ADVANCING DIVERSITY AND INCLUSION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

KEY DATA HIGHLIGHTS FOCUSING ON RACE AND ETHNICITY AND PROMISING PRACTICES

Advancing Diversity and Inclusion in Higher Education

Key Data Highlights Focusing on Race and Ethnicity and Promising Practices

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Acknowledgments

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Executive Summary

The U.S. Department of Education's mission is to promote student achievement and preparation for global competitiveness by fostering educational excellence and ensuring equal access. Integral to furthering that mission is supporting efforts to create diverse and welcoming campus communities for all students. Toward that end, the Obama Administration has encouraged institutions not only to attract and admit students from various backgrounds and experiences, but to support and retain these students once on campus. The Administration has also supported efforts by institutions of higher education to use legally permissible strategies to promote student body diversity on their campuses, including by issuing guidance and technical assistance to help institutions do so. Through all of these strategies, we can achieve the goal of preparing all of the nation's students to be great citizens of the world and to compete in a global environment.

While highlighting the Obama Administration's efforts to promote diversity in institutions of higher education, this report shows the continuing educational inequities and opportunity gaps in accessing and completing a quality postsecondary education. The following are key findings from the analysis:

- **Higher education is a key pathway for social mobility in the United States.** At roughly 2.5 percent, the unemployment rate for college graduates is about half of the national average. Among Hispanics, adults who had only completed a high school diploma earned $30,329, compared with $58,493 for those who had completed four-year college (or higher). Among blacks, adults with a high school diploma earned $28,439 compared with $59,027 for those who held a bachelor's degree (see pages 10-14).

- **During the past 50 years, the U.S. has seen racial and ethnic disparities in higher education enrollment and attainment, as well as gaps in earnings, employment, and other related outcomes for communities of color.** While the share of the population with a high school diploma has risen over time for Hispanic, black, white, and Asian adult U.S. residents, the gap in bachelor's degree attainment has widened for both black and Hispanic adults compared to white adults. Specifically, the gap in bachelor's degree attainment has doubled, from 9 to 20 percent for Hispanic residents since 1974 and from 6 to 13 percent for black residents since 1964. This has significant effects for students' lives; among all races and ethnicities, there are significant gaps in post-college earnings and employment between those with only a high school diploma and those with a bachelor's degree (see pages 24-28).

- **Gaps in college opportunity have contributed to diminished social mobility (e.g., the ability to jump to higher income levels across generations) within the United States, and gaps in college opportunity are in turn influenced by disparities in students' experiences before graduating from high school**. This is particularly true for people of color, who share many of the same childhood and educational experiences as low-income and first-generation college students. For instance, research shows that one of the factors most likely to negatively contribute to the racial

and ethnic gap in college completion is elementary and high school segregation. Studies have documented the impacts associated with racial and economic isolation in schools and neighborhoods, such as greater stress that interferes with learning and less familiarity with information and skills that are necessary for future success. Students of color also, on average, have less access to advanced high school coursework and counselors who are focused on preparing students for enrolling in postsecondary education (see pages 14-18).

- **The participation of underrepresented students of color decreases at multiple points across the higher education pipeline including at application, admission, enrollment, persistence, and completion.** A smaller proportion of black or Hispanic high school graduates than white graduates enroll in college, and more than 80 percent of Hispanic, black, and Asian students have a gap between their financial need and grants and scholarships, compared with 71 percent for white undergraduate students. Moreover, degree completion rates are lower among black and Hispanic students than white and Asian students; nearly half of Asian students who enrolled in postsecondary education complete a bachelor's degree, compared with fewer than one in five Hispanic and about one in five black students (see pages 19-28).

- **The interaction of race and ethnicity, family income, and parental education can influence educational and labor market outcomes.** In 2009, six-year bachelor's degree attainment among postsecondary undergraduate students beginning in the 2003–04 school year was higher for white and Asian students compared with black and Hispanic students, even after taking into account family income — a measure of one aspect of socioeconomic status. Moreover, students of color whose parents completed college were twice as likely as first-generation college students to earn a bachelor's degree (see pages 32-34).

To provide equitable, valuable experiences to students of color and low-income students — as well as other underrepresented populations that are not highlighted in this report — colleges and universities have implemented practices designed to meet the needs of their campuses. The following areas of focus encompass practices that research suggests can help advance diversity and inclusion on college campuses:

- **Institutional Commitment to Promoting Student Body Diversity and Inclusion on Campus:** Research shows that colleges and universities seeking to promote campus diversity identify how diversity relates to their core institutional mission and the unique circumstances of the institution. For example, mission statements and strategic plans that promote student body diversity and inclusion on campus establish priorities that can, in turn, lead institutions to allocate the necessary funds and resources for those purposes. Institutions are encouraged to consider building their capacity to collect and analyze the data required to set and track their diversity and inclusion goals (see pages 37-38).

