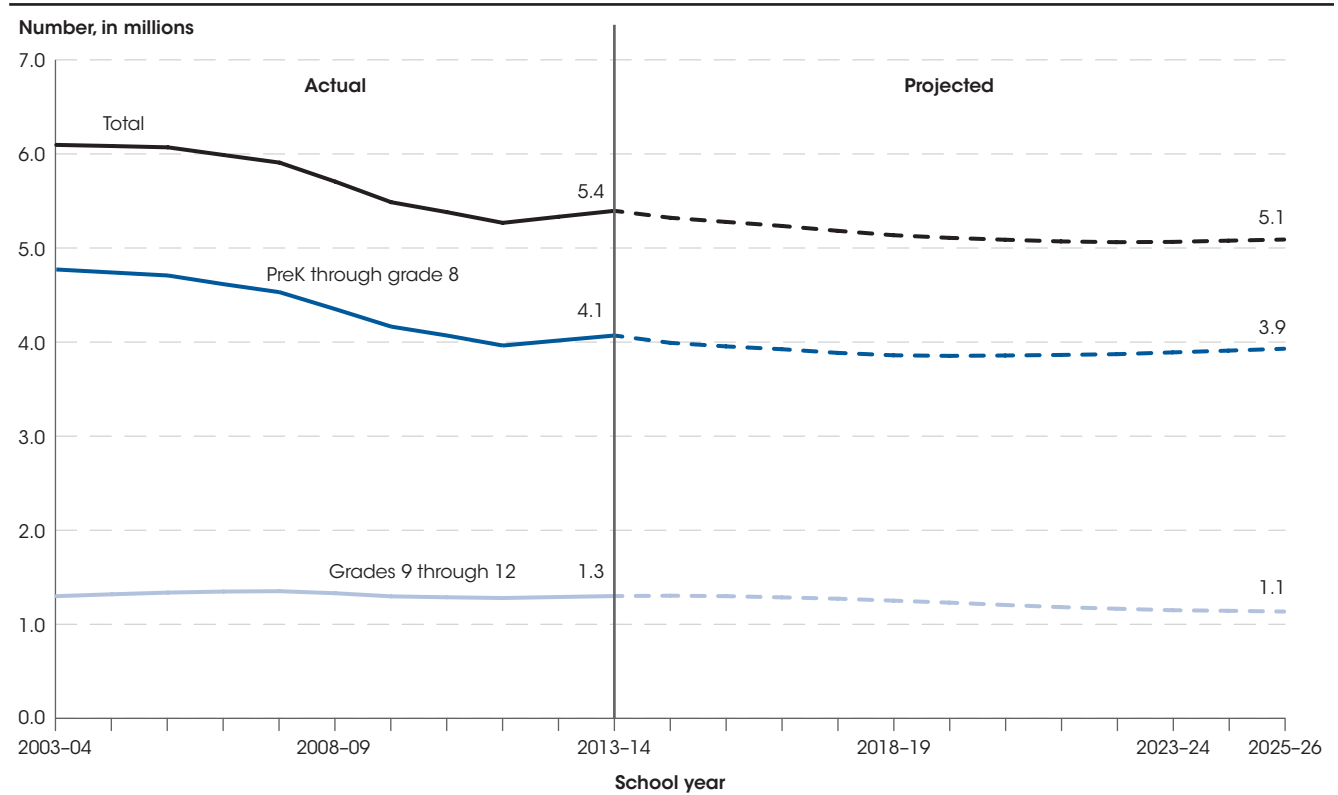
# Private School Enrollment

Private school enrollment in prekindergarten (preK) through grade 12 increased from 5.9 million students in 1995–96 to 6.3 million in 2001–02, and then declined to 5.4 million in 2013–14.

In school year 2013–14, some 5.4 million students (or 10 percent of all elementary and secondary students) were enrolled in private elementary and secondary schools.<sup>1</sup> The percentage of all elementary and secondary

students enrolled in private schools decreased from 12 percent in 1995–96 to 10 percent in 2013–14, and is projected to continue to decrease to 9 percent in 2025–26 (the last year for which projected data are available).

**Figure 1. Actual and projected private school enrollment in prekindergarten (preK) through grade 12, by grade level: School years 2003–04 through 2025–26**



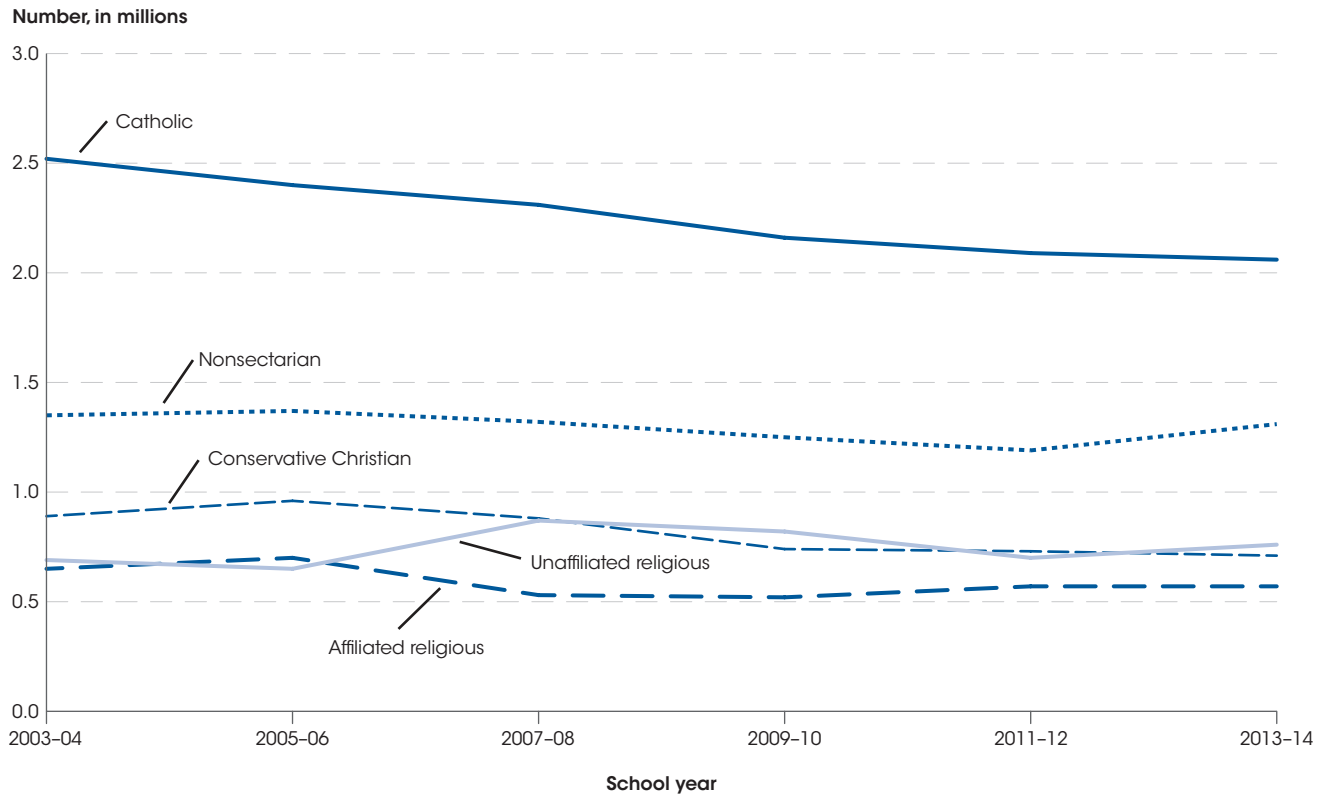
NOTE: Prekindergarten students who are enrolled in private schools that do not offer kindergarten or higher grades are not included in this analysis. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Private School Universe Survey (PSS), 2003–04 through 2013–14; National Elementary and Secondary Enrollment Projection Model, 1972 through 2025. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 105.30.

Private school enrollment in prekindergarten (preK) through grade 12 increased from 5.9 million in 1995–96 to 6.3 million in 2001–02, and then declined to 5.4 million in 2013–14. More recently, total private school enrollment decreased by 12 percent between 2003–04 and 2013–14; enrollment is projected to decrease by 6 percent to 5.1 million students in 2025–26.

Similar to overall private school enrollment, private school enrollment in preK through grade 8 increased from 4.8 million students in 1995–96 to 5.0 million in

2001–02 before decreasing to 4.1 million in 2013–14. Between 2003–04 and 2013–14, private school enrollment in preK through grade 8 decreased by 15 percent. Enrollment is expected to decrease by a further 3 percent to 3.9 million students in 2025–26. Private school enrollment in grades 9 through 12 increased from 1.2 million students in 1995–96 to a peak of 1.4 million in 2007–08; enrollment then fluctuated from 2007–08 to 2013–14. From 2013–14 to 2025–26, private school enrollment in grades 9 through 12 is expected to decrease by 13 percent, from 1.3 million to 1.1 million students.

**Figure 2. Private elementary and secondary school enrollment, by school orientation: Selected school years, 2003-04 through 2013-14**

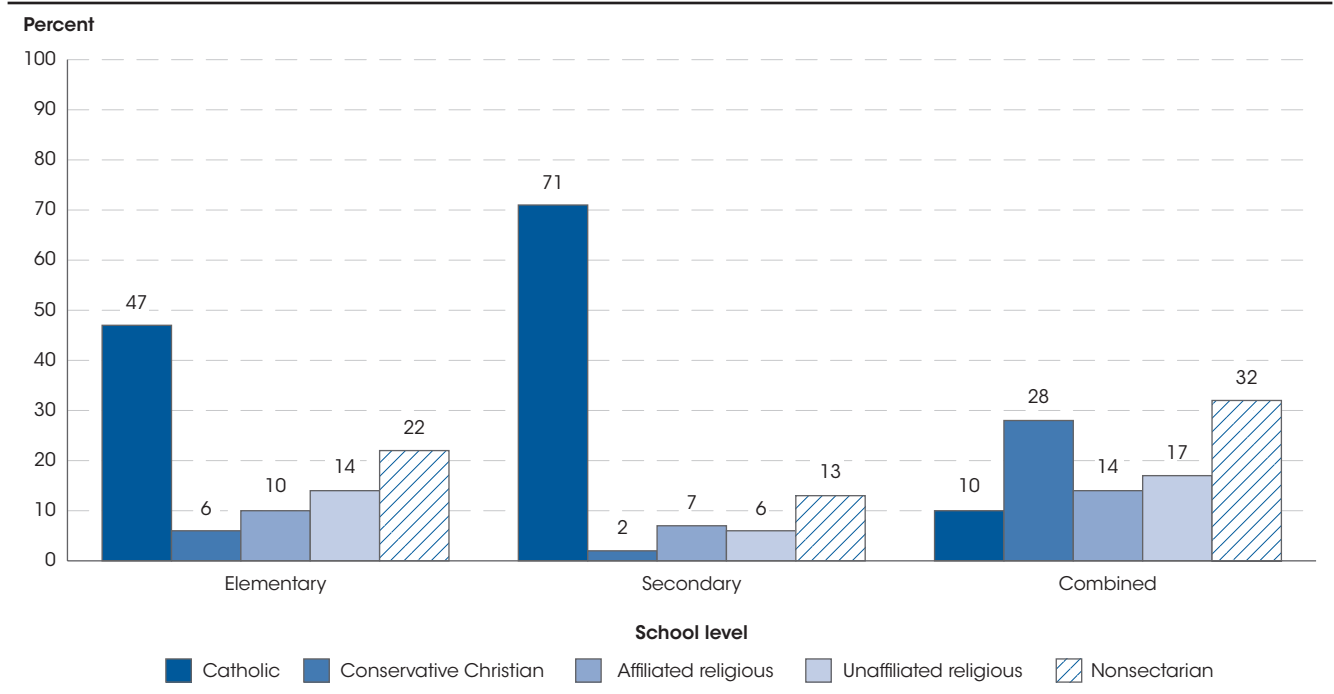


NOTE: Prekindergarten students who are enrolled in private schools that do not offer kindergarten or higher grades are not included in this analysis. Catholic schools include parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools. Conservative Christian schools have membership in at least one of four associations: Accelerated Christian Education, American Association of Christian Schools, Association of Christian Schools International, or Oral Roberts University Education Fellowship. Affiliated religious schools belong to associations of schools with a specific religious orientation other than Catholic or conservative Christian. Unaffiliated religious schools have a religious orientation or purpose but are not classified as Catholic, conservative Christian, or affiliated religious. Nonsectarian schools do not have a religious orientation or purpose.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Private School Universe Survey (PSS), selected years, 2003-04 through 2013-14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 205.20.

In 2013-14, some 38 percent of all private school students were enrolled in Catholic schools. The number of private school students enrolled in Catholic schools decreased from 2.5 million in 2003-04 to 2.1 million in 2013-14. The decrease in the number of students enrolled in Catholic schools was primarily due to a decline in the number of students enrolled in Catholic parochial schools (1.2 million in 2003-04 compared to 740,000 in 2013-14). The numbers of students enrolled

in conservative Christian (707,000) and affiliated religious (565,000) schools in 2013-14 were also lower than in 2003-04, while the number of students enrolled in unaffiliated religious schools (758,000) in 2013-14 was higher than in 2003-04. The number of students enrolled in nonsectarian schools (1.3 million) in 2013-14 was not measurably different from the number enrolled in 2003-04.

**Figure 3. Percentage distribution of private elementary and secondary school enrollment, by school level and orientation: School year 2013–14**

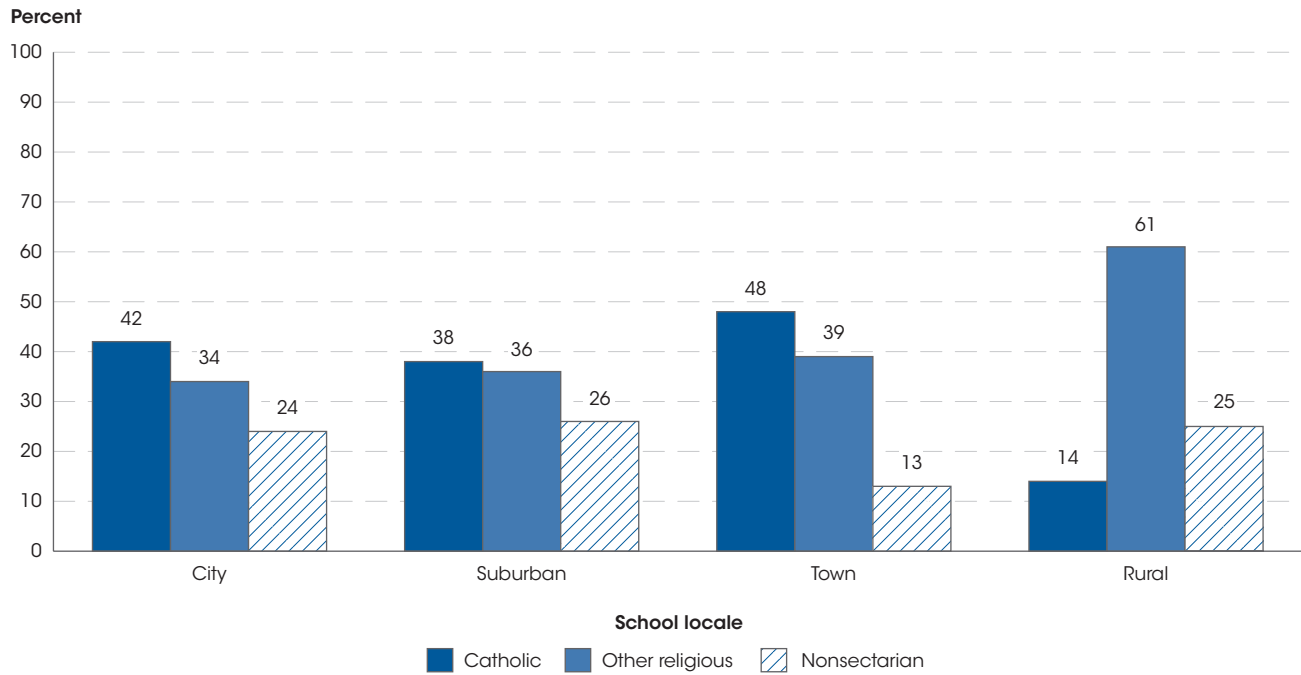


NOTE: Prekindergarten students who are enrolled in private schools that do not offer kindergarten or higher grades are not included in this analysis. Elementary schools have grade 6 or lower and no grade higher than 8. Secondary schools have no grade lower than 7. Combined schools include those that have grades lower than 7 and higher than 8, as well as those that do not classify students by grade level. Catholic schools include parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools. Conservative Christian schools have membership in at least one of four associations: Accelerated Christian Education, American Association of Christian Schools, Association of Christian Schools International, or Oral Roberts University Education Fellowship. Affiliated religious schools belong to associations of schools with a specific religious orientation other than Catholic or conservative Christian. Unaffiliated religious schools have a religious orientation or purpose but are not classified as Catholic, conservative Christian, or affiliated religious. Nonsectarian schools do not have a religious orientation or purpose. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Private School Universe Survey (PSS), 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 205.30.

In 2013–14, the percentage of private elementary<sup>2</sup> students enrolled in Catholic schools was 47 percent, which was higher than the percentage of students enrolled in nonsectarian (22 percent), unaffiliated religious (14 percent), affiliated religious (10 percent), and conservative Christian (6 percent) schools. Similarly, a higher percentage of private secondary<sup>3</sup> students were

enrolled in Catholic schools (71 percent) than in any other school orientation. In contrast to the large percentages of private school students enrolled in Catholic elementary and secondary schools, Catholic students made up a smaller percentage (10 percent) of private school students enrolled in combined<sup>4</sup> elementary/secondary schools.

**Figure 4. Percentage distribution of private elementary and secondary school enrollment, by school locale and orientation: School year 2013–14**

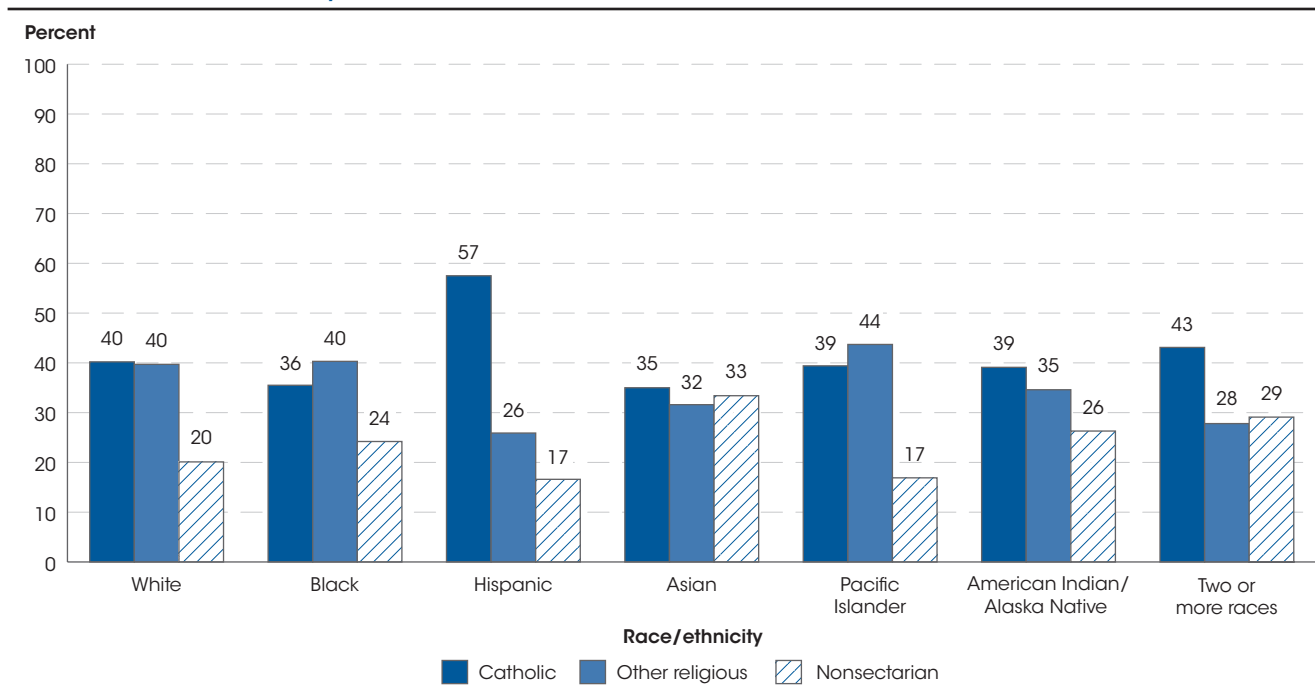


NOTE: Prekindergarten students who are enrolled in private schools that do not offer kindergarten or higher grades are not included in this analysis. Catholic schools include parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools. Other religious schools include conservative Christian, affiliated religious, and unaffiliated religious schools. Conservative Christian schools have membership in at least one of four associations: Accelerated Christian Education, American Association of Christian Schools, Association of Christian Schools International, or Oral Roberts University Education Fellowship. Affiliated religious schools belong to associations of schools with a specific religious orientation other than Catholic or conservative Christian. Unaffiliated religious schools have a religious orientation or purpose but are not classified as Catholic, conservative Christian, or affiliated religious. Nonsectarian schools do not have a religious orientation or purpose. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Private School Universe Survey (PSS), 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 205.30.

In 2013–14, higher percentages of private school students in cities and towns were enrolled in Catholic schools than in other religious<sup>5</sup> or nonsectarian schools. For example, in towns, 48 percent of private school students were enrolled in Catholic schools, while 39 percent were enrolled in other religious schools and 13 percent were enrolled in nonsectarian schools. In contrast, a lower percentage of private school students in rural areas

were enrolled in Catholic schools (14 percent) than nonsectarian (25 percent) or other religious (61 percent) schools. Additionally, while the percentage of private school students in suburbs enrolled in Catholic schools (38 percent) was higher than the percentage enrolled in nonsectarian schools (26 percent), it was not measurably different from the percentage enrolled in other religious schools.

**Figure 5. Percentage distribution of private elementary and secondary school enrollment, by race/ethnicity and school orientation: School year 2013–14**



NOTE: Prekindergarten students who are enrolled in private schools that do not offer kindergarten or higher grades are not included in this analysis. Catholic schools include parochial, diocesan, and private Catholic schools. Other religious schools include conservative Christian, affiliated religious, and unaffiliated religious schools. Conservative Christian schools have membership in at least one of four associations: Accelerated Christian Education, American Association of Christian Schools, Association of Christian Schools International, or Oral Roberts University Education Fellowship. Affiliated religious schools belong to associations of schools with a specific religious orientation other than Catholic or conservative Christian. Unaffiliated religious schools have a religious orientation or purpose but are not classified as Catholic, conservative Christian, or affiliated religious. Nonsectarian schools do not have a religious orientation or purpose. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Percentage distribution is based on the students for whom race/ethnicity was reported. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Private School Universe Survey (PSS), 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 205.30.

There were also differences in private school enrollment by school orientation within racial/ethnic groups. Among Hispanic, Asian, and American Indian/Alaska Native students as well as students of Two or more races, higher percentages of private school students were enrolled in Catholic schools than other religious schools in 2013–14. For example, 57 percent of Hispanic private school students were enrolled in Catholic schools, while 26 percent were enrolled in other religious schools. In contrast, lower percentages of Black (36 percent) and Pacific Islander (39 percent) private school students were

enrolled in Catholic schools in 2013–14 than in other religious schools (40 and 44 percent, respectively). In addition, for all racial/ethnic groups other than Asian, higher percentages of private school students were enrolled in Catholic schools than nonsectarian schools. For example, 40 percent of White private school students were enrolled in Catholic schools compared to 20 percent enrolled in nonsectarian schools. The percentage of Asian students enrolled in Catholic schools (35 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage enrolled in nonsectarian schools (33 percent).

**Endnotes:**

- <sup>1</sup> Prekindergarten students who are enrolled in private schools that do not offer kindergarten or higher grades are not included in this analysis.
- <sup>2</sup> Elementary schools have grade 6 or lower and no grade higher than 8. This category is not comparable to the preK through grade 8 category used elsewhere in this indicator.
- <sup>3</sup> Secondary schools have one or more of grades 7 through 12 and have no grade lower than grade 7. This category is not

- comparable to the grades 9 through 12 category used elsewhere in this indicator.
- <sup>4</sup> Combined schools include grades lower than 7 and higher than 8, as well as those that do not classify students by grade level.
- <sup>5</sup> Other religious schools include conservative Christian, affiliated religious, and unaffiliated religious schools.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, tables 105.30, 205.20, and 205.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Elementary and Secondary Enrollment, Public Charter School Enrollment, Teachers and Pupil/Teacher Ratios

**Glossary:** Catholic school, Combined school, Elementary school, Enrollment, Locale codes, Nonsectarian school, Other religious school, Prekindergarten, Private school, Racial/ethnic group, Secondary school

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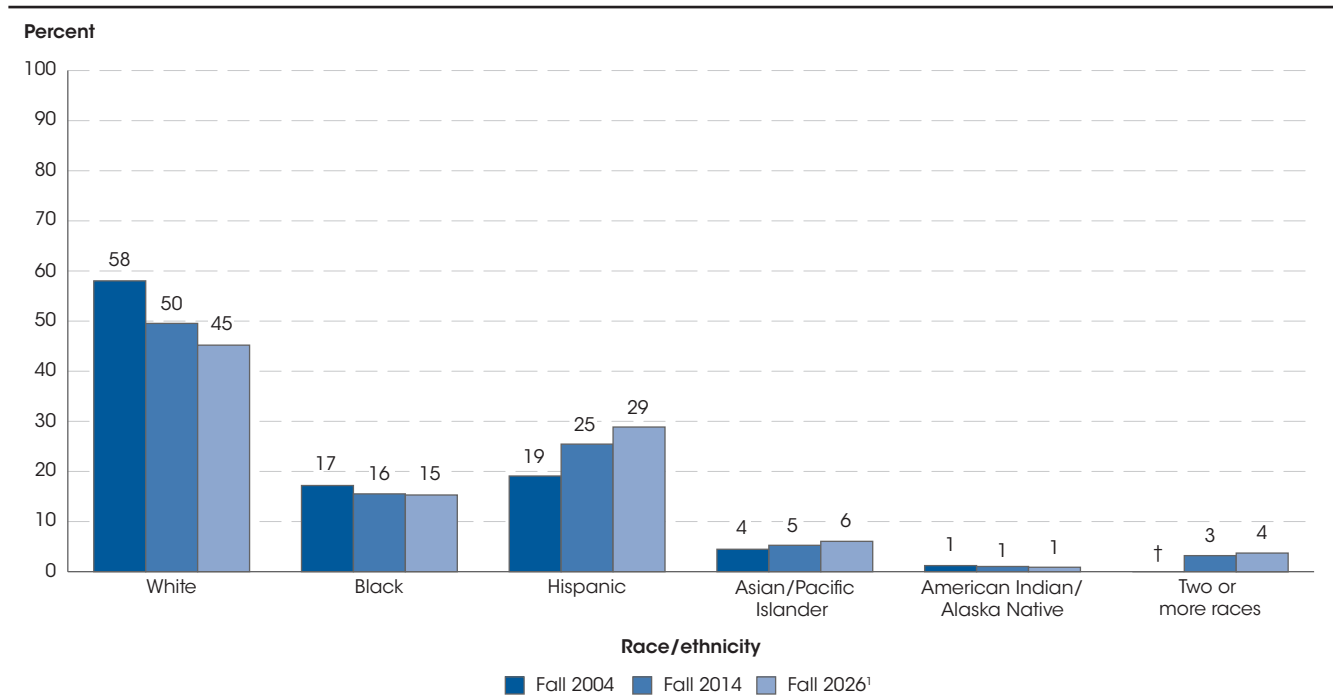
# Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Public Schools

In fall 2014, the percentage of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools who were White was less than 50 percent (49.5 percent) for the first time and represents a decrease from 58 percent in fall 2004. In contrast, the percentage who were Hispanic increased from 19 to 25 percent during the same period.

Total enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools increased from 48.8 million to 50.3 million between fall 2004 and fall 2014, and is projected to continue increasing to 51.7 million in fall 2026 (the last

year for which projected data are available). In addition, racial/ethnic distributions of public school students across the country have shifted.

**Figure 1. Percentage distribution of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools, by race/ethnicity: Fall 2004, fall 2014, and fall 2026**



† Not applicable.

<sup>1</sup> Data for 2026 are projected.

NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Prior to 2008, separate data on students of Two or more races were not collected. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary and Secondary Education," 2004–05 and 2014–15; and National Elementary and Secondary Enrollment by Race/Ethnicity Projection Model, 1972 through 2026. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 203.50.

In fall 2014, the percentage of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools who were White was less than 50 percent (49.5 percent) for the first time since these data were reported<sup>1</sup> and represents a decrease from 58 percent in fall 2004. The number of White students decreased from 28.3 million in 2004 to 24.9 million in 2014. In contrast, the number of Hispanic students during this period increased from 9.3 million to 12.8 million, and the percentage of students who were Hispanic increased from 19 to 25 percent. Additionally, the number of Asian/Pacific Islander students increased from 2.2 million in fall 2004 to 2.6 million in fall 2014, and

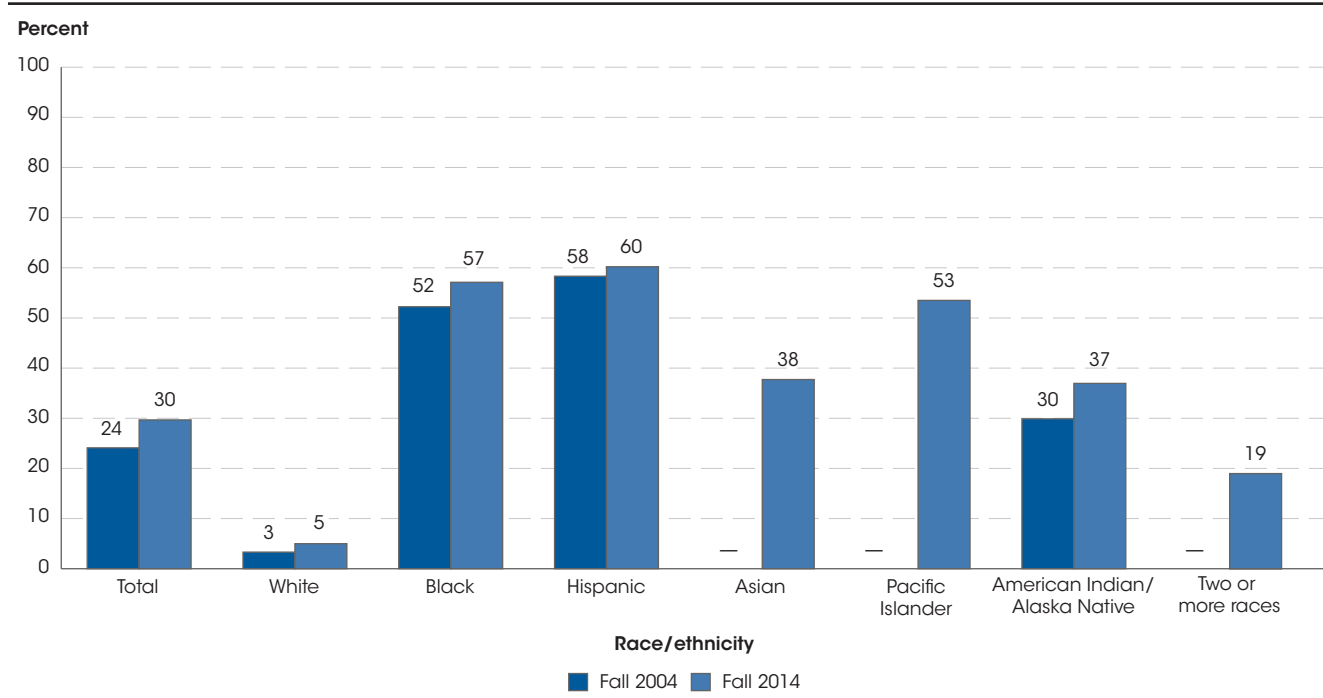
the percentage of students who were Asian/Pacific Islander increased from 4 to 5 percent. From fall 2004 to fall 2014, the number of Black students decreased from 8.4 million to 7.8 million, and the percentage of students who were Black decreased from 17 to 16 percent. The number of American Indian/Alaska Native students from fall 2004 to fall 2014 decreased from 0.6 million to 0.5 million, and the percentage of students who were American Indian/Alaska Native remained around 1 percent. In 2014, the number of students who were Two or more races was 1.6 million and the percentage of students was 3 percent.<sup>2</sup>



The number of White students enrolled in public schools is projected to continue decreasing between fall 2014 and fall 2026 (from 24.9 million to 23.4 million). In 2026, White students are expected to account for 45 percent of total enrollment as the enrollments of Hispanic students and Asian/Pacific Islander students continue to increase. The number of Hispanic students is projected to increase from 12.8 million in 2014 to 14.9 million in 2026 and to account for 29 percent of total enrollment in 2026. The number of Asian/Pacific Islander students is projected to increase from 2.6 million to 3.1 million between 2014 and 2026 and to account for 6 percent of total enrollment in 2026. The number of Black students is projected to increase from 7.8 million to 7.9 million during this period, and to account for 15 percent of total enrollment in 2026. Additionally, the number of American Indian/Alaska Native students is projected to remain around 0.5 million and to account for 1 percent of total enrollment in 2026. The number of students who were Two or more races is projected to increase from 1.6 million to 1.9 million and to account for 4 percent of total enrollment in 2026.

Changes in the racial/ethnic distribution of public school enrollment between 2004 and 2014 differed by state.<sup>3</sup> In the 49 states for which data were available, the percentage of students enrolled who were White was lower in 2014 than in 2004, with the decrease ranging from 14 percentage points in Washington to 2 percentage points in Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Carolina. However, in the District of Columbia the percentage of public school students who were White increased by 5 percentage points over the same period. Across the 49 reporting states and the District of Columbia, the percentage of students who were Hispanic was higher in 2014 than in 2004; the increase was largest in Washington (9 percentage points) and smallest in Vermont and West Virginia (less than 1 percentage point each). The percentage of public school students who were Black was higher in 2014 than in 2004 in 12 states; all increases were 2 percentage points or less. In the remaining 37 states and the District of Columbia, the percentage of public school students who were Black was lower in 2014 than in 2004; the largest decrease occurred in the District of Columbia (13 percentage points).

**Figure 2. Percentage of public elementary and secondary school students enrolled in schools with at least 75 percent minority enrollment, by student race/ethnicity: Fall 2004 and fall 2014**



— Not available.

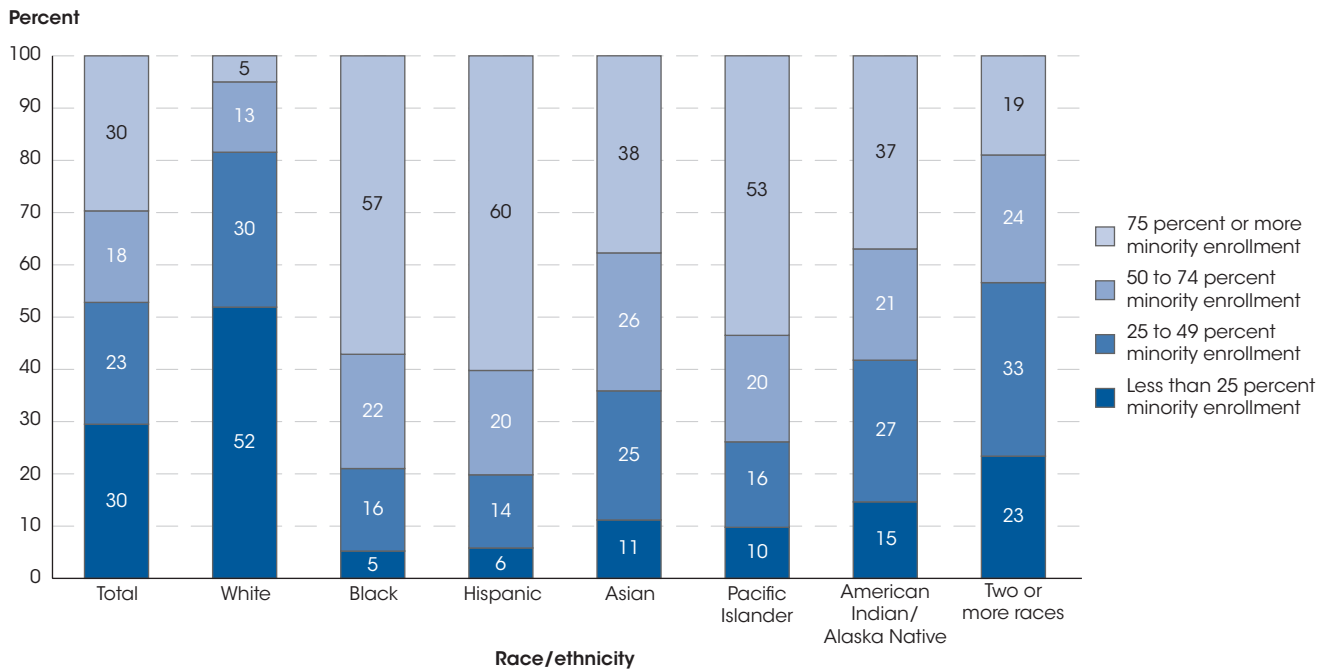
NOTE: Minority students include students who are Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races. Prior to 2008, separate data on students who are Asian, Pacific Islander, and of Two or more races were not collected. Data reflect racial/ethnic data reported by schools. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2004 and 2014-15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2006*, table 93 and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.50.

The extent to which minority students attend public schools with nonminority students has changed over time. In fall 2014, public schools where minority students<sup>4</sup> comprised at least 75 percent of the student population enrolled 30 percent of all public school students, compared with 24 percent in fall 2004. The percentage of students enrolled in these schools increased from 2004

to 2014 across all racial/ethnic groups.<sup>5</sup> The percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native students in such schools increased by 7 percentage points, from 30 percent in 2004 to 37 percent in 2014. Increases in enrollments in these schools for the remaining racial/ethnic groups ranged from 2 to 5 percentage points.

**Figure 3. Percentage distribution of public elementary and secondary school students, by student's race/ethnicity and percentage of minority enrollment in school: Fall 2014**

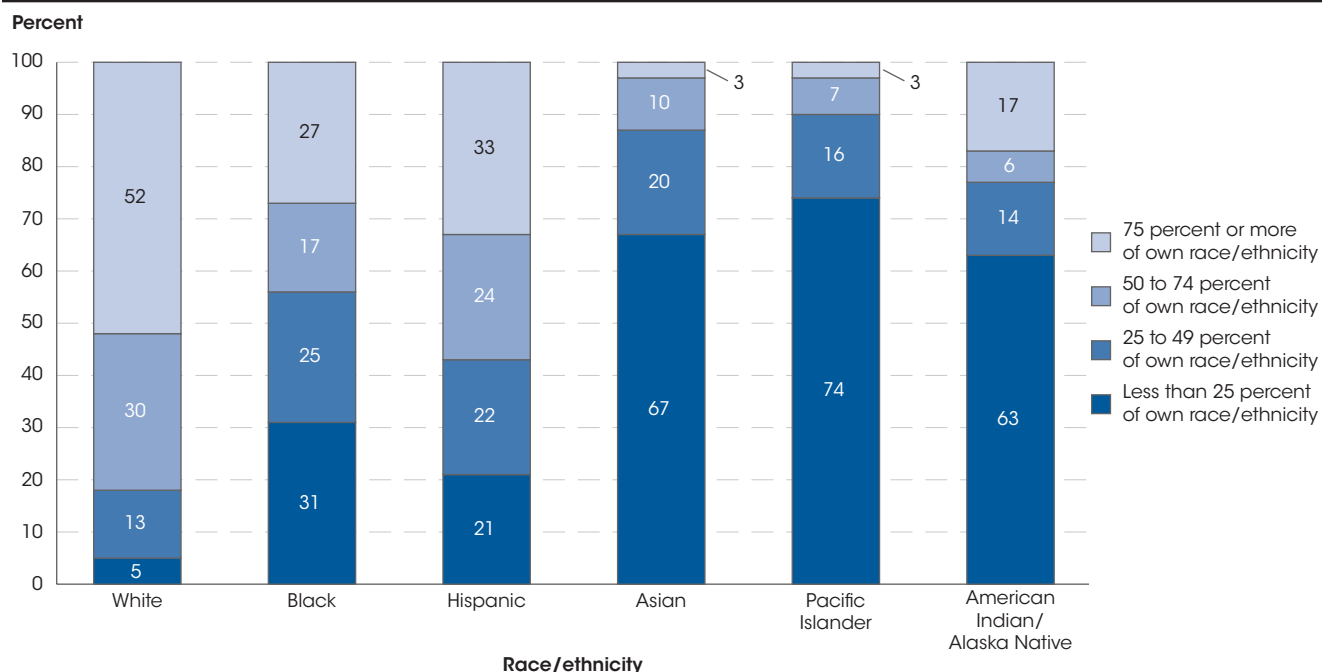


NOTE: Minority students include students who are Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races. Data reflect racial/ethnic data reported by schools. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2014-15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.50.

As noted above, in fall 2014 approximately 30 percent of public elementary and secondary 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 (57 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 this type of school.

**Figure 4. Percentage distribution of public elementary and secondary school students, by student's race/ethnicity and percentage of own racial/ethnic group enrolled in the school: Fall 2014**



NOTE: Data for Two or more races are not reported in this figure because of small size of population. Data reflect racial/ethnic data reported by schools. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2014-15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.55.

Examining the enrollment data for individual racial/ethnic groups can yield more detailed insights on school enrollment patterns. These data show the extent to which students attend public schools with peers of the same racial/ethnic group. In fall 2014, some 52 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 students who were of Two or more races (less than 1 percent), Asian (3 percent), Pacific Islander (3 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (17 percent) were enrolled in public schools that were predominantly composed of students of their own racial/

ethnic group. Instead, more than half of students of these races were enrolled in public schools in which less than a quarter of the students were of their own race, while 5 percent of White students were enrolled in such schools. About 27 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.

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Racial/ethnic enrollment data for public schools were first reported for 1972 as shown in supplemental table 4-1 from *The Condition of Education 2000*.

<sup>2</sup> Students who are of Two of more races are not included in the trend analysis since prior to 2008 separate data on this racial/ethnic group were not collected.

<sup>3</sup> Nevada is excluded from this discussion because data were not available in 2004.

<sup>4</sup> Minority students include students who are Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and of Two or more races.

<sup>5</sup> Students who are Asian, Pacific Islander, and of Two of more races are not included in the trend analysis since prior to 2008 separate data on these racial/ethnic groups were not collected.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2006*, table 93; *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 203.50, 203.70, 216.50, and 216.55

**Related indicators and resources:** Elementary and Secondary Enrollment, *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups*

**Glossary:** Elementary school, Enrollment, Geographic region, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group, Secondary school

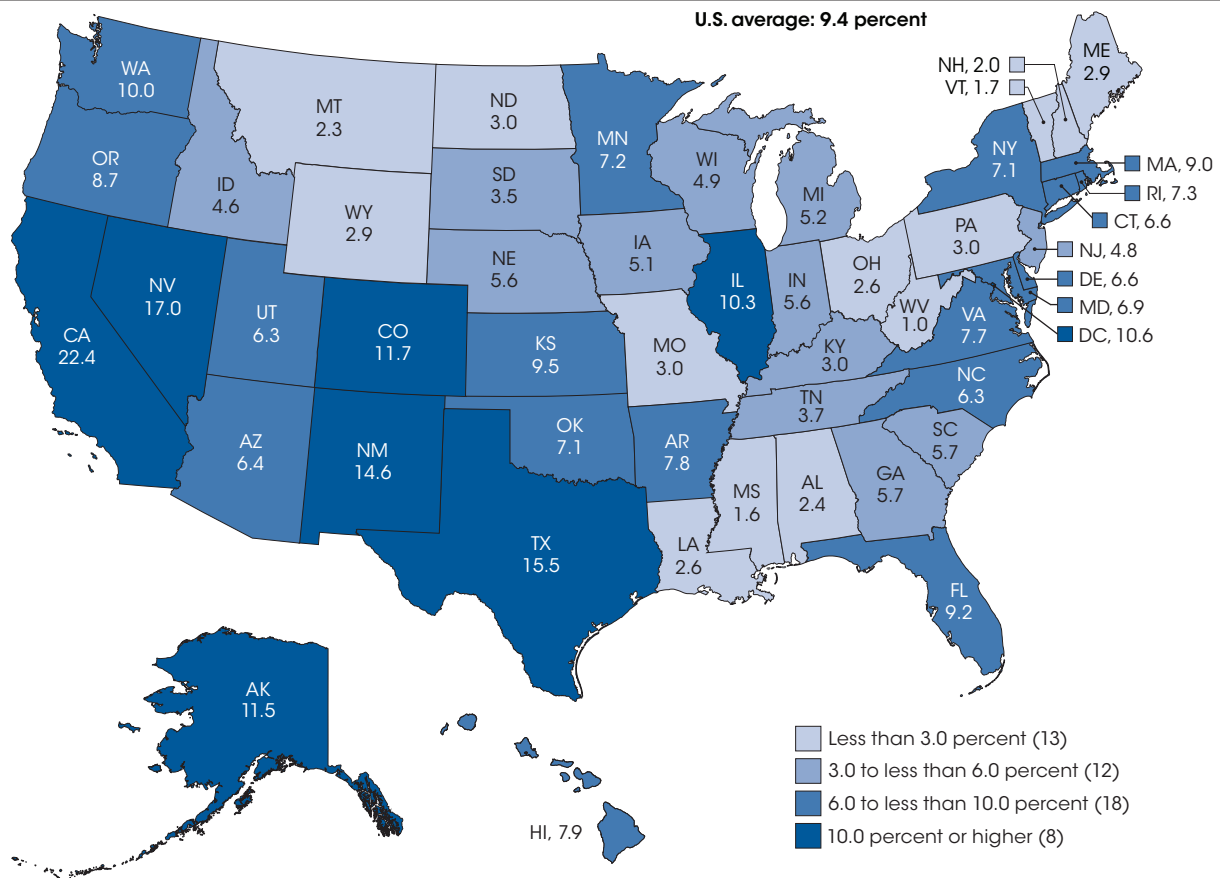
## English Language Learners in Public Schools

The percentage of public school students in the United States who were English language learners (ELLs) was higher in school year 2014–15 (9.4 percent, or 4.6 million students) than in 2004–05 (9.1 percent, or 4.3 million students). In 2014–15, the percentage of public school students who were ELLs ranged from 1.0 percent in West Virginia to 22.4 percent in California.

Students who are English language learners (ELLs) participate in language assistance programs to help ensure that they attain English proficiency and meet the same academic content and achievement standards that all students are expected to meet. Participation in these types of programs can improve students' English language proficiency which, in turn, has been associated

with improved educational outcomes.<sup>1</sup> The percentage of public school students in the United States who were ELLs was higher in school year 2014–15 (9.4 percent, or an estimated 4.6 million students) than in 2004–05 (9.1 percent, or an estimated 4.3 million students) and 2013–14 (9.3 percent, or an estimated 4.5 million students).<sup>2</sup>

Figure 1. Percentage of public school students who were English language learners, by state: School year 2014–15



NOTE: Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Local Education Agency Universe Survey," 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.20.

In 2014–15, the percentage of public school students who were ELLs was 10.0 percent or more in the District of Columbia and seven states. These states, most of which are located in the West, were Alaska, California, Colorado, Illinois, Nevada, New Mexico, and Texas.

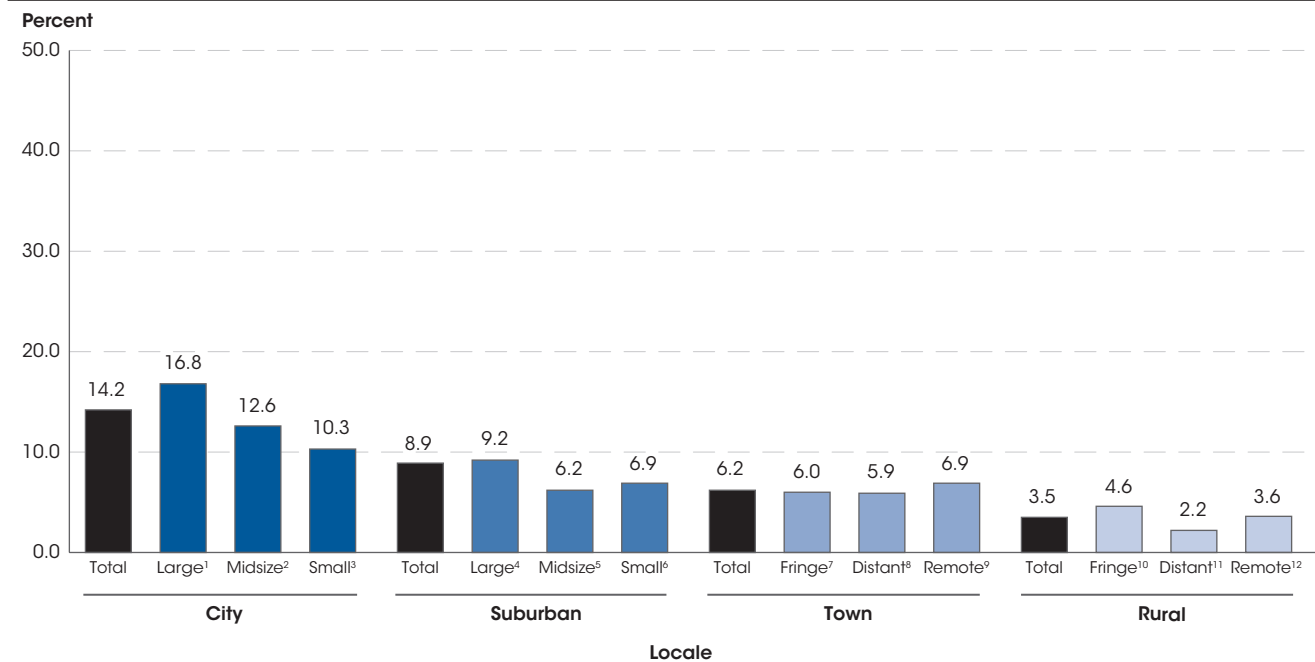
California reported the highest percentage of ELLs among its public school students, at 22.4 percent, followed by Nevada at 17.0 percent. Eighteen states had percentages of ELL students that were 6.0 percent or higher but less than 10.0 percent, and 12 states had percentages that

were 3.0 percent or higher but less than 6.0 percent. The percentage of students who were ELLs was less than 3.0 percent in 13 states, with Vermont (1.7 percent), Mississippi (1.6 percent), and West Virginia (1.0 percent) having the lowest percentages.

The percentage of public school students who were ELLs increased between 2004–05 and 2014–15 in all but 15 states, with the largest percentage-point increase occurring in Maryland (4.4 percentage points) and the

largest percentage-point decrease occurring in Arizona (13.8 percentage points). Between 2013–14 and 2014–15, the percentage of public school students who were ELLs decreased in 13 states, with the largest decrease occurring in New Mexico (0.7 percentage points). In contrast, 37 states and the District of Columbia experienced an increase in the percentage of ELL students between 2013–14 and 2014–15, with the largest increase occurring in Nevada (1.5 percentage points).

**Figure 2. Percentage of public school students who were English language learners, by locale: School year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Located inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with a population of at least 250,000.

<sup>2</sup> Located inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with a population of at least 100,000 but less than 250,000.

<sup>3</sup> Located inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with a population less than 100,000.

<sup>4</sup> Located inside an urbanized area and outside a principal city with a population of 250,000 or more.

<sup>5</sup> Located inside an urbanized area and outside a principal city with a population of at least 100,000 but less than 250,000.

<sup>6</sup> Located inside an urbanized area and outside a principal city with a population less than 100,000.

<sup>7</sup> Located inside an urban cluster that is 10 miles or less from an urbanized area.

<sup>8</sup> Located inside an urban cluster that is more than 10 but less than or equal to 35 miles from an urbanized area.

<sup>9</sup> Located inside an urban cluster that is more than 35 miles from an urbanized area.

<sup>10</sup> Located outside any urbanized area or urban cluster but 5 miles or less from an urbanized area or 2.5 miles or less from an urban cluster.

<sup>11</sup> Located outside any urbanized area or urban cluster and more than 5 miles but less than or equal to 25 miles from an urbanized area, or more than 2.5 miles but less than or equal to 10 miles from an urban cluster.

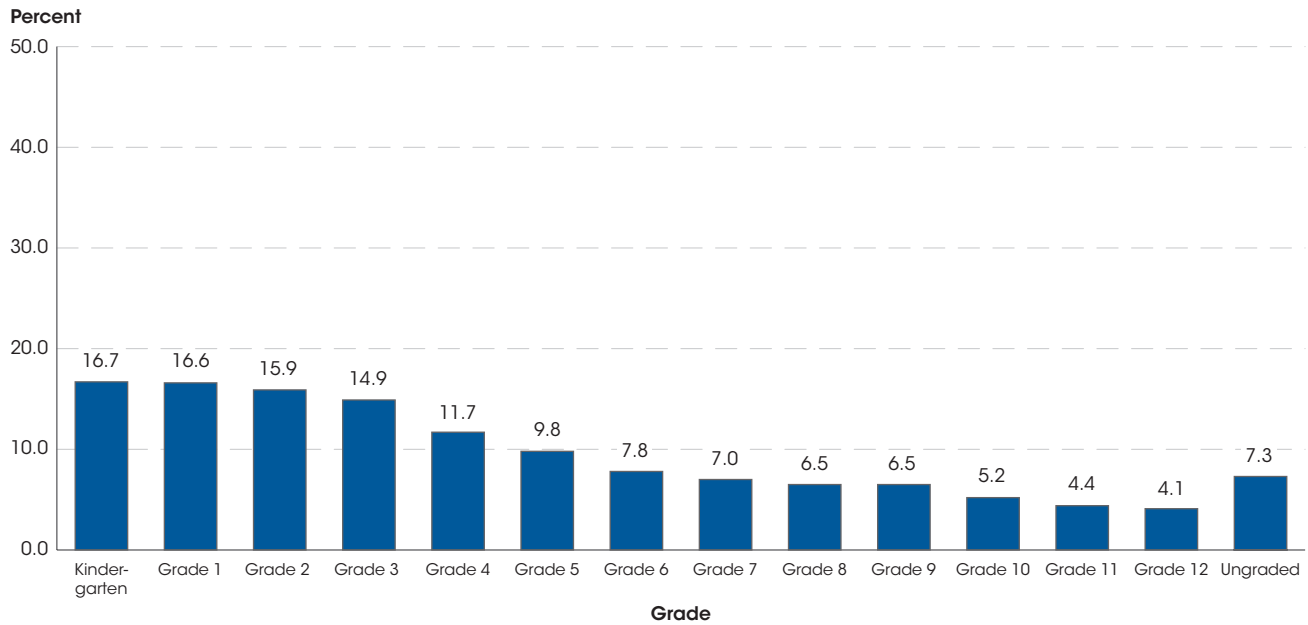
<sup>12</sup> Located outside any urbanized area or urban cluster, more than 25 miles from an urbanized area, and more than 10 miles from an urban cluster.

NOTE: Locale codes assigned to school districts are based on the locale code of their schools, weighted by the size of the schools' membership. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Local Education Agency Universe Survey," 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 214.40.

In 2014–15, the percentage of students who were ELLs was generally higher for school districts in more urbanized areas, such as cities and suburbs, than for those in less urbanized areas. For example, ELL students in cities made up an average of 14.2 percent of total public school enrollment, ranging from 10.3 percent in small cities to 16.8 percent in large cities. In suburban areas, ELL students constituted an average of 8.9 percent of public school enrollment, ranging from 6.2 percent in midsize suburban areas to 9.2 percent in large suburban areas.

Towns and rural areas are subdivided according to their proximity to urban centers into the categories fringe, distant, and remote, with fringe being the closest to an urban center and remote being the farthest from one. In towns, ELL students made up an average of 6.2 percent of public school enrollment, ranging from 5.9 percent in distant areas to 6.9 percent in remote areas. In rural areas, ELL students constituted an average of 3.5 percent of public student enrollment, ranging from 2.2 percent in distant areas to 4.6 percent in fringe areas.

**Figure 3. Percentage of public K–12 students identified as English language learners, by grade level: School year 2014–15**



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, ED*Facts* file 141, Data Group 678, extracted August 24, 2016; Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary and Secondary Education," 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.27.

In 2014–15, a greater percentage of public school students in lower grades than in upper grades were ELL students.<sup>3</sup> For example, 16.7 percent of kindergarteners were ELL students, compared to 7.8 percent of 6th-graders and 6.5 percent of 8th-graders. Among 12th-graders, only

4.1 percent of students were ELL students. This pattern is driven, in part, by students who are identified as ELLs when they enter elementary school but obtain English language proficiency before reaching upper grades.<sup>4</sup>

**Table 1. Eleven most commonly reported home languages of English language learner (ELL) students: School year 2014–15**

Home language	Number of ELL students	Percentage distribution of ELL students <sup>1</sup>	Number of ELL students as a percentage of total enrollment
Spanish, Castilian	3,709,828	77.1	7.6
Arabic	109,165	2.3	0.2
Chinese	104,279	2.2	0.2
Vietnamese	85,289	1.8	0.2
English <sup>2</sup>	83,230	1.7	0.2
Hmong	37,412	0.8	0.1
Somali	33,712	0.7	0.1
Russian	32,493	0.7	0.1
Haitian, Haitian Creole	31,428	0.7	0.1
Tagalog	28,547	0.6	0.1
Korean	28,530	0.6	0.1

<sup>1</sup> Details do not sum to 100 percent because not all categories are reported.

<sup>2</sup> Examples of situations in which English might be reported as an English learner's home language include students who live in multilingual households and students adopted from other countries who speak English at home but also have been raised speaking another language.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, ED*Facts* file 141, Data Group 678, extracted August 24, 2016; Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary and Secondary Education," 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.27.

Spanish was the home language of 3.7 million ELL students in 2014–15, representing 77.1 percent of all ELL students and 7.6 percent of all public K–12 students. Arabic, Chinese, and Vietnamese were the next most common home languages (spoken by approximately 109,000, 104,000, and 85,300 students, respectively).

English was the fifth most commonly reported home language for ELL students (83,200 students), which may reflect students who live in multilingual households or students adopted from other countries who had been raised speaking another language but currently live in households where English is spoken. Hmong

(37,400 students), Somali (33,700 students), Russian (32,500 students), Haitian (31,400 students), Tagalog (28,500 students), and Korean (28,500 students) were the next most commonly reported home languages of ELL students in 2014–15. The 30 most commonly reported home languages also include several whose prevalence has increased rapidly in recent years. For example, the number of ELLs who reported that their home language was a Karen language<sup>5</sup> or Nepali more than quadrupled between 2008–09 and 2014–15 (from 3,000 to 12,600 students for Karen languages and from 3,200 to 14,400 students for Nepali).

In 2014–15, there were about 3.7 million Hispanic ELL students, and Hispanic students made up over three-quarters (77.8 percent) of ELL student enrollment. Asian students were the next largest racial/ethnic group

among ELLs, with 517,000 students (10.7 percent of ELL students). In addition, there were 283,000 White ELL students (5.9 percent of ELL students) and 172,000 Black ELL students (3.6 percent of ELL students). In each of the other racial/ethnic groups for which data were collected (Pacific Islanders, American Indians/Alaska Natives, and individuals of Two or more races), fewer than 50,000 students were identified as ELLs.

Newly released figures from the U.S. Department of Education's *EDFacts* data collection shed light on the population of ELLs who are also students with disabilities. In 2014–15, some 665,000 ELL students were also identified as students with disabilities.<sup>6</sup> ELL students with disabilities represented 13.8 percent of the total ELL population enrolled in U.S. public elementary and secondary schools.

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#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Ross, T., Kena, G., Rathbun, A., KewalRamani, A., Zhang, J., Kristapovich, P., and Manning, E. (2012). *Higher Education: Gaps in Access and Persistence Study* (NCES 2012-046). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved May 3, 2017, from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2012046>.

<sup>2</sup> In this indicator, data on the total number of ELLs enrolled in public schools include ELLs enrolled on October 1, excluding ELL students who did not participate in ELL programs. Data do not include students who were formerly identified as ELLs but later obtained English language proficiency.

<sup>3</sup> Data on the characteristics (grade level, home language, race/ethnicity, and disability status) of ELL students enrolled in public schools include ELLs enrolled at any point during the school year,

regardless of ELL program participation. Data do not include students who were formerly identified as ELLs but later obtained English language proficiency.

<sup>4</sup> Saunders, W.M., and Marcelletti, D.J. (2013). The Gap That Can't Go Away: The Catch-22 of Reclassification in Monitoring the Progress of English Learners. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 35(2): 139–156. Retrieved May 3, 2017, from <http://journals.sagepub.com/doi/full/10.3102/0162373712461849>.

<sup>5</sup> Includes several languages spoken by the Karen ethnic groups of Burma and by individuals of Karen descent in the United States.

<sup>6</sup> Includes only students with disabilities who were served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA).

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 204.20, 204.27, and 214.40

**Related indicators and resources:** Elementary and Secondary Enrollment, Children and Youth With Disabilities, Reading Performance, Mathematics Performance, Science Performance, Technology and Engineering Literacy, *Programs and Services for High School English Learners in Public School Districts*

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**Glossary:** Disabilities, children with; English language learner (ELL); Enrollment; Geographic region; Household; Locale codes; Public school or institution; Racial/ethnic group; School district

## Children and Youth With Disabilities

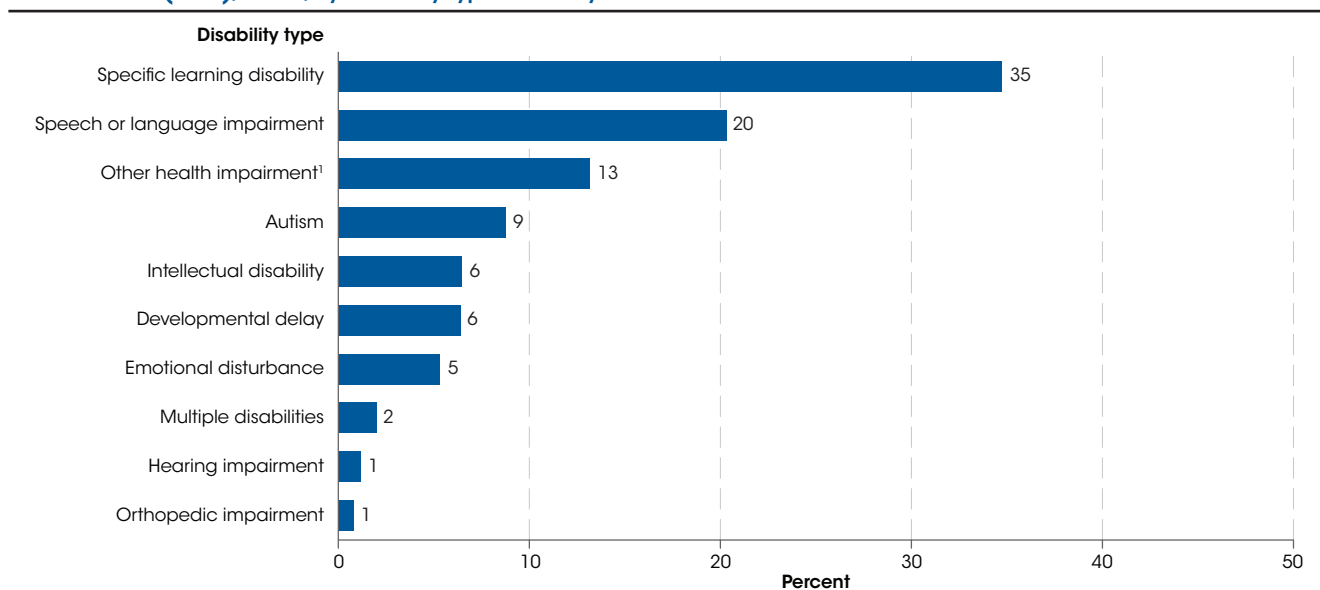
*In 2014–15, the number of children and youth ages 3–21 receiving special education services was 6.6 million, or 13 percent of all public school students. Among children and youth receiving special education services, 35 percent had specific learning disabilities.*

Enacted in 1975, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), formerly known as the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, mandates the provision of a free and appropriate public school education for eligible children and youth ages 3–21. Eligible children and youth are those identified by a team of professionals as having a disability that adversely affects academic performance and as being in need of special education and related services. Data collection activities to monitor compliance with IDEA began in 1976.

From school years 1990–91 through 2004–05, the number of children and youth ages 3–21 who received

special education services increased from 4.7 million, or 11 percent of total public school enrollment, to 6.7 million, or 14 percent of total public school enrollment.<sup>1</sup> Both the number and percentage of children and youth served under IDEA declined from 2004–05 through 2011–12. The number and percentage of children and youth served appeared to level off between 2012–13 and 2014–15. By 2014–15, the number of children and youth served under IDEA was 6.6 million, or 13 percent of total public school enrollment.

**Figure 1. Percentage distribution of children and youth ages 3–21 served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), Part B, by disability type: School year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Other health impairments include 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.

NOTE: Deaf-blindness, traumatic brain injury, and visual impairment are not shown because they each account for less than 0.5 percent of children served under IDEA. Due to categories not shown, detail does not sum to 100 percent. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

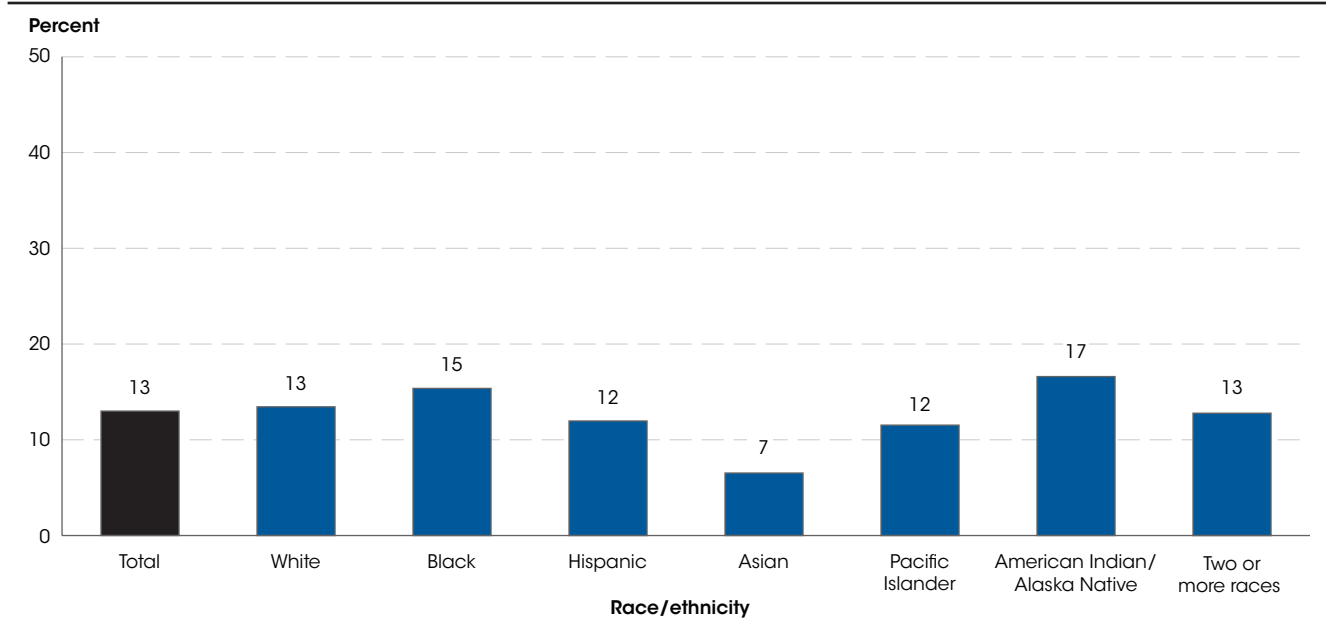
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) database, retrieved July 26, 2016, from <http://www2.ed.gov/programs/osepidea/618-data/state-level-data-files/index.html#bcc>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.30.



In school year 2014–15, a higher percentage of children and youth ages 3–21 received special education services under IDEA for specific learning disabilities than for any other type of disability. A specific learning disability is a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or using language, spoken or written, that may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations. In 2014–15, some 35 percent of all children and youth receiving special education services had specific learning disabilities, 20 percent had speech or language impairments, and 13 percent had other health impairments (including 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). Children and youth with autism, intellectual disabilities, developmental delays, and emotional disturbances each accounted for between 5 and 9 percent of children and youth served under IDEA. Children and youth with multiple disabilities, hearing impairments, orthopedic impairments, visual impairments, traumatic brain injuries, and deaf-blindness each accounted for 2 percent or less of those served under IDEA.

**Figure 2. Percentage of children and youth ages 3–21 served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), Part B, by race/ethnicity: School year 2014–15**



NOTE: Based on the total enrollment in public schools, prekindergarten through 12th grade. 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, Office of Special Education Programs, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) database, retrieved July 26, 2016, from <http://www2.ed.gov/programs/osepidea/618-data/state-level-data-files/index.html#bcc>; and National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education," 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.50.

In school year 2014–15, the percentage (out of total public school enrollment) of children and youth ages 3–21 served under IDEA differed by race/ethnicity. The percentage of children and youth served under IDEA was highest for those who were American Indian/Alaska Native (17 percent), followed by Black (15 percent), White and of Two or more races (both at 13 percent), Hispanic and Pacific Islander (both at 12 percent), and Asian (7 percent). In each racial/ethnic group except for Asian, the percentage of children and youth receiving services for specific learning disabilities combined with the percentage receiving services for speech or language impairments accounted for over 50 percent of children and youth served under IDEA. The percentage distribution of various types of special education services received by

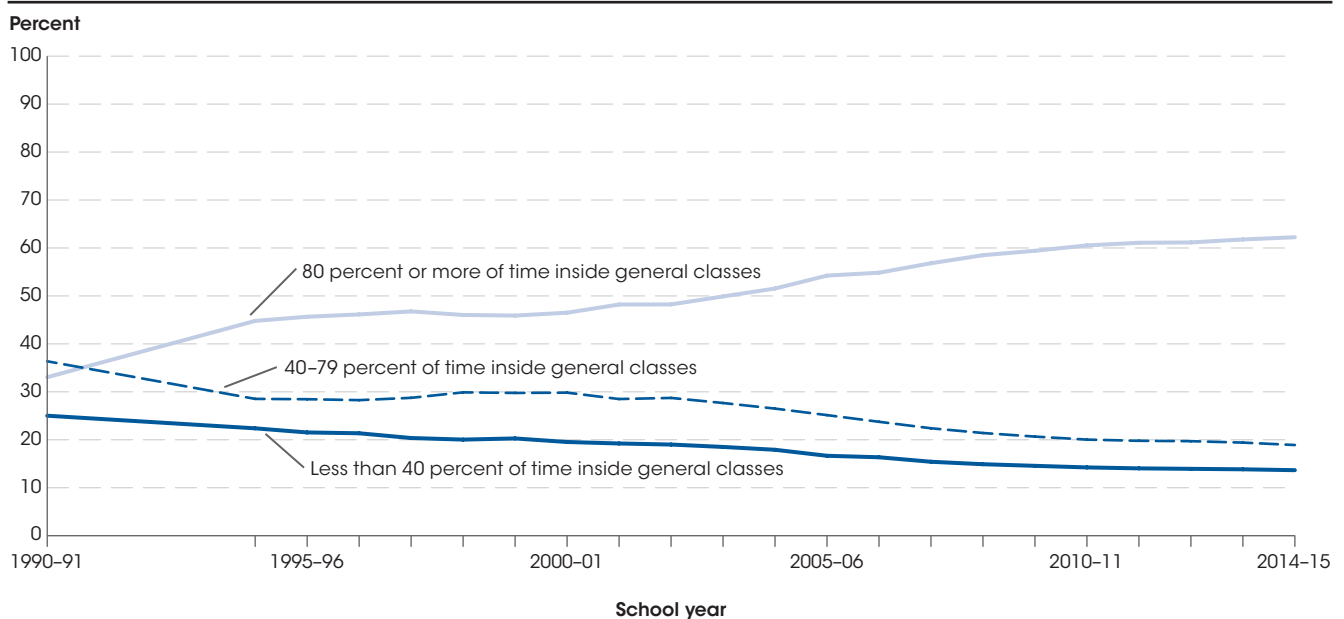
children and youth ages 3–21 in 2014–15 differed by race/ethnicity. For example, the percentage of children and youth with disabilities receiving services under IDEA for specific learning disabilities was lower among Asian children and youth (22 percent), children and youth of Two or more races (30 percent), and White children and youth (31 percent) than among children and youth overall (35 percent). However, the percentage of children and youth with disabilities receiving services under IDEA for autism was higher among Asian children and youth (20 percent), children and youth of Two or more races (10 percent), and White children and youth (10 percent) than among children and youth overall (9 percent). Additionally, of children and youth who were served under IDEA, 7 percent of Black children and youth and

7 percent of children and youth of Two or more races received services for emotional disturbances, compared with 5 percent of children and youth served under IDEA overall. Among children and youth who received services under IDEA, each racial/ethnic group other than Hispanic had a higher percentage of children and youth receiving services for developmental delays than the overall percentage of children and youth receiving services for developmental delays (6 percent).

Separate data on special education services for males and females are available only for students ages 6–21, rather than children and youth ages 3–21. Among those

6- to 21-year-old students enrolled in public schools in 2014–15, a higher percentage of males (16 percent) than females (9 percent) received special education services under IDEA. The percentage distribution of students who received various types of special education services in 2014–15 differed by sex. For example, the percentage of students served under IDEA who received services for specific learning disabilities was higher among female students (44 percent) than among male students (36 percent), while the percentage served under IDEA who received services for autism was higher among male students (11 percent) than among female students (4 percent).

**Figure 3. Percentage of students ages 6–21 served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), Part B, placed in a regular public school environment, by amount of time spent inside general classes: Selected school years, 1990–91 through 2014–15**



SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) database, retrieved November 10, 2016, from <http://www2.ed.gov/programs/osepidea/618-data/state-level-data-files/index.html#bcc>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 204.60.

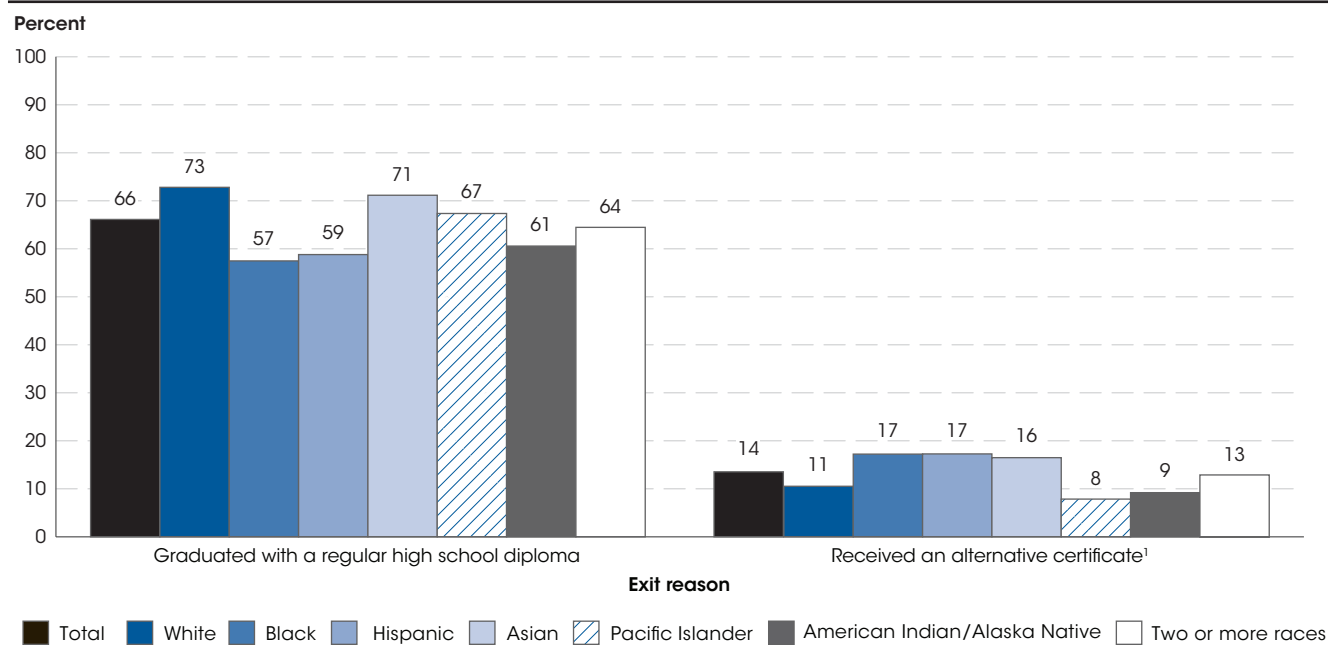
Educational environment data are also available for students ages 6–21 served under IDEA. About 95 percent of students ages 6–21 served under IDEA in fall 2014 were enrolled in regular schools. Some 3 percent of students served under IDEA were enrolled in separate schools (public or private) for students with disabilities; 1 percent were placed by their parents in regular private schools; and less than 1 percent each were in separate residential facilities (public or private), homebound or in hospitals, and in correctional facilities. Among all students ages 6–21 served under IDEA, the percentage who spent most of the school day (i.e., 80 percent or more of their time) in general classes in regular schools increased from 33 percent in fall 1990 to 62 percent in fall 2014. In contrast, during the same period, the percentage of those who spent 40 to 79 percent of

the school day in general classes declined from 36 to 19 percent, and the percentage of those who spent less than 40 percent of their time inside general classes also declined, from 25 to 14 percent. In fall 2014, the percentage of students served under IDEA who spent most of the school day in general classes was highest for students with speech or language impairments (87 percent). Approximately two-thirds of students with specific learning disabilities (69 percent), visual impairments (66 percent), other health impairments (65 percent), and developmental delays (64 percent) spent most of the school day in general classes. In contrast, 16 percent of students with intellectual disabilities and 13 percent of students with multiple disabilities spent most of the school day in general classes.

Data are also available for students ages 14–21 served under IDEA who exited school during school year 2013–14, including exit reason.<sup>2</sup> In 2013–14, approximately 392,000 students ages 14–21 who received special education services under IDEA exited school:

About two-thirds (66 percent) graduated with a regular high school diploma, 18 percent dropped out, 14 percent received an alternative certificate,<sup>3</sup> 2 percent reached maximum age, and less than one-half of 1 percent died.

**Figure 4. Percentage of students ages 14–21 served under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), Part B, who exited school, by selected exit reason and race/ethnicity: School year 2013–14**



<sup>1</sup> Received a certificate of completion, modified diploma, or some similar document, but did not meet the same standards for graduation as those for students receiving a regular diploma.  
NOTE: Data in this figure are for the 50 states, the District of Columbia, the Bureau of Indian Education, American Samoa, the Federated States of Micronesia, Guam, the Northern Marianas, Puerto Rico, the Republic of Palau, the Republic of the Marshall Islands, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. Data for all other figures in this indicator are for the 50 states and the District of Columbia only. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) Section 618 Data Products: State Level Data Files. Retrieved October 20, 2016, from <http://www2.ed.gov/programs/osepidea/618-data/state-level-data-files/index.html>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.90.

Of the students ages 14–21 served under IDEA who exited school in 2013–14, the percentage who graduated with a regular high school diploma, received an alternative certificate, or dropped out differed by race/ethnicity. The percentage of exiting students who graduated with a regular high school diploma was highest among White students (73 percent) and lowest among Black students (57 percent). The percentage of exiting students who received an alternative certificate was highest among Hispanic students and Black students (both at 17 percent) and lowest among Pacific Islander students (8 percent). The percentage of exiting students who dropped out in 2013–14 was highest among American Indian/Alaska Native students (29 percent) and lowest among Asian students (8 percent).

with a regular high school diploma, received an alternative certificate, or dropped out also differed by type of disability. The percentage of exiting students who graduated with a regular high school diploma was highest among students with visual impairments and speech or language impairments (both at 78 percent) and lowest among those with intellectual disabilities (41 percent). The percentage of exiting students who received an alternative certificate was highest among students with intellectual disabilities (35 percent) and lowest among students with speech or language impairments (8 percent). The percentage of exiting students who dropped out in 2013–14 was highest among students with emotional disturbances (35 percent) and lowest among students with visual impairments (6 percent).

Of the students ages 14–21 served under IDEA who exited school in 2013–14, the percentages who graduated

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**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Data for students ages 3–21 and 6–21 served under IDEA are for the 50 states and the District of Columbia only.

<sup>2</sup> Data for students ages 14–21 served under IDEA who exited school are for the 50 states, the District of Columbia, the Bureau of Indian Education, American Samoa, the Federated States of Micronesia, Guam, the Northern Marianas, Puerto Rico, the Republic of Palau, the Republic of the Marshall Islands, and the U.S. Virgin Islands.

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

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 204.30, 204.50, 204.60, and 219.90

**Related indicators and resources:** Disability Rates and Employment Status by Educational Attainment [*The Condition of Education 2017 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Disabilities, children with; Enrollment; High school completer; High school diploma; Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA); Private school; Public school or institution; Racial/ethnic group; Regular school

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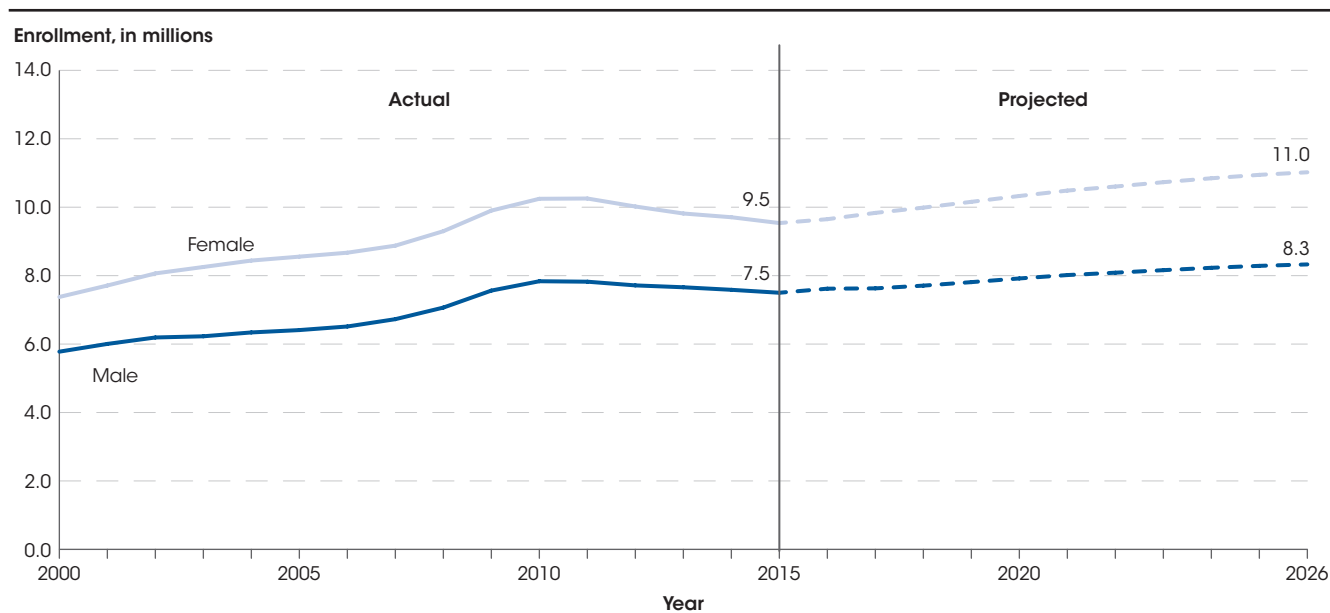
# Undergraduate Enrollment

Between 2000 and 2015, total undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions increased by 30 percent (from 13.2 million to 17.0 million). By 2026, total undergraduate enrollment is projected to increase to 19.3 million students.

In fall 2015, total undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions was 17.0 million students, an increase of 30 percent from 2000, when enrollment was 13.2 million students. While total undergraduate enrollment increased by 37 percent

between 2000 and 2010, enrollment decreased by 6 percent between 2010 and 2015. Undergraduate enrollment is projected to increase by 14 percent (from 17.0 million to 19.3 million students) between 2015 and 2026.

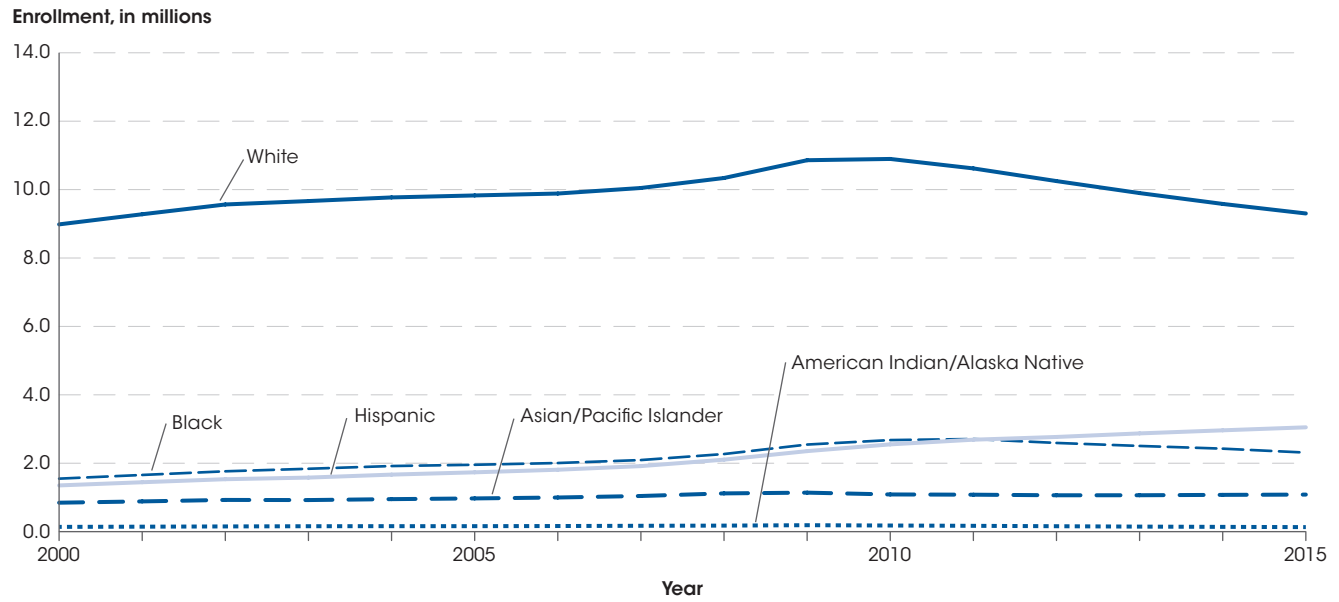
Figure 1. Actual and projected undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by sex: Fall 2000–2026



NOTE: Data include unclassified undergraduate students. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Projections are based on data through 2015. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component; and Enrollment in Degree-Granting Institutions Projection Model, 1980 through 2026. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.70.

In fall 2015, female students made up 56 percent of total undergraduate enrollment at 9.5 million, and male students made up 44 percent at 7.5 million. Between 2000 and 2015, enrollment for both groups showed similar patterns of change: female enrollment increased by 29 percent and male enrollment increased by 30 percent. Most of these increases occurred between 2005 and 2010, when female enrollment increased by 20 percent

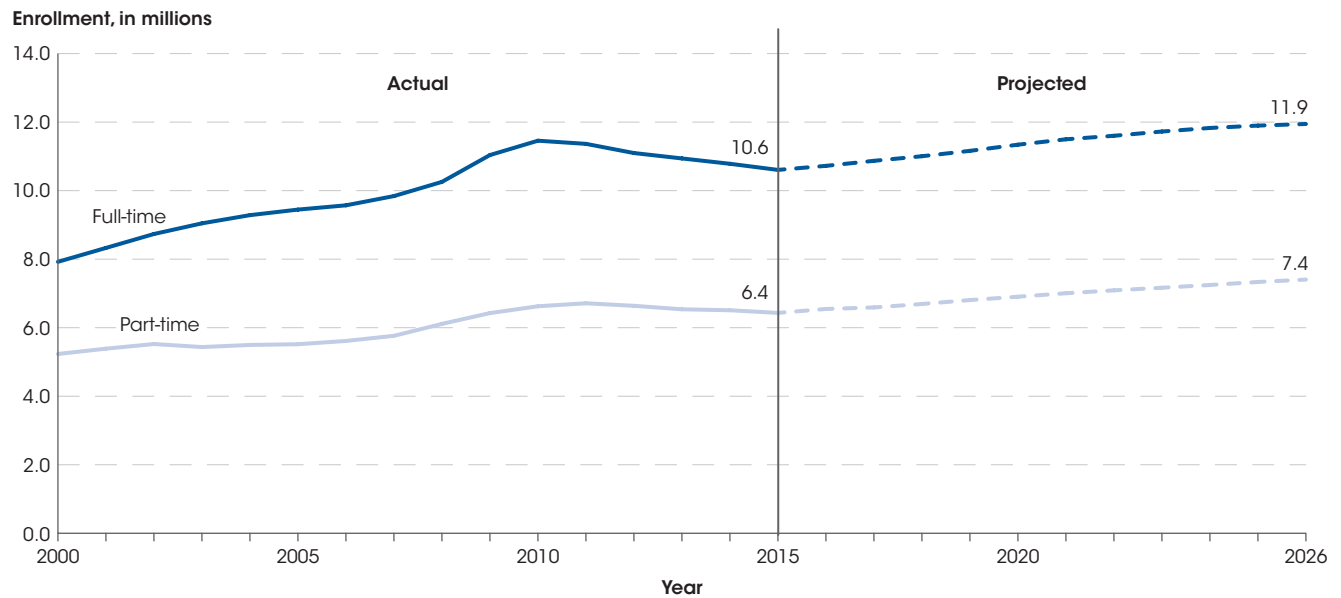
and male enrollment increased by 22 percent. However, between 2010 and 2015 both female and male enrollment decreased by 7 percent and 4 percent, respectively. Between 2015 and 2026, female enrollment is projected to increase by 16 percent (from 9.5 million to 11.0 million students), and male enrollment is projected to increase by 11 percent (from 7.5 million to 8.3 million students).

**Figure 2. Undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity: Fall 2000–2015**

NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2005*, table 205; *Digest of Education Statistics 2009*, table 226; *Digest of Education Statistics 2015* and *2016*, table 306.10.

Of the 17.0 million undergraduate students in fall 2015, some 9.3 million were White, 3.0 million were Hispanic, 2.3 million were Black, 1.1 million were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 132,000 were American Indian/Alaska Native. Between 2000 and 2015, Hispanic enrollment more than doubled (a 126 percent increase from 1.4 million to 3.0 million students). In contrast, enrollment for other racial/ethnic groups fluctuated during this period. Between 2000 and 2010, Black enrollment increased by 73 percent (from 1.5 million to 2.7 million students), Asian/Pacific Islander enrollment increased by 29 percent (from 846,000 to 1.1 million

students), American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment increased by 29 percent (from 139,000 to 179,000 students), and White enrollment increased by 21 percent (from 9.0 million to 10.9 million students). However, between 2010 and 2015, American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment decreased by 26 percent (from 179,000 to 132,000 students), White enrollment decreased by 15 percent (from 10.9 million to 9.3 million students), Black enrollment decreased by 14 percent (from 2.7 million to 2.3 million students), and Asian/Pacific Islander enrollment remained relatively unchanged (at 1.1 million students).

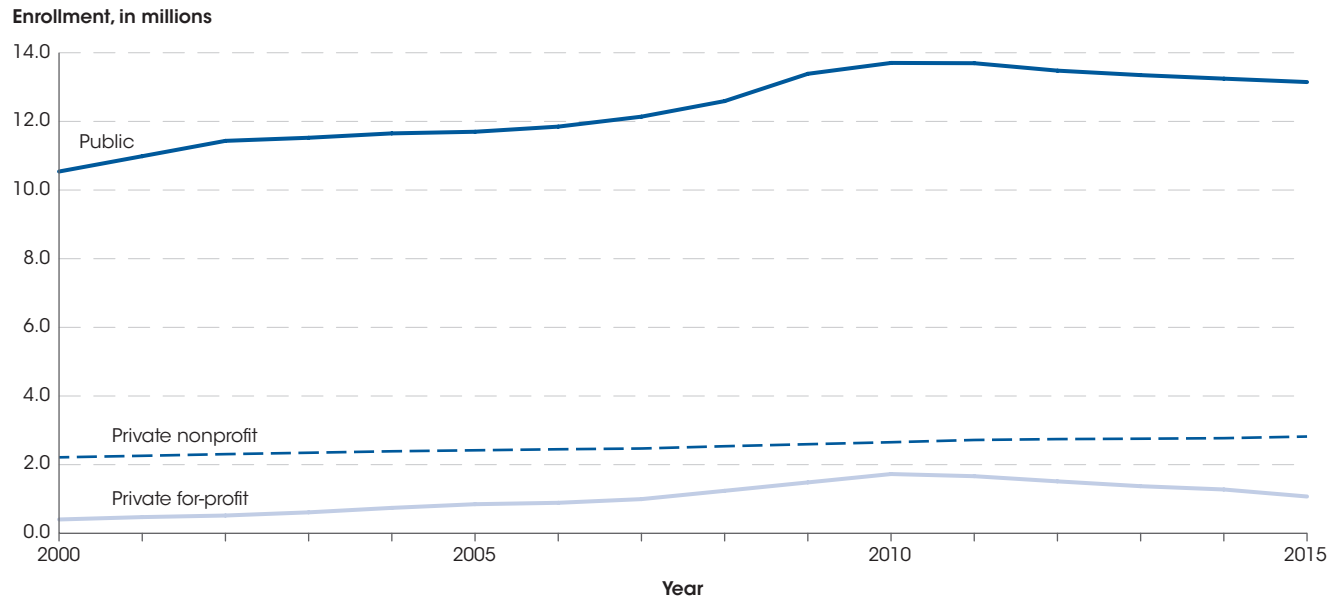
**Figure 3. Actual and projected undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by attendance status: Fall 2000–2026**

NOTE: Data include unclassified undergraduate students. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Projections are based on data through 2015. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component; and Enrollment in Degree-Granting Institutions Projection Model, 1980 through 2026. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.70.

In fall 2015, there were 10.6 million full-time and 6.4 million part-time undergraduate students. Enrollment for both full- and part-time students has generally increased since 2000, particularly between 2000 and 2010, when full-time enrollment increased by 45 percent and part-time enrollment increased by 27 percent. More recently, the pattern of enrollment has changed:

between 2010 and 2015, full-time enrollment decreased by 7 percent and part-time enrollment decreased by 3 percent. Between 2015 and 2026, full-time enrollment is projected to increase by 13 percent (from 10.6 million to 11.9 million students) and part-time enrollment is projected to increase by 15 percent (from 6.4 million to 7.4 million students).

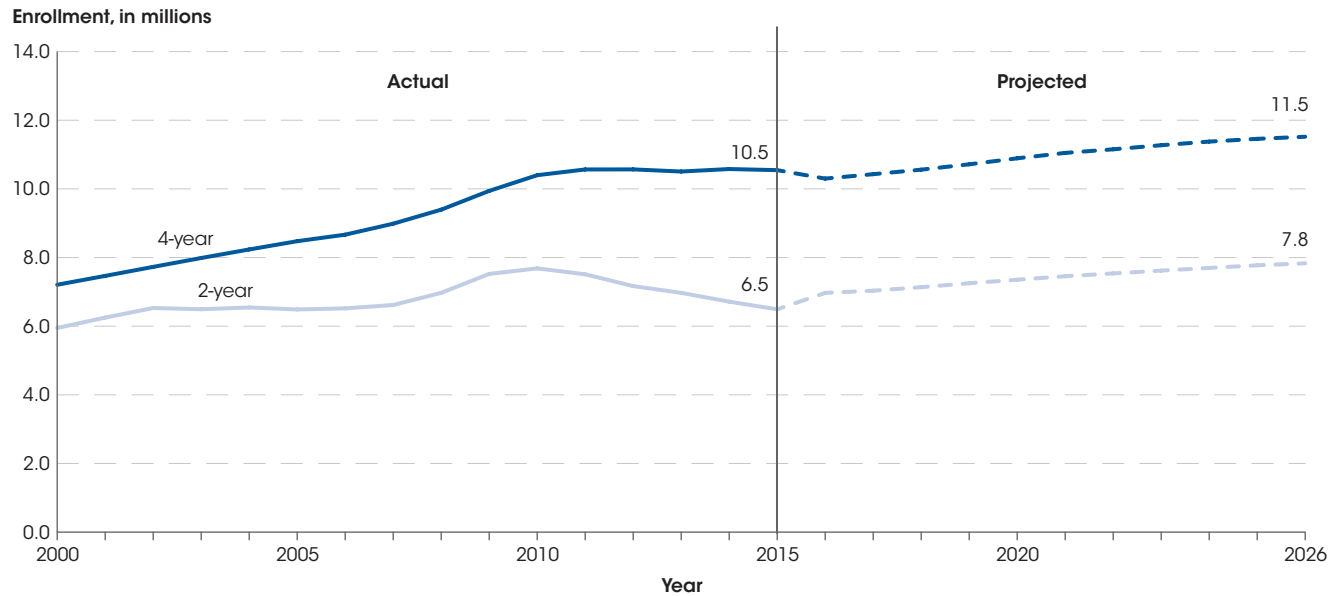


**Figure 4. Undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control of institution: Fall 2000–2015**

NOTE: Data include unclassified undergraduate students. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), IPEDS Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.70.

The increase in undergraduate enrollment from fall 2000 to fall 2015 occurred at a faster rate at private for-profit institutions (166 percent) than at public institutions (25 percent) and private nonprofit institutions (27 percent), although in 2000 undergraduate enrollment at private for-profit institutions was relatively small, at 403,000 students. From 2000 to 2010, enrollment at private for-profit institutions quadrupled from 403,000 to 1.7 million students. In comparison, enrollment increased by 30 percent at public institutions (from 10.5 million to 13.7 million students) and by 20 percent at private

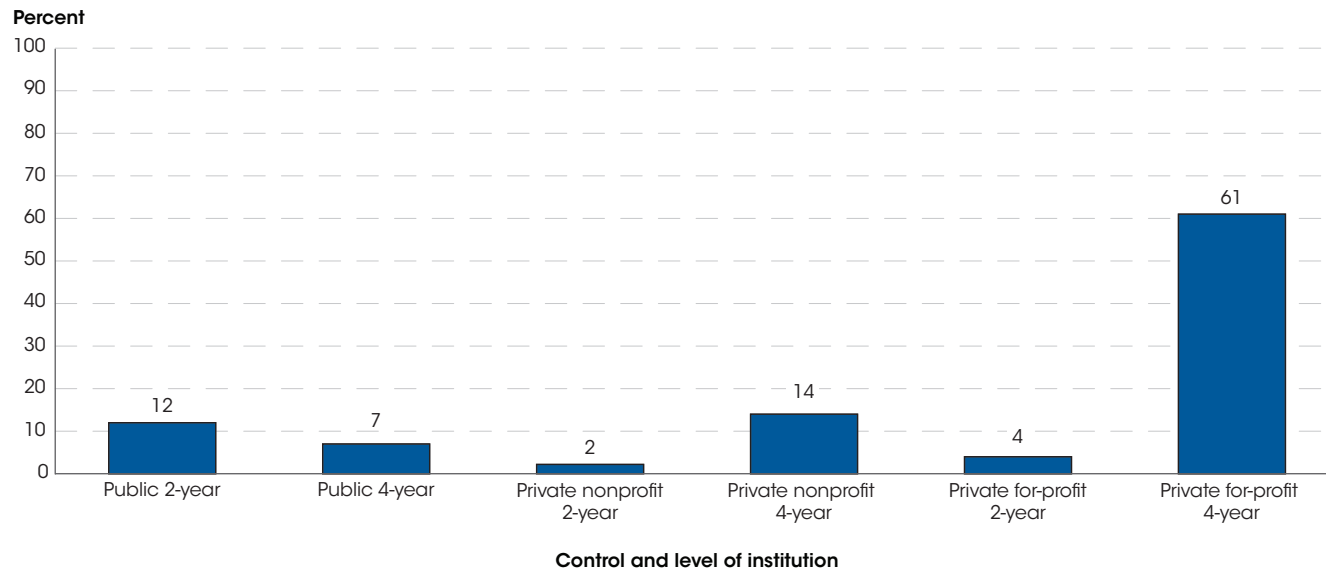
nonprofit institutions (from 2.2 million to 2.7 million students) during this period. More recently, the pattern of enrollment at private for-profit institutions has changed: after peaking in 2010, enrollment at private for-profit institutions decreased by 38 percent (from 1.7 million to 1.1 million students) between 2010 and 2015. In contrast, enrollment at public institutions decreased by 4 percent (from 13.7 million to 13.1 million students) during this period, while enrollment at private nonprofit institutions increased by 6 percent (from 2.7 million to 2.8 million students).

**Figure 5. Actual and projected undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by level of institution: Fall 2000–2026**

NOTE: Data include unclassified undergraduate students. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Projections are based on data through 2015. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), IPEDS Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component; and Enrollment in Degree-Granting Institutions Projection Model, 1980 through 2026. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.70.

In fall 2015, the 10.5 million students at 4-year institutions made up 62 percent of total undergraduate enrollment; the remaining 38 percent (6.5 million students) were enrolled at 2-year institutions. Between 2000 and 2010, enrollment increased by 44 percent at 4-year institutions and by 29 percent at 2-year institutions. More recently, enrollment patterns have changed: enrollment was 1 percent higher at 4-year institutions and 16 percent lower at 2-year institutions in 2015 than in 2010. Between 2010 and 2015, enrollment

patterns varied by control and level of institution. For example, undergraduate enrollment at private nonprofit 2-year institutions was 53 percent higher in 2015 than in 2010, whereas enrollment at private for-profit 2-year institutions was 48 percent lower in 2015 than in 2010. Between 2015 and 2026, undergraduate enrollment at 2-year institutions is projected to increase by 21 percent (from 6.5 million to 7.8 million students), while enrollment at 4-year institutions is projected to increase by 9 percent (from 10.5 million to 11.5 million students).

**Figure 6. Percentage of undergraduate students at degree-granting postsecondary institutions who enrolled exclusively in distance education courses, by control and level of institution: Fall 2015**

NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Distance education uses one or more technologies to deliver instruction to students who are separated from the instructor as well as to support regular and substantive interaction between the student and the instructor synchronously or asynchronously. Technologies used for instruction may include the following: the Internet; one-way and two-way transmissions through open broadcasts, closed circuit, cable, microwave, broadband lines, fiber optics, satellite, or wireless communication devices; audio conferencing; and videocassettes, DVDs, and CD-ROMs, only if the videocassettes, DVDs, and CD-ROMs are used in a course in conjunction with the technologies listed above.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 311.15.

Distance education<sup>1</sup> courses and programs provide students with flexible learning opportunities. In fall 2015, more than a quarter of undergraduate students (4.9 million) participated in distance education, with 2.1 million students, or 12 percent of total undergraduate enrollment, exclusively taking distance education courses. Of the 2.1 million undergraduate students who exclusively took distance education courses, 1.3 million were enrolled at institutions located in the same state in which they resided, and 767,000 were enrolled at institutions in a different state.

The percentage of undergraduate students enrolled exclusively in distance education courses differed by

institutional control. In fall 2015, the percentage of students at private for-profit institutions who exclusively took distance education courses (49 percent) was more than three times that of students at private nonprofit institutions (14 percent) and more than five times that of students at public institutions (9 percent). In particular, 61 percent of students at private for-profit 4-year institutions exclusively took distance education courses. This percentage is larger than the percentage of students at any other control and level of institution who exclusively took distance education courses. (Percentages at these institutions ranged from 2 percent at private nonprofit 2-year institutions to 14 percent at private nonprofit 4-year institutions.)

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Distance education uses one or more technologies to deliver instruction to students who are separated from the instructor as well as to support regular and substantive interaction between the student and the instructor synchronously or asynchronously. Technologies used for instruction may include the following: the Internet; one-way and two-way transmissions through open

broadcasts, closed circuit, cable, microwave, broadband lines, fiber optics, satellite, or wireless communication devices; audio conferencing; and videocassettes, DVDs, and CD-ROMs, only if the videocassettes, DVDs, and CD-ROMs are used in a course in conjunction with the technologies listed above.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 303.70, 306.10, and 311.15

**Related indicators and resources:** Postbaccalaureate Enrollment, Immediate Transition to College, College Enrollment Rates, Characteristics of Degree-Granting Postsecondary Institutions, Distance Education in Postsecondary Institutions [*web-only*], Community Colleges [*The Condition of Education 2008 Special Analysis*], Differences in Postsecondary Enrollment Among Recent High School Completers [*The Condition of Education 2016 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Control of institutions, Degree-granting institution, Distance education, Enrollment, Full-time enrollment, Part-time enrollment, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group, Undergraduate students

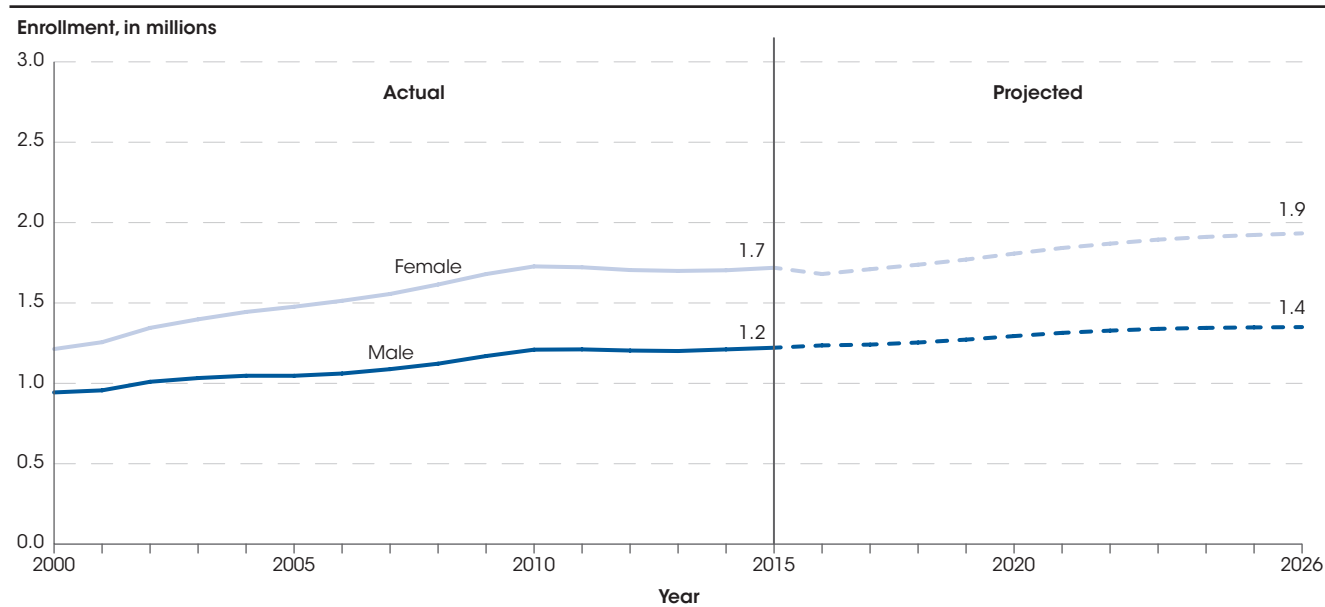
## Postbaccalaureate Enrollment

Total enrollment in postbaccalaureate degree programs was 2.9 million students in fall 2015. Between 2015 and 2026, postbaccalaureate enrollment is projected to increase by 12 percent (from 2.9 million to 3.3 million students).