- **Diversity Across All Levels of an Institution:** Research shows that campus leadership, including a diverse faculty, plays an important role in achieving inclusive institutions. For example, faculty

members' curricular decisions and pedagogy, including their individual interactions with students, can foster inclusive climates. Also, students report that it is important for them to see themselves reflected in the faculty and curriculum to which they are exposed to create a sense of belonging and inclusiveness (see pages 38-39).

- **Outreach and Recruitment of Prospective Students:** Institutions committed to student body diversity can take steps to improve outreach and recruitment to a diverse array of students. For instance, institutions often work to proactively develop relationships and provide support to the elementary and secondary schools that are located within communities surrounding the institution. Some strategies supported by research include comprehensive and ongoing support from administrators and peers; peer advising provided by similarly aged students; targeted support for critical steps such as completion of the Free Application for Federal Student Aid (FAFSA) and test prep; and exposure for students to college-level work while they are in high school (see pages 38-40).

- **Support Services for Students**: In general, student support services are associated with improved academic outcomes, including after students' first years in college. Well-designed course placement strategies mitigate the time students spend in remedial education without making progress toward a credential. Individualized mentoring and coaching can increase the odds that students remain enrolled in school. First-year experience programs, such as summer bridge programs that support incoming students, can improve academic achievement and credit-earning (see pages 39-41).

- **Inclusive Campus Climate**: Students report less discrimination and bias at institutions where they perceive a stronger institutional commitment to diversity. Institutions are encouraged to develop and facilitate programming to increase the cultural competency of leadership, faculty, staff, and students. Institutions are also encouraged to perform an assessment of their campus climate related to diversity in order to identify areas for improvement. Many institutions include cultural competency training in new student orientation and require that students take coursework in diversity as freshmen. Cultural and socio-emotional support systems like personal mentoring and counseling can help all students to thrive on campus and are important for students who do not comprise a racial or ethnic majority. Institutional leaders create support systems individualized to students' needs that are highly visible and accessible, and engage students in the decision-making process regarding campus climate. Successful institutions also make financial support available to close the need gap for economically disadvantaged students (see pages 41-44).

Finally, this report recommends areas for further study that can help shape a path forward toward enrolling, retaining, and graduating more students from underrepresented groups in higher education, and the promise of equal educational opportunity for all students.

During the last seven years, the Obama Administration has worked to improve access to higher education, as well as to help more students complete their college educations and obtain quality degrees and credentials. Since the beginning of the Administration, the Department of Education has focused on making college more affordable and accessible to more students, including low-income students and students of color. However, the path forward will require a thoughtful discourse and a range of strategies.

I. Introduction

To ensure that higher education remains a key pathway for social mobility and economic opportunity in the United States, it is critical to understand both the challenges and the opportunities of advancing postsecondary diversity and inclusion. For most Americans, higher education is a necessary pathway for social mobility. The unemployment rate for college graduates with a bachelor's degree is about half of the national average, and the pay gap between college graduates and individuals who did not graduate from college is at a record high and growing.[1, 2] By 2020, experts predict that fully two-thirds of jobs will require a postsecondary education.[3] For the United States to regain its foothold as the world leader in college graduates, and to meet the projected workforce demands of the knowledge economy, we must ensure equitable educational access for an increasingly diverse population. Institutions of higher education can play a critical role in this effort by strengthening the focus on promoting higher education access and success for underrepresented populations, and fostering inclusion on college campuses.

While a college education benefits students of all backgrounds, there are likely to be distinct economic benefits for students from traditionally underserved and underrepresented populations. In an era of increased wealth and income inequality, a college degree remains a powerful vehicle for upward economic and social mobility. Data continue to show that the 21st-century economy favors college graduates over those with only a high school diploma or GED.[4, 5, 6] However, data also show that too many students of color and low-income students do not receive a higher education comparable to their white peers. Colleges and universities are the gateways to economic opportunity; they hold the key to supporting millions of students of color in accessing that mobility.

Thousands of institutions define and pursue educational access and promote diversity in unique ways that relate to their educational mission and goals. Following a long history of racism and exclusivity of educational opportunities, today's college students are more diverse than their predecessors with respect to race and ethnicity as well as socioeconomic background, as this report describes.[7, 8, 9, 10]

This report seeks to build on those institutions' actions by documenting the trends in educational outcomes and degree attainment by race and ethnicity at critical points throughout the pipeline into, during, and beyond higher education. After reviewing trends in the racial and ethnic demographics of higher education and identifying important challenges, this report provides campus leaders with model practices for enhancing their institution's efforts to address these demographic gaps in higher education, as well as the opportunity to enhance efforts to promote campus diversity and inclusion.