In fall 2015, there were 2.9 million students enrolled in postbaccalaureate degree programs. Postbaccalaureate degree programs include master’s and doctoral programs, as well as programs such as law, medicine, and dentistry. Between 2000 and 2010, postbaccalaureate enrollment increased by 36 percent. More recently, between 2010 and

2015, postbaccalaureate enrollment has remained relatively unchanged since 2010, when enrollment was 2.9 million students. Between 2015 and 2026, postbaccalaureate enrollment is projected to increase by 12 percent (from 2.9 million to 3.3 million students).

Figure 1. Actual and projected postbaccalaureate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by sex: Fall 2000–2026

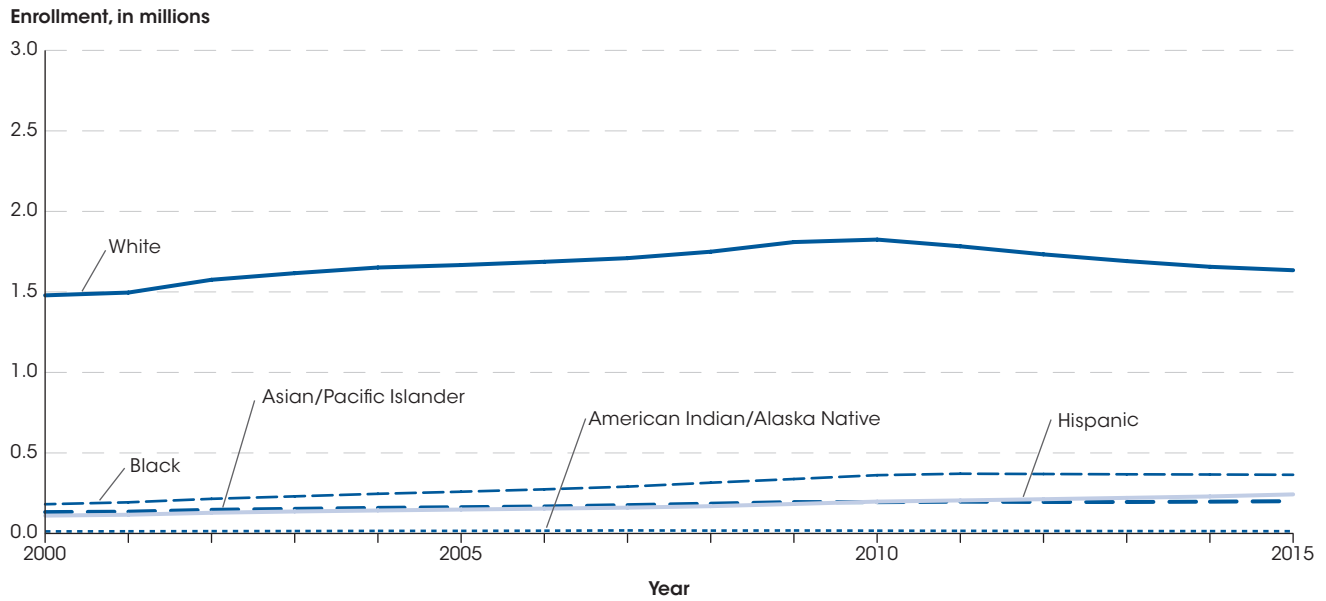


NOTE: Postbaccalaureate degree programs include master’s and doctoral programs, as well as programs such as law, medicine, and dentistry. Data include unclassified graduate students. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Projections are based on data through 2015. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component; and Enrollment in Degree-Granting Institutions Projection Model, 1980 through 2026. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.80.

In fall 2015, female students made up 58 percent of total postbaccalaureate enrollment at 1.7 million, and male students made up 42 percent at 1.2 million. Female enrollment has generally increased at a faster rate than male enrollment since 2000. For example, between 2000 and 2010, female enrollment increased by 42 percent, while male enrollment increased by 28 percent. However, more recently the pattern of postbaccalaureate enrollment

has changed: in 2015, male enrollment was 1 percent higher than in 2010, while female enrollment was less than one-half of 1 percent lower than in 2010. Between 2015 and 2026, female enrollment is projected to increase by 12 percent (from 1.7 million to 1.9 million students) and male enrollment is projected to increase by 11 percent (from 1.2 million to 1.4 million students).

Figure 2. Postbaccalaureate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity: Fall 2000–2015

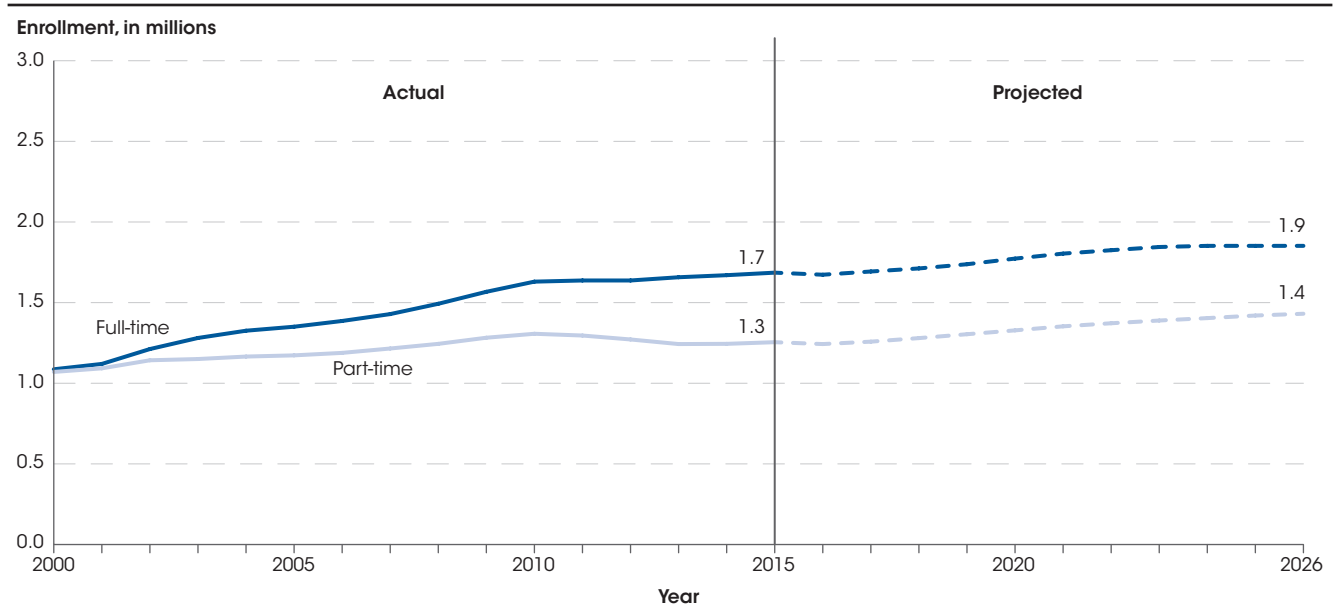


NOTE: Postbaccalaureate degree programs include master's and doctoral programs, as well as programs such as law, medicine, and dentistry. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), IPEDS Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2005*, table 205; *Digest of Education Statistics 2009*, table 226; *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 306.10; and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 306.10.

Of the 2.9 million postbaccalaureate students enrolled in fall 2015, some 1.6 million were White, 364,000 were Black, 243,000 were Hispanic, 200,000 were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 14,000 were American Indian/Alaska Native. Between 2000 and 2015, Hispanic enrollment more than doubled (a 119 percent increase, from 111,000 to 243,000 students). In contrast, enrollment for other racial/ethnic groups fluctuated during this period. Between 2000 and 2010, Black enrollment increased by 99 percent (from 181,000 to 362,000 students), Asian/Pacific Islander enrollment increased by 46 percent

(from 133,000 to 194,000 students), American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment increased by 36 percent (from 13,000 to 17,000 students), and White enrollment increased by 23 percent (from 1.5 million to 1.8 million students). However, after peaking in 2010, White enrollment decreased by 10 percent (from 1.8 million to 1.6 million students) between 2010 and 2015. American Indian/Alaska Native enrollment was 19 percent lower in 2015 than in 2010, while Asian/Pacific Islander and Black enrollments were slightly higher (3 percent and 1 percent, respectively).

**Figure 3. Actual and projected postbaccalaureate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by attendance status: Fall 2000–2026**

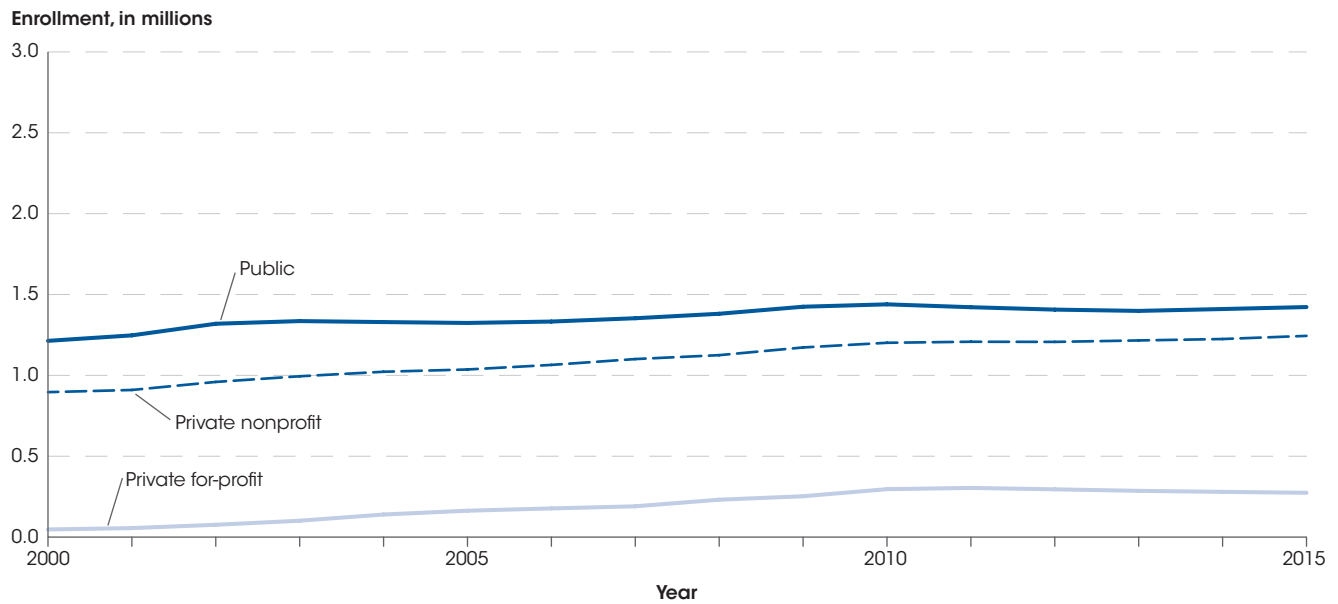


NOTE: Postbaccalaureate degree programs include master’s and doctoral programs, as well as programs such as law, medicine, and dentistry. Data include unclassified graduate students. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Projections are based on data through 2015. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), IPEDS Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component; and Enrollment in Degree-Granting Institutions Projection Model, 1980 through 2026. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.80.

In fall 2015, there were 1.7 million full-time postbaccalaureate students and 1.3 million part-time postbaccalaureate students. Between 2000 and 2015, full-time enrollment increased at a faster rate (55 percent) than part-time enrollment (17 percent). Between 2000 and 2010, full-time enrollment increased by 50 percent,

while part-time enrollment increased by 22 percent. More recently, between 2010 and 2015, full-time enrollment increased by 3 percent, but part-time enrollment decreased by 4 percent. Between 2015 and 2026, however, part-time enrollment is projected to increase at a faster rate (14 percent) than full-time enrollment (10 percent).

**Figure 4. Postbaccalaureate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control of institution: Fall 2000–2015**

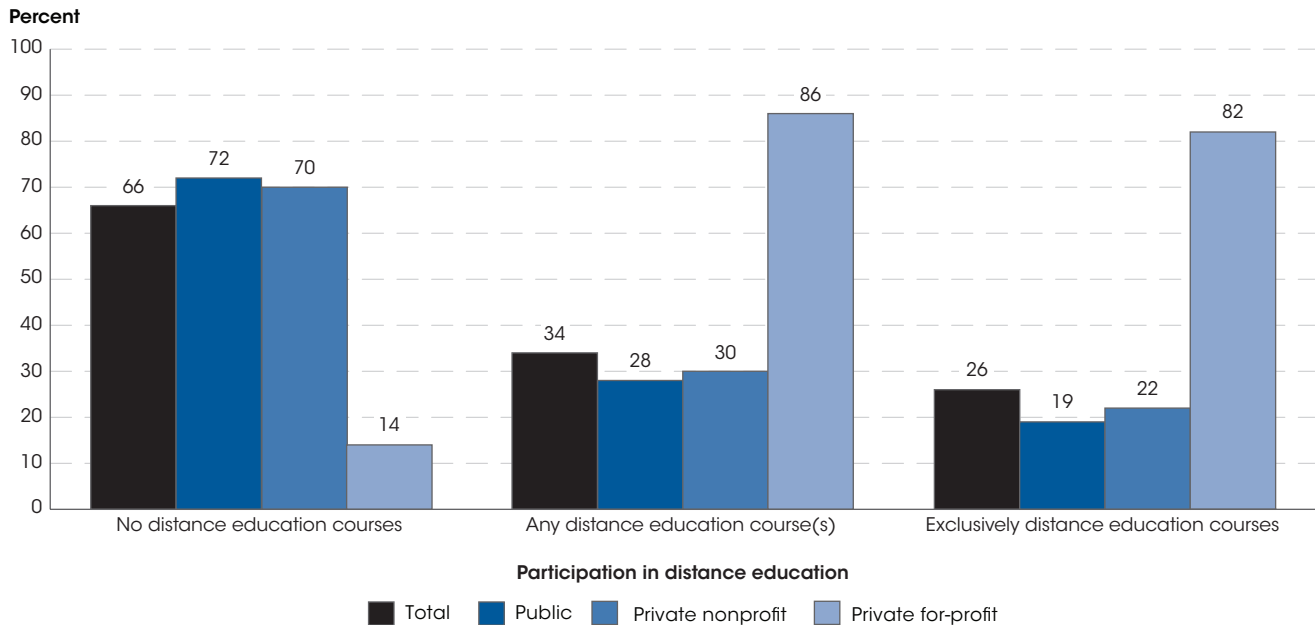


NOTE: Postbaccalaureate degree programs include master’s and doctoral programs, as well as programs such as law, medicine, and dentistry. Data include unclassified graduate students. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2001 through Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.80.

From fall 2000 to fall 2015, postbaccalaureate enrollment grew at a faster rate at private for-profit institutions (480 percent) than at private nonprofit institutions (39 percent) and public institutions (17 percent), although in 2000 postbaccalaureate enrollment at private for-profit institutions was relatively small, at 47,000 students. Between 2000 and 2010, postbaccalaureate enrollment increased by 528 percent at private for-profit institutions,

while enrollment increased by 34 percent at private nonprofit institutions and by 19 percent at public institutions. More recently, between 2010 and 2015, enrollment at private for-profit institutions decreased by 8 percent, while enrollment at private nonprofit institutions increased by 4 percent. Enrollment at public institutions remained relatively unchanged during this period.

**Figure 5. Percentage of postbaccalaureate students enrolled in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by participation in distance education and control of institution: Fall 2015**



NOTE: Postbaccalaureate degree programs include master’s and doctoral programs, as well as programs such as law, medicine, and dentistry. Distance education uses one or more technologies to deliver instruction to students who are separated from the instructor as well as to support regular and substantive interaction between the student and the instructor synchronously or asynchronously. Technologies used for instruction may include the following: the Internet; one-way and two-way transmissions through open broadcasts, closed circuit, cable, microwave, broadband lines, fiber optics, satellite, or wireless communication devices; audio conferencing; and videocassettes, DVDs, and CD-ROMs, only if the videocassettes, DVDs, and CD-ROMs are used in a course in conjunction with the technologies listed above. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 311.15.

Distance education<sup>1</sup> courses and programs provide flexible learning opportunities to postbaccalaureate students. In fall 2015, more than one-third of total postbaccalaureate students (1.0 million) participated in distance education, with 769,000 students, or 26 percent of total postbaccalaureate enrollment, exclusively taking distance education courses.<sup>2</sup> Of the 769,000 students who exclusively took distance education courses, 322,000 were enrolled at institutions located in the same state in which they resided, and 414,000 were enrolled at institutions in a different state.

The percentage of postbaccalaureate students enrolled exclusively in distance education courses differed by institutional control. In fall 2015, the percentage of students at private for-profit institutions who exclusively took distance education courses (82 percent) was higher than that of students at private nonprofit (22 percent) and public (19 percent) institutions. The percentage of students who did not take any distance education courses was about five times higher for those enrolled at public (72 percent) and private nonprofit (70 percent) institutions than for those at private for-profit institutions (14 percent).

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Distance education uses one or more technologies to deliver instruction to students who are separated from the instructor as well as to support regular and substantive interaction between the student and the instructor synchronously or asynchronously. Technologies used for instruction may include the following: the Internet; one-way and two-way transmissions through open broadcasts, closed circuit, cable, microwave, broadband lines,

fiber optics, satellite, or wireless communication devices; audio conferencing; and videocassettes, DVDs, and CD-ROMs, only if the videocassettes, DVDs, and CD-ROMs are used in a course in conjunction with the technologies listed above.

<sup>2</sup> In comparison, 12 percent of undergraduate students exclusively took distance education courses. See indicator on [Undergraduate Enrollment](#).

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 303.80, 306.10, and 311.15

**Related indicators and resources:** Undergraduate Enrollment, Characteristics of Degree-Granting Postsecondary Institutions, Distance Education in Postsecondary Institutions [*web-only*]

**Glossary:** Control of institutions, Distance education, Enrollment, Full-time enrollment, Part-time enrollment, Postbaccalaureate enrollment, Private institution, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group



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The indicators in this chapter of *The Condition of Education* measure aspects of elementary and secondary education in the United States. The indicators examine school characteristics and climate; principals, teachers and staff; elementary and secondary financial resources; student assessments; and other measures of student progress through the education system, such as graduation rates.

In this chapter, particular attention is given to how various subgroups in the population proceed through school and attain different levels of education, as well as the factors that are associated with their progress along the way. The indicators on student achievement illustrate how students are performing on assessments in reading, mathematics, science, and other academic subject areas. Other indicators describe the context of learning in elementary and secondary schools.

This chapter's indicators, as well as additional indicators on elementary and secondary education, are available at *The Condition of Education* website: <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe>.



# Chapter 3

## Elementary and Secondary Education

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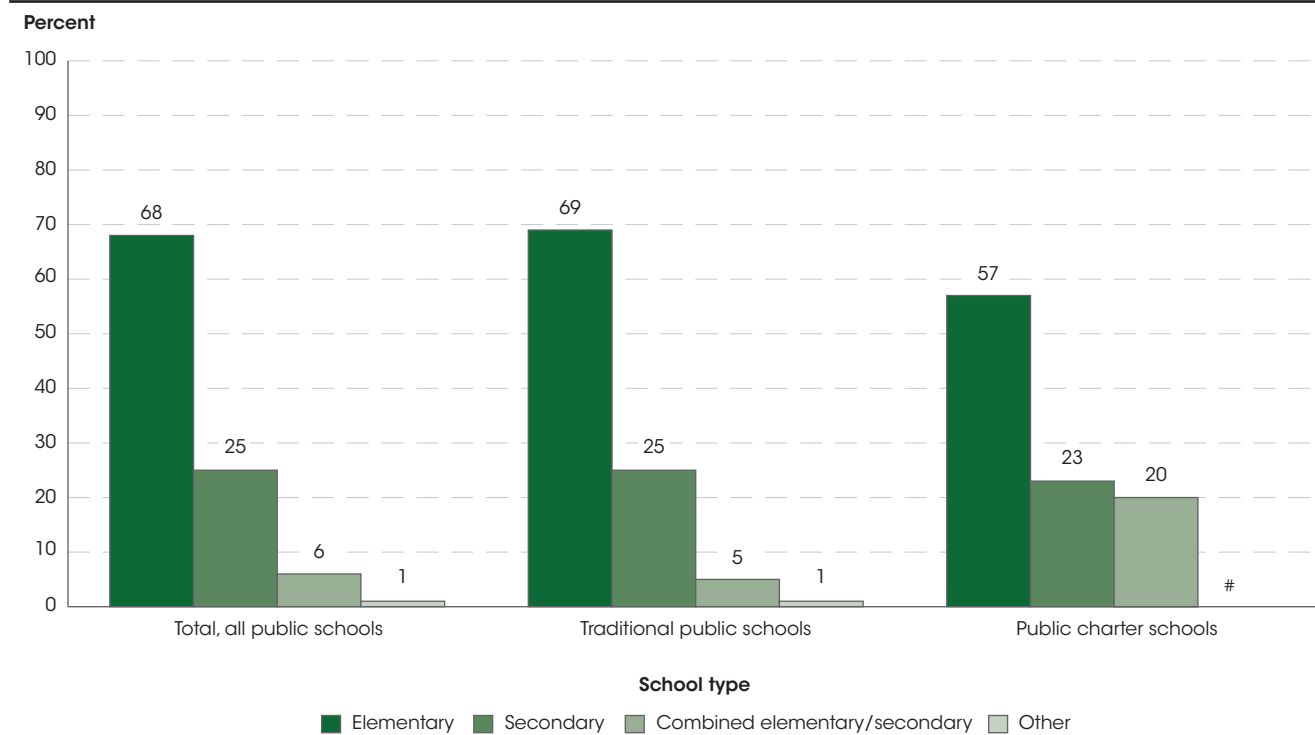
## Characteristics of Traditional Public Schools and Public Charter Schools

*High-poverty schools, in which more than 75 percent of students qualify for free or reduced-price lunch under the National School Lunch Program, accounted for 25 percent of all public schools in 2014–15. In that year, 24 percent of traditional public schools were high-poverty compared with 36 percent of public charter schools.*

In school year 2014–15, there were 98,180 public schools in the United States, including 91,430 traditional public schools and 6,750 public charter schools. The total number of public schools was higher in 2014–15 than in 2004–05, when there was a total of 96,510 public schools, which included 93,110 traditional public schools and 3,400 public charter schools. Between school years

2004–05 and 2014–15, the percentage of all public schools that were traditional public schools decreased from 96 to 93 percent, while the percentage that were charter schools increased from 4 to 7 percent. See indicator [Public Charter School Enrollment](#) for additional information about charter schools and charter school legislation.

**Figure 1. Percentage distribution of traditional public schools and public charter schools, by school level: School year 2014–15**



# Rounds to zero.

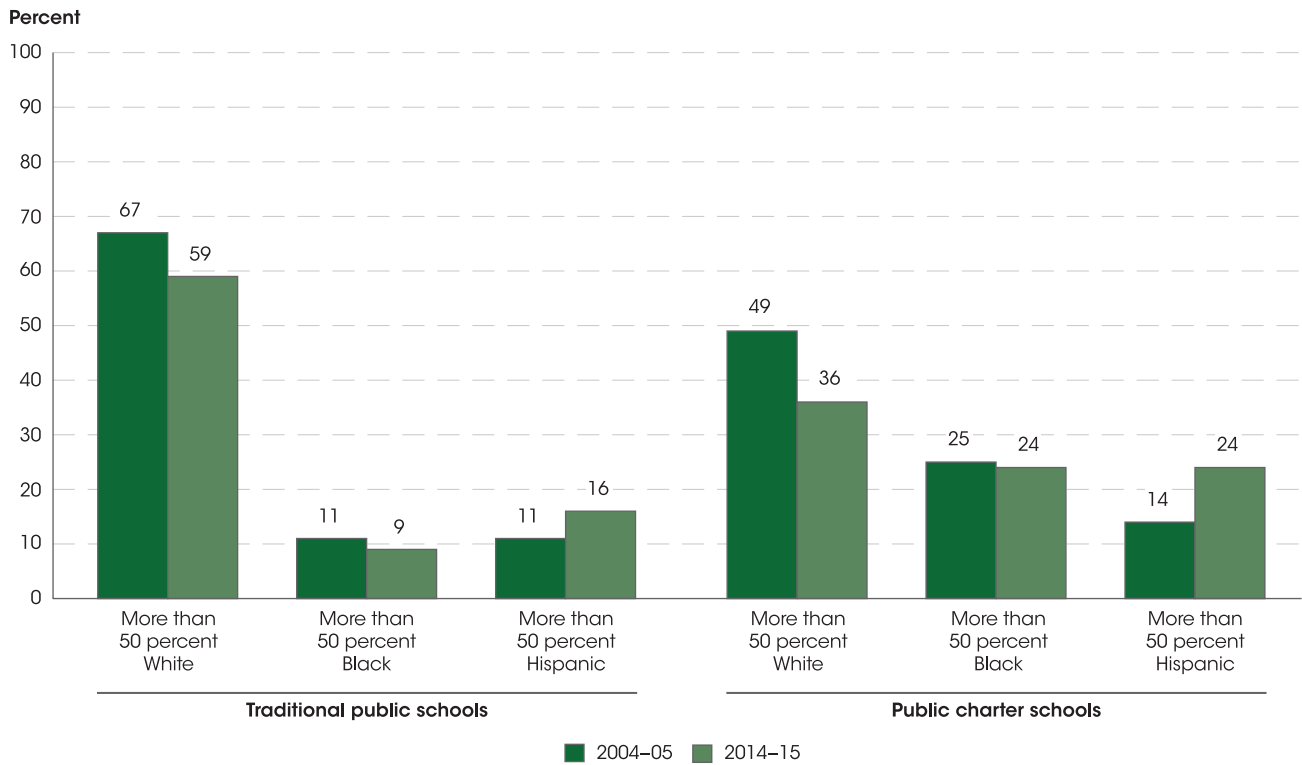
NOTE: "Elementary" includes schools beginning with grade 6 or below and with no grade higher than 8. "Secondary" includes schools with no grade lower than 7. "Combined elementary/secondary" includes schools beginning with grade 6 or below and ending with grade 9 or above. "Other" includes schools not classified by grade span. Detail may not sum to 100 percent because of rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.30.

Over two-thirds of traditional public schools (69 percent) were elementary schools in school year 2014–15 versus 57 percent of public charter schools. The percentages of traditional public and public charter schools that were secondary schools were similar at 25 and 23 percent,

respectively. By contrast, 5 percent of traditional public schools in 2014–15 were combined elementary/secondary schools<sup>1</sup> compared with 20 percent of public charter schools.

**Figure 2. Percentage of traditional public schools and public charter schools, by racial/ethnic concentration: School years 2004–05 and 2014–15**

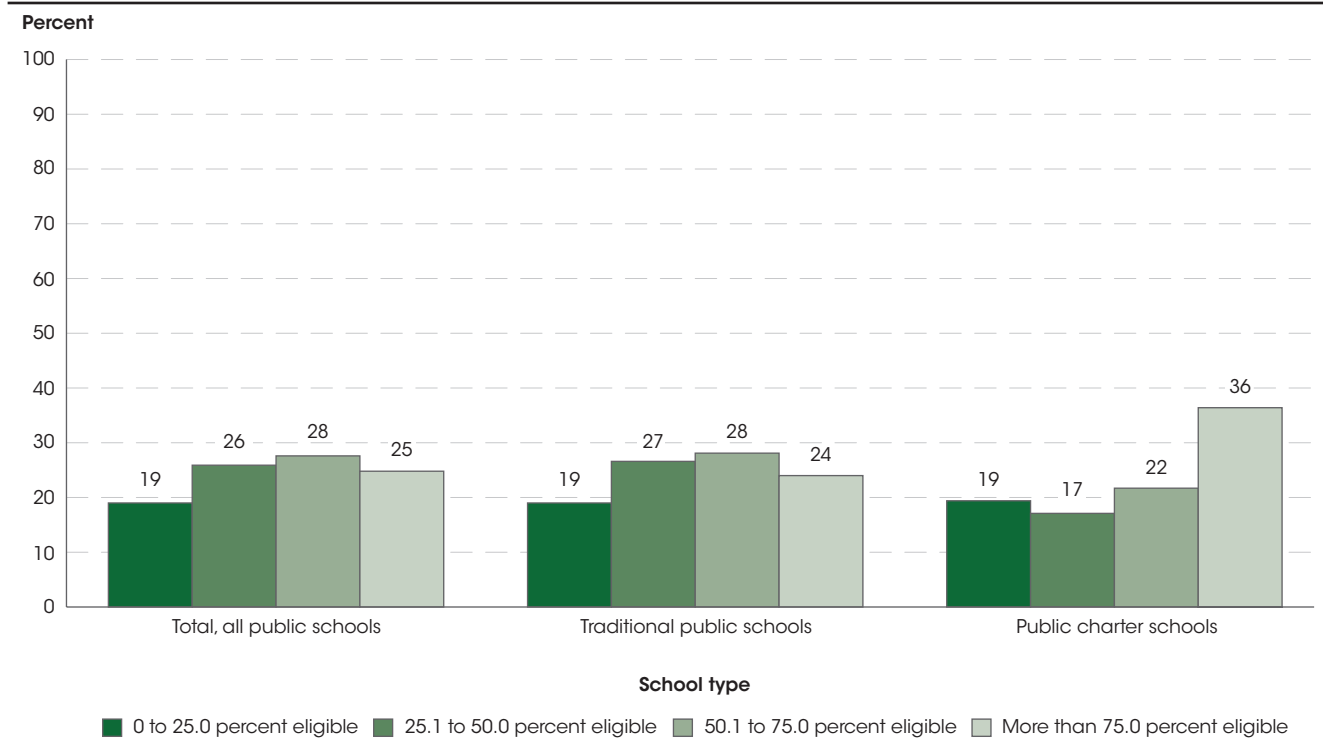


NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2004–05 and 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.30.

In school year 2014–15, in 59 percent of traditional public schools more than half of students were White. In 9 percent of traditional public schools more than half of students were Black and in 16 percent more than half of students were Hispanic. In comparison, 36 percent of charter schools had more than 50 percent White enrollment, 24 percent had more than 50 percent Black enrollment, and 24 percent had more than 50 percent Hispanic enrollment. For both traditional public and public charter schools, the percentages of schools that had more than 50 percent White enrollment or more than

50 percent Black enrollment were lower in 2014–15 than in 2004–05, while the percentage of schools that had more than 50 percent Hispanic enrollment was higher in 2014–15 than in 2004–05. These shifts reflect, in part, general changes in student demographics. Between 2004 and 2014, the percentage of children ages 5 to 17 who were White decreased from 59 to 53 percent, the percentage who were Black decreased from 15 to 14 percent, and the percentage who were Hispanic increased from 18 to 24 percent (see *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 101.20).

**Figure 3. Percentage of traditional public schools and public charter schools, by percentage of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunch: School year 2014–15**

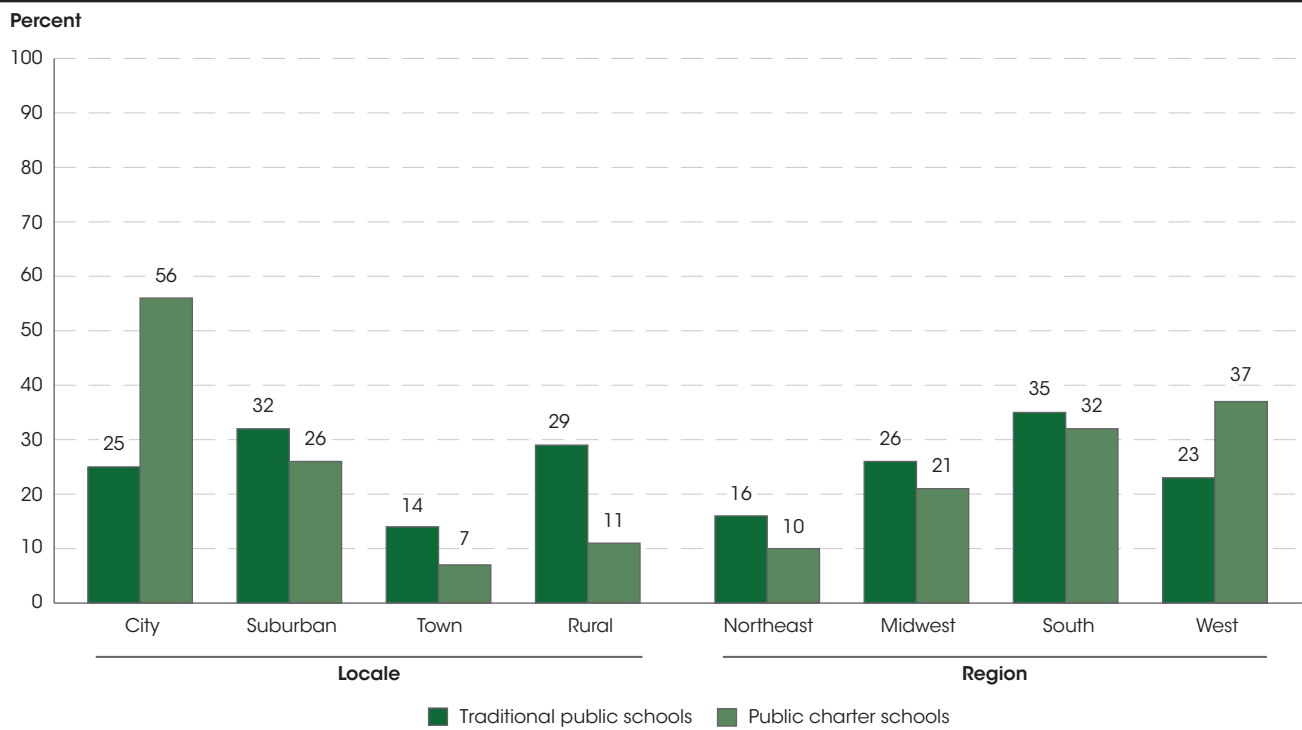


NOTE: The National School Lunch Program is a federally assisted meal program. To be eligible for free lunch under the program, a student must be from a household with an income at or below 130 percent of the poverty threshold; to be eligible for reduced-price lunch, a student must be from a household with an income between 130 percent and 185 percent of the poverty threshold. The category “missing/school does not participate” is not included in this figure; thus, the sum of the free or reduced-price lunch eligible categories does not equal 100 percent.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), “Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey,” 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.30.

High-poverty schools, in which more than 75 percent of students qualify for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) under the National School Lunch Program, accounted for 25 percent of all public schools in 2014–15. In that year, 24 percent of traditional public schools were high-

poverty compared with 36 percent of public charter schools. In contrast, low-poverty schools, in which less than 25 percent of students qualify for FRPL, accounted for 19 percent of all public schools, as well as of traditional public schools and public charter schools, in 2014–15.

**Figure 4. Percentage distribution of traditional public schools and public charter schools, by school locale and region: School year 2014–15**



NOTE: Detail may not sum to totals due to rounding.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.30.

In school year 2014–15, a higher percentage of public charter schools were located in cities and a smaller percentage were located in all other locales compared to traditional public schools. During this school year, 56 percent of public charter schools were located in cities compared to 25 percent of traditional public schools. In contrast, 11 percent of public charter schools were in rural areas compared to 29 percent of traditional public schools.

public schools in the region in school year 2014–15, while the percentages of public charter schools located in all other regions were lower than the percentages of traditional public schools. About 23 percent of traditional public schools were located in the West compared with 37 percent of public charter schools. In contrast, 16 percent of traditional public schools were located in the Northeast compared with 10 percent of public charter schools.

The percentage of public charter schools located in the West was higher than the percentage of traditional

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Combined elementary/secondary schools are schools beginning with grade 6 or below and ending with grade 9 or above.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 101.20; *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 216.20 and 216.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Elementary and Secondary Enrollment, Public Charter School Enrollment, Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Public Schools, Concentration of Public School Students Eligible for Free or Reduced-Price Lunch

**Glossary:** Combined school, Elementary school, Enrollment, Free or reduced-price lunch, Geographic region, Locale codes, National School Lunch Program, Private school, Public charter school, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group, Secondary school, Traditional public school

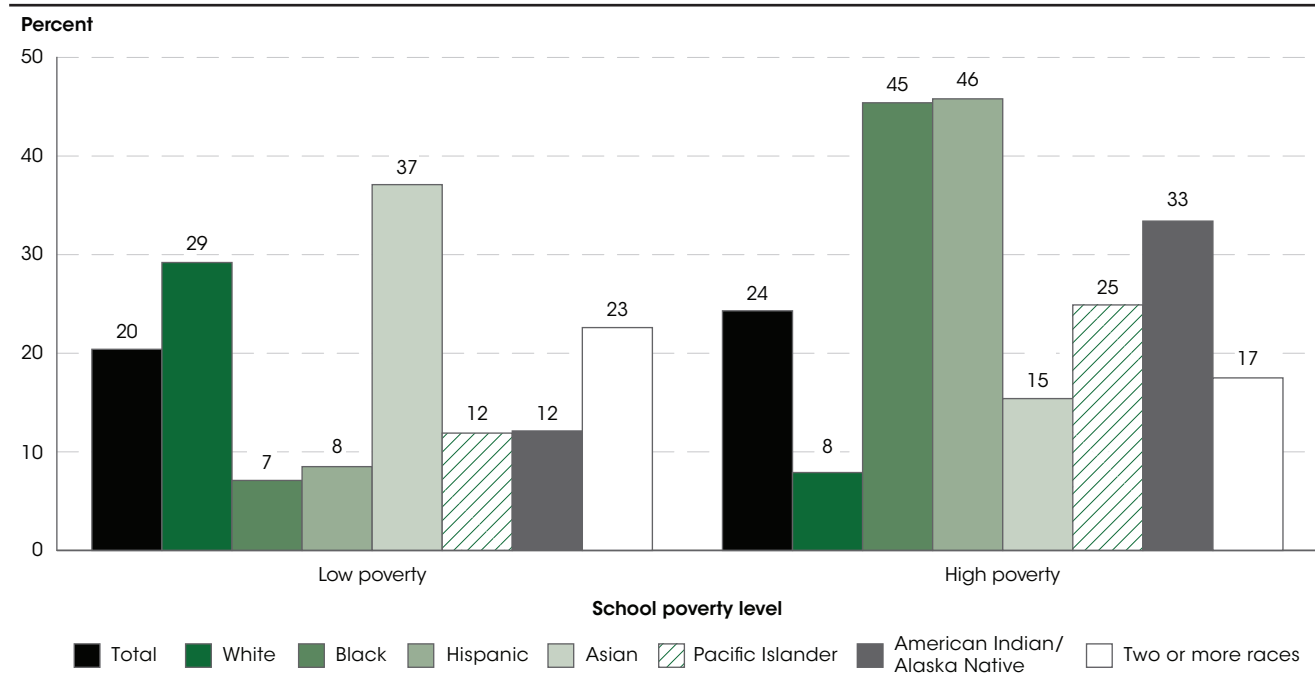
## Concentration of Public School Students Eligible for Free or Reduced-Price Lunch

*In school year 2014–15, nearly half of Hispanic and Black public school students, one-third of American Indian/Alaska Native students, and one-quarter of Pacific Islander students attended high-poverty schools. In contrast, 17 percent of students of Two or more races, 15 percent of Asian students, and 8 percent of White students attended high-poverty schools.*

The percentage of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) under the National School Lunch Program provides a proxy measure for the concentration of low-income students within a school.<sup>1</sup> In this indicator, public schools (including both traditional and charter) are divided into categories by FRPL eligibility. High-poverty schools are defined as public schools where more than 75.0 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-high poverty schools as those where

50.1 to 75.0 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL. Low-poverty schools are defined as public schools where 25.0 percent or less of the students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-low poverty schools as those where 25.1 to 50.0 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL. In school year 2014–15, some 20 percent of public school students attended low-poverty schools, and 24 percent of public school students attended high-poverty schools.

**Figure 1. Percentage of public school students in low-poverty and high-poverty schools, by race/ethnicity: School year 2014–15**



NOTE: High-poverty schools are defined as public schools where more than 75.0 percent of the students are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL), and low-poverty schools are defined as public schools where 25.0 percent or less of the students are eligible for FRPL. For more information on eligibility for FRPL and its relationship to poverty, see NCES blog post “Free or reduced price lunch: A proxy for poverty?” Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), “Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey,” 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.60.

While the overall percentages of public school students in low- and high-poverty schools were similar (20 and 24 percent, respectively), they varied by race/ethnicity. In school year 2014–15, the percentages of Asian students (37 percent), White students (29 percent), and students of

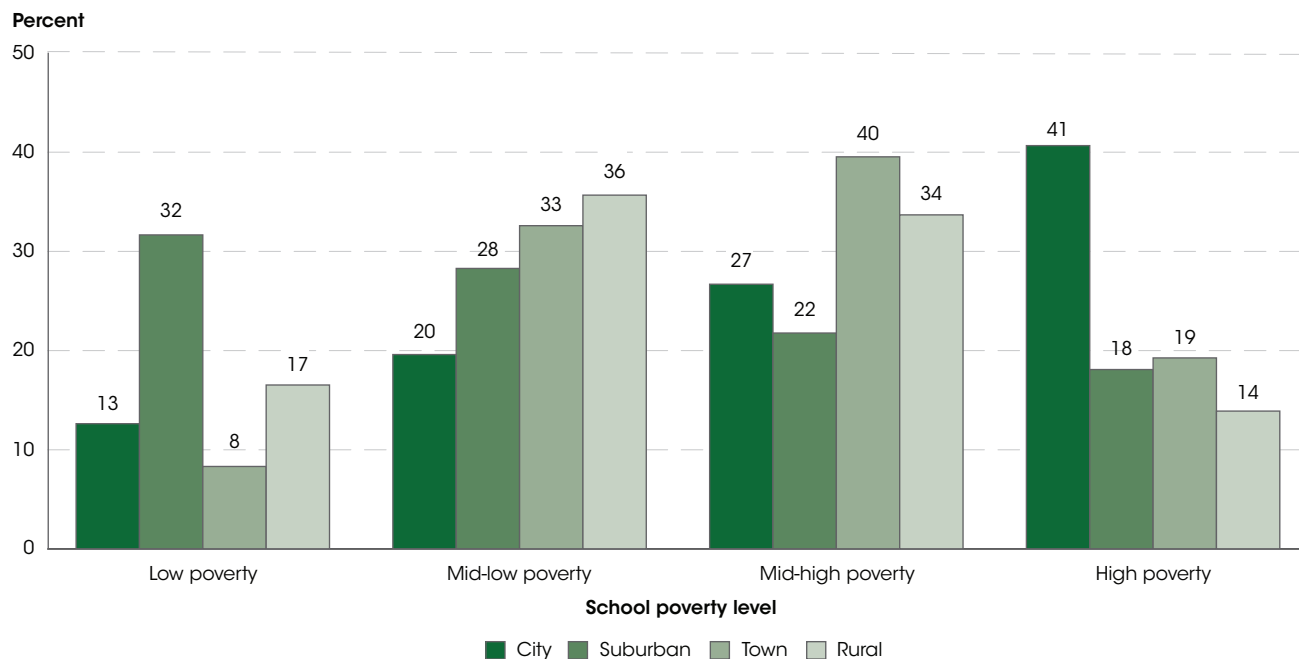
Two or more races (23 percent) who attended low-poverty schools were higher than the national average (20 percent), while the percentages of American Indian/Alaska Native (12 percent), Pacific Islander (12 percent), Hispanic (8 percent), and Black (7 percent) students who attended



low-poverty schools were lower than the national average. In contrast, the percentages of Hispanic (46 percent), Black (45 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (33 percent), and Pacific Islander students (25 percent) who attended high-poverty schools were higher than the

national average (24 percent), while the percentages of students of Two or more races (17 percent), Asian students (15 percent), and White students (8 percent) who attended high-poverty schools were lower than the national average.

**Figure 2. Percentage of public school students, by school poverty level and school locale: School year 2014-15**



NOTE: This figure does not include schools for which information on free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) is missing or schools that did not participate in the National School Lunch Program (NSLP). High-poverty schools are defined as public schools where more than 75.0 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-high poverty schools are those schools where 50.1 to 75.0 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL. Low-poverty schools are defined as public schools where 25.0 percent or less of the students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-low poverty schools are those schools where 25.1 to 50.0 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL. For more information on eligibility for FRPL and its relationship to poverty, see NCES blog post "[Free or reduced price lunch: A proxy for poverty?](#)" Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," 2014-15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.60.

The distribution of public schools at different poverty concentrations varied by school locale (i.e., city, suburb, town, or rural). In school year 2014-15, a majority of students attending city (67 percent) and town (59 percent) schools were in a high-poverty or mid-high poverty school while a majority of students attending suburban (60 percent) and rural (52 percent) schools were in a low-poverty or mid-low poverty school. Some 41 percent of students attending city schools were in a high-poverty school, compared with 19 percent of students attending town schools, 18 percent of students attending

suburban schools, and 14 percent of students attending rural schools. In contrast, the percentage of students attending suburban schools who were in a low-poverty school (32 percent) was about four times as large as the corresponding percentage of students attending town schools (8 percent). The percentage of students attending suburban schools who were in a low-poverty school was also higher than the percentages of students attending city and rural schools who were in a low-poverty school (13 and 17 percent, respectively).

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> For more information on eligibility for free or reduced-price lunch and its relationship to poverty, see NCES blog post "[Free or reduced price lunch: A proxy for poverty?](#)"

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 216.60

**Related indicators and resources:** Characteristics of Children's Families, Characteristics of Traditional Public Schools and Public Charter Schools, Reading Performance, Mathematics Performance, Science Performance, Technology and Engineering Literacy

**Glossary:** Free or reduced-price lunch, Locale codes, National School Lunch Program, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group

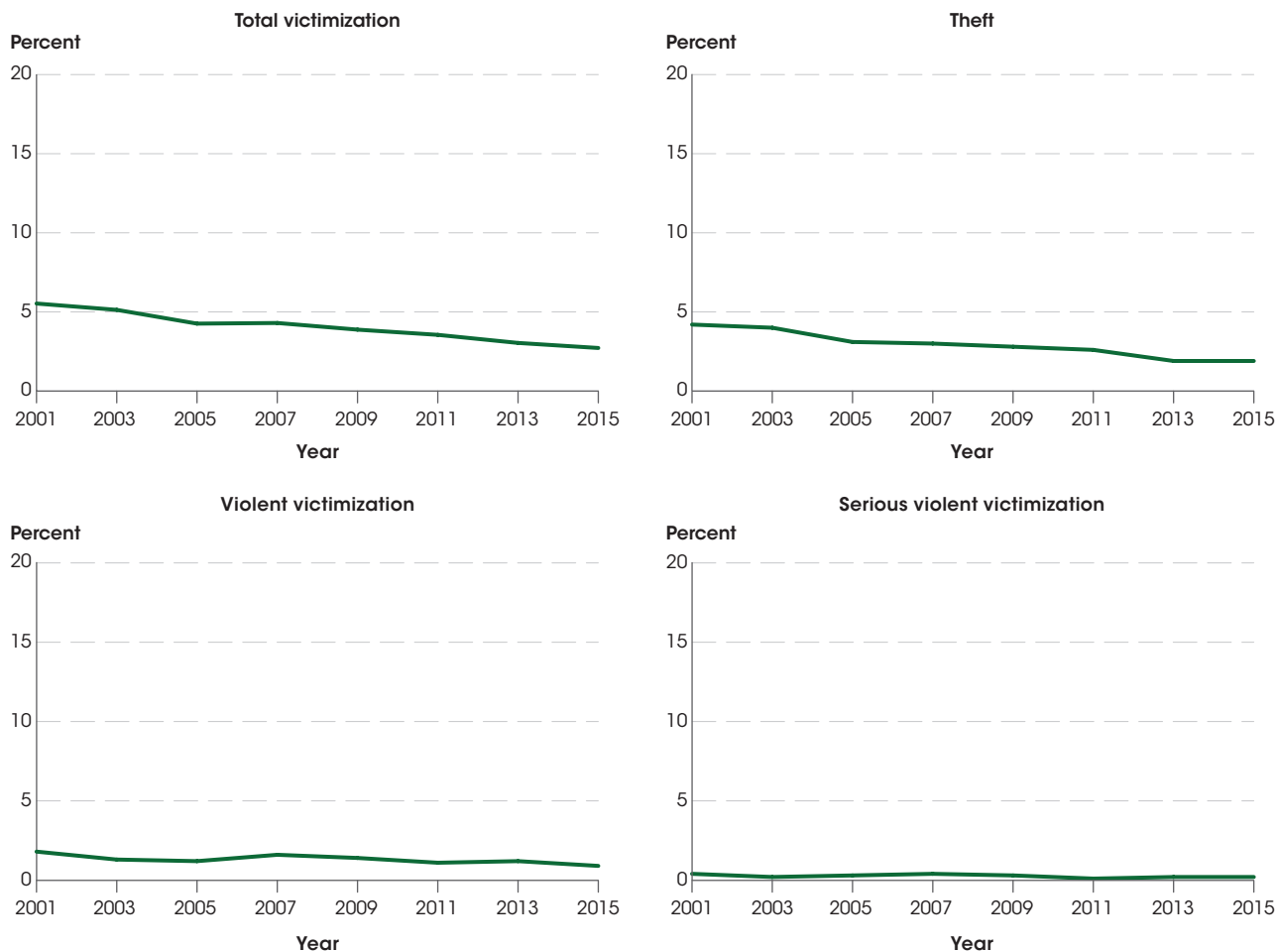
## School Crime and Safety

*Between 2001 and 2015, the percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported being victimized at school during the previous 6 months decreased overall (from 6 to 3 percent), as did the percentages of students who reported theft (from 4 to 2 percent) and violent victimization (from 2 to 1 percent).*

Responses to questions on the National Crime Victimization Survey combined with demographic data from the School Crime Supplement (SCS) provide information on the prevalence of victimization at school for students ages 12–18. In 2015, approximately 3 percent of students ages 12–18 reported being victimized at school<sup>1</sup> during the previous 6 months. About 2 percent

of students reported theft,<sup>2</sup> 1 percent reported violent victimization, and less than one-half of 1 percent reported serious violent victimization. Serious violent victimization includes rape, sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated assault; violent victimization includes serious violent victimization as well as simple assault.

**Figure 1. Percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported criminal victimization at school during the previous 6 months, by type of victimization: Selected years, 2001 through 2015**



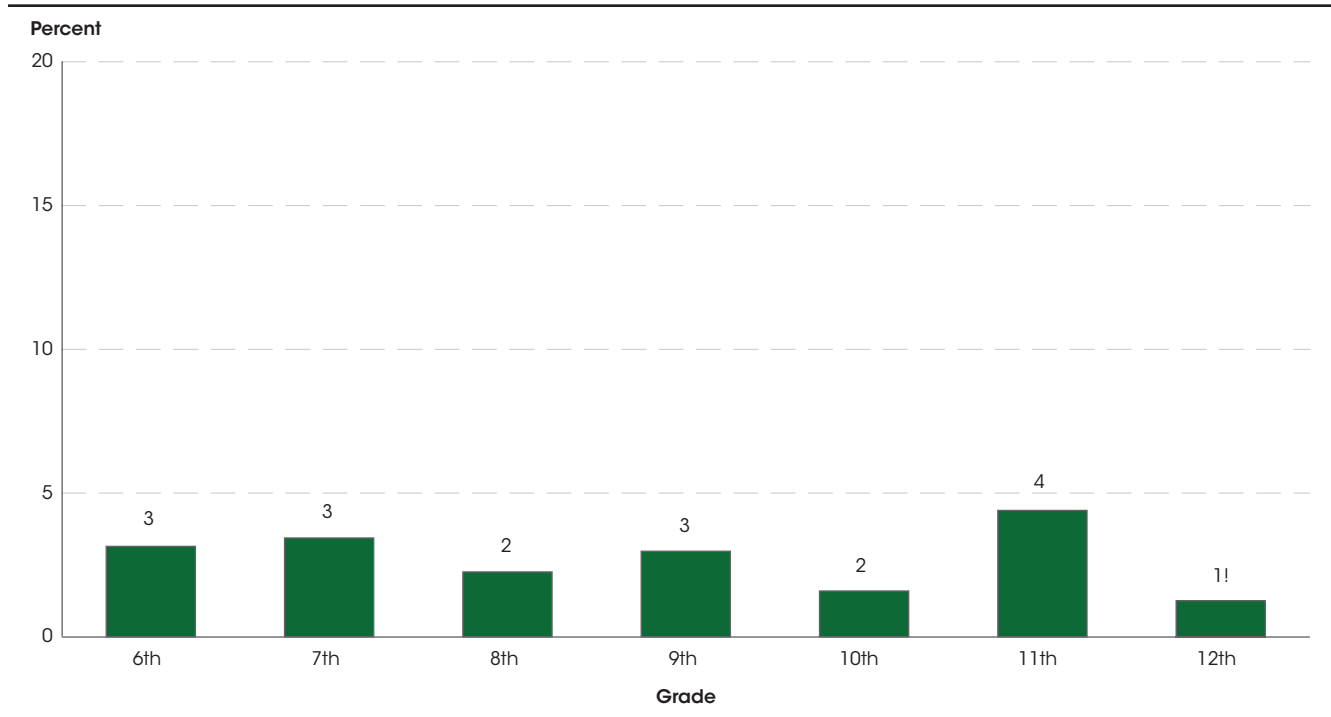
NOTE: "Total victimization" includes theft and violent crimes. "Theft" includes attempted and completed purse-snatching, completed pickpocketing, and all attempted and completed thefts, with the exception of motor vehicle thefts. "Theft" does not include robbery, which involves the threat or use of force and is classified as a serious violent crime. "Violent victimization" includes serious violent victimization as well as simple assault. "Serious violent victimization" includes the crimes of rape, sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated assault. "At school" includes inside the school building, on school property, and on the way to or from school.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, School Crime Supplement (SCS) to the National Crime Victimization Survey, 2001 through 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 228.30.

Between 2001 and 2015, the percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported being victimized at school during the previous 6 months decreased overall (from 6 to 3 percent), as did the percentages of students who reported theft (from 4 to 2 percent) and violent victimization (from 2 to 1 percent). While there was no pattern of decline in the percentage of serious violent victimizations, the percentage in 2015 was lower than in 2001 (0.2 vs. 0.4 percent).

The percentage of students who reported being victimized at school decreased between 2001 and 2015 for both male (from 6 to 3 percent) and female students (from 5 to 3 percent), as well as for White (from 6 to 3 percent), Black (from 6 to 2 percent), and Hispanic students (from 5 to 2 percent). In addition, the percentage of students who reported being victimized decreased between 2001 and 2015 for most grades from 6 through 12, with the exception of grade 11.

**Figure 2. Percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported victimization at school during the previous 6 months, by grade: 2015**



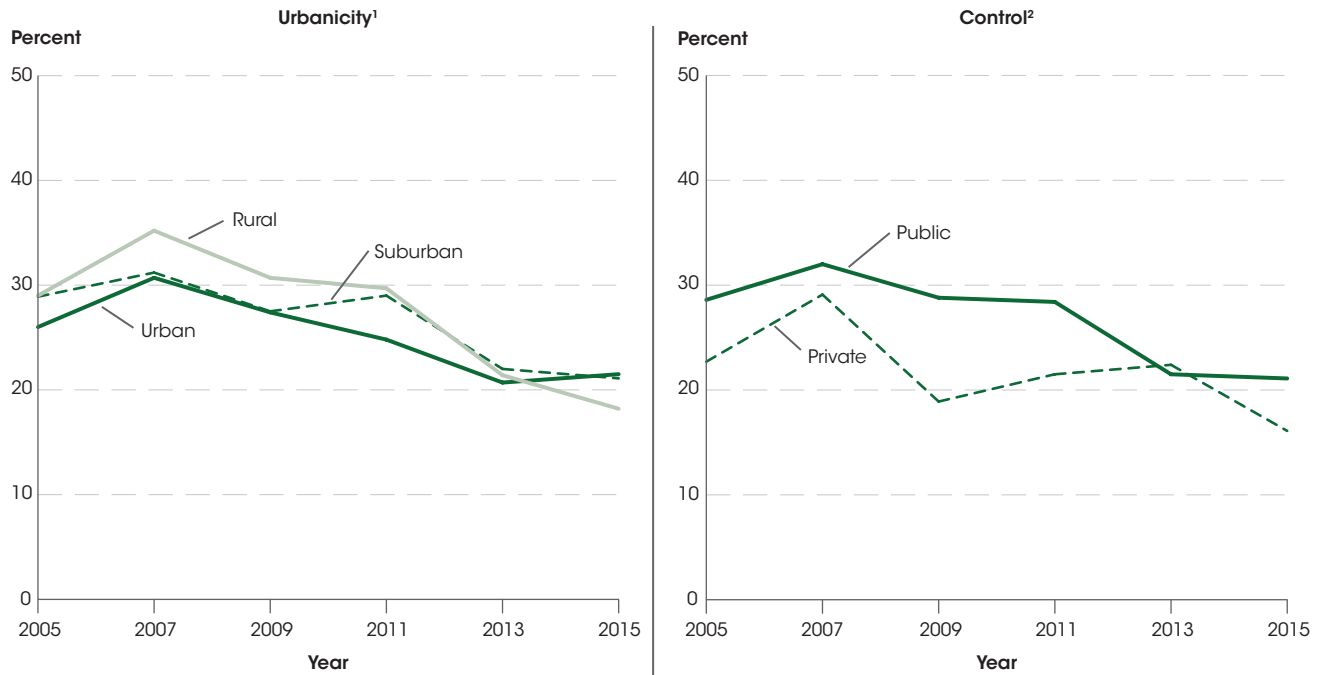
! Interpret with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.  
 NOTE: "Victimization" includes theft and violent crimes. "At school" includes inside the school building, on school property, and on the way to or from school. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, School Crime Supplement (SCS) to the National Crime Victimization Survey, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 228.30.

In 2015, the percentage of students who reported being victimized at school during the previous 6 months was higher for 6th-, 7th-, and 9th-graders (3 percent each) as well as 11th-graders (4 percent) than for 12th-graders (1 percent). Also, a higher percentage of 7th- and 11th-graders reported being victimized at school than of 10th-graders (2 percent). The percentage of 8th-graders who reported being victimized at school was not measurably different from the percentages of students in the other

grades. No measurable differences were observed by sex or race/ethnicity in reports of victimization overall in 2015.

The SCS also includes a series of questions on student bullying. The 2015 SCS asked students ages 12–18 if they had been bullied at school during the school year.<sup>3</sup> Students were also asked about whether bullying had a negative effect on various aspects of their life.

**Figure 3. Percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported being bullied at school during the school year, by selected school characteristics: Selected years, 2005 through 2015**



<sup>1</sup> Refers to the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (MSA) status of the respondent's household as defined by the U.S. Census Bureau. Categories include "central city of an MSA (Urban)," "in MSA but not in central city (Suburban)," and "not MSA (Rural)." These data by metropolitan status were based on the location of households and differ from those published in *Student Reports of Bullying: Results From the 2015 School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey*, which were based on the urban-centric measure of the location of the school that the child attended.

<sup>2</sup> Control of school as reported by the respondent. These data differ from those based on a matching of the respondent-reported school name to the Common Core of Data's Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey or the Private School Survey, as reported in *Student Reports of Bullying: Results From the 2015 School Crime Supplement to the National Crime Victimization Survey*.

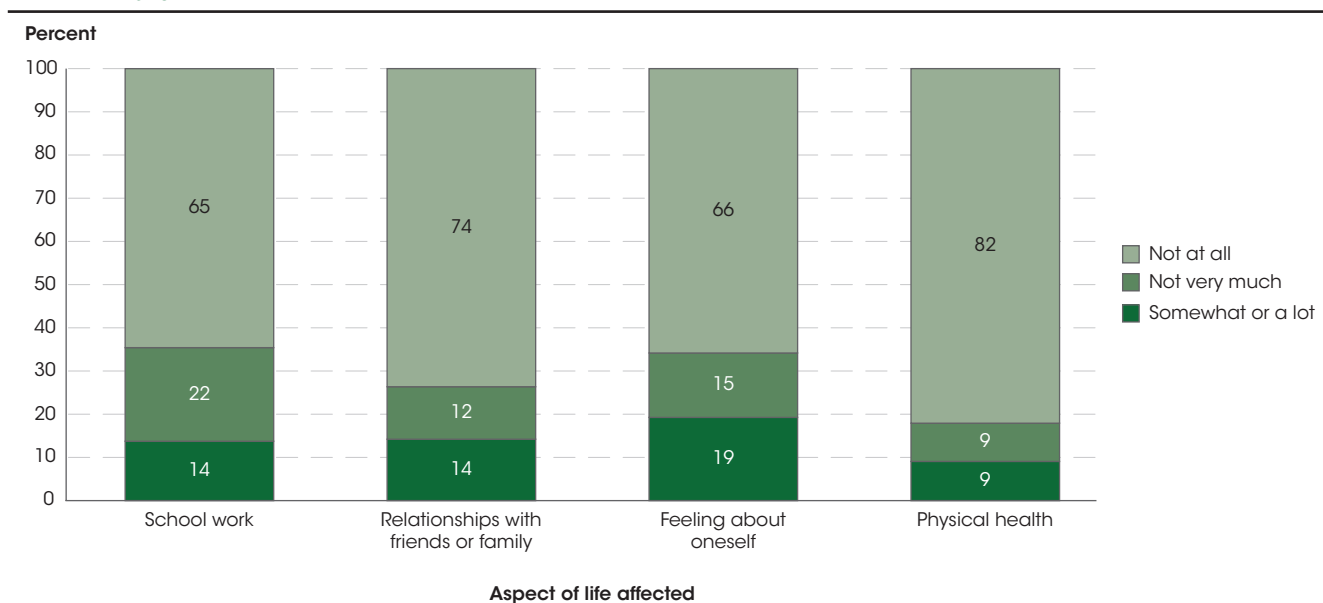
NOTE: Prior data are excluded from the time series due to a significant redesign of the bullying items in 2005. Students who reported being bullied are those who responded that another student had done one or more of the following: made fun of them, called them names, or insulted them; spread rumors about them; threatened them with harm; tried to make them do something they did not want to do; excluded them from activities on purpose; destroyed their property on purpose; or pushed, shoved, tripped, or spit on them. "At school" includes in the school building, on school property, on a school bus, and going to and from school.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, School Crime Supplement (SCS) to the National Crime Victimization Survey, 2005 through 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 230.40.

The percentage of students reporting being bullied at school during the school year decreased from 28 percent in 2005 to 21 percent in 2015.<sup>4</sup> However, there was no measurable difference between the percentages in 2013 and 2015. A declining trend between 2005 and 2015 in the percentage of students who reported being bullied at school was also observed for some of the student and school characteristics examined. For example, the percentage of male students who reported being bullied at school decreased from 27 percent in 2005 to 19 percent in 2015. During the same period, the percentage of students who reported being bullied at school decreased for students in both suburban (from 29 to 21 percent) and rural areas (from 29 to 18 percent), as well as for students in public schools (from 29 to 21 percent). However, similar to the findings for students overall, there were no measurable differences between the percentages in 2013 and 2015 by any of the student and school characteristics mentioned above.

In 2015, a higher percentage of female than of male students ages 12–18 reported being bullied at school during the school year (23 vs. 19 percent). Higher percentages of Black students (25 percent) and White students (22 percent) than of Hispanic students (17 percent) reported being bullied at school. A higher percentage of students in grade 6 (31 percent) than of students in grades 8 through 12 reported being bullied at school, where reports of bullying ranged between 15 and 22 percent. In addition, a higher percentage of 7th-graders (25 percent) than of 11th-graders (16 percent) and 12th-graders (15 percent) reported being bullied at school. The percentage was also higher for 8th-graders (22 percent) and 10th-graders (21 percent) than for 12th-graders. No measurable differences were observed in the percentage of students who reported being bullied at school for students from urban, suburban, and rural areas, or between those in public and private schools in 2015.

**Figure 4. Among students ages 12-18 who reported being bullied at school during the school year, percentage reporting that bullying had varying degrees of negative effect on various aspects of their life, by aspect of life affected: 2015**



NOTE: Students who reported being bullied are those who responded that another student had done one or more of the following: made fun of them, called them names, or insulted them; spread rumors about them; threatened them with harm; tried to make them do something they did not want to do; excluded them from activities on purpose; destroyed their property on purpose; or pushed, shoved, tripped, or spit on them. "At school" includes in the school building, on school property, on a school bus, and going to and from school. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Justice, Bureau of Justice Statistics, School Crime Supplement (SCS) to the National Crime Victimization Survey, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 230.52.

In the 2015 SCS, students who reported being bullied at school during the school year were asked to indicate the extent to which bullying had a negative effect on various aspects of their life. About 19 percent of bullied students responded that bullying negatively affected how they felt about themselves either "somewhat" or "a lot." The percentage of bullied students responding that the negative effect bullying had on their relationships with

friends or family was either "somewhat" or "a lot" was the same as the percentage responding that the negative effect it had on their school work was either "somewhat" or "a lot" (14 percent). The percentage of bullied students who responded that the negative effect bullying had on their physical health was either "somewhat" or "a lot" was 9 percent.

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> "At school" includes in the school building, on school property, on a school bus, and going to and from school.

<sup>2</sup> "Theft" includes attempted and completed purse-snatching, completed pickpocketing, and all attempted and completed thefts, with the exception of motor vehicle thefts. Theft does not include robbery, which involves the threat or use of force and is classified as a violent crime.

<sup>3</sup> Students who reported being bullied are those who responded that another student had done one or more of the following: made fun of them, called them names, or insulted them; spread rumors about them; threatened them with harm; tried to make them do something they did not want to do; excluded them from activities on purpose; destroyed their property on purpose; or pushed, shoved, tripped, or spit on them.

<sup>4</sup> Prior data are excluded from the time series due to a significant redesign of the bullying items in 2005.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 228.30, 230.40, and 230.52

**Related indicators and resources:** *Indicators of School Crime and Safety*

**Glossary:** Locale codes, Private school, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group

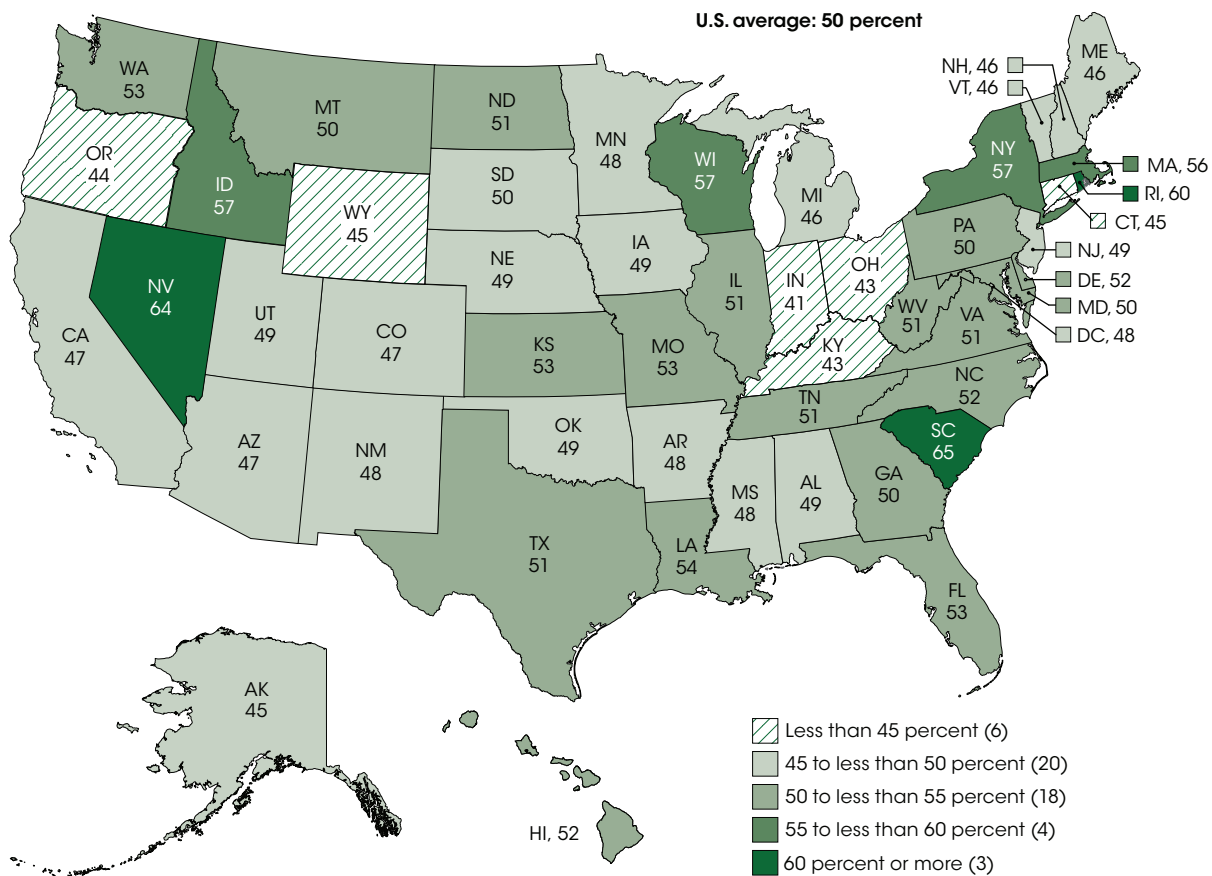
## Teachers and Pupil/Teacher Ratios

*Of the 6.3 million staff members in public elementary and secondary schools in fall 2014, approximately half (3.1 million) were teachers. The pupil/teacher ratio in public schools declined from 15.8 in 2004 to 15.3 in 2008. The pupil/teacher ratio then rose, reaching 16.1 in 2014.*

Of the 6.3 million staff members in public elementary and secondary schools in fall 2014, approximately half (3.1 million) were teachers. There were 749,000 instructional aides, such as teachers' assistants, who made up another 12 percent of total staff.<sup>1</sup> The composition of public school staff has changed little in recent years. For example, between fall 2004 and fall 2014, the percentage of staff members who were teachers decreased

by 1 percentage point (from 51 to 50 percent), and the percentage of staff members who were instructional aides increased by less than 1 percentage point (12 percent in both 2004 and 2014). By comparison, in fall 1969 teachers made up 60 percent of public school staff and instructional aides made up 2 percent of public school staff.

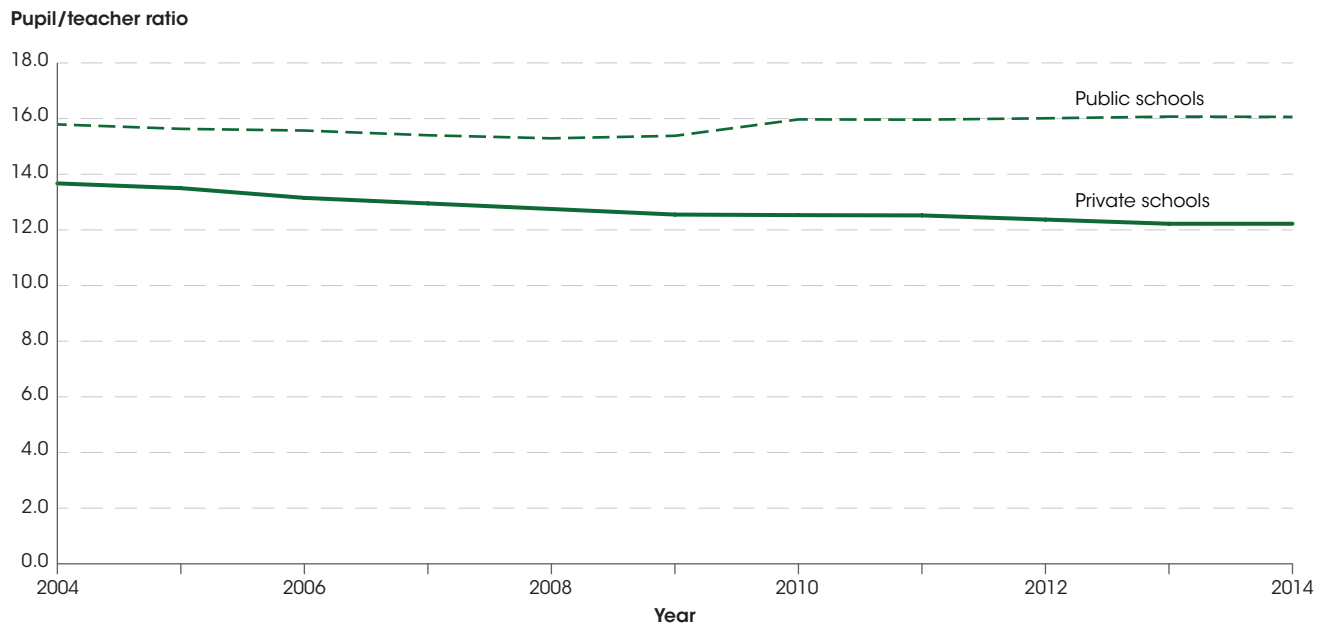
**Figure 1. Teachers as a percentage of staff in public elementary and secondary school systems, by state: Fall 2014**



NOTE: The U.S. average includes imputations for underreporting and nonreporting states. The calculations of teachers as a percentage of staff for Alaska, California, Montana, Nevada, New Jersey, Ohio, Utah, West Virginia, and Wisconsin include imputations to correct for underreporting. Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education," 2014-15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 213.40.

Teachers constituted between 45 and 55 percent of public school staff in 37 states and the District of Columbia in 2014.<sup>2</sup> There were, however, six states where teachers made up less than 45 percent of public school staff (Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky, Oregon, Connecticut, and

Wyoming) and seven states where teachers made up more than 55 percent of public school staff (Massachusetts, Wisconsin, Idaho, New York, Rhode Island, Nevada, and South Carolina).

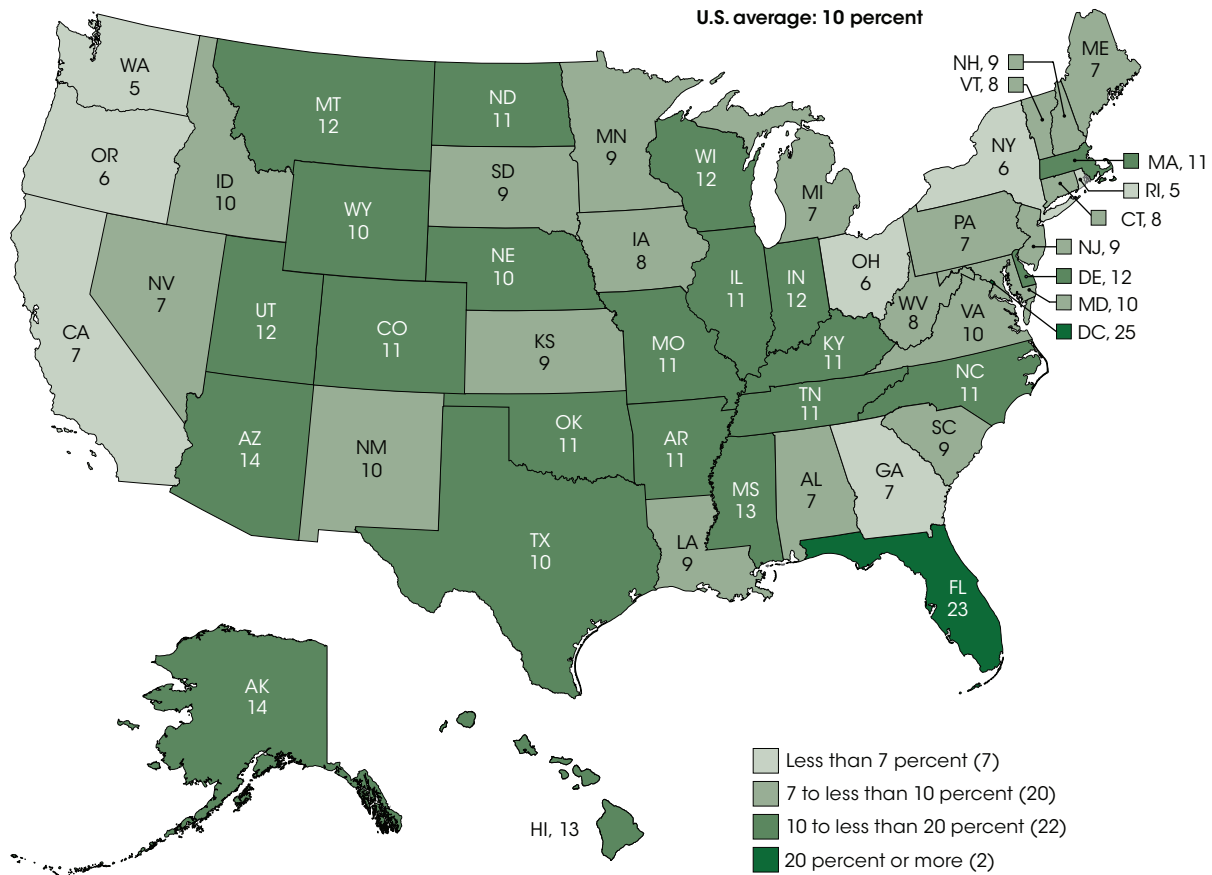
**Figure 2. Public and private elementary and secondary school pupil/teacher ratios: Fall 2004 through fall 2014**

NOTE: Data for teachers are expressed in full-time equivalents (FTEs). Data for public schools include prekindergarten through grade 12. Data for private schools include prekindergarten through grade 12 in schools offering kindergarten or higher grades. The pupil/teacher ratio includes teachers for students with disabilities and other special teachers. Ratios for public schools reflect totals reported by states and differ from totals reported by schools or school districts. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. Data for private schools are projected for 2014.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education," 2004–05 through 2014–15; and Private School Universe Survey (PSS), 2004–05 through 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 208.20, and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 208.40.

The number of students per teacher, or the pupil/teacher ratio,<sup>3</sup> has generally decreased since 1955 at both public and private schools. In fall 1955, there were 1.1 million public and 145,000 private elementary and secondary school teachers in the United States. By fall 2014, these numbers had nearly tripled to 3.1 million for public school teachers and to 436,000 for private school teachers.<sup>4</sup> However, increases in student enrollment were proportionately smaller over this period: from 30.7 million to 50.3 million public school students (a 64 percent increase) and from 4.6 million to

5.3 million private school students (a 16 percent increase). Among public schools, the pupil/teacher ratio fell from 26.9 in 1955 to 15.8 in 2004. The ratio continued to decline until 2008, when it was 15.3. In the years after 2008, however, the pupil/teacher ratio rose, reaching 16.1 in 2014. The private school pupil/teacher ratio decreased more steeply (from 31.7 to 12.2 students per teacher) between 1955 and 2014 than did the public school ratio. The pupil/teacher ratio has been lower for private schools than for public schools since 1972.

**Figure 3. Percentage of public elementary and secondary school teachers who had less than 2 years of teaching experience, by state: 2011–12**



NOTE: The number of years of teaching experience includes the current year and any prior years teaching in any school, subject, or grade. Does not include any student teaching or other similar preparation experiences. Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, Civil Rights Data Collection, "2011–12 Classroom Teachers Estimations." See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 209.25.

The Civil Rights Data Collection reports information on years of teaching experience for all public elementary and secondary school teachers. Of the 3.1 million public school teachers in 2011–12, some 310,000 teachers, or 10 percent, had less than 2 years of teaching experience. In 42 states, between 7 and 20 percent of public school teachers had less than 2 years of teaching experience. However, in seven states (Rhode Island, Washington, Oregon, New York, Ohio, California, and Georgia), less than 7 percent of public school teachers had less than 2 years of teaching experience, and in Florida and the District of Columbia, more than 20 percent of public school teachers had less than 2 years of teaching experience. Six percent of public school teachers overall were in their first year of teaching in 2011–12, ranging from 2 percent in Pennsylvania to 19 percent in Florida.

Data on public school teachers' licensing and certification are also available from the Civil Rights Data Collection. Overall, 97 percent of public elementary and secondary school teachers in 2011–12 met all licensing certification requirements of the state in which they taught. In 20 states, more than 99 percent of public school teachers in 2011–12 met all state licensing certification requirements. In another 18 states, between 97 and 99 percent of public school teachers met all state licensing certification requirements. However, in Florida and the District of Columbia, less than 90 percent of public school teachers met all state licensing certification requirements.



**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Other types of staff members include school district administrative staff, principals and assistant principals, librarians, guidance counselors, and support staff.

<sup>2</sup> Categorizations in this indicator are based on unrounded percentages.

<sup>3</sup> The pupil/teacher ratio measures the number of students per teacher. It reflects teacher workload and the availability of teachers' services to their students. The lower the pupil/teacher

ratio, the higher the availability of teacher services to students. The pupil/teacher ratio is not the same as class size, however. Class size can be described as the number of students a teacher faces during a given period of instruction. The relationship between these two measures of teacher workload is affected by a variety of factors, including the number of classes a teacher is responsible for and the number of classes taken by students.

<sup>4</sup> Data for private schools are projected for 2014.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2014*, table 208.20; *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 209.25; *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 208.20, 208.40, 213.10, and 213.40

**Related indicators and resources:** Elementary and Secondary Enrollment, Private School Enrollment

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**Glossary:** Elementary school, Private school, Public school or institution, Pupil/teacher ratio, Secondary school

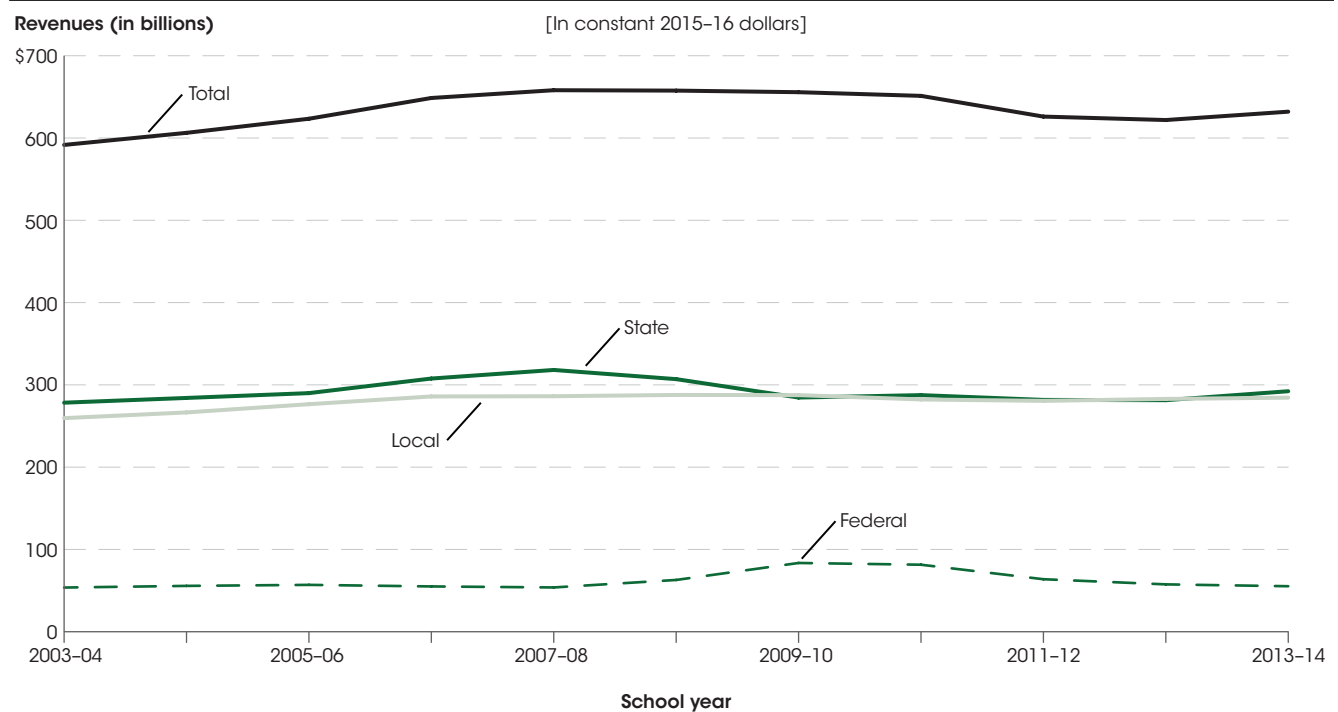
## Public School Revenue Sources

*Elementary and secondary public school revenues totaled \$632 billion in school year 2013–14. Of this total, 9 percent of revenues were from federal sources, 46 percent were from state sources, and 45 percent were from local sources.*

In school year 2013–14, elementary and secondary public school revenues totaled \$632 billion, in constant 2015–16 dollars.<sup>1</sup> Of this total, 9 percent, or \$55 billion, were from federal sources; 46 percent, or \$292 billion, were from state sources; and 45 percent, or \$284 billion, were from local sources. In 2013–14, the percentages from each source differed across the states and the District of Columbia. For example, the percentages of total revenues coming from federal, state, and local sources in Illinois were 8 percent, 26 percent, and 66 percent, respectively, while the same total revenues in Vermont were 6 percent, 90 percent, and 4 percent.

Total elementary and secondary public school revenues were 7 percent higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04 (\$632 billion versus \$592 billion, in constant 2015–16 dollars). During this time, total revenues rose from \$592 billion in 2003–04 to \$658 billion in 2007–08 and then fell each year between 2008–09 and 2012–13. Total revenues then rose from \$622 billion in 2012–13 to \$632 billion in 2013–14. These changes were accompanied by a 3 percent increase in total elementary and secondary public school enrollment, from 49 million students in 2003–04 to 50 million students in 2013–14 (see indicator [Elementary and Secondary Enrollment](#)).

**Figure 1. Revenues for public elementary and secondary schools, by revenue source: School years 2003–04 through 2013–14**



NOTE: Revenues are in constant 2015–16 dollars, adjusted using the Consumer Price Index (CPI). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 106.70.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "National Public Education Financial Survey," 2003–04 through 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 235.10.

Federal revenues were 56 percent higher in 2009–10, the first school year after the passage of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009, than in 2003–04 (\$84 billion versus \$54 billion). Federal revenues then decreased each year from 2009–10 through 2013–14, falling by 34 percent, to \$55 billion, over this period. Local revenues increased by 10 percent, to \$284 billion,

from 2003–04 through 2013–14. State revenues fluctuated between \$278 billion and \$318 billion during this period and were higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04 (\$292 billion versus \$278 billion). During this period, federal revenues peaked in 2009–10 at \$84 billion, while local revenues peaked in 2008–09 at \$288 billion and state revenues peaked in 2007–08 at \$318 billion.

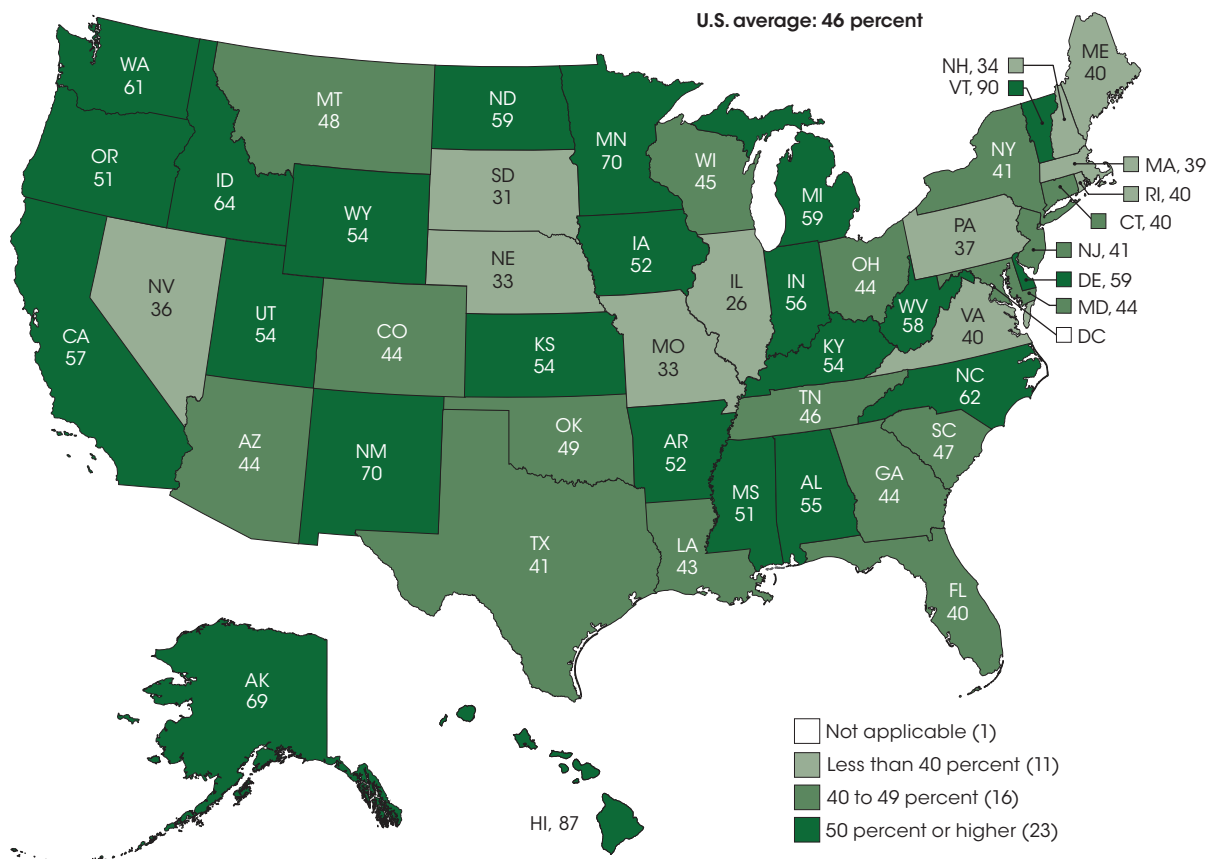
Between school years 2003–04 and 2013–14, the percentage of total revenues coming from federal sources fluctuated between 8 and 13 percent, accounting for 9 percent of total revenues in both 2003–04 and 2013–14. Local sources accounted for 45 percent of total revenues in both 2012–13 and 2013–14, their highest percentages in the 2003–04 to 2013–14 period. The percentage of total revenues from state sources was 1 percentage point lower in 2013–14 than in 2003–04 (46 percent versus 47 percent). From school year 2003–04 through school year 2013–14, the percentage of revenues from state sources was highest in 2007–08 (48 percent) and lowest in 2009–10 (43 percent).

More recently, from school year 2012–13 through school year 2013–14, total revenues for public elementary and secondary schools increased by \$10 billion (2 percent) in constant 2015–16 dollars (from \$622 billion to

\$632 billion). Between these years, federal revenues declined by \$2 billion (4 percent) and state revenues increased by \$11 billion (4 percent). Local revenues increased by \$1.5 billion (1 percent), reflecting a \$1.6 billion (1 percent) increase in revenues from local property taxes, a \$0.2 billion (0.4 percent) increase in other local public revenues, and a \$0.2 billion (2 percent) decrease in private revenues.<sup>2</sup>

In school year 2013–14, there were significant variations across the states in the percentages of public school revenues coming from state, local, and federal sources. In 23 states, at least half of education revenues came from state governments, while in 14 states and the District of Columbia at least half came from local revenues. In the remaining 13 states, no single revenue source made up more than half of education revenues.

**Figure 2. State revenues for public elementary and secondary schools as a percentage of total public school revenues, by state: School year 2013–14**

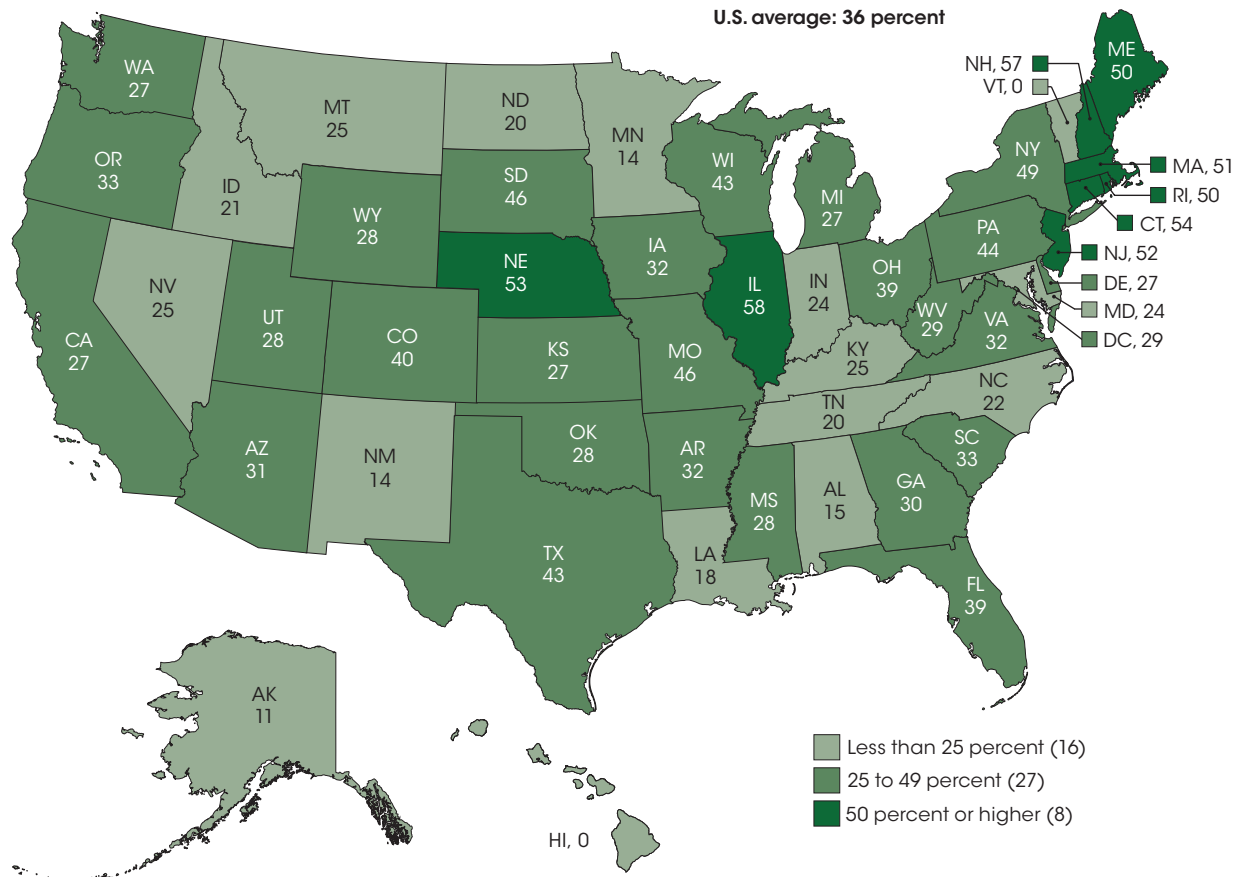


NOTE: All 50 states and the District of Columbia are included in the U.S. average, even though the District of Columbia does not receive any state revenue. The District of Columbia and Hawaii have only one school district each; therefore, neither is comparable to the other states. Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages. Excludes revenues for state education agencies.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "National Public Education Financial Survey," 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 235.20.

In school year 2013–14, the percentages of public school revenues coming from state sources were highest in Vermont and Hawaii (90 and 87 percent, respectively) and lowest in South Dakota and Illinois (31 and 26 percent, respectively). The percentages of revenues coming from federal sources were highest in Louisiana and Mississippi (15 percent each) and lowest in Connecticut and New

Jersey (4 percent each). Among all states, the percentages of revenues coming from local sources were highest in Illinois and New Hampshire (66 and 60 percent, respectively), and lowest in Vermont and Hawaii (4 and 2 percent, respectively). Ninety percent of the revenues for the District of Columbia were from local sources; the remaining 10 percent were from federal sources.

**Figure 3. Property tax revenues for public elementary and secondary schools as a percentage of total public school revenues, by state: School year 2013–14**



NOTE: All 50 states and the District of Columbia are included in the U.S. average. The District of Columbia and Hawaii have only one school district each; therefore, neither is comparable to the other states. Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "National Public Education Financial Survey," 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 235.20.

On a national basis in 2013–14, some \$227 billion, or 81 percent, of local revenues for public and elementary secondary school districts were derived from local property taxes. The percentages of total revenues from local property taxes differed by state. In 2013–14,

Illinois and New Hampshire had the highest percentages of revenues from property taxes (58 and 57 percent, respectively). Vermont and Hawaii<sup>3</sup> had the lowest percentages of revenues from property taxes (0.1 percent and 0 percent, respectively).

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Revenues in this indicator are adjusted for inflation using the Consumer Price Index, or CPI. For this indicator, the CPI is adjusted to a school-year basis. The CPI is prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

<sup>2</sup> Private revenues consist of tuition and fees from patrons and revenues from gifts.

<sup>3</sup> Hawaii has only one school district, which receives no funding from property taxes.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 203.20; *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 235.10 and 235.20

**Related indicators and resources:** Public School Expenditures

**Glossary:** Constant dollars, Consumer Price Index (CPI), Elementary school, Property tax, Public school or institution, Revenue, School district, Secondary school

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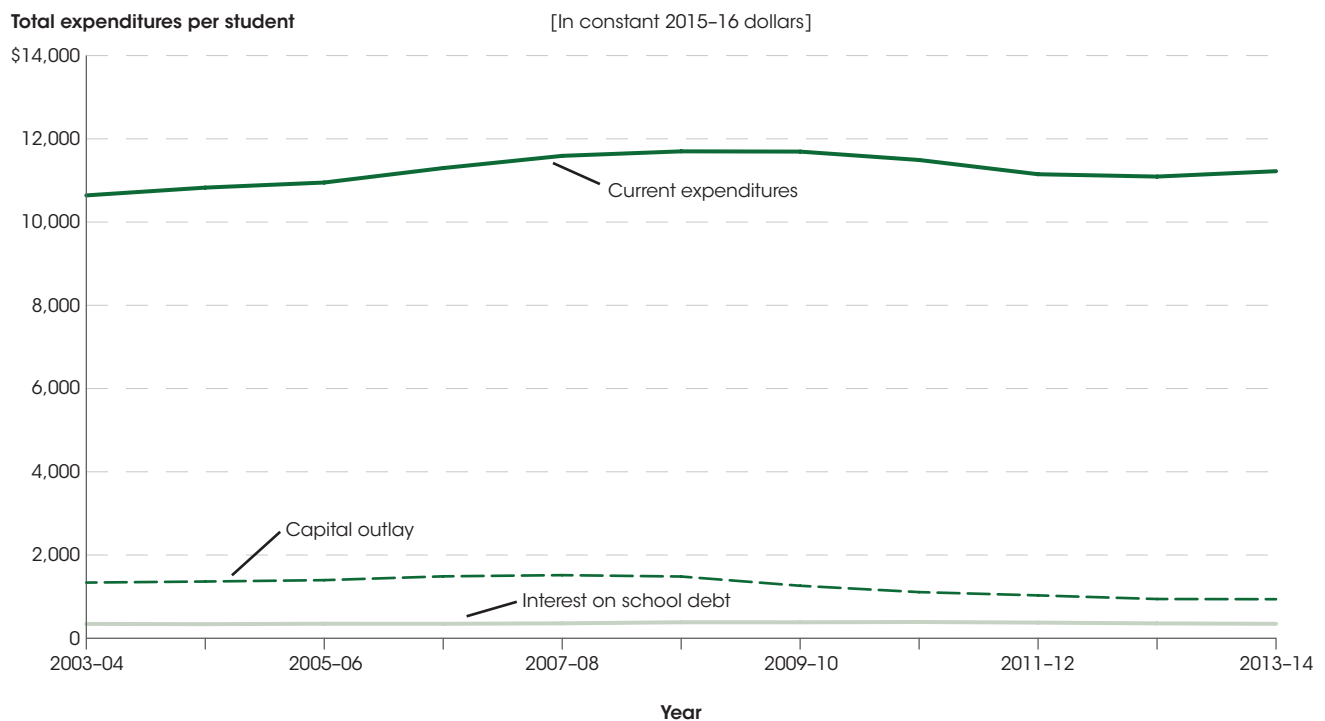
## Public School Expenditures

*In 2013–14, public schools spent \$11,222 per student on current expenditures, a category which includes salaries, employee benefits, purchased services, and supplies. Current expenditures per student were 5 percent higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04, after adjusting for inflation. During this time period, current expenditures per student peaked in 2008–09 at \$11,699, declined to \$11,093 in 2012–13, and then rose 1 percent to \$11,222 in 2013–14.*

Total expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools in the United States in 2013–14 amounted to \$634 billion, or \$12,509 per public school student enrolled in the fall (in constant 2015–16 dollars).<sup>1</sup> Total expenditures included \$11,222 per student in current expenditures, which includes salaries, employee benefits,

purchased services, and supplies. Total expenditures also included \$939 per student in capital outlay (expenditures for property and for buildings and alterations completed by school district staff or contractors) and \$348 for interest on school debt.

**Figure 1. Current expenditures, interest payments, and capital outlays per student in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by type of expenditure: 2003–04 through 2013–14**



NOTE: "Current expenditures," "Capital outlay," and "Interest on school debt" are subcategories of total expenditures. "Current expenditures" include instruction, support services, food services, and enterprise operations (expenditures for operations funded by sales of products and services). "Capital outlay" includes expenditures for property and for buildings and alterations completed by school district staff or contractors. Expenditures are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI).  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "National Public Education Financial Survey," 2003–04 through 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2014*, table 236.60; *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, tables 203.20 and 236.60; and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 236.10, 236.55, and 236.60.

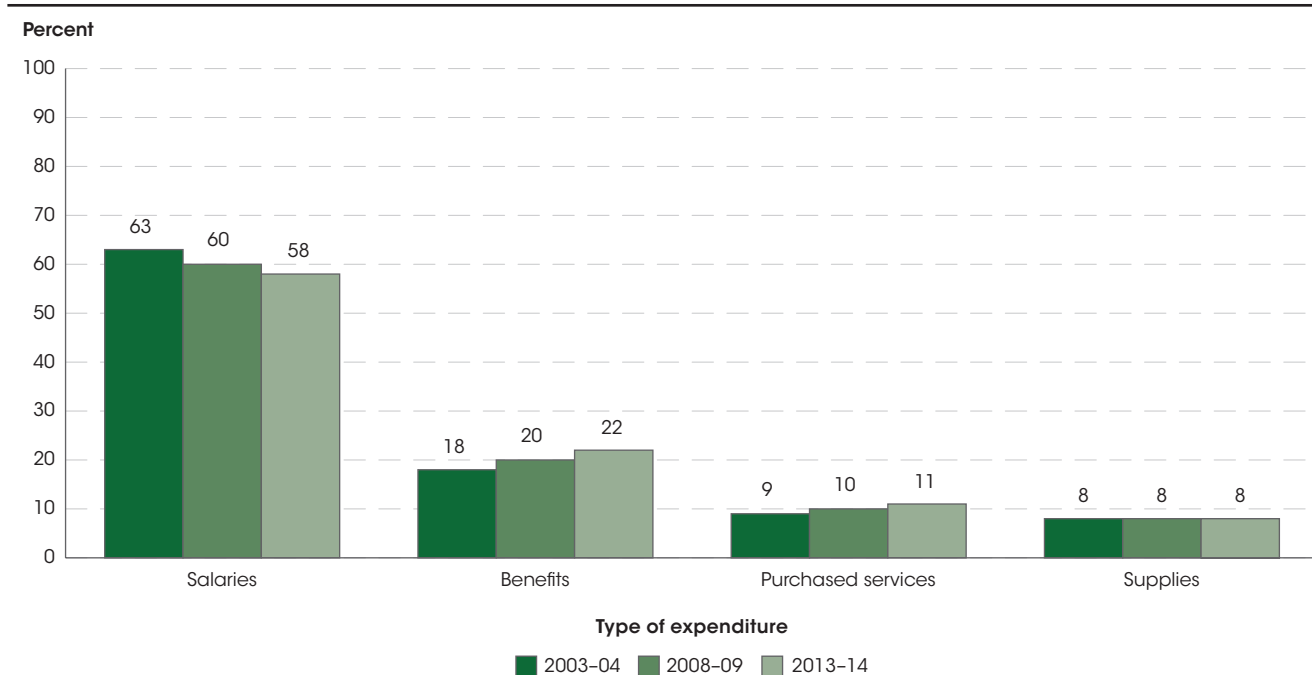
Current expenditures per student enrolled in the fall in public elementary and secondary schools were 5 percent higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04 (\$11,222 and \$10,641 respectively, both in constant 2015–16 dollars). Current expenditures per student peaked in 2008–09

at \$11,699 and then decreased each year until 2012–13. Current expenditures per pupil then increased 1 percent from 2012–13 to 2013–14 (\$11,093 and \$11,222, respectively).

Interest payments on school debt per student were 1 percent higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04 in constant 2015–16 dollars. Interest payments increased from \$345 in 2003–04 to \$391 in 2010–11, before declining to \$348 in 2013–14. Capital outlay expenditures per student

2013–14 (\$939) were 30 percent lower than in 2003–04 (\$1,338). Capital outlay expenditures per student increased 13 percent from 2003–04 to 2007–08 (\$1,517) before declining 38 percent from 2007–08 to 2013–14.

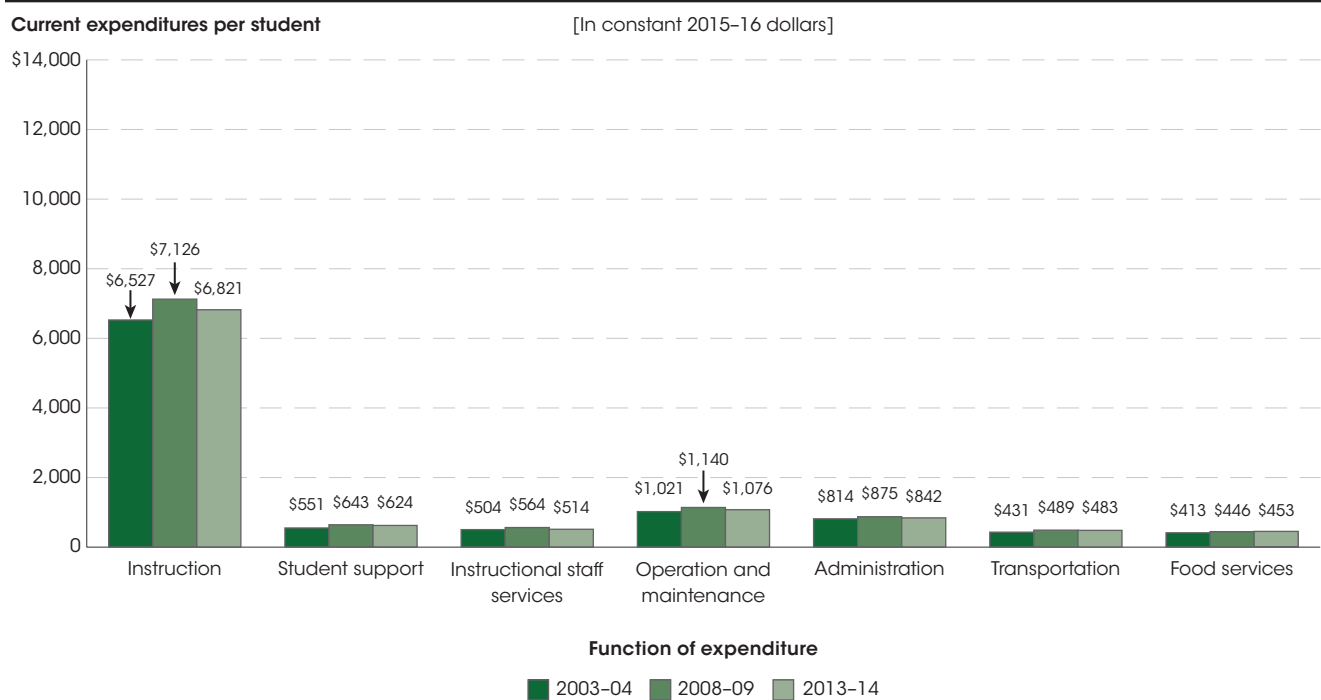
**Figure 2. Percentage of current expenditures per student in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by type of expenditure: 2003–04, 2008–09, and 2013–14**



NOTE: "Salaries," "Benefits," "Purchased services," and "Supplies" are subcategories of current expenditures. "Purchased services" include expenditures for contracts for food, transportation, and janitorial services, and professional development for teachers. "Supplies" include expenditures for items ranging from books to heating oil. Two additional types of expenditure, tuition and Other, are not included in this figure. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "National Public Education Financial Survey," 2003–04, 2008–09, and 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 236.60.

Current expenditures for education can be expressed in terms of the percentage of funds going toward salaries, benefits, purchased services, or supplies. On a national basis in 2013–14, approximately 80 percent of current expenditures were for salaries and benefits for staff, compared to 81 percent in 2003–04. There were, however, shifts within the distribution of salaries and benefits for staff, as the proportion of current expenditures for staff salaries decreased from 63 percent in 2003–04 to 58 percent in 2013–14, and the proportion for staff benefits increased from 18 to 22 percent during this

period. Approximately 11 percent of current expenditures were for purchased services, which include a wide variety of items, such as contracts for food, transportation, and janitorial services, and for professional development for teachers. The percentage of expenditure distribution going toward purchased services shifted only slightly from 2003–04 to 2013–14, increasing from 9 to 11 percent. Eight percent of school expenditures in 2013–14 were for supplies, ranging from books to heating oil. The percentage of current expenditures for supplies changed less than 1 percentage point from 2003–04 to 2013–14.

**Figure 3. Current expenditures per student in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by function of expenditure: 2003–04, 2008–09, and 2013–14**

NOTE: "Instruction," "Student support," "Instructional staff services," "Operation and maintenance," "Administration," "Transportation," and "Food services" are subcategories of current expenditures. "Student support" includes expenditures for guidance, health, attendance, and speech pathology services. "Instructional staff services" include expenditures for curriculum development, staff training, libraries, and media and computer centers. "Administration" includes both general administration and school administration. "Transportation" refers to student transportation. The two smallest subcategories in 2013–14 dollars, enterprise operations and Other support services, are not included in this figure. Expenditures are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "National Public Education Financial Survey," 2003–04, 2008–09, and 2013–14. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 236.60.

Current expenditures can also be categorized by function, which describes the school activity supported by the salaries, benefits, purchased services, and supplies described in figure 2. Current expenditures per student (in constant 2015–16 dollars) were higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04 for most functions. However, for a majority of functions, expenditures per student in 2013–14 were within a percentage point of their value in 2012–13. In 2013–14, instruction—the single largest component of current expenditures—was \$6,821 per student, or 61 percent of current expenditures. Instruction expenditures include salaries and benefits of teachers and teaching assistants as well as costs for instructional materials and instructional services provided under contract. While expenditures per student for instruction were 5 percent higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04

(\$6,821 and \$6,527, respectively), they peaked in 2009–10 at \$7,158. Expenditures for all other major school functions were higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04, though each peaked within a year of 2008–09, except food services, which were highest in 2013–14. For example, expenditures per student for student support services, such as guidance and health personnel, increased by 13 percent from 2003–04 to 2013–14 (from \$551 to \$624), but peaked in 2009–10 at \$649. Expenditures per student for instructional staff services, including curriculum development, staff training, libraries, and media and computer centers, were 2 percent higher in 2013–14 than in 2003–04 (\$514 versus \$504) and peaked in 2007–08 at \$580. Expenditures per student for food services, however, were highest in 2013–14 (\$453).

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Expenditures in this indicator are adjusted for inflation using the Consumer Price Index, or CPI. For this indicator, the CPI is

adjusted to a school-year basis. The CPI is prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 203.20; *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 236.10, 236.55, and 236.60

**Related indicators and resources:** Public School Revenue Sources, Education Expenditures by Country

**Glossary:** Capital outlay; Constant dollars; Consumer Price Index (CPI); Current expenditures (elementary/secondary); Elementary school; Expenditures per pupil; Expenditures, total; Interest on debt; Public school or institution; Salary; Secondary school



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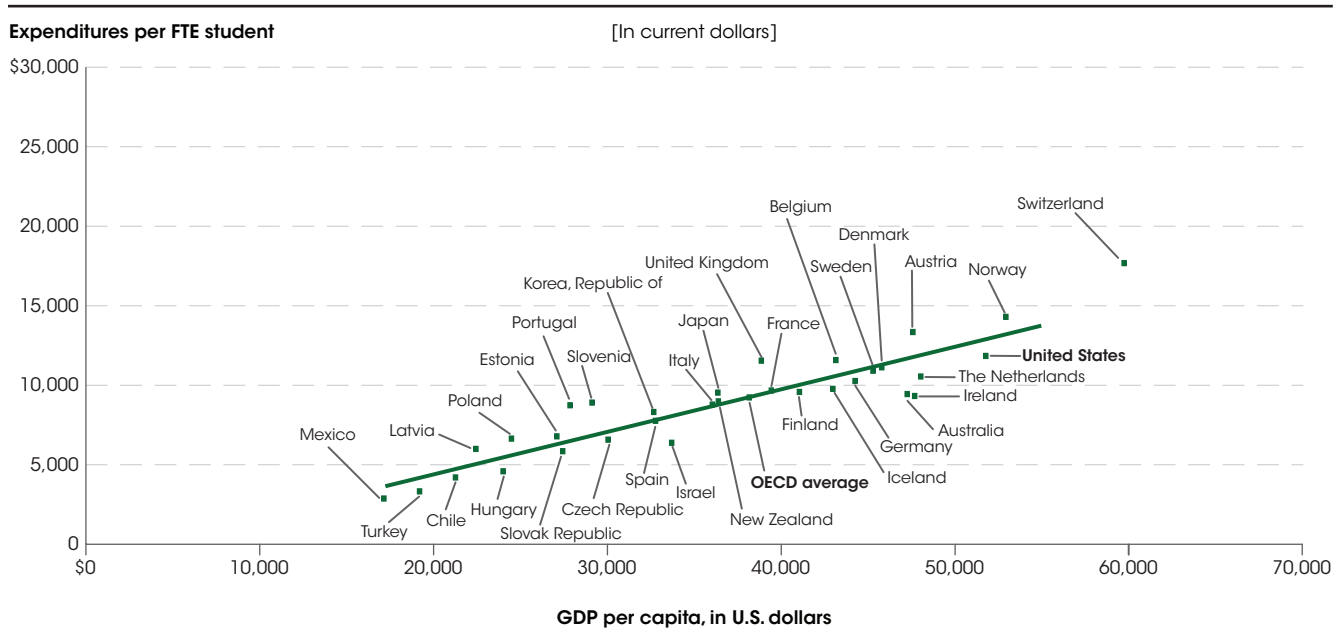
# Education Expenditures by Country

In 2013, the United States spent \$11,800 per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student on elementary and secondary education, which was 28 percent higher than the OECD average of \$9,200. At the postsecondary level, the United States spent \$27,900 per FTE student, which was 89 percent higher than the OECD average of \$14,800.

This indicator uses material from the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) to compare countries' expenditures on education using two measures: *education expenditures per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student from both public and private sources* and *total education expenditures as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP)*. The OECD is an organization of 35 countries whose purpose is to promote trade and economic growth. The OECD also collects and publishes an array of data on its member countries. Education expenditures are from public revenue sources (governments) and private revenue sources, and include

current and capital expenditures. Private sources include payments from households for school-based expenses such as tuition, transportation fees, book rentals, and food services, as well as public funding via subsidies to households, private fees for education services, and other private spending that goes through the educational institution. The *total education expenditures as a percentage of GDP* measure allows for a comparison of countries' expenditures relative to their ability to finance education. Purchasing power parity (PPP) indexes are used to convert other currencies to U.S. dollars.

**Figure 1. Annual expenditures per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student for elementary and secondary education in selected Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, by gross domestic product (GDP) per capita: 2013**



— Linear relationship between spending and country wealth for 32 OECD countries reporting data (elementary/secondary):  
 $r^2 = .84$ ; slope = 0.27; intercept = -935.

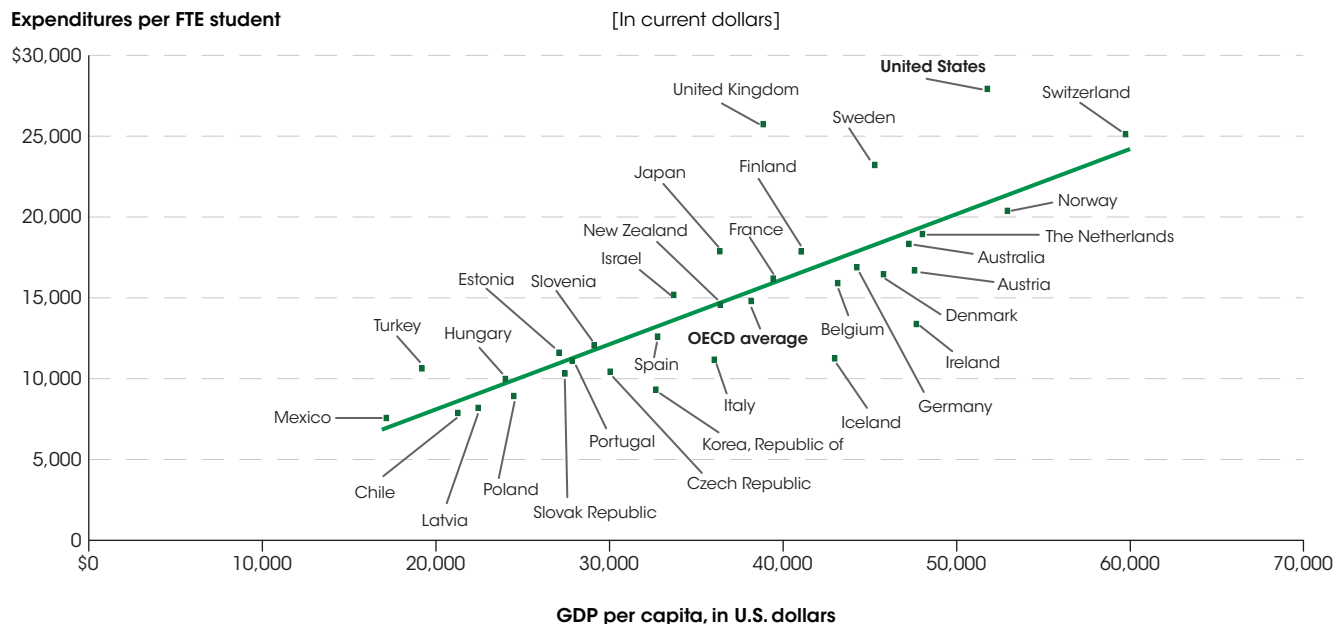
NOTE: Data for Luxembourg are excluded from the figure because of anomalies in that country's GDP per capita data. (Large revenues from international finance institutions in Luxembourg distort the wealth of the country's population.) Data for Canada and Greece are excluded because expenditure data were not available in 2013. Expenditures for International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level 4 (postsecondary non-higher education) are included in elementary and secondary education unless otherwise noted. Expenditure data for Italy and the United States do not include postsecondary non-higher education. Expenditure data for the Republic of Korea include preprimary education. Expenditure data for Ireland, Italy, Poland, and Switzerland include public institutions only.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). *Education at a Glance 2016*; and Online Education Database, retrieved December 6, 2016, from <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 605.10.

Expenditures per FTE student at the elementary/secondary level varied widely across OECD countries<sup>1</sup> in 2013, ranging from a low value of \$2,900 in Mexico to a high value of \$17,700 in Switzerland. The United States

spent \$11,800 per FTE student at the elementary/secondary level, which was 28 percent higher than the average of \$9,200 for OECD member countries reporting data.

**Figure 2. Annual expenditures per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student for postsecondary education in selected Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, by gross domestic product (GDP) per capita: 2013**



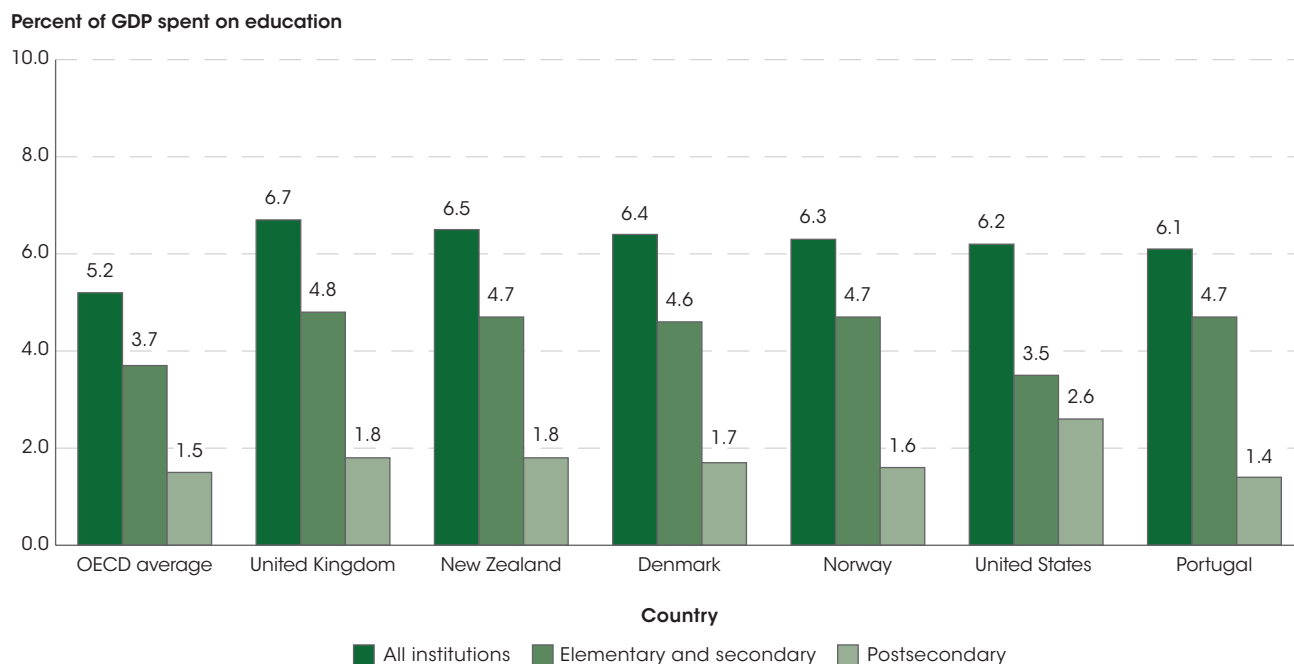
Expenditures per FTE student at the postsecondary level also varied across OECD countries in 2013, ranging from a low value of \$7,600 in Mexico to a high value of \$27,900 in the United States. Expenditures per FTE student at the postsecondary level in the United States were 89 percent higher than the OECD average of \$14,800.

A country's wealth (defined as GDP per capita) is positively associated with its education expenditures per FTE student at the elementary/secondary level and at the postsecondary level. Of the 15 countries with a GDP per capita greater than the OECD average, 13 countries had education expenditures per FTE student that were also higher than the OECD average at both the elementary/secondary and postsecondary levels. These 13 countries were Switzerland, Norway, the United States, the Netherlands, Austria, Australia, Denmark, Sweden, Germany, Belgium, Finland, France, and the United

Kingdom. The two exceptions were Ireland and Iceland, both of which had lower postsecondary expenditures per FTE student (\$13,400 and \$11,300, respectively) than the OECD average (\$14,800).

Of the 17 countries with a lower GDP per capita than the OECD average, 15 also had education expenditures per FTE student that were lower than the OECD average at both the elementary/secondary and postsecondary levels (Mexico, Turkey, Chile, Latvia, Hungary, Poland, Estonia, the Slovak Republic, Portugal, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, the Republic of Korea, Spain, Italy, and New Zealand). The two exceptions were Japan and Israel. Both Japan and Israel reported higher postsecondary expenditures per FTE student (\$17,900 and \$15,200, respectively) than the OECD average (\$14,800). Japan also reported higher expenditures per FTE student at the elementary/secondary level (\$9,500) than the OECD average (\$9,200).

**Figure 3. Public and private direct expenditures on education as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) for Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries with the highest percentages of direct expenditures for all institutions, by level of education: 2013**



NOTE: Expenditures for International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level 4 (postsecondary non-higher-education) are included in elementary and secondary education, except in Portugal, where they are included in both elementary/secondary and postsecondary education, and in the United States, where they are included in higher education.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), *Education at a Glance 2016*; and Online Education Database, retrieved December 6, 2016, from <http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx>. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 605.20.

Among the 33 OECD countries reporting data in 2013, sixteen countries spent a higher percentage of GDP on total education expenditures than the OECD average of 5.2 percent. Six countries, including the United States, spent over 6.0 percent of GDP on total education expenditures: the United Kingdom (6.7 percent), New Zealand (6.5 percent), Denmark (6.4 percent), Norway (6.3 percent), the United States (6.2 percent), and Portugal (6.1 percent).

In terms of countries' education expenditures by education level in 2013, the percentage of GDP that the United States spent on elementary and secondary education (3.5 percent) was slightly lower than the OECD average (3.7 percent). Fifteen other countries also spent a lower percentage of GDP on elementary and secondary

education than the OECD average of 3.7 percent. In contrast, 17 countries spent 3.7 percent or more of GDP on elementary and secondary education, including 9 countries that spent 4.0 percent or more. The United Kingdom spent the highest percentage (4.8 percent) of GDP on elementary and secondary education.

At the postsecondary level, expenditures on education as a percentage of GDP by the United States (2.6 percent) were higher than the OECD average (1.5 percent) and were higher than those of all other OECD countries reporting data. In addition to the United States, only three countries spent 2.0 percent or more of GDP on postsecondary education: Chile (2.4 percent), the Republic of Korea (2.3 percent), and Estonia (2.0 percent).

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Canada, Greece, and Luxembourg are excluded from all analyses of expenditures per FTE student. Expenditure data at the elementary/secondary and postsecondary levels were not available in 2013 for Canada and Greece. For Luxembourg, data on elementary/secondary education expenditures per FTE student were available in 2013, but are excluded from analysis because of

anomalies in that country's GDP per capita data. (Large revenues from international finance institutions in Luxembourg distort the wealth of the country's population.) Expenditures per FTE student at the postsecondary level were not available in 2013 for Luxembourg.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 605.10 and 605.20

**Related indicators and resources:** International Educational Attainment, Public School Expenditures

**Glossary:** Elementary school, Expenditures per pupil, Full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment, Gross domestic product (GDP), International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Postsecondary education, Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) indexes, Secondary school

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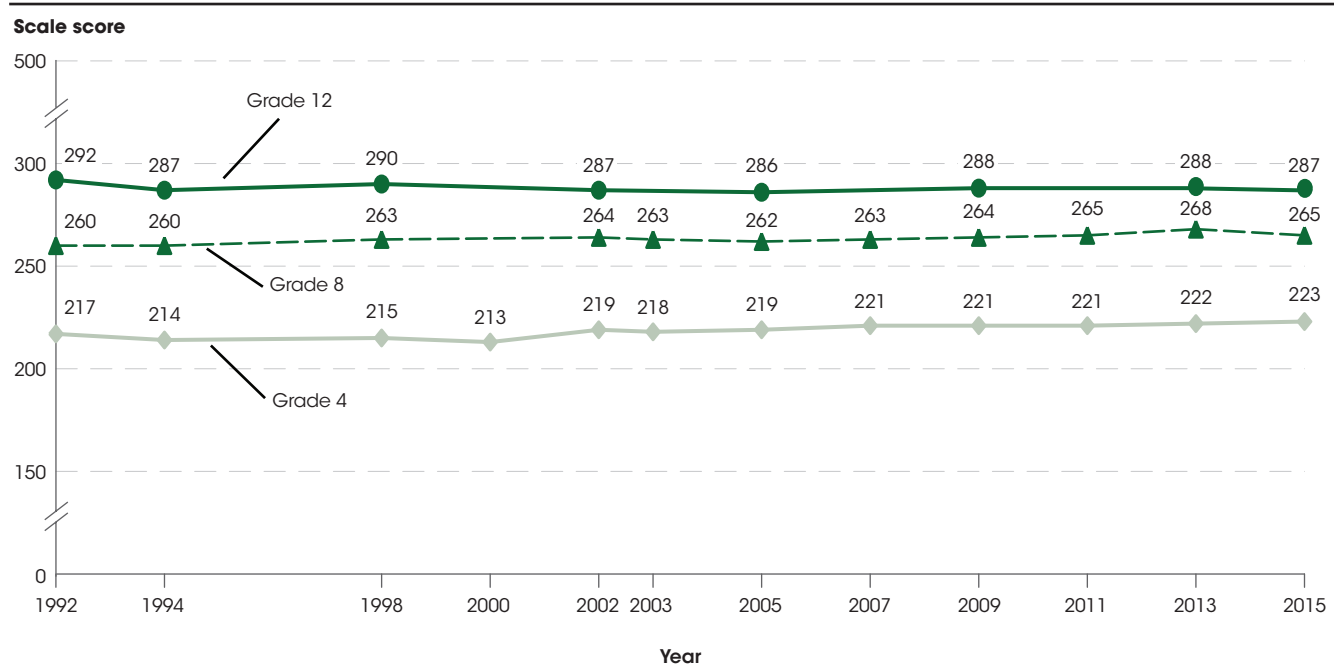
# Reading Performance

While the 2015 average 4th-grade reading score was not measurably different from the 2013 score, the average 8th-grade score was lower in 2015 than in 2013, according to data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress. At grade 12, the average reading score in 2015 was not measurably different from that in 2013.

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 achievement levels define what students should know and be able to do:

*Basic* indicates partial mastery of fundamental skills, and *Proficient* indicates demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter. NAEP reading assessments have been administered periodically since 1992. The most recent reading assessments were conducted in 2015 for grades 4, 8, and 12.

**Figure 1. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scale scores of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-grade students: Selected years, 1992–2015**

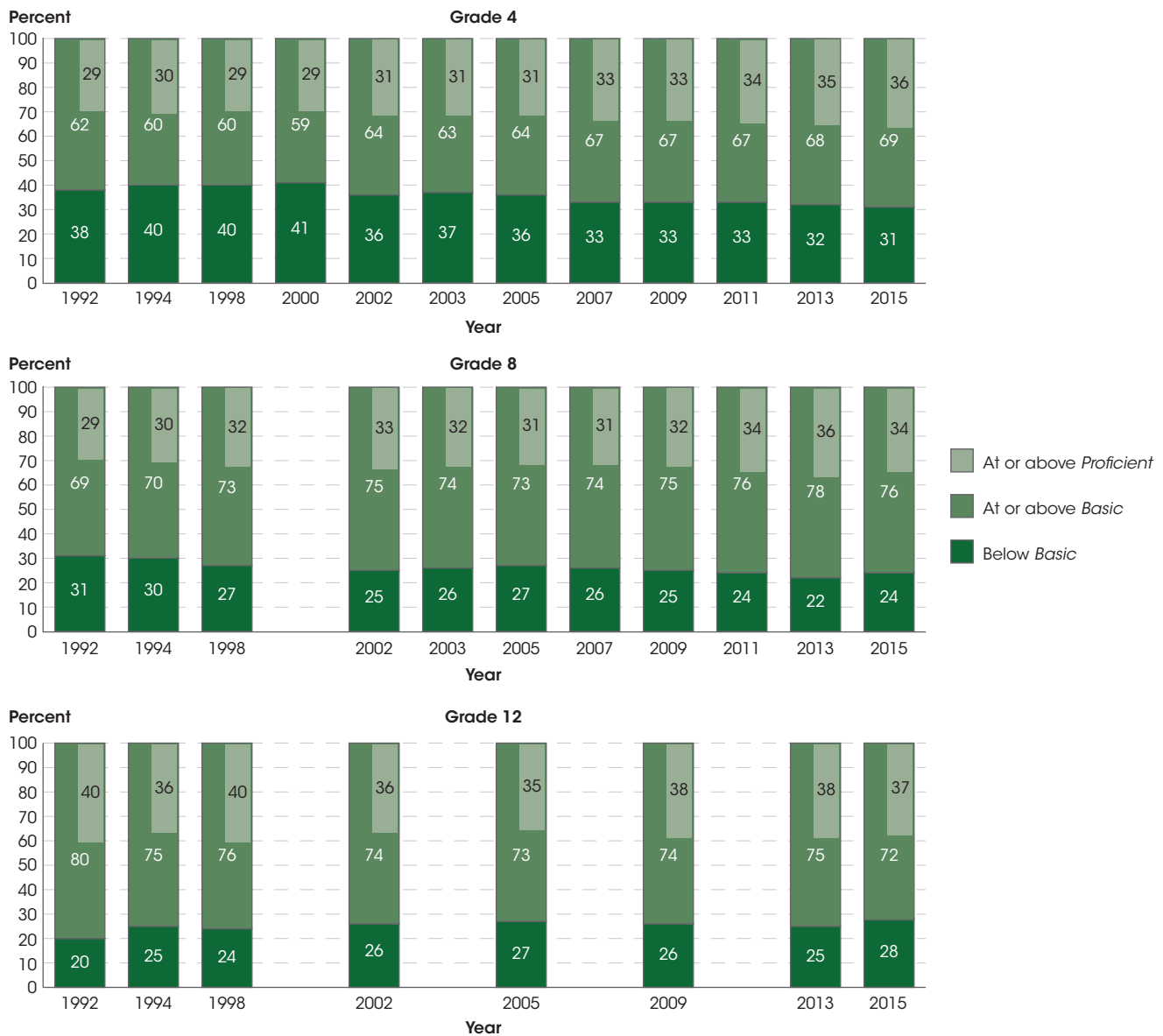


NOTE: Includes public and private schools. The reading scale scores range from 0 to 500. Assessment was not conducted for grade 8 in 2000 or for grade 12 in 2000, 2003, 2007, and 2011. Testing accommodations (e.g., extended time, small group testing) for children with disabilities and English language learners were not permitted in 1992 and 1994.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), selected years, 1992–2015 Reading Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 221.10.

In 2015, the average reading score for 4th-grade students (223) was not measurably different from the 2013 score, but it was higher than the score in 1992 (217). For 8th-grade students, the average reading score in 2015 (265) was lower than in 2013 (268), but it was higher than

in 1992 (260). In 2015, the average reading score for 12th-grade students (287) was not measurably different from the score in 2013, but it was 5 points lower than in 1992 (292).

**Figure 2. Percentage of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-grade students across National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading achievement levels: Selected years, 1992–2015**



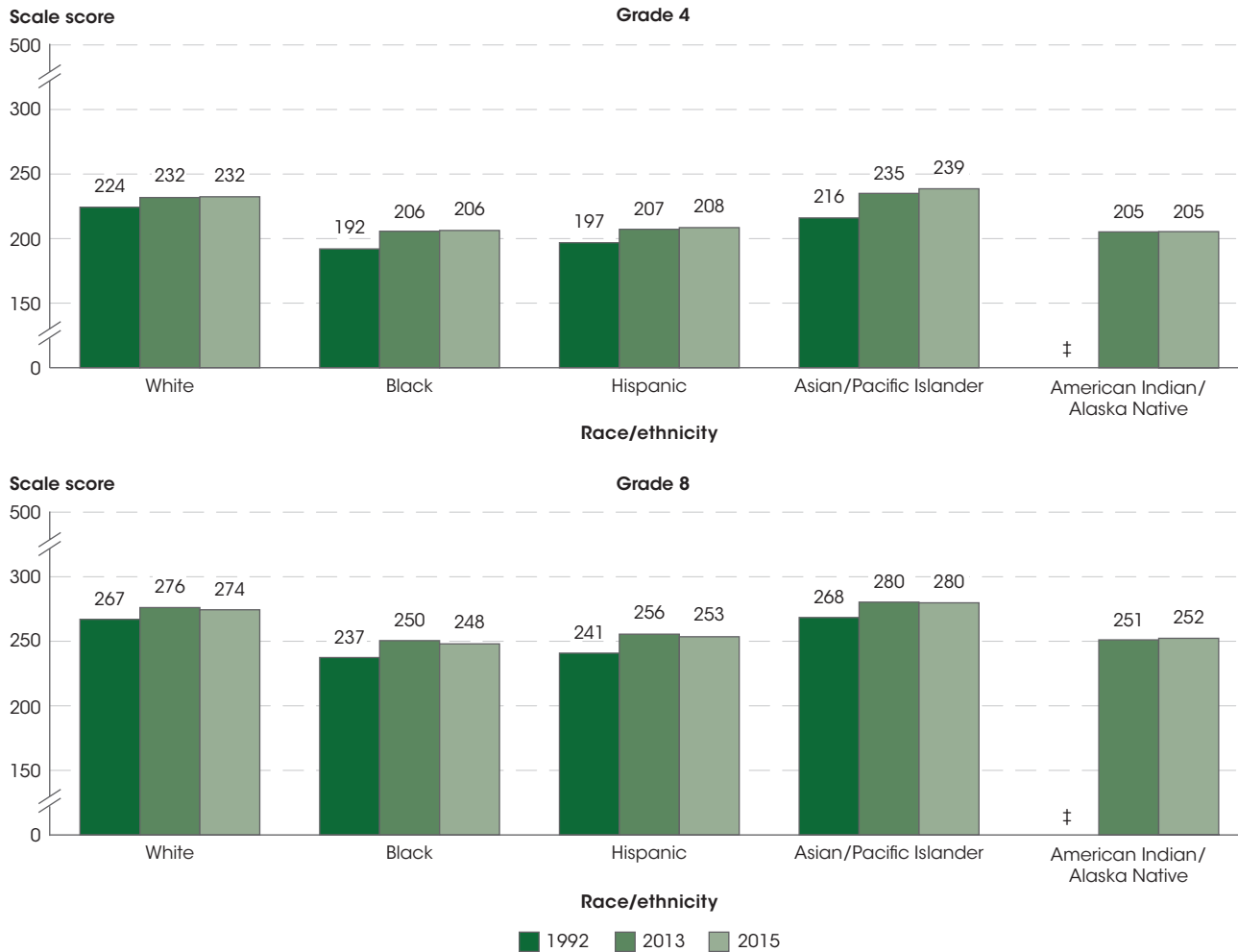
NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Achievement levels define what students should know and be able to do: *Basic* indicates partial mastery of fundamental skills, and *Proficient* indicates demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter. Assessment was not conducted for grade 8 in 2000 or for grade 12 in 2000, 2003, 2007, and 2011. Testing accommodations (e.g., extended time, small group testing) for children with disabilities and English language learners were not permitted in 1992 and 1994. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), selected years, 1992–2015 Reading Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 221.12.

In 2015, the percentage of 4th-grade students performing at or above the *Basic* achievement level (69 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2013, but it was higher than the percentage in 1992 (62 percent). In addition, the percentage of 4th-grade students performing at or above the *Proficient* achievement level in 2015 (36 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2013, but it was higher than the percentage in 1992 (29 percent). Among 8th-grade students, the percentage performing at or above *Basic* in 2015 (76 percent) was lower than in 2013 (78 percent). However, the percentage was higher in 2015 than in

1992 (69 percent). Similarly, a lower percentage of 8th-grade students performed at or above *Proficient* in 2015 (34 percent) than in 2013 (36 percent), but the percentage in 2015 was higher than in 1992 (29 percent). Among 12th-grade students, the percentage performing at or above *Basic* in 2015 (72 percent) was lower than the percentage in 2013 (75 percent) and 1992 (80 percent). The percentage of 12th-graders performing at or above *Proficient* in 2015 (37 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2013, but it was lower than the percentage in 1992 (40 percent).

**Figure 3. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade students, by race/ethnicity: 1992, 2013, and 2015**



‡ Reporting standards not met (too few cases for a reliable estimate).  
NOTE: Includes public and private schools. The reading 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 1992. 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, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1992, 2013, and 2015 Reading Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 221.10.

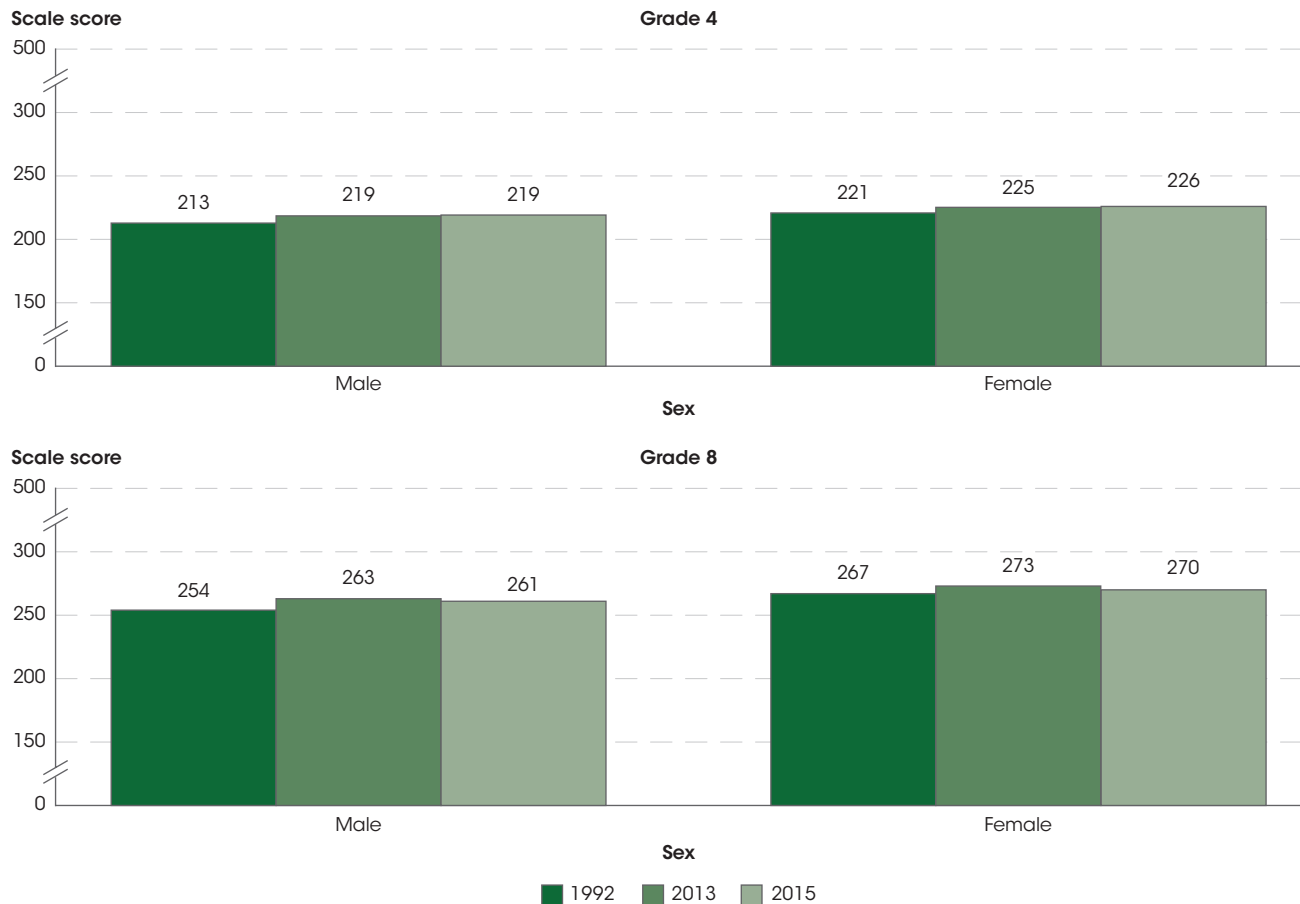
At grade 4, the average 2015 reading scores for White (232), Black (206), Hispanic (208), and Asian/Pacific Islander students (239) were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2013, but their average scores were all higher in 2015 than in 1992. At grade 8, average 2015 reading scores for White (274), Black (248), and Hispanic (253) students were lower than the scores in 2013 (276, 250, and 256, respectively), while the average 2015 reading score for Asian/Pacific Islander (280) students was not measurably different from the score in 2013. Consistent with the findings at grade 4, the average reading scores for White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian/Pacific Islander 8th-grade students were higher in 2015 than in 1992. In 2015, the average scores for American Indian/Alaska Native 4th-graders (205) and 8th-graders (252) were not measurably different from the scores in 2013 and 1994, the first year that data were available for American Indian/Alaska Native students at both

grades. Starting in 2011, separate data for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races were collected. At both grades 4 and 8, the 2015 average reading scores for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races were not measurably different from the scores in 2013 and 2011.

Closing achievement gaps is a goal of both national and state education policies. From 1992 through 2015, the average reading scores for White 4th- and 8th-graders were higher than those of their Black and Hispanic peers. Although the White-Black and White-Hispanic achievement gaps did not change measurably from 2013 to 2015 at either grade 4 or 8, some of the racial/ethnic achievement gaps have narrowed since 1992. At grade 4, the White-Black gap narrowed from 32 points in 1992 to 26 points in 2015; at grade 8, the White-Hispanic gap narrowed from 26 points in 1992 to 21 points in 2015.



**Figure 4. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade students, by sex: 1992, 2013, and 2015**



NOTE: Includes public and private schools. The reading 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 1992. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1992, 2013, and 2015 Reading Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 221.10.

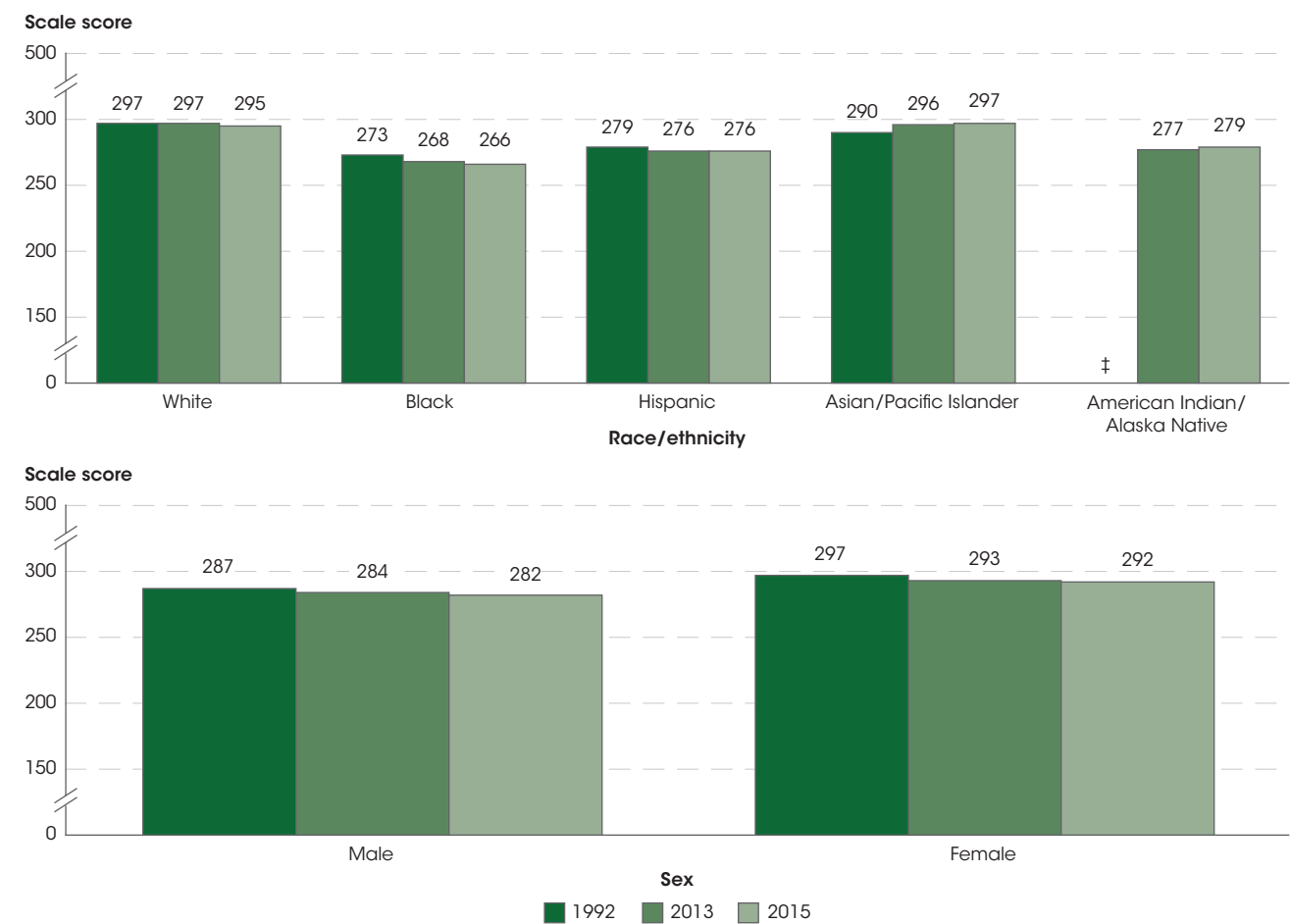
At grade 4, the average reading scores for male (219) and female (226) students in 2015 were not measurably different from those in 2013 but were higher than those in 1992 (213 and 221, respectively). At grade 8, the average reading score for male students in 2015 (261) was lower than in 2013 (263) but higher than the score in 1992 (254). Similarly, the average score for female 8th-grade students was lower in 2015 (270) than in 2013 (273) but higher than in 1992 (267). Since 1992, female students have scored higher than male students at both grades 4 and 8. The 2015 gender gap for 4th-grade students was not measurably different from the corresponding gaps in 2013 and 1992. The 2015 gender gap for 8th-grade students was not measurably different from the corresponding gap in 2013, but the 2015 gap (10 points) was smaller than the gap in 1992 (13 points).

Since 1998, NAEP has collected data regarding student English language learner (ELL) status.<sup>1</sup> For all available assessment years, the NAEP average reading scores for non-ELL 4th- and 8th-grade students were higher than the scores for their ELL peers. In 2015, the achievement

gap between non-ELL and ELL students was 37 points at the 4th-grade level and 45 points at the 8th-grade level; these gaps were not measurably different from the achievement gaps observed in 2013 and 1998.

In 2015, the average reading score for 4th-grade students in high-poverty<sup>2</sup> schools (205) was lower than the average scores for 4th-grade students in mid-high poverty schools (219), mid-low poverty schools (228), and low-poverty schools (241). At grade 8, the average 2015 reading score for students in high-poverty schools (248) was lower than the average scores for students in mid-high poverty schools (261), mid-low poverty schools (269), and low-poverty schools (281). In 2015, the achievement gap between the students at high-poverty schools and low-poverty schools was 36 points at grade 4 and 33 points at grade 8. These 2015 achievement gaps were not measurably different from the corresponding achievement gaps between students at high-poverty and low-poverty schools at grades 4 and 8 in 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011, and 2013.

**Figure 5. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scale scores of 12th-grade students, by race/ethnicity and sex: 1992, 2013, and 2015**



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

NOTE: Includes public and private schools. The reading 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 1992. 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, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1992, 2013, and 2015 Reading Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 221.10.

At grade 12, the average 2015 reading scores for White (295), Hispanic (276), and Asian/Pacific Islander students (297) were not measurably different from the scores in 2013 and 1992. For Black students, the 2015 average score (266) was lower than the 1992 score (273) but was not measurably different from the 2013 score. The average score for American Indian/Alaska Native students in 2015 (279) was not measurably different from the 2013 score. Starting in 2011, separate data for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races were collected. The 2015 average scores for Asian students and students of Two or more races were not measurably different from the scores in 2013.<sup>3</sup> Achievement gaps in reading were also evident for 12th-grade students. The White-Black 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 gap in any previous assessment year.

The 2015 average reading scores for male (282) and female (292) 12th-grade students were not measurably different from the scores in 2013 but were lower than the scores in 1992 (287 and 297, respectively). The achievement gap between male and female students at grade 12 in 2015 (10 points) was not measurably different from the corresponding gaps in 2013 and 1992. In 2015, non-ELL 12th-grade students scored higher than their ELL peers by 49 points. The achievement gap between non-ELL and ELL students in 2015 was not measurably different from the gaps in both 2013 and 1998.<sup>1</sup>

In 2015, the average reading score for 12th-grade students in high-poverty schools (266) was lower than the average scores for 12th-grade students in mid-high poverty schools (282), mid-low poverty schools (289), and low-poverty schools (298). The achievement gap between the students at high-poverty schools and low-poverty schools was 32 points in 2015, which was not measurably different from the gap in previous assessment years.



higher than the national public school average, and public school students in 10 states had average scores that were not measurably different from the national public school average. However, 8th-grade public school students in the District of Columbia and 13 states had average scores that were lower than the national public school average.

While there was no measurable change from 2013 to 2015 in the average reading score for 4th-grade public school students nationally, average scores were higher in 2015 than in 2013 in the District of Columbia and 12 states. Average 4th-grade scores were lower in 2015 than in 2013 in Maryland and Minnesota, while scores in all remaining states did not change measurably from 2013 to 2015. The

average reading score for 8th-grade public school students was lower in 2015 than in 2013 nationally and in 8 states. However, 8th-grade students in West Virginia scored higher in 2015 than in 2013. In the remaining states, scores did not change measurably from 2013 to 2015.

NAEP also collects public school data from urban districts at grades 4 and 8 based on the same reading assessment used to report national and state results. Twenty-one urban districts participated in 2015. The Trial Urban District Assessment (TUDA) is intended to focus attention on urban education and to measure the educational progress of participating large urban districts.

**Figure 7. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade public school students, by jurisdiction: 2015**

Jurisdiction	Grade 4	Grade 8
<b>Nation (public)</b>	<b>221</b>	<b>264</b>
<b>Large city</b>	<b>↓ 214</b>	<b>↓ 257</b>
Albuquerque (NM)	↓ 207	↓ 251
Atlanta (GA)	↓ 212	↓ 252
Austin (TX)	◆ 220	◆ 261
Baltimore City (MD)	↓ 199	↓ 243
Boston (MA)	◆ 219	↓ 258
Charlotte (NC)	↑ 226	◆ 263
Chicago (IL)	↓ 213	↓ 257
Cleveland (OH)	↓ 197	↓ 240
Dallas (TX)	↓ 204	↓ 250
Detroit (MI)	↓ 186	↓ 237
District of Columbia (DC)	↓ 214	↓ 245
Duval County (FL)	↑ 225	◆ 264
Fresno (CA)	↓ 199	↓ 242
Hillsborough County (FL)	↑ 230	◆ 261
Houston (TX)	↓ 210	↓ 252
Jefferson County (KY)	◆ 222	◆ 261
Los Angeles (CA)	↓ 204	↓ 251
Miami-Dade (FL)	↑ 226	◆ 265
New York City (NY)	↓ 214	↓ 258
Philadelphia (PA)	↓ 201	↓ 248
San Diego (CA)	↓ 216	◆ 262

↑ Higher average score than national average score   
 ↓ Lower average score than national average score   
 ◆ No significant difference between urban district and national average score

NOTE: The reading scale scores range from 0 to 500. "Large city" includes students from all cities in the nation with populations of 250,000 or more, including the participating districts.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2015 Reading Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 221.80.

In 2015, the average reading score for 4th-grade public school students in large cities<sup>4</sup> (214) was lower than the national public school average reading score (221). Additionally, at grade 4, average scores for public school students in urban districts participating in TUDA ranged from 186 to 230. Public school 4th-grade students in 4 urban districts (Charlotte, Duval County, Hillsborough County, and Miami-Dade) had average scores higher than the national public school average, while students in 3 urban districts (Austin, Boston, and Jefferson County) had scores that were not measurably different from the national public school average. However, public school 4th-grade students in 14 urban districts had scores lower than the national public school average. Similarly, the average reading score for 8th-grade public school students in large cities (257) was lower than the national public school average score (264). At grade 8, average scores for public school students in urban districts participating in TUDA in 2015 ranged from 237 to 265. None of the urban districts had average 8th-grade scores higher than the national public school average. Eighth-grade public school students in 7 urban districts had average scores that

were not measurably different from the national public school average. Eighth-grade public school students in the remaining 14 districts had average scores lower than the national public school average.

Of the 20 urban districts that participated in the Trial Urban District Assessment in both 2013 and 2015, average 4th- and 8th-grade reading scores in some districts changed over time. Fourth-grade public school students in 4 urban districts (Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, and the District of Columbia) performed better in reading in 2015 than in 2013. While there was a decline in 4th-grade public school students' average scores in Baltimore City, the average scores for students in the remaining 15 urban districts showed no measurable change between 2013 and 2015. Eighth-grade public school students in Miami-Dade scored higher in 2015 than in 2013 while 8th-grade students in 3 urban districts (Albuquerque, Baltimore City, and Hillsborough County) had lower average scores in 2015 than in 2013. Average scores for 8th-grade students in all other participating urban districts did not change measurably.

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#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> In the mid- to late-1990s, NAEP began a transition to include accommodations for ELL students and other students with special needs. Thus, 2015 data for ELL students are compared with data for 1998 instead of 1992 as in the remainder of the indicator.

<sup>2</sup> High-poverty schools are defined as schools where 76 to 100 percent of the students are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL). Mid-high poverty schools are those schools where 51 to 75 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-low poverty schools are those schools where 26 to 50 percent

of the students are eligible for FRPL. Low-poverty schools are defined as schools where 25 percent or less of the students are eligible for FRPL.

<sup>3</sup> A comparison between the two most recent assessment periods is not possible for Pacific Islander students because reporting standards were not met for these students in 2015.

<sup>4</sup> Large cities include students from all cities in the nation with populations of 250,000 or more, including the participating urban districts.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, tables 221.10, 221.12, 221.40, 221.60, and 221.80

**Related indicators and resources:** Mathematics Performance; Science Performance; Technology and Engineering Literacy; International Comparisons: Reading Literacy at Grade 4; International Comparisons: Science, Reading, and Mathematics Literacy of 15-Year-Old Students; Reading and Mathematics Score Trends [*web-only*]

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**Glossary:** Achievement gap; Achievement levels, NAEP; English language learner (ELL); Public school or institution; Racial/ethnic group

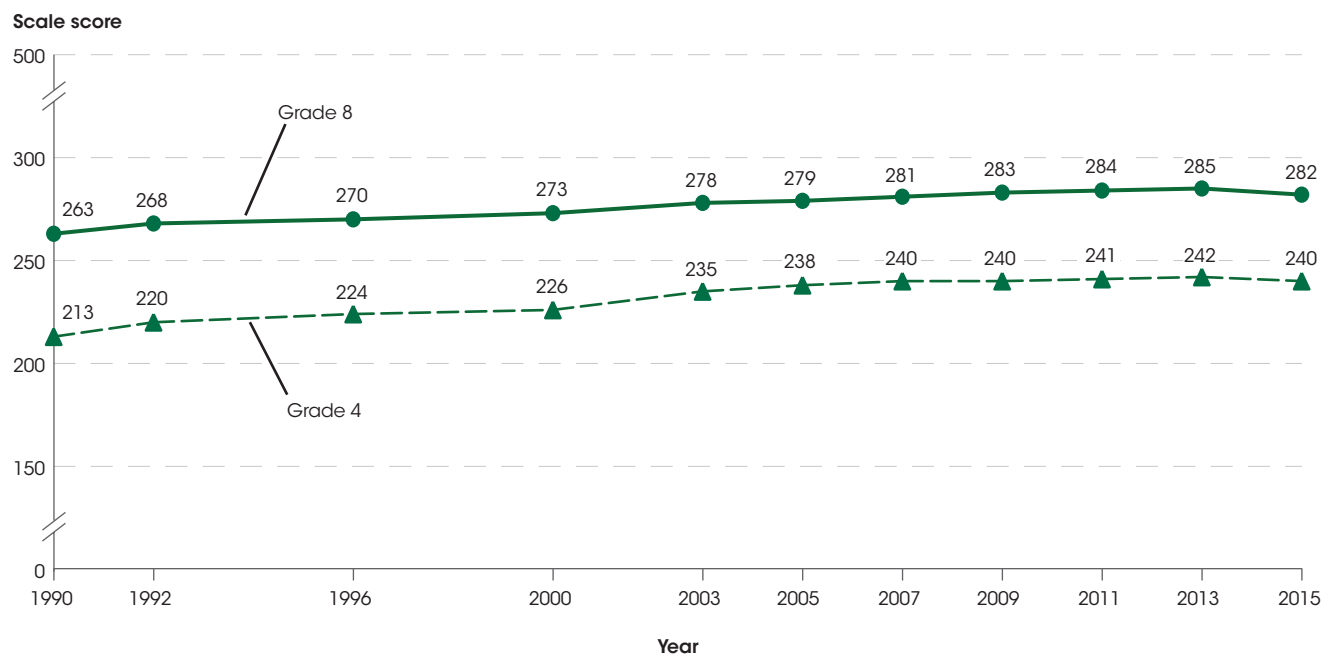
## Mathematics Performance

The average 4th- and 8th-grade mathematics scores in 2015 were lower than the scores in 2013 but were higher than the scores in 1990, according to data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress. At grade 12, the average mathematics score in 2015 was lower than the score in 2013, but not measurably different from the score in 2005.

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 achievement levels define what students should know and be able to do: *Basic* indicates partial mastery of

fundamental skills, and *Proficient* indicates demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter. NAEP mathematics assessments have been administered periodically since 1990. The most recent mathematics assessments were conducted in 2015 for grades 4, 8, and 12.

**Figure 1. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade students: Selected years, 1990–2015**



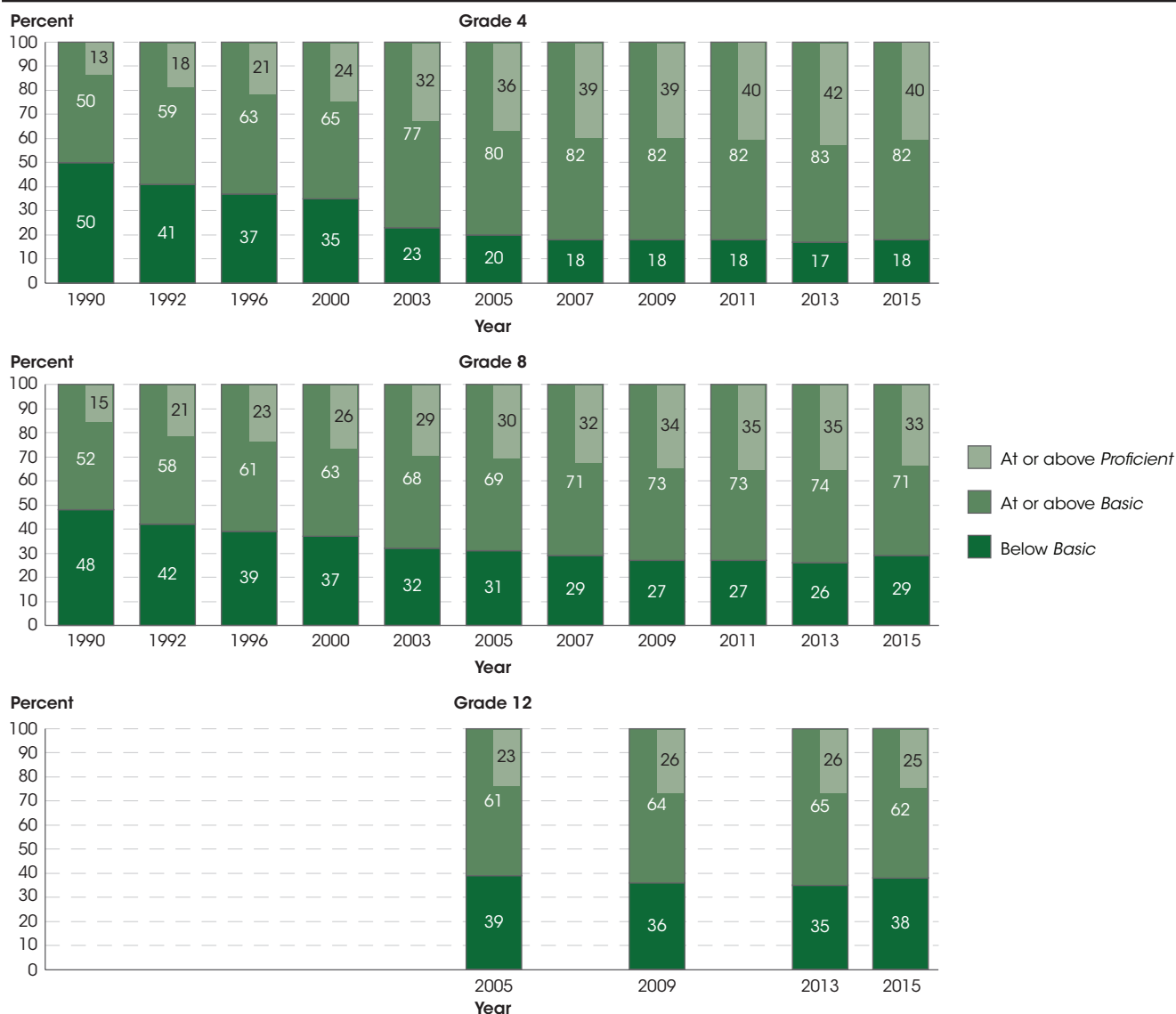
NOTE: Includes public and private schools. At grades 4 and 8, the mathematics scale scores range from 0 to 500. Testing accommodations (e.g., extended time, small group testing) for children with disabilities and English language learners were not permitted in 1990 and 1992.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), selected years, 1990–2015 Mathematics Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 222.10.

In 2015, for the first time, the average mathematics scores for 4th- and 8th-grade students were lower than the average scores in the previous assessment year. The average 4th-grade mathematics score in 2015 (240) was lower than the score in 2013 (242), although it was higher than the score in 1990 (213). The average 8th-grade mathematics score in 2015 (282) was lower than the score in 2013

(285). However, the average 8th-grade score in 2015 was higher than the score in 1990 (263). The average 12th-grade mathematics score in 2015 (152) was lower than the score in 2013 (153), but not measurably different from the score in 2005, the first year the revised assessment was administered.<sup>1</sup>

**Figure 2. Percentage of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-grade students across National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics achievement levels: Selected years, 1990–2015**

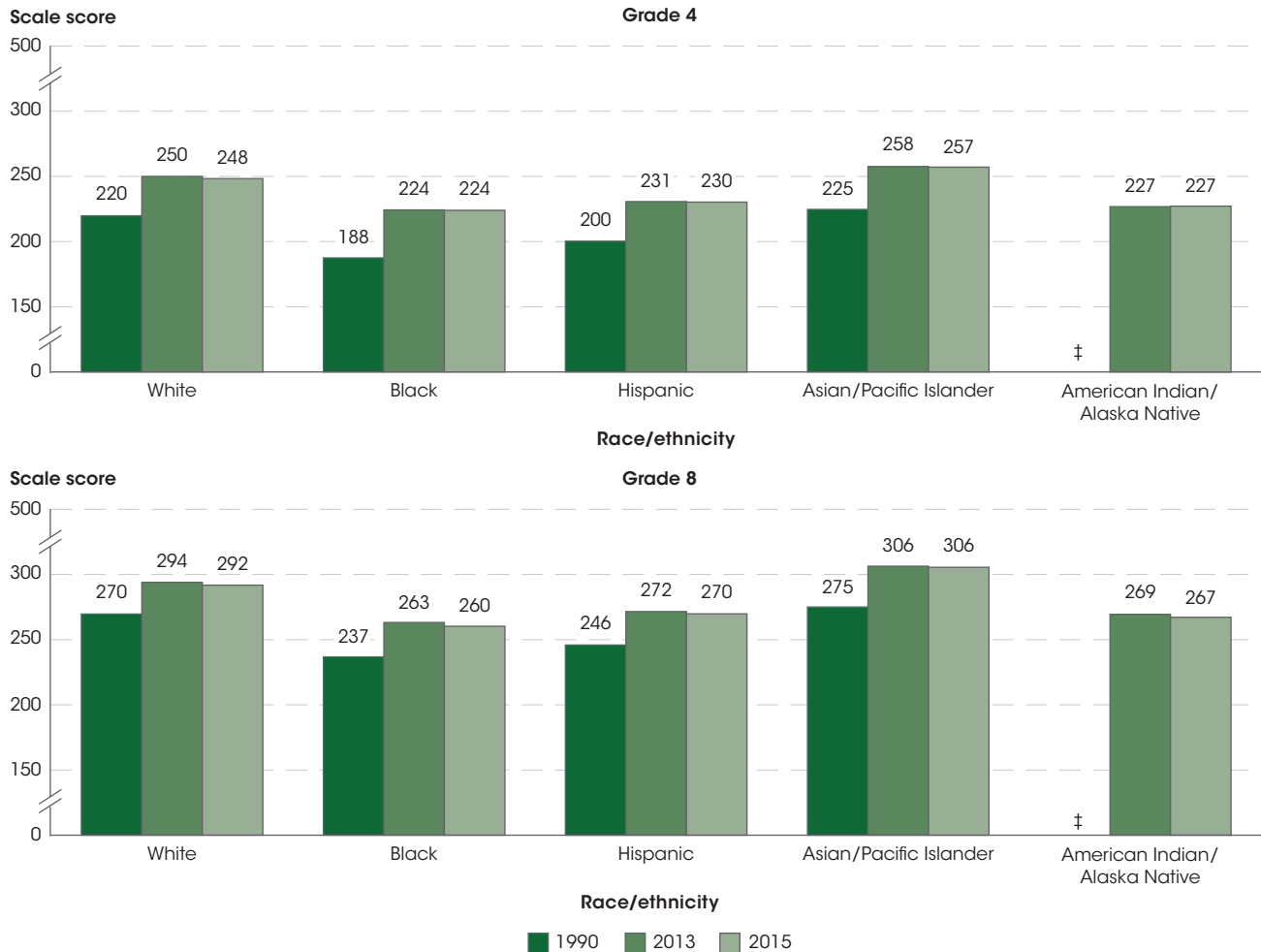


NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Achievement levels define what students should know and be able to do: *Basic* indicates partial mastery of fundamental skills, and *Proficient* indicates demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter. In 2005, there were major changes to the framework and content of the grade 12 assessment, and, as a result, scores from 2005 and later assessment years cannot be compared with scores and results from earlier assessment years. Assessment was not conducted for grade 12 in 2000, 2003, 2007, and 2011. Testing accommodations (e.g., extended time, small group testing) for children with disabilities and English language learners were not permitted in 1990 and 1992. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), selected years, 1990–2015 Mathematics Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 222.12.

In 2015, some 82 percent of 4th-grade students performed at or above the *Basic* achievement level in mathematics, and 40 percent performed at or above the *Proficient* level. While the percentage of 4th-grade students performing at or above *Basic* in 2015 was lower than in 2013 (83 percent), it was higher than the percentage in 1990 (50 percent). The percentage of 4th-grade students performing at or above *Proficient* in 2015 (40 percent) was lower than in 2013 (42 percent). However, the percentage of 4th-grade students performing at or above *Proficient* in 2015 was higher than in 1990 (13 percent). In 2015, some 71 percent of 8th-grade students performed at or above *Basic* in mathematics, and 33 percent performed at or above *Proficient*. The percentage of 8th-grade students

performing at or above *Basic* was lower in 2015 than in 2013 (74 percent), but was higher than the percentage in 1990 (52 percent). The percentage of 8th-grade students who scored at or above *Proficient* in 2015 (33 percent) was also lower than the percentage in 2013 (35 percent), but was higher than the percentage in 1990 (15 percent). The percentage of 12th-grade students performing at or above *Basic* in 2015 (62 percent) was lower than the percentage in 2013 (65 percent), but not measurably different from the percentage in 2005. The percentage performing at or above *Proficient* (25 percent) was not measurably different from the percentages in 2013 and in 2005.

**Figure 3. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade students, by race/ethnicity: 1990, 2013, and 2015**



‡ Reporting standards not met (too few cases for a reliable estimate).  
NOTE: Includes public and private schools. At grades 4 and 8, 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. 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, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1990, 2013, and 2015 Mathematics Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 222.10.

At grade 4, the average mathematics score in 2015 for White students (248) was lower than the score in 2013 (250), while the average scores in 2015 for Black (224), Hispanic (230), and Asian/Pacific Islander (257) students were not measurably different from the 2013 scores. However, the 4th-grade average scores for White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian/Pacific Islander students were all higher in 2015 than in 1990. The 2015 average score for 4th-grade American Indian/Alaska Native students (227) was not measurably different from the scores in 2013 and in 1996, the first year that data were available for these students. At grade 8, the average scores for White (292), Black (260), and Hispanic students (270) were lower in 2015 than in 2013 (294, 263, and 272, respectively). The 2015 average score for Asian/Pacific Islander students (306) was not measurably different from the score in 2013. However, the average scores for 8th-grade White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian/Pacific Islander students were all higher in 2015 than in 1990. The 2015 average score

for 8th-grade American Indian/Alaska Native students (267) was not measurably different from the scores in 2013 and in 2000, the first year data were available for these students. Starting in 2011, separate data for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races were collected. At grades 4 and 8, the 2015 average mathematics scores for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races were not measurably different from the scores in 2013 and 2011.

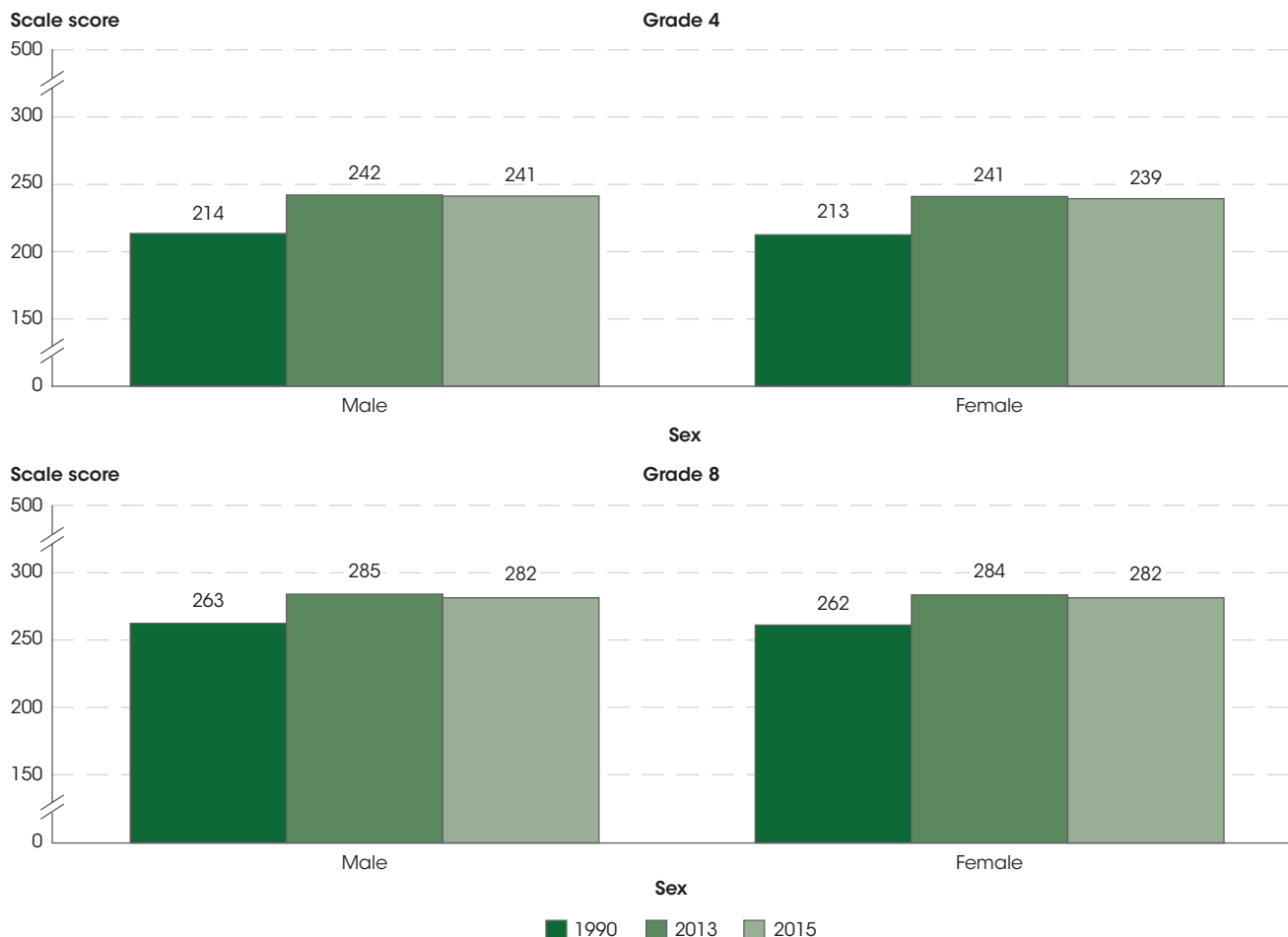
Closing achievement gaps is a goal of both national and state education policies. In 2015, and in all previous assessment years since 1990, the average mathematics scores for White students in grades 4 and 8 have been higher than the scores of their Black and Hispanic peers. For both grades, there was some narrowing of racial/ethnic achievement gaps since the early 1990s. For example, the White-Black achievement gap at grade 4



narrowed from 32 points in 1990 to 24 points in 2015. Additionally, this 4th-grade White-Black achievement gap narrowed from 26 points in 2013 to 24 points in 2015, due to a decrease in White students' scores from 2013 to 2015. The 4th-grade White-Hispanic achievement gap in 2015 (18 points) was not measurably different from

the gap in 2013. In 2015, the 8th-grade achievement gaps between White and Black students' average scores (32 points) and between White and Hispanic students' scores (22 points) were not measurably different from 2013.

**Figure 4. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade students, by sex: 1990, 2013, and 2015**



NOTE: Includes public and private schools. At grades 4 and 8, 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. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 1990, 2013, and 2015 Mathematics Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 222.10.

The average mathematics score in 2015 for male 4th-grade students (241) was not measurably different from the score in 2013, but was higher than the score in 1990 (214). For female 4th-grade students, the 2015 average score (239) was lower than the score in 2013 (241), but was higher than the score in 1990 (213). The average mathematics score in 2015 for male 8th-grade students (282) was lower than the score in 2013 (285), but was higher than the score in 1990 (263). Similarly, for female 8th-grade students, the average score in 2015 (282) was lower than in 2013 (284), but was higher than the score

in 1990 (262). In 2015, there was a 2-point gap between the mathematics scores for male and female students at grade 4, which was not measurably different from the gaps in 2013 and 1990. At grade 8, no measurable gender achievement gap was observed in 1990, 2013, and 2015.

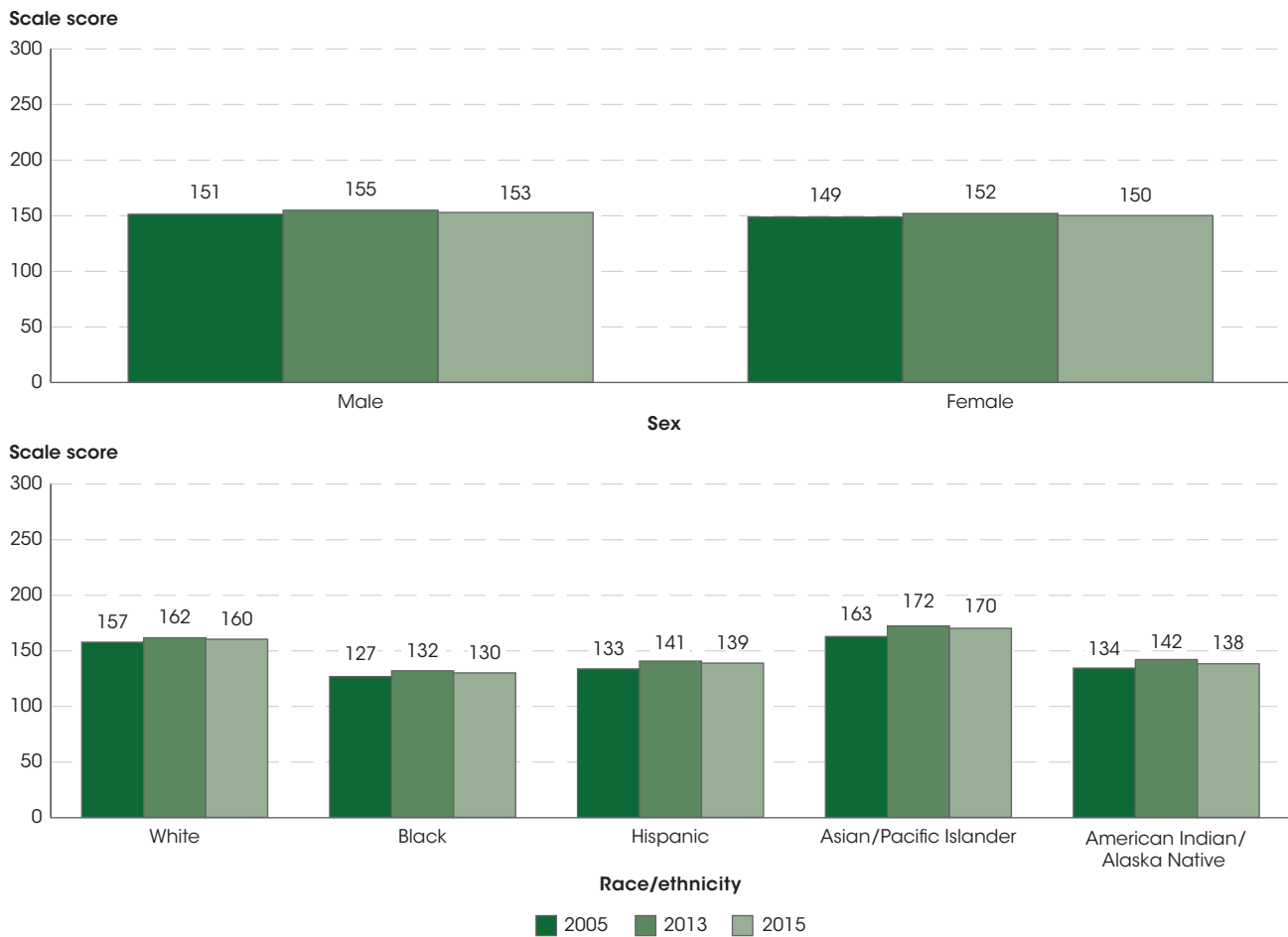
Since 1996, NAEP has collected data on student English language learner (ELL) status for grades 4 and 8.<sup>2</sup> For all available years of data, the average mathematics scores for non-ELL 4th- and 8th-grade students were higher than their ELL peers' scores. In 2015, the achievement

gap between non-ELL and ELL students was 25 points at grade 4 and 38 points at grade 8. At grade 4, this achievement gap was not measurably different from the gap observed in any assessment year since 1996. At grade 8, the achievement gap between non-ELL and ELL students narrowed from 46 points in 1996 and 41 points in 2013 to 38 points in 2015.

In 2015, the average mathematics score for 4th-grade students in high-poverty<sup>3</sup> schools (226) was lower than the average scores for 4th-grade students in mid-high

poverty schools (237), mid-low poverty schools (245), and low-poverty schools (257). At grade 8, the average 2015 mathematics score for students in high-poverty schools (264) was lower than the average scores for students in mid-high poverty schools (276), mid-low poverty schools (287), and low-poverty schools (301). In 2015, the achievement gap between the students at high-poverty schools and low-poverty schools was 30 points at grade 4 and 38 points at grade 8. At both grades 4 and 8, this achievement gap was not measurably different from the gap observed in any assessment year since 2005.

**Figure 5. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale scores of 12th-grade students, by sex and race/ethnicity: 2005, 2013, and 2015**



NOTE: Includes public and private schools. At grade 12, the mathematics scale scores range from 0 to 300. 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, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2005, 2013, and 2015 Mathematics Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 222.10.

At grade 12, the average 2015 scores for White (160), Black (130), Hispanic (139), Asian/Pacific Islander (170), and American Indian/Alaska Native students (138) were not measurably different from the scores in 2013. However, the average scores for all racial/ethnic groups were higher in 2015 than in 2005, except the score for

American Indian/Alaska Native students, which was not measurably different. Starting in 2011, separate data for Asian students, Pacific Islander students, and students of Two or more races were collected. The 2015 average scores for Asian students and students of Two or more races were not measurably different from the scores in 2013.<sup>4</sup> The

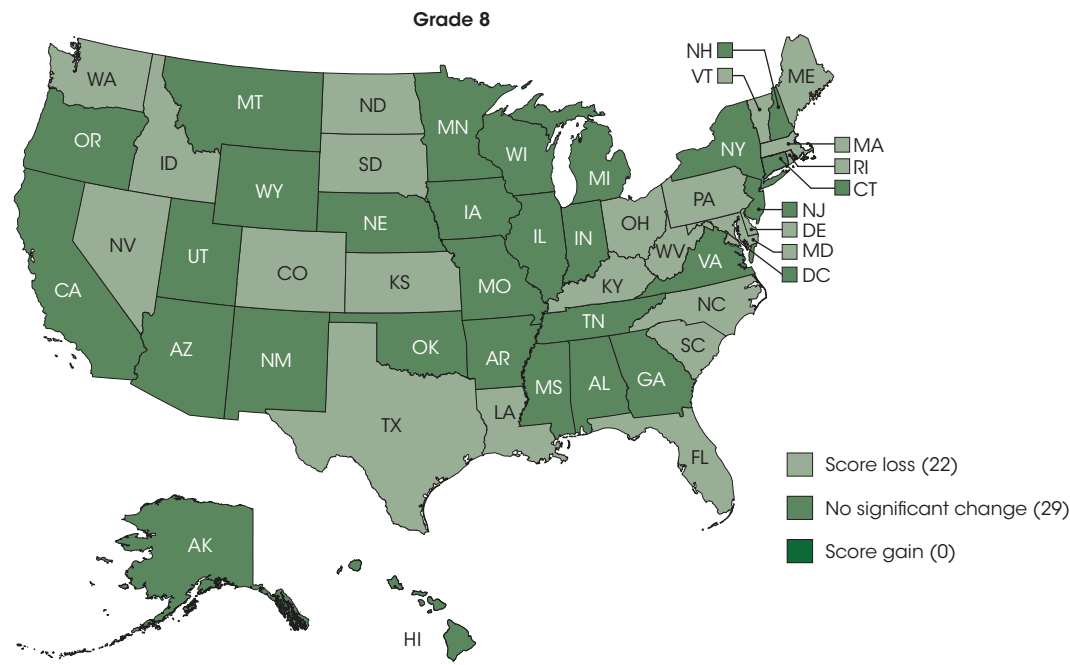
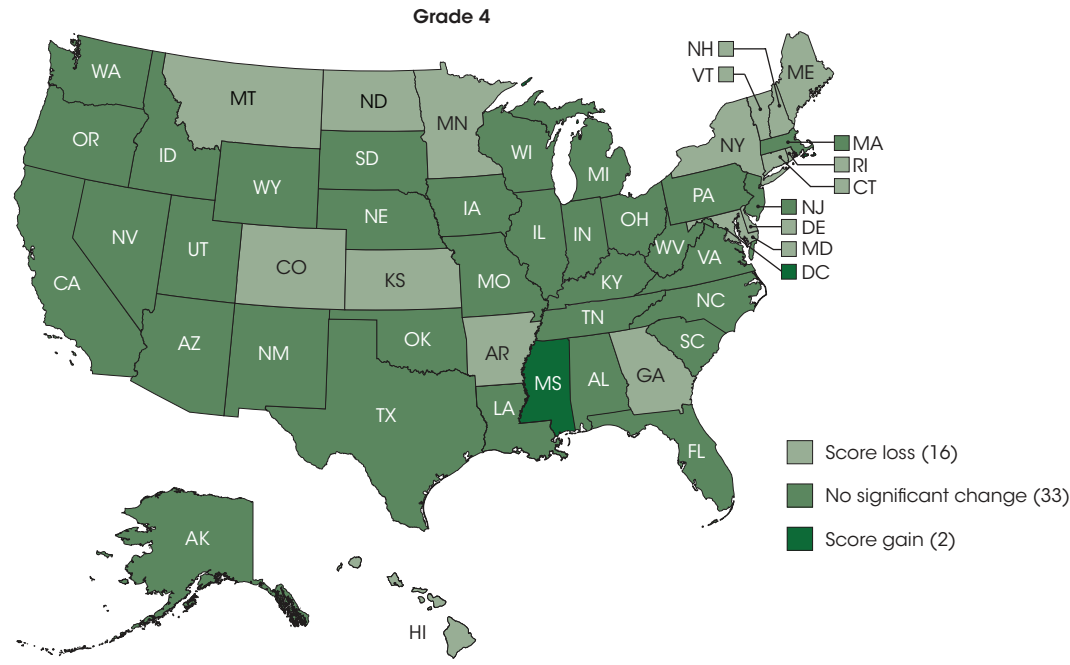
average mathematics scores for White 12th-grade students were higher than the scores for their Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native peers in 2005, 2009, 2013, and 2015. There were no measurable changes in racial/ethnic achievement gaps during this period.

Average mathematics scores in 2015 for 12th-grade male (153) and female (150) students were lower than the scores in 2013 (155 and 152, respectively) and were not measurably different from the scores in 2005. In 2005, 2009, 2013, and 2015, the gender gap for 12th-grade students remained at 3 points. The average scores for non-ELL 12th-grade students in 2005 (151), 2009 (154), 2013 (155), and 2015 (153) were higher than their ELL peers' scores in these years (120, 117, 109, and 115, respectively). The achievement gap between non-ELL and ELL students narrowed from 46 points in 2013 to 37 points in 2015.

In 2015, the average mathematics score for 12th-grade students in high-poverty schools (129) was lower than the average scores for 12th-grade students in mid-high poverty schools (145), mid-low poverty schools (154), and low-poverty schools (164). The achievement gap between the students at high-poverty schools and low-poverty schools was 36 points in 2015, which was not measurably different from the gap in previous assessment years.

NAEP results also permit state-level comparisons of the mathematics achievement of 4th- and 8th-grade students in public schools. In 2015, the average mathematics scores varied across the states for public school students in both grades. At grade 4, the national public school average score was 240, and scores across states ranged from 231 to 251. In 20 states, the average score for public school 4th-grade students was higher than the national public school average score. In 14 states, the average mathematics score for 4th-grade public school students was not measurably different from the national public school average. However, average scores in the District of Columbia and the remaining 16 states were lower than the national public school average. At grade 8, the 2015 national public school average score was 281, and scores among public school students across states ranged from 263 to 297. In 2015, 8th-grade average scores for public school students in 22 states were higher than the national public school average, and in 14 states, the average scores for public school 8th-grade students were not measurably different from the national public school average. However, public school 8th-grade students in the District of Columbia and 14 states had average scores that were lower than the national public school average.

**Figure 6. Change in average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade public school students, by state: 2013 and 2015**



NOTE: At grades 4 and 8, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale ranges from 0 to 500. "Gain" is defined as a significant increase from 2013 to 2015, "no change" is defined as no significant change from 2013 to 2015, and "loss" is defined as a significant decrease from 2013 to 2015.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2013 and 2015 Mathematics Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, tables 222.50 and 222.60.

The average mathematics score for 4th-grade public school students across the nation was lower in 2015 (240) than in 2013 (241). Average 4th-grade mathematics scores for public school students were also lower in 2015 than in 2013 in 16 states. However, the mathematics average score for 4th-grade students in Mississippi and the District of Columbia were higher in 2015 than in 2013. Scores were not measurably different in the other states during this

period. The national public school average mathematics score for 8th-grade students was lower in 2015 (281) than in 2013 (284). Similarly, 22 states had lower 8th-grade average scores in 2015 than in 2013, while scores for the remaining 28 states and the District of Columbia were not measurably different between 2013 and 2015. During this time, no state experienced a score increase at the 8th-grade level.

**Figure 7. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade public school students, by jurisdiction: 2015**

Jurisdiction	Grade 4	Grade 8
<b>Nation (public)</b>	<b>240</b>	<b>281</b>
<b>Large city</b>	<b>↓ 234</b>	<b>↓ 274</b>
Albuquerque (NM)	↓ 231	↓ 271
Atlanta (GA)	↓ 228	↓ 266
Austin (TX)	↑ 246	↑ 284
Baltimore City (MD)	↓ 215	↓ 255
Boston (MA)	↓ 236	◆ 281
Charlotte (NC)	↑ 248	↑ 286
Chicago (IL)	↓ 232	↓ 275
Cleveland (OH)	↓ 219	↓ 254
Dallas (TX)	◆ 238	↓ 271
Detroit (MI)	↓ 205	↓ 244
District of Columbia (DC)	↓ 232	↓ 258
Duval County (FL)	↑ 243	↓ 275
Fresno (CA)	↓ 218	↓ 257
Hillsborough County (FL)	↑ 244	↓ 276
Houston (TX)	◆ 239	↓ 276
Jefferson County (KY)	↓ 236	↓ 272
Los Angeles (CA)	↓ 224	↓ 263
Miami-Dade (FL)	◆ 242	↓ 274
New York City (NY)	↓ 231	↓ 275
Philadelphia (PA)	↓ 217	↓ 267
San Diego (CA)	↓ 233	◆ 280

↑ Higher average score than national average score    
 ↓ Lower average score than national average score    
 ◆ No significant difference between urban district and national average score

NOTE: At grades 4 and 8, the mathematics scale scores range from 0 to 500. "Large city" includes students from all cities in the nation with populations of 250,000 or more, including the participating districts.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2015 Mathematics Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 222.80.

NAEP also collects public school data from urban districts at grades 4 and 8, based on the same mathematics assessment used to report national and state results. In 2015, 21 urban districts participated. The Trial

Urban District Assessment (TUDA) is intended to focus attention on urban education and to measure the educational progress of participating large urban districts.

In 2015, average mathematics scores across participating urban districts varied for both grades. The average mathematics scores of 4th-grade public school students in large cities<sup>5</sup> (234) was lower than the national public school average score (240). At grade 4, average urban district scores for public school students in participating districts ranged from 205 to 248. Students in four urban districts (Austin, Charlotte, Duval County, and Hillsborough County) had average scores higher than the national public school average, while students in three urban districts had scores that were not measurably different from the national public school average. However, students in the remaining 14 urban districts had average scores lower than the national public school average. At grade 8, average urban district scores for public school students in participating districts in 2015 ranged from 244 to 286. The average mathematics score of 8th-grade public school students in large cities (274) was lower than the national public school average score (281). Eighth-grade students in Austin and Charlotte had average scores that were higher than the national public school average, and 8th-grade students in Boston and San Diego had average scores that were not measurably

different from the national public school average. However, students in the remaining 17 urban districts had scores lower than the national public school average.

Of the 20 urban districts that participated in the Trial Urban District Assessment in both 2013 and 2015, average mathematics scores at 4th and 8th grade in some urban districts changed over time. The average scores for 4th-grade students in Dallas, the District of Columbia, and Miami-Dade were higher in 2015 than in 2013. The average scores for 4th-grade students in 10 participating urban districts were not measurably different between 2013 and 2015. However, the average scores for 4th-grade students in the remaining seven urban districts were lower in 2015 than in 2013. At grade 8, students in Chicago had higher average scores in 2015 than did their peers in 2013. Average mathematics scores for 8th-grade students in 16 participating urban districts were not measurably different during this same period. However, 8th-grade students in the remaining three districts (Dallas, Hillsborough County, and Houston) scored lower in 2015 on average than in 2013.

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#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> 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.

<sup>2</sup> In the mid- to late-1990s, NAEP began a transition to include accommodations for ELL students and other students with special needs. Thus, 2015 data for ELL students are compared with data for 1996 instead of 1990 as in the remainder of the indicator.

<sup>3</sup> High-poverty schools are defined as schools where more than 76 percent of the students are eligible for free or reduced-price

lunch (FRPL). Mid-high poverty schools are those schools where 51 to 75 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-low poverty schools are those schools where 26 to 50 percent of the students are eligible for FRPL. Low-poverty schools are defined as schools where 25 percent or less of the students are eligible for FRPL.

<sup>4</sup> A comparison between the two most recent assessment periods is not possible for Pacific Islander students because reporting standards were not met for these students in 2015.

<sup>5</sup> Large cities include students from all cities in the nation with populations of 250,000 or more, including the participating districts.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, tables 222.10, 222.12, 222.50, 222.60, and 222.80

**Related indicators and resources:** Reading Performance; Science Performance; Technology and Engineering Literacy; International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders' Mathematics and Science Achievement; International Comparisons: Science, Reading, and Mathematics Literacy of 15-Year-Old Students; Reading and Mathematics Score Trends [*web-only*]

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**Glossary:** Achievement gap; Achievement levels, NAEP; English language learner (ELL); Public school or institution; Racial/ethnic group

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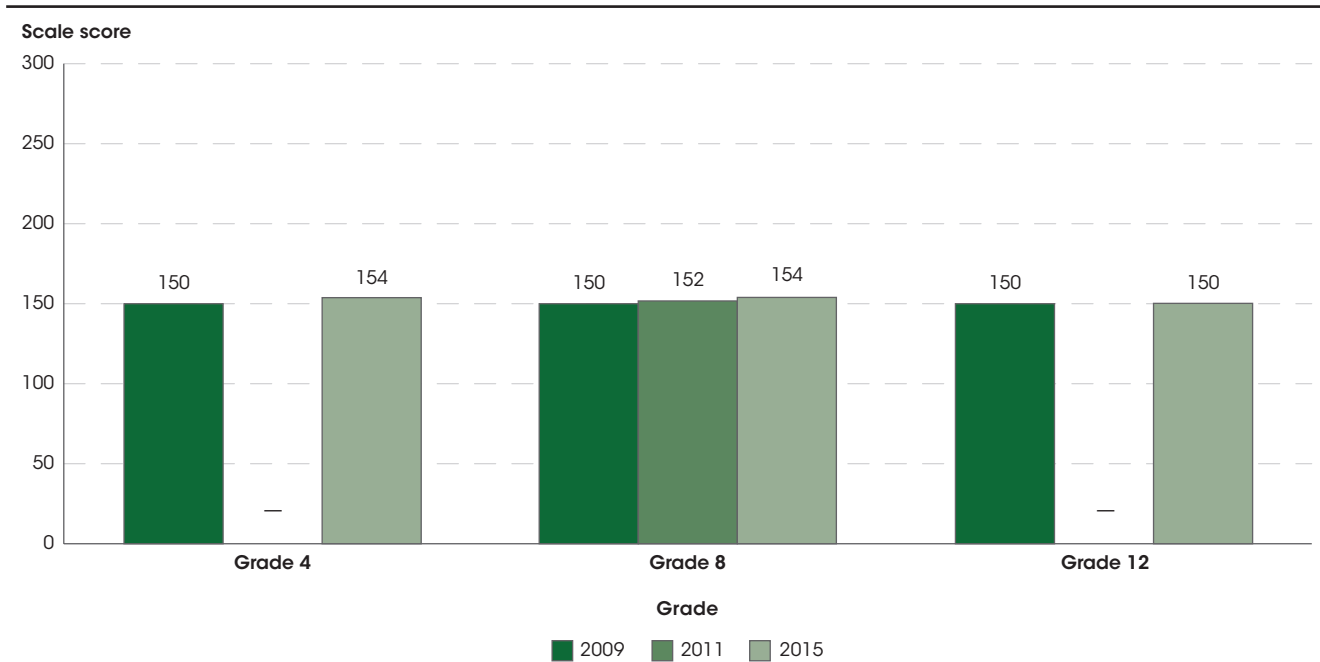
## Science Performance

The percentage of 4th-grade students scoring at or above the Proficient level was higher in 2015 (38 percent) than in 2009 (34 percent), according to data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress. In addition, the percentage of 8th-grade students scoring at or above the Proficient level was higher in 2015 (34 percent) than in 2009 (30 percent). The percentage of 12th-grade students scoring at or above the Proficient level in 2015 (22 percent) was not measurably different from the percentage in 2009.

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) assesses student performance in science at grades 4, 8, and 12 in both public and private schools across the nation. The NAEP science assessment was designed to measure students’ knowledge of three content areas: physical science, life science, and Earth and space sciences. NAEP science scores range from 0 to 300 for all three grades. NAEP achievement levels define what students should

know and be able to do: *Basic* indicates partial mastery of fundamental skills, and *Proficient* indicates demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter. The most recent science assessments were conducted in 2015 for grades 4, 8, and 12. Prior to 2015, grades 4 and 12 were last assessed in 2009 while grade 8 was assessed in 2011 and 2009.<sup>1</sup>

**Figure 1. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) science scale scores of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-grade students: 2009, 2011, and 2015**



— Not available.

NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Scale ranges from 0 to 300 for all grades, but scores cannot be compared across grades. Assessment was not conducted for grades 4 and 12 in 2011.

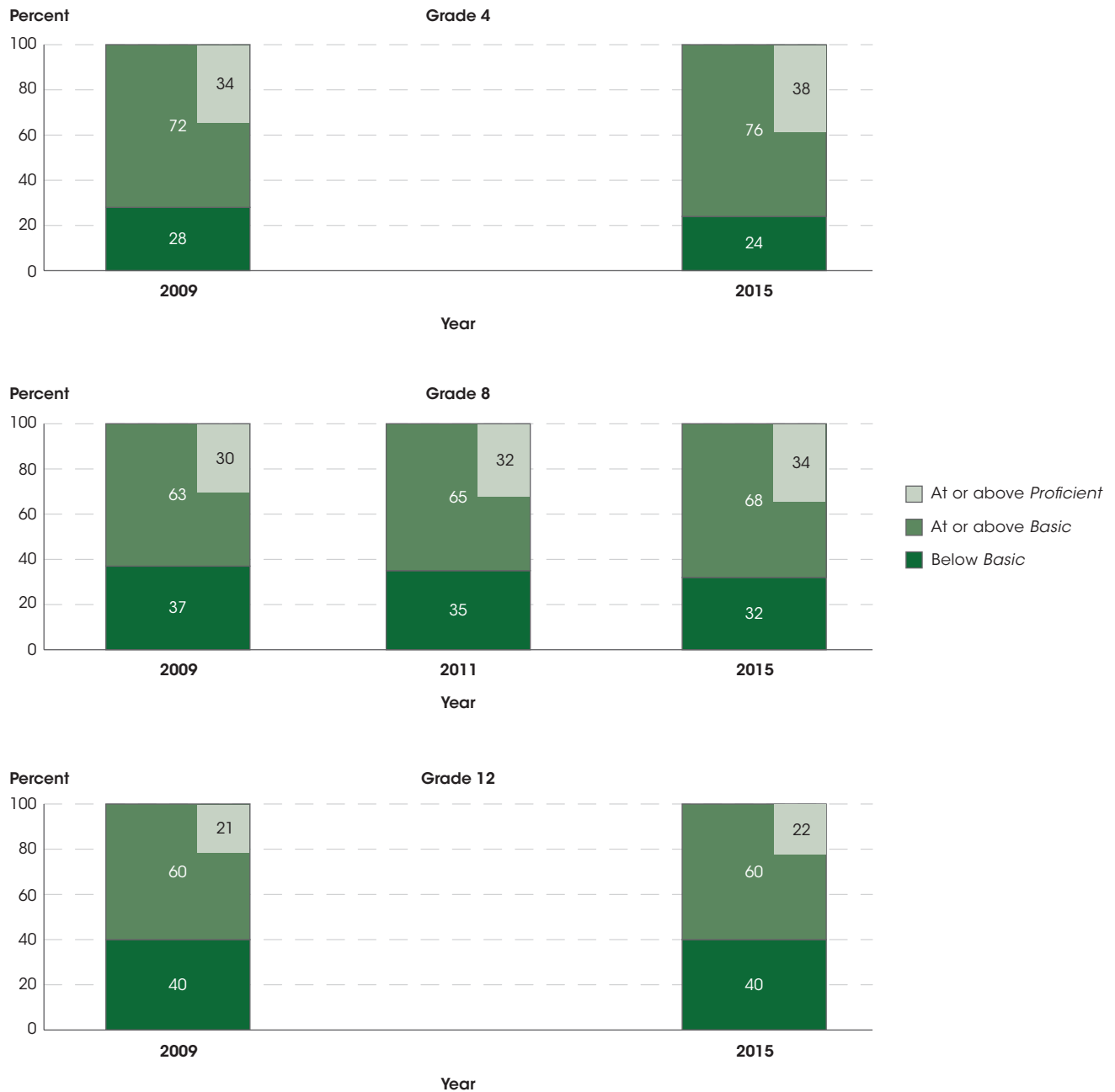
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2009, 2011, and 2015 Science Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 223.10.

In 2015, the average 4th-grade science score (154) was higher than the score in 2009 (150). The average 8th-grade science score in 2015 (154) was higher than the scores in

both 2009 (150) and 2011 (152). The average 12th-grade science score in 2015 (150) was not measurably different from the score in 2009.



**Figure 2. Percentage distribution of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-grade students across National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) science achievement levels: 2009, 2011, and 2015**

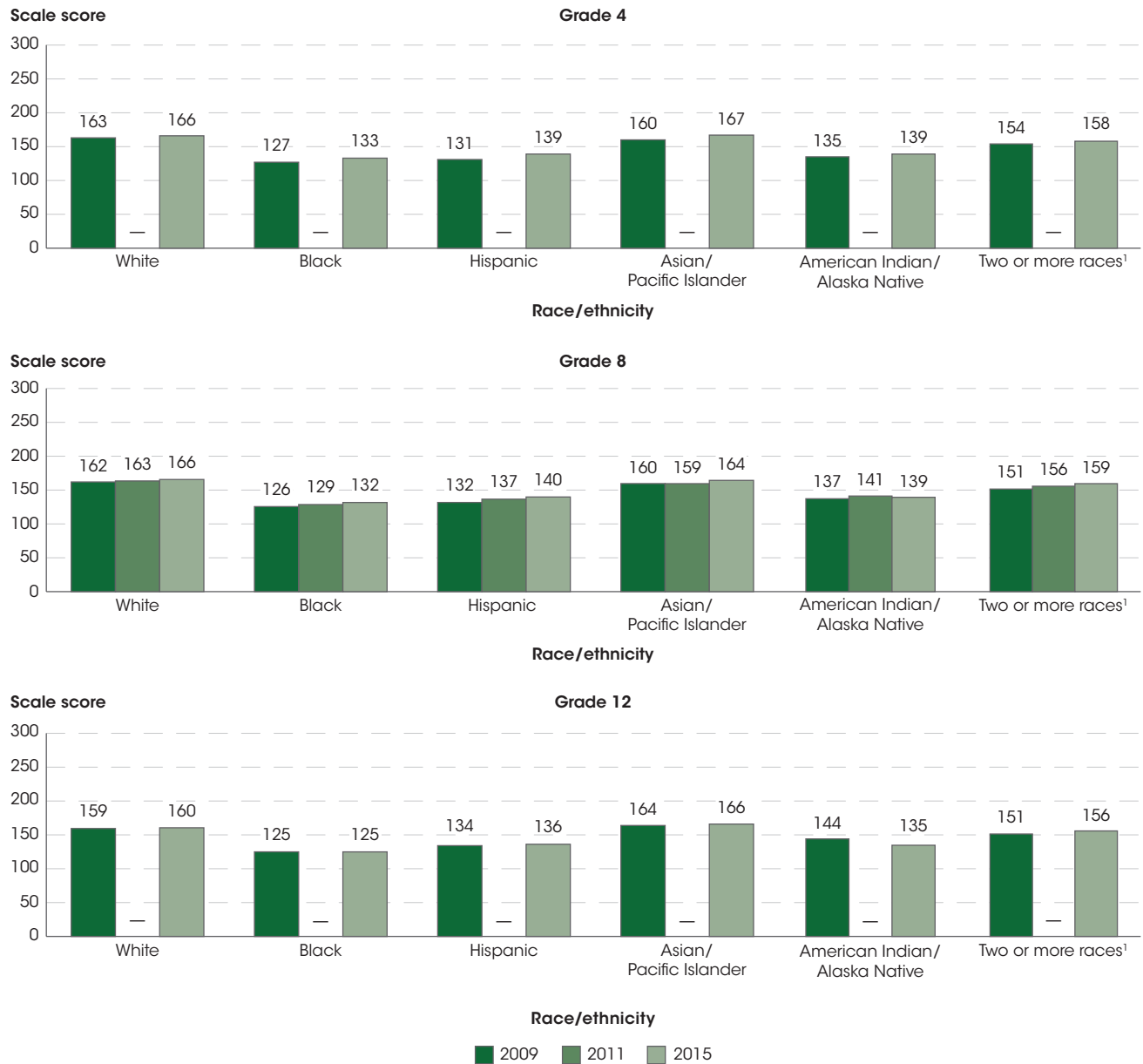


NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Achievement levels define what students should know and be able to do: *Basic* indicates partial mastery of fundamental skills, and *Proficient* indicates demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter. Assessment was not conducted for grades 4 and 12 in 2011. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2009, 2011, and 2015 Science Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 223.10.

In 2015, about 76 percent of 4th-grade students performed at or above the *Basic* achievement level in science, and 38 percent performed at or above the *Proficient* level. These percentages were higher than the corresponding 2009 percentages for at or above *Basic* (72 percent) and at or above *Proficient* (34 percent). Among 8th-grade students in 2015, about 68 percent performed at or above *Basic* in science, and 34 percent performed at or above *Proficient*. The percentage performing at or above *Basic*

was higher in 2015 than in both 2009 (63 percent) and 2011 (65 percent), and the percentage performing at or above *Proficient* was also higher in 2015 than in 2009 (30 percent) and 2011 (32 percent). The percentages of 12th-grade students in 2015 performing at or above *Basic* (60 percent) and at or above *Proficient* (22 percent) were not measurably different from the corresponding percentages in 2009.

**Figure 3. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) science scale scores of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-grade students, by race/ethnicity: 2009, 2011, and 2015**



— Not available.

<sup>1</sup> In 2009, students in the "Two or more races" category were categorized as "Unclassified."

NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Scale ranges from 0 to 300 for all grades, but scores cannot be compared across grades. Assessment was not conducted for grades 4 and 12 in 2011. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2009, 2011, and 2015 Science Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 223.10.