Highlights of Obama Administration Efforts to Promote Diversity in Higher Education

As noted above, research demonstrates that student body diversity in institutions of higher education is important not only for improving the economic and educational opportunities for students of color, but also for the social, academic, and societal benefits that diversity presents for all students and communities. Diverse learning environments help students sharpen their critical thinking and analytical skills; prepare students to succeed in an increasingly diverse and interconnected world; break down stereotypes and reduce bias; and enable schools to fulfill their role in opening doors for students of all backgrounds.[11] Toward that end, the Obama Administration has taken many actions to encourage

educational institutions to promote diversity consistent with U.S. Supreme Court decisions about the use of race and ethnicity in education. The Department of Education's role in these efforts has included issuing guidance and technical assistance to help postsecondary institutions to voluntarily pursue campus diversity; promulgating discretionary grant priorities that can be used to promote racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic diversity at postsecondary institutions in Department of Education-funded grant programs; and participating, with the Department of Justice, as *amicus curiae* in Supreme Court and federal appellate litigation to support racial diversity in higher education.

Ensuring Opportunities for All: Underrepresented Students in Higher Education

More work remains to ensure educational opportunity for all students in higher education. Data show gaps in preparation, enrollment, and degree attainment for many students of color compared with white students and Asian students.[12] For instance, fewer high schools with high percentages of students of color offer advanced coursework opportunities than do high schools with low populations of students of color. Additionally, many students of color — particularly those from lower-income areas — have lower levels of academic preparation than their white peers upon entering college, which can affect degree attainment rates. This report explores data that show that, regardless of the type of institution they attend, black and Hispanic students are far more likely to be placed in remedial courses during their first year of college than their white peers (30 and 29 percent, respectively, compared with 20 percent). Enrolling in remedial courses, which are generally non-credit-bearing, can make it difficult for students to earn a sufficient number of credits to be on track to graduate in a timely manner relative to the program length.

Looking at students' race and ethnicity, we see disparities in access to higher education. For example, black and Hispanic students are less likely to be enrolled in college, and far less likely to be enrolled in selective and four-year institutions, than their white and Asian peers. [13] In 2015, the college enrollment rate for recent high school graduates was more than 70 percent for white students, but was only 55 percent for black students. Moreover, there is a clear divide in the demographics of students enrolling at four-year institutions versus two-year institutions. Students of color (particularly black and Hispanic students) who enroll in college are more likely than their white peers to be enrolled in two-year institutions — 41 and 32 percent, respectively, compared with just 27 percent of white students.[14] While this may mean that students of color take greater advantage of affordable pathways to a four-year degree, it may also suggest that students of color lack equitable access to the four-year and selective institutions that tend to have higher graduation rates and better post-college outcomes.

All of the factors above can significantly affect students' likelihood of graduating from college. The rate of college degree attainment for black and Hispanic college students is approximately half that of white students, and even more stark a difference compared to Asian/Pacific Islander students.[15, 16] Though overall high school graduation and college enrollment rates have increased among black and Hispanic students, those students continue to trail their white and Asian counterparts in college completion and degree attainment.[17] Six years after first enrolling in college, even higher-income black and Hispanic students are far less likely to have earned a bachelor's degree than their higher-income white peers (18 and 24 percentage points less, respectively).

A National Dialogue on Improving Educational Opportunity for All Students in Higher Education

Given the role that college access and completion play in improving opportunities for people of color — and other historically underrepresented groups — there is a growing public focus on improving educational opportunity for all students in higher education and efforts to better measure institutional success in addressing the issue.[18]

Already, dozens of organizations have launched studies of efforts to promote success among low-income students. Though not a comprehensive list, some efforts on measuring student success include reports by New America to identify institutions that do not perform well on access, affordability, or both,[19, 20, 21] college rankings that account for economic diversity and low-income students' outcomes from the *New York Times*,[22, 23] an Education Trust report on the success of low-income students,[24] a report from the Institute for Higher Education Policy examining colleges where enrolling a larger population of Pell Grant recipients could generate significant increases in graduates from that background,[25] and a report from the Jack Kent Cooke Foundation identifying gaps in access for high-achieving, low-income students.[26]

In addition to broad initiatives to refocus on equity and student success, other efforts have been made to conceptualize and measure progress on racial and ethnic student enrollment and campus climate. These efforts, which include the following among many others, present further, critical components of promoting educational excellence and access in postsecondary education:

- Gallup conducted a survey among students and college presidents regarding on-campus race relations. Although the survey found that 84 percent of presidents positively view race relations on their campus, only a quarter positively view race relations on other campuses nationwide. The authors suggest positive views of race relations on other campuses decreased sharply from 2015 to 2016 — presumably due to increased attention to issues of racial equity and inclusion in higher education. Students interviewed also viewed campus climate positively on their campus, although black and Hispanic students were less likely to describe relations as "excellent." [27]
- The *Chronicle of Higher Education* published an interactive tool, using data from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), allowing the public to examine faculty racial and ethnic demographics at selective public universities in comparison to the students they serve. To measure the racial and ethnic demographics of students and faculty, the authors used a "diversity index," which represents the probability that any two people chosen at random from a sample will be of different races or ethnicities. The index works on a scale of zero to 100. A score of zero means there's no chance that those two people will be of different races; a score of 100 means it's guaranteed that they will be.[28]
- Indiana University at Bloomington's Culturally Engaging Campus Environment Project (CECE) has developed a campus climate survey of students for the 2016–17 academic year that will help participating colleges make meaningful changes in their campus environment. The overarching aim of the CECE Project is to create and utilize tools to assist postsecondary institutions in their efforts to examine, understand, and improve their campus environments and maximize success among diverse student populations. The CECE Project moves beyond typical climate

assessments that tend to focus on challenges in the environment. Instead, the CECE Project focuses on the types of environments that engage and support college students from all backgrounds.[29]

- American Council on Education (ACE) conducted a national anonymous online survey of college and university presidents for an institutional perspective on campus climate and reactions to student movements for more inclusive higher education settings. The authors received responses from 567 college and university presidents, including those at two-year and four-year institutions. They found that, at almost half of four-year colleges, students have raised concerns about racial diversity by organizing on campuses; and that the racial climate on campus is a priority for more than half of four-year college presidents surveyed.[30]
- Admission staff at the University of Colorado Boulder (CU-Boulder) took a hard look at how underrepresented students were viewed during a holistic review of undergraduate applications. Using data from the Education Longitudinal Study (ELS) of 2002, a nationally representative dataset, CU-Boulder estimated the relationships between college access, socioeconomic status, and high school academic achievement and created its disadvantage index and overachievement index, which give special consideration to students who have faced significant socioeconomic disadvantage and those who have succeeded despite their disadvantage.[31]

All of these — and many other — efforts have made valuable contributions to our understanding of campus racial and ethnic demographics, climate, and student success.

Obama Administration Efforts on the Expansion of College Opportunity

A March 2016 Department of Education report and summit focused on supporting Pell student success in higher education: *Fulfilling the Promise, Serving the Need* highlights institutions that enroll an above-average share of low-income students and help them to graduate, and identifies best practices for institutional improvement.[32]

This report builds on the substantial body of work, since the beginning of the Obama Administration, to expand college opportunity — particularly the work to ensure more historically underserved students are enrolling in and graduating from college. Recognizing the impact of affordability on college access and completion, this Administration has increased the maximum annual Pell award by more than $1,000 per eligible student, enabling more students to access and complete college each year. Additionally, by simplifying and streamlining the FAFSA and making it available earlier in the admissions process, and through resources like the College Scorecard that can help students navigate their college options, this Administration has expanded access to financial aid and made it easier for students and families to apply for and enroll in college. Through the White House College Opportunity Summit and Day of Action, the president and first lady secured more than 700 commitments from college presidents, K-12 superintendents, non-profit organizations, foundations, and businesses to help more students prepare for and graduate from college, which altogether set 10 million more students on track to earn their degrees within a decade.

A report released in conjunction with the January 2014 College Opportunity Summit noted that, “while the President continues to push for changes that keep college affordable for all students and families,

we can and must be doing more to get more low-income students prepared for college, enrolled in quality institutions, and graduating."[33] To support these efforts, the Department of Education has worked to expand access by launching a dual enrollment experiment that will provide low-income high school students with new opportunities to access college programs before graduating; holding career colleges accountable for their students' outcomes through the Gainful Employment regulations; and promoting greater affordability through expanded access to income-driven student loan repayment plans.