At grade 4, the average scores for Asian/Pacific Islander students (167), White students (166), students of Two or more races<sup>2</sup> (158), Hispanic students (139), American Indian/Alaska Native students (139), and Black students (133) in 2015 were higher than the corresponding scores

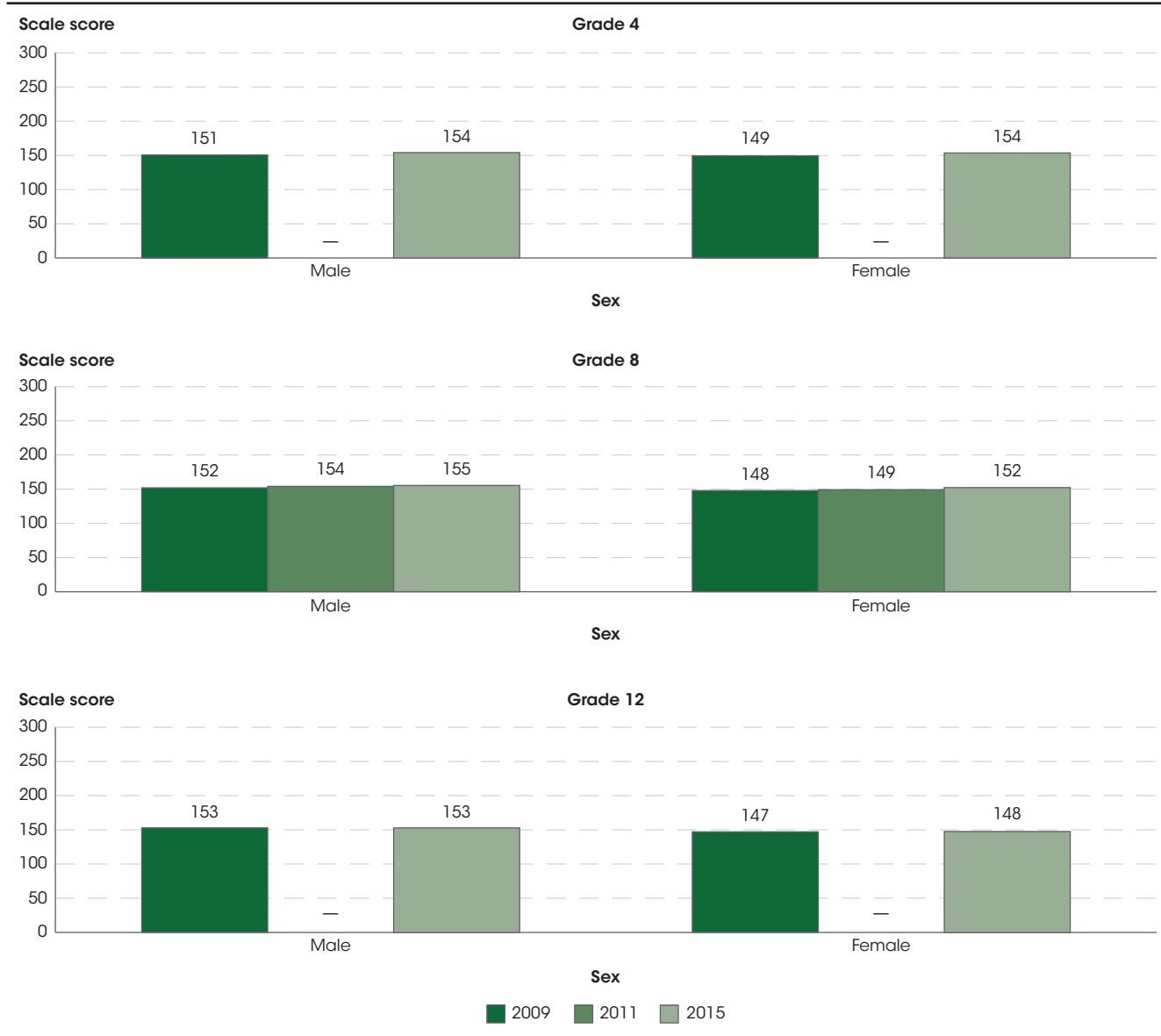
in 2009. Starting in 2011, separate data for Asian and Pacific Islander students were collected. In 2015, the first year that data for these students were available at grade 4, the average score was 169 for Asian students and 143 for Pacific Islander students.

At grade 8, the average scores for White (166), Asian/Pacific Islander (164), Hispanic (140), and Black students (132) in 2015 were higher than the corresponding scores in 2009 and in 2011. The 2015 average score for students of Two or more races (159) was higher than the corresponding score in 2009 but was not measurably different from the score in 2011. The 2015 average score for American Indian/Alaska Native students (139) was not measurably different from the scores in 2009 and 2011. The 2015 average score for Asian students (166) was higher than the score in 2011, while the 2015 average score for Pacific Islander students (138) was not measurably different from the score in 2011.

At grade 12, the average 2015 science scores for Asian/Pacific Islander students (166), White students (160), students of Two or more races (156), Hispanic students (136), American Indian/Alaska Native students (135), and Black students (125) were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2009. The 2015 average score for Asian students was 167, while the average score for Pacific Islander students is unavailable because reporting standards were not met.

While the average science scores for White 4th- and 8th-grade students remained higher than those of their Black and Hispanic peers in 2015, racial/ethnic achievement gaps in 2015 were smaller than in 2009. At grade 4, the White-Black achievement gap was 36 points in 2009 and 33 points in 2015, and the White-Hispanic achievement gap was 32 points in 2009 and 27 points in 2015. At grade 8, the White-Black achievement gap in 2009 (36 points) was larger than in 2015 (34 points), and the White-Hispanic achievement gap was 30 points in 2009 and 26 points in 2015. However, these 2015 achievement gaps at grade 8 were not measurably different from the corresponding gaps in 2011. Additionally, while the average science scores for White 12th-grade students remained higher than those of their Black and Hispanic peers in 2015, these racial/ethnic achievement gaps did not measurably change between 2009 and 2015. At grade 12, the White-Black achievement gap (36 points) and the White-Hispanic gap (24 points) in 2015 were not measurably different from the corresponding gaps in 2009.

**Figure 4. Average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) science scale scores of 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-grade students, by sex: 2009, 2011, and 2015**



— Not available.

NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Scale ranges from 0 to 300 for all grades, but scores cannot be compared across grades. Assessment was not conducted for grades 4 and 12 in 2011.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2009, 2011, and 2015 Science Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 223.10.

The average science score for male 4th-grade students in 2015 (154) was higher than the score in 2009 (151). The average score for female 4th-grade students was also higher in 2015 (154) than in 2009 (149). While there was a 1-point gap between male and female 4th-grade students in 2009, there was no measurable gender gap in 2015. The average science score for male 8th-grade students in 2015 (155) was higher than the scores in 2009 (152) and 2011 (154). Similarly, for female 8th-grade students, the average score in 2015 (152) was higher than the scores in 2009 (148) and 2011 (149). In 2015, 2011,

and 2009, the average science score for male 8th-grade students was higher than that of their female peers. The 3-point score gap between male and female 8th-graders in 2015 was smaller than the gap in 2011 (5 points) but not measurably different from the gap in 2009. Average science scores in 2015 for 12th-grade male (153) and female (148) students were not measurably different from the corresponding scores in 2009. In addition, the 5-point gender gap among 12th-grade students in 2015 was not measurably different from the gap in 2009.

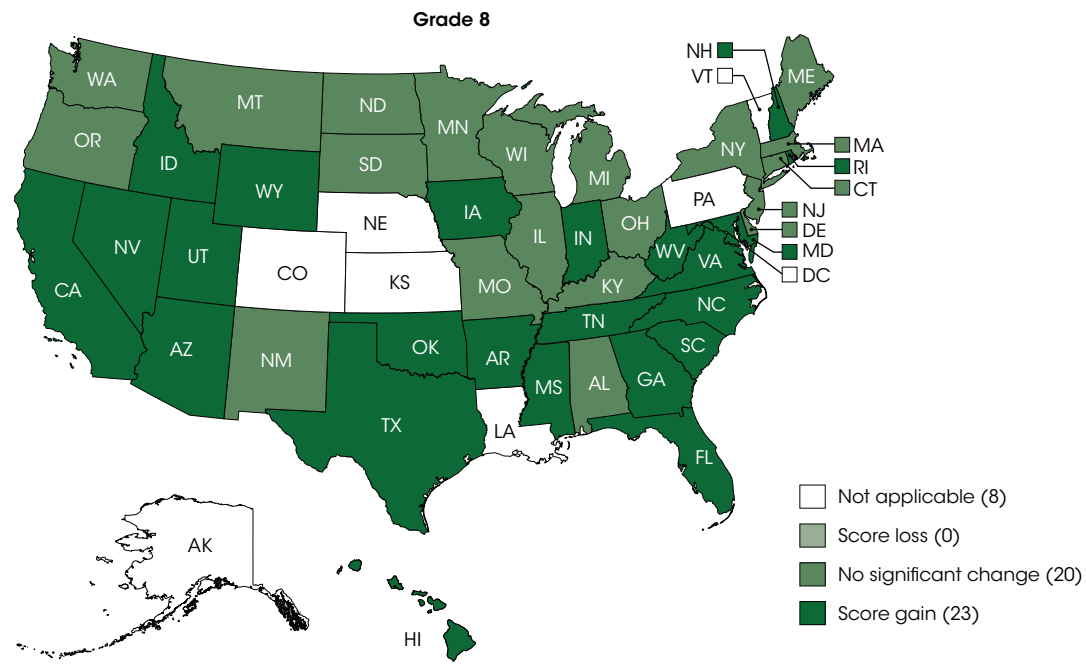
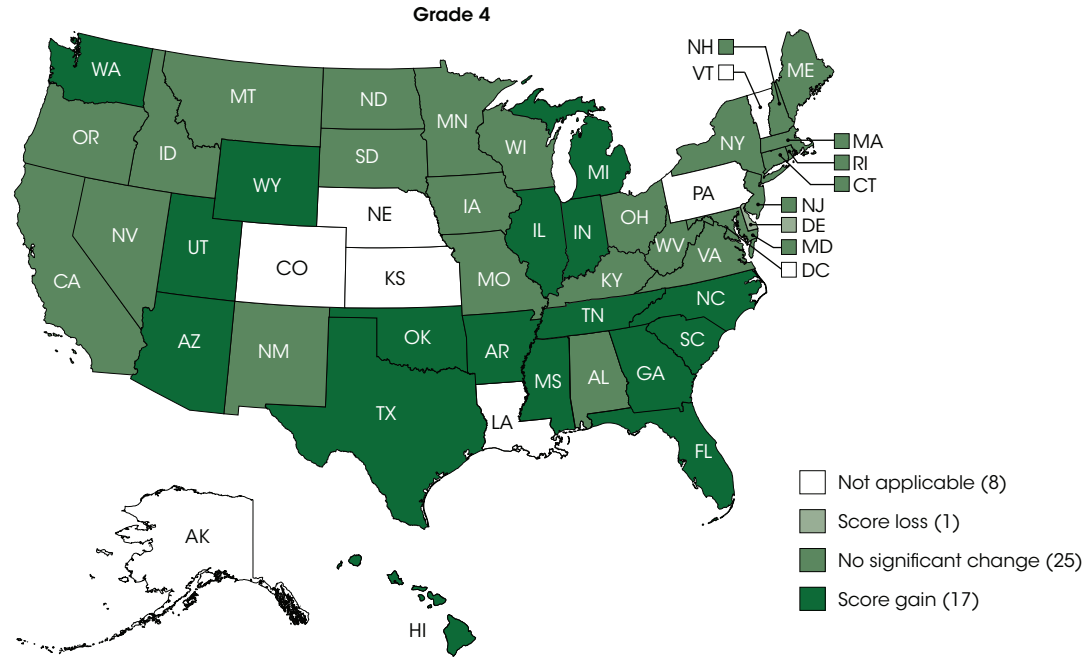
Since 2009, the average science scores for English language learner (ELL) 4th- and 8th-grade students were lower than their non-ELL peers' scores. At grade 4, the achievement gap between non-ELL and ELL students was larger in 2009 (39 points) than in 2015 (36 points). At grade 8, the 2015 achievement gap (46 points) was not measurably different from the gaps in 2009 and 2011. At grade 12, the average scores for non-ELL students in 2015 (152) and 2009 (151) were higher than their ELL peers' scores in those years (105 and 104, respectively). The 47-point achievement gap between non-ELL and ELL 12th-grade students in 2015 was not measurably different from the gap in 2009.

In 2015, the average science score for 4th-grade students in high-poverty schools (134) was lower than the average scores for 4th-grade students in mid-high poverty schools (151), mid-low poverty schools (161), and low-poverty schools (172).<sup>3</sup> At grade 8, the average 2015 science score for students in high-poverty schools (134) was lower than the average scores for students in mid-high poverty schools (150), mid-low poverty schools (161), and low-poverty schools (170). At grade 4, the 2015 achievement gap between students at high-poverty schools and low-poverty schools (38 points) was lower than the gap in 2009 (41 points). At grade 8, the 2015 achievement gap (36 points) was lower than the gap in 2009 (41 points)

but was not measurably different from the gap in 2011. At grade 12 in 2015, the average science score for students in high-poverty schools (126) was lower than the average scores for those in mid-high poverty schools (143), mid-low poverty schools (154), and low-poverty schools (165). The achievement gap between students at high-poverty schools and low-poverty schools was 39 points in 2015, which was not measurably different from the gap in 2009.

NAEP results also permit state-level comparisons of the science performance of 4th- and 8th-grade students in public schools. Forty-six states<sup>4</sup> participated in the NAEP science assessment in 2015, and average scores varied across the states for both grades. At grade 4, the national public school average score was 153, and state average scores ranged from 140 to 165. Twenty-two states had average scores that were higher than the national average, 15 states had average scores that were not measurably different from the national average, and 9 states had average scores that were lower than the national average. At grade 8, the 2015 national public school average score was also 153, and state average scores ranged from 140 to 166. Twenty-six states had average scores that were higher than the national average, 6 states had average scores that were not measurably different from the national average, and 14 states had scores that were lower than the national average.

**Figure 5. Change in average National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) science scale scores of 4th- and 8th-grade public school students, by state: 2009 and 2015**



NOTE: Scale ranges from 0 to 300 for all grades, but scores cannot be compared across grades. "Gain" is defined as a significant increase from 2009 to 2015, "no change" is defined as no significant change from 2009 to 2015, and "loss" is defined as a significant decrease from 2009 to 2015.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2009 and 2015 Science Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 223.20.

Forty-three states participated in the NAEP science assessment in both 2009 and 2015 at grades 4 and 8.<sup>5</sup> The average science score for 4th-grade public school students across the nation was higher in 2015 (153) than in 2009 (149). Seventeen states had average 4th-grade scores that were also higher in 2015 than in 2009, while 25 states had average scores in 2015 that were not measurably different from their average scores in 2009. Delaware's average score for 4th-grade students was lower in 2015 (150) than

in 2009 (153). The national public school average science score for 8th-grade students was also higher in 2015 (153) than in 2009 (149). Similarly, 23 states had higher average 8th-grade scores in 2015 than in 2009, while average scores for the remaining 20 states in 2015 were not measurably different from their scores in 2009. During this time, no state experienced a score loss at the 8th-grade level.

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**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> In 2009, a new science framework was introduced at all grade levels. A variety of factors made it necessary to create a new framework: the publication of *National Science Education Standards* (1996) and *Benchmarks for Scientific Literacy* (1993), advances in both science and cognitive research, the growth in national and international science assessments, advances in innovative assessment approaches, and the need to incorporate accommodations so that the widest possible range of students can be fairly assessed. Consequently, the science results in 2009 and subsequent years cannot be compared to previous assessments, and a new trend line was established beginning in 2009.

<sup>2</sup> In 2009, students in the "Two or more races" category were categorized as "Unclassified."

<sup>3</sup> High-poverty schools are defined as schools where 76 percent or more of students are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch

(FRPL). Mid-high poverty schools are schools where 51 to 75 percent of students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-low poverty schools are schools where 26 to 50 percent of students are eligible for FRPL. Low-poverty schools are defined as schools where 25 percent or less of students are eligible for FRPL.

<sup>4</sup> In 2015, Alaska, Colorado, the District of Columbia, Louisiana, and Pennsylvania did not participate or did not meet the minimum participation guidelines for reporting at grades 4 and 8.

<sup>5</sup> 2009 NAEP science assessment results are not available for Alaska, the District of Columbia, Kansas, Nebraska, and Vermont, and 2015 results are not available for Alaska, Colorado, the District of Columbia, Louisiana, and Pennsylvania. States either did not participate or did not meet the minimum participation guidelines for reporting.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 223.10 and 223.20

**Related indicators and resources:** Reading Performance; Mathematics Performance; Technology and Engineering Literacy Assessment; International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders' Mathematics and Science Achievement; International Comparisons: Science, Reading, and Mathematics Literacy of 15-Year-Old Students

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**Glossary:** Achievement gap; Achievement levels, NAEP; English language learners (ELL); Public school or institution; Racial/ethnic group

## Technology and Engineering Literacy

*Overall, 43 percent of 8th-grade students performed at or above the Proficient level on the National Assessment of Educational Progress Technology and Engineering Literacy assessment in 2014. The percentage of students scoring at or above the Proficient level was higher for White and Asian students (56 percent each) than for Black students (18 percent), Hispanic students (28 percent), Pacific Islander students (30 percent), and students of Two or more races (45 percent).*

The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) assessment measures whether students are able to apply technology and engineering skills to real-life situations. In the assessment framework, technology is defined as “any modification of the natural world done to fulfill human needs or desires,” and engineering is defined as “a systematic and often iterative approach to designing objects, processes, and systems to meet human needs and wants.”

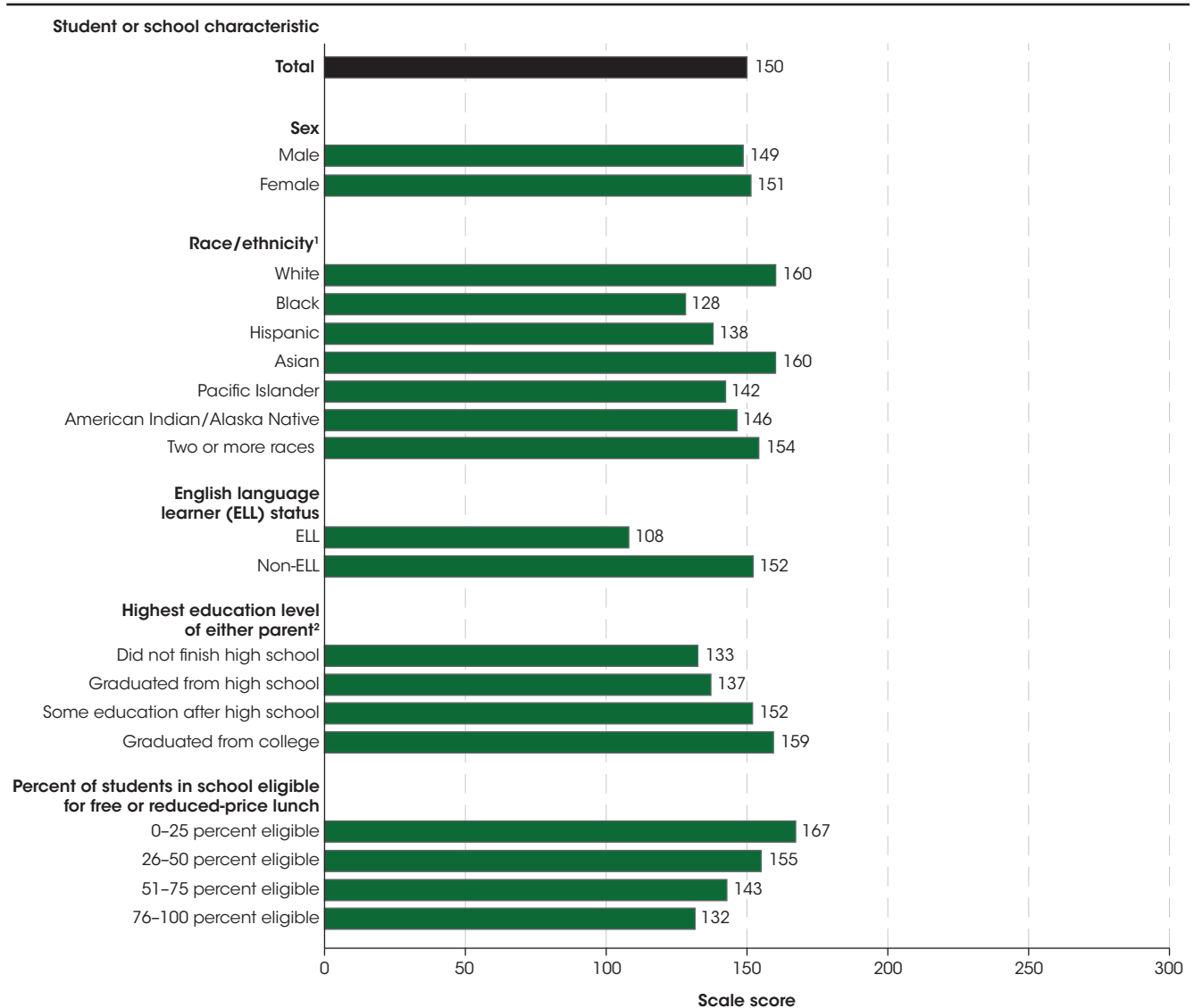
The TEL assessment is designed to measure three content areas. The first, **Technology and Society**, involves the effects that technology has on society and on the natural world and the ethical questions that arise from those effects. The second content area, **Design and Systems**, covers the nature of technology, the engineering design process by which technologies are developed, and basic principles of dealing with everyday technologies such as maintenance and troubleshooting. The final content area, **Information and Communication Technology**, includes

computers and software learning tools; networking systems and protocols; handheld digital devices; and other technologies for accessing, creating, and communicating information and for facilitating creative expression.<sup>1</sup>

The TEL assessment was administered in 2014 to 8th-grade students in both public and private schools across the nation. In addition to the assessment, TEL included a questionnaire on demographics and students’ experiences with technology and engineering, both inside and outside of school. The questionnaire covered student experiences related to each of the three content areas.

This indicator first describes students’ overall performance on the TEL assessment using scale scores<sup>2</sup> and achievement levels. Next, the indicator describes differences in students’ technology and engineering experiences in school and outside of school, with respect to student and school characteristics. It also explores associations between students’ technology and engineering experiences and their TEL scores.



**Figure 1. Average overall National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) scale scores of 8th-graders, by selected student and school characteristics: 2014**

<sup>1</sup> Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

<sup>2</sup> These data are based on students' responses to questions about their parents' education level. Data for students whose parents have an unknown level of education are not shown separately.

NOTE: Scale ranges from 0 to 300. Includes public and private schools. Includes students tested with accommodations (10 percent of all 8th-graders); excludes only those students with disabilities and English language learners who were unable to be tested even with accommodations (1 percent of all 8th-graders).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2014 Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 224.70.

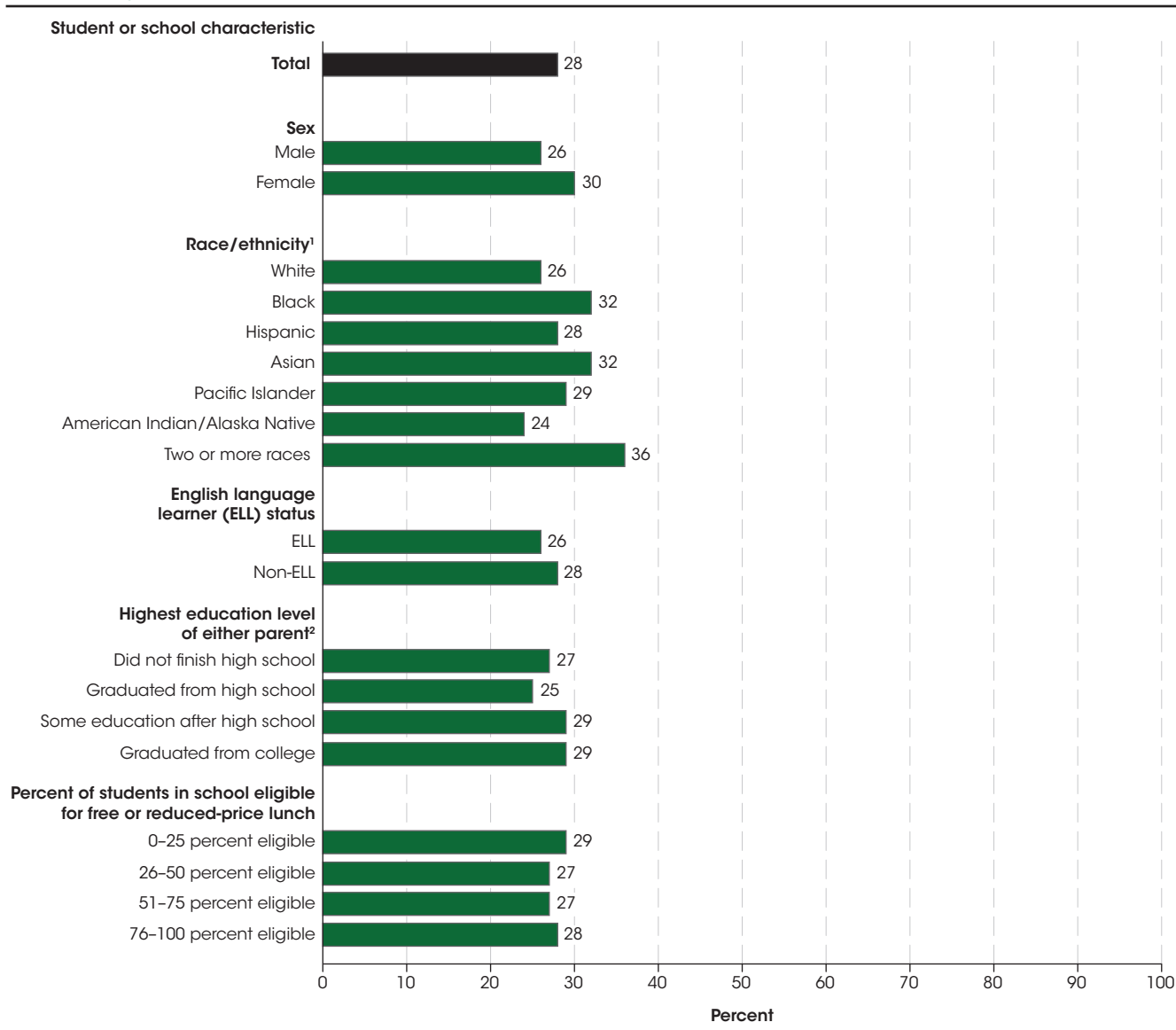
In 2014, the average overall TEL score for 8th-grade students was 150 points on a scale ranging from 0 to 300. Student achievement on the TEL assessment varied by student and school characteristics. For example, female students scored higher on average than male students (151 vs. 149). The average TEL score for White and Asian students (both at 160) was higher than the average scores for Black (128), Hispanic (138), Pacific Islander (142), and American Indian/Alaska Native students (146), and not measurably different from the average score for students

of Two or more races (154). In addition, English language learners (ELL) had lower average scores (108) than non-ELL students (152). The average TEL score was highest for students whose parents graduated from college (159) and lowest for students whose parents did not finish high school (133). TEL scores also varied by school poverty status. The average TEL score was highest for students in low-poverty schools (167) and lowest for students in high-poverty schools (132).<sup>3</sup>

TEL achievement levels define what students should know and be able to do: *Basic* indicates partial mastery of fundamental skills, and *Proficient* indicates demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter. Overall, 83 percent of 8th-grade students performed at or above the *Basic* achievement level of the TEL assessment in 2014, with 43 percent performing at or above the *Proficient* level. The percentage of students scoring at or above *Proficient* was higher for White and Asian students (56 percent each) than for Black students (18 percent), Hispanic students (28 percent), Pacific Islander students (30 percent), and students of Two or more races (45 percent). The percentage of American Indian/Alaska Native students (42 percent) scoring at or above *Proficient* was not measurably different from that of any other racial/ethnic group. In addition, 45 percent of non-ELL students scored at or above the *Proficient* level, compared with 5 percent of ELL students.

The TEL questionnaire, administered in addition to the TEL assessment, included questions about 8th-grade students' in-school and outside-school experiences in each of the three content areas. In the **Technology and Society** content area, students reported how frequently they learned about or discussed various topics in school and outside of school using the response options of "never," "rarely," "sometimes," or "often." More than two-thirds of 8th-graders reported sometimes or often learning about or discussing topics related to Technology and Society in school in 2014. For example, 43 percent of students reported sometimes and 28 percent reported often learning about or discussing the ways people work together to solve problems in their community or the world.

**Figure 2. Percentage of 8th-graders who reported often learning about or discussing in school the ways people work together to solve problems in their community or the world, by selected student and school characteristics: 2014**



<sup>1</sup> Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

<sup>2</sup> These data are based on students' responses to questions about their parents' education level. Data for students whose parents have an unknown level of education are not shown separately.

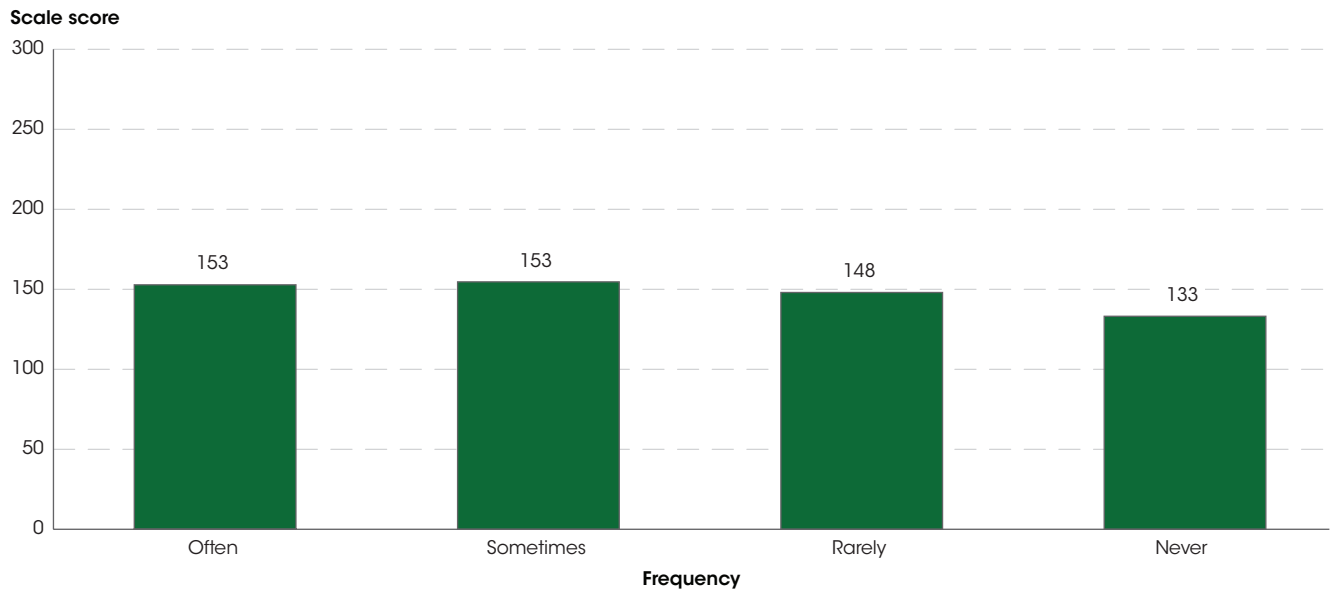
NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Includes students tested with accommodations (10 percent of all 8th-graders); excludes only those students with disabilities and English language learners who were unable to be tested even with accommodations (1 percent of all 8th-graders).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2014 Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 224.74a.

The percentage of students who reported learning about or discussing technology- and society-related topics in school varied by student and school characteristics. In general, higher percentages of female students than male students and higher percentages of Black students than White and Hispanic students reported often learning about or discussing technology- and society-related topics in school. For example, the percentage of students who reported they often learned about or discussed in school

the ways people work together to solve problems in their community or the world was higher for female students (30 percent) than for male students (26 percent); and the percentage was higher for Black students (32 percent) than for Hispanic (28 percent) and White students (26 percent). In general, the percentages of students who reported often learning about or discussing various technology- and society-related topics in school were not measurably different by school poverty status.

**Figure 3. Average overall National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) scale scores of 8th-graders, by frequency of learning about or discussing in school the ways people work together to solve problems in their community or the world: 2014**



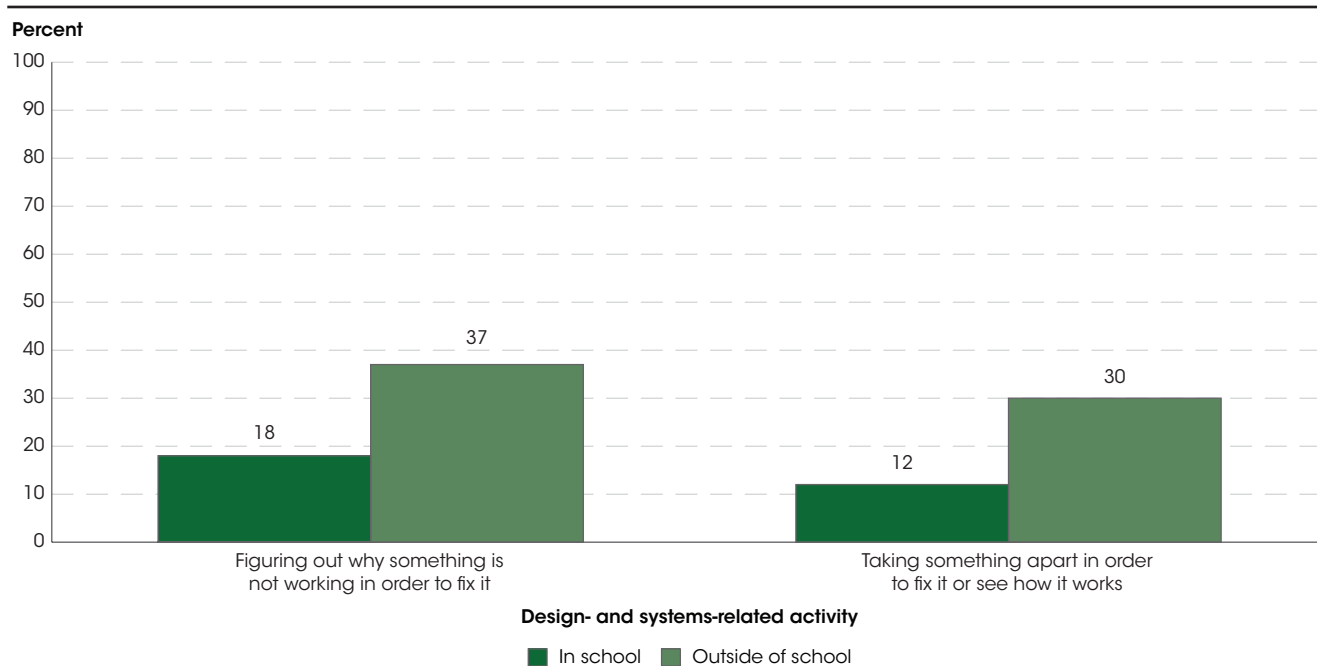
NOTE: Scale ranges from 0 to 300. Includes public and private schools. Includes students tested with accommodations (10 percent of all 8th-graders); excludes only those students with disabilities and English language learners who were unable to be tested even with accommodations (1 percent of all 8th-graders).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2014 Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 224.74a.

Students who reported sometimes or often learning about or discussing various technology- and society-related topics in school scored, on average, higher than those who reported rarely or never having such experiences. For example, the average overall TEL scores were 153 for 8th-grade students who reported that they often or

sometimes learned about or discussed the ways people work together to solve problems in their community or the world, compared with 148 for those who reported they rarely had such an experience and 133 for those who reported that they never had such an experience.

**Figure 4. Percentage of 8th-graders who reported performing design- and systems-related activities more than five times in school and outside of school: 2014**

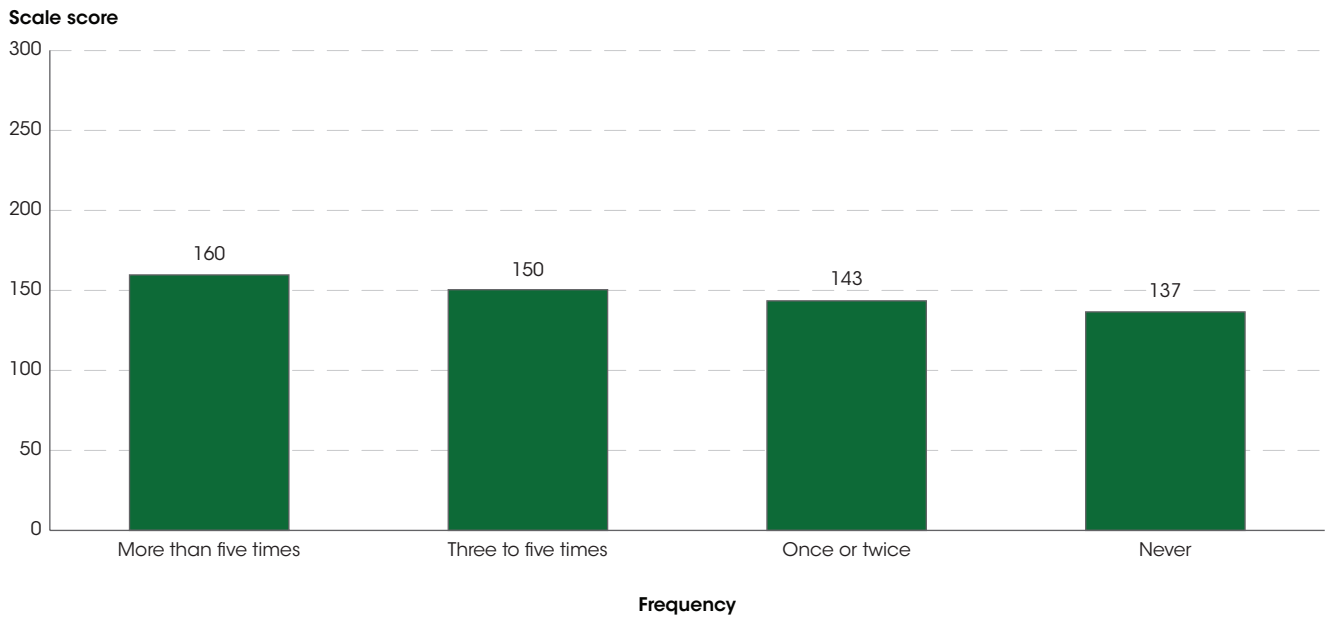


NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Includes students tested with accommodations (10 percent of all 8th-graders); excludes only those students with disabilities and English language learners who were unable to be tested even with accommodations (1 percent of all 8th-graders).  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2014 Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 224.74b and 224.74c.

In the **Design and Systems** content area, students were asked how frequently they performed or learned about various tasks or topics in school using the response options of “never,” “once or twice,” “three to five times,” or “more than five times.” For example, in 2014, about 37 percent of 8th-grade students reported that they figured out why something was not working in order to fix it more than

five times outside of school, and 18 percent of 8th-grade students reported performing this task more than five times in school. Additionally, about 30 percent of 8th-grade students reported taking something apart in order to fix it or see how it works more than five times outside of school, and 12 percent reported doing so more than five times in school.

**Figure 5. Average overall National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) scale scores of 8th-graders, by frequency of figuring out why something is not working in order to fix it outside of school: 2014**



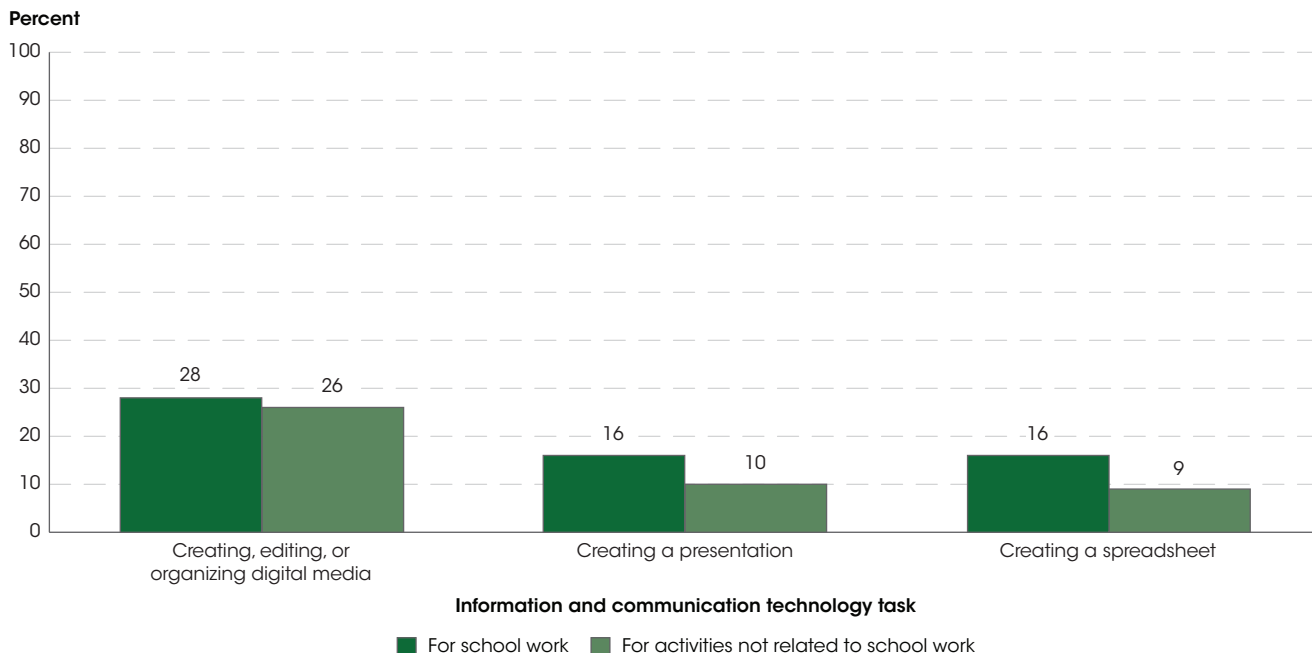
NOTE: Scale ranges from 0 to 300. Includes public and private schools. Includes students tested with accommodations (10 percent of all 8th-graders); excludes only those students with disabilities and English language learners who were unable to be tested even with accommodations (1 percent of all 8th-graders).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2014 Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 224.74c.

Students who reported performing various design- and systems-related activities more than five times outside of school in 2014 scored, on average, higher than those who reported never performing such activities. For example, the average overall TEL score was 160 for 8th-grade

students who reported that they figured out why something was not working in order to fix it more than five times outside of school, compared with 137 for those who reported never performing such an activity.

**Figure 6. Percentage of 8th-graders who reported performing information and communication technology tasks at least once every week for school work and for activities not related to school work: 2014**

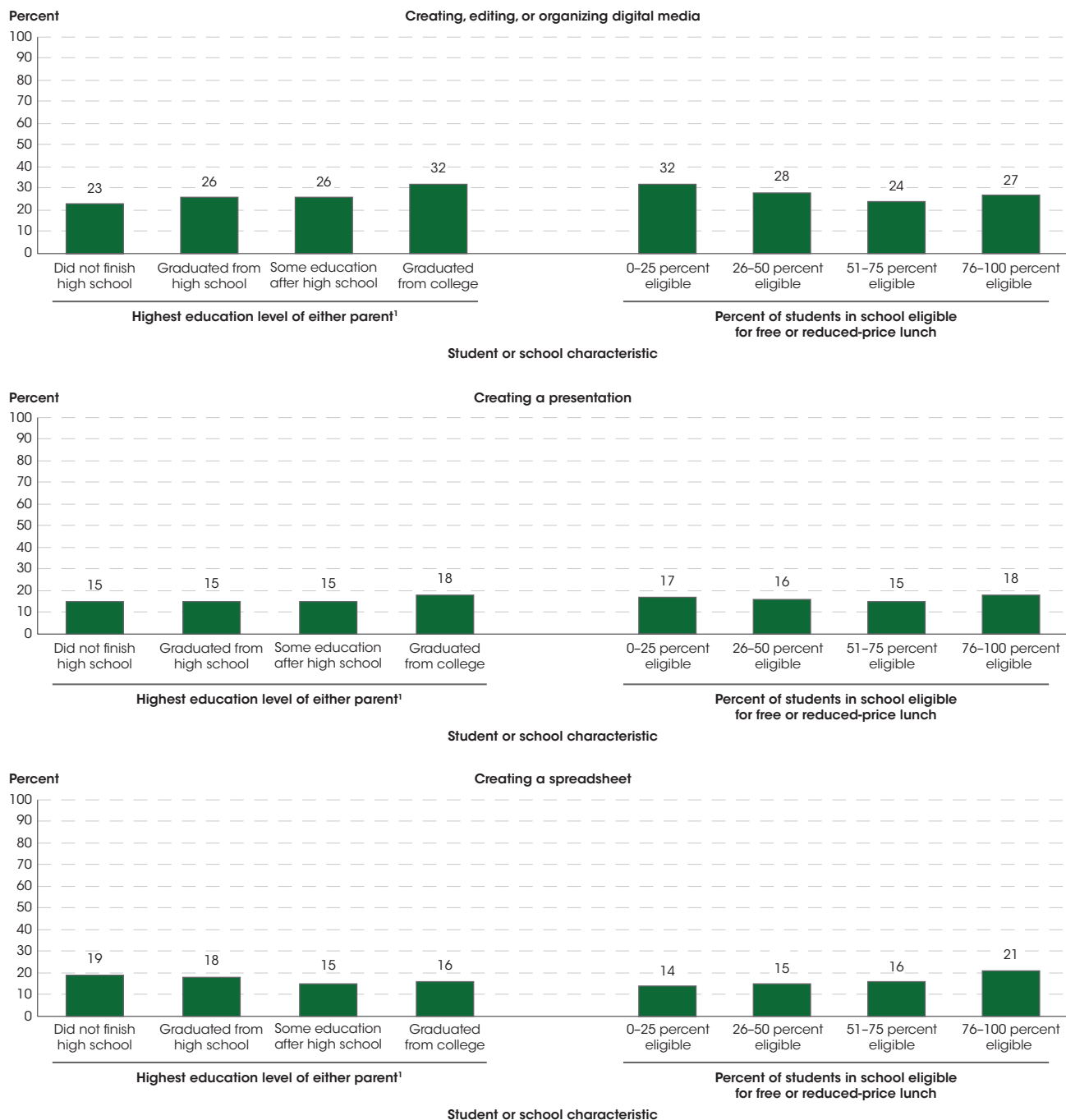


NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Includes students tested with accommodations (10 percent of all 8th-graders); excludes only those students with disabilities and English language learners who were unable to be tested even with accommodations (1 percent of all 8th-graders). Response categories “once or twice a week” and “every day or almost every day” are combined to create the “at least once every week” category.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2014 Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 224.74d and 224.74e.

In the **Information and Communication Technology** content area, students were asked how frequently they use a computer or other digital technology to perform activities, both related to school and not related to school, using the categories of “never/almost never,” “a few times a year,” “1–2 times a month,” “once or twice a week,” or “almost daily.” In 2014, about 28 percent of 8th-grade students reported that they used a computer or other digital technology to create, edit, or organize digital media at least once every week for school work,

and 26 percent reported doing so at least once every week for activities not related to school work. About 16 percent reported creating a presentation at least once every week for school work, and 10 percent reported doing so at least once every week for activities not related to school work. Furthermore, about 16 percent of 8th-grade students reported creating a spreadsheet at least once every week for school work, and 9 percent reported performing this task at least once every week for activities unrelated to school work.

**Figure 7. Percentage of 8th-graders who reported performing various information and communication technology tasks at least once every week for school work, by selected student and school characteristics: 2014**



<sup>1</sup> These data are based on students' responses to questions about their parents' education level. Data for students whose parents have an unknown level of education are not shown separately.  
NOTE: Includes public and private schools. Includes students tested with accommodations (10 percent of all 8th-graders); excludes only those students with disabilities and English language learners who were unable to be tested even with accommodations (1 percent of all 8th-graders). Response categories "once or twice a week" and "every day or almost every day" are combined to create the "at least once every week" category.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2014 Technology and Engineering Literacy (TEL) Assessment, NAEP Data Explorer. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 224.74d.

The percentage of 8th-grade students who reported using a computer or other digital technology to perform various activities for school work varied by student and school characteristics in 2014. However, the patterns of these differences were not consistent across these activities.

For example, 21 percent of students from high-poverty schools, compared to 14 percent of students from low-poverty schools, reported using digital technology to create a spreadsheet for school work at least once a week. On the other hand, a higher percentage of students from



low-poverty schools than from high-poverty schools reported using a computer to create, edit, or organize digital media for school work at least once a week (32 vs. 27 percent). The percentage of students who reported using digital technology to create a spreadsheet for school work at least once a week was not measurably different between 8th-graders whose parents graduated from college (16 percent) and those whose parents did not finish high school (19 percent). However, the percentage of 8th-graders who reported using digital technology to

create, edit, or organize digital media for school work at least once a week was higher for students whose parents graduated from college than for students whose parents did not finish high school (32 percent vs. 23 percent), and the percentage of those who reported using digital technology to create a presentation for school work at least once a week was higher for students whose parents graduated from college than for students whose parents did not finish high school (18 vs. 15 percent).

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**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> For details on the TEL assessment or its content areas, please refer to <https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/tel/>.

<sup>2</sup> Results from the TEL assessment are available as an overall scale score and as separate scale scores for each of the three content areas. All analyses in this indicator use the overall scale score.

<sup>3</sup> High-poverty schools are defined as schools where 76 percent or more of students are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL). Mid-high poverty schools are schools where 51 to 75 percent of students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-low

poverty schools are schools where 26 to 50 percent of students are eligible for FRPL. Low-poverty schools are defined as schools where 25 percent or less of students are eligible for FRPL. These categories were aggregated from the more detailed “percent eligible for National School Lunch Program” variable on the NAEP Data Explorer. For more discussion on using FRPL data as a proxy for poverty, see the NCES blog “Free or reduced price lunch: A proxy for poverty?” (<http://nces.ed.gov/blogs/nces/post/free-or-reduced-price-lunch-a-proxy-for-poverty>).

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 224.70, 224.74a, 224.74b, 224.74c, 224.74d, and 224.74e

**Related indicators and resources:** Children’s Access to and Use of the Internet, Reading Performance, Mathematics Performance, Science Performance

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**Glossary:** Achievement levels, NAEP; College; Educational attainment; English language learner (ELL); High school completer; Locale codes; Racial/ethnic group

## International Comparisons: Reading Literacy at Grade 4

*In the 2011 Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), the average reading literacy score for 4th-grade students in the United States (556) was higher than the average score for participating countries (500). The United States was among the top 13 education systems in reading literacy and scored higher, on average, than 40 education systems.*

The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) is an international comparative assessment that evaluates reading literacy at grade 4. The assessment is coordinated by the TIMSS<sup>1</sup> and PIRLS International Study Center at Boston College with the support of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). PIRLS has been administered every 5 years since 2001.<sup>2</sup> In 2011, there were 53 education systems that had PIRLS reading

literacy data at grade 4. These 53 education systems included both countries and other benchmarking education systems (portions of a country, nation, kingdom, or emirate, or other non-national entity). These benchmarking systems are able to participate in PIRLS even though they may not be members of the IEA. In addition to participating in the U.S. national sample, Florida participated individually as a benchmarking education system.

**Table 1. Average PIRLS reading literacy assessment scale scores of 4th-grade students, by education system: 2011**

Education system	Overall reading average scale score	Education system	Overall reading average scale score
PIRLS scale average	500	PIRLS scale average	500
<i>Hong Kong-China</i> <sup>1</sup>	571 ▲	France	520 ▼
Russian Federation	568 ▲	Spain	513 ▼
Finland	568 ▲	Norway <sup>5</sup>	507 ▼
Singapore <sup>2</sup>	567 ▲	<i>Belgium (French)-Belgium</i> <sup>2,3</sup>	506 ▼
<i>Northern Ireland-Great Britain</i> <sup>3</sup>	558	Romania	502 ▼
<b>United States</b>	<b>556</b>	Georgia <sup>4,5</sup>	488 ▼
Denmark <sup>2</sup>	554	Malta	477 ▼
Croatia <sup>2</sup>	553	Trinidad and Tobago	471 ▼
<i>Chinese Taipei-China</i>	553	Azerbaijan <sup>2,6</sup>	462 ▼
Ireland	552	Iran, Islamic Rep. of	457 ▼
<i>England-Great Britain</i> <sup>3</sup>	552	Colombia	448 ▼
Canada <sup>2</sup>	548 ▼	United Arab Emirates	439 ▼
Netherlands <sup>3</sup>	546 ▼	Saudi Arabia	430 ▼
Czech Republic	545 ▼	Indonesia	428 ▼
Sweden	542 ▼	Qatar <sup>2</sup>	425 ▼
Italy	541 ▼	Oman <sup>7</sup>	391 ▼
Germany	541 ▼	Morocco <sup>8</sup>	310 ▼
Israel <sup>1</sup>	541 ▼		
Portugal	541 ▼		
Hungary	539 ▼		
Slovak Republic	535 ▼	<b>Benchmarking education systems</b>	
Bulgaria	532 ▼	<i>Florida-USA</i> <sup>1,4</sup>	569 ▲
New Zealand	531 ▼	<i>Ontario-Canada</i> <sup>2</sup>	552
Slovenia	530 ▼	<i>Alberta-Canada</i> <sup>2</sup>	548 ▼
Austria	529 ▼	<i>Quebec-Canada</i>	538 ▼
Lithuania <sup>2,4</sup>	528 ▼	<i>Andalusia-Spain</i>	515 ▼
Australia	527 ▼	<i>Dubai-UAE</i>	476 ▼
Poland	526 ▼	<i>Maltese-Malta</i>	457 ▼
		<i>Abu Dhabi-UAE</i>	424 ▼

See notes on next page.

▲ Score is higher than U.S. average score.

▼ Score is lower than U.S. average score.

<sup>1</sup> National Defined Population covers less than 90 percent of National Target Population defined by PIRLS.

<sup>2</sup> National Defined Population covers 90 percent to 95 percent of National Target Population defined by PIRLS.

<sup>3</sup> Met guidelines for sample participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

<sup>4</sup> National Target Population does not include all of the International Target Population defined by PIRLS.

<sup>5</sup> Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation rates after replacement schools were included.

<sup>6</sup> Exclusion rates for Azerbaijan and Georgia are slightly underestimated as some conflict zones were not covered and no official statistics were available.

<sup>7</sup> The PIRLS International Study Center has reservations about the reliability of the average achievement score because the percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation exceeds 15 percent, though it is less than 25 percent.

<sup>8</sup> The PIRLS International Study Center has reservations about the reliability of the average achievement score because the percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation exceeds 25 percent.

NOTE: Education systems are ordered by 2011 average score. Italics indicate participants identified and counted in this report as an education system and not as a separate country. The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) scores are reported on a scale from 0 to 1,000, with the scale average set at 500 and the standard deviation set at 100. The PIRLS average includes only education systems that are members of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), which develops and implements PIRLS at the international level. "Benchmarking" education systems are not members of the IEA and are therefore not included in the average. Florida data are based on public school students only.

SOURCE: Thompson, S., Provasnik, S., Kastberg, D., Ferraro, D., Lemanski, N., Roey, S., and Jenkins, F. (2012). *Highlights From PIRLS 2011: Reading Achievement of U.S. Fourth-Grade Students in an International Context* (NCES 2013-010), table 3, data from the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), 2011. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 602.10.

In 2011, the average reading literacy score for 4th-grade students in the United States (556) was higher than the average score for participating countries (500). The United States was among the top 13 education systems in reading literacy (five education systems had higher average scores, and seven had scores that were not measurably different). The United States scored higher, on average, than 40 education systems.

The five education systems with average reading scores above the U.S. score were Finland, Hong Kong (China), the Russian Federation, Singapore, and, within the United States, Florida. Additionally, Florida's average score (569) was higher than the PIRLS scale average. No education system scored higher than Florida, although four had scores that were not measurably different. Forty-eight education systems scored lower than Florida.

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> The Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) assesses mathematics and science knowledge and skills at grades 4 and 8. For more information on TIMSS, see indicator [International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders' Mathematics and Science Achievement](#).

<sup>2</sup> The international reports for PIRLS 2016 are scheduled to be released in December 2017.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2015*, table 602.10

**Glossary:** N/A

**Related indicators and resources:** Reading Performance; International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders' Mathematics and Science Achievement; International Comparisons: Science, Reading and Mathematics Literacy of 15-Year-Old Students; U.S. Student and Adult Performance on International Assessments of Educational Achievement [*The Condition of Education 2006 Spotlight*]; U.S. Performance Across International Assessments of Student Achievement [*The Condition of Education 2009 Spotlight*]

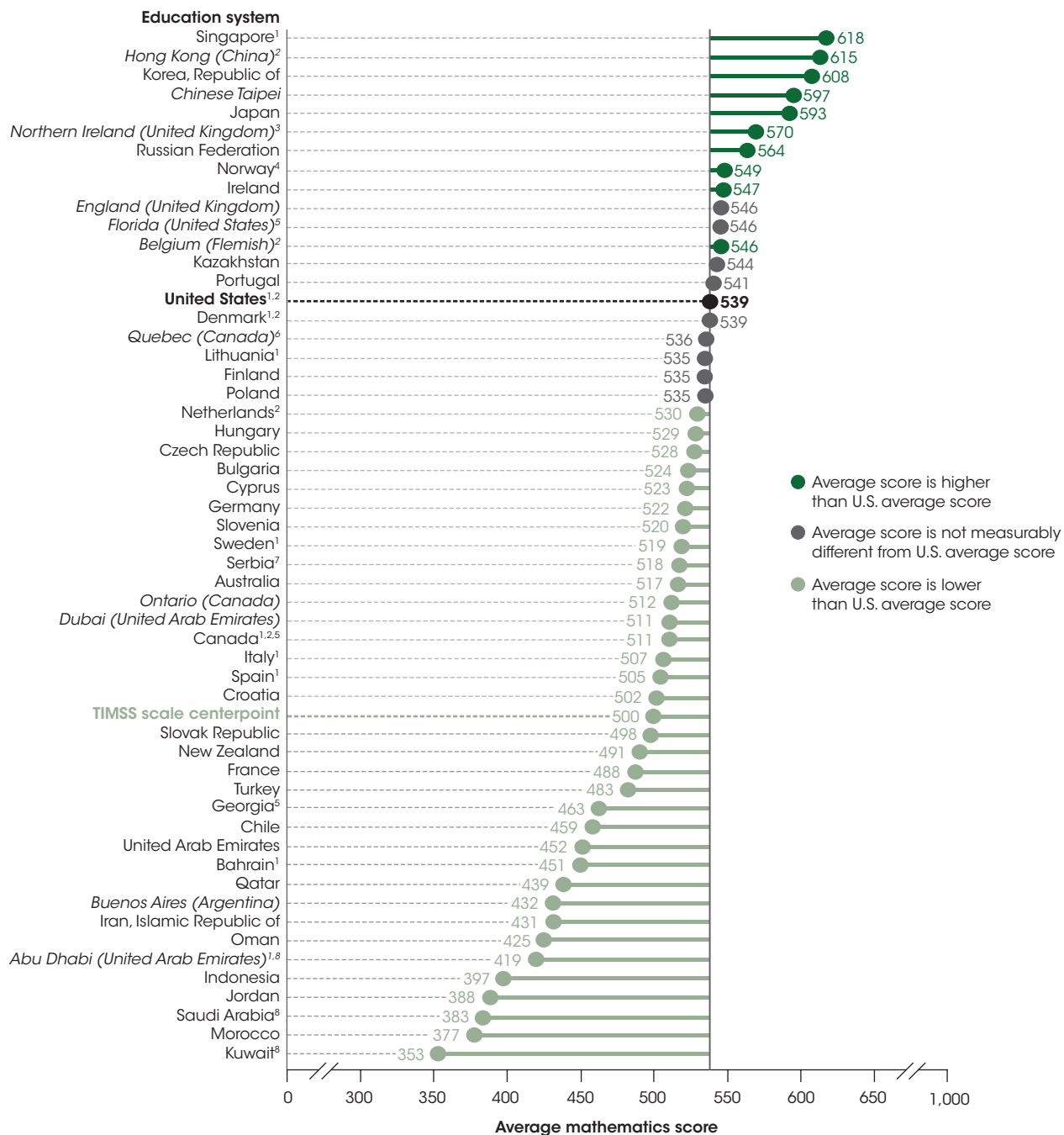
## International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders' Mathematics and Science Achievement

*According to the 2015 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), the United States was among the top 15 education systems in science (out of 54) at grade 4 and among the top 17 education systems in science (out of 43) at grade 8. In mathematics, the United States was among the top 20 education systems at grade 4 and top 19 education systems at grade 8.*

The Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) is an international comparative assessment that evaluates mathematics and science knowledge and skills at grades 4 and 8. The TIMSS program also includes TIMSS Advanced, an international comparative study that measures the advanced mathematics and physics achievement of students in their final year of secondary school who are taking or have taken advanced courses. These assessments are coordinated by the TIMSS & PIRLS<sup>1</sup> International Study Center at Boston College, under the auspices of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), an international organization of national research institutions and government agencies.

In 2015, TIMSS mathematics and science data were collected by 54 education systems at 4th grade and 43 education systems at 8th grade.<sup>2</sup> TIMSS Advanced data were also collected by nine education systems from students in the final year of their secondary schools (in the U.S., 12th-graders). Education systems include countries (complete, independent, and political entities) and other benchmarking education systems (portions of a country, nation, kingdom, or emirate, and other non-national entities).<sup>3</sup> In addition to participating in the U.S. national sample, Florida participated individually as a state at the 4th and 8th grades.

Figure 1. Average TIMSS mathematics assessment scale scores of 4th-grade students, by education system: 2015



<sup>1</sup> National Defined Population covers 90 to 95 percent of the National Target Population, as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>2</sup> Met guidelines for sample participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

<sup>3</sup> Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation rates after replacement schools were included.

<sup>4</sup> Norway collected data from students in their fifth year of schooling rather than in grade 4 because year 1 in Norway is considered the equivalent of kindergarten rather than the first year of primary school.

<sup>5</sup> National Target Population does not include all of the International Target Population, as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>6</sup> Did not satisfy guidelines for sample participation rates.

<sup>7</sup> National Defined Population covers less than 90 percent of the National Target Population (but at least 77 percent), as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>8</sup> Reservations about reliability because the percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation exceeds 15 percent but does not exceed 25 percent.

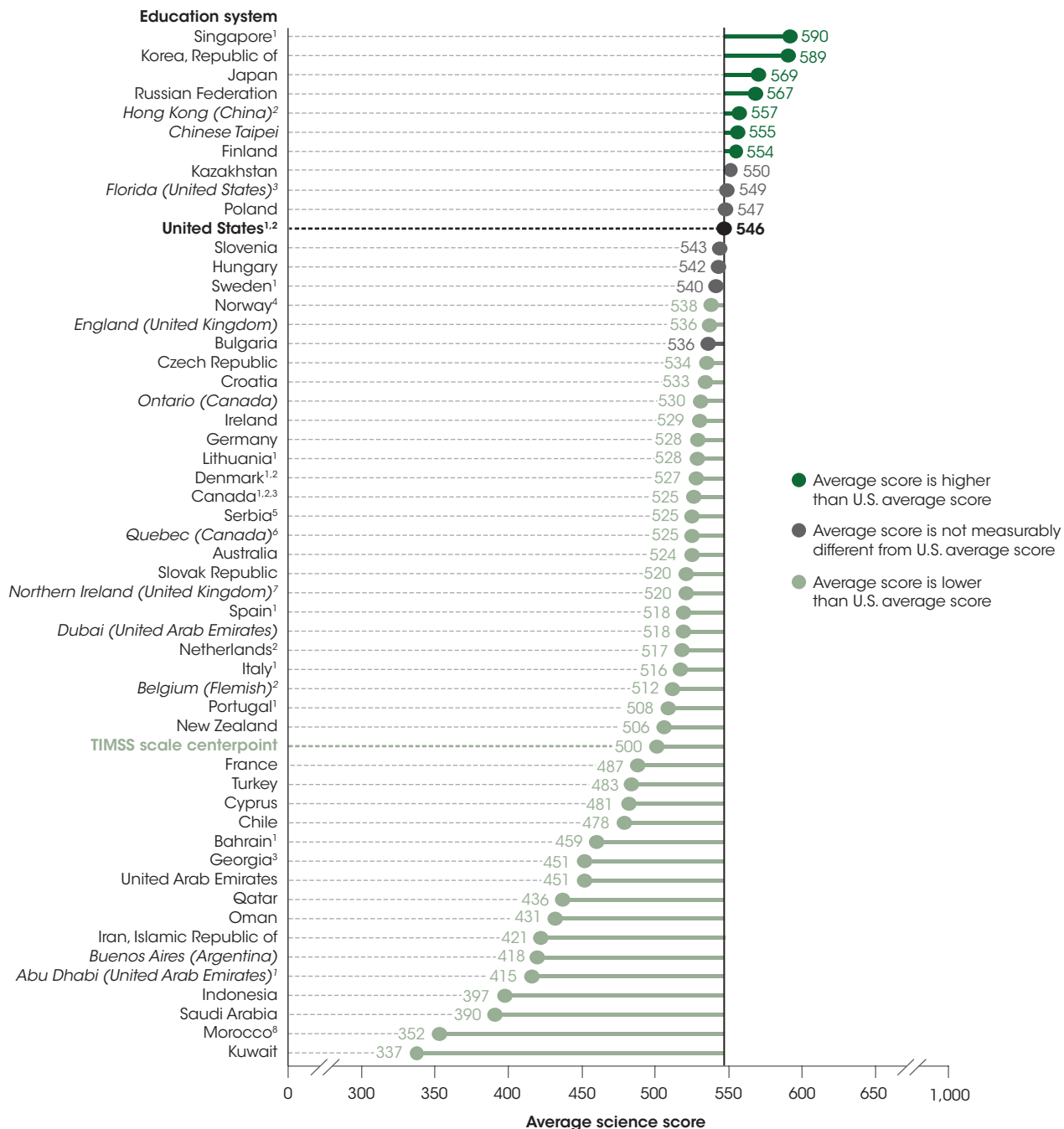
NOTE: Education systems are ordered by average score. Education systems that are not countries are shown in italics. Participants that did not administer TIMSS at the target grade are not shown; see the international report for their results (<http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/timss2015/international-results/>). U.S. state data are based on public school students only. The TIMSS scale centerpoint is set at 500 points and represents the mean of the overall achievement distribution in 1995. The TIMSS scale is the same in each administration; thus, a value of 500 in 2015 equals 500 in 1995. For more information on the International and National Target Populations, see [https://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes\\_intlreqs.asp](https://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes_intlreqs.asp).

SOURCE: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.20.

At grade 4, the U.S. average mathematics score (539) in 2015 was higher than the TIMSS scale centerpoint (500).<sup>4</sup> Ten education systems<sup>5</sup> had higher average mathematics scores than the United States, 9 had scores that were not measurably different, and 34 education systems had lower average scores. The 10 education systems with average mathematics scores above the U.S. score were Belgium (Flemish), Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong (China), Ireland, Japan, Northern Ireland (Great Britain), Norway, the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, and Singapore. Florida's average mathematics score was not measurably different from the U.S. national average.

At grade 4, the U.S. average science score (546) in 2015 was also higher than the TIMSS scale centerpoint of 500. Seven education systems had higher average science scores than the United States, 7 had scores that were not measurably different, and 38 education systems had lower average scores. The 7 education systems with average science scores above the U.S. score were Chinese Taipei, Finland, Japan, Hong Kong (China), the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, and Singapore. Florida's average science score was not measurably different from the U.S. national average.

Figure 2. Average TIMSS science assessment scale scores of 4th-grade students, by education system: 2015



<sup>1</sup> National Defined Population covers 90 to 95 percent of the National Target Population, as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>2</sup> Met guidelines for sample participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

<sup>3</sup> National Target Population does not include all of the International Target Population, as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>4</sup> Norway collected data from students in their fifth year of schooling rather than in grade 4 because year 1 in Norway is considered the equivalent of kindergarten rather than the first year of primary school.

<sup>5</sup> National Defined Population covers less than 90 percent of the National Target Population (but at least 77 percent), as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>6</sup> Did not satisfy guidelines for sample participation rates.

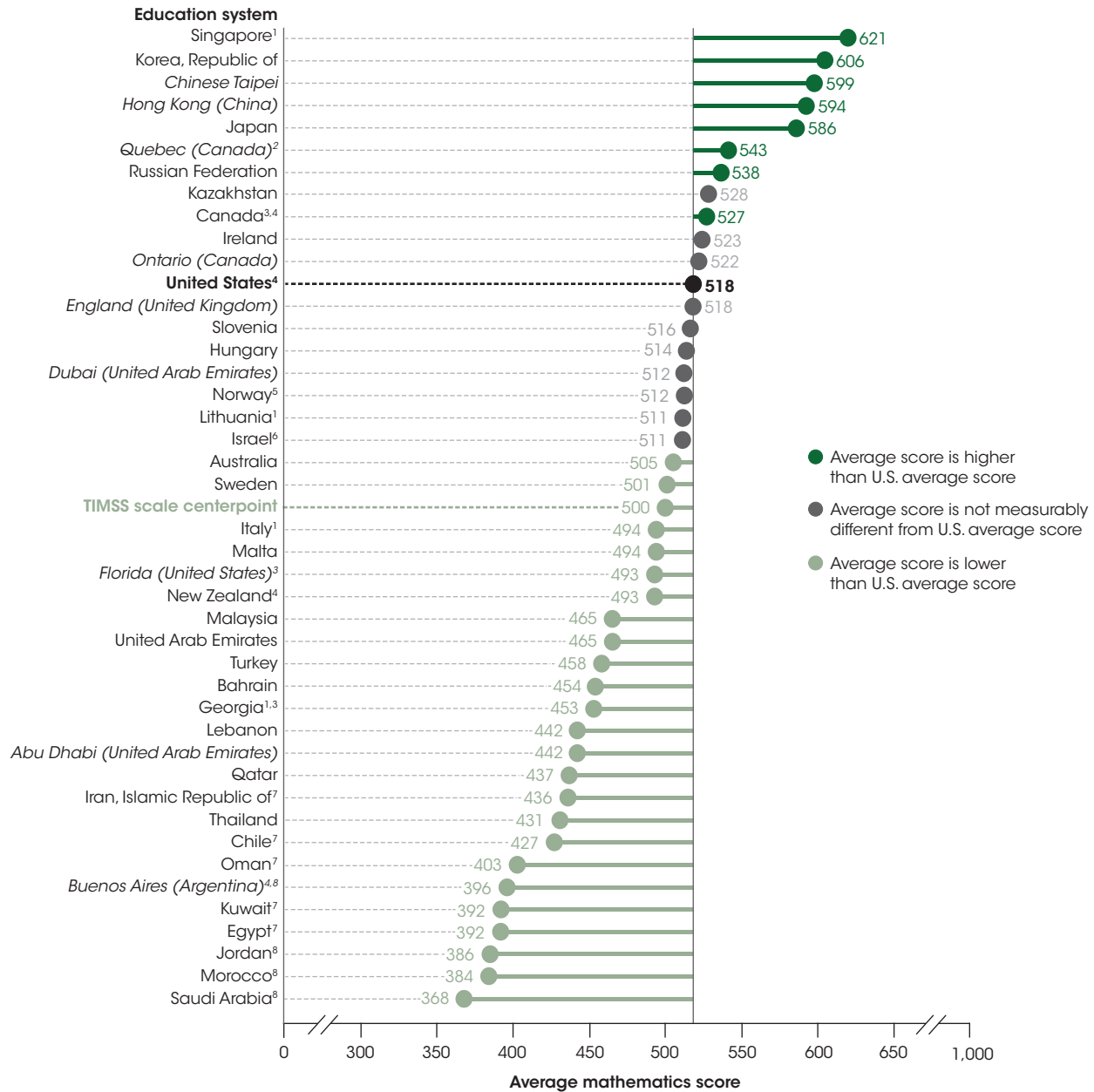
<sup>7</sup> Nearly satisfied guidelines for sample participation rates after replacement schools were included.

<sup>8</sup> Reservations about reliability because the percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation exceeds 15 percent but does not exceed 25 percent.

NOTE: Education systems are ordered by average score. Education systems that are not countries are shown in italics. Participants that did not administer TIMSS at the target grade are not shown; see the international report for their results (<http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/timss2015/international-results/>). U.S. state data are based on public school students only. The TIMSS scale centerpoint is set at 500 points and represents the mean of the overall achievement distribution in 1995. The TIMSS scale is the same in each administration; thus, a value of 500 in 2015 equals 500 in 1995. For more information on the International and National Target Populations, see [https://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes\\_intlreqs.asp](https://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes_intlreqs.asp).

SOURCE: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.20.

Figure 3. Average TIMSS mathematics assessment scale scores of 8th-grade students, by education system: 2015



<sup>1</sup> National Defined Population covers 90 to 95 percent of the National Target Population, as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>2</sup> Did not satisfy guidelines for sample participation rates.

<sup>3</sup> National Target Population does not include all of the International Target Population, as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>4</sup> Met guidelines for sample participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

<sup>5</sup> Norway collected data from students in their fifth year of schooling rather than in grade 4 because year 1 in Norway is considered the equivalent of kindergarten rather than the first year of primary school.

<sup>6</sup> National Defined Population covers less than 90 percent of the National Target Population (but at least 77 percent), as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>7</sup> Reservations about reliability because the percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation exceeds 15 percent but does not exceed 25 percent.

<sup>8</sup> Reservations about reliability because the percentage of students with achievement too low for estimation exceeds 25 percent.

NOTE: Education systems are ordered by average score. Education systems that are not countries are shown in italics. Participants that did not administer TIMSS at the target grade are not shown; see the international report for their results (<http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/timss2015/international-results/>). U.S. state data are based on public school students only. The TIMSS scale centerpoint is set at 500 points and represents the mean of the overall achievement distribution in 1995. The TIMSS scale is the same in each administration; thus, a value of 500 in 2015 equals 500 in 1995. For more information on the International and National Target Populations, see [https://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes\\_intlreqs.asp](https://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes_intlreqs.asp).

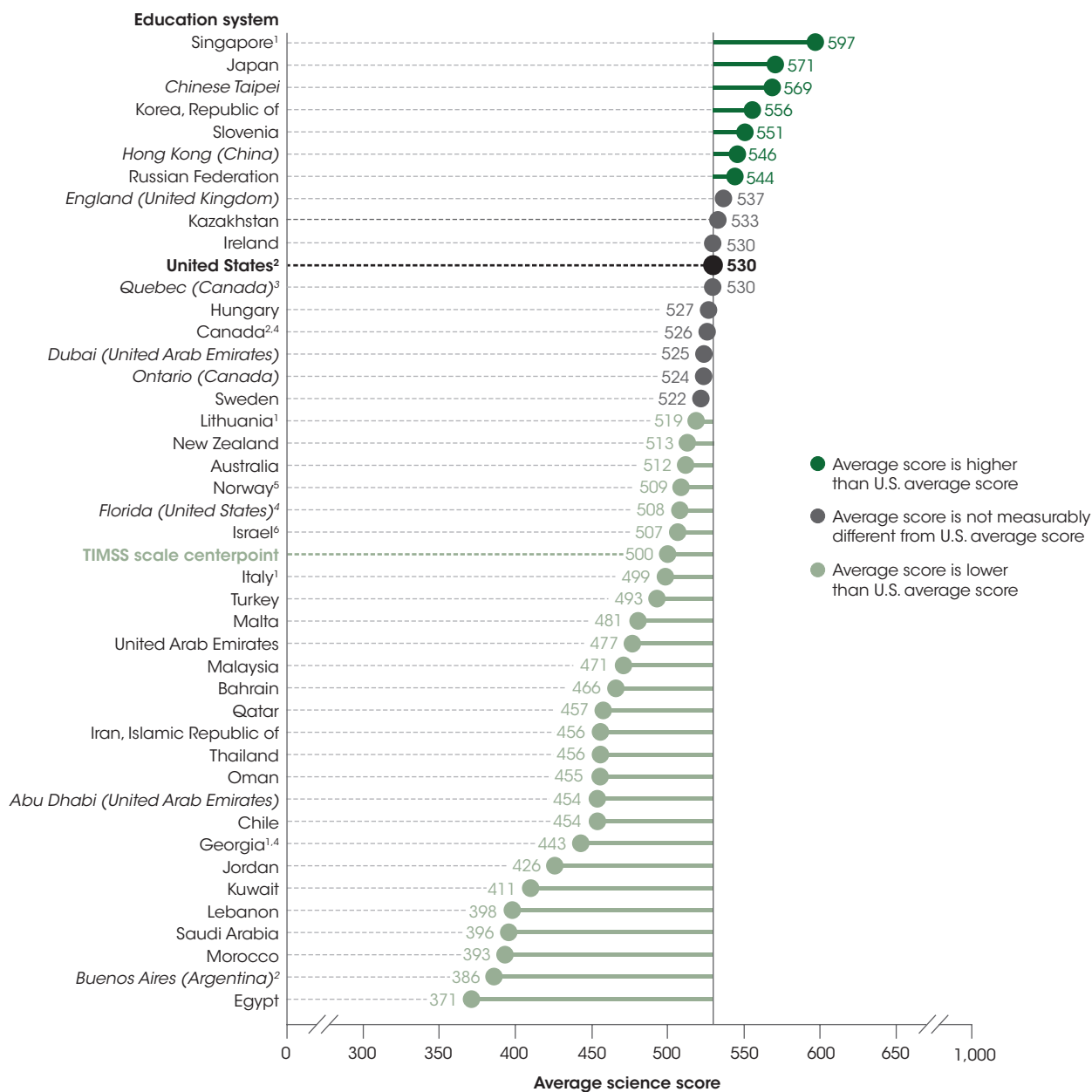
SOURCE: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.30.



At grade 8, the U.S. average mathematics score (518) in 2015 was higher than the TIMSS scale centerpoint of 500. Eight education systems had higher average mathematics scores than the United States, 10 had scores that were not measurably different, and 24 education systems had lower average scores. The 8 education systems with average

mathematics scores above the U.S. score were Canada, Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong (China), Japan, Quebec (Canada), the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, and Singapore. Florida's average mathematics score was below the U.S. national average.

Figure 4. Average TIMSS science assessment scale scores of 8th-grade students, by education system: 2015



<sup>1</sup> National Defined Population covers 90 to 95 percent of the National Target Population, as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>2</sup> Met guidelines for sample participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

<sup>3</sup> Did not satisfy guidelines for sample participation rates.

<sup>4</sup> National Target Population does not include all of the International Target Population, as defined by TIMSS.

<sup>5</sup> Norway collected data from students in their fifth year of schooling rather than in grade 4 because year 1 in Norway is considered the equivalent of kindergarten rather than the first year of primary school.

<sup>6</sup> National Defined Population covers less than 90 percent of the National Target Population (but at least 77 percent), as defined by TIMSS.

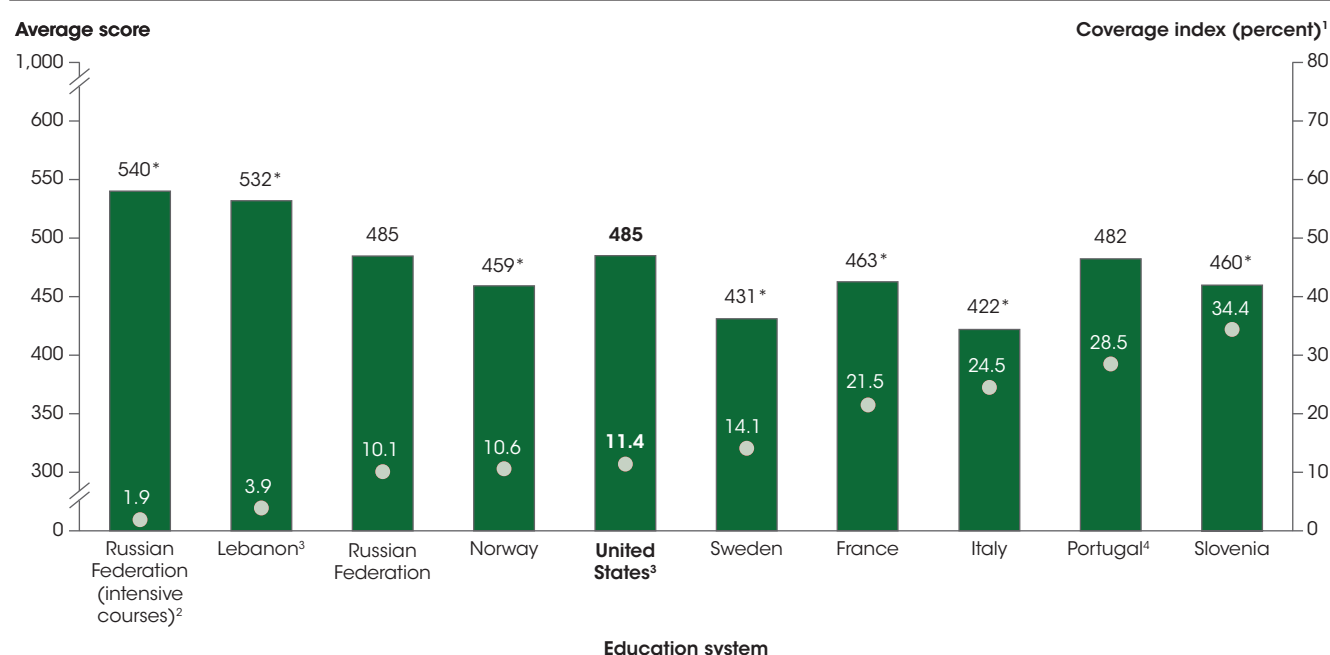
NOTE: Education systems are ordered by average score. Education systems that are not countries are shown in italics. Participants that did not administer TIMSS at the target grade are not shown; see the international report for their results (<http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/timss2015/international-results/>). U.S. state data are based on public school students only. The TIMSS scale centerpoint is set at 500 points and represents the mean of the overall achievement distribution in 1995. The TIMSS scale is the same in each administration; thus, a value of 500 in 2015 equals 500 in 1995. For more information on the International and National Target Populations, see [https://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes\\_intlreqs.asp](https://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes_intlreqs.asp).

SOURCE: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.30.

At grade 8, the U.S. average science score (530) in 2015 was higher than the TIMSS scale centerpoint of 500. Seven education systems had higher average science scores than the United States, 9 had scores that were not measurably different, and 26 education systems had lower

average scores. The seven education systems with average science scores above the U.S. score were Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong (China), Japan, the Republic of Korea, the Russian Federation, Singapore, and Slovenia. Florida's average science score was below the U.S. national average.

**Figure 5. Average advanced mathematics scores and coverage index of TIMSS Advanced students, by education system: 2015**



\*  $p < .05$ . Significantly different from the U.S. percentage.

<sup>1</sup> The advanced mathematics coverage index is the percentage of the corresponding age cohort covered by students in their final year of secondary school who have taken or are taking advanced mathematics courses. The corresponding age cohort is determined for education systems individually. In the United States, the corresponding age cohort is considered 18-year-olds. For additional details, see the Technical Notes available at <http://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes.asp>.

<sup>2</sup> Intensive courses are advanced mathematics courses that involve 6 or more hours per week. Results for students in these courses are reported separately from the results for other students from the Russian Federation taking courses that involve 4.5 hours per week.

<sup>3</sup> Did not satisfy guidelines for sample participation rates.

<sup>4</sup> Met guidelines for sample participation rates only after replacement schools were included.

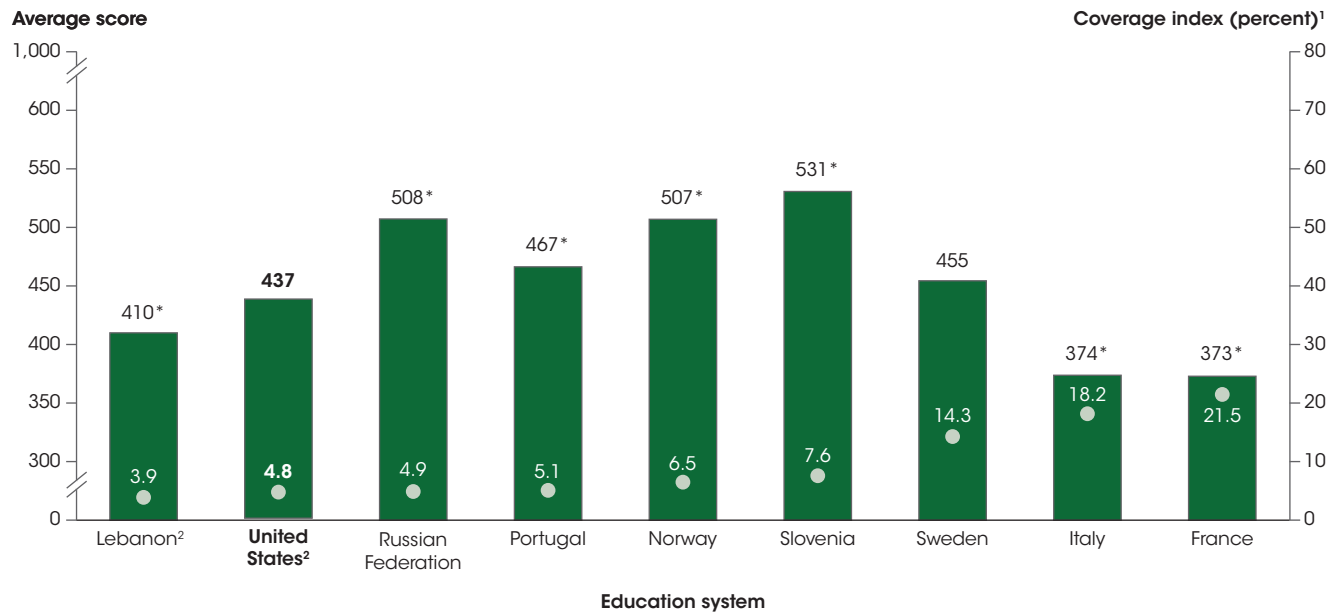
NOTE: Education systems are ordered by the advanced mathematics coverage index. The TIMSS Advanced scale centerpoint is set at 500 points and represents the mean of the overall achievement distribution in 1995. The TIMSS Advanced scale is the same in each administration; thus, a value of 500 in 2015 equals 500 in 1995.

SOURCE: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) Advanced, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.35.

The TIMSS Advanced assessment measures the advanced mathematics and physics achievement of students in their final year of secondary school who are taking or have taken advanced courses. In TIMSS Advanced, the U.S. average advanced mathematics score (485) in 2015 was lower than the TIMSS Advanced scale centerpoint (500). Two education systems had higher average advanced mathematics scores than the United States, two (Portugal and the Russian Federation) had scores that were not measurably different, and five education systems had lower average scores. The education systems with higher average

advanced mathematics scores than the United States were Lebanon and the Russian Federation's intensive track (i.e., advanced students taking 6 or more hours of advanced mathematics per week<sup>6</sup>). Such comparisons, however, should take into account the "coverage index," which represents the percentage of students eligible to take the advanced mathematics assessment. The advanced mathematics coverage index ranged from 1.9 percent for the Russian Federation's intensive track to 34.4 percent in Slovenia.

**Figure 6. Average physics scores and coverage index of TIMSS Advanced students, by education system: 2015**



\*  $p < .05$ . Significantly different from the U.S. percentage.

<sup>1</sup> The physics coverage index is the percentage of the corresponding age cohort covered by students in their final year of secondary school who have taken or are taking physics courses. The corresponding age cohort is determined for education systems individually. In the United States, the corresponding age cohort is considered 18-year-olds. For additional details, see the Technical Notes available at <http://nces.ed.gov/timss/timss15technotes.asp>.

<sup>2</sup> Did not satisfy guidelines for sample participation rates.

NOTE: Education systems are ordered by the advanced physics coverage index. The TIMSS Advanced scale centerpoint is set at 500 points and represents the mean of the overall achievement distribution in 1995. The TIMSS Advanced scale is the same in each administration; thus, a value of 500 in 2015 equals 500 in 1995. SOURCE: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) Advanced, 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.35.

In TIMSS Advanced, the U.S. average physics score (437) in 2015 was lower than the TIMSS Advanced scale centerpoint (500). Four education systems had higher average physics scores than the United States, one (Sweden) had a score that was not measurably different, and three education systems had lower average scores. The

education systems with higher average advanced science scores than the United States were Norway, Portugal, the Russian Federation, and Slovenia. The physics coverage index ranged from 3.9 percent in Lebanon to 21.5 percent in France.

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**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) evaluates reading literacy at grade 4. For more information on PIRLS, see indicator [International Comparisons: Reading Literacy at Grade 4](#).

<sup>2</sup> Armenia, which participated at both grades, is not included in these counts or the results reported in this indicator because their data are not comparable for trend analyses.

<sup>3</sup> Benchmarking systems are able to participate in TIMSS even though they may not be members of the IEA. Participating allows them the opportunity to assess their students' achievement and to evaluate their curricula in an international context.

<sup>4</sup> TIMSS and TIMSS Advanced scores are reported on a scale from 0 to 1,000, with a scale centerpoint set at 500 and the standard deviation set at 100. The TIMSS scale centerpoint represents the mean of the overall achievement distribution in 1995. The TIMSS scale is the same in each administration; thus, a value of 500 in 2015 equals 500 in 1995 when that was the international average.

<sup>5</sup> The IEA differentiates between IEA members, referred to always as “countries” and “benchmarking participants.” IEA member countries include both “countries,” which are complete, independent political entities and “other education systems,” or non-national entities (e.g., England, the Flemish community of Belgium). Non-national entities that are not IEA member countries (i.e., Florida, Abu Dhabi) are designated as “benchmarking participants.” For convenience, the generic term “education systems” is used when summarizing across results.

<sup>6</sup> The Russian Federation tested two samples in advanced mathematics in 2015. Results for students in the intensive mathematics courses of 6 or more hours per week are reported separately from the results for the Russian Federation's advanced students taking courses of only 4.5 hours per week.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 602.20, 602.30, and 602.35

**Glossary:** N/A

**Related indicators and resources:** Mathematics Performance; Science Performance; International Comparisons: Reading Literacy at Grade 4; International Comparisons: Science, Reading and Mathematics Literacy of 15-Year-Old Students; U.S. Student and Adult Performance on International Assessments of Educational Achievement [*The Condition of Education 2006 Spotlight*]; U.S. Performance Across International Assessments of Student Achievement [*The Condition of Education 2009 Spotlight*]

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## **International Comparisons: Science, Reading, and Mathematics Literacy of 15-Year-Old Students**

*In 2015, there were 18 education systems with higher average science literacy scores for 15-year-olds than the United States, 14 with higher reading literacy scores, and 36 with higher mathematics literacy scores.*

The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), coordinated by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), has measured the performance of 15-year-old students in science, reading, and mathematics literacy every 3 years since 2000. In 2015, PISA was administered in 73<sup>1</sup> countries and education systems,<sup>2</sup> including all 35 member countries of the OECD. In addition to participating in the U.S. national sample, Massachusetts and North Carolina participated individually as states. Puerto Rico also participated in the PISA assessment, but was not included in the U.S. national results. The samples of schools and students for all education systems and Puerto

Rico included both public and private schools, while the samples of schools and students for Massachusetts and North Carolina were from public schools only.

PISA 2015 results are reported by average scale score (from 0 to 1,000) as well as by the percentage of students reaching particular proficiency levels. Proficiency results are presented in terms of the percentages of students reaching proficiency level 5 and above (i.e., percentages of top performers) and the percentages of students performing below proficiency level 2. Proficiency level 2 is considered a baseline of proficiency by the OECD (i.e., percentages of low performers).

**Table 1. Average scores of 15-year-old students on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) science literacy scale, by education system: 2015**

Education system	Average score	Education system	Average score
<b>OECD average</b>	<b>493</b>	Iceland	473 ▼
<i>Singapore</i>	556 ▲	Israel	467 ▼
Japan	538 ▲	<i>Malta</i>	465 ▼
Estonia	534 ▲	Slovak Republic	461 ▼
<i>Chinese Taipei</i>	532 ▲	Greece	455 ▼
Finland	531 ▲	Chile	447 ▼
<i>Macau (China)</i>	529 ▲	<i>Bulgaria</i>	446 ▼
Canada	528 ▲	<i>United Arab Emirates</i>	437 ▼
<i>Vietnam</i>	525 ▲	<i>Uruguay</i>	435 ▼
<i>Hong Kong (China)</i>	523 ▲	<i>Romania</i>	435 ▼
<i>B-S-J-G (China)<sup>1</sup></i>	518 ▲	<i>Cyprus</i>	433 ▼
Korea, Republic of	516 ▲	<i>Moldova, Republic of</i>	428 ▼
New Zealand	513 ▲	<i>Albania</i>	427 ▼
Slovenia	513 ▲	Turkey	425 ▼
Australia	510 ▲	<i>Trinidad and Tobago</i>	425 ▼
United Kingdom	509 ▲	<i>Thailand</i>	421 ▼
German	509 ▲	<i>Costa Rica</i>	420 ▼
Netherlands	509 ▲	<i>Qatar</i>	418 ▼
Switzerland	506 ▲	<i>Colombia</i>	416 ▼
Ireland	503	Mexico	416 ▼
Belgium	502	<i>Montenegro, Republic of</i>	411 ▼
Denmark	502	<i>Georgia</i>	411 ▼
Poland	501	<i>Jordan</i>	409 ▼
Portugal	501	<i>Indonesia</i>	403 ▼
Norway	498	<i>Brazil</i>	401 ▼
<b>United States</b>	<b>496</b>	<i>Peru</i>	397 ▼
Austria	495	<i>Lebanon</i>	386 ▼
France	495	<i>Tunisia</i>	386 ▼
Sweden	493	<i>Macedonia, Republic of</i>	384 ▼
Czech Republic	493	<i>Kosovo</i>	378 ▼
Spain	493	<i>Algeria</i>	376 ▼
Latvia	490	<i>Dominican Republic</i>	332 ▼
<i>Russian Federation</i>	487 ▼		
Luxembourg	483 ▼		
Italy	481 ▼		
Hungary	477 ▼		
<i>Lithuania</i>	475 ▼		
<i>Croatia</i>	475 ▼		
<i>Buenos Aires (Argentina)</i>	475 ▼		
		<b>U.S. states and territories</b>	
		<i>Massachusetts</i>	529 ▲
		<i>North Carolina</i>	502
		<i>Puerto Rico</i>	403 ▼

▲ Average score is higher than U.S. average score.

▼ Average score is lower than U.S. average score.

<sup>1</sup> *B-S-J-G (China)* refers to the four PISA participating China provinces: Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu, and Guangdong.

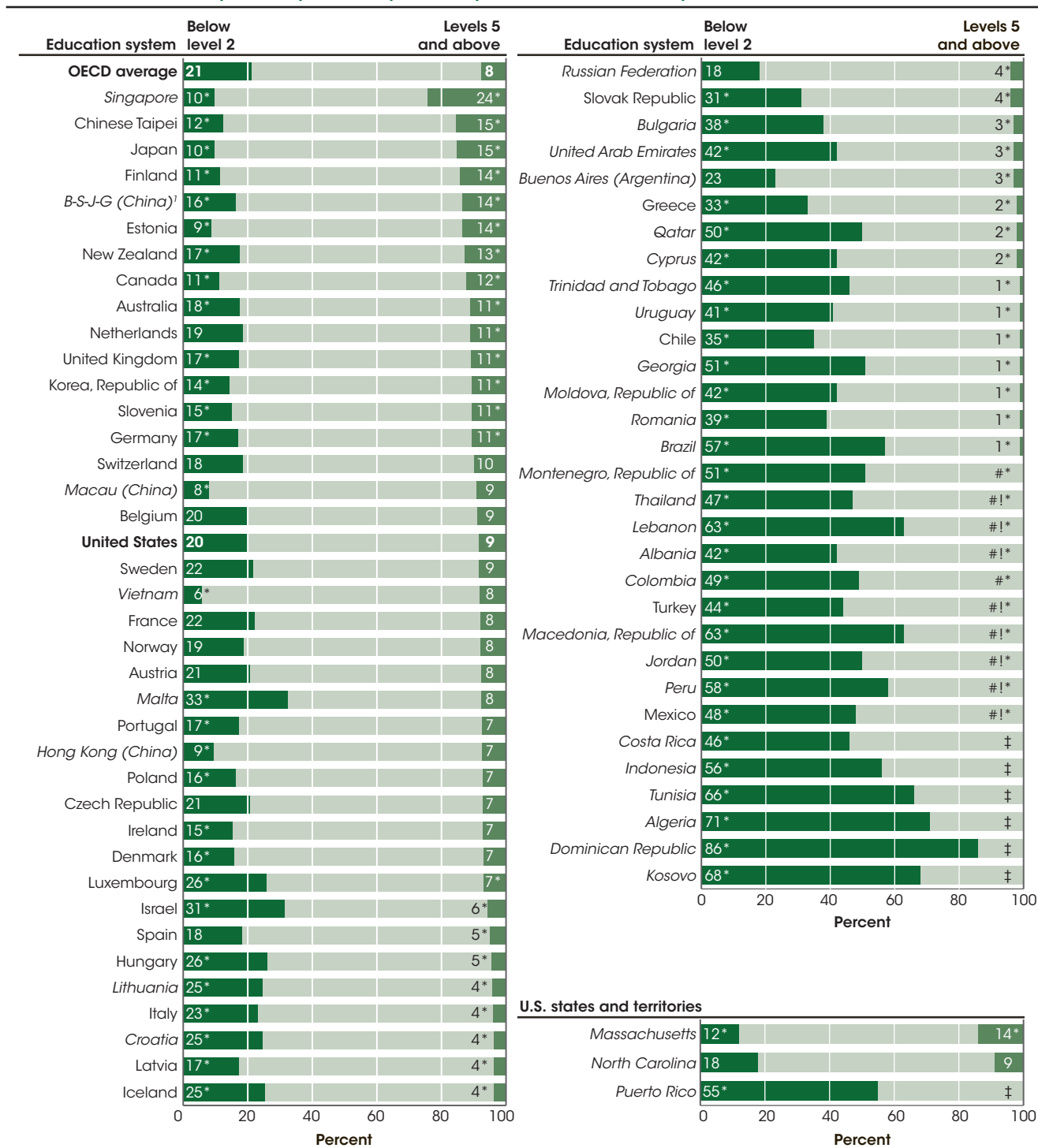
NOTE: Education systems are ordered by 2015 average score. The OECD average is the average of the national averages of the OECD member countries, with each country weighted equally. Scores are reported on a scale from 0 to 1,000. All average scores reported as higher or lower than the U.S. average score are different at a .05 level of statistical significance. Italics indicate non-OECD countries and education systems. Results for Massachusetts and North Carolina are for public school students only. Although Argentina, Kazakhstan, and Malaysia participated in PISA 2015, technical problems with their samples prevent results from being discussed in this report.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.70.

In 2015, average science literacy scores ranged from 332 in the Dominican Republic to 556 in Singapore. The U.S. average science score (496) was not measurably different from the OECD average (493). Eighteen education systems and Massachusetts had higher average science scores than the United States, and 12 systems and North Carolina had scores that were not measurably different

from the U.S. average score. Massachusetts's average score (529) was higher than both the U.S. and OECD averages, North Carolina's average score (502) was not measurably different from the U.S. and OECD averages, and Puerto Rico's average score (403) was lower than both the U.S. and OECD averages.

**Figure 1. Percentage of 15-year-old students performing on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) science literacy scale, by selected proficiency levels and education system: 2015**



■ Below level 2  
■ Levels 5 and above

# 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. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is 50 percent or greater.

\*  $p < .05$ . Significantly different from the U.S. percentage.

<sup>1</sup> B-S-J-G (China) refers to the four PISA participating China provinces: Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu, and Guangdong.

NOTE: Education systems are ordered by percentage of 15-year-olds in levels 5 and above. To reach a particular proficiency level, students must correctly answer a majority of items at that level. Students were classified into science proficiency levels according to their scores. Cut scores for each proficiency level can be found in table A-1 available at <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/pisa/PISA2015/index.asp>. The OECD average is the average of the national percentages of the OECD member countries, with each country weighted equally. Italics indicate non-OECD countries and education systems. Results for Massachusetts and North Carolina are for public school students only. Although Argentina, Kazakhstan, and Malaysia participated in PISA 2015, technical problems with their samples prevent results from being discussed in this report.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.70.



PISA reports science literacy in terms of seven proficiency levels, with level 1b being the lowest and level 6 being the highest. Students performing at levels 5 and 6 can apply scientific knowledge in a variety of complex real-life situations. The percentage of U.S. top performers on the science literacy scale (9 percent) was not measurably different from the OECD average (8 percent). Percentages of top performers ranged from near 0 percent in 10 education systems to 24 percent in Singapore. Fourteen education systems and Massachusetts (14 percent) had percentages of top performers higher than the United States in science literacy, while North Carolina had a percentage that was not measurably different (9 percent) than the United States.

The percentage of U.S. students who scored below proficiency level 2 in science literacy (20 percent) was not measurably different from the OECD average (21 percent). Percentages of low performers ranged from 6 percent in Vietnam to 86 percent in the Dominican Republic. Twenty-one education systems and Massachusetts (12 percent) had lower percentages of low performers in science literacy than the United States. The percentage of low performers in North Carolina (18 percent) was not measurably different from the U.S. percentage, while the percentage in Puerto Rico (55 percent) was higher.

**Table 2. Average scores of 15-year-old students on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) reading literacy scale, by education system: 2015**

Education system	Average score	Education system	Average score
<b>OECD average</b>	<b>493</b>	<i>Lithuania</i>	472 ▼
<i>Singapore</i>	535 ▲	Hungary	470 ▼
<i>Hong Kong (China)</i>	527 ▲	Greece	467 ▼
Canada	527 ▲	Chile	459 ▼
Finland	526 ▲	Slovak Republic	453 ▼
Ireland	521 ▲	<i>Malta</i>	447 ▼
Estonia	519 ▲	<i>Cyprus</i>	443 ▼
Korea, Republic of	517 ▲	<i>Uruguay</i>	437 ▼
Japan	516 ▲	<i>Romania</i>	434 ▼
Norway	513 ▲	<i>United Arab Emirates</i>	434 ▼
New Zealand	509 ▲	<i>Bulgaria</i>	432 ▼
Germany	509 ▲	Turkey	428 ▼
<i>Macau (China)</i>	509 ▲	<i>Costa Rica</i>	427 ▼
Poland	506 ▲	<i>Trinidad and Tobago</i>	427 ▼
Slovenia	505 ▲	<i>Montenegro, Republic of</i>	427 ▼
Netherlands	503	<i>Colombia</i>	425 ▼
Australia	503	Mexico	423 ▼
Sweden	500	<i>Moldova, Republic of</i>	416 ▼
Denmark	500	<i>Thailand</i>	409 ▼
France	499	<i>Jordan</i>	408 ▼
Belgium	499	<i>Brazil</i>	407 ▼
Portugal	498	<i>Albania</i>	405 ▼
United Kingdom	498	<i>Qatar</i>	402 ▼
<i>Chinese Taipei</i>	497	<i>George</i>	401 ▼
<b>United States</b>	<b>497</b>	<i>Peru</i>	398 ▼
Spain	496	<i>Indonesia</i>	397 ▼
<i>Russian Federation</i>	495	<i>Tunisia</i>	361 ▼
<i>B-S-J-G (China)</i> <sup>1</sup>	494	<i>Dominican Republic</i>	358 ▼
Switzerland	492	<i>Macedonia, Republic of</i>	352 ▼
Latvia	488 ▼	<i>Algeria</i>	350 ▼
Czech Republic	487 ▼	<i>Kosovo</i>	347 ▼
<i>Croatia</i>	487 ▼	<i>Lebanon</i>	347 ▼
<i>Vietnam</i>	487 ▼		
Austria	485 ▼		
Italy	485 ▼		
Iceland	482 ▼		
Luxembourg	481 ▼		
Israel	479 ▼		
<i>Buenos Aires (Argentina)</i>	475 ▼		
		<b>U.S. states and territories</b>	
		<i>Massachusetts</i>	527 ▲
		<i>North Carolina</i>	500
		<i>Puerto Rico</i>	410 ▼

▲ Average score is higher than U.S. average score.

▼ Average score is lower than U.S. average score.

<sup>1</sup> *B-S-J-G (China)* refers to the four PISA participating China provinces: Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu, and Guangdong.

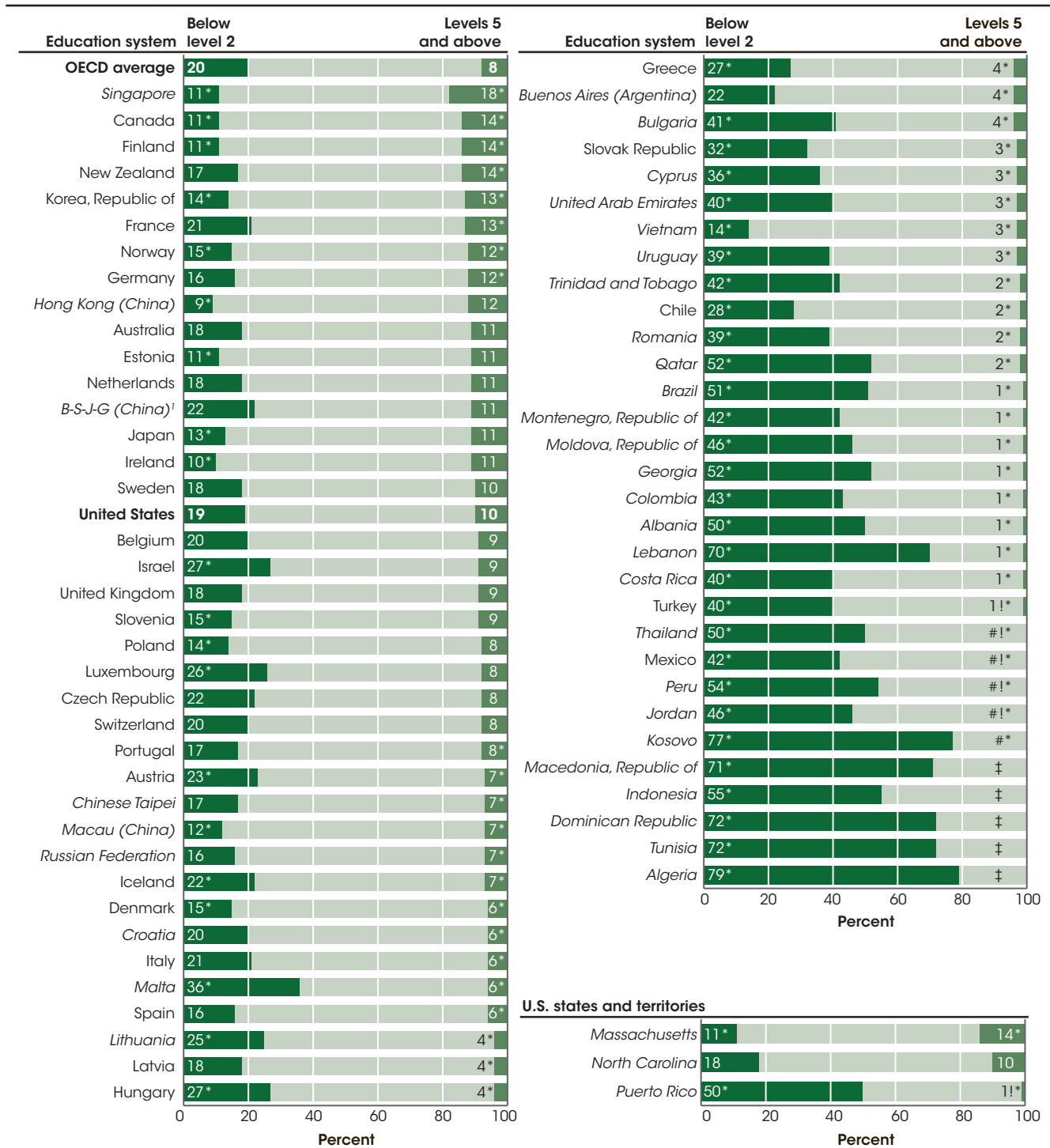
NOTE: Education systems are ordered by 2015 average score. The OECD average is the average of the national averages of the OECD member countries, with each country weighted equally. Scores are reported on a scale from 0 to 1,000. All average scores reported as higher or lower than the U.S. average score are different at a .05 level of statistical significance. Italics indicate non-OECD countries and education systems. Results for Massachusetts and North Carolina are for public school students only. Although Argentina, Kazakhstan, and Malaysia participated in PISA 2015, technical problems with their samples prevent results from being discussed in this report.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.50.

In reading literacy, average scores ranged from 347 in Lebanon to 535 in Singapore. The U.S. average score (497) was not measurably different from the OECD average (493). Fourteen education systems had higher average reading scores than the United States, and 13 education

systems had scores that were not measurably different from the U.S. score. Massachusetts's average score (527) was higher than the U.S. average, North Carolina's (500) was not measurably different, and Puerto Rico's (410) was lower.

**Figure 2. Percentage of 15-year-old students performing on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) reading literacy scale, by selected proficiency levels and education system: 2015**



■ Below level 2  
■ Levels 5 and above

# 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. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is 50 percent or greater.

\*  $p < .05$ . Significantly different from the U.S. percentage.

<sup>1</sup> B-S-J-G (China) refers to the four PISA participating China provinces: Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu, and Guangdong.

NOTE: Education systems are ordered by percentage of 15-year-olds in levels 5 and above. To reach a particular proficiency level, students must correctly answer a majority of items at that level. Students were classified into science proficiency levels according to their scores. Cut scores for each proficiency level can be found in table A-1 available at <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/pisa/PISA2015/index.asp>. The OECD average is the average of the national percentages of the OECD member countries, with each country weighted equally. Italics indicate non-OECD countries and education systems. Results for Massachusetts and North Carolina are for public school students only. Although Argentina, Kazakhstan, and Malaysia participated in PISA 2015, technical problems with their samples prevent results from being discussed in this report.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.50.

As with science literacy, PISA reports reading literacy by seven proficiency levels, with level 1b being the lowest and level 6 being the highest. At levels 5 and 6, students have mastered sophisticated reading skills required to interpret and evaluate deeply embedded or abstract text. The percentage of U.S. top performers (levels 5 and above) on the reading literacy scale (10 percent) was not measurably different from the OECD average (8 percent). Percentages of top performers ranged from near 0 percent in five education systems to 18 percent in Singapore. Eight education systems had higher percentages of top performers in reading literacy than the United States. Massachusetts had a higher percentage of top performers (14 percent) than the United States, North Carolina had a

percentage (10 percent) that was not measurably different, and Puerto Rico had a lower percentage (1 percent).

The percentage of U.S. students who were low performers in reading literacy (19 percent) was not measurably different from the OECD average (20 percent). Percentages of low performers ranged from 9 percent in Hong Kong (China) to 79 percent in Algeria. Fourteen education systems had lower percentages of low performers in reading literacy than the United States. Massachusetts had a lower percentage (11 percent) than the United States, North Carolina had a percentage that was not measurably different (18 percent), and Puerto Rico had a higher percentage (50 percent).

**Table 3. Average scores of 15-year-old students on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) mathematics literacy scale, by education system: 2015**

Education system	Average score	Education system	Average score
<b>OECD average</b>	<b>490</b> ▲	Israel	470
<i>Singapore</i>	564 ▲	<b>United States</b>	<b>470</b>
<i>Hong Kong (China)</i>	548 ▲	<i>Croatia</i>	464
<i>Macau (China)</i>	544 ▲	<i>Buenos Aires (Argentina)</i>	456
<i>Chinese Taipei</i>	542 ▲	Greece	454 ▼
Japan	532 ▲	<i>Romania</i>	444 ▼
<i>B-S-J-G (China)<sup>1</sup></i>	531 ▲	<i>Bulgaria</i>	441 ▼
Korea, Republic of	524 ▲	<i>Cyprus</i>	437 ▼
Switzerland	521 ▲	<i>United Arab Emirates</i>	427 ▼
Estonia	520 ▲	Chile	423 ▼
Canada	516 ▲	Turkey	420 ▼
Netherlands	512 ▲	<i>Moldova, Republic of</i>	420 ▼
Denmark	511 ▲	<i>Uruguay</i>	418 ▼
Finland	511 ▲	<i>Montenegro, Republic of</i>	418 ▼
Slovenia	510 ▲	<i>Trinidad and Tobago</i>	417 ▼
Belgium	507 ▲	<i>Thailand</i>	415 ▼
Germany	506 ▲	<i>Albania</i>	413 ▼
Poland	504 ▲	Mexico	408 ▼
Ireland	504 ▲	<i>Georgia</i>	404 ▼
Norway	502 ▲	<i>Qatar</i>	402 ▼
Austria	497 ▲	<i>Costa Rica</i>	400 ▼
New Zealand	495 ▲	<i>Lebanon</i>	396 ▼
<i>Vietnam</i>	495 ▲	<i>Colombia</i>	390 ▼
<i>Russian Federation</i>	494 ▲	<i>Peru</i>	387 ▼
Sweden	494 ▲	<i>Indonesia</i>	386 ▼
Australia	494 ▲	<i>Jordan</i>	380 ▼
France	493 ▲	<i>Brazil</i>	377 ▼
United Kingdom	492 ▲	<i>Macedonia, Republic of</i>	371 ▼
Czech Republic	492 ▲	<i>Tunisia</i>	367 ▼
Portugal	492 ▲	<i>Kosovo</i>	362 ▼
Italy	490 ▲	<i>Algeria</i>	360 ▼
Iceland	488 ▲	<i>Dominican Republic</i>	328 ▼
Spain	486 ▲		
Luxembourg	486 ▲	<b>U.S. states and territories</b>	
Latvia	482 ▲	<i>Massachusetts</i>	500 ▲
<i>Malta</i>	479 ▲	<i>North Carolina</i>	471
<i>Lithuania</i>	478 ▲	<i>Puerto Rico</i>	378 ▼
Hungary	477		
Slovak Republic	475		

▲ Average score is higher than U.S. average score.

▼ Average score is lower than U.S. average score.

<sup>1</sup> *B-S-J-G (China)* refers to the four PISA participating China provinces: Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu, and Guangdong.

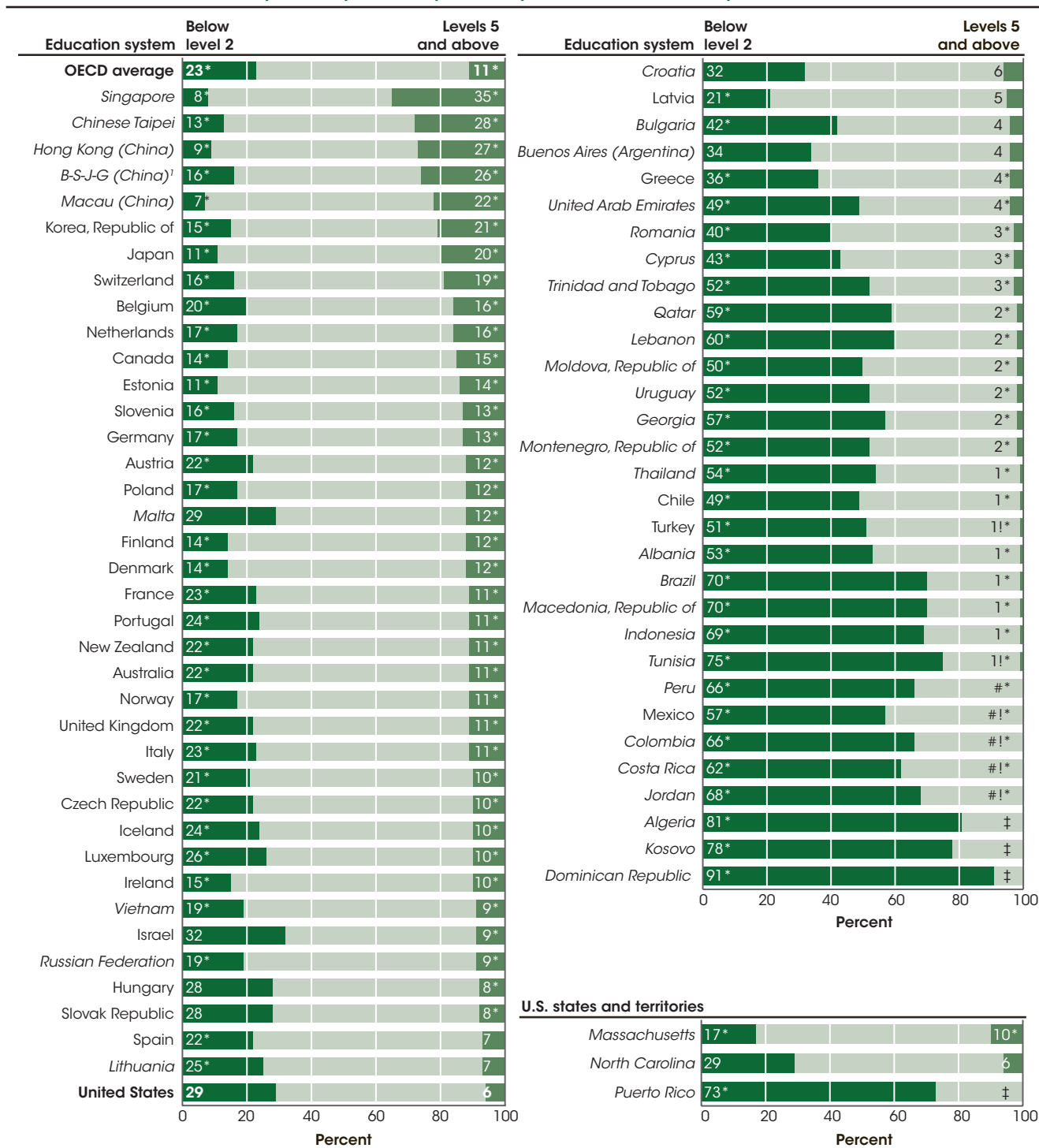
NOTE: Education systems are ordered by 2015 average score. The OECD average is the average of the national averages of the OECD member countries, with each country weighted equally. Scores are reported on a scale from 0 to 1,000. All average scores reported as higher or lower than the U.S. average score are different at a .05 level of statistical significance. Italics indicate non-OECD countries and education systems. Results for Massachusetts and North Carolina are for public school students only. Although Argentina, Kazakhstan, and Malaysia participated in PISA 2015, technical problems with their samples prevent results from being discussed in this report.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.60.

Average scores in mathematics literacy in 2015 ranged from 328 in the Dominican Republic to 564 in Singapore. The U.S. average mathematics score (470) was lower than the OECD average (490). Thirty-six education systems had higher average mathematics scores than the United

States, and five had scores not measurably different from the U.S. average. Massachusetts's average score (500) was higher than the U.S. average, North Carolina's (471) was not measurably different, and Puerto Rico's (378) was lower.

**Figure 3. Percentage of 15-year-old students performing on the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) mathematics literacy scale, by selected proficiency levels and education system: 2015**



■ Below level 2  
■ Levels 5 and above

# 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. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is 50 percent or greater.

\*  $p < .05$ . Significantly different from the U.S. percentage.

<sup>1</sup> *B-S-J-G (China)* refers to the four PISA participating China provinces: Beijing, Shanghai, Jiangsu, and Guangdong.

NOTE: Education systems are ordered by percentage of 15-year-olds in levels 5 and above. To reach a particular proficiency level, students must correctly answer a majority of items at that level. Students were classified into mathematics proficiency levels according to their scores. Cut scores for each proficiency level can be found in table A-1 at <https://nces.ed.gov/surveys/pisa/PISA2015/index.asp>. The OECD average is the average of the national percentages of the OECD member countries, with each country weighted equally. Italics indicate non-OECD countries and education systems. Results for Massachusetts and North Carolina are for public school students only. Although Argentina, Kazakhstan, and Malaysia participated in PISA 2015, technical problems with their samples prevent results from being discussed in this report.

SOURCE: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), Program for International Student Assessment (PISA), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 602.60.

PISA reports mathematics literacy in terms of six proficiency levels, with level 1 being the lowest and level 6 being the highest. Students scoring at proficiency levels 5 and above are considered to be top performers since they have demonstrated advanced mathematical thinking and reasoning skills required to solve problems of greater complexity. The percentage of top performers in the United States (6 percent) was lower than the OECD average (11 percent). Percentages of top performers ranged from near 0 percent in five education systems to 35 percent in Singapore. Thirty-six education systems and Massachusetts (10 percent) had higher percentages of top performers in mathematics literacy than the United States. North Carolina had a percentage of top performers (6 percent) not measurably different from the U.S. percentage.

The percentage of 15-year-olds in the United States who score below proficiency level 2 in mathematics literacy (29 percent) was higher than the OECD average (23 percent). Percentages of low performers ranged from 7 percent in Macau (China) to 91 percent in the Dominican Republic. Thirty-five education systems and Massachusetts (17 percent) had lower percentages of low performers in mathematics literacy than the United States. The percentage of low performers in North Carolina (29 percent) was not measurably different from the U.S. percentage, while the percentage in Puerto Rico (73 percent) was higher.

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**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Although Argentina, Kazakhstan, and Malaysia participated in PISA 2015, technical problems with their samples prevent results from being discussed; therefore, results are presented for 70 education systems.

<sup>2</sup> For the purposes of this indicator, “education systems” refers to all entities participating in PISA, including countries as well as subnational entities (e.g., cities or provinces). Massachusetts, North Carolina, and Puerto Rico are treated separately in this indicator and are not included in counts of education systems.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 602.50, 602.60, and 602.70

**Related indicators and resources:** Reading Performance; Mathematics Performance; Science Performance; International Comparisons: Reading Literacy at Grade 4; International Comparisons: U.S. 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-Graders’ Mathematics and Science Achievement; U.S. Student and Adult Performance on International Assessments of Educational Achievement [*The Condition of Education 2006 Spotlight*]; U.S. Performance Across International Assessments of Student Achievement [*The Condition of Education 2009 Spotlight*]

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**Glossary:** Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)

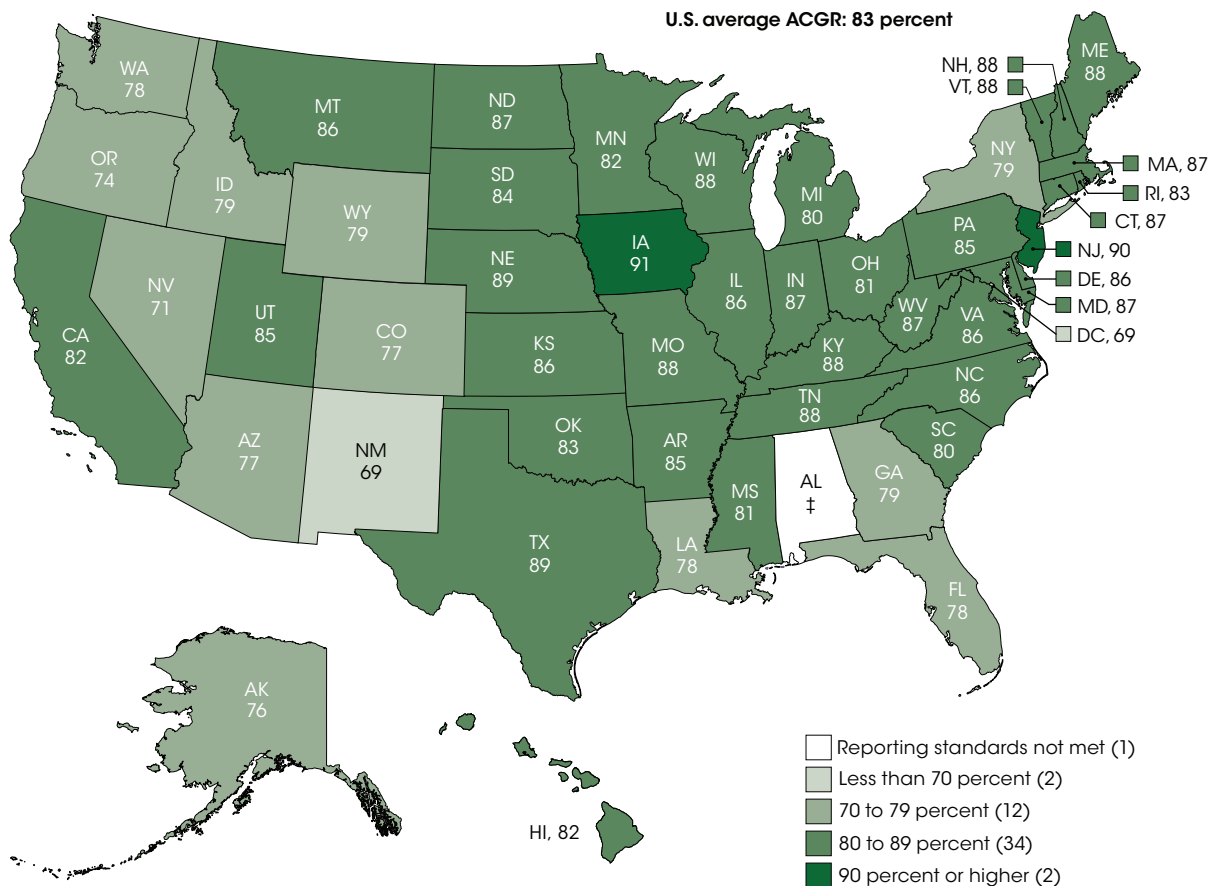
# Public High School Graduation Rates

In school year 2014–15, the adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) for public high school students rose to 83 percent, the highest rate since the measure was first collected in 2010–11. In other words, more than 4 out of 5 students graduated with a regular high school diploma within 4 years of starting 9th grade. Asian/Pacific Islander students had the highest ACGR (90 percent), followed by White (88 percent), Hispanic (78 percent), Black (75 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native (72 percent) students.

This indicator examines the percentage of public high school students who graduate on time, as measured by the adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR). State education agencies calculate the ACGR by identifying the “cohort” of first-time 9th-graders in a particular school year. The cohort is then adjusted by adding any students who

transfer into the cohort after 9th grade and subtracting any students who transfer out, emigrate to another country, or die. The ACGR is the percentage of students in this adjusted cohort who graduate within four years with a regular high school diploma. The U.S. Department of Education first collected the ACGR in 2010–11.

Figure 1. Adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) for public high school students, by state: 2014–15



‡ Reporting standards not met. The Alabama State Department of Education has indicated that their adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) data was misstated. For more information, please see the following press release issued by the state: <https://www.alsde.edu/sec/comm/News%20Releases/12-08-2016%20Graduation%20Rate%20Review.pdf>.

NOTE: The adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) is the percentage of public high school freshmen who graduate with a regular diploma within 4 years of starting 9th grade. The Bureau of Indian Education and Puerto Rico were not included in the United States 4-year ACGR estimate. The graduation rates displayed above have been rounded to whole numbers. Categorizations are based on unrounded percentages.

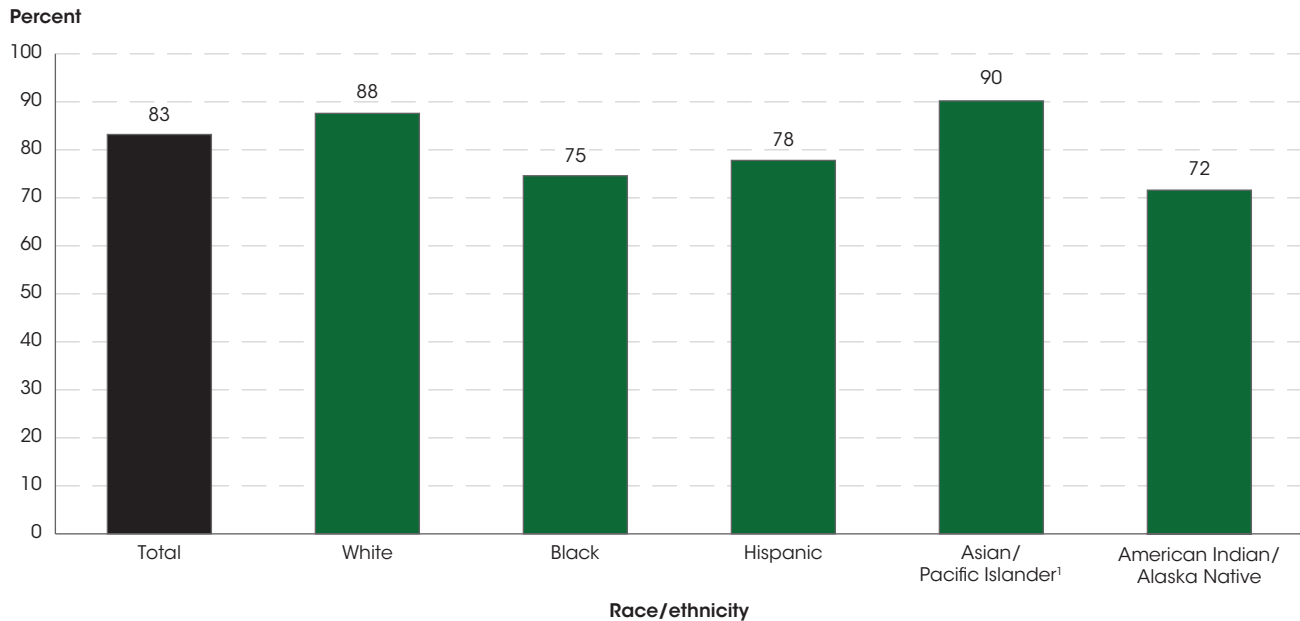
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, Consolidated State Performance Report, 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.46.



The ACGR increased over the first 5 years in which it was collected, from 79 percent in 2010–11 to 83 percent in 2014–15. In other words, more than 4 out of 5 public school students received a regular high school diploma within 4 years of starting 9th grade. In 2014–15, the state-

level ACGRs ranged from 69 percent in the District of Columbia and New Mexico to 90 percent in New Jersey and 91 percent in Iowa.<sup>1</sup> Roughly two-thirds of states (34) reported graduation rates between 80 and 89 percent.<sup>2</sup>

**Figure 2. Adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) for public high school students, by race/ethnicity: 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Represents either the value reported by the state for the "Asian/Pacific Islander" group or an aggregation of values reported by the state for separate "Asian," "Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander or Pacific Islander," and "Filipino" groups.

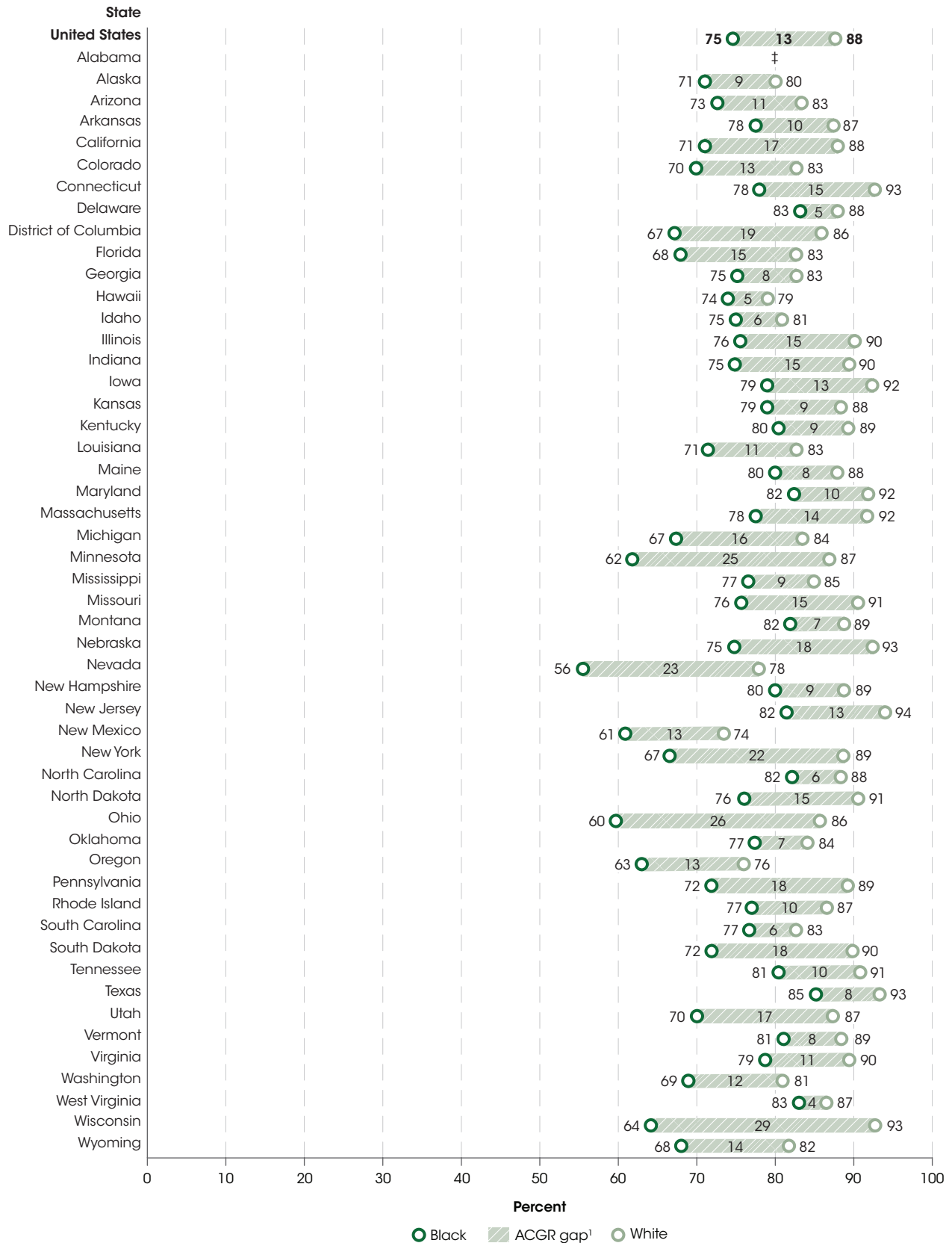
NOTE: The adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) is the percentage of public high school freshmen who graduate with a regular diploma within 4 years of starting 9th grade. The Bureau of Indian Education and Puerto Rico were not included in United States 4-year ACGR estimates. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, Consolidated State Performance Report, 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.46.

In 2014–15, the ACGRs for American Indian/Alaska Native (72 percent), Black (75 percent), and Hispanic (78 percent) students were below the national average of 83 percent. The ACGRs for White (88 percent) and Asian/Pacific Islander<sup>3</sup> (90 percent) students were above the national average. Across states, ACGRs for White students ranged from 74 percent in New Mexico to 94 percent in New Jersey and were higher than the overall national ACGR of 83 percent in 35 states and the District of Columbia. The rates for Black students ranged from 56 percent in Nevada to 85 percent in Texas. Texas was the only state in which the ACGR for Black students was higher than the overall national ACGR. The ACGRs for

Hispanic students ranged from 66 percent in Minnesota and New York to 87 percent in Texas and were higher than the overall national ACGR in four states (Arkansas, Missouri, Tennessee, and Texas). For Asian/Pacific Islander students, ACGRs ranged from 76 percent in Vermont to 96 percent in Maryland and New Jersey<sup>4</sup> and were higher than the overall national ACGR in 40 states. The ACGRs for American Indian/Alaska Native students ranged from 45 percent in Wyoming to 89 percent in New Jersey and were higher than the overall national ACGR in seven states (Connecticut, Indiana, Iowa, Missouri, New Jersey, Tennessee, and Texas).<sup>5</sup>

Figure 3. Adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) of White and Black public high school students, by state: 2014–15



See notes on next page.

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‡ Reporting standards not met. The Alabama State Department of Education has indicated that their adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) data was misstated. For more information, please see the following press release issued by the state: <https://www.alsde.edu/sec/comm/News%20Releases/12-08-2016%20Graduation%20Rate%20Review.pdf>.

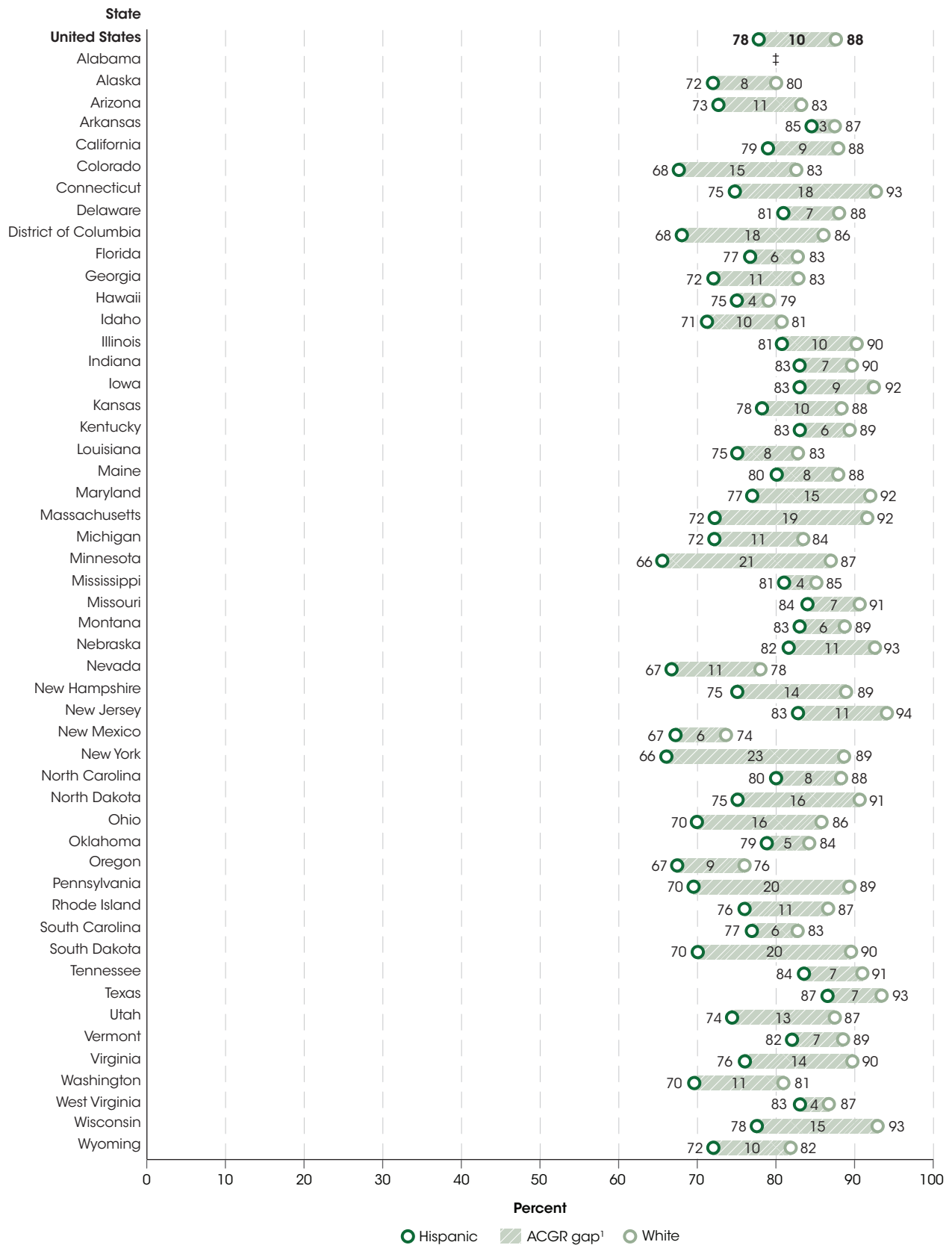
<sup>1</sup> The graduation rate gaps were calculated using the most precise graduation rates available for public use, which includes some rates rounded to one decimal place and some rates rounded to whole numbers. These gaps may vary slightly from those that would be calculated using unrounded rates. NOTE: The adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) is the percentage of public high school freshmen who graduate with a regular diploma within 4 years of starting 9th grade. The Bureau of Indian Education and Puerto Rico were not included in the United States 4-year ACGR estimate. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, Consolidated State Performance Report, 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.46.

The national ACGR for White students (88 percent) was 13 percentage points<sup>6</sup> higher than the national ACGR for Black students (75 percent) in 2014–15. White public high school students had higher ACGRs than Black public high school students in every state and the District

of Columbia. Minnesota, Nevada, New York, Ohio, and Wisconsin reported the largest gaps between White and Black students. In each of these five states, the ACGR for White students was at least 20 percentage points higher than the ACGR for Black students.

Figure 4. Adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) of White and Hispanic public high school students, by state: 2014-15



See notes on next page.

‡ Reporting standards not met. The Alabama State Department of Education has indicated that their adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) data was misstated. For more information, please see the following press release issued by the state: <https://www.alsde.edu/sec/comm/News%20Releases/12-08-2016%20Graduation%20Rate%20Review.pdf>.

<sup>1</sup> The graduation rate gaps were calculated using the most precise graduation rates available for public use, which includes some rates rounded to one decimal place and some rates rounded to whole numbers. These gaps may vary slightly from those that would be calculated using unrounded rates. NOTE: The adjusted cohort graduation rate (ACGR) is the percentage of public high school freshmen who graduate with a regular diploma within 4 years of starting 9th grade. The Bureau of Indian Education and Puerto Rico were not included in the United States 4-year ACGR estimate. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, Consolidated State Performance Report, 2014–15. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.46.

States reported similar gaps in ACGRs between White and Hispanic public high school students. The national ACGR for White students (88 percent) was 10 percentage points higher than the national ACGR for Hispanic students (78 percent) in 2014–15. The ACGRs for White students were higher than the ACGRs for Hispanic

students in every state and the District of Columbia. Minnesota, New York, Pennsylvania, and South Dakota reported the largest gaps between White and Hispanic students. In each of these four states, the ACGR for White students was at least 20 percentage points higher than the ACGR for Hispanic students.

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Alabama's data are not included in this indicator. The Alabama State Department of Education has indicated that their adjusted cohort graduation rate data was misstated. For more information, please see the following press release issued by the state: <https://www.alsde.edu/sec/comm/News%20Releases/12-08-2016%20Graduation%20Rate%20Review.pdf>.

<sup>2</sup> Based on graduation rates that have been rounded to whole numbers.

<sup>3</sup> Reporting practices for data on Asian and Pacific Islander students varied by state. Asian/Pacific Islander data in this indicator represent either the value reported by the state for the “Asian/Pacific Islander” group or an aggregation of values reported by the state for separate “Asian,” “Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander or Pacific Islander,” and “Filipino” groups.

<sup>4</sup> In addition, the ACGR for Asian/Pacific Islander students in West Virginia was greater than or equal to 95 percent. To protect student privacy, the exact value is not displayed.

<sup>5</sup> Discussion of ACGRs for American Indian/Alaska Native students excludes data for three jurisdictions: the District of Columbia, Vermont, and Virginia. Data for the District of Columbia were suppressed to protect student privacy, data for Vermont were displayed as greater than or equal to 50 percent to protect student privacy, and data for Virginia were unavailable.

<sup>6</sup> Percentage point gaps were calculated using the most precise graduation rates available for public use, which includes some rates rounded to one decimal place and some rates rounded to whole numbers. These gaps may vary slightly from those that would be calculated using unrounded rates.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.46

**Related indicators and resources:** Educational Attainment of Young Adults, Status Dropout Rates, *Trends in High School Dropout and Completion Rates*

**Glossary:** Adjusted Cohort Graduation Rate (ACGR), Gap, High school completer, High school diploma, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group

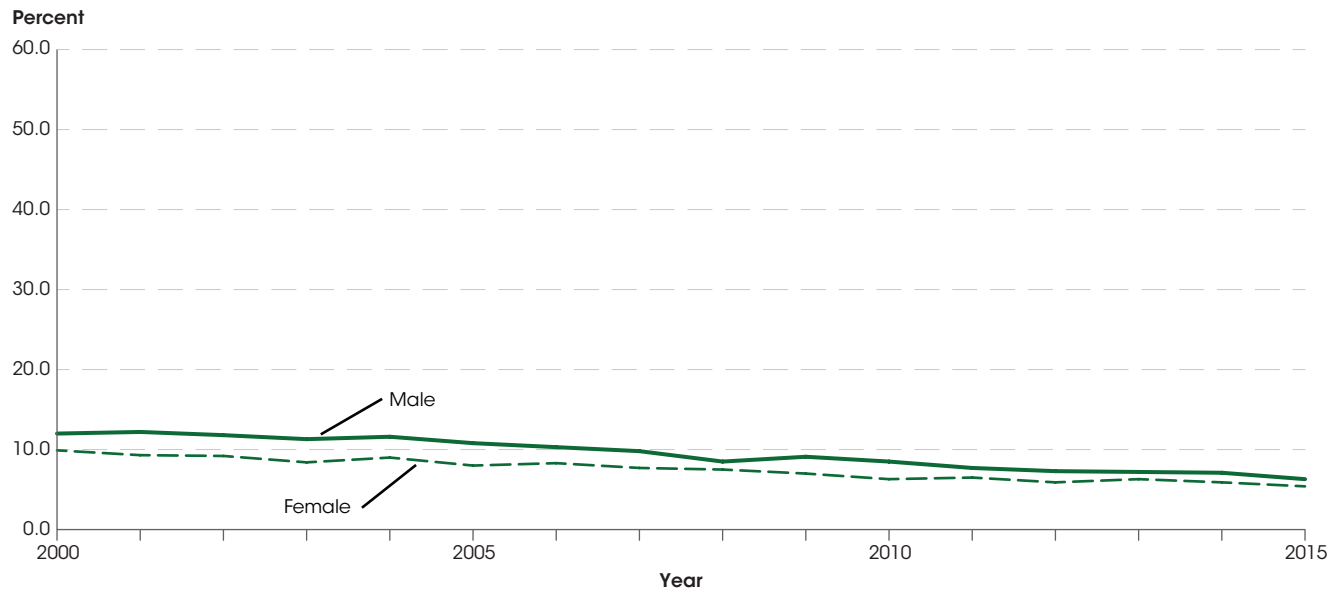
## Status Dropout Rates

The status dropout rate decreased from 10.9 percent in 2000 to 5.9 percent in 2015. During this time, the Hispanic status dropout rate decreased by 18.6 percentage points, while the Black and White status dropout rates decreased by 6.6 and 2.4 percentage points, respectively. Nevertheless, in 2015 the Hispanic status dropout rate (9.2 percent) remained higher than the Black (6.5 percent) and White (4.6 percent) status dropout rates.

The *status dropout rate* represents the percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds (referred to as youth in this indicator) 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). In this indicator, status dropout rates are estimated using both the Current Population Survey (CPS) and the American Community Survey (ACS). The CPS is a household survey that has been collected annually for decades, allowing for the

analysis of long-term trends, or changes over time, for the civilian, noninstitutionalized population. The ACS covers a broader population, including individuals living in households as well as individuals living in noninstitutionalized group quarters (such as college or military housing) and institutionalized group quarters (such as correctional or nursing facilities).<sup>1</sup> ACS data are available for fewer years than CPS data, but can provide detail on smaller demographic groups.

Figure 1. Status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds, by sex: 2000 through 2015

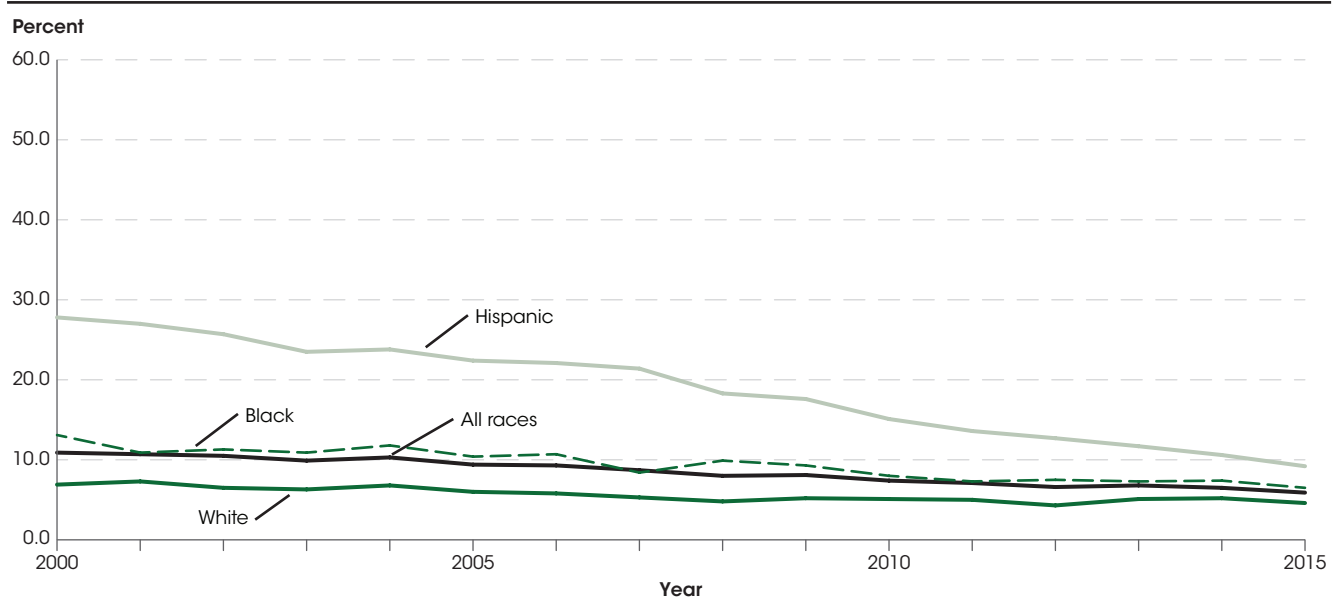


NOTE: The "status dropout rate" is the percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds who are not enrolled in school and have not earned a high school credential (either a diploma or an equivalency credential such as a GED certificate). Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons in prisons, persons in the military, and other persons not living in households.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2000 through 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.70.

Based on data from the CPS, the status dropout rate decreased from 10.9 percent in 2000 to 5.9 percent in 2015. Over the most recent 5-year period, from 2010 to 2015, the status dropout rate fell from 7.4 to 5.9 percent. Between 2000 and 2015, the male status dropout rate declined from 12.0 to 6.3 percent, and the female status

dropout rate declined from 9.9 to 5.4 percent. While the rate for male youth was 2.1 percentage points higher than the rate for female youth in 2000, there was no measurable difference between the rates for males and females in 2015.

**Figure 2. Status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds, by race/ethnicity: 2000 through 2015**

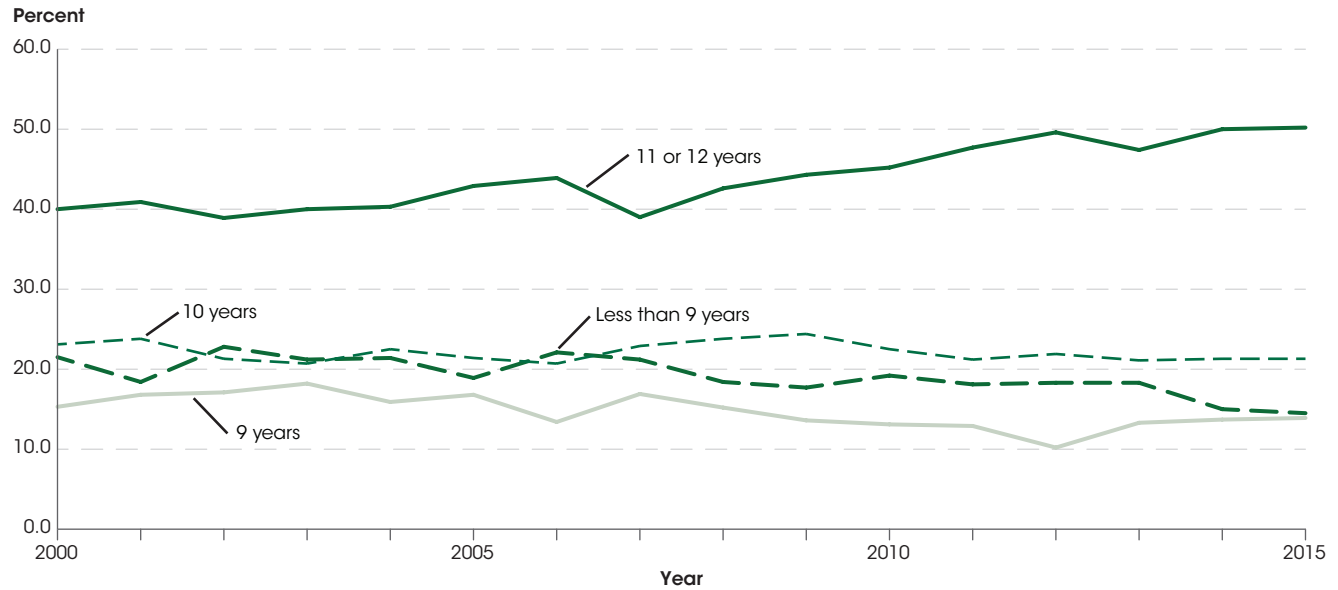


NOTE: The "status dropout rate" is the percentage of 16- to 24-year-olds who are not enrolled in school and have not earned a high school credential (either a diploma or an equivalency credential such as a GED certificate). Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons in prisons, persons in the military, and other persons not living in households. Data for all races include other racial/ethnic categories not separately shown. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2000 through 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.70.

In each year from 2000 to 2015, the status dropout rate was lower for White youth than for Black youth, and the rates for both groups were lower than the rate for Hispanic youth. During this period, the status dropout rate declined from 6.9 to 4.6 percent for White youth; from 13.1 to 6.5 percent for Black youth; and from

27.8 to 9.2 percent for Hispanic youth. As a result, the gap between White and Black youth narrowed from 6.2 percentage points in 2000 to 1.9 percentage points in 2015. The gap between White and Hispanic youth narrowed from 20.9 percentage points in 2000 to 4.6 percentage points in 2015.

**Figure 3. Percentage distribution of status dropouts, by years of school completed: 2000 through 2015**



NOTE: "Status dropouts" are 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 the civilian noninstitutionalized population, which excludes persons in prisons, persons in the military, and other persons not living in households.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October 2000 through 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.75.

The decline in the overall status dropout rate from 10.9 percent in 2000 to 5.9 percent in 2015 coincided with a shift in the distribution of years of school completed by status dropouts, as fewer status dropouts completed less than 9 years of schooling, while more completed 11 or 12 years of schooling. The percentage of status dropouts with less than 9 years of schooling decreased from 21.5 percent in 2000 to 14.5 percent in 2015. Conversely, the percentage of status dropouts who had completed 11 or 12 years of schooling but did not receive a diploma or GED certificate increased from 40.0 percent in 2000 to 50.2 percent in 2015.

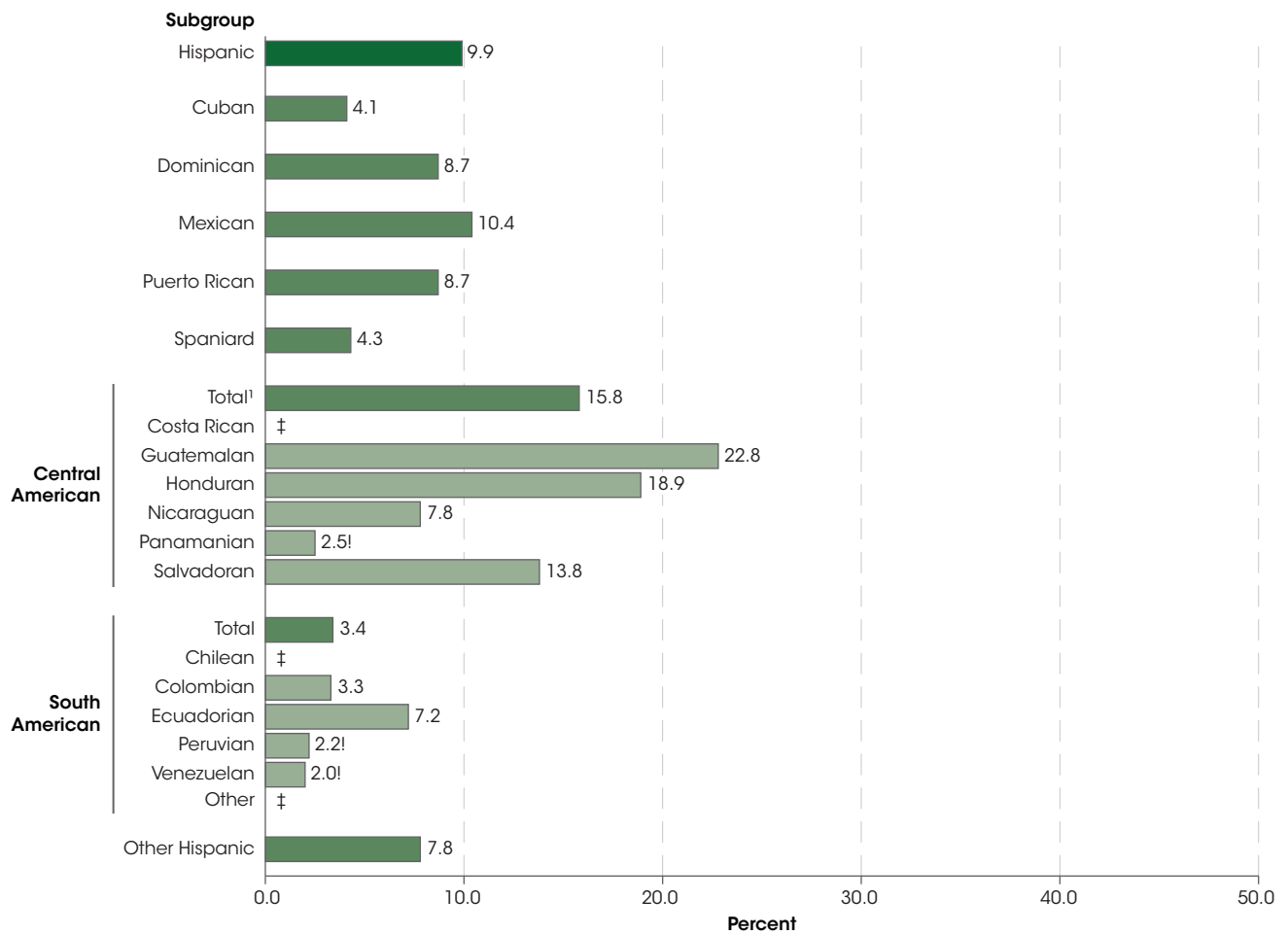
Based on data from the ACS (which covers a broader population than the CPS), the overall status dropout rate in 2015 was 6.0 percent. The status dropout rate

was lower for individuals living in households and noninstitutionalized group quarters (5.7 percent) than for individuals living in institutionalized group quarters (34.6 percent).

According to data from the ACS, the status dropout rate varied by race/ethnicity in 2015. The status dropout rate was lower for Asian youth (2.4 percent), White youth (4.5 percent), and youth of Two or more races (4.7 percent), than for Black (7.2 percent), Hispanic (9.9 percent), and American Indian/Alaska Native youth (13.2 percent). The rate for Pacific Islander youth (5.4 percent) was lower than the rates for Hispanic and American Indian/Alaska Native youth, but not measurably different from those of other racial groups.



Figure 4. Status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds, by selected Hispanic subgroups: 2015

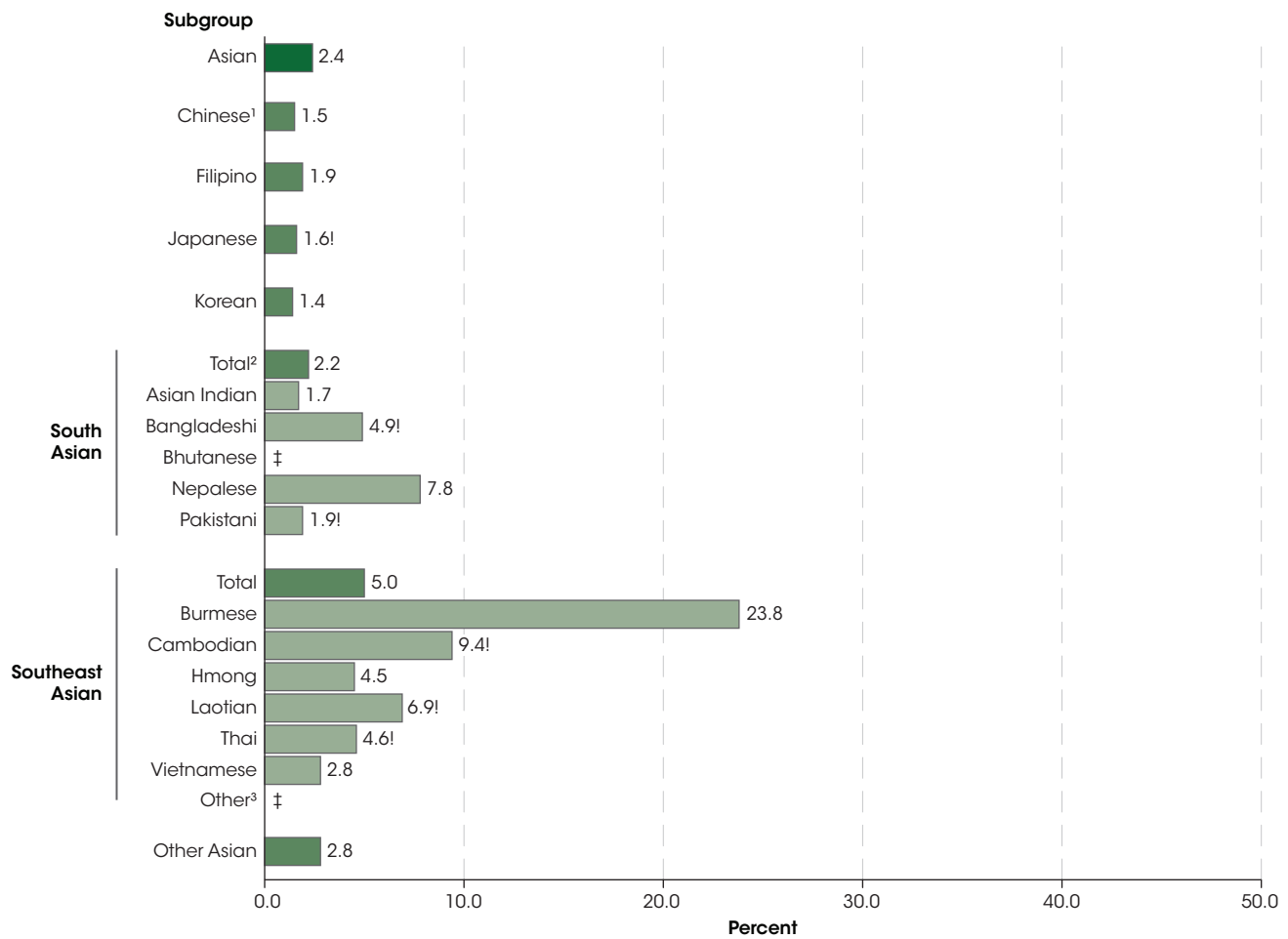


! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.  
 ‡ Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.  
<sup>1</sup> Includes other Central American subgroups not shown separately.  
 NOTE: This figure uses a different data source than figure 2; therefore, estimates are not directly comparable to the estimates in figure 2. 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, noninstitutionalized group quarters (such as college or military housing), and institutionalized group quarters (such as correctional or nursing facilities).  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.80.

Data from the ACS can also be used to estimate the status dropout rate for many specific Hispanic and Asian subgroups, including, for example, youth of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Chinese, and Vietnamese descent. In 2015, the total status dropout rate for Hispanic youth was 9.9 percent. Status dropout rates for youth of Guatemalan (22.8 percent), Honduran (18.9 percent), and Salvadoran (13.8 percent) descent were higher than the total rate for all Hispanic youth. In addition, the overall status dropout

rate for Central American<sup>2</sup> youth (15.8 percent) was higher than the total Hispanic rate. The status dropout rates for Dominican, Mexican, and Nicaraguan youth were not measurably different from the total Hispanic rate. The rates for the remaining Hispanic subgroups presented were lower than the total Hispanic rate. For example, the status dropout rate was 8.7 percent for Puerto Rican youth and 4.1 percent for Cuban youth.

Figure 5. Status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds, by selected Asian subgroups: 2015

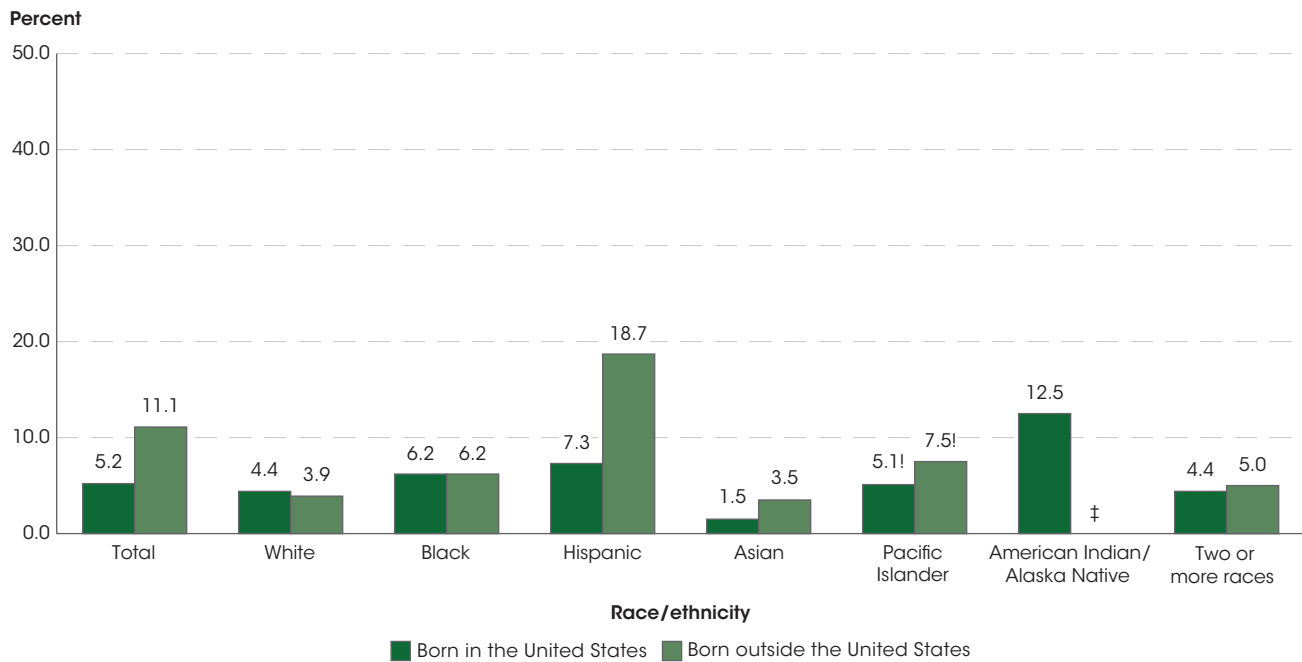


! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.  
 ‡ Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.  
 ¹ Includes Taiwanese.  
 ² In addition to the subgroups shown, also includes Sri Lankan.  
 ³ Consists of Indonesian and Malaysian.  
 NOTE: This figure uses a different data source than figure 2; therefore, estimates are not directly comparable to the estimates in figure 2. 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, noninstitutionalized group quarters (such as college or military housing), and institutionalized group quarters (such as correctional or nursing facilities).  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.80.

Among Asian youth, the total status dropout rate was 2.4 percent in 2015. Three Asian subgroups had status dropout rates that were higher than the total Asian rate: Burmese (23.8 percent), Cambodian (9.4 percent), and Nepalese (7.8 percent). In addition, the overall status dropout rate for Southeast Asian<sup>3</sup> youth (5.0 percent) was

higher than the total Asian rate. Status dropout rates for Asian Indian (1.7 percent), Chinese<sup>4</sup> (1.5 percent), and Korean (1.4) youth were lower than the total rate for all Asian youth. Status dropout rates for the remaining Asian subgroups presented were not measurably different from the total rate for all Asian youth.

Figure 6. Status dropout rates of 16- to 24-year-olds, by race/ethnicity and nativity: 2015



! 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.

NOTE: This figure uses a different data source than figure 2; therefore, estimates are not directly comparable to the estimates in figure 2. United States refers to the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and the Northern Marianas. 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 (such as college or military housing). Among those counted in noninstitutionalized group quarters in the American Community Survey, only the residents of military barracks are not included in the civilian noninstitutionalized population in the Current Population Survey. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, American Community Survey (ACS), 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 219.80.

Differences in status dropout rates between U.S.- and foreign-born youth<sup>5</sup> varied by race/ethnicity in 2015. Hispanic and Asian youth born in the United States had lower status dropout rates than did their peers born outside of the United States. The status dropout rate was 7.3 percent for U.S.-born Hispanic youth versus

18.7 percent for foreign-born Hispanic youth. The status dropout rate was 1.5 percent for U.S.-born Asian youth versus 3.5 percent for their foreign-born peers. There were no measurable differences in status dropout rates by nativity for White, Black, and Pacific Islander youth and for youth of Two or more races.<sup>6</sup>

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> More specifically, institutional group quarters include adult and juvenile correctional facilities, nursing facilities, and other health care facilities. Noninstitutional group quarters include college and university housing, military quarters, facilities for workers and religious groups, and temporary shelters for the homeless.

<sup>2</sup> Consists of the Costa Rican, Guatemalan, Honduran, Nicaraguan, Panamanian, and Salvadoran subgroups and other Central American subgroups not shown separately.

<sup>3</sup> Consists of the Burmese, Cambodian, Hmong, Laotian, Thai, Vietnamese, and Other Southeast Asian (i.e., Indonesian and Malaysian) subgroups.

<sup>4</sup> Includes Taiwanese.

<sup>5</sup> Includes youth living in households and noninstitutionalized group quarters. Excludes youth living in institutionalized group quarters.

<sup>6</sup> Status dropout rates were unavailable for foreign-born American Indian/Alaska Native youth.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 219.70, 219.75, and 219.80

**Related indicators and resources:** Educational Attainment of Young Adults, Public High School Graduation Rates, *Trends in High School Dropout and Completion Rates*

**Glossary:** Gap, High school diploma, Household, Racial/ethnic group, Status dropout rate (Current Population Survey), Status dropout rate (American Community Survey)

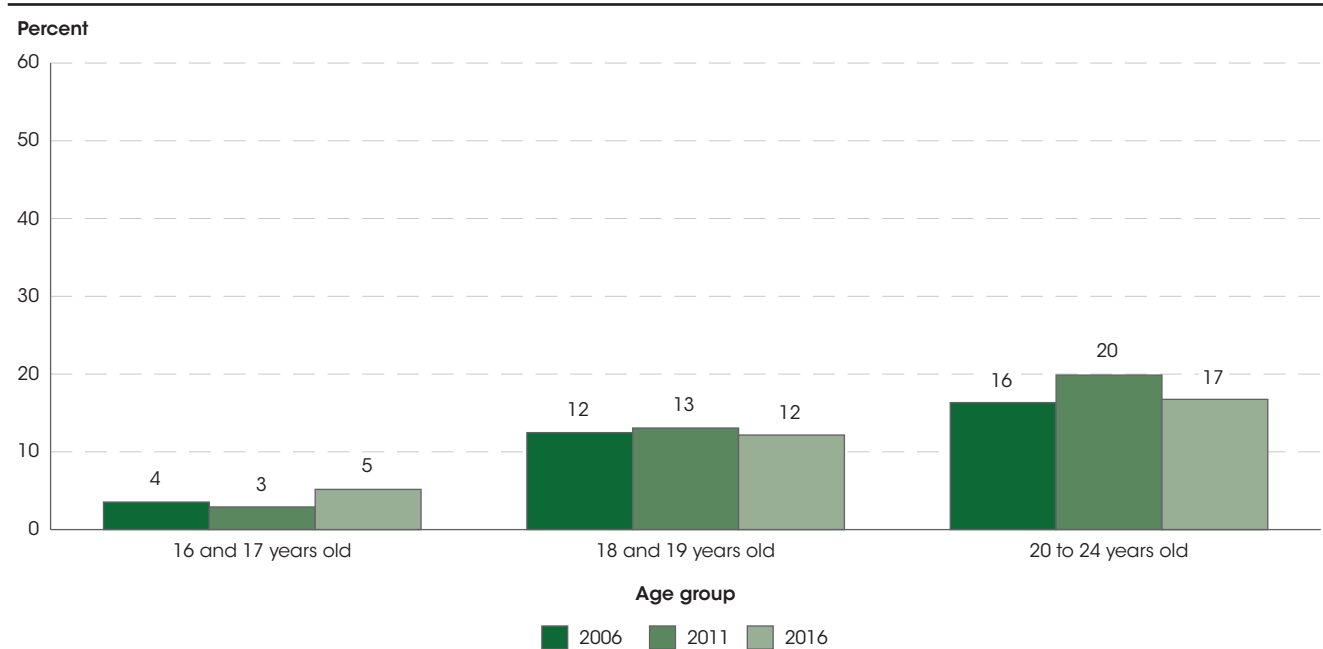
## Youth Neither Enrolled in School nor Working

*In 2016, some 17 percent of 20- to 24-year-olds were neither enrolled in school nor working, compared to 12 percent of 18- and 19-year-olds and 5 percent of 16- and 17-year-olds. In each age group, the percentage who were neither in school nor working was higher for those in poor households than for those in nonpoor households. For example, among 20- to 24-year-olds in 2016, some 31 percent of those in poor households were neither in school nor working, compared to 13 percent of those in nonpoor households.*

Schooling and work are considered core activities in the transition from childhood to adulthood. Youth who are detached from these core activities, particularly if they are detached for several years, may have difficulty building a work history that contributes to future employability and higher wages.<sup>1</sup> Youth who are neither enrolled in school nor working<sup>2</sup> may be detached from these activities for several reasons. They may be seeking educational opportunities or work but are unable to find them. They may have left the workforce or school temporarily or permanently, for personal, family, or financial reasons.

This indicator examines rates of being neither in school nor working for 16- to 24-year-olds<sup>3</sup> (also referred to as “youth” in this indicator), including comparisons between younger and older youth within this age range. The indicator presents data across three years: 2006, 2011, and 2016. The 2006 data provide information on outcomes prior to the recession experienced by the U.S. economy between December 2007 and June 2009.<sup>4</sup> The 2011 data represent the period shortly after the recession ended, and the 2016 data provide the most recently available data.

**Figure 1. Percentage of youth ages 16 to 24 who were neither enrolled in school nor working, by age group: 2006, 2011, and 2016**

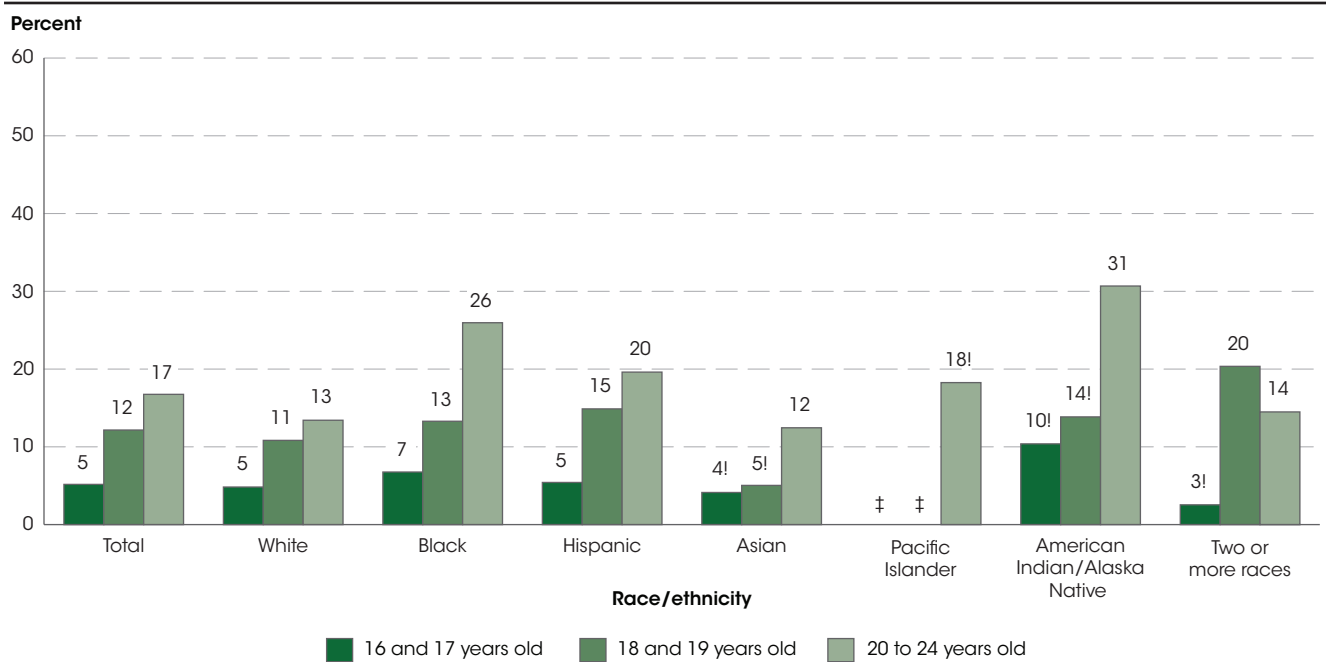


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2006, 2011, and 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.30.

In 2016, the percentage of youth neither in school nor working was higher for older youth than for younger youth. Specifically, 17 percent of 20- to 24-year-olds were neither in school nor working, compared to 12 percent of 18- and 19-year-olds and 5 percent of 16- and 17-year-olds. Among 16- and 17-year-olds, the percentage neither in school nor working was higher in 2016 (5 percent) than

in 2006 (4 percent) and 2011 (3 percent). Among 18- and 19-year-olds, there were no measurable differences in the percentage neither in school nor working across 2006, 2011, and 2016. The percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds neither in school nor working was lower in 2016 (17 percent) than in 2011 (20 percent), but not measurably different than in 2006.

**Figure 2. Percentage of youth ages 16 to 24 who were neither enrolled in school nor working, by race/ethnicity and age group: 2016**



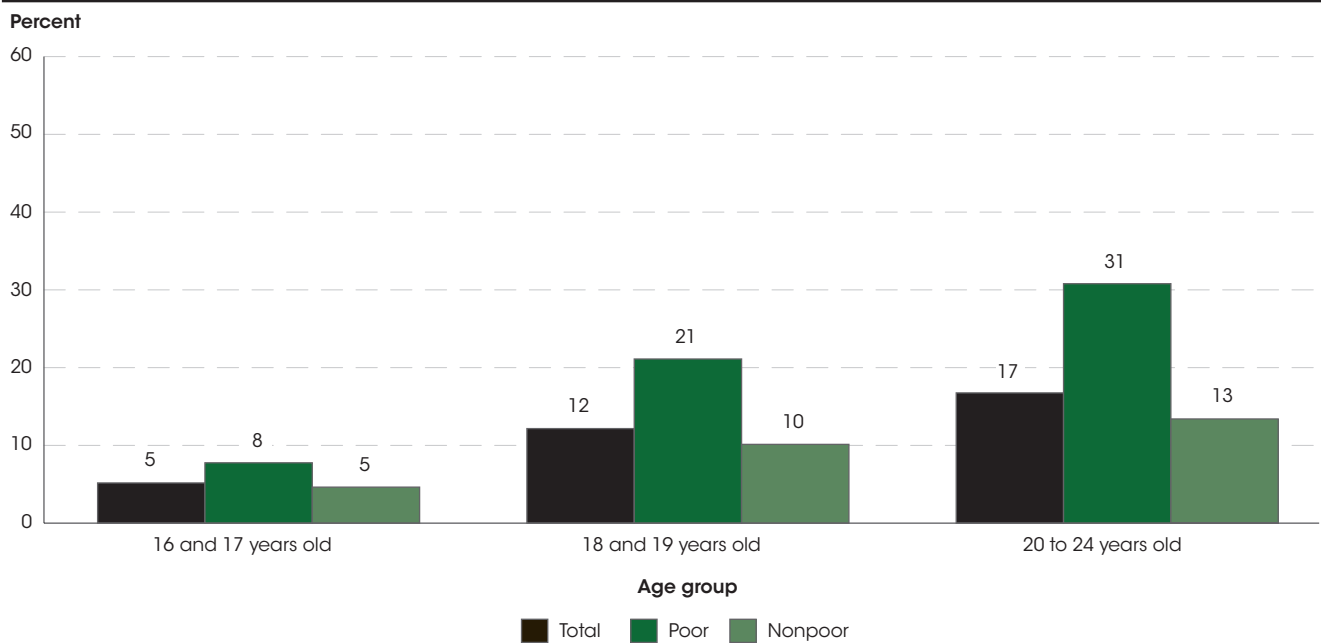
! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.  
 ‡ Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.  
 NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.30.

The percentage of youth who were neither in school nor working varied by race/ethnicity in 2016. For example, the percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds neither in school nor working was higher for American Indian/Alaska Native, Black, and Hispanic youth (31, 26, and 20 percent, respectively) than for their White and Asian peers (13 and 12 percent, respectively). In addition, the percentage neither in school nor working was higher for Black and American Indian/Alaska Native 20- to 24-year-olds than for their peers of Two or more races (14 percent), while the percentage for Pacific Islander 20- to 24-year-olds (18 percent) was not measurably different from that of any other racial/ethnic group.

(15 percent) than for White youth (11 percent), and the percentages for both groups were higher than the percentage for Asian youth (5 percent). The percentage for Black 18- and 19-year-olds (13 percent) was higher than the percentage for Asian 18- and 19-year-olds, but not measurably different from the percentages for White and Hispanic youth in the same age range. Among 16- and 17-year-olds, the percentage neither in school nor working was higher for Hispanic (5 percent) and Black youth (7 percent) than for youth of Two or more races (3 percent), but there were no other measurable differences among racial/ethnic groups (excluding Pacific Islander youth, for whom reliable estimates were not available).

Among 18- and 19-year-olds, the percentage neither in school nor working was higher for Hispanic youth

**Figure 3. Percentage of youth ages 16 to 24 who were neither enrolled in school nor working, by age group and family poverty status: 2016**



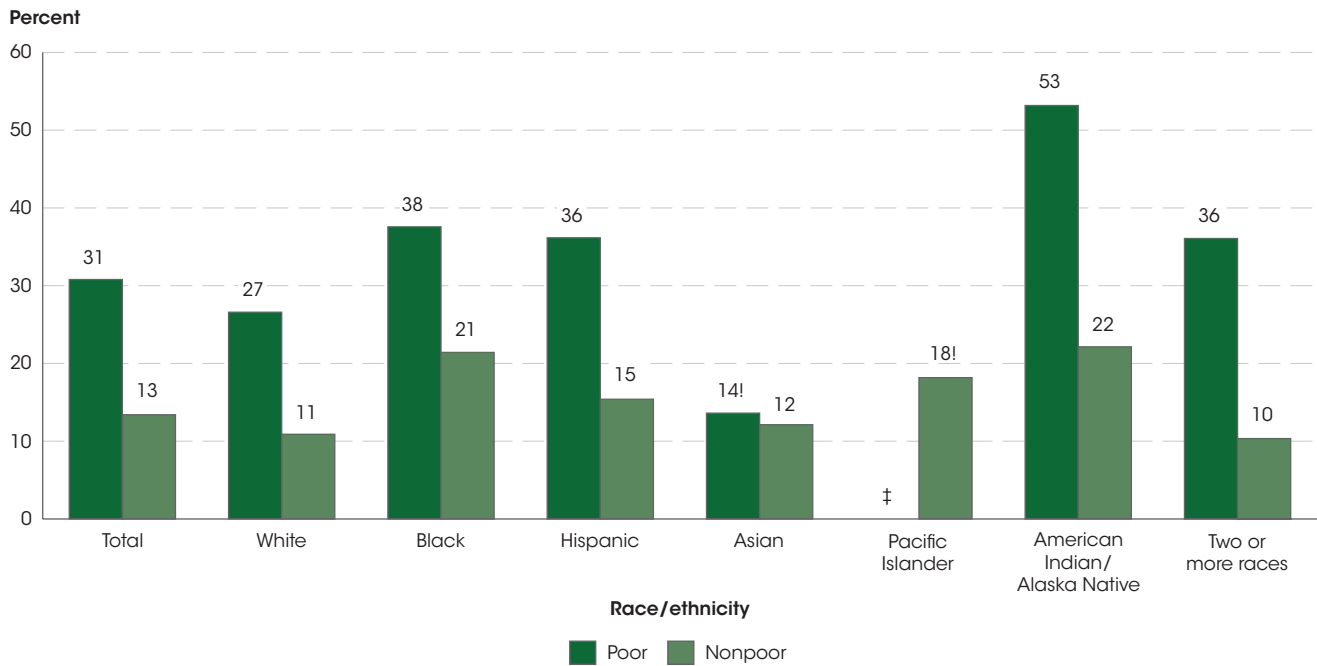
NOTE: Poor is defined to include families below the poverty threshold, and nonpoor is defined to include families at or above the poverty threshold. For information about how the Census Bureau determines who is in poverty, see <http://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html>.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.30.

In 2016, the percentage of youth in each age group who were neither in school nor working was higher for youth in poor households than for youth in nonpoor households. For the purposes of this indicator, poor is defined to include families below the Census-defined poverty threshold, and nonpoor is defined to include families at

or above the poverty threshold.<sup>5</sup> For example, 31 percent of poor 20- to 24-year-olds were neither in school nor working compared with 13 percent of nonpoor 20- to 24-year-olds. Similar patterns were observed in 2006 and 2011.

**Figure 4. Percentage of youth ages 20 to 24 who were neither enrolled in school nor working, by race/ethnicity and family poverty status: 2016**

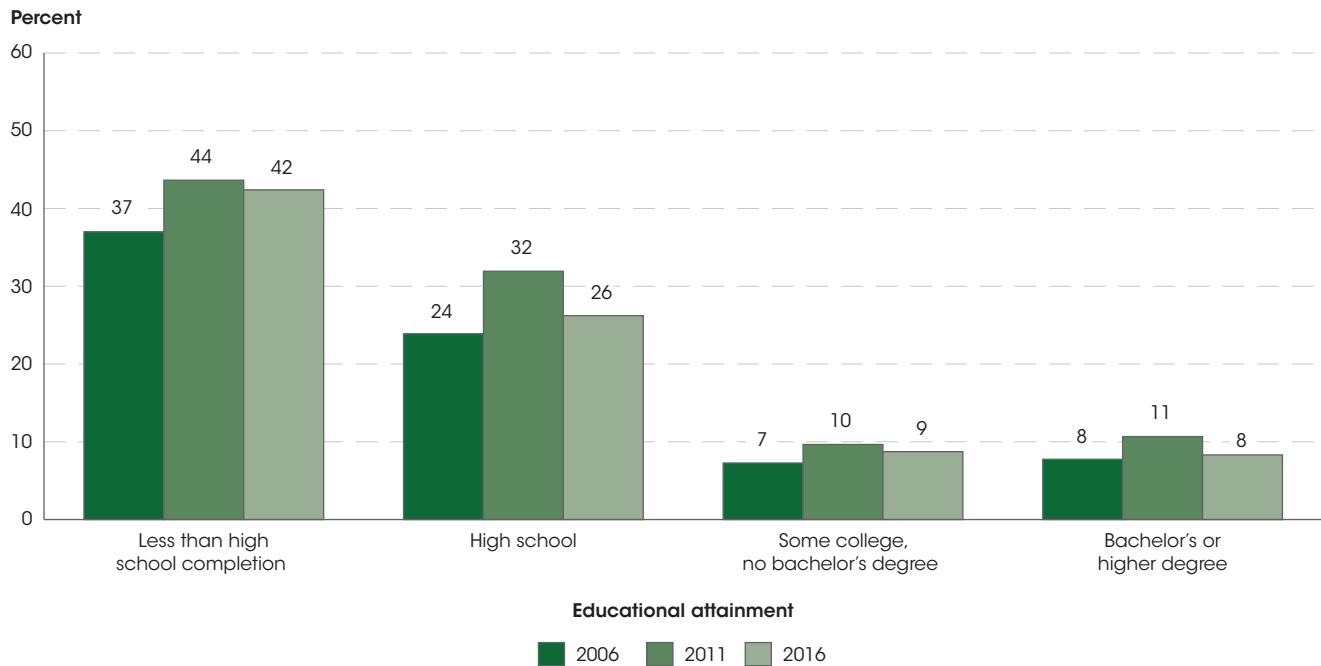


! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.  
 ‡ Reporting standards not met. Either there are too few cases for a reliable estimate or the coefficient of variation (CV) is 50 percent or greater.  
 NOTE: Poor is defined to include families below the poverty threshold, and nonpoor is defined to include families at or above the poverty threshold. For information about how the Census Bureau determines who is in poverty, see <http://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html>. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.30.

Across all racial/ethnic groups except Asian and Pacific Islanders, the percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds who were neither in school nor working was higher for those in poor households than for those in nonpoor households. For Asian 20- to 24-year-olds, there was no measurable difference between the percentages for those in poor and nonpoor households. Reliable estimates were not available

for Pacific Islander 20- to 24-year-olds. The gap between the percentages of poor and nonpoor 20- to 24-year-olds who were neither in school nor working ranged from 16 percentage points for White and Black youth to 31 percentage points for American Indian/Alaska Native youth.

**Figure 5. Percentage of youth ages 20 to 24 who were neither enrolled in school nor working, by educational attainment: 2006, 2011, and 2016**



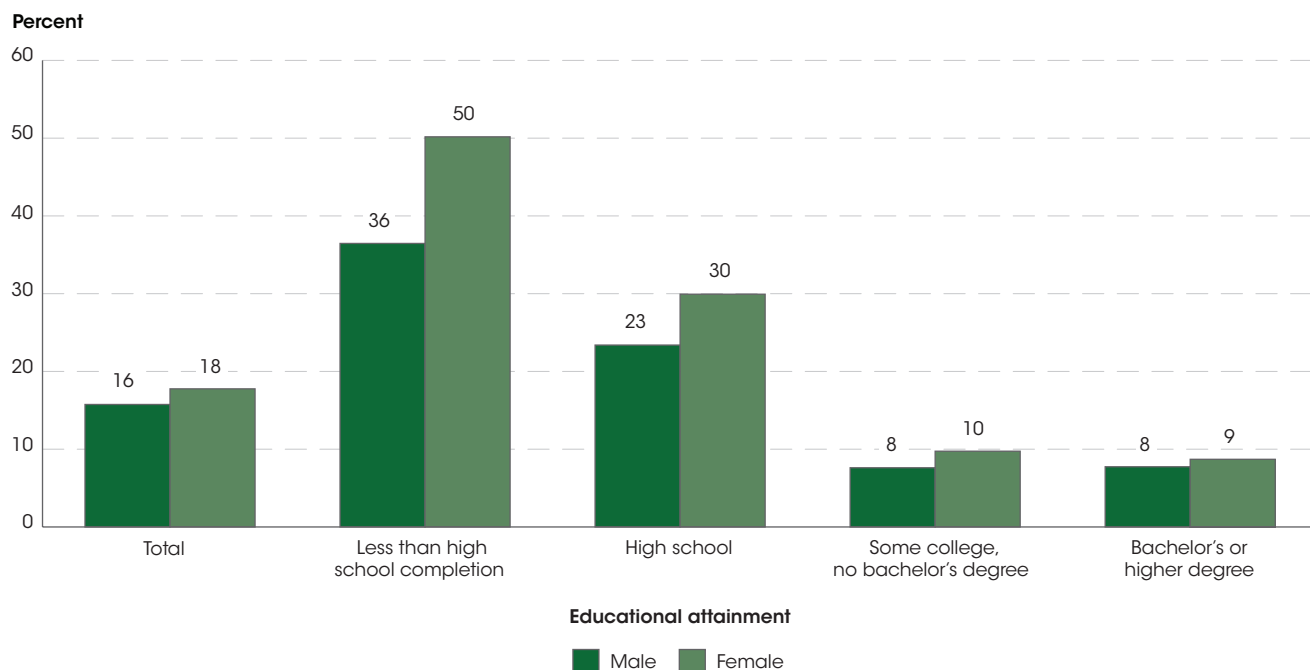
NOTE: High school completion includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential. Some college, no bachelor's degree includes persons with no college degree as well as those with an associate's degree.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2006, 2011, and 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.30.

In 2016, 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. The percentage neither in school nor working was higher for 20- to 24-year-olds who had not completed high school (42 percent) than for those who had completed high school (26 percent), and the percentages for both groups were higher than the percentages for those with some college (9 percent) and those with a bachelor's degree or higher (8 percent).

Among 20- to 24-year-olds who had not completed high school, the percentage neither in school nor working was 42 percent in 2016, compared with 44 percent in 2011 and 37 percent in 2006. Meanwhile, among 20- to 24-year-olds with a bachelor's degree or higher, the percentage neither in school nor working was 8 percent in 2016, which was not measurably different from the percentages in 2006 or 2011. However, the percentage for the same group in 2011 (11 percent) was higher than the percentage in 2006 (8 percent).



**Figure 6. Percentage of youth ages 20 to 24 who were neither enrolled in school nor working, by educational attainment and sex: 2016**



NOTE: High school completion includes equivalency credentials, such as the GED credential. Some college, no bachelor's degree includes persons with no college degree as well as those with an associate's degree.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), Annual Social and Economic Supplement, 2016. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.30.

In 2016, the percentage of 20- to 24-year-olds who were neither in school nor working was higher for females (18 percent) than for males (16 percent). This gap ranged from 14 percentage points for 20- to 24-year-olds who had not completed high school to 2 percentage points for

those with some college. Among 20- to 24-year-olds with a bachelor's degree, there was no measurable difference between the percentages of males and females who were neither in school nor working.

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Fernandes-Alcantara, A. (2015). *Disconnected Youth: A Look at 16- to 24-Year-Olds Who Are Not Working or in School* (CRS Report No. R40535). Washington, DC: Congressional Research Service. Retrieved February 7, 2017, from <http://www.fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R40535.pdf>.

<sup>2</sup> Referred to as “youth neither in school nor working” in this indicator.

<sup>3</sup> Prior editions of this indicator presented data on 18- to 24-year-olds. This edition has been expanded to include data on 16- and

17-year-olds, allowing for a discussion of differences between younger and older youth.

<sup>4</sup> See <http://www.nber.org/cycles.html>.

<sup>5</sup> For information about how the Census Bureau determines who is in poverty, see <http://www.census.gov/topics/income-poverty/poverty/guidance/poverty-measures.html>.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 501.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Employment and Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment, Immediate College Enrollment Rate, College Enrollment Rates

**Glossary:** Bachelor's degree, College, Educational attainment (Current Population Survey), Enrollment, Gap, High school completer, Household, Poverty (official measure), Racial/ethnic group

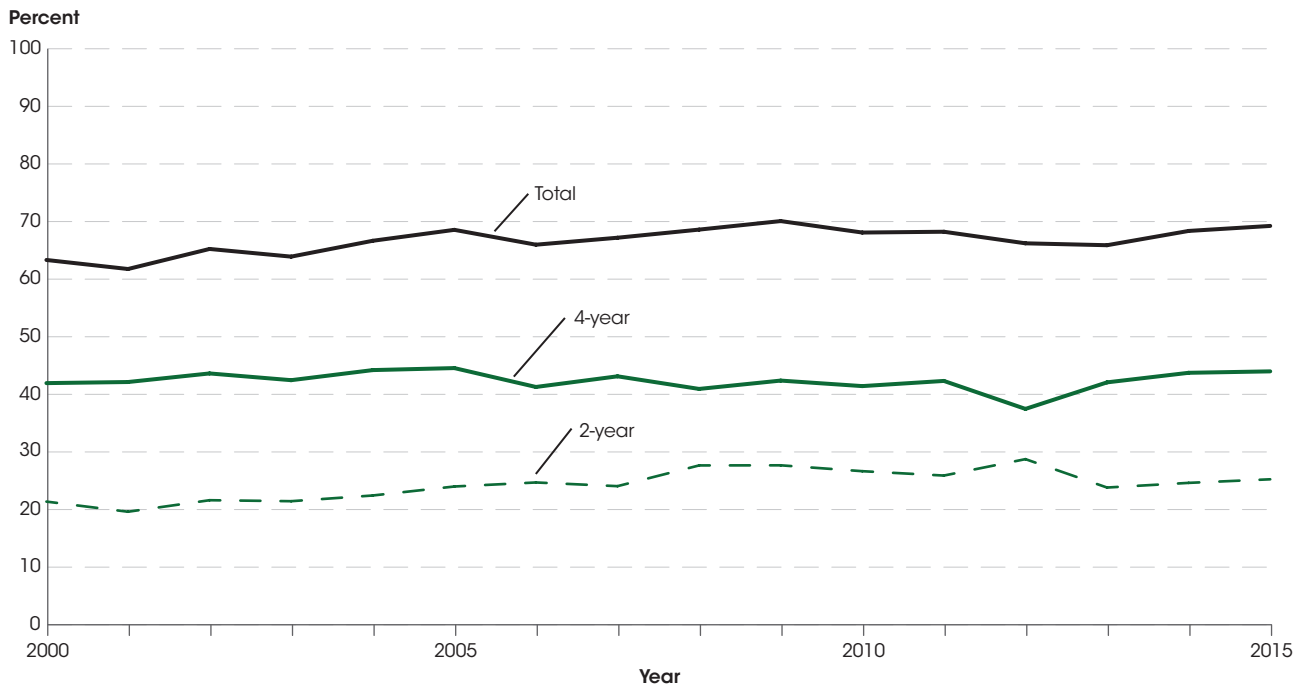
## Immediate College Enrollment Rate

The immediate college enrollment rate for high school completers increased from 63 percent in 2000 to 69 percent in 2015. The enrollment rate for those from high-income families (83 percent) was higher than the rate for those from low- and middle-income families (63 percent each) in 2015. The gap in enrollment rates between low- and high-income students narrowed from 30 percentage points in 2000 to 20 percentage points in 2015. The gap between low- and middle-income students was 12 percentage points in 2000, but there was no measurable gap between low- and middle-income students in 2015.

Of the 3.0 million recent high school completers<sup>1</sup> in 2015, some 2.1 million, or 69 percent, enrolled in college by the following October. The annual percentage of high school completers who enroll in 2- or 4-year colleges in the fall immediately following high school is known

as the *immediate college enrollment rate*. From 2000 to 2015, the immediate college enrollment rate increased by 6 percentage points (from 63 percent to 69 percent). There was no measurable change in the immediate college enrollment rate from 2014 to 2015.

**Figure 1. Percentage of high school completers who were enrolled in 2- or 4-year colleges by the October immediately following high school completion, by level of institution: 2000–2015**

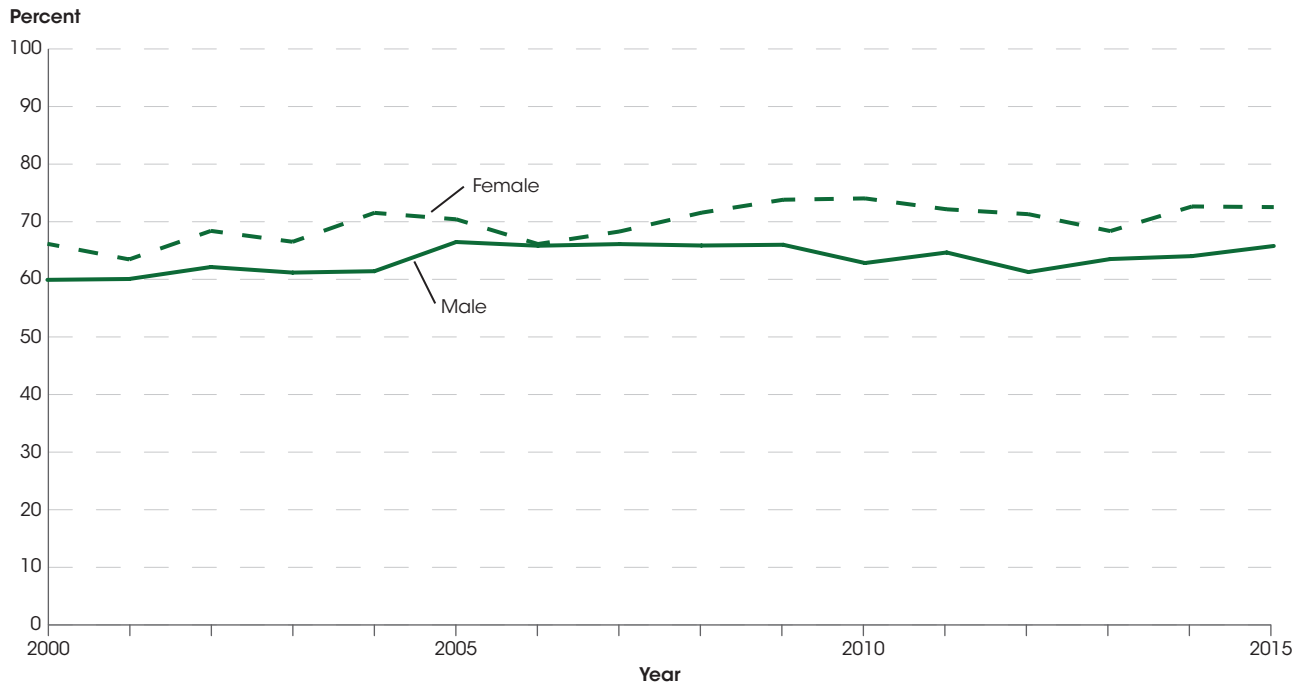


NOTE: High school completers are individuals ages 16 to 24 who graduated from high school or completed a GED prior to October of the calendar year. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October Supplement, 2000–2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 302.10.

Higher percentages of high school completers immediately enrolled in 4-year colleges than in 2-year colleges in every year from 2000 to 2015. In 2015, about 44 percent of high school completers enrolled in a 4-year college and 25 percent enrolled in a 2-year college. The immediate

enrollment rate at 2-year colleges increased from 21 percent in 2000 to 25 percent in 2015. The immediate enrollment rate at 4-year colleges in 2015 (44 percent) was not measurably different from the rate in 2000.

**Figure 2. Percentage of high school completers who were enrolled in 2- or 4-year colleges by the October immediately following high school completion, by sex: 2000–2015**

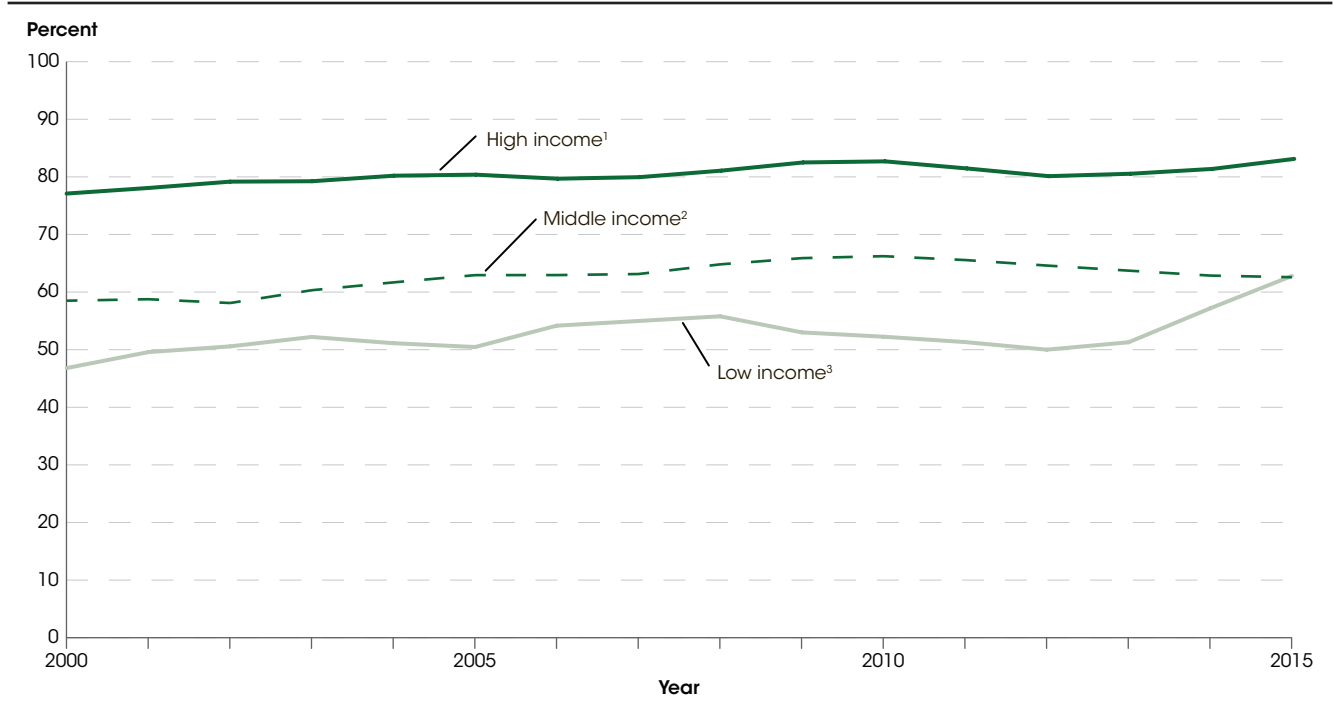


NOTE: High school completers are individuals ages 16 to 24 who graduated from high school or completed a GED prior to October of the calendar year.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October Supplement, 2000–2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 302.10.

In 2015, the immediate college enrollment rate was higher for females (73 percent) than for males (66 percent). The immediate college enrollment rate for females increased

from 2000 (66 percent) to 2015 (73 percent). The enrollment rate for males in 2015 (66 percent) was not measurably different from the rate in 2000.

**Figure 3. Percentage of high school completers who were enrolled in 2- or 4-year colleges by the October immediately following high school completion, by family income: 2000–2015**



<sup>1</sup>High income refers to the top 20 percent of all family incomes.

<sup>2</sup>Middle income refers to the 60 percent in between the bottom 20 percent and the top 20 percent of all family incomes.

<sup>3</sup>Low income refers to the bottom 20 percent of all family incomes.

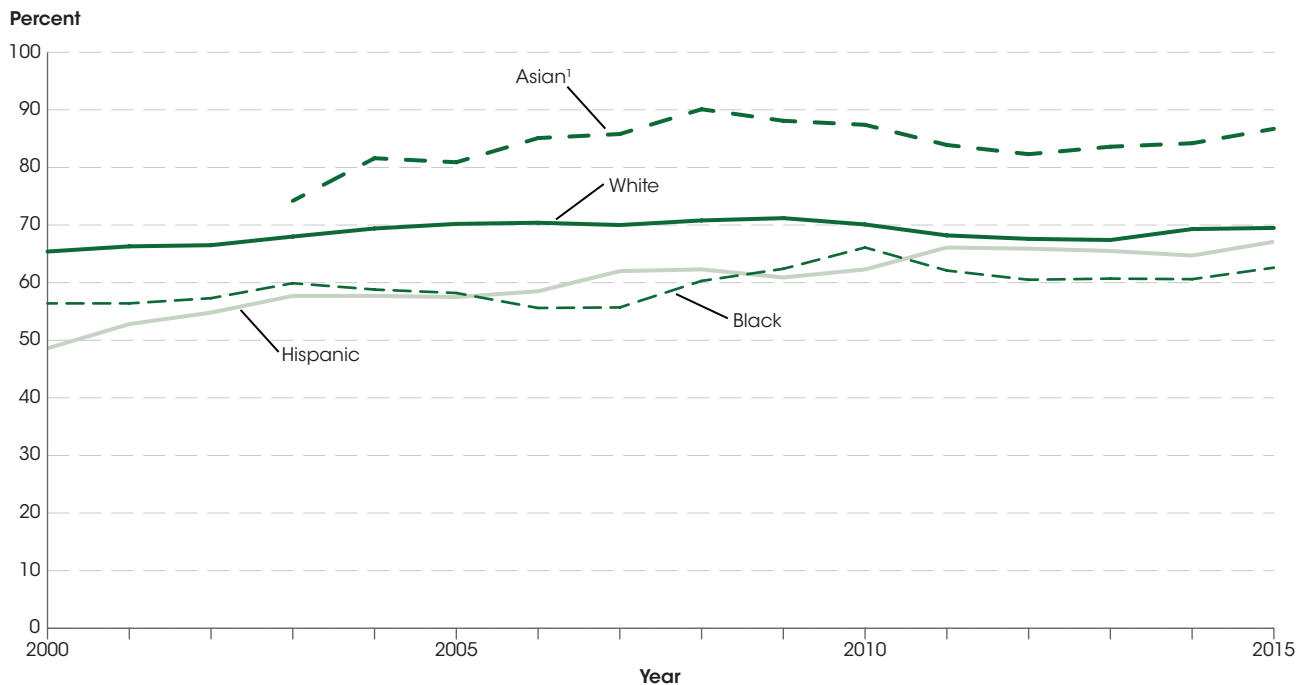
NOTE: High school completers are individuals ages 16 to 24 who graduated from high school or completed a GED prior to October of the calendar year. Due to some short-term data fluctuations associated with small sample sizes, percentages for income groups were calculated based on 3-year moving averages, except in 2015, when estimates were calculated based on a 2-year moving average (an average of 2014 and 2015).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October Supplement, 2000–2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 302.30.

In each year from 2000 to 2015, the immediate college enrollment rate for students<sup>2</sup> from high-income families was higher than both the rate for students from middle-income families and the rate for students from low-income families. In 2015, the immediate college enrollment rate for students from high-income families was 83 percent, compared with 63 percent for students from both middle-income families and low-income families.<sup>3</sup> In most years, the enrollment rate for students from middle-income families was higher than the rate for students from low-income families. However, in 2015, the immediate college enrollment rate for students from middle-income families was not measurably different from the rate for students from low-income families.

The gap between the immediate college enrollment rates for students from high-income and low-income families narrowed between 2000 and 2015; similarly, the gap between the enrollment rates for students from middle-income and low-income families narrowed between 2000 and 2015. The gap between the immediate college enrollment rates for students from high-income and low-income families was 10 percentage points smaller in 2015 (20 percentage points) than in 2000 (30 percentage points). However, the gap between the enrollment rates for students from high-income and middle-income families in 2015 (21 percentage points) was not measurably different from the gap in 2000.

**Figure 4. Percentage of high school completers who were enrolled in 2- or 4-year colleges by the October immediately following high school completion, by race/ethnicity: 2000–2015**



<sup>1</sup> The separate collection of data on Asian high school completers did not begin until 2003.

NOTE: High school completers are individuals ages 16 to 24 who graduated from high school or completed a GED prior to October of the calendar year. Due to some short-term data fluctuations associated with small sample sizes, percentages for racial/ethnic groups were calculated based on 3-year moving averages with the following exceptions: The percentages for 2015 were calculated based on a 2-year moving average (an average of 2014 and 2015), and the 2003 percentage for Asian high school completers was based on a 2-year moving average (an average of 2003 and 2004). From 2003 onward, data for White, Black, and Asian high school completers exclude persons identifying themselves as of Two or more races. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October Supplement, 2000–2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 302.20.

In 2015, the immediate college enrollment rate for White students (70 percent) was not measurably different from the rates for Black (63 percent) and Hispanic students (67 percent), even though the rate for White students has been higher than the rates for Black and Hispanic students in most years since 2000.<sup>3</sup> For example, in 2000 the immediate college enrollment rate was 65 percent for White students, compared with 56 percent for Black students and 49 percent for Hispanic students. The 2015 immediate college enrollment rate for Asian students (87 percent) was higher than the rates for White students, Black students, and Hispanic students. The enrollment rate for Asian students was higher than the rates for Black students and Hispanic students every year since 2003,

when the collection of separate data on Asian students began.<sup>4</sup> In addition, the enrollment rate for Asian students was higher than the rate for White students every year since 2004.

The immediate college enrollment rate for White students was higher in 2015 (70 percent) than in 2000 (65 percent), as was the rate for Hispanic students (67 percent in 2015 and 49 percent in 2000). The enrollment rate for Asian students was also higher in 2015 (87 percent) than in 2003 (74 percent). The immediate college enrollment rate for Black students in 2015 was not measurably different from the rate in 2000.

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> High school completers are individuals ages 16 to 24 who graduated from high school or completed a GED prior to October of the calendar year.

<sup>2</sup> The terms “high school completers” and “students” are used interchangeably throughout the indicator.

<sup>3</sup> Due to some short-term data fluctuations associated with small sample sizes, estimates for the income groups and racial/ethnic

groups were calculated based on 3-year moving averages with the following exceptions: The percentages for 2015 were calculated based on a 2-year moving average (an average of 2014 and 2015), and the 2003 percentage for Asians was based on a 2-year moving average (an average of 2003 and 2004).

<sup>4</sup> Prior to 2003, data were collected for the combined race category of Asian/Pacific Islander.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 302.10, 302.20, and 302.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Undergraduate Enrollment, Public High School Graduation Rates, Status Dropout Rates, College Enrollment Rates

**Glossary:** College, Enrollment, Gap, High school completer, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Racial/ethnic group

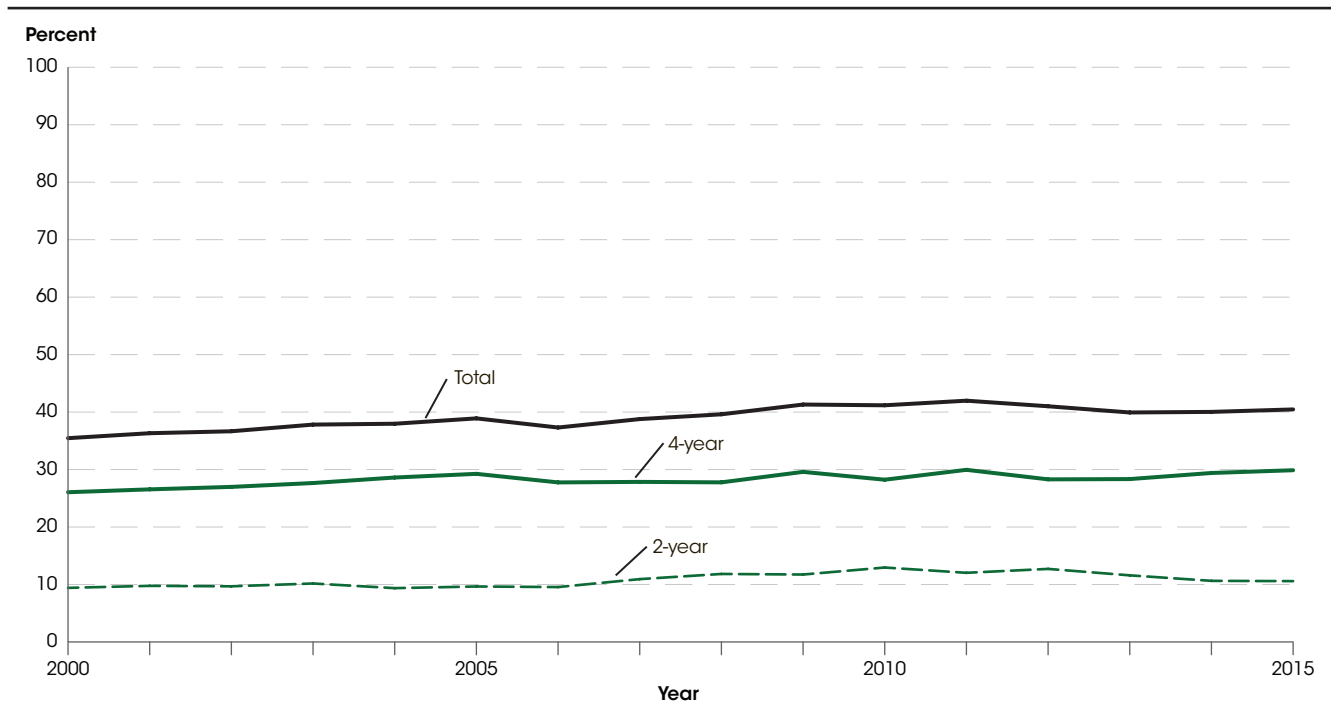
## College Enrollment Rates

The overall college enrollment rate for young adults increased from 35 percent in 2000 to 40 percent in 2015. During this time period, the enrollment rates also increased for Black and Hispanic young adult males, as well as for White and Hispanic young adult females.

The college enrollment rate has increased since 2000. Different factors, such as changes in the labor market and the economic downturn, may have contributed to this increase.<sup>1,2</sup> In this indicator, *college enrollment*

*rate* is defined as the percentage of 18- to 24-year-olds (referred to as young adults in this indicator) enrolled as undergraduate and graduate students in 2- or 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions.

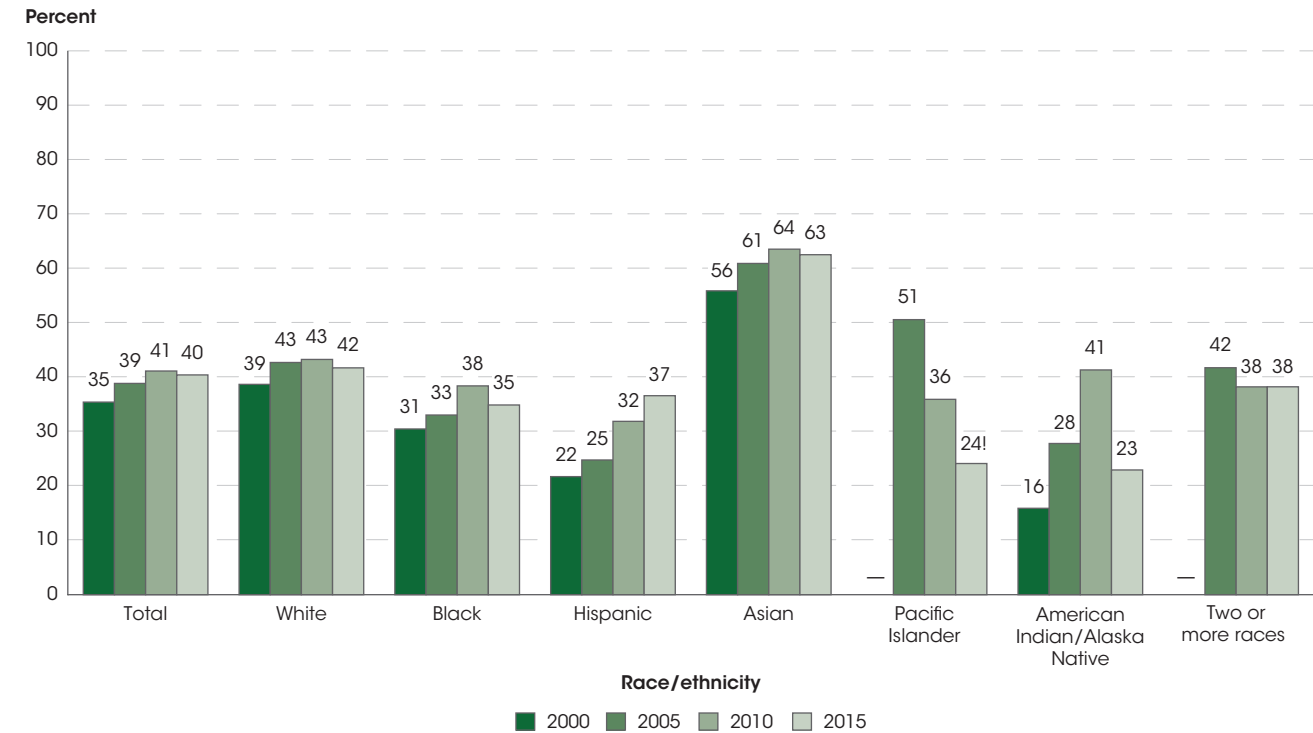
**Figure 1. Enrollment rates of 18- to 24-year-olds in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by level of institution: 2000-2015**



NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutionalized population.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October Supplement, 2000-2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 302.60.

The overall college enrollment rate for young adults increased from 35 percent in 2000 to 40 percent in 2015. During this period, the rates increased at both 4-year (from 26 to 30 percent) and 2-year (from 9 to 11 percent) institutions. Despite this general increase, over the more

recent time period from 2010 to 2015 the enrollment rate at 2-year institutions declined from 13 to 11 percent, while the rate at 4-year institutions did not change measurably.

**Figure 2. Enrollment rates of 18- to 24-year-olds in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by race/ethnicity: 2000, 2005, 2010, and 2015**

— Not available.

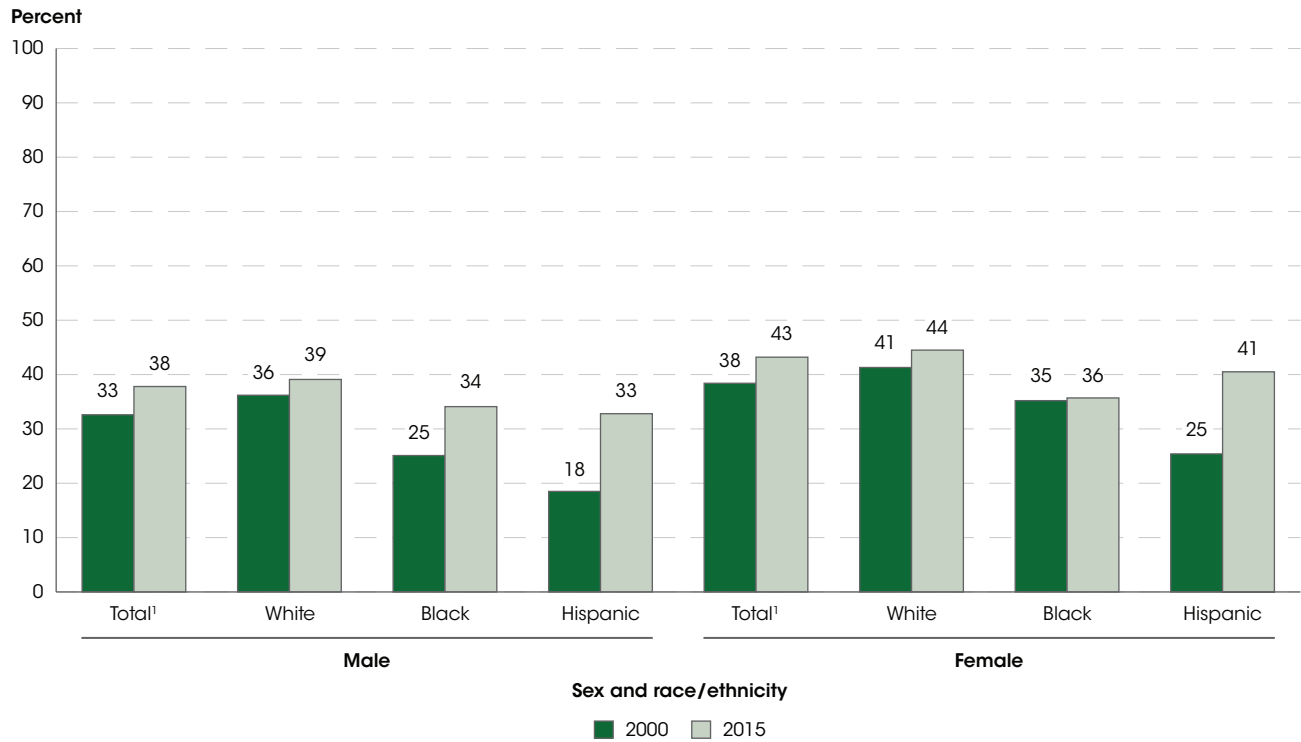
! Interpret data with caution. The coefficient of variation (CV) for this estimate is between 30 and 50 percent.

NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutionalized population. Separate data for Pacific Islanders and persons of Two or more races were not available in 2000. Prior to 2003, data for Asians include Pacific Islanders. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October Supplement, 2000, 2005, 2010, and 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 302.60.

From 2000 to 2015, college enrollment rates increased for young adults who were White (from 39 to 42 percent), Black (from 31 to 35 percent), and Hispanic (from 22 to 37 percent). The rates did not measurably differ between 2000 and 2015 for young adults who were Asian and American Indian/Alaska Native. College enrollment was lower for Pacific Islander young adults in 2015 than in 2005 (24 vs. 51 percent), and showed no measurable change during this time for young adults of Two or more races.<sup>3</sup> More recently, college enrollment rates in 2015 compared to in 2010 were higher for Hispanic young adults (37 vs. 32 percent) and lower for American Indian/Alaska Native young adults (23 vs. 41 percent), but not measurably different for young adults who were White, Black, Asian, Pacific Islander, and of Two or more races.

In 2015, the college enrollment rate was higher for Asian young adults (63 percent) than for young adults who were White (42 percent), Black (35 percent), and Hispanic (37 percent); and the rate for White young adults was higher than the rates for young adults who were Black and Hispanic. This pattern has held since 2000. The 2015 enrollment rate was also higher for Asian young adults than for young adults who were Pacific Islander (24 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (23 percent), and of Two or more races (38 percent). In addition, the 2015 enrollment rate for White young adults was higher than the rates for Pacific Islander and American Indian/Alaska Native young adults; and the rates for Black and Hispanic young adults were higher than the rate for American Indian/Alaska Native young adults.

**Figure 3. Enrollment rates of 18- to 24-year-olds in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by sex and race/ethnicity: 2000 and 2015**

<sup>1</sup> Includes other racial/ethnic groups not shown separately.

NOTE: Data are based on sample surveys of the civilian noninstitutionalized population. In 2000, data for individual race categories include persons of Two or more races. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Commerce, Census Bureau, Current Population Survey (CPS), October Supplement, 2000 and 2015. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 302.60.

Between 2000 and 2015, college enrollment rates increased overall for both young adult males (from 33 to 38 percent) and young adult females (from 38 to 43 percent). For young adult males, enrollment rates were higher in 2015 than in 2000 for White (39 vs. 36 percent), Black (34 vs. 25 percent), and Hispanic (33 vs. 18 percent). For young adult females, rates were also higher for White (44 vs. 41 percent) and Hispanic (41 vs. 25 percent). The rate for Black young adult females in 2015 (36 percent) was not measurably different from the rate in 2000.

In every year since 2000, the college enrollment rate was higher for young adult females than for young adult males; the same was true for White and Hispanic young adults. In 2015, for example, higher percentages of young adult females than males overall (43 vs. 38 percent), as well as of White (44 vs. 39 percent) and Hispanic (41 vs. 33 percent) young adults, were enrolled in college. Among Black young adults, the college enrollment rate was generally higher for females than for males, except in 2007, 2012, and 2015, when no measurable differences between female and male college enrollment rates were observed.

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Fry, R. (2009). *College Enrollment Hits All Time High, Fueled by Community College Surge*. Washington, DC: Pew Research Center. Retrieved May 3, 2017, from <http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2009/10/29/college-enrollment-hits-all-time-high-fueled-by-community-college-surge/>.

<sup>2</sup> Brown, J.R., and Hoxby, C.M. (Eds.) (2014). *How the Financial Crisis and Great Recession Affected Higher Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

<sup>3</sup> Separate data for Pacific Islanders and persons of Two or more races were not available in 2000. Prior to 2003, data for Asians include Pacific Islanders. Information from *Digest of Education Statistics 2015* table 101.20, based on the Census Bureau Current Population Reports, indicates that 96 percent of all Asian/Pacific Islander 18- to 24-year-olds are Asian.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 302.60

**Related indicators and resources:** Undergraduate Enrollment, Immediate College Enrollment Rate

**Glossary:** College, Enrollment, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Racial/ethnic group



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The indicators in this chapter of *The Condition of Education* examine features of postsecondary education, many of which parallel those presented in the previous chapter on elementary and secondary education. The indicators describe characteristics of postsecondary students, postsecondary programs and courses of study, finance and resources, and postsecondary completions.

Postsecondary education is characterized by diversity both in the types of institutions and in the characteristics of students. Postsecondary institutions vary by the types of degrees awarded, control (public or private), and whether they are operated on a nonprofit or for-profit basis. In addition, postsecondary institutions have distinctly different missions and provide students with a wide range of learning environments.

This chapter's indicators, as well as additional indicators on postsecondary education, are available at *The Condition of Education* website: <http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe>.



# Chapter 4

## Postsecondary Education

### Postsecondary Environments and Characteristics

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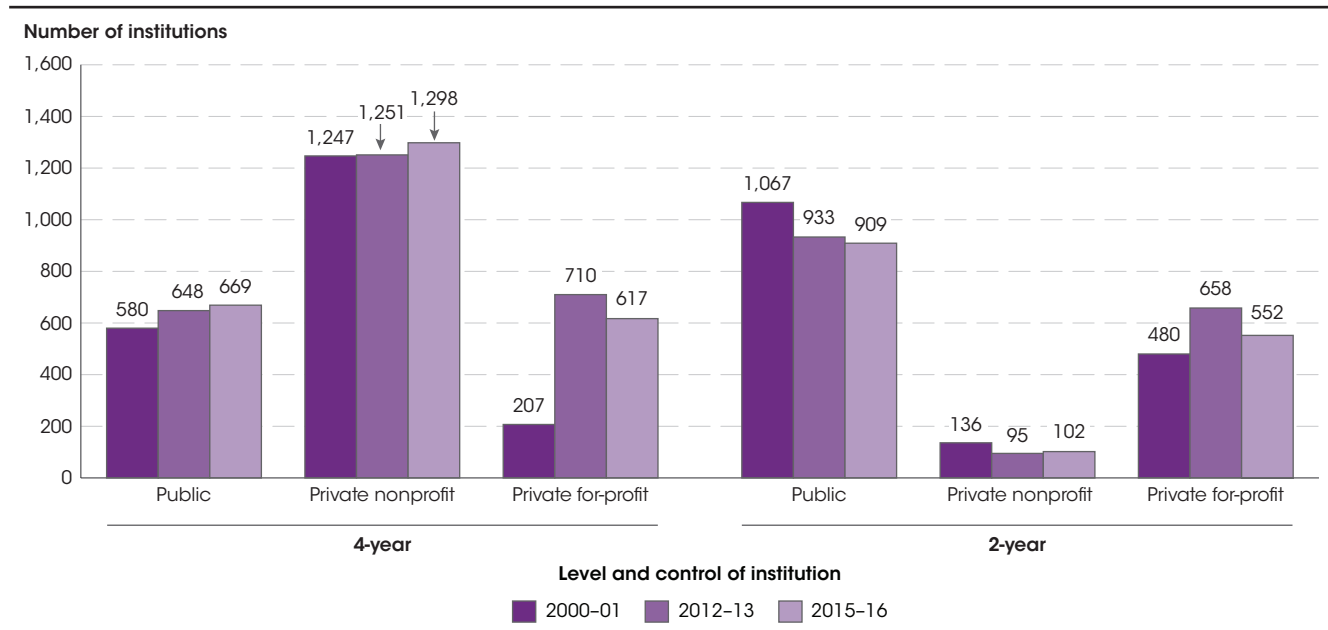
# Characteristics of Degree-Granting Postsecondary Institutions

*In academic year 2015–16, some 28 percent of 4-year institutions had open admissions policies (accepted all applicants), an additional 29 percent accepted three-quarters or more of their applicants, 30 percent accepted from one-half to less than three-quarters of their applicants, and 13 percent accepted less than one-half of their applicants.*

In academic year 2015–16, there were 4,147 degree-granting institutions in the United States with first-year undergraduates: 2,584 were 4-year institutions offering programs at the bachelor’s or higher degree level and 1,563 were 2-year institutions offering associate’s degrees. Some of the differences in characteristics of 2-year and 4-year institutions may be related to their differing institutional missions. The instructional missions of 2-year institutions generally focus on student instruction and related activities that often include providing a range of career-oriented programs at the certificate and associate’s degree levels and preparing students for transfer to 4-year institutions. Four-year institutions tend to have a broad

range of instructional programs at the undergraduate level leading to bachelor’s degrees. Many 4-year institutions offer graduate-level programs as well, and some 4-year institutions have a strong research focus. Degree-granting institutions may be governed by publicly appointed or elected officials, with major support from public funds (public control) or by privately elected or appointed officials, with major support from private sources (private control). Private institutions may be operated on a nonprofit or for-profit basis. All institutions in this analysis enroll first-year undergraduates in degree-granting programs.

**Figure 1. Number of degree-granting institutions with first-year undergraduates, by level and control of institution: Academic years 2000–01, 2012–13, and 2015–16**



NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Excludes institutions not enrolling any first-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduates.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2000 and Fall 2012, Institutional Characteristics component; and Winter 2015–16, Admissions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2013*, table 305.30; and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 305.30.

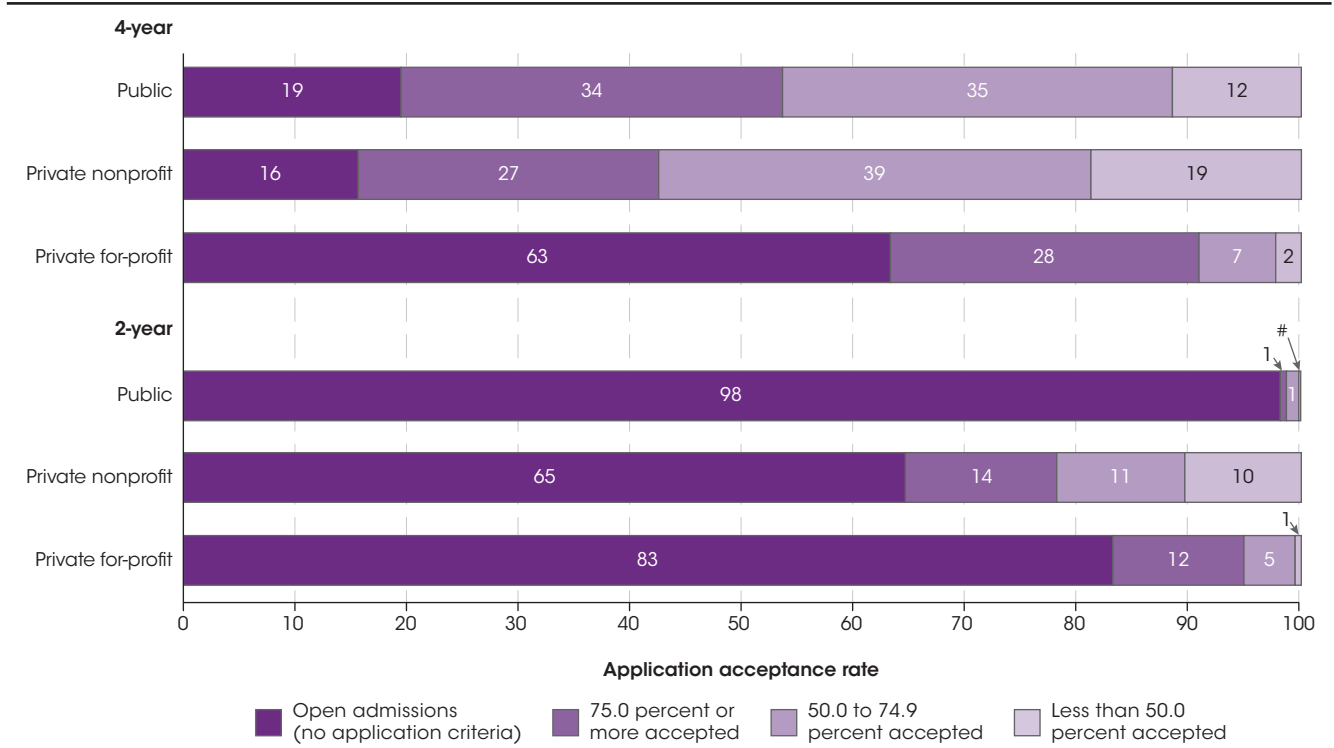
In 2015–16, the number of public 4-year institutions (669) was 15 percent higher than in 2000–01 (580) and the number of private nonprofit 4-year institutions (1,298) was 4 percent higher than in 2000–01 (1,247). In contrast, there was fluctuation in the number of

private for-profit 4-year institutions. Between 2000–01 and 2012–13, the number of private for-profit 4-year institutions more than tripled, from 207 to 710. After peaking in 2012–13, the number of private for-profit 4-year institutions declined to 617 in 2015–16.

The number of public 2-year institutions declined from 1,067 in 2000–01 to 933 in 2012–13 and 909 in 2015–16. The number of private nonprofit 2-year institutions fluctuated from 136 in 2000–01 to 95 in 2012–13 and 102 in 2015–16. The number of private for-profit 2-year

institutions also fluctuated during this period, but not as widely as the number of private for-profit 4-year institutions. Between 2000–01 and 2012–13, the number of private for-profit 2-year institutions increased from 480 to 658, and then declined to 552 in 2015–16.

**Figure 2. Percentage distribution of application acceptance rates at degree-granting institutions with first-year undergraduates, by level and control of institution: Academic year 2015–16**

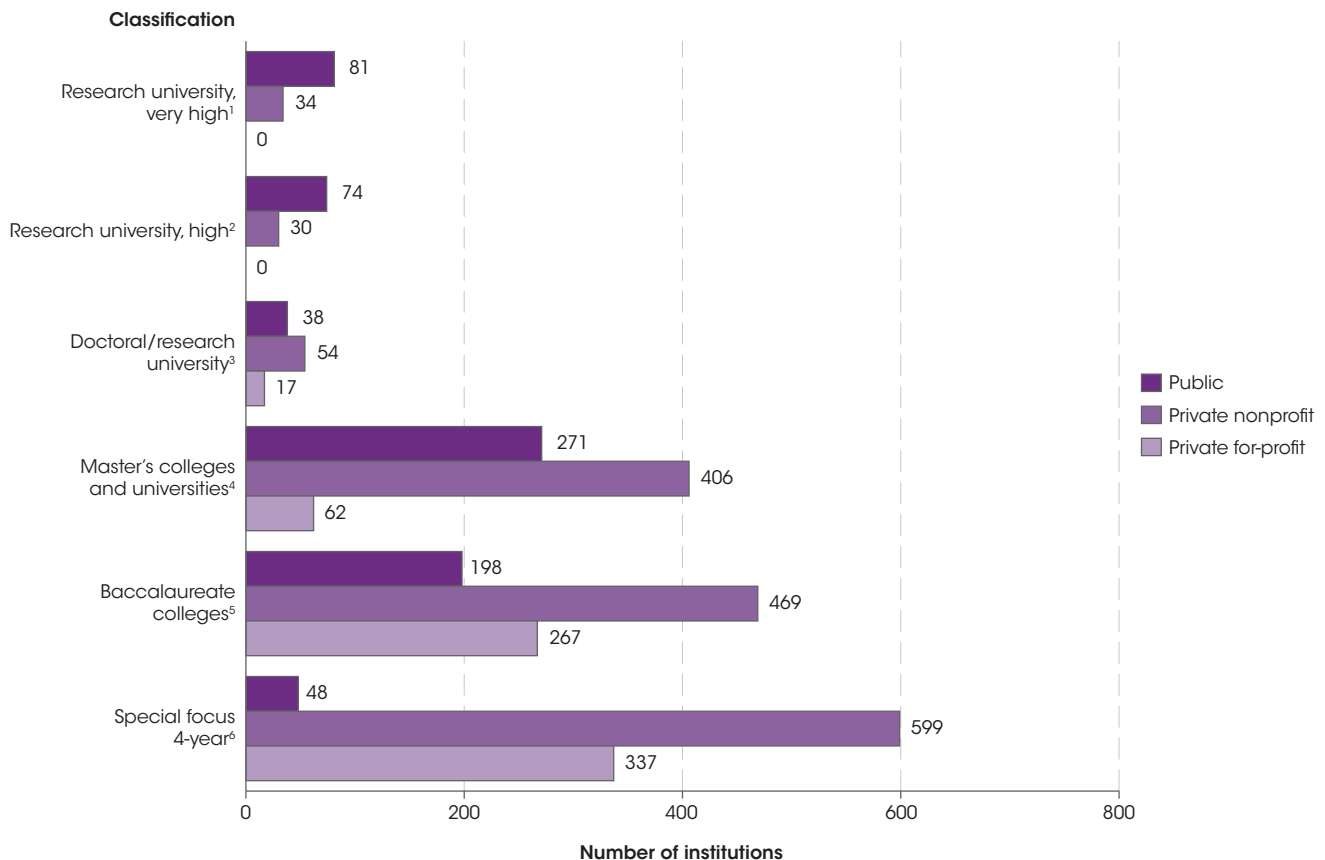


# Rounds to zero.  
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Excludes institutions not enrolling any first-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduates. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Admissions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 305.40.

Admissions policies varied among public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit institutions at both the 2-year and 4-year levels in 2015–16. For example, the percentage of 4-year institutions that had open admissions policies (i.e., accepted all applicants) ranged from 63 percent at private for-profit institutions to 19 percent at public institutions and 16 percent at private nonprofit institutions. In contrast, 19 percent of private nonprofit 4-year institutions and 12 percent of public 4-year institutions accepted less than one-half of their applicants, whereas 2 percent of private for-profit 4-year institutions did so.

Most 2-year institutions (91 percent) had open admissions policies in 2015–16. Open admissions policies were in operation at 98 percent of public 2-year institutions and 83 percent of private for-profit 2-year institutions, compared to 65 percent at private nonprofit 2-year institutions. A higher percentage of private nonprofit 2-year institutions were selective than public and private for-profit 2-year institutions. Ten percent of private nonprofit 2-year institutions accepted less than one-half of their applicants, whereas less than 1 percent of public 2-year institutions and 1 percent of private for-profit 2-year institutions did so.

Figure 3. Number of 4-year degree-granting institutions, by classification and control of institution: Fall 2015



<sup>1</sup> Research universities with a very high level of research activity.

<sup>2</sup> Research universities with a high level of research activity.

<sup>3</sup> Institutions that award at least 20 doctor's degrees per year, but did not have a high level of research activity.

<sup>4</sup> Institutions that award at least 50 master's degrees per year but fewer than 20 doctorates.

<sup>5</sup> Institutions that primarily emphasize undergraduate education. Also includes institutions classified as 4-year under the IPEDS system, which had been classified as baccalaureate/associate's colleges in the Carnegie system because they primarily award associate's degrees.

<sup>6</sup> Institutions that award degrees primarily in single fields of study, such as medicine, business, fine arts, theology, and engineering.

NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Relative levels of research activity for research universities were determined by an analysis of research and development expenditures, science and engineering research staffing, and doctoral degrees conferred, by field. Further information on the research index ranking may be obtained from <http://carnegieclassifications.iu.edu/>.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 317.40.

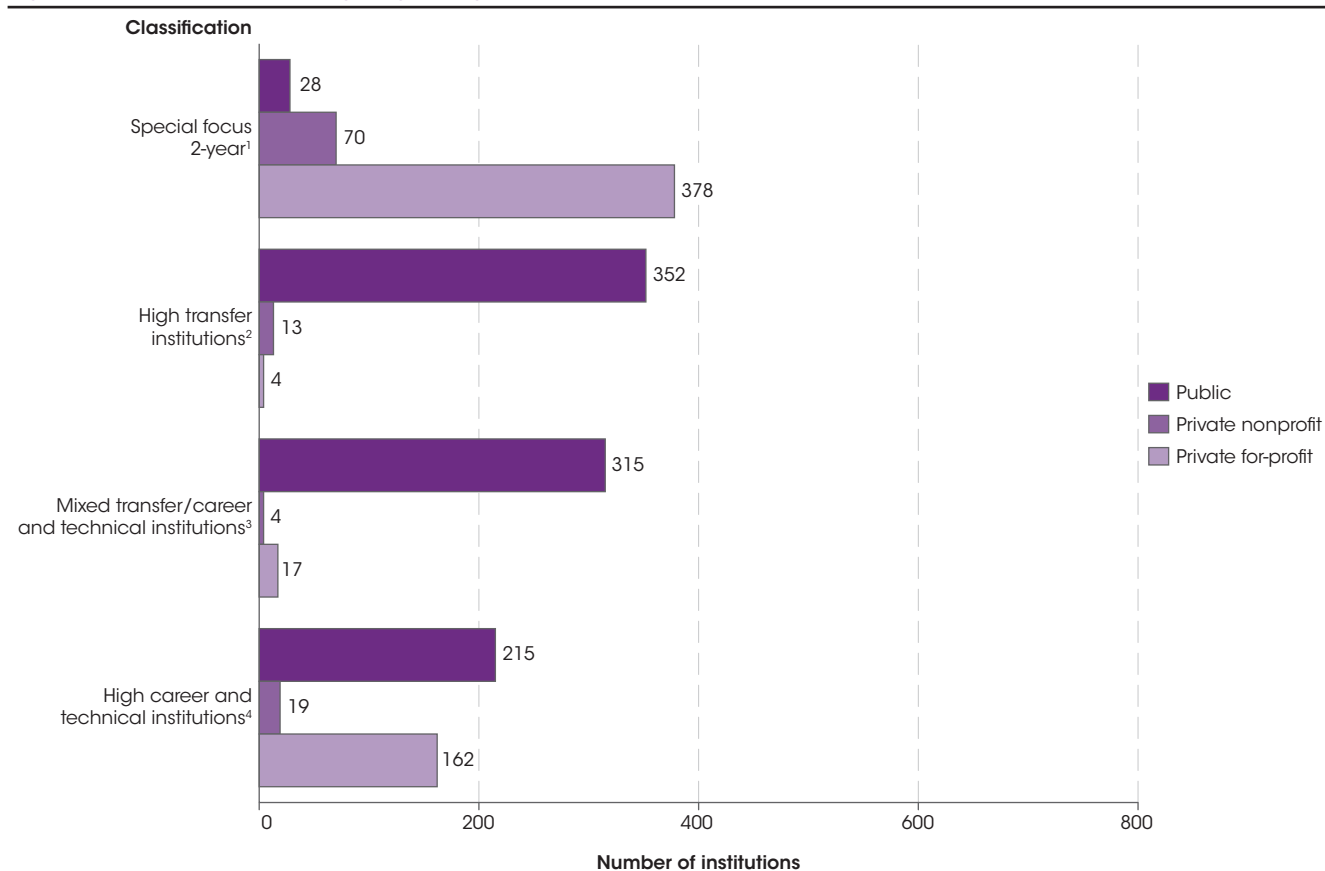
Another way to classify institutions beyond just the level (2-year vs. 4-year) is by Carnegie classification, which takes into account such considerations as the types of degrees offered as well as institutional mission. Institutions that confer 4-year or higher degrees are classified in broad aggregate categories: doctoral and research universities (institutions that award at least 20 doctor's degrees per year); master's colleges and universities (institutions that award at least 50 master's degrees per year but fewer than 20 doctorates); baccalaureate colleges (institutions that have at least one baccalaureate degree program and primarily emphasize undergraduate education); and special focus 4-year (institutions that award degrees primarily in single fields or related fields of study, such as medicine, business, fine arts, theology, and engineering, at both undergraduate and graduate levels).

In 2015–16, there were more baccalaureate colleges (934) and master's colleges and universities (739) than doctoral universities (328). Doctoral universities are further classified into one of three categories based on a measure

of research activity. Among the 328 doctoral universities, 219 institutions were classified as research institutions with a very high (115) or high (104) level of research activity. The remaining 109 institutions awarded at least 20 doctor's degrees per year, but did not have a high level of research activity.

Special focus institutions accounted for approximately one-third of all 4-year institutions in 2015–16. There were more doctoral (193), master's (271), and baccalaureate institutions (198) than special focus 4-year institutions (48) among public institutions in 2015–16. On the other hand, the number of special focus 4-year institutions was higher than the number of doctoral, master's, and baccalaureate institutions in both the private nonprofit and private for-profit institution categories. (Among private nonprofit institutions, there were 599 special focus 4-year, 118 doctoral, 406 master's, and 469 baccalaureate institutions; among private for-profit institutions, there were 337 special focus 4-year, 17 doctoral, 62 master's, and 267 baccalaureate institutions.)

Figure 4. Number of 2-year degree-granting institutions, by classification and control of institution: Fall 2015



<sup>1</sup> Institutions that award degrees primarily in single fields of study, such as medicine, business, fine arts, theology, and engineer.

<sup>2</sup> Institutions that award 50 percent or more of their awards in career and technical programs.

<sup>3</sup> Institutions that award 30 to 49 percent of their awards in career and technical programs.

<sup>4</sup> Institutions that award less than 30 percent of their awards in career and technical programs.

NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 317.40.

Institutions that conferred associate's degrees as the highest degree level offering are further divided into subcategories according to program focus (i.e., transfer, career and technical, mixed transfer/career, and special focus 2-year). Among schools classified at the 2-year level, 315 out of 336 mixed transfer/career and technical institutions and 352 out of 369 high transfer institutions were under public control. As for special focus 2-year institutions, 378 out of 476 were private for-profit institutions and 70 were private nonprofit institutions. In addition, out of 396 high career and technical institutions, 215 were public, 162 were private for-profit institutions, and 19 were private nonprofit institutions.

Historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs) are degree-granting institutions established prior to 1964 with the principal mission of educating Black Americans. In 2015–16, there were 102 HBCUs in operation—51 were public institutions and 51 were

private nonprofit institutions. Other institutions serving specific populations included 39 colleges and universities identified by the Women's College Coalition as women's colleges in 2016. Another group of institutions serving specific populations are tribal colleges, which are members of the American Indian Higher Education Consortium and, with few exceptions, are tribally controlled and located on reservations. About three-quarters of the 35 tribally controlled institutions in operation in 2015–16 were public institutions.

In addition, for fiscal year 2016 the U.S. Department of Education categorized 415 institutions as Eligible Hispanic-Serving Institutions. These institutions are eligible to apply for a number of grant programs through the Hispanic-Serving Institutions (HSI) division in the Department's Office of Postsecondary Education. Eligible institutions meet various program criteria and have at least 25 percent Hispanic student enrollment.<sup>1</sup>

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> For more information on Hispanic-Serving Institutions, including a list of Eligible Hispanic-Serving Institutions for fiscal year 2016, please see <https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ope/itudes/hsidivision.html>.

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**Reference tables:** *The Digest of Education Statistics 2013*, table 305.30; *The Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 305.30, 305.40, 312.30, 312.50, 313.10, and 317.40

**Related indicators and resources:** Undergraduate Enrollment, Postbaccalaureate Enrollment, Postsecondary Institution Revenues, Postsecondary Institution Expenses, Characteristics of Postsecondary Faculty, Community Colleges [*The Condition of Education 2008 Special Analysis*]

**Glossary:** Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, Control of institutions, Degree-granting institution, Doctor's degree, Master's degree, Postsecondary education, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Undergraduate students



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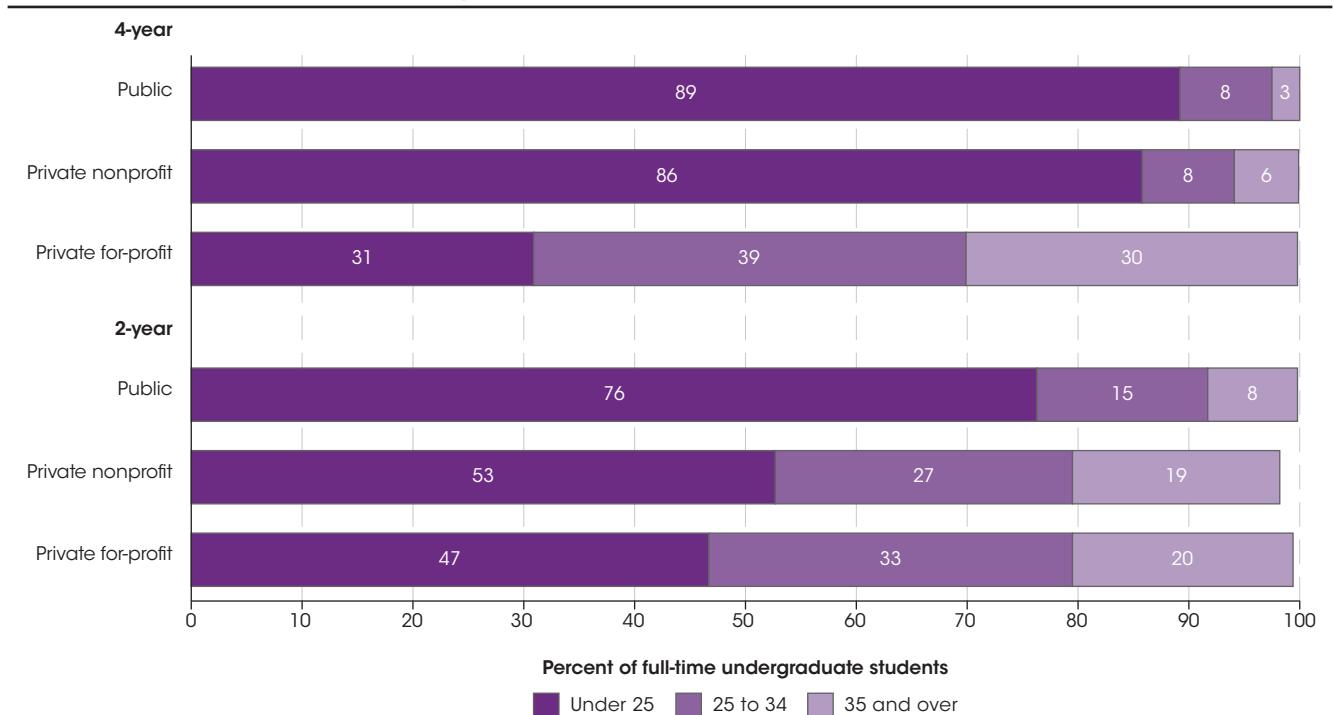
# Characteristics of Postsecondary Students

Some 10.5 million undergraduate students attended 4-year institutions in fall 2015, while 6.5 million attended 2-year institutions. Some 77 percent of undergraduate students at 4-year institutions attended full time, compared with 39 percent at 2-year institutions.

In fall 2015, there were 17.0 million undergraduate students and 2.9 million postbaccalaureate (graduate) students attending degree-granting postsecondary institutions<sup>1</sup> in the United States. Some 10.5 million undergraduate students (62 percent) attended 4-year institutions, while 6.5 million (38 percent) attended

2-year institutions. Of the undergraduate students at 4-year institutions, 8.1 million (77 percent) attended full time. Of the undergraduate students at 2-year institutions, 2.5 million (39 percent) attended full time and 4.0 million (61 percent) attended part time.

**Figure 1. Percentage of full-time undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by institutional level and control and student age: Fall 2015**



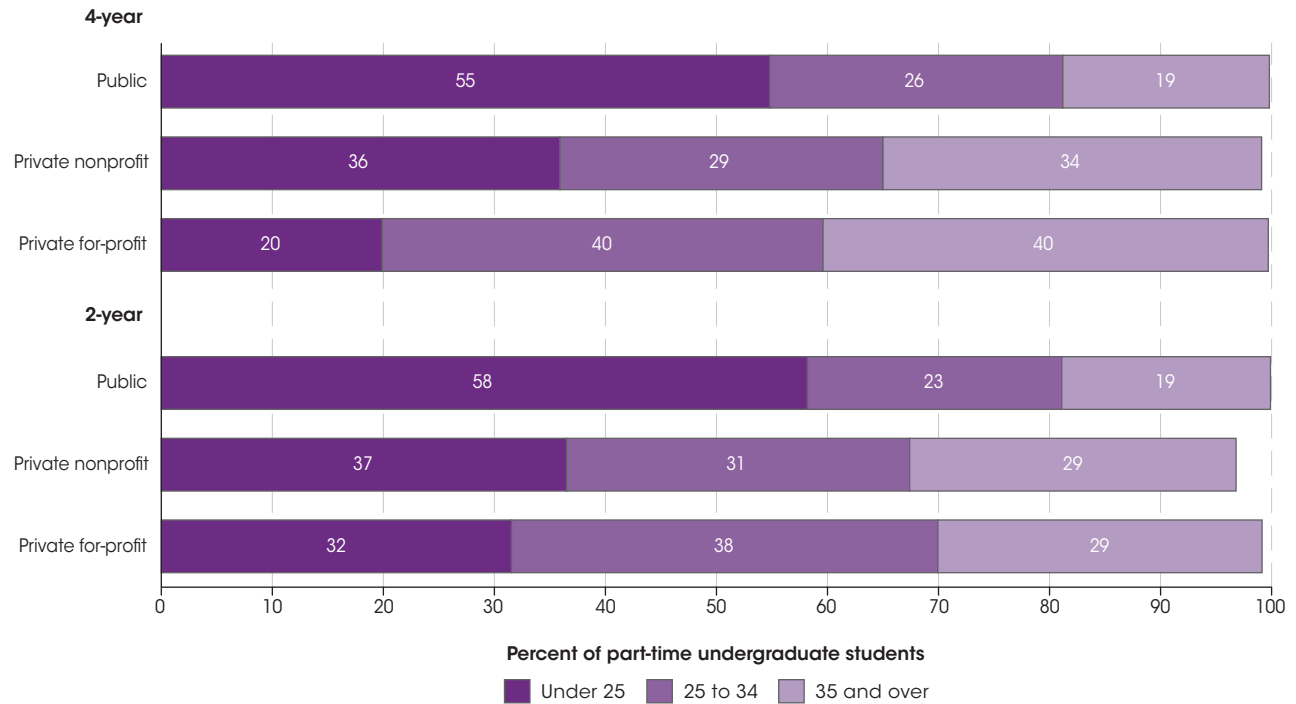
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding and the exclusion of students whose age was unknown.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.50.

At 4-year institutions, the percentage of full-time undergraduate students in fall 2015 who were young adults (i.e., under the age of 25) was higher at public and private nonprofit institutions than at private for-profit institutions. At public and private nonprofit 4-year institutions, most of the full-time undergraduates (89 and 86 percent, respectively) were young adults. At private for-profit 4-year institutions, however, just 31 percent of full-time undergraduate students were in this age group.

adults was higher at public institutions than at private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions. Of the full-time undergraduate students enrolled at public 2-year institutions, 76 percent were young adults, 15 percent were ages 25 to 34, and 8 percent were age 35 and over. At private nonprofit 2-year institutions, 53 percent of full-time undergraduate students were young adults. At private for-profit 2-year institutions, 47 percent of full-time students were in this age group.

At 2-year institutions, the percentage of full-time undergraduate students in fall 2015 who were young

**Figure 2. Percentage of part-time undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by institutional level and control and student age: Fall 2015**



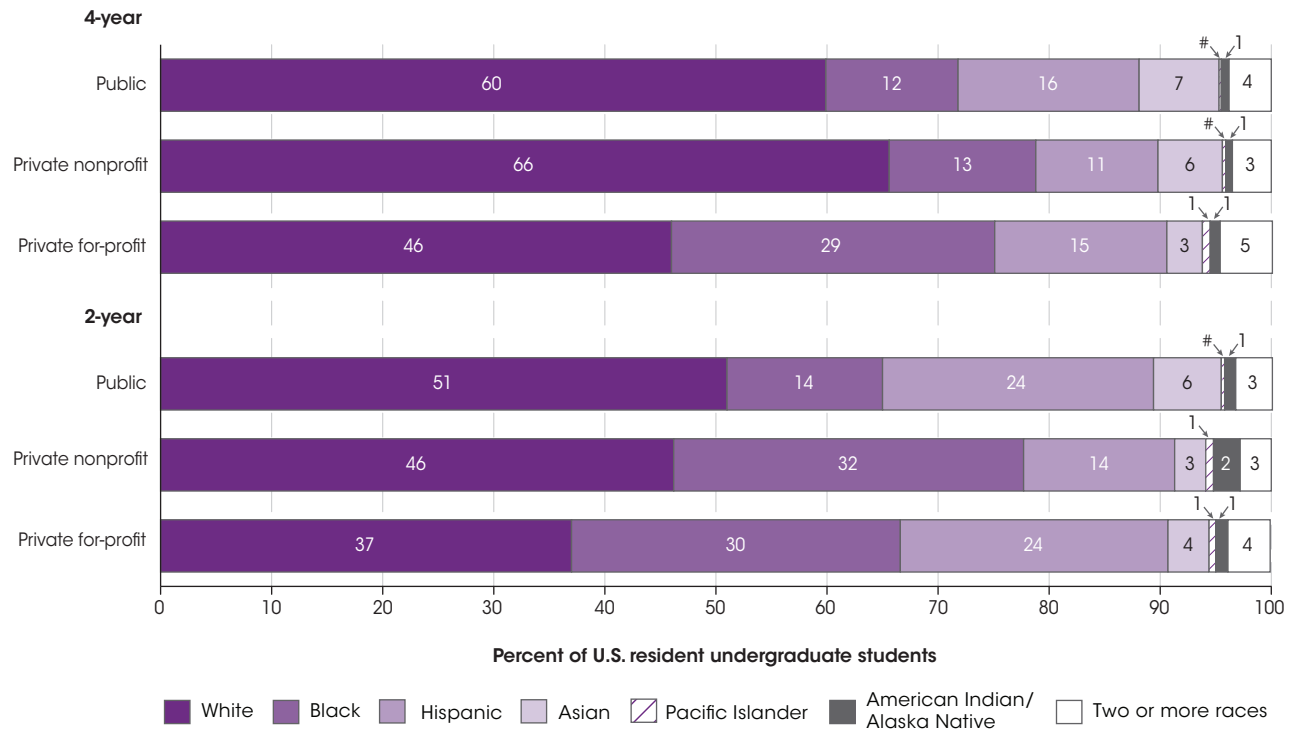
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding and the exclusion of students whose age was unknown.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.50.

The percentage of part-time undergraduate students who were young adults in fall 2015 was higher at public 4-year institutions and private nonprofit 4-year institutions than at private for-profit 4-year institutions. Young adult students made up 55 percent of part-time undergraduates attending public 4-year institutions, 36 percent of part-time undergraduates attending private nonprofit 4-year institutions, and 20 percent of part-time undergraduates attending private for-profit 4-year institutions. Students older than young adults accounted for nearly one-half of the part-time enrollment at public 4-year institutions, nearly two-thirds of the part-time enrollment at private

nonprofit 4-year institutions, and over three-quarters of the part-time enrollment at private for-profit 4-year institutions.

At 2-year institutions, the percentage of part-time students in fall 2015 who were young adults was higher at public and private nonprofit institutions than at private for-profit institutions. Among 2-year institutions, the percentage of part-time students who were young adults was 58 percent at public institutions, 37 percent at private nonprofit institutions and 32 percent at private for-profit institutions.

**Figure 3. Percentage distribution of U.S. resident undergraduate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by institutional level and control and student race/ethnicity: Fall 2015**



# Rounds to zero.

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. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

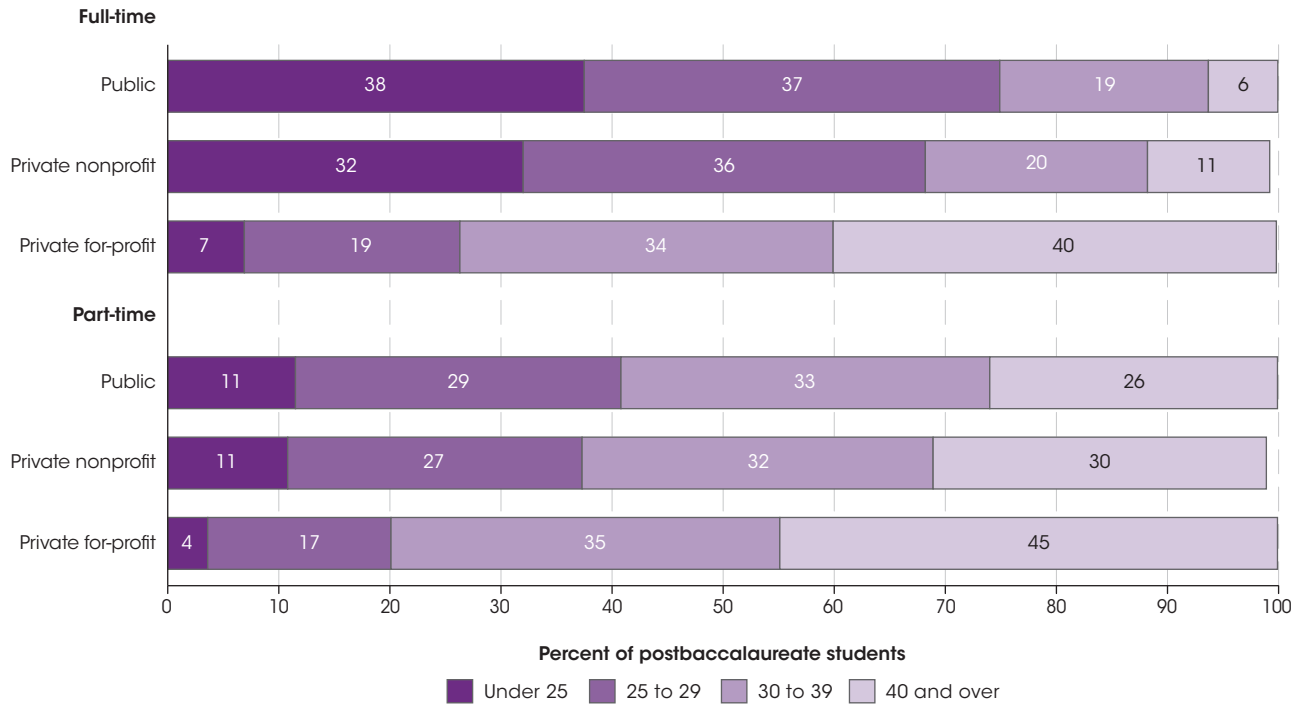
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 306.50.

Attendance patterns for U.S. resident undergraduate students (full- and part-time) differed by race/ethnicity in fall 2015.<sup>2</sup> Sixty-six percent of undergraduate students at private nonprofit 4-year institutions in 2015 were White, which was higher than the percentage of White students at public 4-year institutions (60 percent) and at private for-profit 4-year institutions (46 percent). A higher percentage of the students at private for-profit 4-year institutions were Black (29 percent) than at private nonprofit (13 percent) and public 4-year institutions (12 percent). The percentages of students at public 4-year institutions and private for-profit 4-year institutions who were Hispanic (16 and 15 percent, respectively) were higher than the percentage at private nonprofit 4-year institutions (11 percent). The percentages of undergraduate students at public 4-year institutions and private nonprofit 4-year institutions who were Asian (7 and 6 percent,

respectively) were higher than the percentage at private for-profit 4-year institutions (3 percent).

In fall 2015, the percentages of both White and Asian U.S. resident undergraduate students at public 2-year institutions (51 and 6 percent, respectively) were higher than the percentages at private nonprofit 2-year institutions (46 and 3 percent, respectively) and at private for-profit 2-year institutions (37 and 4 percent, respectively). In contrast, the percentage of students at private nonprofit 2-year institutions who were Black (32 percent) was higher than the percentages at private for-profit 2-year institutions and public 2-year institutions (30 and 14 percent, respectively). A higher percentage of the students at public and private for-profit 2-year institutions were Hispanic (both 24 percent) than at private nonprofit 2-year institutions (14 percent).

**Figure 4. Percentage of full-time and part-time postbaccalaureate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by institutional control and student age: Fall 2015**

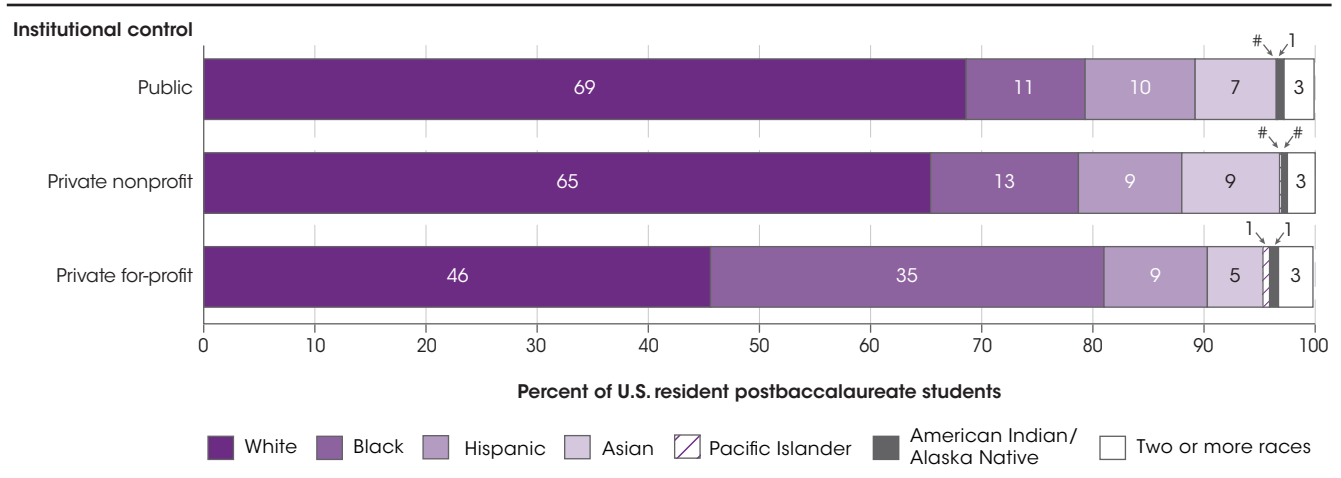


NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding and the exclusion of students whose age was unknown.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 303.50.

In fall 2015, some 48 percent of graduate students attended public institutions, 42 percent attended private nonprofit institutions, and 9 percent attended private for-profit institutions. The majority of full-time graduate students at public institutions were young adults (38 percent) and adults ages 25 to 29 (37 percent); the same was true at private nonprofit institutions (32 percent were young adults and 36 percent were adults

ages 25 to 29). In contrast, full-time graduate students at private for-profit institutions were older: 34 percent were ages 30 to 39 and 40 percent were age 40 and older. Among part-time graduate students, adults age 30 and over comprised 80 percent of the students at private for-profit institutions, 62 percent at private nonprofit institutions, and 59 percent at public institutions.

**Figure 5. Percentage distribution of U.S. resident postbaccalaureate enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by institutional control and student race/ethnicity: Fall 2015**



# Rounds to zero.

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. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 306.50.

Approximately two-thirds of U.S. resident graduate students at public and private nonprofit institutions were White, compared with less than one-half of the students at private for-profit institutions. Thirty-five percent of graduate students at private for-profit institutions were Black, compared with 13 percent at private nonprofit institutions and 11 percent at public institutions.

Hispanic students accounted for 10 percent of graduate enrollment at public institutions and 9 percent each at private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions. Asian students accounted for 9 percent of graduate enrollment at private nonprofit institutions, 7 percent at public institutions, and 5 percent at private for-profit institutions.

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.

<sup>2</sup> Throughout this indicator, comparisons by race/ethnicity exclude nonresident alien students.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 303.50 and 306.50

**Related indicators and resources:** Undergraduate Enrollment, Postbaccalaureate Enrollment, Community Colleges [*The Condition of Education 2008 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** College, Control of institutions, Enrollment, Full-time enrollment, Part-time enrollment, Postbaccalaureate enrollment, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group, Undergraduate students

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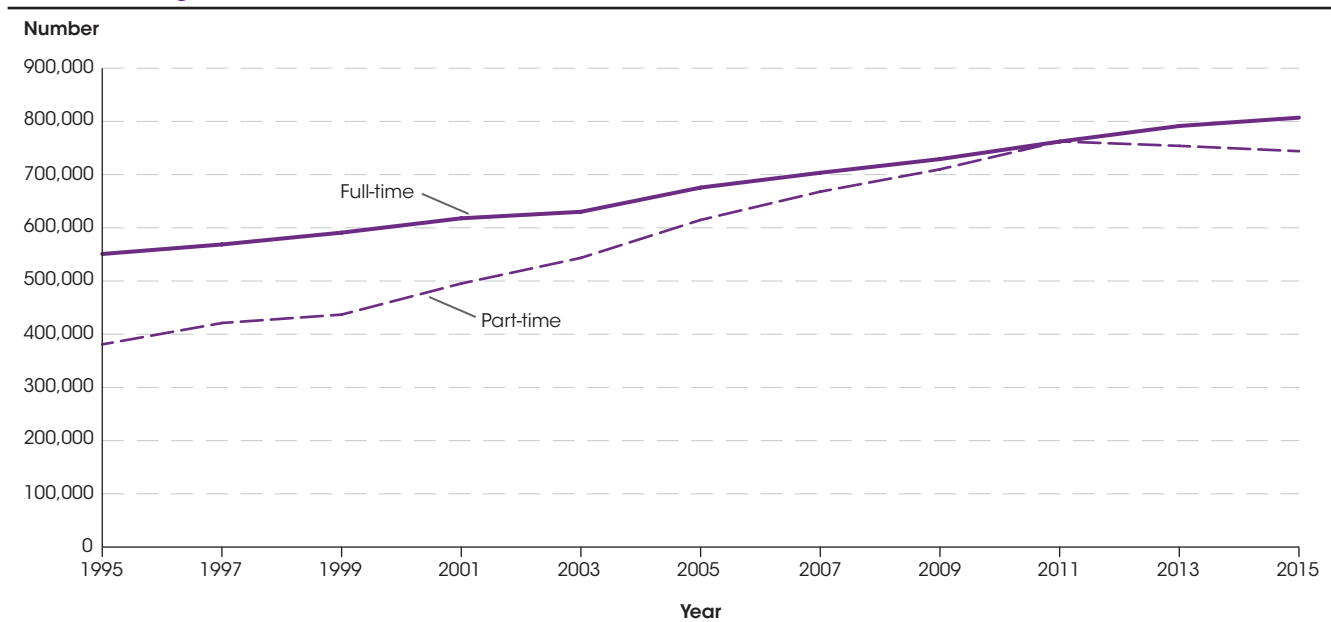
## Characteristics of Postsecondary Faculty

From fall 1995 to fall 2015, the number of full-time faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions increased by 47 percent, while the number of part-time faculty increased by 95 percent. As a result of the faster increase in the number of part-time faculty, the percentage of all faculty who were part time increased from 41 to 48 percent over this period.

In fall 2015, of the 1.6 million faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, 52 percent were full time and 48 percent were part time. Faculty include professors,

associate professors, assistant professors, instructors, lecturers, assisting professors, adjunct professors, and interim professors.

Figure 1. Number of faculty in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by employment status: Selected years, fall 1995 through fall 2015



NOTE: Includes faculty members with the title of professor, associate professor, assistant professor, instructor, lecturer, assisting professor, adjunct professor, or interim professor (or the equivalent). Excludes graduate students with titles such as graduate or teaching fellow who assist senior faculty. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Fall Staff Survey" (IPEDS-S:95-99); IPEDS Winter 2001-02 through Winter 2011-12, Human Resources component, Fall Staff section; and IPEDS Spring 2014 and Spring 2016, Human Resources component, Fall Staff section. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 315.10.

From fall 1995 to fall 2015, the total number of faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions increased by 66 percent (from 932,000 to 1.6 million). The percentage of all faculty who were female increased from 40 percent in 1995 to 49 percent in 2015. The number of full-time faculty increased by 47 percent (from 551,000 to 807,000) over this period, compared with a 95 percent increase in the number of part-time faculty (from 381,000 to

744,000). As a result of the faster increase in the number of part-time faculty, the percentage of all faculty who were part time increased from 41 to 48 percent over this period. However, between 2011 and 2015, the number of full-time faculty increased by 6 percent (from 762,000 to 807,000) while the number of part-time faculty decreased by 2 percent (from 762,000 to 744,000).

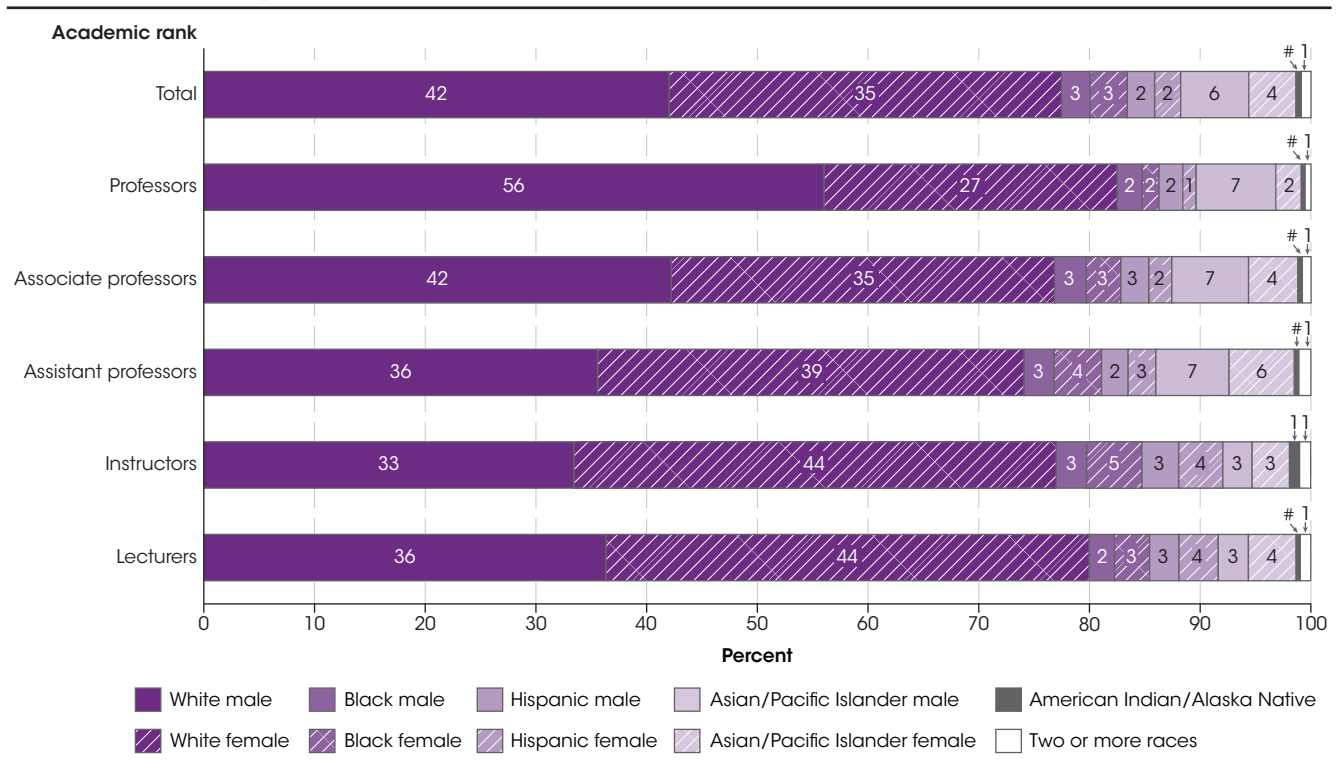


Although the number of faculty increased at each type of degree-granting postsecondary institution (i.e., public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit) between fall 1995 and fall 2015, the percentage increases in faculty were much smaller at public institutions and private nonprofit institutions than at private for-profit institutions. Over this period, the number of faculty increased by 48 percent (from 657,000 to 970,000) at public institutions, by 81 percent (from 261,000 to 472,000) at private nonprofit institutions, and by 677 percent (from 14,000 to 109,000) at private for-profit institutions. Despite the faster growth in the number of faculty at private for-profit institutions over this period, only 7 percent of all faculty were employed by private for-profit institutions in 2015, while

63 percent were employed by public institutions and 30 percent by private nonprofit institutions.

The ratio of full-time equivalent (FTE) students to faculty in 2015 was lower than in 2005 or 1995 at degree-granting postsecondary institutions. The ratio was 15:1 in 1995, 15:1 in 2005, and 14:1 in 2015. In 2015, the FTE student-to-faculty ratio was higher at private for-profit 2-year and 4-year (21:1) and public 2-year institutions (19:1) than at private nonprofit 4-year (10:1) and public 4-year institutions (14:1).<sup>1</sup> For more information about how student enrollments have changed over time, see indicator [Undergraduate Enrollment](#).

**Figure 2. Percentage distribution of full-time faculty in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by academic rank, race/ethnicity, and sex: Fall 2015**



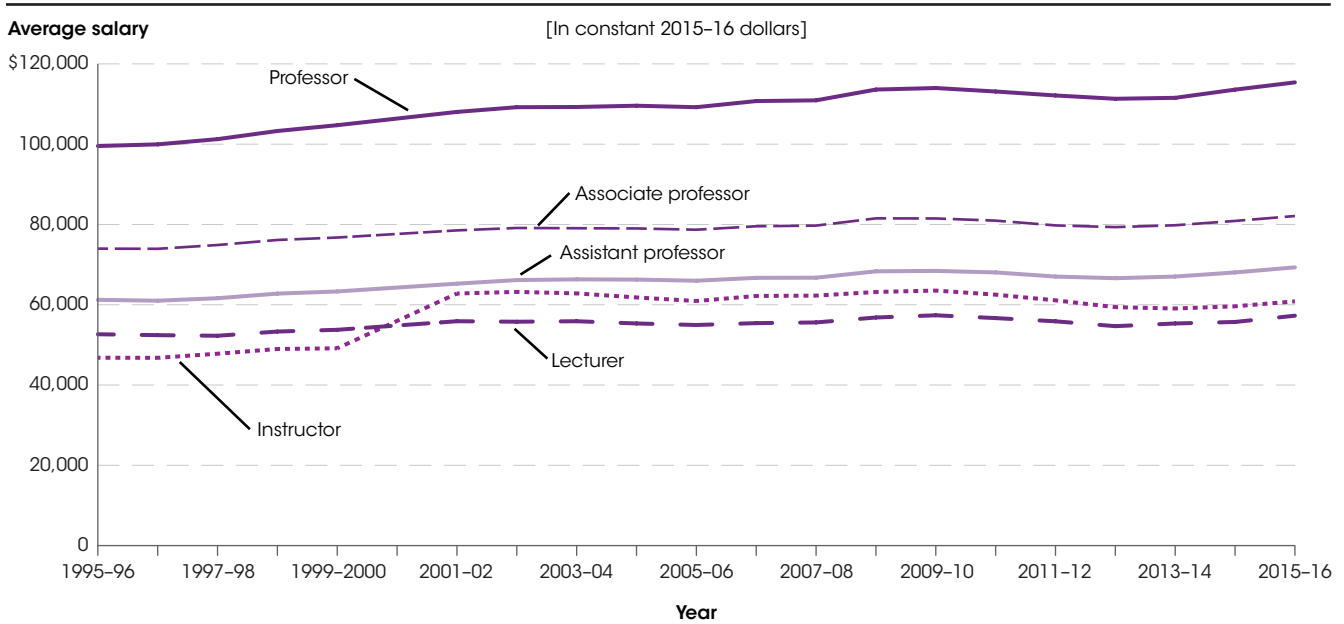
# Rounds to zero.

NOTE: Breakouts by sex excluded for faculty who were American Indian/Alaska Native and of Two or more races because the percentages were 1 percent or less. 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. Estimates are based on full-time faculty whose race/ethnicity was known. Detail may not sum to 100 percent due to rounding. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), IPEDS Spring 2016, Human Resources component, Fall Staff section. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 315.20.

In fall 2015, of all full-time faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, 42 percent were White males, 35 percent were White females, 6 percent were Asian/Pacific Islander males, 4 percent were Asian/Pacific Islander females, 3 percent each were Black females and Black males, and 2 percent each were Hispanic males and Hispanic females.<sup>2</sup> Making up 1 percent or less each were full-time faculty who were of Two or more races and American Indian/Alaska Native. Among full-time

professors, 56 percent were White males, 27 percent were White females, 7 percent were Asian/Pacific Islander males, and 2 percent each were Asian/Pacific Islander females, Black males, Hispanic males, and Black females. The following groups each made up 1 percent or less of the total number of full-time professors: Hispanic females, individuals of Two or more races, and American Indian/Alaska Native individuals.

**Figure 3. Average salary of full-time instructional faculty on 9-month contracts in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by academic rank: Selected years, 1995–96 through 2015–16**



NOTE: Data for academic year 2000–01 are not available. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Salaries are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI). Some data have been revised from previously published figures.

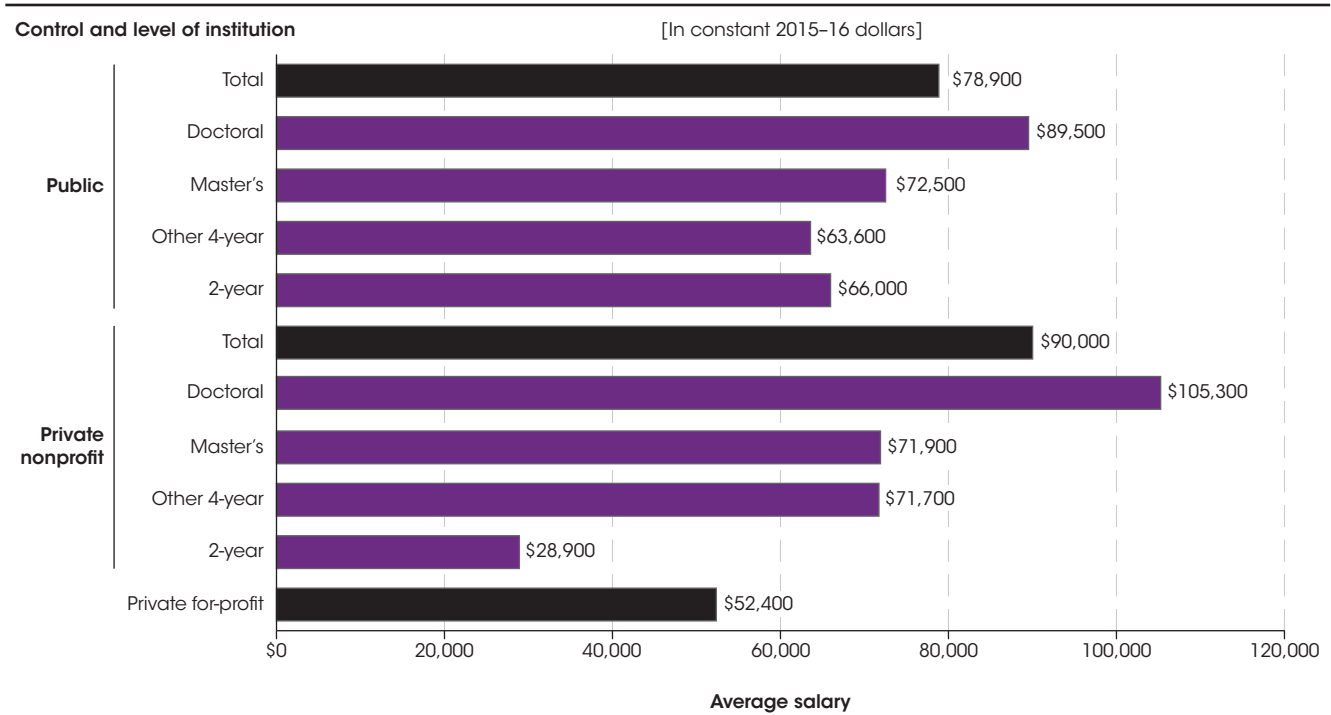
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), “Salaries, Tenure, and Fringe Benefits of Full-Time Instructional Faculty Survey” (IPEDS-SA:95–99) and IPEDS, Winter 2001–02 through Winter 2011–12 and Spring 2013 through Spring 2016, Human Resources component, Salaries section. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 316.10.

Average faculty salaries varied by academic rank. In academic year 2015–16, the average salary for full-time instructional faculty on 9-month contracts at degree-granting postsecondary institutions was \$82,100; average salaries ranged from \$57,300 for lecturers to \$115,400 for professors. The average salary for all full-time instructional faculty increased by 7 percent between 1995–96 and 2010–11 (from \$76,000 to \$81,300), and was 1 percent higher in 2015–16 (\$82,100) than in 2010–11 (salaries are expressed in constant 2015–16 dollars). A similar pattern was observed for faculty at individual academic ranks. The increase in average salary between 1995–96 and 2010–11 was 14 percent for professors (from \$99,500 to \$113,100), 9 percent for associate professors (from \$74,000 to \$80,900), 11 percent for assistant professors (from \$61,200 to \$68,000), 34 percent for instructors (from \$46,800 to \$62,500), and 8 percent for lecturers (from \$52,600 to \$56,700). The average salary for most academic ranks showed smaller changes between 2010–11 and 2015–16. The average salary was 2 percent higher for

professors and assistant professors and 1 percent higher for associate professors and lecturers in 2015–16 than in 2010–11. By contrast, the average salary for instructors was 3 percent lower in 2015–16 than in 2010–11.

Average faculty salaries also varied by gender. The average salary for all full-time instructional faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions was higher for males than for females in every year from 1995–96 to 2015–16. In academic year 2015–16, the average salary was \$89,200 for males and \$73,800 for females. Between 1995–96 and 2015–16, the average salary increased by 9 percent for males and by 12 percent for females. Despite the greater increase in salary for females, the inflation-adjusted salary gap between male and female instructional faculty overall was slightly higher in 2015–16 than in 1995–96 (\$15,400 vs. \$15,300). The male-female salary gap among professors also increased between 1995–96 and 2015–16 (from \$11,800 to \$18,100).

**Figure 4. Average salary of full-time instructional faculty on 9-month contracts in degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control and level of institution: 2015–16**



NOTE: Doctoral institutions include institutions that awarded 20 or more doctor's degrees during the previous academic year. Master's institutions include institutions that awarded 20 or more master's degrees, but less than 20 doctor's degrees, during the previous academic year. Degree-granting postsecondary institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Salaries are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI).  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), IPEDS Spring 2016, Human Resources component, Salaries section. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 316.20.

Faculty salaries also varied according to type of degree-granting postsecondary institution. In academic year 2015–16, the average salary for full-time instructional faculty at private nonprofit institutions (\$90,000) was higher than the average salaries for full-time instructional faculty at public institutions (\$78,900) and at private for-profit institutions (\$52,400). Among the specific types of private nonprofit institutions and public institutions, average salaries for instructional faculty were highest at private nonprofit doctoral institutions (\$105,300) and public doctoral institutions (\$89,500). Average salaries were lowest for instructional faculty at private nonprofit 2-year institutions (\$28,900), public 4-year institutions other than doctoral and master's degree-granting institutions (\$63,600), and public 2-year institutions (\$66,000). Average salaries for instructional faculty were 2 percent higher in 2015–16 than in 1999–2000 at public institutions (\$78,900 vs. \$77,400), 10 percent higher at private nonprofit institutions (\$90,000 vs. \$81,900), and 26 percent higher at private for-profit institutions (\$52,400 vs. \$41,600).

In academic year 2015–16, approximately 52 percent of degree-granting postsecondary institutions had tenure systems. A tenure system guarantees that professors will not be terminated without just cause after a probationary period. The percentage of institutions with tenure systems ranged from 1 percent at private for-profit institutions to almost 100 percent at public doctoral institutions. Of full-time faculty at institutions with tenure systems, 47 percent had tenure in 2015–16, compared with 54 percent in 1999–2000. From 1999–2000 to 2015–16, the percentage of full-time faculty with tenure decreased by 7 percentage points at public institutions, by 5 percentage points at private nonprofit institutions, and by 60 percentage points at private for-profit institutions. At institutions with tenure systems, the percentage of full-time instructional faculty with tenure was higher for males than for females. In 2015–16, some 56 percent of males had tenure, compared with 42 percent of females.

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> The ratios are calculated by dividing the number of FTE undergraduate and graduate students by the number of FTE faculty (including instructional, research, and public service faculty).

<sup>2</sup> Percentages are based on full-time faculty whose race/ethnicity was known.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 314.10, 314.50, 314.60, 315.10, 315.20, 316.10, 316.20, and 316.80

**Related indicators and resources:** Characteristics of Degree-Granting Postsecondary Institutions, Characteristics of Postsecondary Students

**Glossary:** Constant dollars, Control of institution, Degree-granting institution, Doctor's degree, Gap, Postsecondary education, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Racial/ethnic group, Salary

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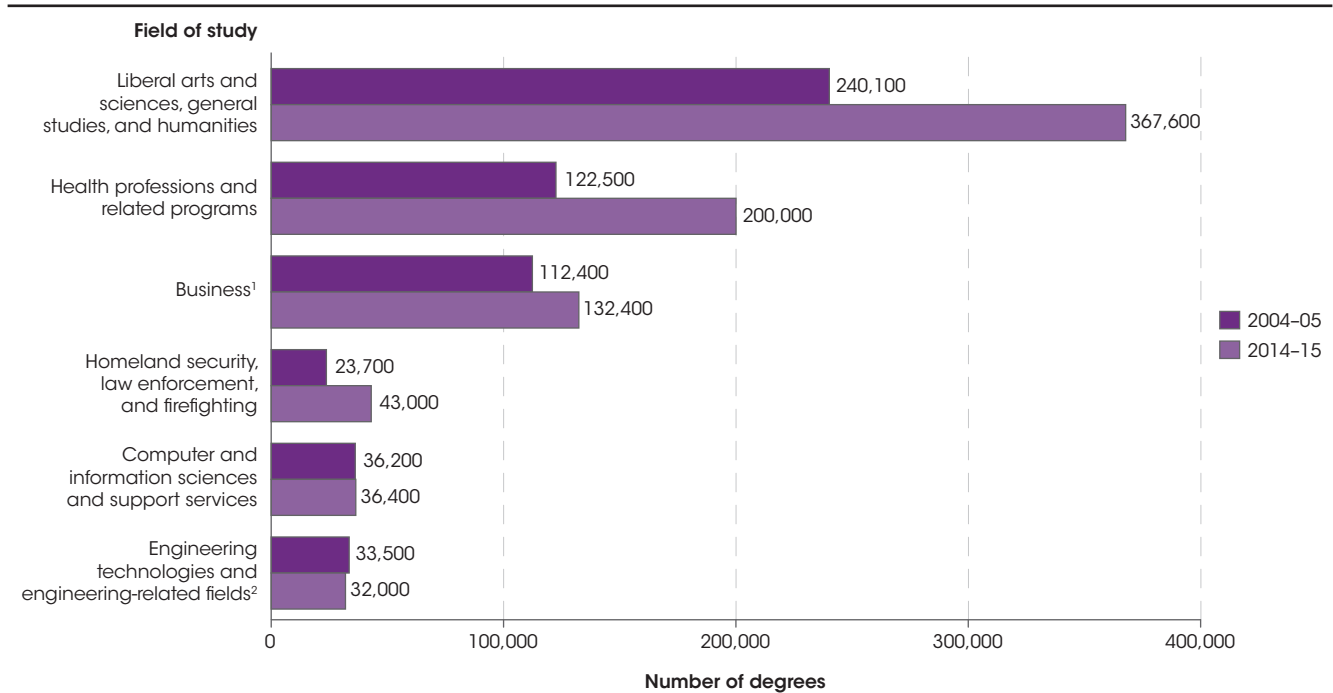
# Undergraduate Degree Fields

*For every racial/ethnic group, business was the most common field of study for bachelor's degrees conferred in 2014–15. Liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities; health professions and related programs; and business services were the top three associate's degree fields of study for all racial/ethnic groups in 2014–15.*

In academic year 2014–15, postsecondary institutions conferred 1.0 million associate's degrees. Of the associate's degrees conferred in 2014–15, about two-thirds (69 percent) were concentrated in three fields of study: liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities (36 percent, or 368,000 degrees); health professions and related programs (20 percent, or 200,000 degrees); and business<sup>1</sup> (13 percent, or 132,000 degrees). These three fields also accounted for the largest percentages of degrees conferred in 2004–05. In 2014–15, the three next largest

percentages of associate's degrees conferred were in the following fields: homeland security, law enforcement, and firefighting (4 percent, or 43,000 degrees); computer and information sciences and support services (4 percent, or 36,400 degrees); and engineering technologies and engineering-related fields<sup>2</sup> (3 percent, or 32,000 degrees). More recently, between 2013–14 and 2014–15, the overall number of associate's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions increased by around 1 percent.

**Figure 1. Number of associate's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions in selected fields of study: Academic years 2004–05 and 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> "Business" includes personal and culinary services, to be consistent with how "business" is defined throughout the rest of the indicator.  
<sup>2</sup> Excludes construction trades and mechanic and repair technologies/technicians.  
 NOTE: The six fields of study shown are those in which the largest number of associate's degrees were conferred from the 1,014,000 associate's degrees conferred in 2014–15. Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. The new Classification of Instructional Programs was initiated in 2009–10. The estimates for 2004–05 have been reclassified when necessary to make them conform to the new taxonomy. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2005 and Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 321.10.

Between 2004–05 and 2014–15, the number of associate's degrees conferred increased by 317,000 degrees, or 46 percent. Over this time period, the number of associate's degrees conferred in the fields of liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities; health professions and related programs; and business (the three

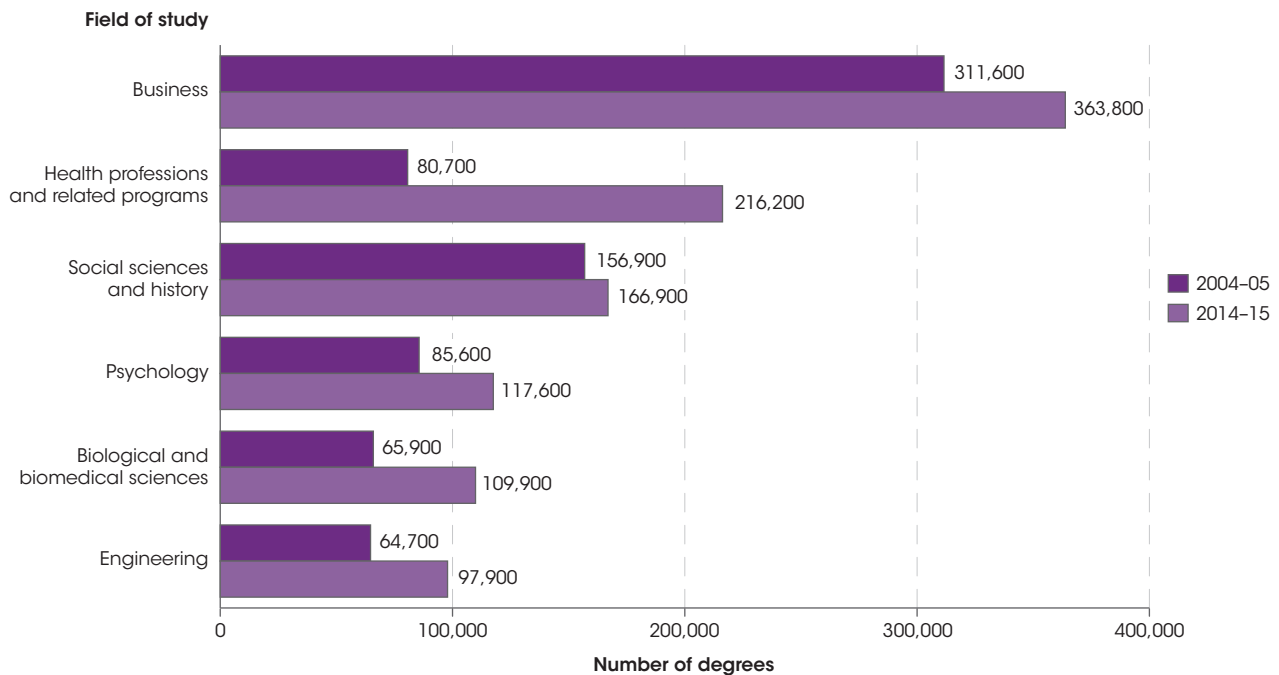
fields of study in which the most degrees were conferred) increased by 53 percent (from 240,000 to 368,000), 63 percent (from 123,000 to 200,000), and 18 percent (from 112,000 to 132,000), respectively. Of the top 20 fields in which the greatest number of associate's degrees were conferred in 2014–15, the largest percentage

increase in degrees conferred from 2004–05 to 2014–15 was in the field of psychology (350 percent, from 1,900 to 8,700 degrees). In addition, the number of associate's degrees conferred more than doubled over the period in the following fields: biological and biomedical sciences (from 1,700 to 4,900, or 186 percent); social sciences and history (from 6,500 to 17,900, or 174 percent); physical sciences and science technologies (from 2,800 to 7,600, or 168 percent); communication, journalism, and related programs (from 2,500 to 6,000, or 137 percent); multi/interdisciplinary studies (from 13,900 to 29,100, or 110 percent); and public administration and social services (from 4,000 to 8,400, or 110 percent).

Liberal arts and sciences, general studies, and humanities; health professions and related programs; and business services were the top three associate's degree fields of study

for all racial/ethnic groups in 2014–15. The distribution by race/ethnicity of associate's degrees conferred in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM)<sup>3</sup> fields differed from the distribution by race/ethnicity of associate's degrees overall. The percentages of STEM associate's degrees conferred to Asian/Pacific Islander (7 percent) and White (61 percent) graduates were higher than their percentages among all associate's degree recipients (5 percent and 59 percent, respectively). In contrast, the percentage of STEM associate's degrees conferred to Hispanic graduates (15 percent) was lower than the percentage of associate's degrees conferred to Hispanic graduates overall (18 percent), while the percentage of STEM associate's degrees conferred to Black graduates (14 percent) was within 1 percentage point of their overall percentage among associate's degree recipients.

**Figure 2. Number of bachelor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions in selected fields of study: Academic years 2004–05 and 2014–15**



NOTE: The six fields of study shown are those in which the largest number of bachelor's degrees were conferred from the 1,894,900 bachelor's degrees conferred in 2014–15. Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. The new Classification of Instructional Programs was initiated in 2009–10. The estimates for 2004–05 have been reclassified when necessary to make them conform to the new taxonomy. "Business" includes business, management, marketing, and related support services, and personal and culinary services. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2005 and Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 322.10.

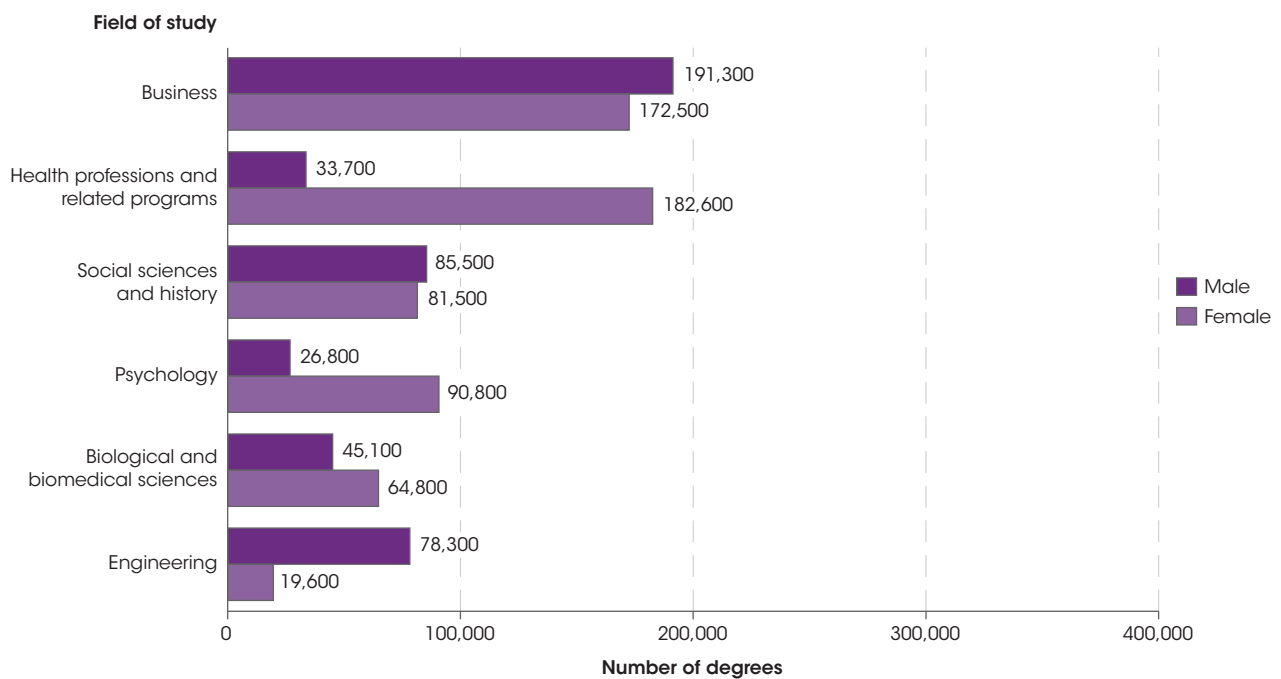
Postsecondary institutions conferred approximately 1.9 million bachelor's degrees in 2014–15. The number of bachelor's degrees conferred overall increased by 456,000 degrees, or 32 percent, between 2004–05 and 2014–15. The three fields of study in which the most bachelor's degrees were conferred—business, health professions and related programs, and social sciences and history—had increases during this period of 17 percent (from 312,000 to 364,000), 168 percent (from 80,700 to 216,000), and 6 percent (from 157,000 to 167,000), respectively. Among the top 20 fields in which the largest number of bachelor's

degrees were conferred, the largest percentage increases between 2004–05 and 2014–15 were in health professions and related programs (168 percent, from 80,700 to 216,000); parks, recreation, leisure, and fitness studies (114 percent, from 22,900 to 49,000); and homeland security, law enforcement, and firefighting (104 percent, from 30,700 to 62,700). More recently, between 2013–14 and 2014–15, the overall number of bachelor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions increased by around 1 percent.

About 39 percent of the bachelor's degrees conferred in 2014–15 were concentrated in three fields of study: business (19 percent, or 364,000 degrees); health professions and related programs (11 percent, or 216,000 degrees); and social sciences and history (9 percent, or 167,000 degrees). Business and social sciences and history were also among the top three fields in 2004–05. Education, which was the field in which the third most degrees were conferred in 2004–05, dropped to eighth in 2014–15 (from 105,000 to 91,600). The three next largest fields of study among bachelor's degrees conferred in 2014–15 were in the fields of psychology (6 percent, or 118,000 degrees); biological and biomedical sciences (6 percent, or 110,000 degrees); and engineering (5 percent, or 97,900 degrees).

For every racial/ethnic group, business was the most common field of study for bachelor's degrees conferred in 2014–15. As with associate's degrees, the racial/ethnic distribution of graduates earning bachelor's degrees in STEM fields differed from the overall racial/ethnic distribution of bachelor's degrees. The percentage of STEM bachelor's degrees conferred to Asian/Pacific Islander graduates (13 percent) was higher than their percentage among all bachelor's degree recipients (7 percent). The percentages of STEM bachelor's degrees conferred to White (66 percent), Hispanic (10 percent), and Black (7 percent) graduates were lower than the percentages of overall White (67 percent), Hispanic (12 percent), and Black (11 percent) bachelor's degree recipients.

**Figure 3. Number of bachelor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions in selected fields of study, by sex: Academic year 2014–15**



NOTE: The six fields of study shown were those in which the largest number of bachelor's degrees were conferred from the 1,894,900 bachelor's degrees conferred in 2014–15. Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. "Business" includes business, management, marketing, and related support services, and personal and culinary services. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 322.40 and 322.50.

In 2014–15, females earned 1.1 million bachelor's degrees, representing 57 percent of all bachelor's degrees conferred. Males were awarded the remaining 43 percent (0.8 million degrees). Of the six fields in which the most bachelor's degrees were conferred in 2014–15, females were conferred the majority of degrees in the following three fields: health professions and related programs (183,000 vs. 33,700 for

males), psychology (90,800 vs. 26,800 for males), and biological and biomedical sciences (64,800 vs. 45,100 for males). Males received the majority of the degrees conferred in business (191,000 vs. 172,000 for females), social sciences and history (85,500 vs. 81,500 for females), and engineering (78,300 vs. 19,600 for females).



**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Business includes personal and culinary services, to be consistent with how business is defined throughout the rest of the indicator.

<sup>2</sup> Excludes construction trades and mechanic and repair technologies/technicians.

<sup>3</sup> STEM fields include biological and biomedical sciences, computer and information sciences, engineering and engineering technologies, mathematics and statistics, and physical sciences and science technologies.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 318.45, 321.10, 321.30, 322.10, 322.30, 322.40, and 322.50

**Related indicators and resources:** Employment of STEM College Graduates, Employment Outcomes of Bachelor's Degree Recipients, Graduate Degree Fields, Postsecondary Certificates and Degrees Conferred, Post-Bachelor's Employment Outcomes by Sex and Race/Ethnicity [*The Condition of Education 2016 Spotlight*], *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups*

**Glossary:** Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP), Racial/ethnic group, STEM fields

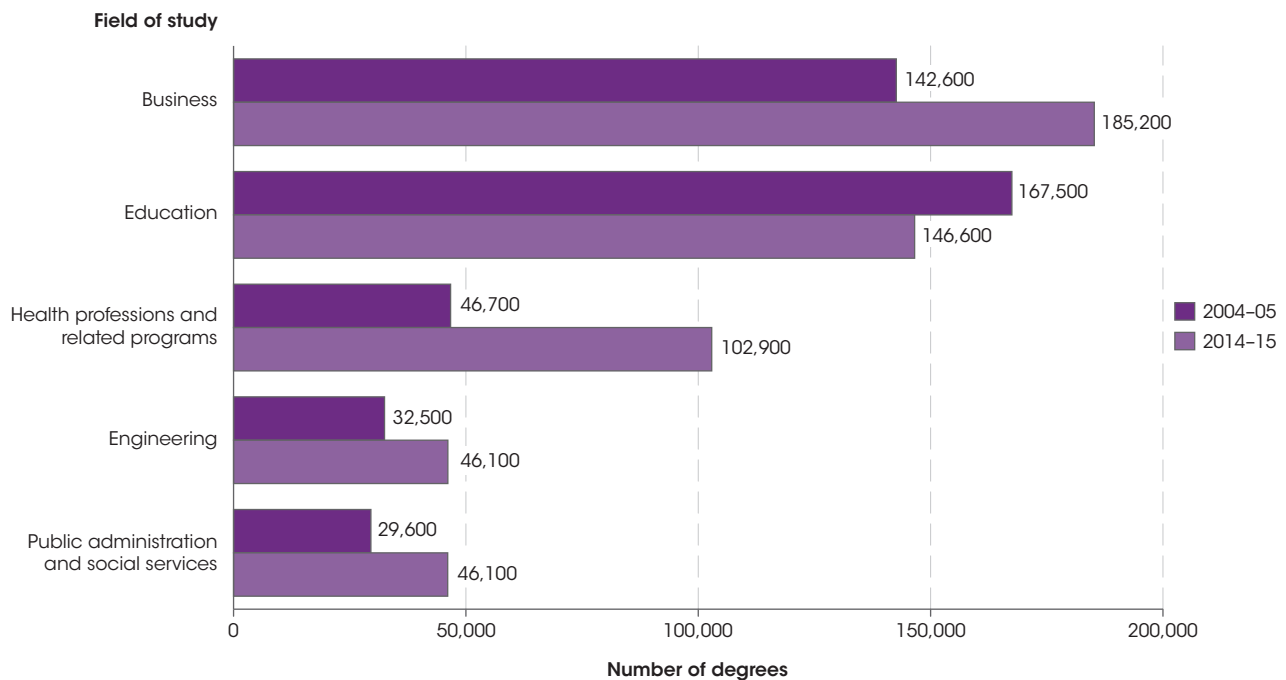
## Graduate Degree Fields

*In 2014–15, nearly half of the 759,000 master’s degrees conferred were concentrated in two fields of study: business (185,000 degrees) and education (147,000 degrees). Of the 179,000 doctor’s degrees conferred, almost two-thirds were concentrated in health professions and related programs (71,000 degrees) and legal professions and studies (40,300 degrees).*

Between 2004–05 and 2014–15, the total number of master’s degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions increased by 31 percent, from 580,000 to 759,000. During the same period, the overall number of doctor’s degrees conferred increased by 33 percent, from 134,000 to 179,000. This indicator examines the fields of study in which these degrees were conferred, and how the number awarded in each field has changed across time. For the purposes of this analysis, doctor’s degrees include Ph.D., Ed.D., and comparable degrees at the doctoral level, as well as first-professional degrees such as M.D., D.D.S., and J.D. degrees.

Of the 759,000 master’s degrees conferred in 2014–15 by postsecondary institutions, the largest percentages were in three fields of study: business (24 percent, 185,000 degrees), education (19 percent, 147,000 degrees), and health professions and related programs (14 percent, 103,000 degrees). The fields in which the next largest percentages of master’s degrees were conferred were engineering (6 percent, 46,100 degrees) and public administration and social services (6 percent, 46,100 degrees). These five fields also accounted for the largest percentages conferred in 2004–05 and 2013–14.

**Figure 1. Number of master’s degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions in selected fields of study: Academic years 2004–05 and 2014–15**



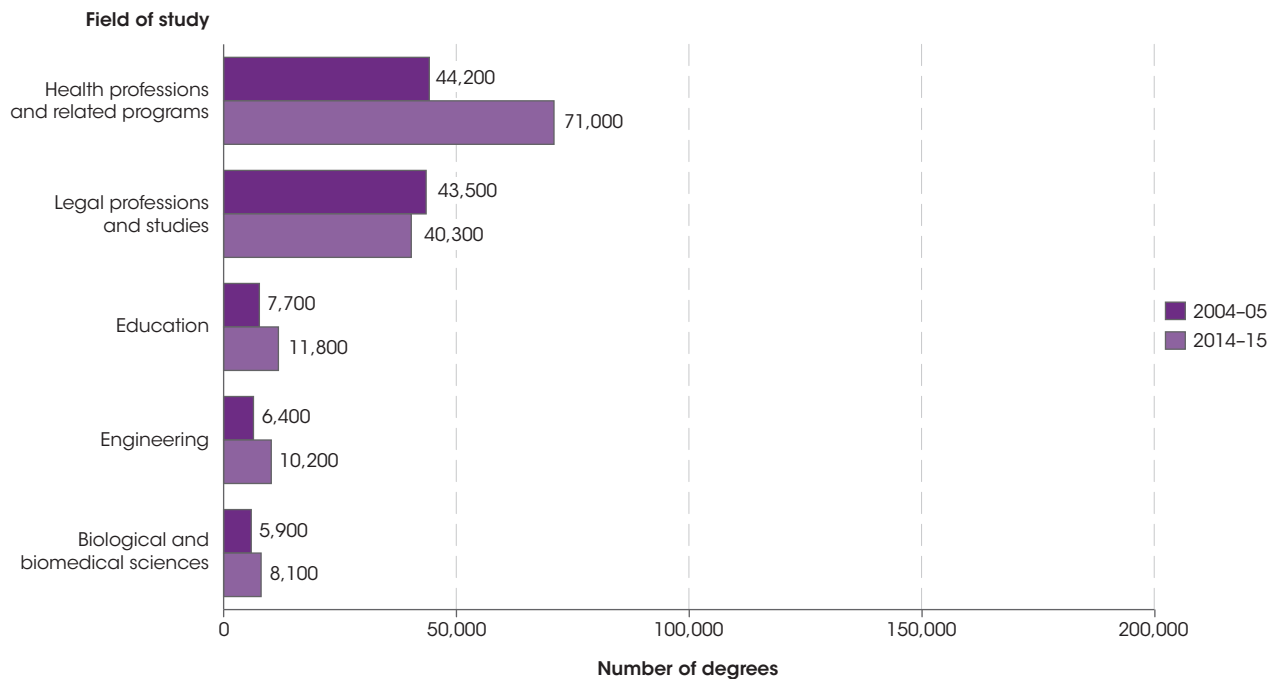
NOTE: The five fields of study shown are the fields in which the largest number of master’s degrees were conferred of the 758,700 master’s degrees conferred in 2014–15. Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. The new Classification of Instructional Programs was initiated in 2009–10. The estimates for 2004–05 have been reclassified when necessary to make them conform to the new taxonomy. “Business” includes business, management, marketing, and related support services, and personal and culinary services.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2005 and Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 323.10.

Of the 20 fields in which the most master's degrees were conferred in 2014–15, more degrees were conferred in 2014–15 than in 2004–05 for all fields except education. During this period, the largest percentage increase in the number of master's degrees conferred was in the field of homeland security, law enforcement, and firefighting (142 percent, from 4,000 to 9,600 degrees). The next largest percentage increase was in the field of health professions and related programs (120 percent, from 46,700 to 103,000 degrees). Of these 20 fields, the field with the smallest percentage increase since 2004–05 in degrees conferred was English language and literature/letters (5 percent, from 8,500 to 8,900 degrees). The number of degrees conferred in education was lower in 2014–15 (147,000) than in 2004–05 (167,000). More recently, between 2013–14 and 2014–15 the number of business degrees conferred decreased by 2 percent (from 189,000 to 185,000 degrees) and the number of education degrees conferred decreased by 5 percent (from 155,000 to 147,000 degrees). In comparison, the overall number of master's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions increased by 1 percent.

In 2014–15, the top three master's degree fields were the same for all racial/ethnic groups: business, education, and health professions and related programs, although

the rank order of these fields differed across groups. The racial/ethnic distribution of graduates earning degrees in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM)<sup>1</sup> fields differed from the racial/ethnic distribution of master's degree graduates overall. The percentage of STEM master's degrees conferred to Asian/Pacific Islander graduates (15 percent) was higher than the percentage of master's degrees conferred to Asian/Pacific Islander graduates overall (7 percent). In contrast, the percentages of STEM master's degrees conferred to White (65 percent), Black (8 percent), and Hispanic (8 percent) graduates were lower than the percentages of master's degrees conferred to each group overall (68 percent, 14 percent, and 9 percent, respectively).

Similar to master's degrees, of the 179,000 doctor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions, almost two-thirds of degrees were concentrated in two fields of study: health professions and related programs (40 percent, 71,000 degrees) and legal professions and studies (23 percent, 40,300 degrees). The three fields in which the next largest percentages of doctor's degrees were conferred were education (7 percent, 11,800 degrees), engineering (6 percent, 10,200 degrees), and biological and biomedical sciences (5 percent, 8,100 degrees).

**Figure 2. Number of doctor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions in selected fields of study: Academic years 2004–05 and 2014–15**

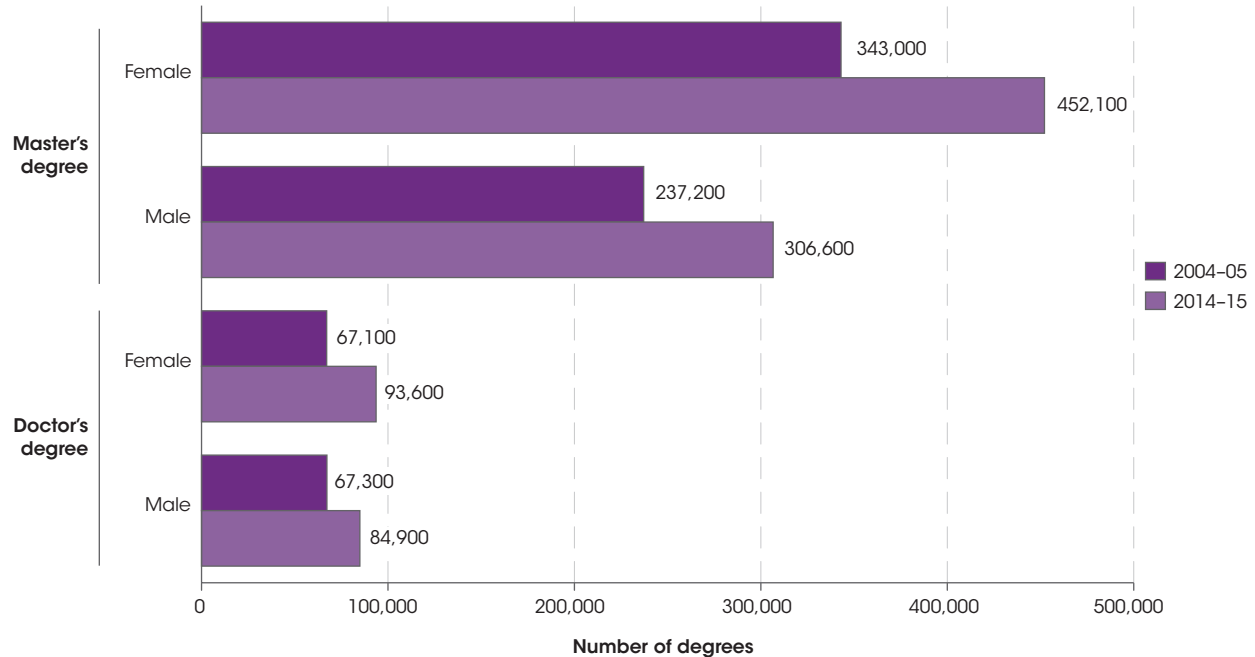
NOTE: The five fields of study are the fields in which the largest number of doctor's degrees were conferred of the 178,500 doctor's degrees conferred in 2014–15. Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. The new Classification of Instructional Programs was initiated in 2009–10. The estimates for 2004–05 have been reclassified when necessary to make them conform to the new taxonomy. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2005 and Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 324.10.

The largest number of doctor's degrees were conferred in health professions and related programs and in legal professions and studies in each year from 2004–05 through 2014–15. The number of degrees conferred in health professions and related programs increased by 61 percent over this period (from 44,200 to 71,000 degrees); however, the number of degrees conferred in legal professions and studies was lower in 2014–15 than in 2004–05 (40,300 vs. 43,500 degrees). Among the 20 largest fields of study in 2014–15, the field of business had the largest percentage increase in the number of doctor's degrees conferred between 2004–05 and 2014–15 (108 percent, from 1,500 to 3,100 degrees). The field with the next largest percentage increase during this period was computer and information sciences (79 percent, from 1,100 to 2,000 degrees). Of these 20 fields, the field with the smallest percentage increase between 2004–05 and 2014–15 was English language and literature/letters (17 percent, from 1,200 to 1,400 degrees). More recently, between 2013–14 and 2014–15, the number of health professions and related programs degrees conferred increased by 5 percent (from 67,400 to 71,000 degrees) and the number of legal professions and studies degrees

conferred decreased by 9 percent (from 44,200 to 40,300 degrees). In comparison, the overall number of doctor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions increased by 1 percent.

In 2014–15, the top two doctor's degree fields were the same for all racial/ethnic groups: health professions and related programs, and legal professions and studies; however, the rank order of these fields differed across groups. As with master's degrees, the racial/ethnic distribution of graduates earning doctor's degrees in STEM fields differed from the racial/ethnic distribution of graduates earning doctor's degrees overall. The percentage of STEM doctor's degrees conferred to White graduates (74 percent) was higher than their percentage of doctor's degrees overall (69 percent), while the percentage of STEM doctor's degrees conferred to Black graduates (4 percent) was lower than their percentage of doctor's degrees overall (8 percent). The percentages of STEM doctor's degrees conferred to Asian/Pacific Islander (13 percent) and Hispanic graduates (6 percent) were both within 1 percentage point of their overall percentages of doctor's degrees.

**Figure 3. Number of master's and doctor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions, by level of degree and sex: Academic years 2004-05 and 2014-15**



NOTE: Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2005 and Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 323.20 and 324.20.

More master's degrees were conferred to females than to males in 2014-15 (452,000 vs. 307,000 degrees), consistent with the pattern of each year from 2004-05 through 2014-15. Over this period, the number of master's degrees conferred to females increased by 109,000, or 32 percent. Over the same period, the number of master's degrees conferred to males increased by 69,400, or 29 percent. More recently, between 2013-14 and 2014-15 the number of master's degrees conferred increased by less than one-half of one percent for females and by 1 percent for males.

in every year since 2005-06. In contrast, more doctor's degrees were conferred to males than to females in 2004-05 (67,300 vs. 67,100 degrees). Between 2004-05 and 2014-15, the number of doctor's degrees conferred to females increased by 26,500, or 39 percent. Over the same period, the number of doctor's degrees conferred to males increased by 17,700, or 26 percent. More recently, between academic years 2013-14 and 2014-15, the number of doctor's degrees conferred to females increased by 2 percent, and the number conferred to males decreased by 1 percent.

More doctor's degrees were conferred to females than to males in 2014-15 (93,600 vs. 84,900 degrees) as well as

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> STEM fields include biological and biomedical sciences, computer and information sciences, engineering and engineering technologies, mathematics and statistics, and physical sciences and science technologies.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 318.45, 323.10, 323.20, 323.30, 324.10, 324.20, and 324.25

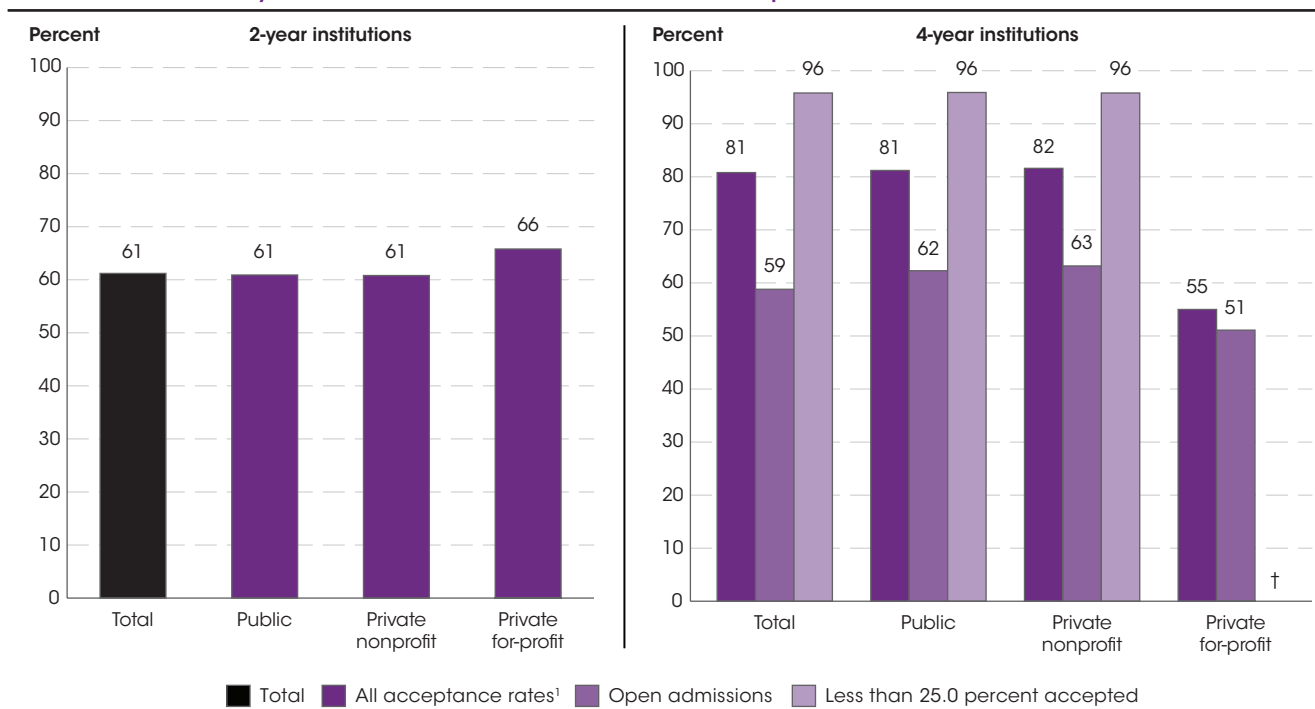
**Related indicators and resources:** Undergraduate Degree Fields, Postsecondary Certificates and Degrees Conferred, *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups*

**Glossary:** Classification of Instructional Programs (CIP), Doctor's degree, Master's degree, Racial/ethnic group, STEM fields

## Undergraduate Retention and Graduation Rates

About 59 percent of students who began seeking a bachelor’s degree at a 4-year institution in fall 2009 completed that degree within 6 years; the graduation rate was higher for females than for males (62 percent vs. 56 percent).

Figure 1. Percentage of first-time, full-time degree-seeking undergraduates retained at 2- and 4-year degree-granting institutions, by institution level, control of institution, and acceptance rate: 2014 to 2015



† Not applicable.

<sup>1</sup> Includes institutions that have an open admission policy, institutions that have various applicant acceptance rates, and institutions for which no acceptance rate information is available.

NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Retained first-time undergraduates are those who returned to the institutions to continue their studies the following fall. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

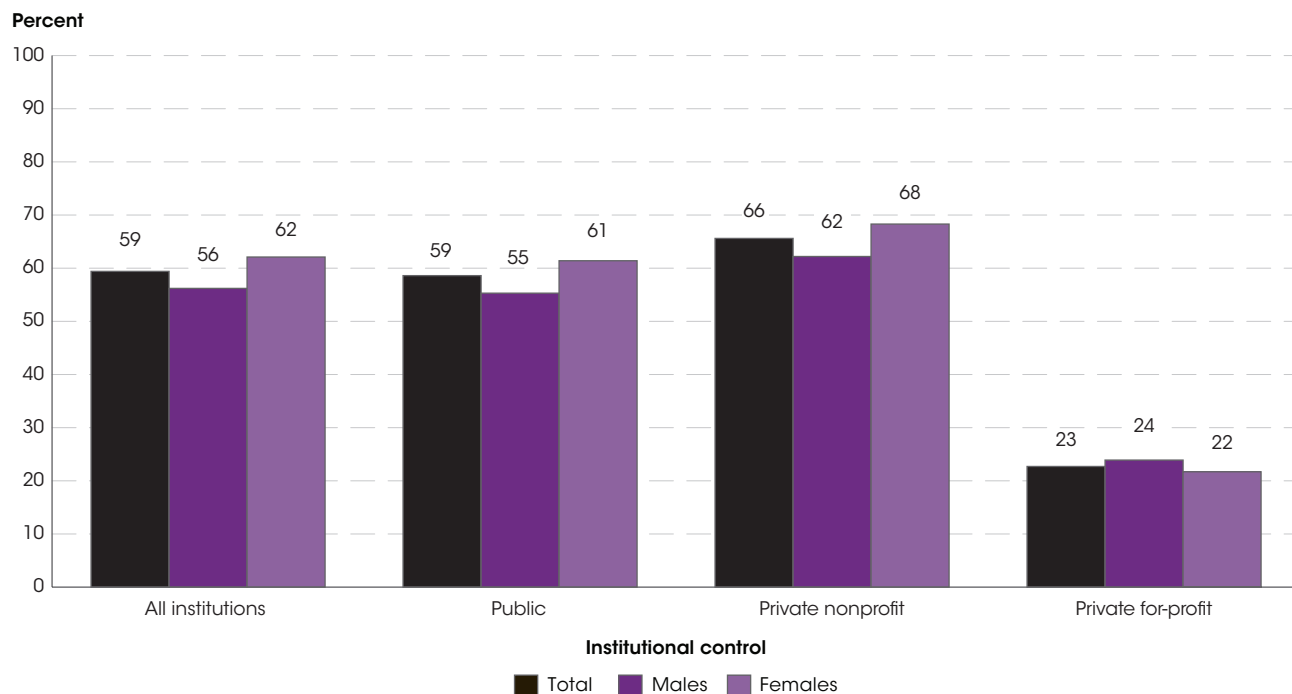
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Fall Enrollment component; and Fall 2014, Institutional Characteristics component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.30.

The retention rate (i.e., the percentage of students returning the following fall) among first-time, full-time degree-seeking students who enrolled at 4-year degree-granting institutions in 2014 was 81 percent. Retention rates were higher at institutions that were more selective, regardless of institutional control (public, private nonprofit, or private for-profit). At public 4-year institutions, the overall retention rate was 81 percent; at the least selective institutions (i.e., those with open admissions) the retention rate was 62 percent, while at the most selective institutions (i.e., those that accept less than 25 percent of applicants) the retention rate was 96 percent. The retention rate for private nonprofit 4-year institutions was 82 percent overall, ranging from 63 percent at institutions with open admissions to 96 percent at institutions that accept less than 25 percent of applicants. The retention rate for private for-profit 4-year institutions was 55 percent overall, ranging from 51 percent at institutions with open admissions to 76 percent at

institutions that accept between 25 and 50 percent of applicants. In 2014 and 2015, no students attended private for-profit institutions with an acceptance rate under 25 percent. At 2-year institutions, the overall retention rate for students was 61 percent; at this institution level, the retention rate for private for-profit institutions (66 percent) was higher than for both private nonprofit and public institutions (61 percent each).

The 1990 Student Right-to-Know Act requires 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 pursuing a bachelor’s degree). The graduation rates in this indicator are based on this measure. 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.

**Figure 2. Graduation rate within 150 percent of normal time (within 6 years) from first institution attended for first-time, full-time bachelor's degree-seeking students at 4-year postsecondary institutions, by control of institution and sex: Cohort entry year 2009**



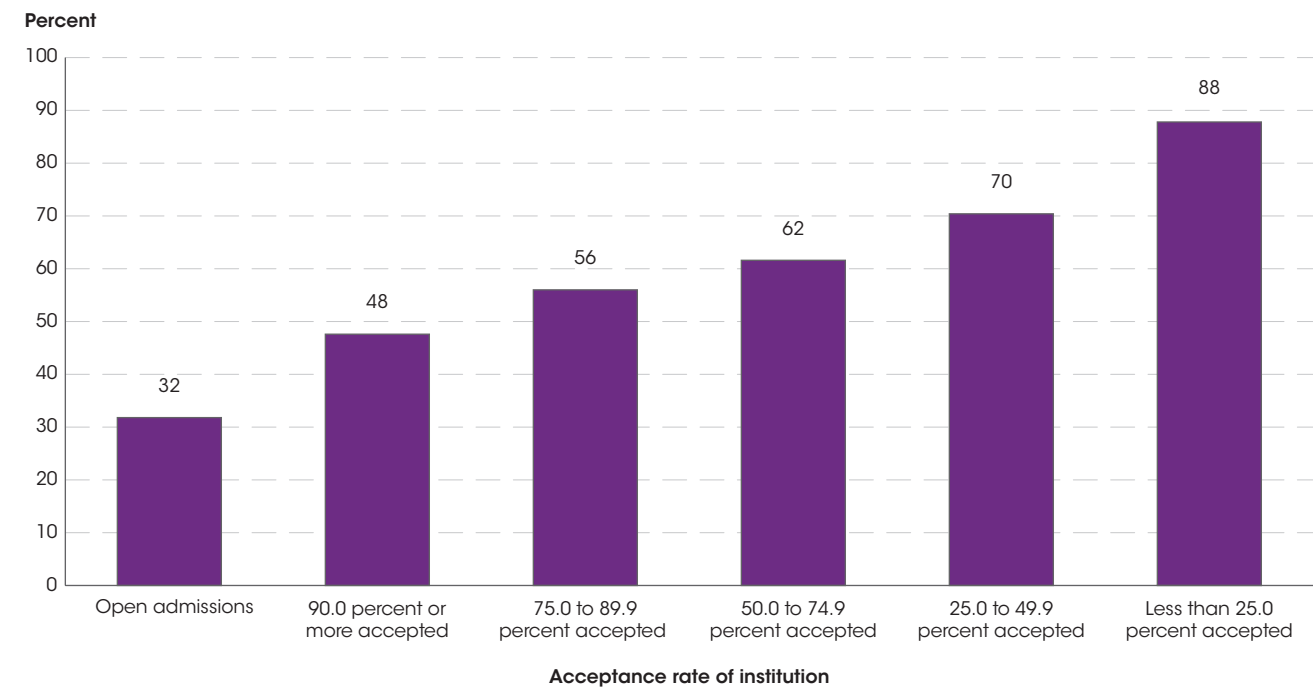
NOTE: Data are for 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Graduation rates include students receiving bachelor's degrees from their initial institution of attendance only. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Graduation Rates component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.10.

The 6-year graduation rate for first-time, full-time undergraduate students who began seeking a bachelor's degree at a 4-year degree-granting institution in fall 2009 was 59 percent. That is, 59 percent had completed a bachelor's degree by 2015 at the same institution where they started in 2009. The 6-year graduation rate was 59 percent at public institutions, 66 percent at private

nonprofit institutions, and 23 percent at private for-profit institutions. The 6-year graduation rate was 62 percent for females and 56 percent for males; it was higher for females than for males at both public (61 vs. 55 percent) and private nonprofit institutions (68 vs. 62 percent). However, at private for-profit institutions, males had a higher 6-year graduation rate than females (24 vs. 22 percent).

**Figure 3. Graduation rate within 150 percent of normal time (within 6 years) from first institution attended for first-time, full-time bachelor's degree-seeking students at 4-year postsecondary institutions, by acceptance rate of institution: Cohort entry year 2009**



NOTE: Data are for 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Graduation rates include students receiving bachelor's degrees from their initial institution of attendance only.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Graduation Rates component and Fall 2009, Institutional Characteristics component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.10.

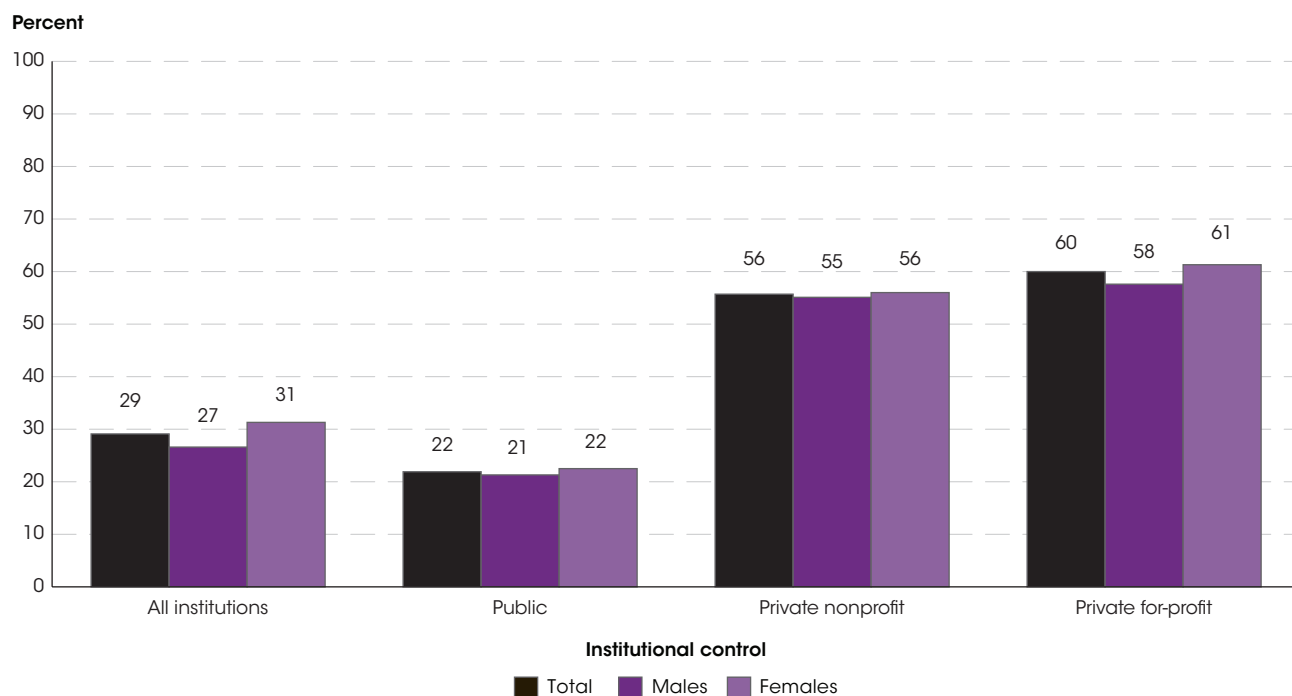
Six-year graduation rates for first-time, full-time students who began seeking a bachelor's degree in fall 2009 varied according to institutional selectivity. In particular, 6-year graduation rates were highest at institutions that were the most selective (i.e., had the lowest admissions acceptance rates) and were lowest at institutions that were the least selective (i.e., had open admissions policies). For example, at 4-year institutions with open admissions policies, 32 percent of students completed a bachelor's degree within 6 years. At 4-year institutions where the acceptance rate was less than 25 percent of applicants, the 6-year graduation rate was 88 percent.

Between 2010 and 2015, the overall 6-year graduation rate for first-time, full-time students who began seeking

a bachelor's degree at 4-year degree-granting institutions increased by 1 percentage point, from 58 percent (for students who began their studies in 2004 and graduated within 6 years) to 59 percent (for students who began their studies in 2009 and graduated within 6 years). During this period, 6-year graduation rates were higher in 2015 than in 2010 at public institutions (59 vs. 56 percent) and private nonprofit institutions (66 vs. 65 percent), but lower at private for-profit institutions (23 vs. 29 percent). In addition, the 6-year graduation rate for females increased during this period (from 61 to 62 percent), and the 6-year graduation rate for males was approximately 1 percentage point higher (56 percent in both years).



**Figure 4. Graduation rate within 150 percent of normal time from first institution attended for first-time, full-time degree/certificate-seeking students at 2-year postsecondary institutions, by control of institution and sex: Cohort entry year 2012**



NOTE: Data are for 2-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Graduation rates include students receiving associate's degrees or certificates from their initial institution of attendance only. An example of completing a credential within 150 percent of the normal time is completing a 2-year degree within 3 years. Although rounded numbers are displayed, the figures are based on unrounded estimates. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Graduation Rates component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 326.20.

At 2-year degree-granting institutions, 29 percent of first-time, full-time undergraduate students who began seeking a certificate or associate's degree in fall 2012 attained it within 150 percent of the normal time required for these programs (an example of completing a credential within 150 percent of the normal time is completing a 2-year degree within 3 years). This graduation rate was 22 percent at public 2-year institutions, 56 percent at private nonprofit 2-year institutions, and 60 percent at

private for-profit 2-year institutions. At 2-year institutions overall, as well as at public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit 2-year institutions, the graduation rates were higher for females than for males. At private for-profit 2-year institutions, for example, 61 percent of females versus 58 percent of males who began pursuing a certificate or associate's degree in 2012 completed it within 150 percent of the normal time required.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 326.10, 326.20, and 326.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Educational Attainment of Young Adults, First-Time Postsecondary Students' Persistence After 3 Years [*The Condition of Education 2017 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Associate's degree, Bachelor's degree, Certificate, Degree-granting institution, Full-time enrollment, Postsecondary education, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Undergraduate students

## Postsecondary Certificates and Degrees Conferred

The number of postsecondary degrees and certificates conferred at each degree level increased between 2004–05 and 2014–15. The number of certificates below the associate's degree level conferred during this period increased by 35 percent. The number of degrees conferred increased by 46 percent at the associate's level, by 32 percent at the bachelor's level, by 31 percent at the master's level, and by 33 percent at the doctor's level.

In academic year 2014–15, postsecondary institutions conferred 961,000 certificates below the associate's level, 1.0 million associate's degrees, 1.9 million bachelor's degrees, 759,000 master's degrees, and 179,000 doctor's degrees. This indicator discusses trends over time in

the number of certificates and degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions. It also compares the numbers of certificates and degrees conferred by public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit institutions.

**Table 1. Number of degrees and certificates conferred by postsecondary institutions and percentage change, by control of institution and level of degree: Academic years 1994–95, 2004–05, and 2014–15**

Level of degree/certificate and academic year	Total	Public	Private		
			Total	Nonprofit	For-profit
<b>Sub-associate certificates</b>					
1994–95	—	—	—	—	—
2004–05	710,873	370,683	340,190	35,968	304,222
2014–15	961,167	602,895	358,272	46,082	312,190
Percent change from 1994–95 to 2004–05	†	†	†	†	†
Percent change from 2004–05 to 2014–15	35.2	62.6	5.3	28.1	2.6
<b>Associate's</b>					
1994–95	539,691	451,539	88,152	48,643	39,509
2004–05	696,660	547,519	149,141	45,344	103,797
2014–15	1,013,971	821,874	192,097	58,622	133,475
Percent change from 1994–95 to 2004–05	29.1	21.3	69.2	-6.8	162.7
Percent change from 2004–05 to 2014–15	45.5	50.1	28.8	29.3	28.6
<b>Bachelor's</b>					
1994–95	1,160,134	776,670	383,464	373,454	10,010
2004–05	1,439,264	932,443	506,821	457,963	48,858
2014–15	1,894,934	1,209,438	685,496	553,534	131,962
Percent change from 1994–95 to 2004–05	24.1	20.1	32.2	22.6	388.1
Percent change from 2004–05 to 2014–15	31.7	29.7	35.3	20.9	170.1
<b>Master's</b>					
1994–95	403,609	224,152	179,457	176,485	2,972
2004–05	580,151	291,505	288,646	253,564	35,082
2014–15	758,708	351,119	407,589	336,182	71,407
Percent change from 1994–95 to 2004–05	43.7	30.0	60.8	43.7	1,080.4
Percent change from 2004–05 to 2014–15	30.8	20.5	41.2	32.6	103.5
<b>Doctor's<sup>1</sup></b>					
1994–95	114,266	58,788	55,478	54,675	803
2004–05	134,387	67,511	66,876	65,278	1,598
2014–15	178,547	90,252	88,295	80,092	8,203
Percent change from 1994–95 to 2004–05	17.6	14.8	20.5	19.4	99.0
Percent change from 2004–05 to 2014–15	32.9	33.7	32.0	22.7	413.3

— Not available.

† Not applicable.

<sup>1</sup> Includes Ph.D., Ed.D., and comparable degrees at the doctoral level. Includes most degrees formerly classified as first-professional, such as M.D., D.D.S., and law degrees.

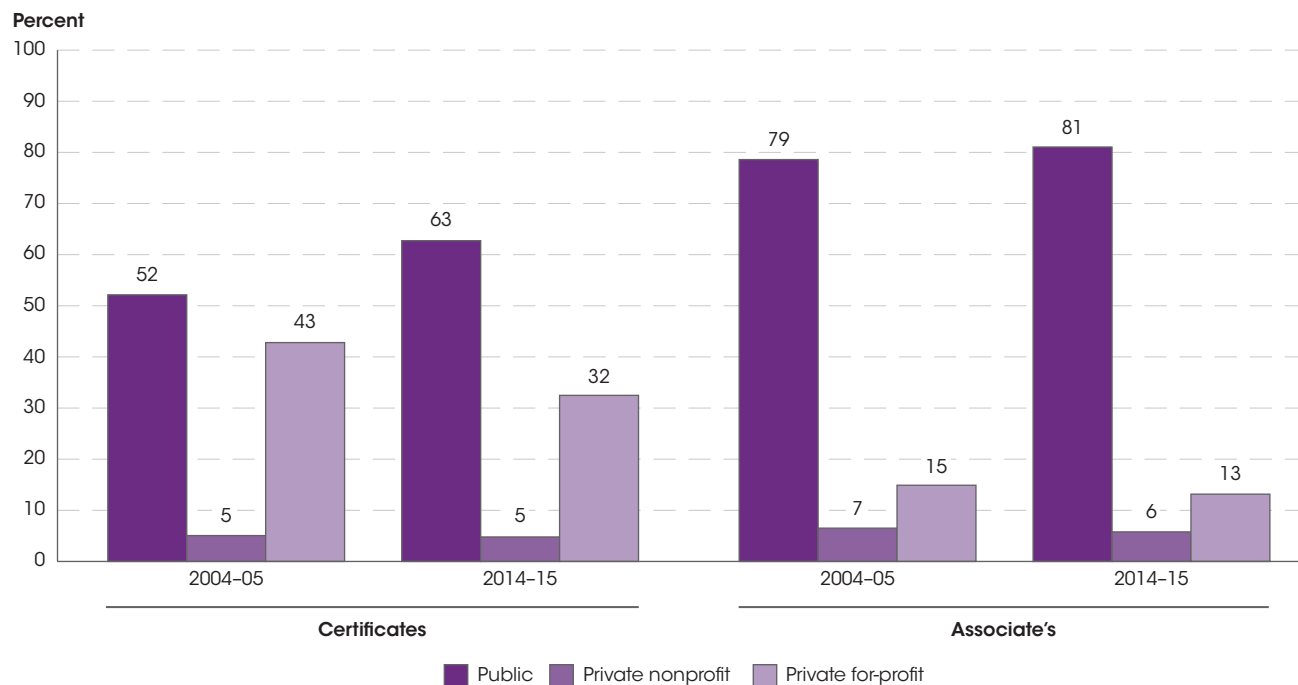
NOTE: Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions Survey" (IPEDS-C:94); and Fall 2005 and Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 318.40.

The number of postsecondary degrees and certificates conferred at each degree level increased between 2004–05 and 2014–15. The number of certificates below the associate’s degree level conferred during this period increased by 35 percent. The number of degrees conferred increased by 46 percent at the associate’s level, by 32 percent at the bachelor’s level, by 31 percent at the master’s level, and by 33 percent at the doctor’s level. At all levels except for master’s degrees, the percentage increases in the number of degrees conferred were greater

in the most recent 10-year period (from 2004–05 to 2014–15) than in the previous one (from 1994–95 to 2004–05).<sup>1</sup> For example, the total number of bachelor’s degrees increased by 32 percent from 2004–05 to 2014–15, compared with an increase of 24 percent from 1994–95 to 2004–05. Between 2013–14 to 2014–15, the total number of associate’s, bachelor’s, master’s, and doctor’s degrees conferred each increased by 1 percent, while the number of certificates conferred decreased by 1 percent.

**Figure 1. Percentage distribution of associate’s degrees and certificates below the associate’s degree level conferred by postsecondary institutions, by control of institution: Academic years 2004–05 and 2014–15**

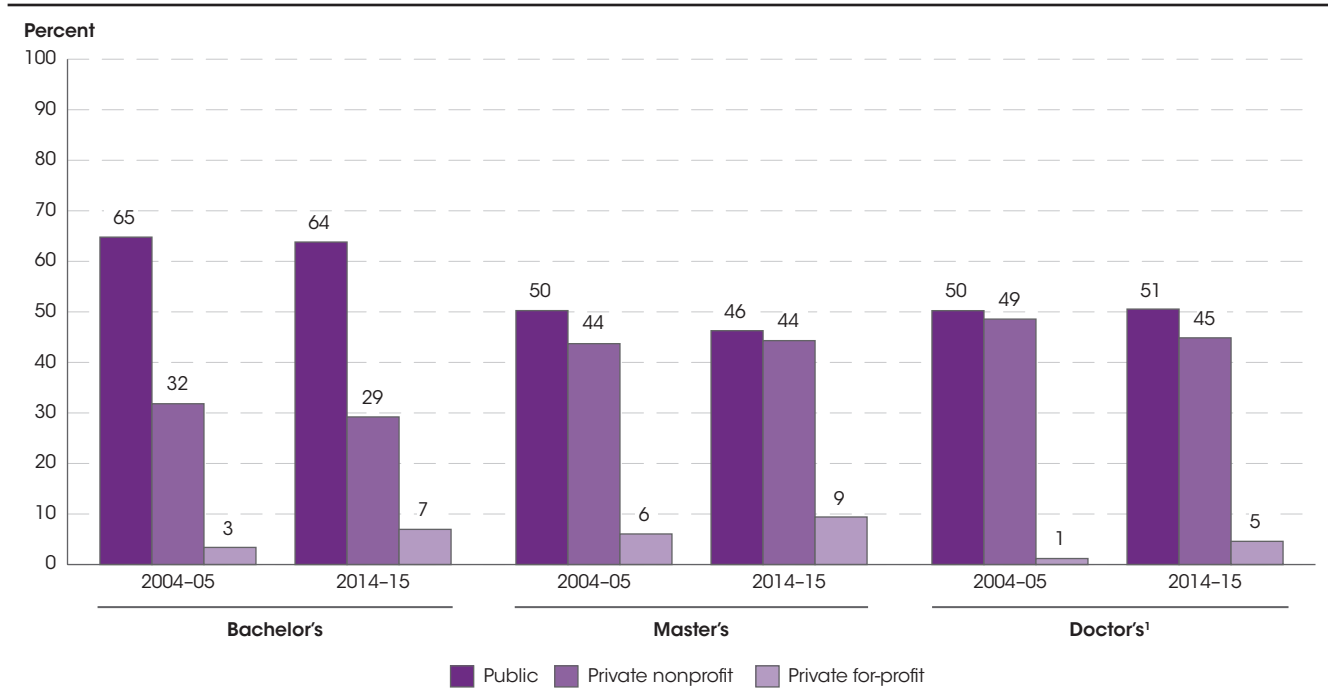


NOTE: Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Data for certificates are for certificates below the associate’s degree level. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2005 and Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 318.40.

From 2004–05 to 2014–15, the number of certificates below the associate’s level conferred by public institutions increased by 63 percent (from 371,000 to 603,000). The number of certificates conferred by private nonprofit institutions was 28 percent higher in 2014–15 (46,000) than in 2004–05 (36,000), and the number conferred by private for-profit institutions was 3 percent higher in 2014–15 (312,000) than in 2004–05 (304,000). As a result, over this period the proportion of all certificates conferred by public institutions also increased from 2004–05 (52 percent) to 2014–15 (63 percent). The proportion of certificates conferred by private nonprofit institutions was 5 percent in both 2014–15 and 2004–05, and the proportion conferred by private for-profit institutions was lower in 2014–15 (32 percent) than in 2004–05 (43 percent).

The number of associate’s degrees conferred increased from 2004–05 to 2014–15 by 50 percent for public institutions (from 548,000 to 822,000), by 29 percent for private nonprofit institutions (from 45,000 to 59,000), and by 29 percent for private for-profit institutions (from 104,000 to 133,000). The proportion of associate’s degrees conferred by public institutions was higher in 2014–15 (81 percent) than in 2004–05 (79 percent). By contrast, the proportion of all associate’s degrees conferred by private nonprofit institutions was lower in 2014–15 (6 percent) than in 2004–05 (7 percent), as was the proportion conferred by private for-profit institutions (13 percent in 2014–15 vs. 15 percent in 2004–05).

**Figure 2. Percentage distribution of bachelor's, master's, and doctor's degrees conferred by postsecondary institutions, by control of institution: Academic years 2004-05 and 2014-15**



<sup>1</sup> Includes Ph.D., Ed.D., and comparable degrees at the doctoral level. Includes most degrees formerly classified as first-professional, such as M.D., D.D.S., and law degrees.

NOTE: Data are for postsecondary institutions participating in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2005 and Fall 2015, Completions component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 318.40.

From 2004–05 to 2014–15, the number of bachelor’s degrees conferred by public institutions increased by 30 percent (from 932,000 to 1.2 million), the number conferred by private nonprofit institutions increased by 21 percent (from 458,000 to 554,000), and the number conferred by private for-profit institutions increased by 170 percent (from 49,000 to 132,000). As a result, over this period the proportion of all bachelor’s degrees conferred by public institutions decreased (from 65 to 64 percent), as did the proportion conferred by private nonprofit institutions (from 32 to 29 percent), and the proportion conferred by private for-profit institutions increased (from 3 to 7 percent).

The number of master’s degrees conferred by public institutions from 2004–05 to 2014–15 increased by 20 percent (from 292,000 to 351,000), although the percentage of all master’s degrees conferred by these institutions declined from 50 to 46 percent over this period. While the number of master’s degrees conferred by private nonprofit institutions increased by 33 percent

(from 254,000 to 336,000) over the period, the percentage of all master’s degrees conferred by these institutions was 44 percent at both the beginning and the end of the period. In contrast, the number of master’s degrees conferred by private for-profit institutions increased by 104 percent (from 35,000 to 71,000) over the period, resulting in an increase in these institutions’ proportion of total master’s degrees conferred, from 6 to 9 percent.

From 2004–05 to 2014–15, the number of doctor’s degrees conferred increased by 34 percent at public institutions (from 68,000 to 90,000), by 23 percent at private nonprofit institutions (from 65,000 to 80,000), and by 413 percent at private for-profit institutions (from 2,000 to 8,000). At public institutions, the proportion of doctor’s degrees conferred was 50 percent in 2004–05 and 51 percent in 2014–15. At private nonprofit institutions, the proportion of all doctor’s degrees conferred decreased over the period (from 49 to 45 percent), while at private for-profit institutions, the proportion conferred increased (from 1 to 5 percent).

**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> The number of certificates below the associate’s level conferred in 1994–95 is not available; therefore, certificates are not included in these comparisons.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 318.40

**Related indicators and resources:** Undergraduate Degree Fields, Graduate Degree Fields

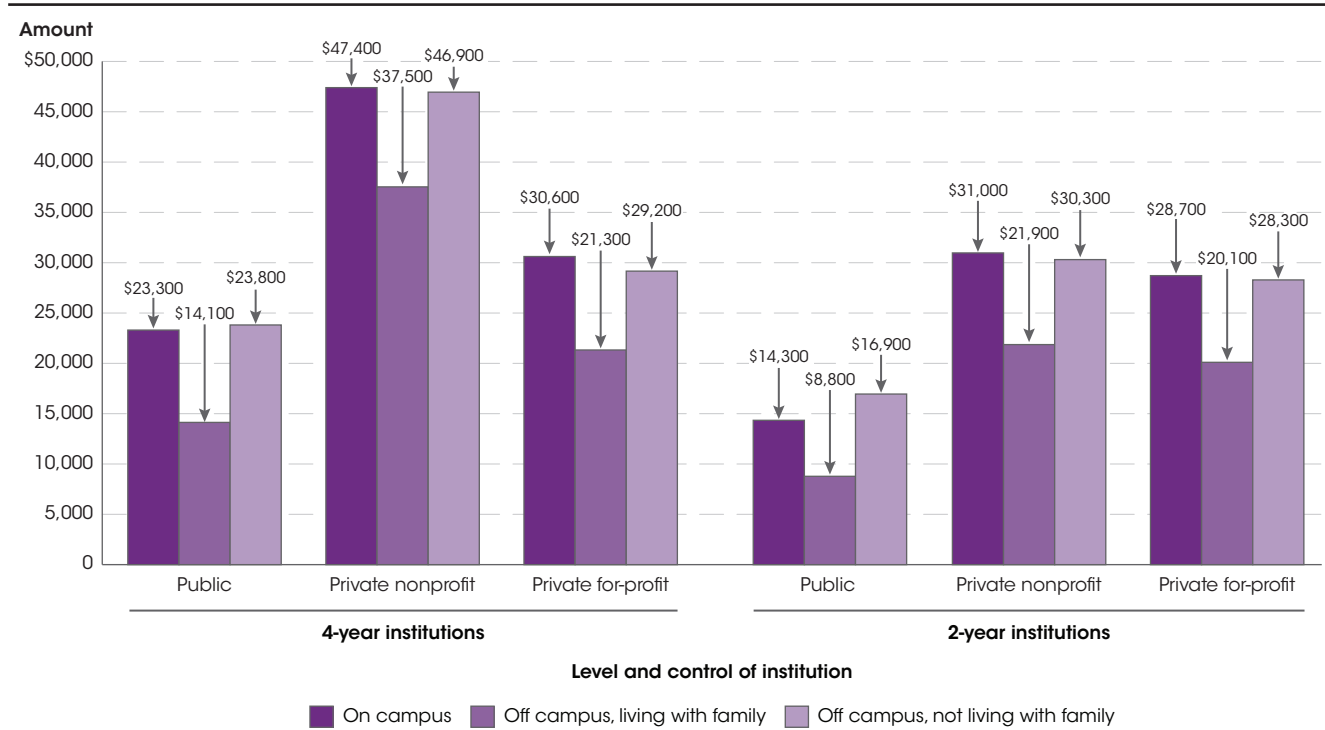
**Glossary:** Associate’s degree, Bachelor’s degree, Certificate, Control of institution, Doctor’s degree, Master’s degree, Private institution, Public school or institution

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## Price of Attending an Undergraduate Institution

In 2014–15, the average net price of attendance (total cost minus grant and scholarship aid) at 4-year institutions for first-time, full-time undergraduate students (in constant 2015–16 dollars) was \$25,400 at private nonprofit institutions, \$21,500 at private for-profit institutions, and \$13,200 at public institutions.

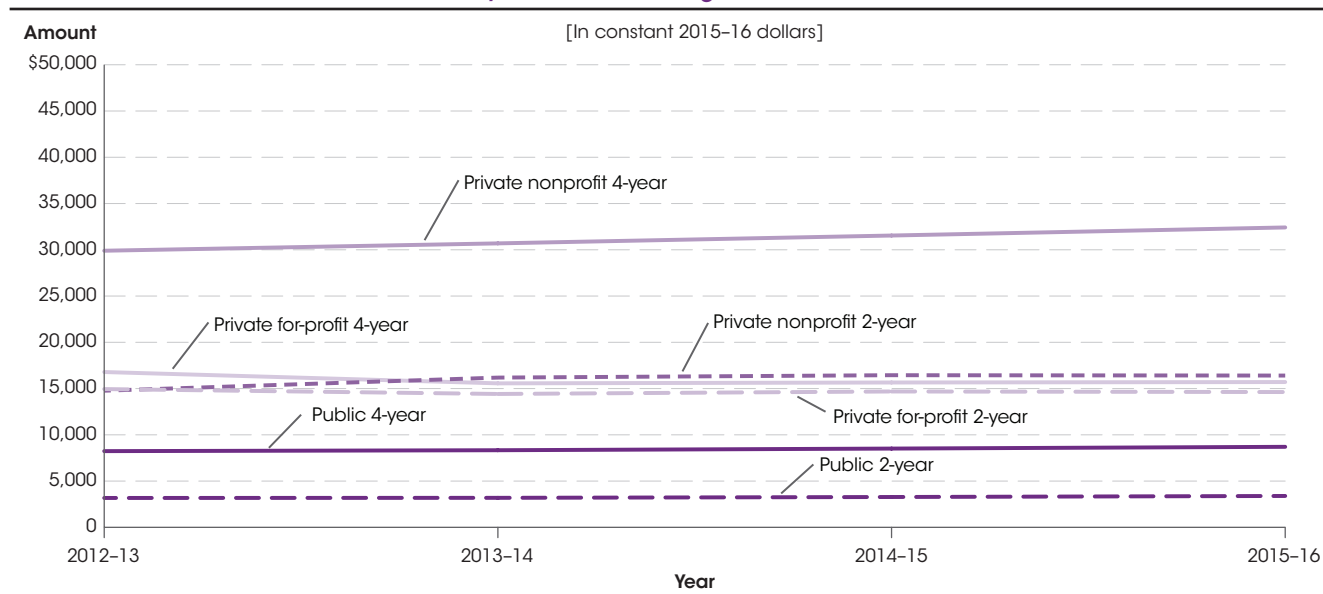
Figure 1. Average total cost of attending degree-granting institutions for first-time, full-time undergraduate students, by level and control of institution and student living arrangement: Academic year 2015–16



NOTE: The total cost of attending a postsecondary institution includes tuition and required fees, books and supplies, and the average cost for room, board, and other expenses. Tuition and fees at public institutions are the lower of either in-district or in-state tuition and fees. Excludes students who have already attended another postsecondary institution or who began their studies on a part-time basis. Data are weighted by the number of students at the institution receiving Title IV aid. Title IV aid includes grant aid, work-study aid, and loan aid.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component; and Fall 2015, Institutional Characteristics component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 330.40.

The total cost of attending a postsecondary institution includes tuition and required fees, books and supplies, and the average cost for room, board, and other expenses. In academic year 2015–16, the total cost of attendance for first-time, full-time undergraduate students<sup>1</sup> differed by institution control (public,<sup>2</sup> private nonprofit, and private for-profit) and institution level (2- year and 4-year). In addition, the total cost of attendance varied by student living arrangement (on campus, off-campus living with family, and off-campus not living with family). The average total cost of attendance for students living on campus ranged from \$14,300 at public 2-year institutions

to \$47,400 at private nonprofit 4-year institutions. The average total cost of attendance was higher at private nonprofit institutions than at private for-profit institutions, which was in turn higher than at public institutions. At every institutional control category and level, the average total cost of attendance was lowest for students living with family. For example, for students at public 2-year institutions living with family, the average total cost of attendance was \$8,800, compared with \$14,300 for students living on campus and \$16,900 for students living off campus but not with family.

**Figure 2. Average tuition and fees of degree-granting institutions for first-time, full-time undergraduate students, by control and level of institution: Academic years 2012–13 through 2015–16**

NOTE: Tuition and fees at public institutions are the lower of either in-district or in-state tuition and fees. Excludes students who have already attended another postsecondary institution or who began their studies on a part-time basis. Data are weighted by the number of students at the institution receiving Title IV aid. Title IV aid includes grant aid, work-study aid, and loan aid. Constant dollars based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, adjusted to an academic-year basis.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2012–13 through Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component; and Fall 2012 through Fall 2015, Institutional Characteristics component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 330.40.

Average undergraduate tuition and fees (in constant 2015–16 dollars) for first-time, full-time undergraduate students attending 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions were higher in 2015–16 than in 2012–13 at both public and private nonprofit institutions. In 2015–16, public 4-year institutions reported average tuition and fees of \$8,700—a 6 percent increase over the 2012–13 amount (\$8,200). Among 4-year institutions, private nonprofit institutions had the largest percentage increase in tuition and fees (8 percent, from \$29,900 to \$32,400) during this period. At private for-profit 4-year institutions, however, tuition and fees were 6 percent lower in 2015–16 (\$15,700) than in 2012–13 (\$16,800). Similar to public 4-year institutions, public 2-year institutions reported an increase in average undergraduate tuition and fees in 2015–16 over the 2012–13 amount (7 percent, from \$3,200 to \$3,400). At private nonprofit 2-year institutions, tuition and fees were 11 percent higher in 2015–16 (\$16,400) than in 2012–13 (\$14,800). In contrast, tuition and fees at private for-profit 2-year institutions in 2015–16 were 2 percent lower than in 2012–13 (\$14,600 vs. \$14,900).

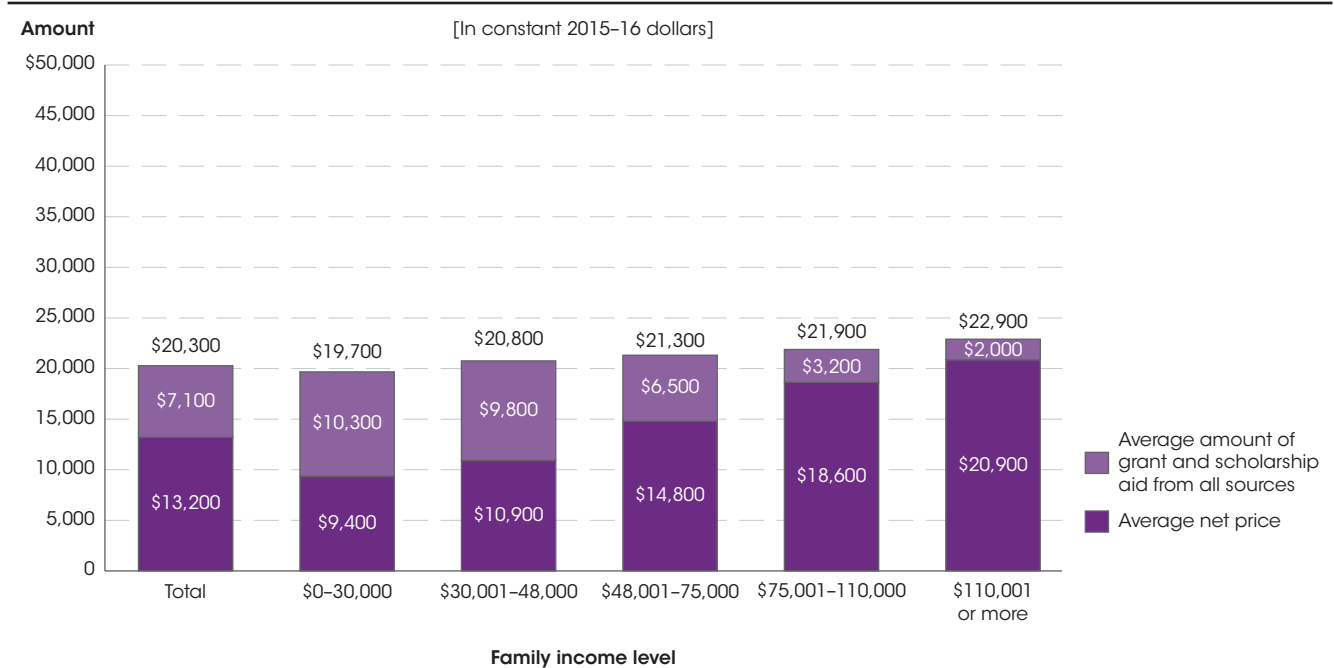
Many students and their families pay less than the full price of attendance because they receive financial aid to help cover expenses. The primary types of financial aid are grant and scholarship aid, which do not have to be repaid, and loans, which must be repaid. Grant and scholarship aid may be awarded on the basis of financial need, merit,

or both, and may include tuition aid from employers. In 2014–15, the average amount of grant and scholarship aid for first-time, full-time undergraduate students who received Title IV aid<sup>3</sup> (in constant 2015–16 dollars) was higher for students at private nonprofit institutions than for those at public and private for-profit institutions. Students at private nonprofit 4-year institutions received an average of \$20,100 in grant and scholarship aid, compared with \$7,100 at public and \$5,200 at private for-profit 4-year institutions.

The net price of attendance is the estimate of the actual amount of money that students and their families need to pay in a given year to cover educational expenses. Net price is calculated here as the total cost of attendance minus grant and scholarship aid. Net price provides an indication of what the actual financial burden is upon students and their families.

In 2014–15, among 4-year institutions, the average net price of attendance for first-time, full-time undergraduate students who received Title IV aid (in constant 2015–16 dollars) was lower for students at public institutions (\$13,200) than for those at both private nonprofit (\$25,400) and private for-profit (\$21,500) institutions. Similarly, the average net price at 2-year institutions in 2014–15 was lowest at public institutions (\$7,100) and highest at private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions (\$20,500 and \$20,700 respectively).

**Figure 3. Average total cost, net price, and grant and scholarship aid for first-time, full-time undergraduate students paying in-state tuition and receiving aid at public 4-year institutions, by family income level: Academic year 2014–15**



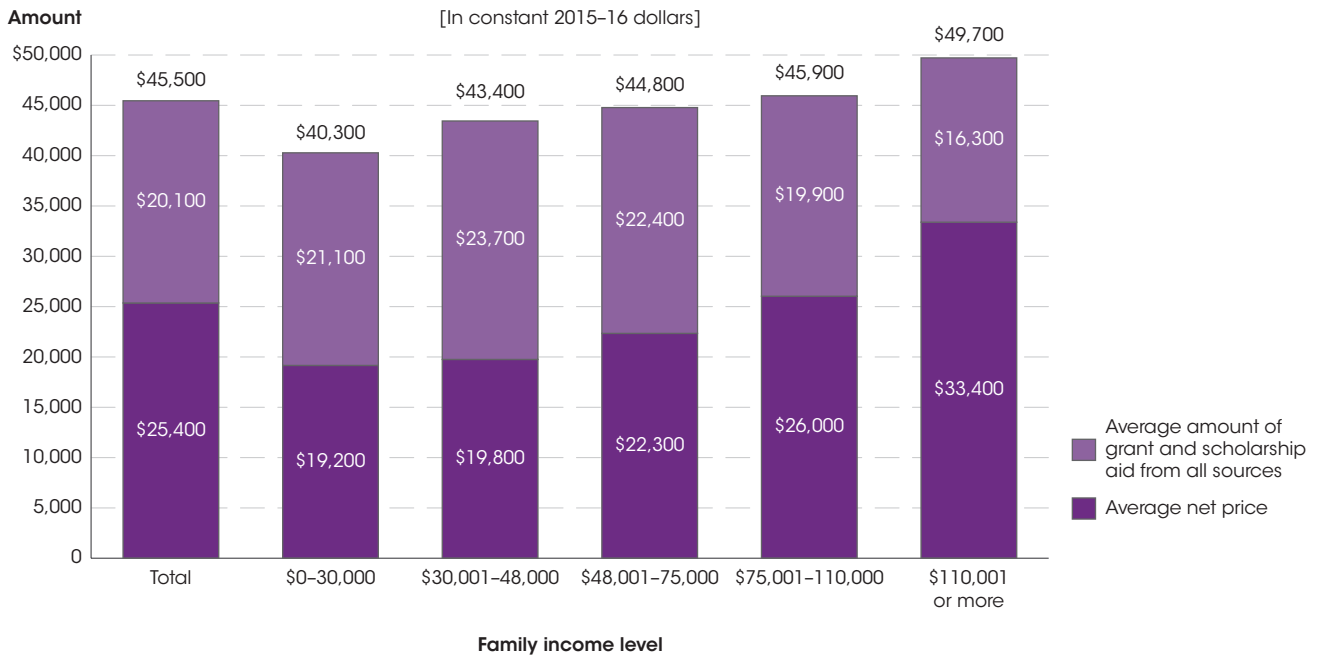
NOTE: Excludes students who previously attended another postsecondary institution or who began their studies on a part-time basis. Net price is calculated here as the average total cost of attendance minus average grant and scholarship aid. Includes only first-time, full-time students who paid the in-state or in-district tuition rate and who received Title IV aid. Excludes the 17 percent of students who did not receive any Title IV aid. Title IV aid includes grant aid, work-study aid, and loan aid. Data are weighted by the number of students at the institution receiving Title IV aid. Totals include students for whom income data were not available. Constant dollars based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, adjusted to an academic-year basis. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.30.

The average amount of grant and scholarship aid received and the net price paid (in constant 2015–16 dollars) differed by students’ family income level. In general, the lower the income, the greater the average amount of grant and scholarship aid received. For example, at public 4-year institutions, the average amount of grant and scholarship aid received by first-time, full-time undergraduate students paying in-state tuition in 2014–15 was highest

for those with family incomes of \$30,000 or less (\$10,300 in aid) and lowest for those with family incomes of \$110,001 or more (\$2,000 in aid). Accordingly, the lowest average net price (\$9,400) was for students with family incomes of \$30,000 or less, and the highest average net price (\$20,900) was for those with family incomes of \$110,001 or more.



**Figure 4. Average total cost, net price, and grant and scholarship aid for first-time, full-time undergraduate students receiving aid at private nonprofit 4-year institutions, by family income level: Academic year 2014-15**

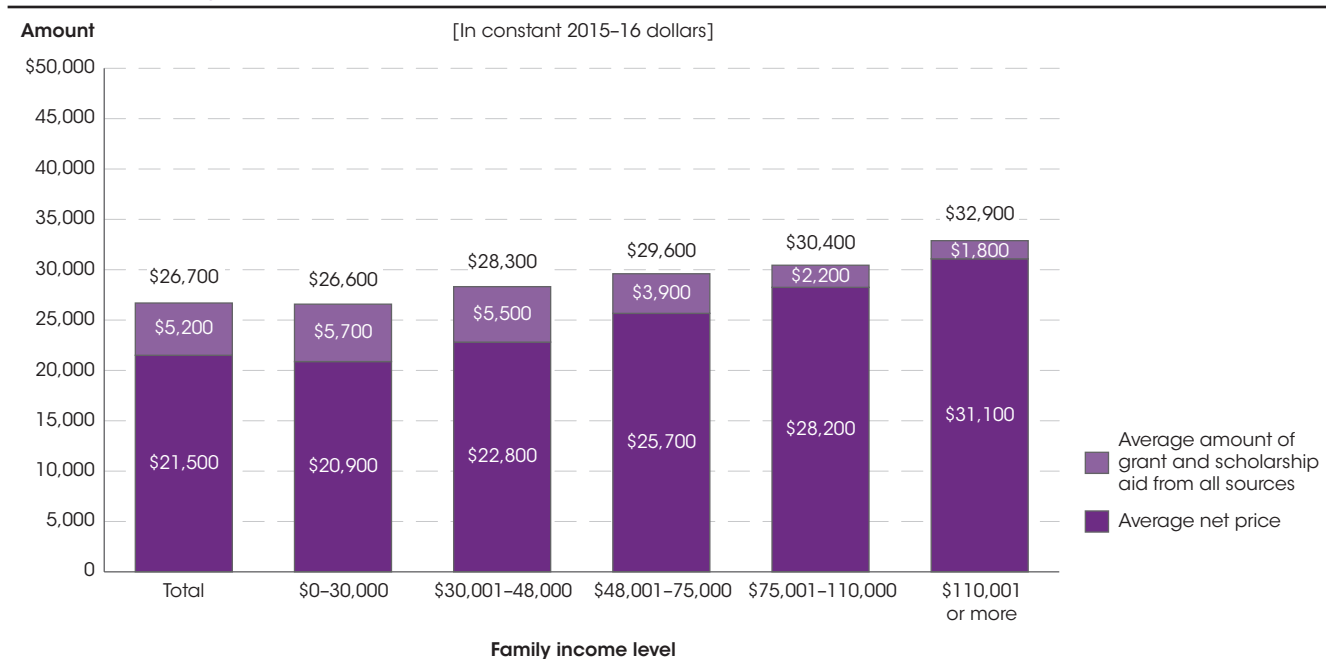


NOTE: Excludes students who previously attended another postsecondary institution or who began their studies on a part-time basis. Net price is calculated here as the average total cost of attendance minus average grant and scholarship aid. Includes only first-time, full-time students who received Title IV aid. Excludes the 17 percent of students who did not receive any Title IV aid. Title IV aid includes grant aid, work-study aid, and loan aid. Data are weighted by the number of students at the institution receiving Title IV aid. Totals include students for whom income data were not available. Constant dollars based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, adjusted to an academic-year basis. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015-16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.30.

The pattern of average net price increasing with family income was also observed at private nonprofit 4-year institutions. However, in 2014-15 the average amount of grant and scholarship aid received (in constant 2015-16 dollars) followed a different pattern. It was highest for students with family incomes between \$30,001 and

\$48,000 (\$23,700 in aid), followed by those with family incomes between \$48,001 and \$75,000 (\$22,400 in aid), those with family incomes of \$30,000 or less (\$21,100 in aid), those with family incomes between \$75,001 and \$110,000 (\$19,900 in aid), and those with family incomes of \$110,001 or more (\$16,300 in aid).

**Figure 5. Average total cost, net price, and grant and scholarship aid for first-time, full-time undergraduate students receiving aid at private for-profit 4-year institutions, by family income level: Academic year 2014–15**

NOTE: Excludes students who previously attended another postsecondary institution or who began their studies on a part-time basis. Net price is calculated here as the average total cost of attendance minus average grant and scholarship aid. Includes only first-time, full-time students who received Title IV aid. Excludes the 17 percent of students who did not receive any Title IV aid. Title IV aid includes grant aid, work-study aid, and loan aid. Data are weighted by the number of students at the institution receiving Title IV aid. Totals include students for whom income data were not available. Constant dollars based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, adjusted to an academic-year basis. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.30.

At private for-profit 4-year institutions, the average amount of grant and scholarship aid received (in constant 2015–16 dollars) followed the pattern of public 4-year institutions: the lower the family income level, the greater the average amount of grant and scholarship aid received. The average amount of grant and scholarship aid received by first-time, full-time undergraduate students in 2014–15 was highest for those with family incomes of \$30,000 or less (\$5,700 in aid) and lowest for those with family incomes of \$110,001 or more (\$1,800 in aid). The lowest average net price (\$20,900) was for students with family incomes of \$30,000 or less, and the highest average net price (\$31,100) was for those with family incomes of \$110,001 or more.

In addition to the differences observed for each institution type by family income level, the average amount of grant and scholarship aid received and the average net price of attendance (in constant 2015–16 dollars) also varied

among 4-year institutions by institution control. At each family income level, the average amount of grant and scholarship aid was highest for students at private nonprofit institutions and lowest for students at private for-profit institutions. Additionally, at each family income level except the highest level (\$110,001 or more), the average net price was highest for students at private for-profit institutions and lowest for students at public institutions. For example, the average amount of grant and scholarship aid received by students attending 4-year institutions with family incomes between \$30,001 and \$48,000 was highest at private nonprofit institutions (\$23,700), followed by public institutions (\$9,800) and private for-profit institutions (\$5,500). The average net price of attending a private for-profit 4-year institution (\$22,800) at this income level was higher than the price of attending a private nonprofit (\$19,800) or a public 4-year institution (\$10,900).

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Includes only students who are seeking a degree or certificate.

<sup>2</sup> All data for public institutions only include students who paid the in-state or in-district tuition and fees.

<sup>3</sup> Title IV aid includes grant aid, work-study aid, and loan aid.

All net price and grant and scholarship aid data only include students who received Title IV aid.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 330.40 and 331.30

**Related indicators and resources:** Loans for Undergraduate Students, Sources of Financial Aid, Financing Postsecondary Education in the United States [*The Condition of Education 2013 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Constant dollars, Control of institutions, Financial aid, Full-time enrollment, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Title IV eligible institution, Tuition and fees, Undergraduate students

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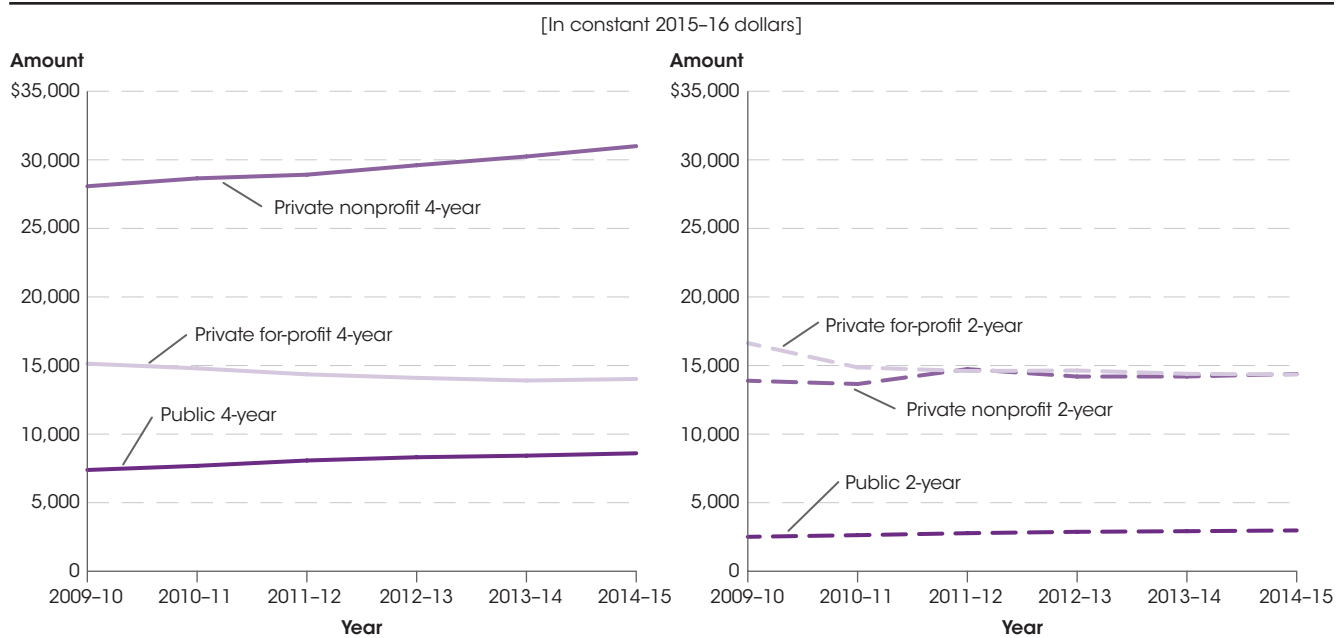
## Loans for Undergraduate Students

In 2014–15, the average annual undergraduate student loan amount of \$7,000 was 10 percent lower than the 2009–10 average of \$7,700 (in constant 2015–16 dollars). For undergraduate students ages 18 to 24 in their 4th year of college or above, the average cumulative amount borrowed was \$26,600 in 2011–12 (in constant 2015–16 dollars).

To help offset the cost of attending a postsecondary institution, Title IV of the Higher Education Act of 1965 authorized several student financial assistance programs—namely, federal grants, loans, and work study. The largest federal loan program is the William D. Ford Federal Direct Loan Program, established in 2010, for which the federal government is the lender. Interest on the loans provided

under the Direct Loan Program may be subsidized, based on need, while the recipient is in school. Other types of student loans include institutional loans and private loans. Most loans are payable over 10 years, beginning 6 months after the student does one of the following: graduates, drops below half-time enrollment, or withdraws from the academic program.

**Figure 1. Average undergraduate tuition and fees for full-time students at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control and level of institution: 2009–10 through 2014–15**



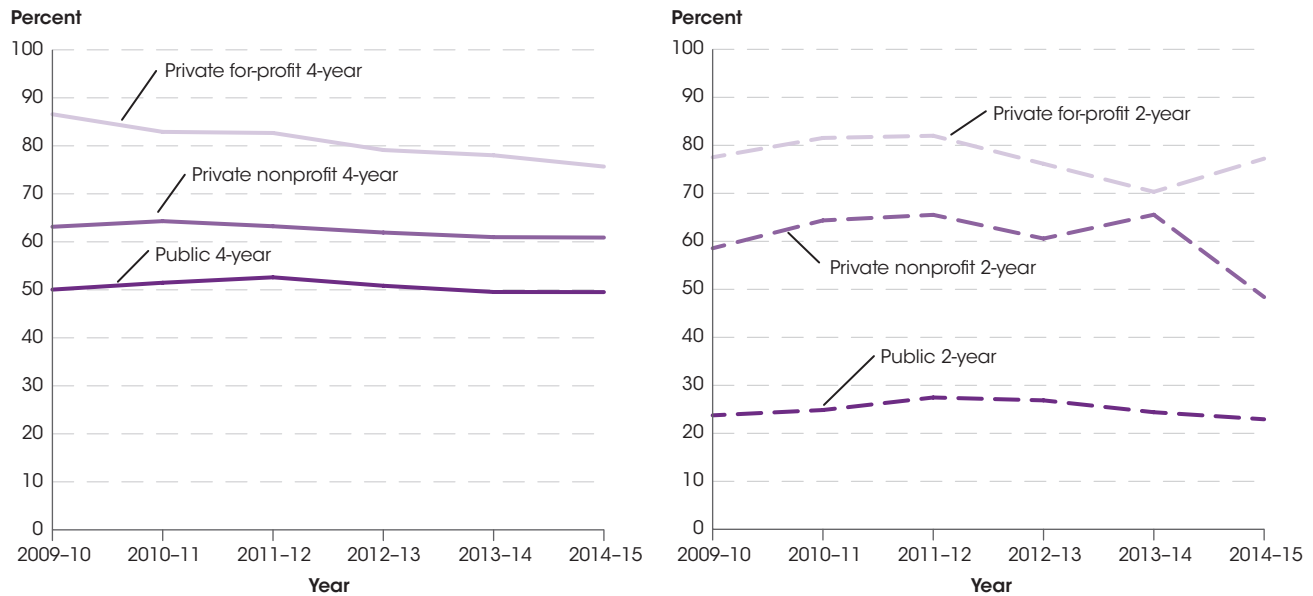
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. For public institutions, in-state tuition and required fees are used. Data for private 2-year institutions must be interpreted with caution because of their low response rate. Tuition and fees were weighted by the number of full-time-equivalent undergraduates. Constant dollars are based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, adjusted to a school-year basis.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Fall 2006 through Fall 2014, Institutional Characteristics component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 330.10.

Between academic years 2009–10 and 2014–15, average undergraduate tuition and fees for full-time students across all degree-granting postsecondary institutions increased by 15 percent, from \$10,000 to \$11,600.<sup>1</sup> Among 4-year institutions, the largest percentage increase in tuition and fees between 2009–10 and 2014–15 was at public institutions (16 percent, from \$7,400 to \$8,600); however, the largest dollar amount increase was at private nonprofit institutions (a \$2,900 increase, from \$28,100 to \$31,000). By contrast, tuition and fees at private for-profit 4-year institutions decreased by 7 percent between 2009–10 and 2014–15 (from \$15,100 to \$14,000).

As at 4-year institutions, the largest percentage increase in tuition and fees among 2-year institutions during this period was at public institutions (19 percent, from \$2,500 to \$3,000). Tuition and fees at private nonprofit 2-year institutions were 4 percent higher in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 (\$14,400 versus \$13,900). By contrast, tuition and fees at private for-profit 2-year institutions were 14 percent lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 (\$16,600 versus \$14,300).

**Figure 2. Percentage of first-time, full-time students awarded loan aid at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control and level of institution: 2009–10 through 2014–15**



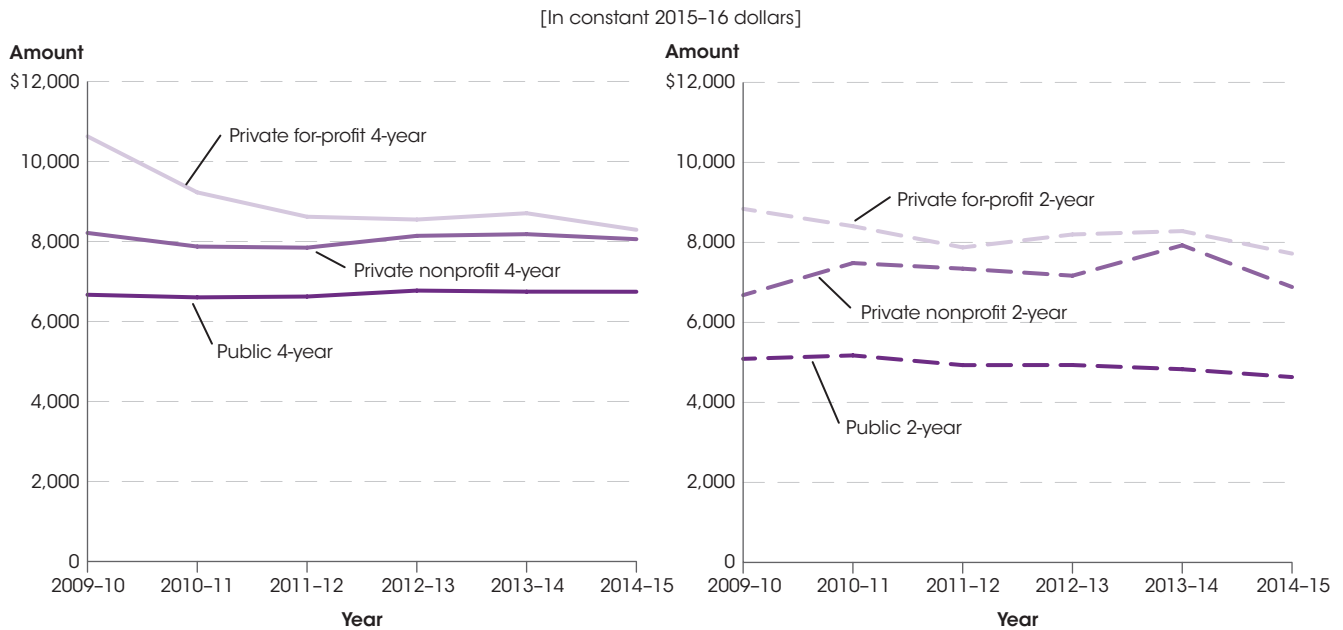
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Data in 2009–10 are for students receiving aid, while later data are for students awarded aid. Students receiving aid are those who were not only awarded aid, but also accepted it. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. Includes only loans made directly to students; does not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2008 through Spring 2011 and Winter 2011–12 through Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2014* and *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20.

Nearly half (47 percent) of first-time, full-time undergraduate students were awarded loan aid in 2014–15, about 4 percentage points less than in 2009–10.<sup>2</sup> The percentage of students awarded loan aid was lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 at all institution types. Among 4-year institutions, the largest decrease in the percentage of students awarded loan aid was at private for-profit institutions (11 percentage points), from 87 percent in 2009–10 to 76 percent in 2014–15. At public 4-year institutions, the percentage of undergraduates awarded loans was about 1 percentage point lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10. Likewise, at private nonprofit 4-year institutions, the percentage of undergraduates awarded

loans decreased by 2 percentage points from 2009–10 (63 percent) to 2014–15 (61 percent). Among 2-year institutions, the percentage of students awarded loans was about 1 percentage point lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 at public institutions (23 percent compared to 24 percent). Likewise, at private for-profit 2-year institutions, the percentage of undergraduates awarded loans was less than half of a percentage point lower in 2014–15 (77 percent) than in 2009–10 (78 percent). The percentage of undergraduates awarded loans at private nonprofit 2-year institutions was about 10 percentage points lower in 2014–15 (48 percent) than in 2009–10 (59 percent).

**Figure 3. Average annual loan amounts for first-time, full-time students awarded loan aid at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control and level of institution: 2009–10 through 2014–15**

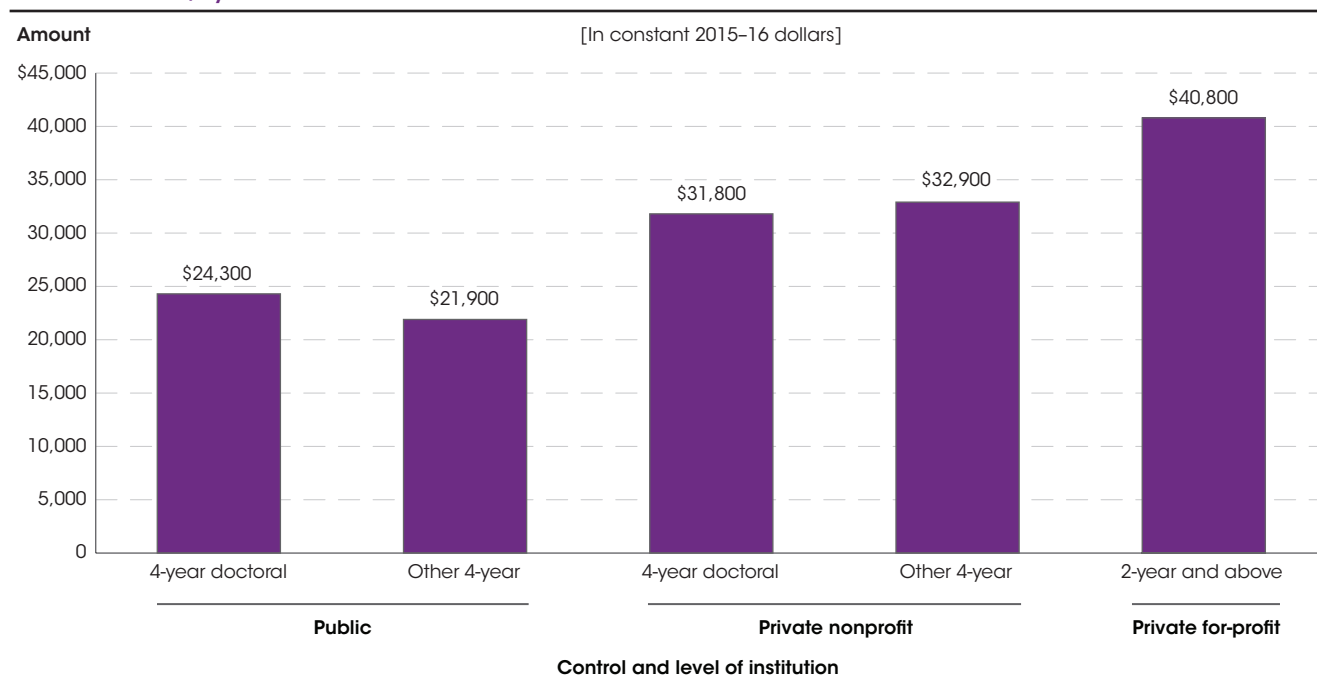


NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Data in 2009–10 are for students receiving aid, while later data are for students awarded aid. Students receiving aid are those who were not only awarded aid, but also accepted it. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. Includes only loans made directly to students; does not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents. Constant dollars are based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, adjusted to a school-year basis.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2010 through Spring 2011 and Winter 2011–12 through Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20.

Overall, the average loan amount that undergraduate students were awarded in 2014–15 was 10 percent lower than in 2009–10. Average annual student loan amounts for first-time, full-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students awarded loan aid were \$7,700 in 2009–10 and \$7,000 in 2014–15.<sup>1</sup> At public 4-year institutions, average loan amounts were 1 percent higher in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 (the amounts for both years round to \$6,700). At private nonprofit 2-year institutions, average loan amounts were 3 percent higher in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 (\$6,900 compared to \$6,700). The largest percentage decrease in loan amount between

2009–10 and 2014–15 was at private for-profit 4-year institutions (22 percent, from \$10,600 to \$8,300). The average annual loan amount was 13 percent lower at private for-profit 2-year institutions in 2014–15 (\$7,700) than it was in 2009–10 (\$8,800), 9 percent lower at public 2-year institutions (\$4,600 compared with \$5,100), and 2 percent lower at private nonprofit 4-year institutions (\$8,100 compared with \$8,200). Among all types of institutions, students at private for-profit 4-year institutions had the largest average annual student loan amount in 2014–15 (\$8,300).

**Figure 4. Average cumulative amount borrowed for undergraduate students ages 18 to 24 in their 4th (senior) year or above, by control and level of institution: 2011–12**

NOTE: Total amount borrowed excludes Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and loans from family and friends. Average loan amounts were calculated only for students who took out a loan. Data exclude Puerto Rico. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. Constant dollars are based on the Consumer Price Index, prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, adjusted to a school-year basis. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2011–12 National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS:12). See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.95.

For undergraduate students ages 18 to 24 in their 4th year of college or above, the average cumulative amount borrowed in 2011–12 was \$26,600.<sup>1,3</sup> This amount varied by control and level of institution. Students at private for-profit 2-year and above institutions borrowed the most, with an average cumulative loan amount of \$40,800. Students at public 4-year nondoctoral institutions

borrowed the least, with an average cumulative loan amount of \$21,900. Students at public 4-year doctoral institutions borrowed an average cumulative loan amount of \$24,300, students at private nonprofit 4-year doctoral institutions borrowed \$31,800, and students at private nonprofit 4-year nondoctoral institutions borrowed \$32,900.

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> Dollar amounts are expressed in constant 2015–16 dollars.

<sup>2</sup> Data in 2009–10 are for students receiving aid, while later data are for students awarded aid. Students receiving aid are those who were not only awarded aid, but also accepted it.

<sup>3</sup> Cumulative amount borrowed excludes loans from family and friends. Average cumulative loan amounts were calculated only for students who took out a loan and do not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS).

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2014*, table 331.20; *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 330.10, 331.20, and 331.95

**Related indicators and resources:** Price of Attending an Undergraduate Institution, Sources of Financial Aid, Financing Postsecondary Education in the United States [*The Condition of Education 2013 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Certificate, College, Constant dollars, Control of institutions, Doctor's degree, Full-time enrollment, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Title IV eligible institution, Tuition and fees, Undergraduate students

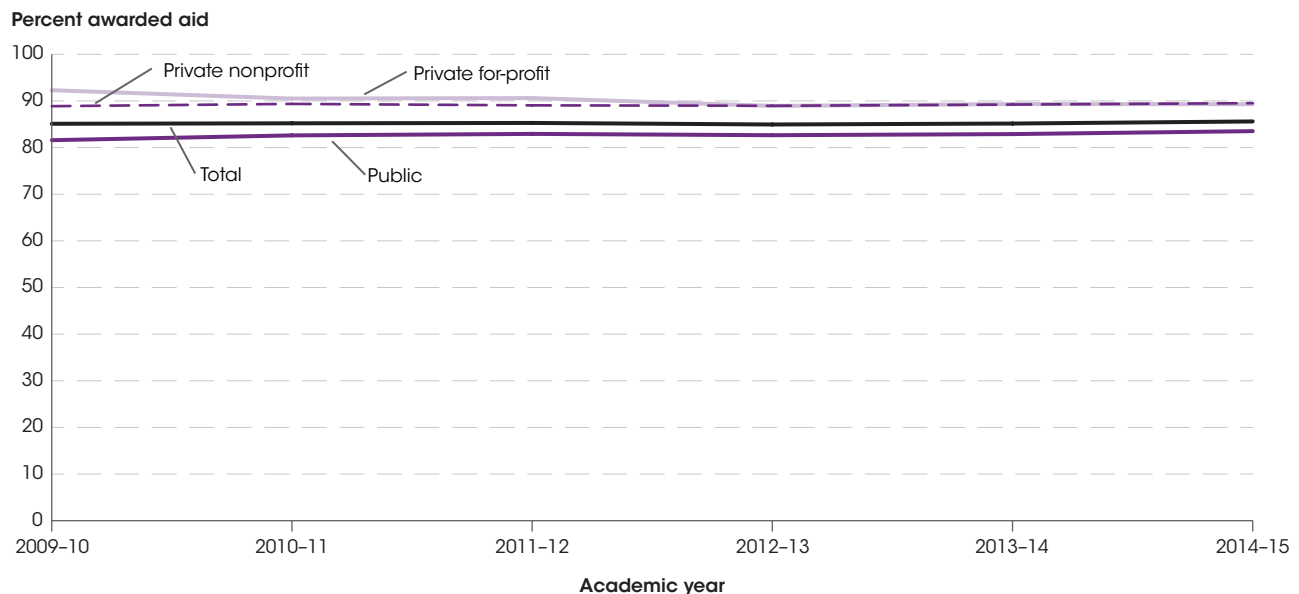
## Sources of Financial Aid

The percentage of first-time, full-time undergraduate students at 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions awarded financial aid was higher in 2014–15 (86 percent) than in 2009–10 (85 percent).

Grants and loans are the major forms of federal financial aid for degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students. The largest federal grant program available to undergraduate students is the Pell Grant program. In order to qualify for a Pell Grant, a student must demonstrate financial need. Federal loans, on the other hand, are available to all students. In addition to federal financial aid, grants from state and local governments,

institutions, and private sources are available, as are private loans. The forms of financial aid discussed in this indicator are only those provided directly to students. For example, student loans include only loans made directly to students; they do not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents.

**Figure 1. Percentage of first-time, full-time undergraduate students awarded financial aid at 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control of institution: Academic years 2009–10 through 2014–15**



NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. Student financial aid includes any Federal Work-Study, loans to students, and grant or scholarship aid from the federal government, state/local government, the institution, and other sources known to the institution. Student loans include only loans made directly to students; they do not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents. For academic year 2009–10, the percentage represents students receiving aid, rather than students awarded aid.

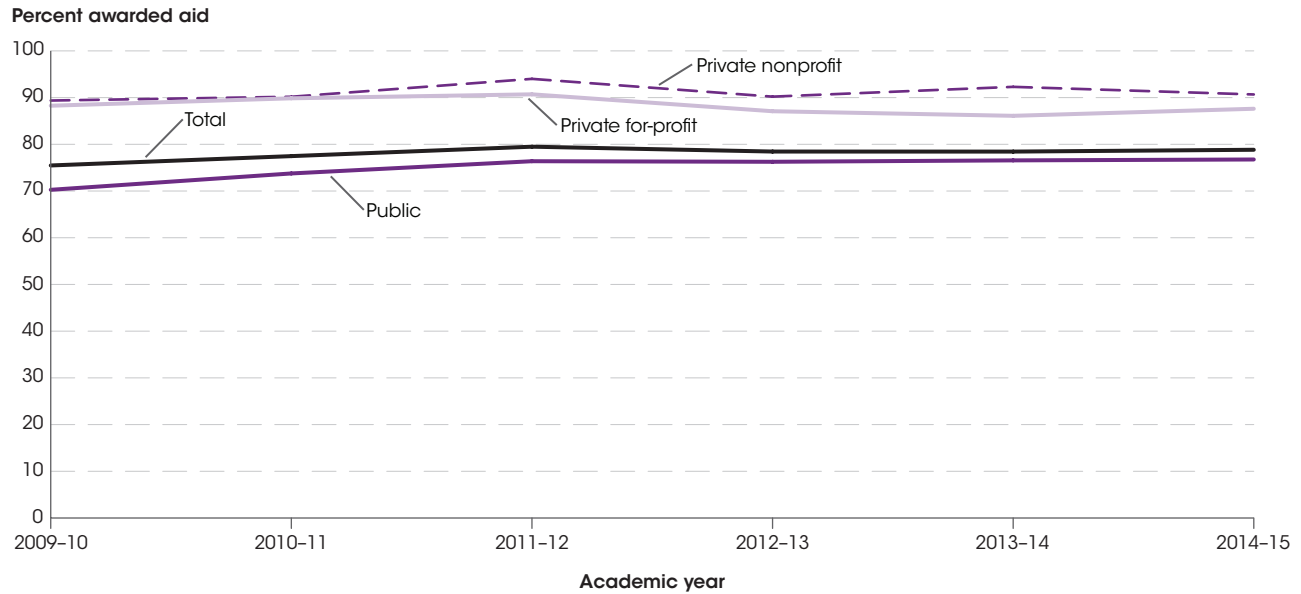
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2011 and Winter 2011–12 through Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20.

At 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, the percentage of first-time, full-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students who were awarded financial aid was higher in academic year 2014–15 (86 percent) than in 2009–10 (85 percent).<sup>1</sup> The percentages of students awarded aid at public and private nonprofit 4-year institutions were also higher in 2014–15

than in 2009–10. In 2014–15, the percentages of students awarded aid were 84 percent at public 4-year institutions and 90 percent at private nonprofit 4-year institutions, compared with 82 and 89 percent, respectively, in 2009–10. The percentage of students awarded aid at private for-profit 4-year institutions, however, decreased between 2009–10 and 2014–15 from 92 to 89 percent.



**Figure 2. Percentage of first-time, full-time undergraduate students awarded financial aid at 2-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by control of institution: Academic years 2009–10 through 2014–15**



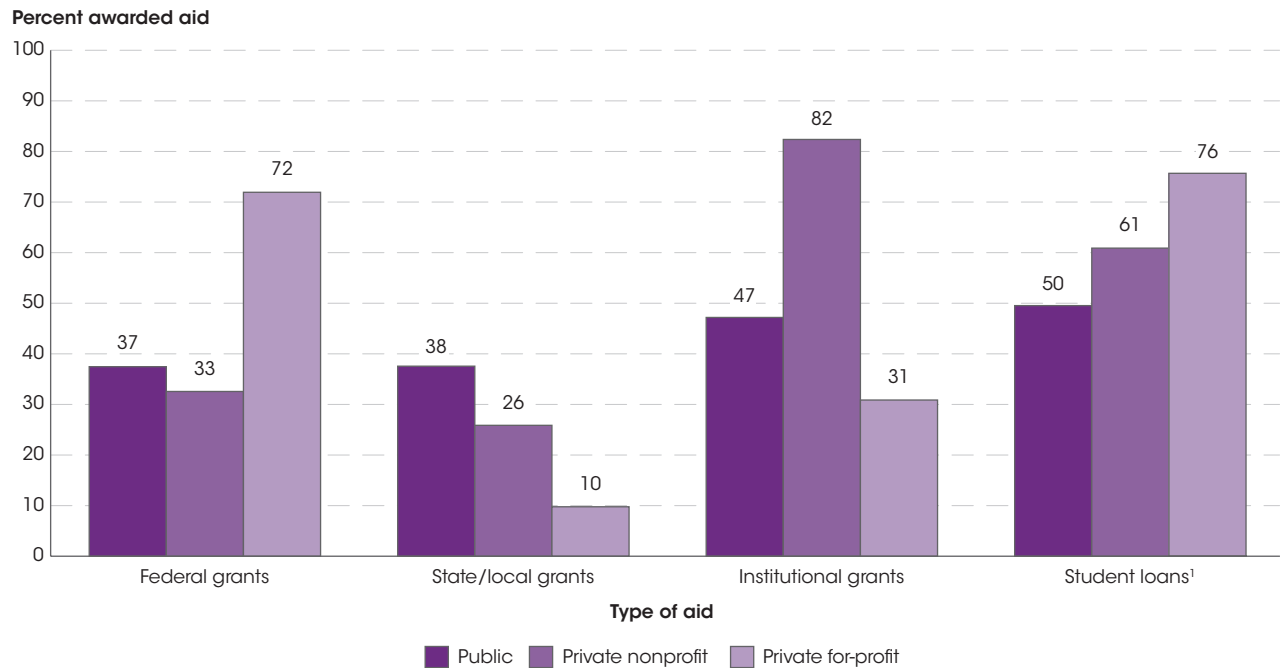
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. Student financial aid includes any Federal Work-Study, loans to students, and grant or scholarship aid from the federal government, state/local government, the institution, and other sources known to the institution. Student loans include only loans made directly to students; they do not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents. For academic year 2009–10, the percentage represents students receiving aid, rather than students awarded aid.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2011 and Winter 2011–12 through Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20.

At 2-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, the percentage of first-time, full-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students who were awarded financial aid was higher in 2014–15 (79 percent) than in 2009–10 (75 percent). Between 2009–10 and 2014–15, the percentage of students awarded aid at public 2-year institutions increased from 70 to 77 percent. At private

nonprofit 2-year institutions, the percentage of students awarded aid was also higher in 2014–15 (91 percent) than in 2009–10 (89 percent). At private for-profit 2-year institutions, however, the percentage of students awarded aid was about the same in 2014–15 as in 2009–10 (88 percent each).

**Figure 3. Percentage of first-time, full-time undergraduate students awarded grants and loans at 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by type of financial aid and control of institution: Academic year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Student loans include only loans made directly to students; they do not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents.

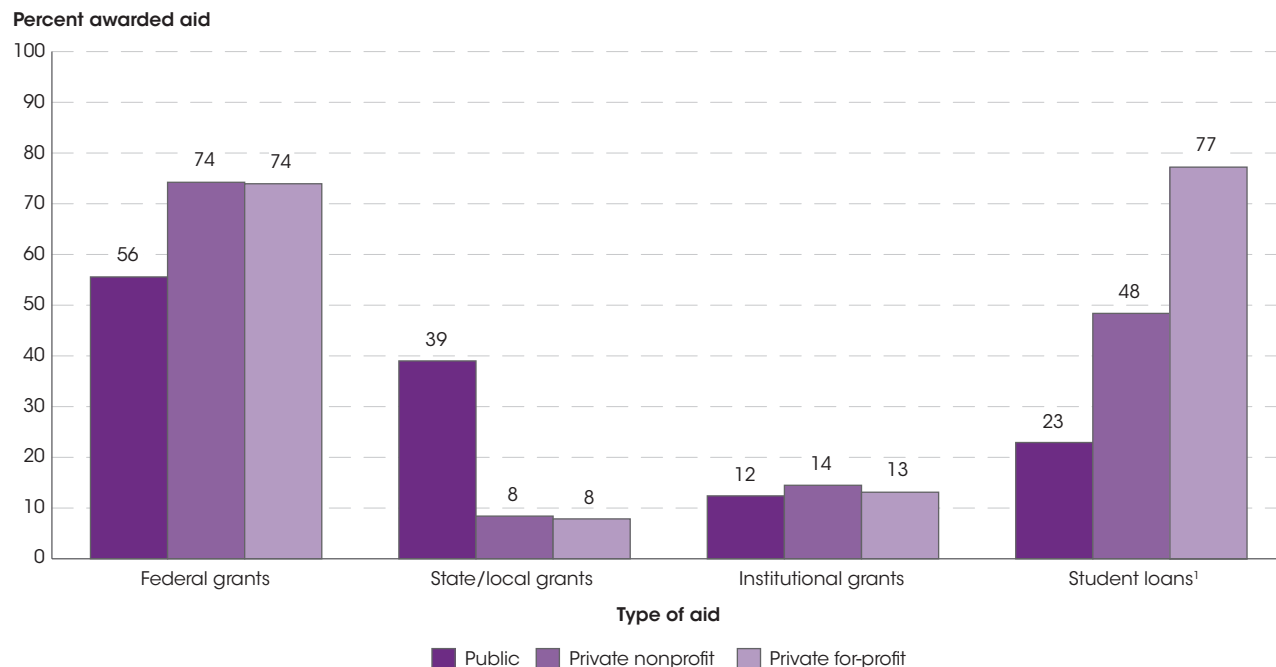
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20.

The percentage of first-time, full-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students at 4-year institutions who were awarded specific types of financial aid varied according to institution control. In 2014–15, the percentage of students awarded federal grants at 4-year institutions was about twice as high at private for-profit institutions (72 percent) as it was at public institutions (37 percent) and private nonprofit institutions (33 percent). The percentage of students at 4-year institutions awarded state or local grants was higher at public institutions (38 percent) than at

private nonprofit institutions (26 percent) and private for-profit institutions (10 percent). The percentage of students awarded institutional grants was higher at private nonprofit institutions (82 percent) than at public institutions (47 percent) and private for-profit institutions (31 percent). The percentage of students awarded student loans at 4-year institutions was highest at private for-profit institutions (76 percent), compared to 61 percent at private nonprofit institutions and 50 percent at public institutions.

**Figure 4. Percentage of first-time, full-time undergraduate students awarded grants and loans at 2-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by type of financial aid and control of institution: Academic year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Student loans include only loans made directly to students; they do not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents.

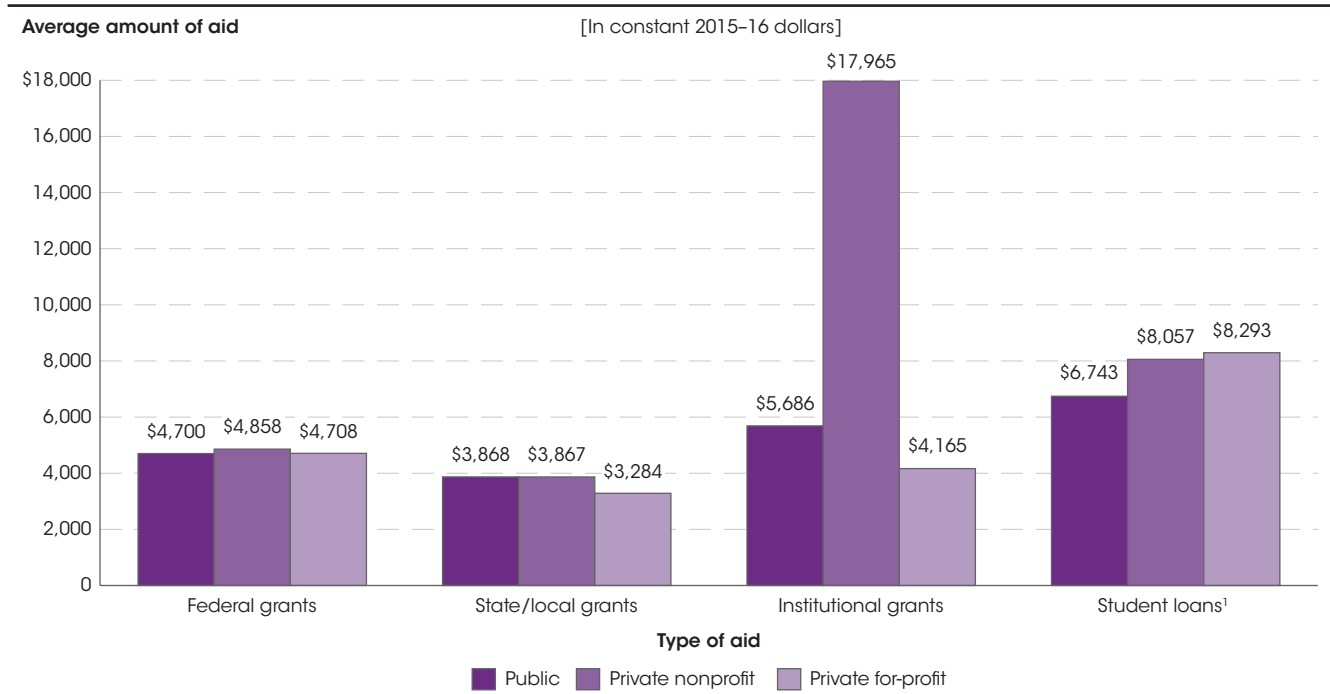
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20.

The percentage of first-time, full-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students at 2-year institutions who were awarded each type of financial aid also varied according to institution control. For students at 2-year institutions in 2014–15, the percentage of students awarded federal grants was higher at private nonprofit institutions (74 percent) and private for-profit institutions (74 percent) than at public institutions (56 percent). The percentage of students at public 2-year institutions who were awarded state or local grants (39 percent) was almost five times higher than the percentage at private

nonprofit 2-year institutions (8 percent) and private for-profit 2-year institutions (8 percent). About 14 percent of students at private nonprofit institutions were awarded institutional grants, compared with 13 percent of students at private for-profit institutions and 12 percent of students at public institutions. The percentage of students at 2-year institutions awarded student loans was higher at private for-profit institutions (77 percent) than at private nonprofit institutions (48 percent) and public institutions (23 percent).

**Figure 5. Average amount of financial aid awarded to first-time, full-time undergraduate students awarded financial aid at 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by type of financial aid and control of institution: Academic year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Student loans include only loans made directly to students; they do not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents.

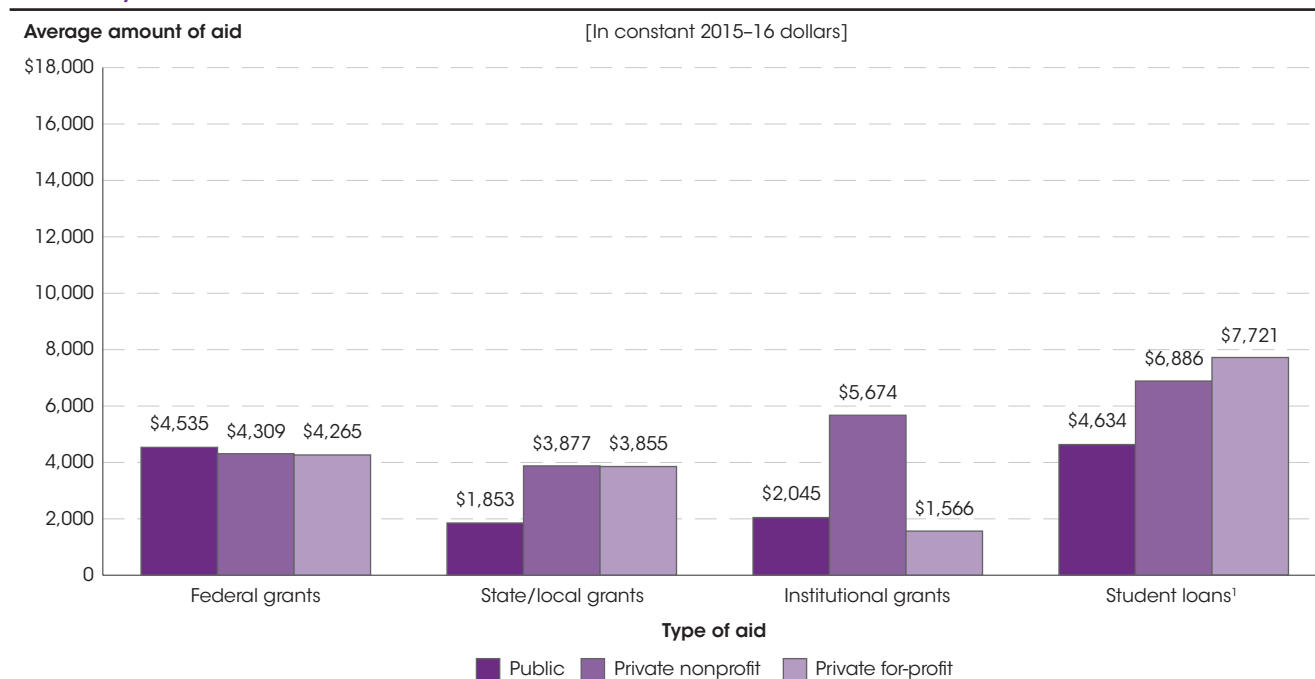
NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Award amounts are in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20.

Across 4-year institutions, the average federal grant award in academic year 2014–15 ranged from \$4,700 at public institutions to \$4,858 at private nonprofit institutions, and the average state or local grant award ranged from \$3,284 at private for-profit institutions to \$3,868 at public institutions (reported in constant 2015–16 dollars). There were larger differences by institution control in the average

institutional grant awards. The average institutional grant award was higher at private nonprofit institutions (\$17,965) than at public institutions (\$5,686) and private for-profit institutions (\$4,165). The average student loan amount was higher at private for-profit (\$8,293) and private nonprofit (\$8,057) institutions than at public institutions (\$6,743).

**Figure 6. Average amount of financial aid awarded to first-time, full-time undergraduate students awarded financial aid at 2-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by type of financial aid and control of institution: Academic year 2014–15**



<sup>1</sup> Student loans include only loans made directly to students; they do not include Parent Loans for Undergraduate Students (PLUS) and other loans made directly to parents.

NOTE: Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Award amounts are in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2015–16, Student Financial Aid component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20.

Across 2-year institutions, the average federal grant award in academic year 2014–15 ranged from \$4,265 at private for-profit institutions to \$4,535 at public institutions (reported in constant 2015–16 dollars). There were larger differences by institution control among the other award types. The average state or local grant award was higher at private nonprofit institutions (\$3,877) and private for-profit institutions (\$3,855) than at public institutions

(\$1,853). The average institutional grant award was higher at private nonprofit institutions (\$5,674) than at public institutions (\$2,045) and private for-profit institutions (\$1,566). Similar to 4-year institutions, the average student loan amount at 2-year institutions in 2014–15 was higher at private for-profit (\$7,721) and private nonprofit (\$6,886) institutions than at public institutions (\$4,634).

#### Endnotes:

<sup>1</sup> For academic year 2009–10, the percentage of students with financial aid represents students who received aid, rather than students who were awarded aid, as some students who were awarded aid did not receive it. After academic year 2009–10, institutions began reporting the percentage of students who were awarded aid.

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, table 331.20

**Related indicators and resources:** Price of Attending an Undergraduate Institution, Loans for Undergraduate Students, Financing Postsecondary Education in the United States [*The Condition of Education 2013 Spotlight*]

**Glossary:** Certificate, Constant dollars, Control of institution, Degree-granting institution, Financial aid, Full-time enrollment, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Undergraduate students

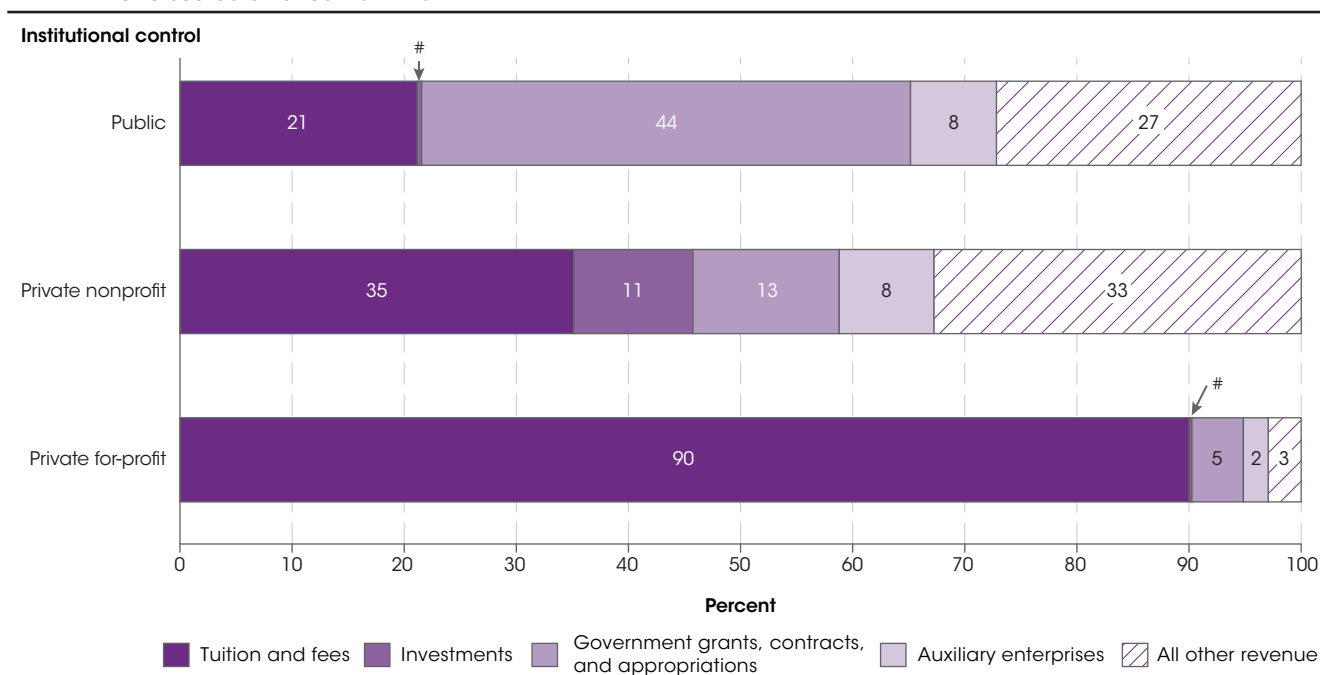
## Postsecondary Institution Revenues

Between 2009–10 and 2014–15, revenues from tuition and fees per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student increased by 22 percent at public institutions (from \$5,724 to \$6,963 in constant 2015–16 dollars) and by 6 percent at private nonprofit institutions (from \$19,586 to \$20,820). At private for-profit institutions, revenues from tuition and fees per FTE student were 9 percent lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 (\$15,089 vs. \$16,531).

In academic year 2014–15, total revenues at degree-granting postsecondary institutions in the United States were \$567 billion (in current dollars). Total revenues were

\$347 billion at public institutions, \$200 billion at private nonprofit institutions, and \$20 billion at private for-profit institutions.

Figure 1. Percentage distribution of total revenues at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by institutional control and source of funds: 2014–15



# Rounds to zero.

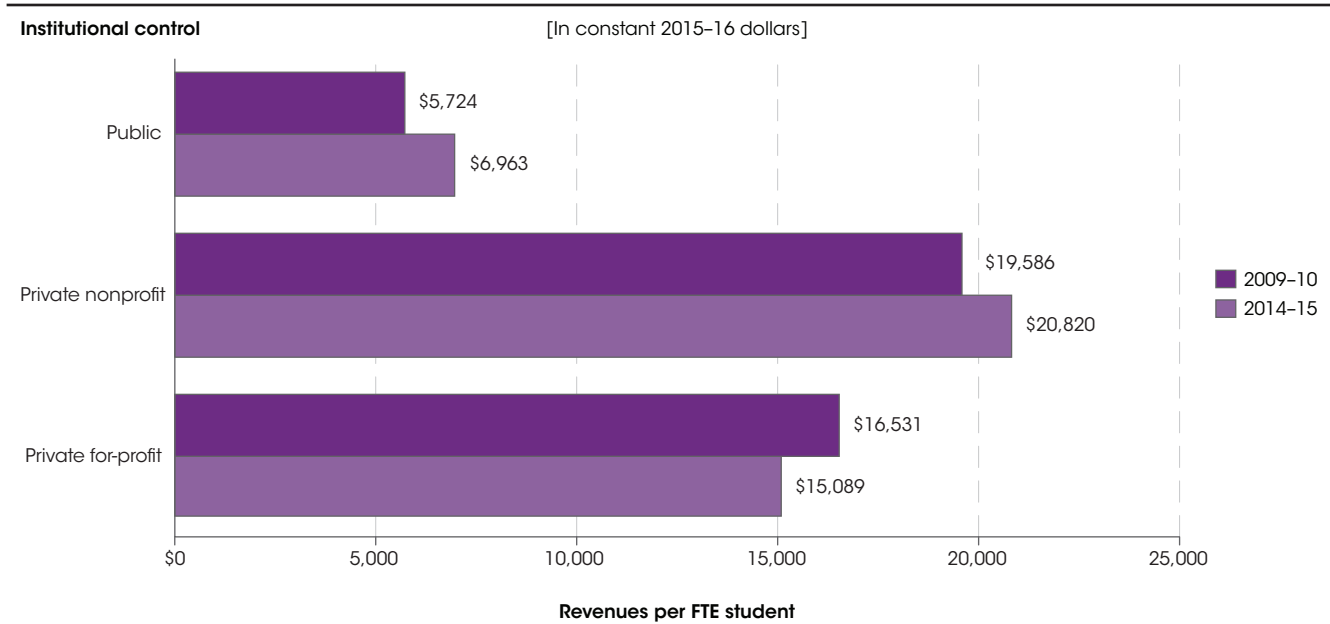
NOTE: Percentages are based on current dollars. Government grants, contracts, and appropriations include revenues from federal, state, and local governments. Private grants and contracts are included in the local government revenue category at public institutions. All other revenue includes gifts, capital or private grants and contracts, hospital revenue, sales and services of educational activities, and other revenue. Revenue data are not directly comparable across institutional control categories because Pell Grants are included in the federal grant revenues at public institutions but tend to be included in tuition and fees and auxiliary enterprise revenues at private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions. Degree-granting institutions grant associate's or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Finance component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 333.10, 333.40, and 333.55.

The primary sources of revenue for degree-granting institutions were tuition and fees; investments; and government grants, contracts, and appropriations. The percentages from these revenue sources varied by institutional control (i.e., public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit). In 2014–15, public institutions received 44 percent of overall revenues from government sources (which include federal, state, and local government<sup>1</sup> grants, contracts, and appropriations). In 2014–15, student tuition and fees constituted the largest percentage of total revenues at private nonprofit institutions and private for-profit institutions (35 and 90 percent, respectively).

It is important to note that public and private institutions report financial information according to the accounting standards that govern institution types. Pell Grants are included in federal grant revenues at public institutions but tend to be included in tuition and fees and auxiliary enterprise revenues at private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions. Thus, some categories of revenue data are not directly comparable across public, nonprofit, and for-profit institutions.

**Figure 2. Revenues from tuition and fees per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student for degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by institutional control: 2009–10 and 2014–15**



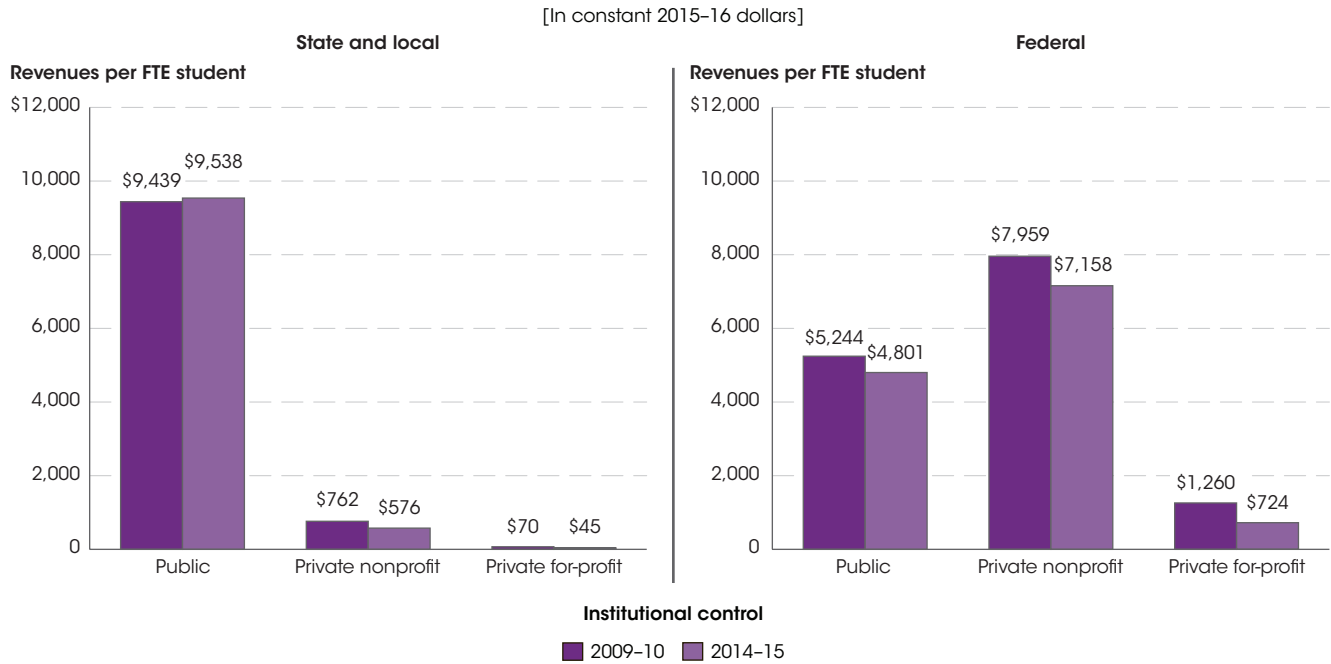
NOTE: Full-time-equivalent (FTE) student enrollment includes full-time students plus the full-time equivalent of part-time students. Revenues per FTE student are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI) adjusted to a school-year basis. Revenue data are not directly comparable across institutional control categories because Pell Grants are included in the federal grant revenues at public institutions but tend to be included in tuition and fees and auxiliary enterprise revenues at private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions. Revenues from tuition and fees are net of discounts and allowances. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2011 and Spring 2016, Finance component; and Spring 2010 and 2015, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 333.10, 333.40, and 333.55.

Between 2009–10 and 2014–15, the percentage change in revenues from tuition and fees per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student varied by institutional control. Revenues per FTE student are presented in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI). During this period, both public and private nonprofit institutions received higher tuition and fee revenues per FTE student. The largest increase in revenues from tuition and fees per FTE student was at public institutions,

where they increased by 22 percent (from \$5,724 to \$6,963), more than three times the percentage increase at private nonprofit institutions (6 percent, from \$19,586 to \$20,820). Although revenues from tuition and fees remained the primary revenue source at private for-profit institutions, revenues from tuition and fees per FTE student were 9 percent lower in 2014–15 (\$15,089) than in 2009–10 (\$16,531).

**Figure 3. Revenues from government grants, contracts, and appropriations per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student for degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by source of funds and institutional control: 2009–10 and 2014–15**



NOTE: Full-time-equivalent (FTE) student enrollment includes full-time students plus the full-time equivalent of part-time students. Revenues per FTE student are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI) adjusted to a school-year basis. Private grants and contracts are included in the local government revenue category at public institutions. Revenue data are not comparable across institutional control categories because Pell Grants are included in the federal grant revenues at public institutions but tend to be included in tuition and fees and auxiliary enterprise revenues at private nonprofit and private for-profit institutions. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs. Some data have been revised from previously published figures.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2011 and Spring 2016, Finance component; and Spring 2010 and 2015, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 333.10, 333.40, and 333.55.

Total revenues per FTE student from federal, state, and local government sources combined were lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 across all institutional control categories. The largest percentage decrease was at private for-profit institutions, where revenues per FTE student from combined government sources decreased by 42 percent (from \$1,330 in 2009–10 to \$769 in 2014–15). Revenues per FTE student from government sources were 2 percent lower in 2014–15 (\$14,338) than in 2009–10 (\$14,683) at public institutions and 11 percent lower in 2014–15 (\$7,734) than in 2009–10 (\$8,721) at private nonprofit institutions.

Revenues per FTE student from federal government sources alone also decreased between 2009–10 and 2014–15 across all institutional control categories. The largest percentage decrease was at private for-profit institutions, where federal revenues per FTE student fell by 43 percent, roughly 5 times the percentage decrease in federal revenues per FTE student at public institutions (8 percent) and roughly 4 times the percentage decrease at private nonprofit institutions (10 percent).

The percentage change in state and local government revenues per FTE student also varied by institutional control. Revenues per FTE student from these sources were 1 percent higher in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 at public institutions but 24 percent lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 at private nonprofit institutions. At private for-profit institutions, revenues from state and local government sources were 35 percent lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 but accounted for only a small percentage (less than one-half of 1 percent) of total revenues at institutions of this category of control.

The percentage of revenues from investment returns, or investment income, was higher at private nonprofit institutions than at public or private for-profit institutions. In 2014–15, revenues from these investments accounted for 11 percent of total revenues at private nonprofit institutions but accounted for less than one-half of 1 percent of total revenues at public institutions as well as at private for-profit institutions.



**Endnotes:**

<sup>1</sup> Private grants and contracts are included in local government revenues at public institutions.

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**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 333.10, 333.40, and 333.55

**Related indicators and resources:** Postsecondary Institution Expenses

**Glossary:** Constant dollars, Consumer Price Index (CPI), Control of institutions, Degree-granting institution, Full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment, Private institution, Public school or institution, Revenue, Tuition and fees

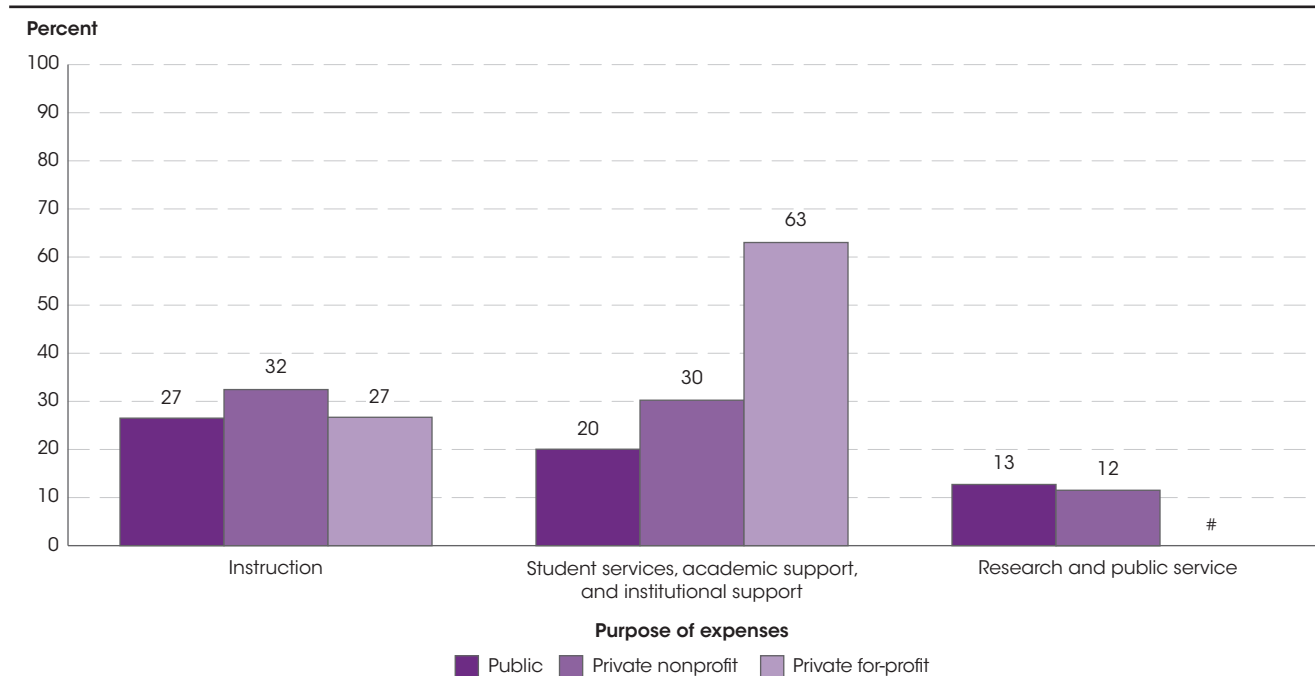
## Postsecondary Institution Expenses

*In 2014–15, instruction expenses per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student (in constant 2015–16 dollars) was the largest expense category at public institutions (\$8,433) and private nonprofit institutions (\$17,426). At private for-profit institutions, the combined category of student services, academic support, and institutional support expenses per FTE student was the largest expense category (\$9,905).*

In academic year 2014–15, postsecondary institutions in the United States spent \$536 billion (in current dollars). Total expenses were \$336 billion at public institutions, \$182 billion at private nonprofit institutions, and \$18 billion at private for-profit institutions. Some data may not be comparable across institutions by control categories (i.e., public, private nonprofit, and private for-profit) because of differences in accounting standards. Comparisons by institutional level (i.e., between 2-year and 4-year institutions) may also be limited because of different institutional missions. The instructional missions of 2-year institutions generally focus on student instruction and related activities that often include providing a range of career-oriented programs at the certificate and associate’s degree levels and preparing

students for transfer to 4-year institutions. Four-year institutions tend to have a broad range of instructional programs at the undergraduate level leading to bachelor’s degrees. Many 4-year institutions offer graduate-level programs as well. Also, research activities, on-campus student housing, teaching hospitals, and auxiliary enterprises can have a substantial impact on the financial structure of 4-year institutions. In this indicator, expenses are grouped into the following broad categories: instruction, research, public service, academic support, student services, institutional support, operation and maintenance of plant, depreciation, scholarships and fellowships, auxiliary enterprises, hospitals, independent operations, interest, and other.

**Figure 1. Percentage of total expenses at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by purpose of select expenses and control of institution: 2014–15**



# Rounds to zero.

NOTE: Expense categories at private institutions include allocated amounts of operation and maintenance of plant, interest, and depreciation while expense categories at public institutions do not. Due to categories not shown, detail does not sum to 100 percent. For data on other expense categories, see source tables in the *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.

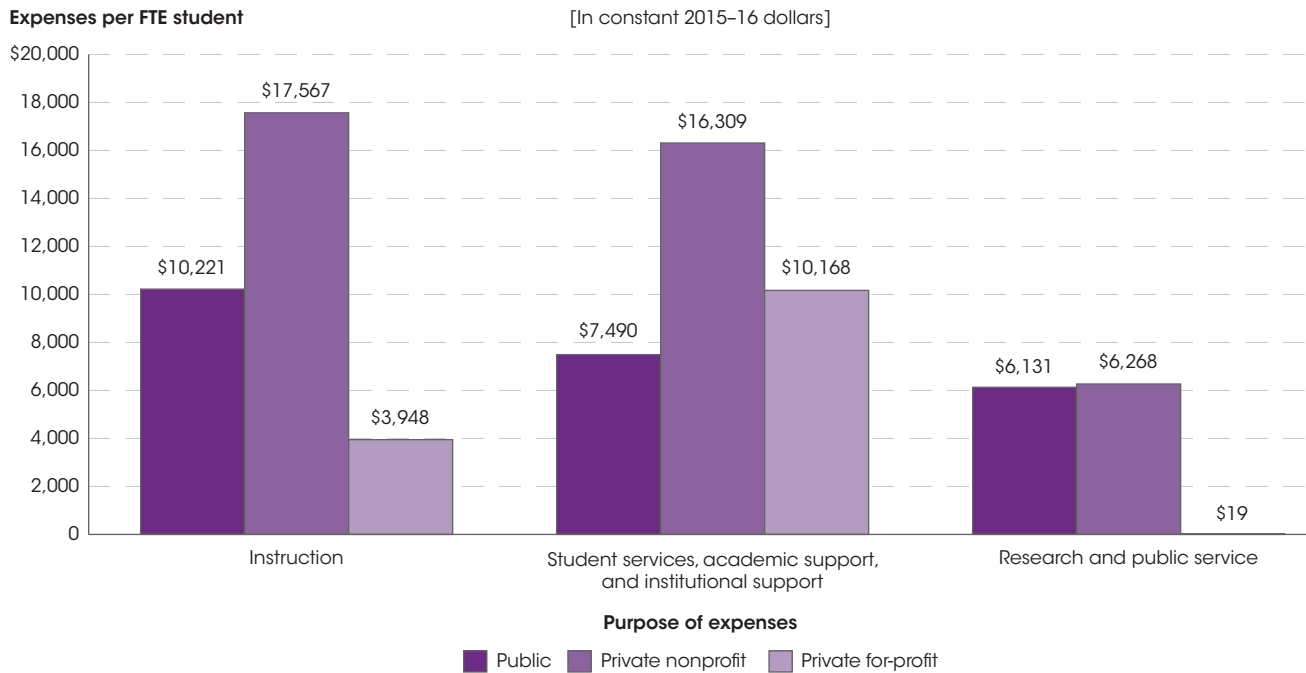
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Finance component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 334.10, 334.30, and 334.50.

Instruction, including faculty salaries and benefits, was the largest single expense category at public and private nonprofit postsecondary institutions in 2014–15, accounting for 27 percent of total expenses at public institutions and 32 percent of total expenses at private nonprofit institutions. The largest expense category at private for-profit institutions in that year was for the combined expenses of student services, academic support, and institutional support, which includes expenses associated with noninstructional activities, such as admissions, student activities, libraries, and administrative and executive activities. At private for-profit institutions, these expenses accounted for 63 percent of total spending, more than twice the percentage spent on instruction (27 percent). By comparison, student services, academic support, and institutional support made up 20 percent of total expenses at public institutions and 30 percent of total expenses at private nonprofit institutions.

Combined expenses for research and public service (such as expenses for public broadcasting and community services) constituted 13 percent of total expenses at public institutions; hospital expenses constituted 11 percent and auxiliary enterprises (i.e., self-supporting operations, such as residence halls) constituted 7 percent of total expenses at public institutions. At private nonprofit institutions, research and public service combined, hospitals, and auxiliary enterprises constituted 12, 11, and 9 percent of total expenses, respectively.

In 2014–15, across all types of postsecondary institutional control, 2-year institutions spent a greater share of their total expenses on instruction than did 4-year institutions. For example, instructional expenses accounted for 35 percent of total expenses at public 2-year institutions, compared with 25 percent at public 4-year institutions.

**Figure 2. Expenses per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student at 4-year degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by purpose of select expenses and control of institution: 2014–15**

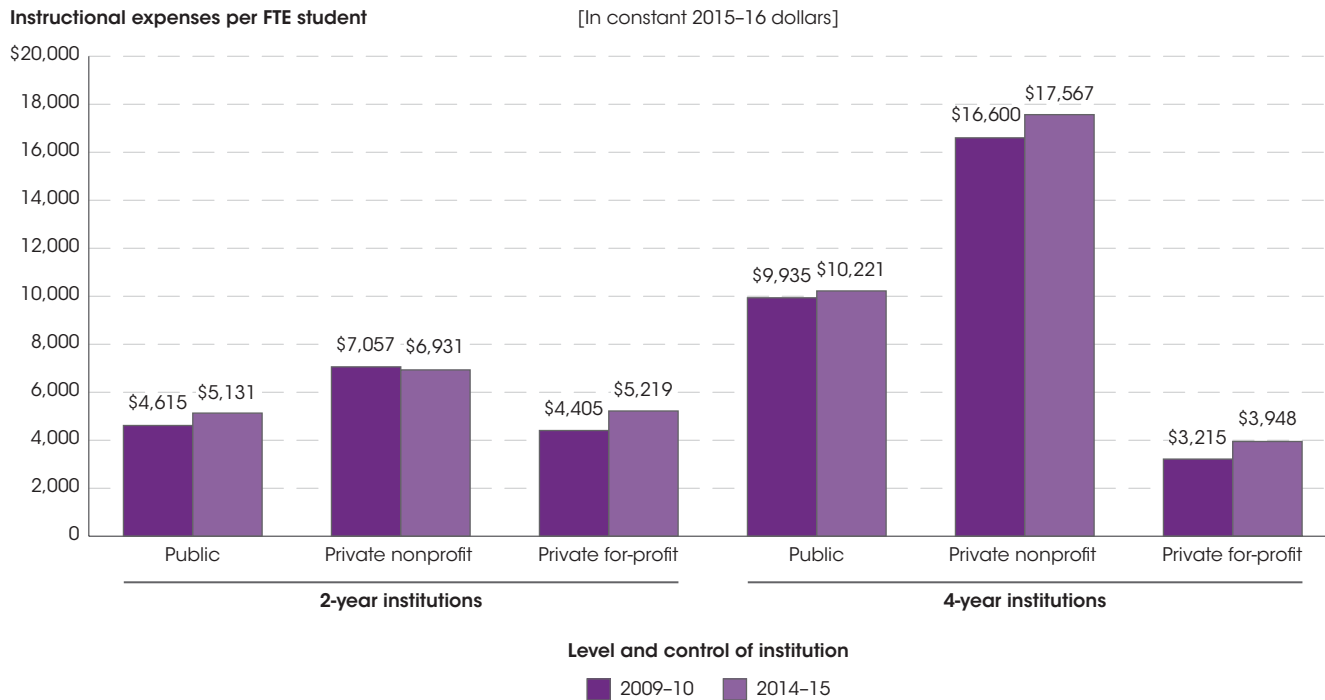


NOTE: Full-time-equivalent (FTE) students include full-time students plus the full-time equivalent of part-time students. Expenses per FTE student are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI) adjusted to a school-year basis. Expense categories at private institutions include allocated amounts of operation and maintenance of plant, interest, and depreciation while expense categories at public institutions do not. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.  
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2016, Finance component; and Spring 2015, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 334.10, 334.30, and 334.50.

In 2014–15, total expenses per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student were higher at private nonprofit 4-year postsecondary institutions (\$54,157) than at public 4-year institutions (\$41,074) and private for-profit 4-year institutions (\$15,470). Expenses per FTE student in this indicator are adjusted for inflation using constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI). Private nonprofit 4-year institutions spent nearly twice as much per FTE student on instruction (\$17,567) as public 4-year institutions (\$10,221) and more than four times as much as private for-profit 4-year institutions (\$3,948). Similarly, for the combined expenses of student services, academic support, and institutional support, \$16,309 per FTE

student was spent at private nonprofit 4-year institutions, which was higher than the amount spent at private for-profit 4-year institutions (\$10,168 per FTE student), which was, in turn, higher than the amount spent at public 4-year institutions (\$7,490 per FTE student). Expenses per FTE student for research and public service were higher at private nonprofit 4-year institutions (\$6,268) and public 4-year institutions (\$6,131) than at private for-profit 4-year institutions (\$19). Among 2-year institutions, private nonprofit institutions spent more per FTE student on instruction (\$6,931) than did private for-profit (\$5,219) and public institutions (\$5,131).

**Figure 3. Expenses per full-time-equivalent (FTE) student for instruction at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by level and control of institution: 2009–10 and 2014–15**



NOTE: Full-time-equivalent (FTE) students include full-time students plus the full-time equivalent of part-time students. Expenses per FTE student are reported in constant 2015–16 dollars, based on the Consumer Price Index (CPI) adjusted to a school-year basis. Instruction expenses at private institutions include allocated amounts of operation and maintenance of plant, interest, and depreciation while instruction expenses at public institutions do not. Degree-granting institutions grant associate’s or higher degrees and participate in Title IV federal financial aid programs.  
 SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2011 and Spring 2016, Finance component; and Spring 2010 and Spring 2015, Fall Enrollment component. See *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 334.10, 334.30, and 334.50.

Changes in inflation-adjusted instruction expenses per FTE student between 2009–10 and 2014–15 varied by postsecondary institution control and level. Among 2-year institutions, instruction expenses per FTE student were higher in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 at public (11 percent higher) and private for-profit institutions (18 percent higher). At private nonprofit 2-year

institutions, instruction expenses per FTE student were 2 percent lower in 2014–15 than in 2009–10. Among 4-year institutions, instruction expenses per FTE student were higher in 2014–15 than in 2009–10 at public (3 percent higher), private nonprofit (6 percent higher), and private for-profit institutions (23 percent higher).

**Reference tables:** *Digest of Education Statistics 2016*, tables 334.10, 334.30, and 334.50

**Related indicators and resources:** Postsecondary Institution Revenues, Education Expenditures by Country

**Glossary:** Constant dollars, Consumer Price Index (CPI), Control of institutions, Full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment, Postsecondary education, Postsecondary institutions (basic classification by level), Private institution, Public school or institution, Tuition and fees

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## Guide to Sources

### National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)

#### Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study

The Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study (BPS) provides information on persistence, progress, and attainment for 6 years after initial time of entry into postsecondary education. BPS includes traditional and nontraditional (e.g., older) students and is representative of all beginning students in postsecondary education in a given year. Initially, these individuals are surveyed in the National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS) during the year in which they first begin their postsecondary education. These same students are surveyed again 2 and 5 years later through the BPS. By starting with a cohort that has already entered postsecondary education and following it for 6 years, the BPS can determine the extent to which students who start postsecondary education at various ages differ in their progress, persistence, and attainment, as well as their entry into the workforce. The first BPS was conducted in 1989–90, with follow-ups in 1992 (BPS:90/92) and 1994 (BPS:90/94). The second BPS was conducted in 1995–96, with follow-ups in 1998 (BPS:96/98) and 2001 (BPS:96/01). The third BPS was conducted in 2003–04, with follow-ups in 2006 (BPS:04/06) and 2009 (BPS:04/09).

The fourth BPS was conducted in 2012, with a follow-up in 2014 (BPS:12/14) and one planned for 2017. In the base year, 1,690 institutions were sampled, of which all were confirmed eligible to participate. In addition, 128,120 students were sampled, and 123,600 were eligible to participate in the NPSAS:12 study. In the first follow-up (BPS:12/14), of the 35,540 eligible NPSAS:12 sample students, 24,770 responded, for an unweighted student response rate of 70 percent and a weighted response rate of 68 percent.

Further information on BPS may be obtained from

Aurora D'Amico  
David Richards  
Sample Surveys Division  
Longitudinal Surveys Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[aurora.damico@ed.gov](mailto:aurora.damico@ed.gov)  
[david.richards@ed.gov](mailto:david.richards@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/bps>

### 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, kindergarten, grade 1–13, and ungraded students. For school year (SY) 2014–15, 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.

***Local Education Agency (School District) Universe Survey***

The coverage of the Local Education Agency Universe Survey includes all school districts and administrative units providing education services to prekindergarten, kindergarten, grade 1–13, and ungraded students. The Local Education Agency Universe Survey includes records for the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, the Bureau of Indian Education (BIE), American Samoa, Guam, the Northern Mariana Islands, the U.S. Virgin Islands, and the DoD dependents schools (overseas and domestic).

The Local Education Agency Universe Survey includes the following variables: NCES agency ID number, state agency ID number, agency name, phone number, mailing address, physical location address, agency type code, supervisory union number, American National Standards Institute (ANSI) state and county code, county name,

core based statistical area (CBSA) code, metropolitan/micropolitan code, metropolitan status code, district locale code, congressional district code, operational status code, BIE agency status, low/high grade span offered, agency charter status, number of schools, number of full-time-equivalent teachers, number of ungraded students, number of PK–13 students, number of special education/Individualized Education Program students, number of English language learner students, instructional staff fields, support staff fields, and LEA charter status.

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

The State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education for the 2014–15 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.

***National Public Education Financial Survey***

The purpose of the National Public Education Financial Survey (NPEFS) is to provide district, state, and federal policymakers, researchers, and other interested users with descriptive information about revenues and expenditures for public elementary and secondary education. The data collected are useful to (1) chief officers of state education agencies; (2) policymakers in the executive and legislative branches of federal and state governments; (3) education policy and public policy researchers; and (4) the public, journalists, and others.

Data for NPEFS are collected from state education agencies (SEAs) in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, Guam, the Northern Mariana Islands, and the U.S. Virgin Islands. The data file is organized by state or jurisdiction and contains revenue data by funding source; expenditure data by function (the activity being supported by the expenditure) and object (the category of expenditure); average daily attendance data; and total student membership data from the CCD State Nonfiscal Survey of Public Elementary/Secondary Education.



### *School District Finance Survey*

The purpose of the School District Finance Survey (F-33) is to provide finance data for all local education agencies (LEAs) that provide free public elementary and secondary education in the United States. National and state totals are not included (national- and state-level figures are presented, however, in the National Public Education Financial Survey).

NCES partners with the U.S. Census Bureau in the collection of school district finance data. The Census Bureau distributes Census Form F-33, Annual Survey of School System Finances, to all SEAs, and representatives from the SEAs collect and edit data from their LEAs and submit data to the Census Bureau. The Census Bureau then produces two data files: one for distribution and reporting by NCES and the other for distribution and reporting by the Census Bureau. The files include variables for revenues by source, expenditures by function and object, indebtedness, assets, and student membership counts, as well as identification variables.

Further information on the nonfiscal CCD data may be obtained from

Patrick Keaton  
Administrative Data Division  
Elementary and Secondary Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[patrick.keaton@ed.gov](mailto:patrick.keaton@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ccd>

Further information on the fiscal CCD data may be obtained from

Stephen Cornman  
Administrative Data Division  
Elementary and Secondary Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street, SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[stephen.cornman@ed.gov](mailto:stephen.cornman@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ccd>

### Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11

The Early Childhood Longitudinal Study, Kindergarten Class of 2010–11 (ECLS-K:2011) provides detailed information on the school achievement and experiences of students throughout their elementary school years. The students who participated in the ECLS-K:2011 were followed longitudinally from the kindergarten year (the 2010–11 school year) through the spring of 2016, when most of them were expected to be in 5th grade. This sample of students is designed to be nationally representative of all students who were enrolled in

kindergarten or who were of kindergarten age and being educated in an ungraded classroom or school in the United States in the 2010–11 school year, including those in public and private schools, those who attended full-day and part-day programs, those who were in kindergarten for the first time, and those who were kindergarten repeaters. Students who attended early learning centers or institutions that offered education only through kindergarten are included in the study sample and represented in the cohort.

The ECLS-K:2011 places emphasis on measuring students' experiences within multiple contexts and development in multiple domains. The design of the study includes the collection of information from the students, their parents/guardians, their teachers, and their schools. Information was collected from their before- and after-school care providers in the kindergarten year.

A nationally representative sample of approximately 18,170 children from about 1,310 schools participated in the base-year administration of the ECLS-K:2011 in the 2010–11 school year. The sample included children from different racial/ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds. Asian/Pacific Islander students were oversampled to ensure that the sample included enough students of this race/ethnicity to make accurate estimates for the group as a whole. Eight data collections have been conducted to date: fall and spring of the children's kindergarten year (the base year), fall 2011 and spring 2012 (the 1st-grade year), fall 2012 and spring 2013 (the 2nd-grade year), spring 2014 (the 3rd-grade year), and spring 2015 (the 4th-grade year). The final data collection was conducted in the spring of 2016. Although the study refers to later rounds of data collection by the grade the majority of children are expected to be in (that is, the modal grade for children who were in kindergarten in the 2010–11 school year), children are included in subsequent data collections regardless of their grade level.

A total of approximately 780 of the 1,310 originally sampled schools participated during the base year of the study. This translates to a weighted unit response rate (weighted by the base weight) of 63 percent for the base year. In the base year, the weighted child assessment unit response rate was 87 percent for the fall data collection and 85 percent for the spring collection, and the weighted parent unit response rate was 74 percent for the fall collection and 67 percent for the spring collection.

Fall and spring data collections were conducted in the 2011–12 school year, when the majority of the children were in the 1st grade. The fall collection was conducted within a 33 percent subsample of the full base-year sample, and the spring collection was conducted within the full base-year sample. The weighted child assessment unit response rate was 89 percent for the fall data collection and 88 percent for the spring collection, and

the weighted parent unit response rate was 87 percent for the fall data collection and 76 percent for the spring data collection.

In the 2012–13 data collection (when the majority of the children were in the 2nd grade) the weighted child assessment unit response rate was 84.0 percent in the fall and 83.4 percent in the spring. In the 2014 spring data collection (when the majority of the children were in the 3rd grade), the weighted child assessment unit response rate was 79.9 percent.

Further information on ECLS-K:2011 may be obtained from

Gail Mulligan  
Jill McCarroll  
Sample Surveys Division  
Longitudinal Surveys Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[ecls@ed.gov](mailto:ecls@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ecls/kindergarten2011.asp>

### EDFacts

EDFacts is a centralized data collection through which state education agencies submit PK–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 <http://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 4-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.

For more information about EDFacts, please contact

EDFacts  
Administrative Data Division  
Elementary/Secondary Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[EDFacts@ed.gov](mailto:EDFacts@ed.gov)  
<http://www2.ed.gov/about/inits/ed/edfacts/index.html>

### High School and Beyond Longitudinal Study

The High School and Beyond Longitudinal Study (HS&B) is a nationally representative sample survey of individuals who were high school sophomores and seniors in 1980. As a large-scale, longitudinal survey, its primary purpose is to observe the educational and occupational plans and activities of young people as they pass through the American educational system and take on their adult roles. The study contributes to the understanding of the development of young adults and the factors that determine individual education and career outcomes. The availability of this longitudinal data encourages research in such areas as the strength of secondary school curricula, the quality and effectiveness of secondary and postsecondary schooling, the demand for postsecondary education, problems of financing postsecondary education, and the adequacy of postsecondary alternatives open to high school students.

The HS&B survey gathered data on the education, work, and family experiences of young adults for the pivotal years during and immediately following high school. The student questionnaire covered school experiences,

activities, attitudes, plans, selected background characteristics, and language proficiency. Parents were asked about their educational aspirations for their children and plans for how their postsecondary education would be financed. Teachers were surveyed regarding their assessments of their students' futures. The survey also collected detailed information, from complete high school transcripts, on courses taken and grades achieved.

The base-year survey (conducted in 1980) was a probability sample of 1,015 high schools with a target number of 36 sophomores and 36 seniors in each school. A total of 58,270 students participated in the base-year survey. Substitutions were made for nonparticipating schools—but not for students—in those strata where it was possible. Overall, 1,120 schools were selected in the original sample and 810 of these schools participated in the survey. An additional 200 schools were drawn in a replacement sample. Student refusals and absences resulted in an 82 percent completion rate for the survey.

Several small groups in the population were oversampled to allow for special study of certain types of schools and students. Students completed questionnaires and took a battery of cognitive tests. In addition, a sample of parents of sophomores and seniors (about 3,600 for each cohort) was surveyed.

HS&B first follow-up activities took place in the spring of 1982. The sample for the first follow-up survey included approximately 30,000 individuals who were sophomores in 1980. The completion rate for sample members eligible for on-campus survey administration was about 96 percent. About 89 percent of the students who left school between the base-year and first follow-up surveys (e.g., dropouts, transfer students, and early graduates) completed the first follow-up sophomore questionnaire.

As part of the first follow-up survey of HS&B, transcripts were requested in fall 1982 for an 18,150-member subsample of the sophomore cohort. Of the 15,940 transcripts actually obtained, 12,120 transcripts represented students who had graduated in 1982 and thus were eligible for use in the overall curriculum analysis presented in this publication. All courses in each transcript were assigned a 6-digit code based on the Classification of Secondary School Courses (a coding system developed to standardize course descriptions; see <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/hst/courses.asp>). Credits earned in each course are expressed in Carnegie units. (The Carnegie unit is a standard of measurement that represents one credit for the completion of a 1-year course. To receive credit for a course, the student must have received a passing grade—"pass," "D," or higher.) Students who transferred from public to private schools or from private to public schools between their sophomore and senior years were eliminated from public/private analyses.

In designing the senior cohort first follow-up survey, one of the goals was to reduce the size of the retained sample while still keeping sufficient numbers of various racial/ethnic groups to allow important policy analyses. A total of about 11,230 (93.6 percent) of the 12,000 individuals subsampled completed the questionnaire. Information was obtained about the respondents' school and employment experiences, family status, and attitudes and plans.

The samples for the second follow-up, which took place in spring 1984, consisted of about 12,000 members of the senior cohort and about 15,000 members of the sophomore cohort. The completion rate for the senior cohort was 91 percent, and the completion rate for the sophomore cohort was 92 percent.

HS&B third follow-up data collection activities were performed in spring 1986. Both the sophomore and senior cohort samples for this round of data collection were the same as those used for the second follow-up survey. The completion rates for the sophomore and senior cohort samples were 91 percent and 88 percent, respectively.

HS&B fourth follow-up data collection activities were performed in 1992 but only covered the 1980 sophomore class. These activities included examining aspects of these students' early adult years, such as enrollment in postsecondary education, experience in the labor market, marriage and child rearing, and voting behavior.

An NCES series of technical reports and data file user's manuals, available electronically, provides additional information on the survey methodology.

Further information on HS&B may be obtained from

Aurora D'Amico  
 Sample Surveys Division  
 Longitudinal Surveys Branch  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
[aurora.damico@ed.gov](mailto:aurora.damico@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/hsb>

## High School Longitudinal Study of 2009

The High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSL: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 HSL: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 more 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 took place in 2016, when most sample members were 3 years beyond high school graduation. Additional follow-ups are planned, to at least age 30.

Further information on HSLS:09 may be obtained from

Elise Christopher  
Sample Surveys Division  
Longitudinal Surveys Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[hsls09@ed.gov](mailto:hsls09@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/hsls09>

## Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System

The Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) surveys approximately 7,500 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 (<http://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. Beginning in the 2014–15 survey year (spring 2015 collection), the Academic Libraries component was reintegrated into IPEDS after having been conducted as a survey independent of IPEDS between 2000 and 2012.

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 two 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 fall 2000 and spring 2001, IPEDS data collections have been web-based. Data have been provided by “keyholders,” institutional representatives appointed by campus chief executives, who are responsible for ensuring that survey data submitted by the institution are correct and complete. Because Title IV institutions are the primary focus of IPEDS and because these institutions are required to respond to IPEDS, response rates for Title IV institutions have been high (data on specific components are cited below). More details on the accuracy and reliability of IPEDS data can be found in the *Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System Data Quality Study* (NCES 2005-175).

Further information on IPEDS may be obtained from

Richard Reeves  
Administrative Data Division  
Postsecondary Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[richard.reeves@ed.gov](mailto:richard.reeves@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds>

### ***Fall (12-Month Enrollment)***

The 12-month period during which data are collected is July 1 through June 30. Data are collected by race/ethnicity, gender, and level of study (undergraduate or postbaccalaureate) and include unduplicated headcounts and instructional activity (contact or credit hours). These data are also used to calculate a full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment based on instructional activity. FTE enrollment is useful for gauging the size of the educational enterprise at the institution. Prior to the 2007–08 IPEDS data collection, the data collected in the 12-Month Enrollment component were part of the Fall Enrollment component, which is conducted during the spring data collection period. However, to improve the timeliness of the data, a separate 12-Month Enrollment survey component was developed in 2007. These data are now collected in the fall for the previous academic year. The response rate for the 12-Month Enrollment component of the fall 2015 data collection was nearly 100 percent. Data from only 1 of 7,169 Title IV institutions that were expected to respond to this component contained item nonresponse, and these missing items were imputed.

Further information on the IPEDS 12-Month Enrollment component may be obtained from

Bao Le  
Administrative Data Division  
Postsecondary Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[bao.le@ed.gov](mailto:bao.le@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds>

### ***Fall (Completions)***

This survey was part of the HEGIS series throughout its existence. However, the degree classification taxonomy was revised in 1970–71, 1982–83, 1991–92, 2002–03, and 2009–10. Collection of degree data has been maintained through IPEDS.

The nonresponse rate does not appear to be a significant source of nonsampling error for this survey. The response rate over the years has been high; for the fall 2015 Completions component, it rounded to 100 percent. Because of the high response rate, there was no need to conduct a nonresponse bias analysis. Imputation methods for the fall 2015 IPEDS Completions component are discussed in the *2015–16 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS) Methodology Report* (NCES 2016-111).

The *Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System Data Quality Study* (NCES 2005-175) indicated that most Title IV institutions supplying revised data on completions in 2003–04 were able to supply missing data for the prior year. The small differences between imputed data for the prior year and the revised actual data supplied by the institution indicated that the imputed values produced by NCES were acceptable.

Further information on the IPEDS Completions component may be obtained from

Imani Stutely  
Administrative Data Division  
Postsecondary Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[imani.stutely@ed.gov](mailto:imani.stutely@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds>

***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 2015 data collection, the response rate for the Institutional Characteristics component among all Title IV entities was 100.0 percent: Of the 7,252 Title IV entities expected to respond to this component, all responded.

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

Moussa Ezzeddine  
Administrative Data Division  
Postsecondary Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[moussa.ezzeddine@ed.gov](mailto:moussa.ezzeddine@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds>

***Winter (Student Financial Aid)***

This component was part of the spring data collection from IPEDS data collection years 2000–01 to 2010–11, but it moved to the winter data collection starting with the 2011–12 IPEDS data collection year. This move assists with the timing of the net price of attendance calculations displayed on College Navigator (<http://nces.ed.gov/collegenavigator>).

Financial aid data are collected for undergraduate students. Data are collected regarding federal grants, state and local government grants, institutional grants, and loans. The collected data include the number of students receiving each type of financial assistance and the average amount of aid received by type of aid. Beginning in 2008–09, student financial aid data collected includes greater detail on types of aid offered.

In the winter 2015–16 data collection, the Student Financial Aid component collected data about financial aid awarded to undergraduate students, with particular emphasis on full-time, first-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students awarded financial aid for the 2014–15 academic year. In addition, the component collected data on undergraduate and graduate students receiving benefits for veterans and members of the military service. Finally, student counts and awarded aid amounts were collected to calculate the net price of attendance for two subsets of full-time, first-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students: those awarded any grant aid, and those awarded Title IV aid.

The response rate for the Student Financial Aid component in 2015–16 rounded to 100 percent: Of the 7,029 Title IV institutions that were expected to respond, responses were missing for just 7 institutions.

Further information on the IPEDS Student Financial Aid component may be obtained from

Bao Le  
Administrative Data Division  
Postsecondary Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[bao.le@ed.gov](mailto:bao.le@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds>

***Winter (Graduation Rates and Graduation Rates 200 Percent)***

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

The 2015–16 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, 2015, the counts as of that date were collected. Four-year institutions used 2009 as the cohort year, while less-than-4-year institutions used 2012 as the cohort year. Of the 6,353 institutions that were expected to respond to the Graduation Rates component, responses were missing for 4 institutions, resulting in a response rate that rounded to 100 percent.

The 2015–16 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 elements 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 count 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 2007 as the reference period, while less-than-4-year institutions reported on all students in the cohort and used cohort year 2011 as the reference period. Of the 5,869 institutions that were expected to respond to the Graduation Rates 200 Percent component, responses were missing for 4 institutions, resulting in a response rate that rounded to 100 percent.

Further information on the IPEDS Graduation Rates and 200 Percent Graduation Rates components may be obtained from

Andrew Mary  
 Administrative Data Division  
 Postsecondary Branch  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
[andrew.mary@ed.gov](mailto:andrew.mary@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/>

### ***Winter (Admissions)***

In the 2014–15 survey year, an Admissions component was added to the winter data collection. This component was created out of the admissions data that had previously been a part of the fall Institutional Characteristics component. The moving of these data into a new component in the winter collection enables all institutions to report data for the most recent fall period.

The Admissions component collects information about the selection process for entering first-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students. Data obtained from institutions include admissions considerations (e.g., secondary school records, admission test scores), the number of first-time degree/certificate-seeking undergraduate students who applied, the number admitted, and the number enrolled. Admissions data were collected only from institutions that do not have an open admissions policy for entering first-time students. Data collected for the IPEDS winter 2015–16 Admissions component relate to individuals applying to be admitted during the fall of the 2015–16 academic year (the fall 2015 reporting period). Of the 2,191 Title IV institutions that were expected to respond to the Admissions component, all responded.

Further information on the IPEDS Admissions component may be obtained from

Moussa Ezzeddine  
 Administrative Data Division  
 Postsecondary Branch  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
[moussa.ezzeddine@ed.gov](mailto:moussa.ezzeddine@ed.gov)  
<http://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 2016 data collection, the Fall Enrollment component covered fall 2015. Of the 7,146 institutions that were expected to respond, 7,134 provided data, for a response rate that rounded to 100 percent. Data collection procedures for the Fall Enrollment component of the spring 2016 data collection are presented in *Enrollment and Employees in Postsecondary Institutions, Fall 2015; and Financial Statistics and Academic Libraries, Fiscal Year 2015: First Look (Provisional Data)* (NCES 2017-024).

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 at 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

Bao Le  
 Administrative Data Division  
 Postsecondary Branch  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
[bao.le@ed.gov](mailto:bao.le@ed.gov)  
<http://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, considerable effort has been made to present only comparable information on trends in this report 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, which provide a more comprehensive view of college finance activities. The data for public institutions continued to be collected using the older survey form. The data for public and private institutions were no longer comparable and, as a result, no longer presented together in analysis tables. In FY 2001, public institutions had the option of either continuing to report using Government Accounting Standards Board (GASB) standards or using the new FASB reporting standards. Beginning in FY 2002, public institutions had the option of using either

the original GASB standards, the FASB standards, or the new GASB Statement 35 standards (GASB35).

Possible sources of nonsampling error in the financial statistics include nonresponse, imputation, and misclassification. The unweighted response rate has been about 85 to 90 percent for most years these data appeared in NCES reports; however, in more recent years, response rates have been much higher because Title IV institutions are required to respond. Since 2002, the IPEDS data collection has been a full-scale web-based collection, which has improved the quality and timeliness of the data. For example, the ability of IPEDS to tailor online data entry forms for each institution based on characteristics such as institutional control, level of institution, and calendar system and the institutions' ability to submit their data online are aspects of full-scale web-based collections that have improved response.

The response rate for the FY 2015 Finance component was nearly 100 percent: Of the 7,223 institutions and administrative offices that were expected to respond, 7,183 provided data. Data collection procedures for the FY 2015 component are discussed in *Enrollment and Employees in Postsecondary Institutions, Fall 2015; and Financial Statistics and Academic Libraries, Fiscal Year 2015: First Look (Provisional Data)* (NCES 2017-024).

The *Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System Data Quality Study* (NCES 2005-175) found that only a small percentage (2.9 percent, or 168) of postsecondary institutions either revised 2002–03 data or submitted data for items they previously left unreported. Though relatively few institutions made changes, the changes made were relatively large—greater than 10 percent of the original data. With a few exceptions, these changes, large as they were, did not greatly affect the aggregate totals.

Further information on the IPEDS Finance component may be obtained from

Bao Le  
 Administrative Data Division  
 Postsecondary Branch  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
[bao.le@ed.gov](mailto:bao.le@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds>

### ***Spring (Human Resources)***

The Human Resources component was part of the IPEDS winter data collection from data collection years 2000–01 to 2011–12. For the 2012–13 data collection year, the Human Resources component was moved to the spring 2013 data collection, in order to give institutions more time to prepare their survey responses (the spring

and winter collections begin on the same date, but the reporting deadline for the spring collection is several weeks later than the reporting deadline for the winter collection).

#### *IPEDS Collection Years 2012–13 and Later*

In 2012–13, new occupational categories replaced the primary function/occupational activity categories previously used in the IPEDS Human Resources component. This change was required in order to align the IPEDS Human Resources categories with the 2010 Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) system. In tandem with the change in 2012–13 from using primary function/occupational activity categories to using the new occupational categories, the sections making up the IPEDS Human Resources component (which previously had been Employees by Assigned Position, Fall Staff, and Salaries) were changed to Full-Time Instructional Staff, Full-time Noninstructional Staff, Salaries, Part-Time Staff, and New Hires.

The webpage “Archived Changes—Changes to IPEDS Data Collections, 2012–13” (<https://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/InsidePages/ArchivedChanges?year=2012-13>) provides information on the redesigned IPEDS Human Resources component. “Resources for Implementing Changes to the IPEDS Human Resources (HR) Survey Component Due to Updated 2010 Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) System” ([https://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/Section/resources\\_soc](https://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/Section/resources_soc)) is a webpage containing additional information, including notes comparing the new classifications with the old (“Comparison of New IPEDS Occupational Categories with Previous Categories”), a crosswalk from the new IPEDS occupational categories to the 2010 SOC occupational categories (“New IPEDS Occupational Categories and 2010 SOC”), answers to frequently asked questions, and a link to current IPEDS Human Resources survey screens.

Of the 7,226 institutions and administrative offices that were expected to respond to the spring 2016 Human Resources component, 7,218 responded, for a response rate that rounded to 100 percent. Data collection procedures for this component are presented in *Enrollment and Employees in Postsecondary Institutions, Fall 2015*; and *Financial Statistics and Academic Libraries, Fiscal Year 2015: First Look (Provisional Data)* (NCES 2017-024).

#### *IPEDS Collection Years Prior to 2012–13*

In collection years before 2001–02, IPEDS conducted a Fall Staff survey and a Salaries survey; in the 2001–02 collection year, the Employees by Assigned Position survey was added to IPEDS. In the 2005–06 collection year, these three surveys became sections of the IPEDS “Human Resources” component.

Data gathered by the Employees by Assigned Position section categorized all employees by full- or part-time status, faculty status, and primary function/occupational activity. Institutions with M.D. or D.O. programs were required to report their medical school employees separately. A response to the EAP was required of all 6,858 Title IV institutions and administrative offices in the United States and other jurisdictions for winter 2008–09, and 6,845, or 99.8 percent unweighted, responded. Of the 6,970 Title IV institutions and administrative offices required to respond to the winter 2009–10 EAP, 6,964, or 99.9 percent, responded. And of the 7,256 Title IV institutions and administrative offices required to respond to the EAP for winter 2010–11, 7,252, or 99.9 percent, responded.

The main functions/occupational activities of the EAP section were primarily instruction, instruction combined with research and/or public service, primarily research, primarily public service, executive/administrative/managerial, other professionals (support/service), graduate assistants, technical and paraprofessionals, clerical and secretarial, skilled crafts, and service/maintenance.

All full-time instructional faculty classified in the EAP full-time non-medical school part as either (1) primarily instruction or (2) instruction combined with research and/or public service were included in the Salaries section, unless they were exempt.

The Fall Staff section categorized all staff on the institution’s payroll as of November 1 of the collection year by employment status (full time or part time), primary function/occupational activity, gender, and race/ethnicity. These data elements were collected from degree-granting and non-degree-granting institutions; however, additional data elements were collected from degree-granting institutions and related administrative offices with 15 or more full-time staff. These elements include faculty status, contract length/teaching period, academic rank, salary class intervals, and newly hired full-time permanent staff.

The Fall Staff section, which was required only in odd-numbered reporting years, was not required during the 2008–09 Human Resources data collection. However, of the 6,858 Title IV institutions and administrative offices in the United States and other jurisdictions, 3,295, or 48.0 percent unweighted, did provide data in the Fall Staff section that year. During the 2009–10 Human Resources data collection, when all 6,970 Title IV institutions and administrative offices were required to respond to the Fall Staff section, 6,964, or 99.9 percent, did so. A response to the Fall Staff section of the 2010–11 Human Resources collection was optional, and 3,364 Title IV institutions and administrative offices responded that year (a response rate of 46.3 percent).

The *Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System Data Quality Study* (NCES 2005-175) found that for 2003–04 employee data items, changes were made by 1.2 percent (77) of the institutions that responded. For all institutions making changes, the changes resulted in different employee counts. For both institutional and aggregate differences, however, the changes had little impact on the original employee count submissions. A large number of institutions reported different staff data to IPEDS and Thomson Peterson; however, the magnitude of the differences was small—usually no more than 17 faculty members for any faculty variable.

The Salaries section collected data for full-time instructional faculty (except those in medical schools in the EAP section, described above) on the institution’s payroll as of November 1 of the collection year by contract length/teaching period, gender, and academic rank. The reporting of data by faculty status in the Salaries section was required from 4-year degree-granting institutions and above only. Salary outlays and fringe benefits were also collected for full-time instructional staff on 9/10- and 11/12-month contracts/teaching periods. This section was applicable to degree-granting institutions unless exempt.

Between 1966–67 and 1985–86, this survey differed from other HEGIS surveys in that imputations were not made for nonrespondents. Thus, there is some possibility that the salary averages presented in this report may differ from the results of a complete enumeration of all colleges and universities. Beginning with the surveys for 1987–88, the IPEDS data tabulation procedures included imputations for survey nonrespondents. The unweighted response rate for the 2008–09 Salaries survey section was 99.9 percent. The response rate for the 2009–10 Salaries section was 100.0 percent (4,453 of the 4,455 required institutions responded), and the response rate for 2010–11 was 99.9 percent (4,561 of the 4,565 required institutions responded). Imputation methods for the 2010–11 Salaries survey section are discussed in *Employees in Postsecondary Institutions, Fall 2010, and Salaries of Full-Time Instructional Staff, 2010–11* (NCES 2012-276).

Although data from this survey are not subject to sampling error, sources of nonsampling error may include computational errors and misclassification in reporting and processing. The electronic reporting system does allow corrections to prior-year reported or missing data, and this should help alleviate these problems. Also, NCES reviews individual institutions’ data for internal and longitudinal consistency and contacts institutions to check inconsistent data.

The *Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System Data Quality Study* (NCES 2005-175) found that only 1.3 percent of the responding Title IV institutions in 2003–04 made changes to their salaries data. The

differences between the imputed data and the revised data were small and found to have little impact on the published data.

Further information on the Human Resources component may be obtained from

Imani Stutely  
 Administrative Data Division  
 Postsecondary Branch  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
[imani.stutely@ed.gov](mailto:imani.stutely@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds>

## 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.)

Results are available for the mathematics assessments administered in 2000, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, and 2015. In 2005, NAGB called for the development of a new mathematics framework. The revisions made to the mathematics framework for the 2005 assessment were intended to reflect recent curricular emphases and better assess the specific objectives for students at each grade level.

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 areas; and changing the reporting scale from 0–500 to 0–300. For more information regarding the 2005 mathematics framework revisions, see <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/mathematics/frameworkcomparison.asp>.

Results are available for the reading assessments administered in 2000, 2002, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, and 2015. In 2009, a new framework was developed for the 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-grade NAEP reading assessments.

Both a content alignment study and a reading trend, or bridge, study were conducted to determine if the new reading assessment was comparable to the prior assessment. Overall, the results of the special analyses suggested that the assessments were similar in terms of their item and scale characteristics and the results they produced for important demographic groups of students. Thus, it was determined that the results of the 2009 reading assessment could still be compared to those from earlier assessment years, thereby maintaining the trend lines first established in 1992. For more information regarding the 2009 reading framework revisions, see <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/reading/whatmeasure.asp>.

In spring 2013, NAEP released results from the NAEP 2012 economics assessment in *The Nation's Report Card: Economics 2012* (NCES 2013-453). First administered in 2006, the NAEP economics assessment measures 12th-graders' understanding of a wide range of topics in three main content areas: market economy, national economy, and international economy. The 2012 assessment is based on a nationally representative sample of nearly 11,000 students in the 12th grade.

In *The Nation's Report Card: A First Look—2013 Mathematics and Reading* (NCES 2014-451), NAEP released the results of the 2013 mathematics and reading

assessments. Results can also be accessed using the interactive graphics and downloadable data available at the online Nation's Report Card website ([http://nationsreportcard.gov/reading\\_math\\_2013/#/](http://nationsreportcard.gov/reading_math_2013/#/)).

*The Nation's Report Card: A First Look—2013 Mathematics and Reading Trial Urban District Assessment* (NCES 2014-466) provides the results of the 2013 mathematics and reading TUDA, which measured the reading and mathematics progress of 4th- and 8th-graders from 21 urban school districts. Results from the 2013 mathematics and reading TUDA can also be accessed using the interactive graphics and downloadable data available at the online TUDA website ([http://nationsreportcard.gov/reading\\_math\\_tuda\\_2013/#/](http://nationsreportcard.gov/reading_math_tuda_2013/#/)).

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 4th-, 8th-, and 12th-graders' knowledge in three science content areas (physical science, life science, and Earth and space sciences) and 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.

### ***NAEP Long-Term Trend Assessments***

In addition to conducting the main assessments, NAEP also conducts the long-term trend assessments. Long-term trend assessments provide an opportunity to observe educational progress in reading and mathematics of 9-, 13-, and 17-year-olds since the early 1970s. The long-term trend reading assessment measures students' reading comprehension skills using an array of passages that vary by text types and length. The assessment was designed to measure students' ability to locate specific information in the text provided; make inferences across a passage to provide an explanation; and identify the main idea in the text.

The NAEP long-term trend assessment in mathematics measures knowledge of mathematical facts; ability to carry out computations using paper and pencil; knowledge of basic formulas, such as those applied in geometric settings; and ability to apply mathematics to skills of daily life, such as those involving time and money.

*The Nation's Report Card: Trends in Academic Progress 2012* (NCES 2013-456) provides the results of 12 long-term trend reading assessments dating back to 1971 and 11 long-term trend mathematics assessments dating back to 1973.

Further information on NAEP may be obtained from

Daniel McGrath  
Reporting and Dissemination Branch  
Assessments Division  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[daniel.mcgrath@ed.gov](mailto:daniel.mcgrath@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard>

## 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 (<http://nces.ed.gov/datalab/>).

Further information on NPSAS may be obtained from

Aurora D’Amico  
 Tracy Hunt-White  
 Sample Surveys Division  
 Longitudinal Surveys Branch  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
[aurora.damico@ed.gov](mailto:aurora.damico@ed.gov)  
[tracy.hunt-white@ed.gov](mailto:tracy.hunt-white@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/npsas>

## Private School Universe Survey

The purposes of the Private School Universe Survey (PSS) data collection activities are (1) to build an accurate and complete list of private schools to serve as a sampling frame for NCES sample surveys of private schools and (2) to report data on the total number of private schools, teachers, and students in the survey universe. Begun in 1989, the PSS has been conducted every 2 years, and data for the 1989–90, 1991–92, 1993–94, 1995–96, 1997–98, 1999–2000, 2001–02, 2003–04, 2005–06, 2007–08, 2009–10, 2011–12, and 2013–14 school years have been released. A *First Look* report on the 2011–12 PSS data, *Characteristics of Private Schools in the United States: Results From the 2011–12 Private School Universe Survey* (NCES 2013-316) was published in July 2013.

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.

Further information on the PSS may be obtained from

Steve Broughman  
 Sample Surveys Division  
 Cross-Sectional Surveys Branch  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
[stephen.broughman@ed.gov](mailto:stephen.broughman@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/pss>

## 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 titled *Projections of Education Statistics to 2024* (NCES 2016-013). 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 enrollments have been quite accurate: mean absolute percentage differences for enrollment ranged from 0.3 to 1.3 percent for projections from 1 to 5 years in the future, while those for teachers

were less than 3 percent. At the higher education level, projections of enrollment have been fairly accurate: mean absolute percentage differences were 5 percent or less for projections from 1 to 5 years into the future.

Further information on *Projections of Education Statistics* may be obtained from

William Hussar  
Annual Reports and Information Staff  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[william.hussar@ed.gov](mailto:william.hussar@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2016013>

## 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.

Further information on the Civil Rights Data Collection may be obtained from

Office for Civil Rights  
U.S. Department of Education  
400 Maryland Avenue SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[OCR@ed.gov](mailto:OCR@ed.gov)  
<http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/data.html>

### *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 6.5 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 to Congress annually a report 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, Palau, and 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

Office of Special Education Programs  
Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services  
U.S. Department of Education  
400 Maryland Avenue SW  
Washington, DC 20202-7100  
<http://www.ed.gov/about/reports/annual/osep/index.html>  
<http://idea.ed.gov/>  
<http://www.ideadata.org>

## Other Governmental Agencies and Programs

### *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

#### Consumer Price Indexes

The Consumer Price Index (CPI) represents changes in prices of all goods and services purchased for consumption by urban households. Indexes are available for two population groups: a CPI for All Urban Consumers (CPI-U) and a CPI for Urban Wage Earners and Clerical Workers (CPI-W). Unless otherwise specified, data in this report are adjusted for inflation using the CPI-U. These values are generally adjusted to a school-year basis by averaging the July through June figures. Price indexes are available for the United States, the four Census regions, size of city, cross-classifications of regions and size classes, and 26 local areas. The major uses of the CPI include as an economic indicator, as a deflator of other economic series, and as a means of adjusting income.

Also available is the Consumer Price Index research series using current methods (CPI-U-RS), which presents an estimate of the CPI-U from 1978 to the present that incorporates most of the improvements that the Bureau of Labor Statistics has made over that time span into the entire series. The historical price index series of the CPI-U does not reflect these changes, though these changes do make the present and future CPI more accurate. The limitations of the CPI-U-RS include considerable uncertainty surrounding the magnitude of the adjustments and the several improvements in the CPI

that have not been incorporated into the CPI-U-RS for various reasons. Nonetheless, the CPI-U-RS can serve as a valuable proxy for researchers needing a historical estimate of inflation using current methods. This series has not been used in NCES tables.

Further information on consumer price indexes may be obtained from

Bureau of Labor Statistics  
U.S. Department of Labor  
2 Massachusetts Avenue NE  
Washington, DC 20212  
<http://www.bls.gov/cpi>

## Employment and Unemployment Surveys

Statistics on the employment and unemployment status of the population and related data are compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) using data from the Current Population Survey (CPS) (see below) and other surveys. The CPS, a monthly household survey conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau for the Bureau of Labor Statistics, provides a comprehensive body of information on the employment and unemployment experience of the nation's population, classified by age, sex, race, and various other characteristics.

Further information on unemployment surveys may be obtained from

Bureau of Labor Statistics  
U.S. Department of Labor  
2 Massachusetts Avenue NE  
Washington, DC 20212  
[cpsinfo@bls.gov](mailto:cpsinfo@bls.gov)  
<http://www.bls.gov/bls/employment.htm>

### *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 noninstitutional facilities such as workers and religious group quarters and temporary shelters for the homeless.

National-level data from the ACS are available from 2000 onward. The ACS produces 1-year estimates for jurisdictions with populations of 65,000 and over and 5-year estimates for jurisdictions with smaller populations. The 1-year estimates for 2015 used data collected between January 1, 2015, and December 31, 2015, and the 5-year estimates for 2011–2015 used data collected between January 1, 2011, and December 31, 2015. The ACS produced 3-year estimates (for jurisdictions with populations of 20,000 or over) for the periods 2005–2007, 2006–2008, 2007–2009, 2008–2010, 2009–2011, 2010–2012, and 2011–2013. Three-year estimates for these periods will continue to be available to data users, but no further 3-year estimates will be produced.

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” is no longer used; it 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  
<http://www.census.gov/main/www/cen1990.html>  
<http://www.census.gov/main/www/cen2000.html>

## Current Population Survey

The Current Population Survey (CPS) is a monthly survey of about 60,000 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. noninstitutionalized population (e.g., it excludes military personnel and their families living on bases and inmates of correctional institutions). 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.

The current sample design, introduced in July 2001, includes about 72,000 households. Each month about 58,900 of the 72,000 households are eligible for interview, and of those, 7 to 10 percent are not interviewed because of temporary absence or unavailability. 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 survey. Prior to July 2001, data were collected in the CPS from about 50,000 dwelling units. The samples are initially selected based on the decennial census files and are periodically updated to reflect new housing construction.

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.

Prior to 2009, standard errors were estimated using the generalized variance function. The generalized variance function is a simple model that expresses the variance as a function of the expected value of a survey estimate. Beginning with March 2009 CPS data, standard errors were estimated using replicate weight methodology. 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](http://thedataweb.rm.census.gov/pub/cps/supps/HH-level%20Use%20of%20the%20Public%20Use%20Replicate%20Weight%20File.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>

### ***Computer and Internet Use***

The Current Population Survey (CPS) has been conducting supplemental data collections regarding computer use since 1984. In 1997, these supplemental data collections were expanded to include data on internet access. More recently, data regarding computer and internet use were collected in October 2010, July 2011, October 2012, July 2013, and July 2015.

In the July 2011, 2013, and 2015 supplements, the sole focus was on computer and internet use. In the October 2010 and 2012 supplements questions on school enrollment were the principal focus, and questions on computer and internet use were less prominent. Measurable differences in estimates taken from these supplements across years could reflect actual changes in the population; however, differences could also reflect seasonal variations in data collection or differences between the content of the July and October supplements. Therefore, caution should be used when making year-to-year comparisons of CPS computer and internet use estimates.

The most recent computer and internet use supplement, conducted in July 2015, collected household information from all eligible CPS households, as well as information from individual household members age 3 and over.

Information was collected about the household's computer and internet use and the household member's use of the Internet from any location in the past year. Additionally, information was gathered regarding a randomly selected household respondent's use of the Internet.

For the July 2015 basic CPS, the household-level nonresponse rate was 13.0 percent. The person-level nonresponse rate for the computer and internet use supplement was an additional 23.0 percent. Since one rate is a person-level rate and the other a household-level rate, the rates cannot be combined to derive an overall rate.

Further information on the CPS Computer and Internet Use Supplement may be obtained from

Education and Social Stratification Branch  
Census Bureau  
U.S. Department of Commerce  
4600 Silver Hill Road  
Washington, DC 20233  
<http://census.gov/topics/population/computer-internet.html>

### ***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 2015 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

Joel McFarland  
Annual Reports and Information Staff  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[joel.mcfarland@ed.gov](mailto:joel.mcfarland@ed.gov)

### ***Educational Attainment***

Reports documenting educational attainment are produced by the Census Bureau using March Current Population Survey (CPS) supplement (Annual Social and Economic supplement [ASEC]) results. The sample size for the 2014 ASEC supplement (including basic CPS) was about 98,000 addresses; the tables may be downloaded at <https://www.census.gov/topics/education/educational-attainment/data/tables.2014.html>. The sample size for the 2015 ASEC supplement (including basic CPS) was about 100,000 addresses. The results were released in *Educational Attainment in the United States: 2015*; the tables may be downloaded at <https://www.census.gov/topics/education/educational-attainment/data/tables.2015.html>. The sample size for the 2016 ASEC supplement (including basic CPS) was about 94,000 households. 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. Another cause of nonsampling variability is the change in the numbers in the armed services over the years.

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. Prior to 2001, the October supplement consisted of approximately 47,000 interviewed households. Beginning with the October 2001 supplement, the sample was expanded by 9,000 to a total of approximately 56,000 interviewed households. 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 2015 basic CPS, the household-level nonresponse rate was 12.9 percent. The person-level nonresponse rate for the school enrollment supplement was an additional 8.9 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 of 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 [www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/](http://www.ojp.usdoj.gov/bjs/).

### *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, 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 Victimizations in the National Crime Victimization Survey* at <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/mchfrv.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 <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv06.pdf>, the technical notes at <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv06tn.pdf>, and *Criminal Victimization, 2007*, at <http://bjs.ojp.usdoj.gov/content/pub/pdf/cv07.pdf>.

The number of NCVS-eligible households in the sample in 2015 was 95,760. 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. About 80,000 persons age 12 and over are interviewed each 6 months. 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 to bound future interviews to establish a time frame to avoid duplication 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 2015, the household response rate was about 82 percent and the completion rate for persons within households was about 86 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

Rachel E. Morgan  
Victimization Statistics Branch  
Bureau of Justice Statistics  
[rachel.morgan@usdoj.gov](mailto:rachel.morgan@usdoj.gov)  
<http://www.bjs.gov/>

### *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. This report includes data from the 1995, 1999, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2009, 2011, 2013, and 2015 collections. The 1989 data are not included in this report as a result of methodological changes to the NCVS and SCS. 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 in recent years, 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 83 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](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 in 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  
Sample Surveys Division  
Cross-Sectional Surveys Branch  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
(202) 245-7082  
[rachel.hansen@ed.gov](mailto:rachel.hansen@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/programs/crime>

## Other Organization Sources

### *International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement*

The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) is composed of governmental research centers and national research institutions around the world whose aim is to investigate education problems common among countries. Since its inception in 1958, the IEA has conducted more than 30 research studies of cross-national achievement. The regular cycle of studies encompasses learning in basic school subjects. Examples are the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS). IEA projects also include studies of particular interest to IEA members, such as the TIMSS 1999 Video Study of Mathematics and Science Teaching, the Civic Education Study, and studies on information technology in education.

The international bodies that coordinate international assessments vary in the labels they apply to participating education systems, most of which are countries. IEA differentiates between IEA members, which IEA refers to as “countries” in all cases, and “benchmarking participants.” IEA members include countries such as the United States and Ireland, as well as subnational entities such as England and Scotland (which are both part of the United Kingdom), the Flemish community of Belgium, and Hong Kong (a Special Administrative Region of China). IEA benchmarking participants are all subnational entities and include Canadian provinces, U.S. states, and Dubai in the United Arab Emirates (among others). Benchmarking participants, like the participating countries, are given the opportunity to assess the comparative international standing of their students’ achievement and to view their curriculum and instruction in an international context.

Some IEA studies, such as TIMSS and PIRLS, include an assessment portion, as well as contextual questionnaires for collecting information about students’ home and



school experiences. The TIMSS and PIRLS scales, including the scale averages and standard deviations, are designed to remain constant from assessment to assessment so that education systems (including countries and subnational education systems) can compare their scores over time as well as compare their scores directly with the scores of other education systems. Although each scale was created to have a mean of 500 and a standard deviation of 100, the subject matter and the level of difficulty of items necessarily differ by grade, subject, and domain/dimension. Therefore, direct comparisons between scores across grades, subjects, and different domain/dimension types should not be made.

Further information on the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement may be obtained from <http://www.iea.nl>.

## Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study

The Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS, formerly known as the Third International Mathematics and Science Study) provides data on the mathematics and science achievement of U.S. 4th- and 8th-graders compared with that of their peers in other countries. TIMSS collects information through mathematics and science assessments and questionnaires. The questionnaires request information to help provide a context for student performance. They focus on such topics as students' attitudes and beliefs about learning mathematics and science, what students do as part of their mathematics and science lessons, students' completion of homework, and their lives both in and outside of school; teachers' perceptions of their preparedness for teaching mathematics and science, teaching assignments, class size and organization, instructional content and practices, collaboration with other teachers, and participation in professional development activities; and principals' viewpoints on policy and budget responsibilities, curriculum and instruction issues, and student behavior. The questionnaires also elicit information on the organization of schools and courses. The assessments and questionnaires are designed to specifications in a guiding framework. The TIMSS framework describes the mathematics and science content to be assessed and provides grade-specific objectives, an overview of the assessment design, and guidelines for item development.

TIMSS is on a 4-year cycle. Data collections occurred in 1995, 1999 (8th grade only), 2003, 2007, 2011, and 2015. TIMSS 2015 consisted of assessments in 4th-grade mathematics; numeracy (a less difficult version of 4th-grade mathematics, newly developed for 2015); 8th-grade mathematics; 4th-grade science; and 8th-grade science. In addition, TIMSS 2015 included the

third administration of TIMSS Advanced since 1995. TIMSS Advanced is an international comparative study that measures the advanced mathematics and physics achievement of students in their final year of secondary school (the equivalent of 12th grade in the United States) who are taking or have taken advanced courses. The TIMSS 2015 survey also collected policy-relevant information about students, curriculum emphasis, technology use, and teacher preparation and training.

## Progress in International Reading Literacy Study

The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) provides data on the reading literacy of U.S. 4th-graders compared with that of their peers in other countries. PIRLS is on a 5-year cycle: PIRLS data collections have been conducted in 2001, 2006, and 2011. In 2011, a total of 57 education systems, including 48 IEA members and 9 benchmarking participants, participated in the survey.

PIRLS collects information through a reading literacy assessment and questionnaires that help to provide a context for student performance. Questionnaires are administered to collect information about students' home and school experiences in learning to read. A student questionnaire addresses students' attitudes toward reading and their reading habits. In addition, questionnaires are given to students' teachers and school principals in order to gather information about students' school experiences in developing reading literacy. In countries other than the United States, a parent questionnaire is also administered. The assessments and questionnaires are designed to specifications in a guiding framework. The PIRLS framework describes the reading content to be assessed and provides objectives specific to 4th grade, an overview of the assessment design, and guidelines for item development.

## TIMSS and PIRLS Sampling and Response Rates

### *2011 PIRLS*

As is done in all participating countries and other education systems, representative samples of students in the United States are selected. The sample design that was employed by PIRLS in 2011 is generally referred to as a two-stage stratified cluster sample. In the first stage of sampling, individual schools were selected with a probability proportionate to size (PPS) approach, which means that the probability is proportional to the estimated number of students enrolled in the target grade. In the second stage of sampling, intact classrooms were selected within sampled schools.

PIRLS guidelines call for a minimum of 150 schools to be sampled, with a minimum of 4,000 students assessed. The basic sample design of one classroom per school was designed to yield a total sample of approximately 4,500 students per population.

Because PIRLS was also administered at grade 4 in spring 2011, TIMSS and PIRLS in the United States were administered in the same schools to the extent feasible. Students took either TIMSS or PIRLS on the day of the assessments. About 13,000 U.S. students participated in PIRLS in 2011, joining 300,000 other student participants around the world. Accommodations were not provided for students with disabilities or students who were unable to read or speak the language of the test. These students were excluded from the sample. The IEA requirement is that the overall exclusion rate, which includes exclusions of schools and students, should not exceed more than 5 percent of the national desired target population.

In order to minimize the potential for response biases, the IEA developed participation or response rate standards that apply to all participating education systems and govern whether or not an education system's data are included in the TIMSS or PIRLS international datasets and the way in which its statistics are presented in the international reports. These standards were set using composites of response rates at the school, classroom, and student and teacher levels. Response rates were calculated with and without the inclusion of substitute schools that were selected to replace schools refusing to participate. In the 2011 PIRLS administered in the United States, the weighted school participation rate was 80 percent before the use of substitute schools and 85 percent after the use of replacement schools; the weighted student response rate was 96 percent.

### ***2015 TIMSS and TIMSS Advanced***

TIMSS 2015 was administered between March and May of 2015 in the United States. The U.S. sample was randomly selected and weighted to be representative of the nation. In order to reliably and accurately represent the performance of each country, international guidelines required that countries sample at least 150 schools and at least 4,000 students per grade (countries with small class sizes of fewer than 30 students per school were directed to consider sampling more schools, more classrooms per school, or both, to meet the minimum target of 4,000 tested students). In the United States, a total of 250 schools and 10,029 students participated in the grade 4 TIMSS survey, and 246 schools and 10,221 students participated in the grade 8 TIMSS (these figures do

not include the participation of the state of Florida as a subnational education system, which was separate from and additional to its participation in the U.S. national sample).

TIMSS Advanced, also administered between March and May of 2015 in the United States, required participating countries and other education systems to draw probability samples of students in their final year of secondary school—ISCED Level 3—who were taking or had taken courses in advanced mathematics or who were taking or had taken courses in physics. International guidelines for TIMSS Advanced called for a minimum of 120 schools to be sampled, with a minimum of 3,600 students assessed per subject. In the United States, a total of 241 schools and 2,954 students participated in advanced mathematics, and 165 schools and 2,932 students participated in physics.

In TIMSS 2015, the weighted school response rate for the United States was 77 percent for grade 4 before the use of substitute schools (schools substituted for originally sampled schools that refused to participate) and 85 percent with the inclusion of substitute schools. For grade 8, the weighted school response rate before the use of substitute schools was 78 percent, and it was 84 percent with the inclusion of substitute schools. The weighted student response rate was 96 percent for grade 4 and 94 percent for grade 8.

In TIMSS Advanced 2015, the weighted school response rate for the United States for advanced mathematics was 72 percent before the use of substitute schools and 76 percent with the inclusion of substitute schools. The weighted school response rate for the United States for physics was 65 percent before the use of substitute schools and 68 percent with the inclusion of substitute schools. The weighted student response rate was 87 percent for advanced mathematics and 85 percent for physics. Student response rates are based on a combined total of students from both sampled and substitute schools.

Further information on the TIMSS study may be obtained from

Stephen Provasnik  
 International Assessment Branch  
 Assessments Division  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
 (202) 245-6442  
[stephen.provasnik@ed.gov](mailto:stephen.provasnik@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/timss>  
<http://www.iea.nl/timss>

Further information on the PIRLS study may be obtained from

Sheila Thompson  
 International Assessment Branch  
 Assessments Division  
 National Center for Education Statistics  
 550 12th Street SW  
 Washington, DC 20202  
 (202) 245-8330  
[sheila.thompson@ed.gov](mailto:sheila.thompson@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/pirls/>  
<http://www.iea.nl/pirls-past-cycles#pirls-2011>

## Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development

The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) publishes analyses of national policies and survey data in education, training, and economics in OECD and partner countries. Newer studies include student survey data on financial literacy and on digital literacy.

### Education at a Glance

To highlight current education issues and create a set of comparative education indicators that represent key features of education systems, OECD initiated the Indicators of Education Systems (INES) project and charged the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation (CERI) with developing the cross-national indicators for it. The development of these indicators involved representatives of the OECD countries and the OECD Secretariat. Improvements in data quality and comparability among OECD countries have resulted from the country-to-country interaction sponsored through the INES project. The most recent publication in this series is *Education at a Glance 2016: OECD Indicators*.

*Education at a Glance 2016* features data on the 35 OECD countries (Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Latvia, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States) and a number of partner countries, namely, Argentina, Brazil, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, India, Indonesia, Lithuania, the Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia, and South Africa.

The *OECD Handbook for Internationally Comparative Education Statistics: Concepts, Standards, Definitions, and Classifications* provides countries with specific guidance on

how to prepare information for OECD education surveys; facilitates countries' understanding of OECD indicators and their use in policy analysis; and provides a reference for collecting and assimilating educational data. Chapter 7 of the *OECD Handbook for Internationally Comparative Education Statistics* contains a discussion of data quality issues. Users should examine footnotes carefully to recognize some of the data limitations.

Further information on international education statistics may be obtained from

Andreas Schleicher  
 Director for the Directorate of Education and Skills  
 and Special Advisor on Education Policy  
 to the OECD's Secretary General  
 OECD Directorate for Education and Skills  
 2, rue André Pascal  
 75775 Paris CEDEX 16  
 France  
[andreas.schleicher@oecd.org](mailto:andreas.schleicher@oecd.org)  
<http://www.oecd.org>

### Program for International Student Assessment

The Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) is a system of international assessments organized by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), an intergovernmental organization of industrialized countries, that focuses on 15-year-olds' capabilities in reading literacy, mathematics literacy, and science literacy. PISA also includes measures of general, or cross-curricular, competencies such as learning strategies. PISA emphasizes functional skills that students have acquired as they near the end of compulsory schooling.

PISA is a 2-hour exam. Assessment items include a combination of multiple-choice questions and open-ended questions that require students to develop their own response. PISA scores are reported on a scale that ranges from 0 to 1,000, with the OECD mean set at 500 and a standard deviation set at 100. In 2015, literacy in science, reading, and mathematics were assessed through a computer-based assessment in the majority of countries, including the United States. Education systems could also participate in optional pencil-and-paper financial literacy assessments and computer-based mathematics and reading assessments. In each education system, the assessment is translated into the primary language of instruction; in the United States, all materials are written in English.

Forty-three education systems participated in the 2000 PISA; 41 education systems participated in 2003; 57 (30 OECD member countries and 27 nonmember

countries or education systems) participated in 2006; and 65 (34 OECD member countries and 31 nonmember countries or education systems) participated in 2009. (An additional nine education systems administered the 2009 PISA in 2010.) In PISA 2012, 65 education systems (34 OECD member countries and 31 nonmember countries or education systems), as well as the U.S. states of Connecticut, Florida, and Massachusetts, participated. In the 2015 PISA, 73 education systems (35 OECD member countries and 31 nonmember countries or education systems), as well as the states of Massachusetts and North Carolina and the territory of Puerto Rico, participated.

To implement PISA, each of the participating education systems scientifically draws a nationally representative sample of 15-year-olds, regardless of grade level. In the PISA 2015 national sample for the United States, about 5,700 students from 177 public and private schools were represented. Massachusetts, North Carolina, and Puerto Rico also participated in PISA 2015 as separate education systems. In Massachusetts, about 1,400 students from 48 public schools participated; in North Carolina, about 1,900 students from 54 public schools participated; and in Puerto Rico, about 1,400 students in 47 public and private schools participated.

The intent of PISA reporting is to provide an overall description of performance in reading literacy, mathematics literacy, and science literacy every 3 years, and to provide a more detailed look at each domain in the years when it is the major focus. These cycles will allow education systems to compare changes in trends for each of the three subject areas over time. In the first cycle, PISA 2000, reading literacy was the major focus, occupying roughly two-thirds of assessment time. For 2003, PISA focused on mathematics literacy as well as the ability of students to solve problems in real-life settings. In 2006, PISA focused on science literacy; in 2009, it focused on reading literacy again; and in 2012, it focused on mathematics literacy. PISA 2015 focused on science, as it did in 2006.

Further information on PISA may be obtained from

Patrick Gonzales  
International Assessment Branch  
Assessments Division  
National Center for Education Statistics  
550 12th Street SW  
Washington, DC 20202  
[patrick.gonzales@ed.gov](mailto:patrick.gonzales@ed.gov)  
<http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/pisa>

# Glossary

## A

**Achievement gap** See Gap.

**Achievement levels, NAEP** Specific achievement levels for each subject area and grade to provide a context for interpreting student performance. At this time they are being used on a trial basis.

**Basic**—denotes partial mastery of the knowledge and skills that are fundamental for *proficient* work at a given grade.

**Proficient**—represents solid academic performance. Students reaching this level have demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter.

**Advanced**—signifies superior performance.

**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.

**Adjusted Cohort Graduation Rate (ACGR)** The number of students who graduate in 4 years with a regular high school diploma divided by the number of students who form the adjusted cohort for the graduating class. From the beginning of 9th grade (or the earliest high school grade), students who are entering that grade for the first time form a cohort that is “adjusted” by adding any students who subsequently transfer into the cohort and subtracting any students who subsequently transfer out, emigrate to another country, or die.

## 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.

## C

**Capital outlay** Funds for the acquisition of land and buildings; building construction, remodeling, and additions; the initial installation or extension of service systems and other built-in equipment; and site improvement. The category also encompasses architectural and engineering services including the development of blueprints.

**Catholic school** A private school over which a Roman Catholic church group exercises some control or provides some form of subsidy. Catholic schools for the most part

include those operated or supported by a parish, a group of parishes, a diocese, or a Catholic religious order.

**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.

**Combined school** A school that encompasses instruction at both the elementary and the secondary levels; includes schools starting with grade 6 or below and ending with grade 9 or above.

**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.

**Control of institutions** A classification of institutions of elementary/secondary or postsecondary education by whether the institution is operated by publicly elected or appointed officials and derives its primary support from public funds (public control) or is operated by privately elected or appointed officials and derives its major source of funds from private sources (private control).

**Current expenditures (elementary/secondary)** The expenditures for operating local public schools, excluding

capital outlay and interest on school debt. These expenditures include such items as salaries for school personnel, benefits, student transportation, school books and materials, and energy costs. Beginning in 1980–81, expenditures for state administration are excluded.

**Instruction expenditures** Includes expenditures for activities related to the interaction between teacher and students. Includes salaries and benefits for teachers and instructional aides, textbooks, supplies, and purchased services such as instruction via television, webinars, and other online instruction. Also included are tuition expenditures to other local education agencies.

**Administration expenditures** Includes expenditures for school administration (i.e., the office of the principal, full-time department chairpersons, and graduation expenses), general administration (the superintendent and board of education and their immediate staff), and other support services expenditures.

**Transportation** Includes expenditures for vehicle operation, monitoring, and vehicle servicing and maintenance.

**Food services** Includes all expenditures associated with providing food to students and staff in a school or school district. The services include preparing and serving regular and incidental meals or snacks in connection with school activities, as well as the delivery of food to schools.

**Enterprise operations** Includes expenditures for activities that are financed, at least in part, by user charges, similar to a private business. These include operations funded by sales of products or services, together with amounts for direct program support made by state education agencies for local school districts.

## 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 school 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. It also includes a hearing impairment which is so severe that the student is impaired in processing linguistic information through hearing (with or without amplification) and which adversely affects educational performance.

**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.

**Distance education** Education that uses one or more technologies to deliver instruction to students who are separated from the instructor and to support regular and substantive interaction between the students and the instructor synchronously or asynchronously. Technologies used for instruction may include the following: Internet; one-way and two-way transmissions through open broadcasts, closed circuit, cable, microwave, broadband lines, fiber optics, and satellite or wireless communication devices; audio conferencing; and DVDs and CD-ROMs, if used in a course in conjunction with the technologies listed above.

**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. The doctor's degree classification encompasses three main subcategories—research/scholarship degrees, professional practice degrees, and other degrees—which are described below.

**Doctor's degree—research/scholarship** A Ph.D. or other doctor's degree that requires advanced work beyond the master's level, including the preparation and defense of a dissertation based on original research, or the planning and execution of an original project demonstrating substantial artistic or scholarly achievement. Examples of this type of degree may include the following and others, as designated by the awarding institution: the Ed.D. (in education), D.M.A. (in musical arts), D.B.A. (in business administration), D.Sc. (in science), D.A. (in arts), or D.M. (in medicine).

**Doctor's degree—professional practice** A doctor's degree that is conferred upon completion of a program providing the knowledge and skills for the recognition, credential, or license required for professional practice. The degree is awarded after a period of study such that the total time to the degree, including both preprofessional and professional preparation, equals at least 6 full-time-equivalent academic years. Some doctor's degrees of this type were formerly classified as first-professional degrees. Examples of this type of degree may include the following and others, as designated by the awarding institution: the D.C. or D.C.M. (in chiropractic); D.D.S. or D.M.D. (in dentistry); L.L.B. or J.D. (in law); M.D. (in medicine); O.D. (in optometry); D.O. (in osteopathic medicine); Pharm.D. (in pharmacy); D.P.M., Pod.D., or D.P. (in podiatry); or D.V.M. (in veterinary medicine).

**Doctor's degree—other** A doctor's degree that does not meet the definition of either a doctor's degree—research/scholarship or a doctor's degree—professional practice.

## E

**Educational attainment** The highest grade of regular school attended and completed.

**Educational attainment (Current Population Survey)**

This measure uses March CPS data to estimate the percentage of civilian, noninstitutionalized people who have achieved certain levels of educational attainment. Estimates of educational attainment do not differentiate between those who graduated from public schools, those who graduated from private schools, and those who earned a GED; these estimates also include individuals who earned their credential or completed their highest level of education outside of the United States.

**1972–1991** During this period, an individual’s educational attainment was considered to be his or her last fully completed year of school. Individuals who completed 12 years of schooling were deemed to be high school graduates, as were those who began but did not complete the first year of college. Respondents who completed 16 or more years of schooling were counted as college graduates.

**1992–present** Beginning in 1992, CPS asked respondents to report their highest level of school completed or their highest degree received. This change means that some data collected before 1992 are not strictly comparable with data collected from 1992 onward and that care must be taken when making comparisons across years. The revised survey question emphasizes credentials received rather than the last grade level attended or completed. The new categories include the following:

- 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, Full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment, and Part-time enrollment.

**Expenditures, Total** For elementary/secondary schools, these include all charges for current outlays plus capital outlays and interest on school debt. For degree-granting institutions, these include current outlays plus capital outlays. For government, these include charges net of recoveries and other correcting transactions other than for retirement of debt, investment in securities, extension of credit, or as agency transactions. Government expenditures include only external transactions, such as the provision of perquisites or other payments in kind. Aggregates for groups of governments exclude intergovernmental transactions among the governments.

**Expenditures per pupil** Charges incurred for a particular period of time divided by a student unit of measure, such as average daily attendance or fall enrollment.

## F

**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.

**For-profit institution** See Private institution.

**Free or reduced-price lunch** See National School Lunch Program.

**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.

**Full-time-equivalent (FTE) enrollment** For postsecondary institutions, enrollment of full-time students, plus the full-time equivalent of part-time students. The full-time equivalent of the part-time students is estimated using different factors depending on the type and control of institution and level of student.

## G

**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.

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

### Northeast

Connecticut (CT)  
Maine (ME)  
Massachusetts (MA)  
New Hampshire (NH)  
New Jersey (NJ)  
New York (NY)  
Pennsylvania (PA)  
Rhode Island (RI)  
Vermont (VT)

### Midwest

Illinois (IL)  
Indiana (IN)  
Iowa (IA)  
Kansas (KS)  
Michigan (MI)  
Minnesota (MN)  
Missouri (MO)  
Nebraska (NE)  
North Dakota (ND)  
Ohio (OH)  
South Dakota (SD)  
Wisconsin (WI)

### South

Alabama (AL)  
Arkansas (AR)  
Delaware (DE)  
District of Columbia (DC)  
Florida (FL)  
Georgia (GA)  
Kentucky (KY)  
Louisiana (LA)  
Maryland (MD)  
Mississippi (MS)  
North Carolina (NC)  
Oklahoma (OK)  
South Carolina (SC)  
Tennessee (TN)  
Texas (TX)  
Virginia (VA)  
West Virginia (WV)

### West

Alaska (AK)  
Arizona (AZ)  
California (CA)  
Colorado (CO)  
Hawaii (HI)  
Idaho (ID)  
Montana (MT)  
Nevada (NV)  
New Mexico (NM)  
Oregon (OR)  
Utah (UT)  
Washington (WA)  
Wyoming (WY)

**Gross domestic product (GDP)** The total national output of goods and services valued at market prices. GDP can be viewed in terms of expenditure categories which include purchases of goods and services by consumers and government, gross private domestic investment, and net exports of goods and services. The goods and services included are largely those bought for final use (excluding illegal transactions) in the market economy. A number of inclusions, however, represent imputed values, the most important of which is rental value of owner-occupied housing.

## H

**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.

**Household** All the people who occupy a housing unit. A house, an apartment, a mobile home, a group of rooms, or a single room is regarded as a housing unit when it is occupied or intended for occupancy as separate living quarters, that is, when the occupants do not live and eat with any other people in the structure, and there is direct access from the outside or through a common hall.

## I

**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.

**Interest on debt** Includes expenditures for long-term debt service interest payments (i.e., those longer than 1 year).

**International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)** Used to compare educational systems in different countries. ISCED is the standard used by many countries to report education statistics to the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). ISCED was revised in 2011.

**ISCED 2011** ISCED 2011 divides educational systems into the following nine categories, based on eight levels of education.

**ISCED Level 0** Education preceding the first level (early childhood education) includes early childhood programs that target children below the age of entry into primary education.

**ISCED Level 01** Early childhood educational development programs are generally designed for children younger than 3 years.

**ISCED Level 02** Preprimary education preceding the first level usually begins at age 3, 4, or 5 (sometimes earlier) and lasts from 1 to 3 years, when it is provided. In the United States, this level includes nursery school and kindergarten.

**ISCED Level 1** Education at the first level (primary or elementary education) usually begins at age 5, 6, or 7 and continues for about 4 to 6 years. For the United States, the first level starts with 1st grade and ends with 6th grade.

**ISCED Level 2** Education at the second level (lower secondary education) typically begins at about age 11 or 12 and continues for about 2 to 6 years. For the United States, the second level starts with 7th grade and typically ends with 9th grade. Education at the lower secondary level continues the basic programs of the first level, although teaching is typically more subject focused, often using more specialized teachers who conduct classes in their field of specialization. The main criterion for distinguishing lower secondary education from primary education is whether programs begin to be organized in a more subject-oriented pattern, using more specialized teachers conducting classes in their field of specialization. If there is no clear breakpoint for this organizational change, lower secondary education is considered to begin at the end of 6 years of primary education. In countries with no clear division between lower secondary and upper secondary education, and where lower secondary education lasts for more than 3 years, only the first 3 years following primary education are counted as lower secondary education.

**ISCED Level 3** Education at the third level (upper secondary education) typically begins at age 15 or 16 and lasts for approximately 3 years. In the United States, the third level starts with 10th grade and ends with 12th grade. Upper secondary education is the final stage of secondary education in most OECD countries. Instruction is often organized along subject-matter lines, in contrast to the lower secondary level, and teachers typically must have a higher level, or more subject-specific, qualification. There are substantial differences in the typical duration of programs both across and between

countries, ranging from 2 to 5 years of schooling. The main criteria for classifications are (1) national boundaries between lower and upper secondary education and (2) admission into educational programs, which usually requires the completion of lower secondary education or a combination of basic education and life experience that demonstrates the ability to handle the subject matter in upper secondary schools. Includes programs designed to review the content of third level programs, such as preparatory courses for tertiary education entrance examinations, and programs leading to a qualification equivalent to upper secondary general education.

**ISCED Level 4** Education at the fourth level (postsecondary non-tertiary education) straddles the boundary between secondary and postsecondary education. This program of study, which is primarily vocational in nature, is generally taken after the completion of secondary school and typically lasts from 6 months to 2 years. Although the content of these programs may not be significantly more advanced than upper secondary programs, these programs serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already gained an upper secondary qualification.

**ISCED Level 5** Education at the fifth level (short-cycle tertiary education) is noticeably more complex than in upper secondary programs giving access to this level. Content at the fifth level is usually practically-based, occupationally specific, and prepare students to enter the labor market. However, the fifth level may also provide a pathway to other tertiary education programs (the sixth or seventh level). Short cycle-tertiary programs last for at least 2 years, and usually for no more than 3. In the United States, this level includes associate's degrees.

**ISCED Level 6** Education at the sixth level (bachelor's or equivalent level) is longer and usually more theoretically oriented than programs at the fifth level, but may include practical components. Entry into these programs normally requires the completion of a third or fourth level program. They typically have a duration of 3 to 4 years of full-time study. Programs at the sixth level do not necessarily require the preparation of a substantive thesis or dissertation.

**ISCED Level 7** Education at the seventh level (master's or equivalent level) has significantly more complex and specialized content than programs at the sixth level. The content at the seventh level is often designed to provide participants with advanced academic and/or professional knowledge, skills, and competencies, leading to a second degree or equivalent qualification. Programs at this level may have a substantial research component but do not yet lead to the award of a doctoral qualification. In the United States, this level includes professional degrees such as J.D., M.D., and D.D.S., as well as master degrees.

**ISCED Level 8** Education at the eighth level (doctoral or equivalent level) is provided in graduate and professional schools that generally require a university degree or diploma as a minimum condition for admission. Programs at this level lead to the award of an advanced, postgraduate degree, such as a Ph.D. The theoretical duration of these programs is 3 years of full-time enrollment in most countries (for a cumulative total of at least 7 years at the tertiary level), although the length of the actual enrollment is often longer. Programs at this level are devoted to advanced study and original research.

**ISCED 1997** ISCED 1997 divides educational systems into the following seven categories, based on six levels of education.

**ISCED Level 0** Education preceding the first level (early childhood education) usually begins at age 3, 4, or 5 (sometimes earlier) and lasts from 1 to 3 years, when it is provided. In the United States, this level includes nursery school and kindergarten.

**ISCED Level 1** Education at the first level (primary or elementary education) usually begins at age 5, 6, or 7 and continues for about 4 to 6 years. For the United States, the first level starts with 1st grade and ends with 6th grade.

**ISCED Level 2** Education at the second level (lower secondary education) typically begins at about age 11 or 12 and continues for about 2 to 6 years. For the United States, the second level starts with 7th grade and typically ends with 9th grade. Education at the lower secondary level continues the basic programs of the first level, although teaching is typically more subject focused, often using more specialized teachers who conduct classes in their field of specialization. The main criterion for distinguishing lower secondary education from primary education is whether programs begin to be organized in a more subject-oriented pattern, using more specialized teachers conducting classes in their field of specialization. If there is no clear breakpoint for this organizational change, lower secondary education is considered to begin at the end of 6 years of primary education. In countries with no clear division between lower secondary and upper secondary education, and where lower secondary education lasts for more than 3 years, only the first 3 years following primary education are counted as lower secondary education.

**ISCED Level 3** Education at the third level (upper secondary education) typically begins at age 15 or 16 and lasts for approximately 3 years. In the United States, the third level starts with 10th grade and ends with 12th grade. Upper secondary education is the final stage of secondary education in most OECD countries. Instruction is often organized along subject-matter lines, in contrast to the lower

secondary level, and teachers typically must have a higher level, or more subject-specific, qualification. There are substantial differences in the typical duration of programs both across and between countries, ranging from 2 to 5 years of schooling. The main criteria for classifications are (1) national boundaries between lower and upper secondary education and (2) admission into educational programs, which usually requires the completion of lower secondary education or a combination of basic education and life experience that demonstrates the ability to handle the subject matter in upper secondary schools.

**ISCED Level 4** Education at the fourth level (postsecondary non-tertiary education) straddles the boundary between secondary and postsecondary education. This program of study, which is primarily vocational in nature, is generally taken after the completion of secondary school and typically lasts from 6 months to 2 years. Although the content of these programs may not be significantly more advanced than upper secondary programs, these programs serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already gained an upper secondary qualification.

**ISCED Level 5** Education at the fifth level (first stage of tertiary education) includes programs with more advanced content than those offered at the two previous levels. Entry into programs at the fifth level normally requires successful completion of either of the two previous levels.

**ISCED Level 5A** Tertiary-type A programs provide an education that is largely theoretical and is intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry into advanced research programs and professions with high skill requirements. Entry into these programs normally requires the successful completion of an upper secondary education; admission is competitive in most cases. The minimum cumulative theoretical duration at this level is 3 years of full-time enrollment. In the United States, tertiary-type A programs include first university programs that last approximately 4 years and lead to the award of a bachelor's degree and second university programs that lead to a master's degree or a first-professional degree such as an M.D., a J.D., or a D.V.M.

**ISCED Level 5B** Tertiary-type B programs are typically shorter than tertiary-type A programs and focus on practical, technical, or occupational skills for direct entry into the labor market, although they may cover some theoretical foundations in the respective programs. They have a minimum duration of 2 years of full-time enrollment at the tertiary level. In the United

States, such programs are often provided at community colleges and lead to an associate's degree.

**ISCED Level 6** Education at the sixth level (advanced research qualification) is provided in graduate and professional schools that generally require a university degree or diploma as a minimum condition for admission. Programs at this level lead to the award of an advanced, postgraduate degree, such as a Ph.D. The theoretical duration of these programs is 3 years of full-time enrollment in most countries (for a cumulative total of at least 7 years at levels five and six), although the length of the actual enrollment is often longer. Programs at this level are devoted to advanced study and original research.

## L

**Locale codes** A classification system to describe a type of location. The "Metro-Centric" locale codes, developed in the 1980s, classified all schools and school districts based on their county's proximity to a Metropolitan Statistical Area (MSA) and their specific location's population size and density. In 2006, the "Urban-Centric" locale codes were introduced. These locale codes are based on an address's proximity to an urbanized area. For more information see <https://nces.ed.gov/programs/edge/geographicLocale.aspx>.

### *Pre-2006 Metro-Centric Locale Codes*

**Large City:** A central city of a consolidated metropolitan statistical area (CMSA) or MSA, with the city having a population greater than or equal to 250,000.

**Mid-Size City:** A central city of a CMSA or MSA, with the city having a population less than 250,000.

**Urban Fringe of a Large City:** Any territory within a CMSA or MSA of a Large City and defined as urban by the Census Bureau.

**Urban Fringe of a Mid-Size City:** Any territory within a CMSA or MSA of a Mid-Size City and defined as urban by the Census Bureau.

**Large Town:** An incorporated place or Census-designated place with a population greater than or equal to 25,000 and located outside a CMSA or MSA.

**Small Town:** An incorporated place or Census-designated place with a population less than 25,000 and greater than or equal to 2,500 and located outside a CMSA or MSA.

**Rural, Outside MSA:** Any territory designated as rural by the Census Bureau that is outside a CMSA or MSA of a Large or Mid-Size City.

**Rural, Inside MSA:** Any territory designated as rural by the Census Bureau that is within a CMSA or MSA of a Large or Mid-Size City.

### *2006 Urban-Centric Locale Codes*

**City, Large:** Territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with population of 250,000 or more.

**City, Midsize:** Territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with population less than 250,000 and greater than or equal to 100,000.

**City, Small:** Territory inside an urbanized area and inside a principal city with population less than 100,000.

**Suburb, Large:** Territory outside a principal city and inside an urbanized area with population of 250,000 or more.

**Suburb, Midsize:** Territory outside a principal city and inside an urbanized area with population less than 250,000 and greater than or equal to 100,000.

**Suburb, Small:** Territory outside a principal city and inside an urbanized area with population less than 100,000.

**Town, Fringe:** Territory inside an urban cluster that is less than or equal to 10 miles from an urbanized area.

**Town, Distant:** Territory inside an urban cluster that is more than 10 miles and less than or equal to 35 miles from an urbanized area.

**Town, Remote:** Territory inside an urban cluster that is more than 35 miles from an urbanized area.

**Rural, Fringe:** Census-defined rural territory that is less than or equal to 5 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is less than or equal to 2.5 miles from an urban cluster.

**Rural, Distant:** Census-defined rural territory that is more than 5 miles but less than or equal to 25 miles from an urbanized area, as well as rural territory that is more than 2.5 miles but less than or equal to 10 miles from an urban cluster.

**Rural, Remote:** Census-defined rural territory that is more than 25 miles from an urbanized area and is also more than 10 miles from an urban cluster.

## M

**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.

## N

**National School Lunch Program** Established by President Truman in 1946, the program is a federally assisted meal program operated in public and private nonprofit schools and residential child care centers. To be eligible for free lunch, a student must be from a household with an income at or below 130 percent of the federal poverty guideline; to be eligible for reduced-price lunch, a student must be from a household with an income between 130 percent and 185 percent of the federal poverty guideline.

**Nonprofit institution** See Private institution.

**Nonsectarian school** Nonsectarian schools do not have a religious orientation or purpose and are categorized as regular, special program emphasis, or special education schools. See also Regular school.

## O

**Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)** An intergovernmental organization of industrialized countries that serves as a forum for member countries to cooperate in research and policy development on social and economic topics of common interest. In addition to member countries, partner countries contribute to the OECD's work in a sustained and comprehensive manner.

**Other religious school** Other religious schools have a religious orientation or purpose, but are not Roman Catholic. Other religious schools are categorized according to religious association membership as Conservative Christian, other affiliated, or unaffiliated.

## P

**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 institution** 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).

**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 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.

**Property tax** The sum of money collected from a tax levied against the value of property.

**Proprietary (for profit) institution** A private institution in which the individual(s) or agency in control receives compensation other than wages, rent, or other expenses for the assumption of risk.

**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 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.

**Pupil/teacher ratio** The enrollment of pupils at a given period of time, divided by the full-time-equivalent number of classroom teachers serving these pupils during the same period.

**Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) indexes** PPP exchange rates, or indexes, are the currency exchange rates that equalize the purchasing power of different currencies, meaning that when a given sum of money is converted into different currencies at the PPP exchange rates, it will buy the same basket of goods and services in all countries. PPP indexes are the rates of currency conversion that eliminate the difference in price levels among countries. Thus, when expenditures on gross domestic

product (GDP) for different countries are converted into a common currency by means of PPP indexes, they are expressed at the same set of international prices, so that comparisons among countries reflect only differences in the volume of goods and services purchased.

## 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 in 2003. The category is sometimes excluded from a historical series of data with constant categories. It is sometimes included within the category “Other.”

**Regular school** A public elementary/secondary or charter school providing instruction and education services that does not focus primarily on special education, vocational/technical education, or alternative education.

**Revenue** All funds received from external sources, net of refunds, and correcting transactions. Noncash transactions, such as receipt of services, commodities, or other receipts in kind are excluded, as are funds received from the issuance of debt, liquidation of investments, and nonroutine sale of property.

## S

**Salary** The total amount regularly paid or stipulated to be paid to an individual, before deductions, for personal services rendered while on the payroll of a business or organization.

**School district** An education agency at the local level that exists primarily to operate public schools or to contract for public school services. Synonyms are “local basic administrative unit” and “local education agency.”

**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 (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 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.

**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.

**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 *The Condition of Education 2016*, STEM fields include agriculture and natural resources, architecture, biology and biomedical sciences, computer and information sciences, engineering and engineering

technologies, health studies, mathematics and statistics, and physical and social sciences. STEM occupations include computer scientists and mathematicians; engineers and architects; life, physical, and social scientists; medical professionals; and managers of STEM activities.

***Student membership*** Student membership is an annual headcount of students enrolled in school on October 1 or the school day closest to that date. The Common Core of Data (CCD) allows a student to be reported for only a single school or agency. For example, a vocational school (identified as a “shared time” school) may provide classes for students from a number of districts and show no membership.

## T

***Title IV eligible institution*** A postsecondary institution that meets the criteria for participating in federal student financial aid programs. An eligible institution must be any of the following: (1) an institution of higher education (with public or private, nonprofit control), (2) a proprietary institution (with private for-profit

## Glossary

control), and (3) a postsecondary vocational institution (with public or private, nonprofit control). In addition, it must have acceptable legal authorization, acceptable accreditation and admission standards, eligible academic program(s), administrative capability, and financial responsibility.

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

***Tuition and fees*** A payment or charge for instruction or compensation for services, privileges, or the use of equipment, books, or other goods. Tuition may be charged per term, per course, or per credit.

## 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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