Community engagement and partnerships to advance the work to close equity and opportunity gaps, and ensure students have an opportunity to reach their full potential, have also been key features of the Administration's work. The Obama Administration has launched efforts like the My Brother's Keeper Task Force, a coordinated federal initiative to address opportunity gaps, including gaps that boys and young men of color face, and ensure that all young people can reach their full potential. Communities across the country have accepted the My Brother's Keeper Community Challenge and have also committed to creating their own independent plans to expand opportunity for our nation's young people. And a number of initiatives, housed in the Department of Education, are also focused on ensuring that all young people can reach their full potential. These initiatives include the White House Initiative on Educational Excellence for African Americans, the White House Initiative on Educational Excellence for Hispanics, the White House Initiative on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders, the White House Initiative on Historically Black Colleges and Universities, and the White House Initiative on American Indian and Alaska Native Education. The White House initiatives have played a key role in announcing new resources, convening stakeholders, and engaging in direct outreach with the field to help both students and their institutions support expanding opportunity.

II. Setting the Context: A Snapshot of Opportunity Gaps in Postsecondary Education

This section reviews trends related to educational outcomes and socioeconomic status disaggregated by race and ethnicity. After highlighting the persistence of gaps in educational attainment, it discusses the interplay between gaps in college opportunity and social mobility; and lays out the influence that factors such as family resources and childhood experiences can have on college access and opportunity for students of color, which provides some backdrop for understanding the related challenges.

A note about the presentation of race and ethnicity data: U.S. Department of Education data are limited for smaller racial and ethnic groups of students, including American Indian/Alaska Native, and Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students. In addition, there is limited data for students reported as two or more races. This limits the statistics that can be analyzed because, in many cases, trend data are not available or sample sizes are too small to yield reliable or reportable estimates. The Department continues work to improve data collection so a more complete picture of educational outcomes for these populations can be made available in the future (See pages 29-31 and exhibit A.23 in appendix A for data on smaller populations of students of color.)

A. Trends in Educational Degree Attainment and Social Mobility

Key Findings: The U.S. population has steadily become more racially and ethnically diverse over time. Data in exhibits in this section and in appendix A reflect the rise in young, diverse Americans, and show the following educational trends disaggregated by student race and ethnicity:

- The percentage of Hispanic, black, white, and Asian adults who have earned a high school diploma or higher has increased since the 1960s.
- Gaps in degree attainment are more pronounced at the postsecondary level. Bachelor's degree attainment for Hispanic, black, white, and Asian adults has risen over time — yet the attainment gap has more than doubled between whites and blacks, as well as between whites and Hispanics.
- Racial and ethnic disparities in postsecondary degree attainment continue into the working world. Earnings are strongly correlated with both college completion *and* race and ethnicity. Increased demand for skilled workers only further disadvantages adults without college degrees.

The United States population has steadily become more diverse over time.

The U.S. population has steadily become more diverse over time. In 1960, 89 percent of United States residents were white, 11 percent were black, and less than 1 percent was either Asian/Other Pacific Islander or American Indian/Alaska Native. For the 1980 Census, 6 percent were Hispanic. In

comparison, 64 percent of residents were non-Hispanic white, 13 percent were black, 17 percent were Hispanic, 5 percent were Asian, 1 percent were American Indian/Alaska Native, and 3 percent were two or more races in 2010 (see exhibit A.1 in appendix A).

The racial and ethnic breakdown of young Americans indicates that the diversity of the population will continue to increase. In 2014, almost half of children under the age of 18 were people of color. Among residents between the ages of 18 and 24, 55 percent were white, 15 percent were black, 21 percent were Hispanic, 5 percent were Asian, 1 percent was American Indian/Alaska Native, and 3 percent were two or more races (exhibit A.2). Because of the large share of people of color among young Americans, the Census Bureau projects that the majority of Americans will be people of color by 2050.[34]

The earning of high school diplomas has increased over time.

The share of students earning a high school diploma has risen over time for Hispanic, black, white, and Asian adult U.S. residents. For example, in 1964, the percentage of people 25 and older who at least graduated from high school was 50 percent for white and 26 percent for blacks, compared with 93 percent for whites and 86 percent for blacks in 2014 (exhibit A.3). Similar increases also occurred for young adults between the ages of 25 and 29 (exhibit A.4).

For people 25 years and older, from 1974 to 1994, the gap between Hispanic and white high school attainment increased from 27 percent to 32 percent — but then declined to 27 percent by 2014. However, the gap between black and white high school attainment steadily dropped from 25 percent in 1964 to 7 percent in 2014 (exhibit A.3). Moreover, the total college enrollment rate (percent of 18- to 24-year-olds enrolled at two- and four-year colleges and universities) increased from 32 percent in 1990 to 40 percent in 2013.[35] Students of color also benefited from increases in enrollment. For instance, the gap in the college enrollment rate between white and Hispanic students narrowed between 2003 and 2013 (from 18 to 8 percent).[36]

Bachelor's degree attainment has risen over time for Hispanic, black, white, and Asian adults.

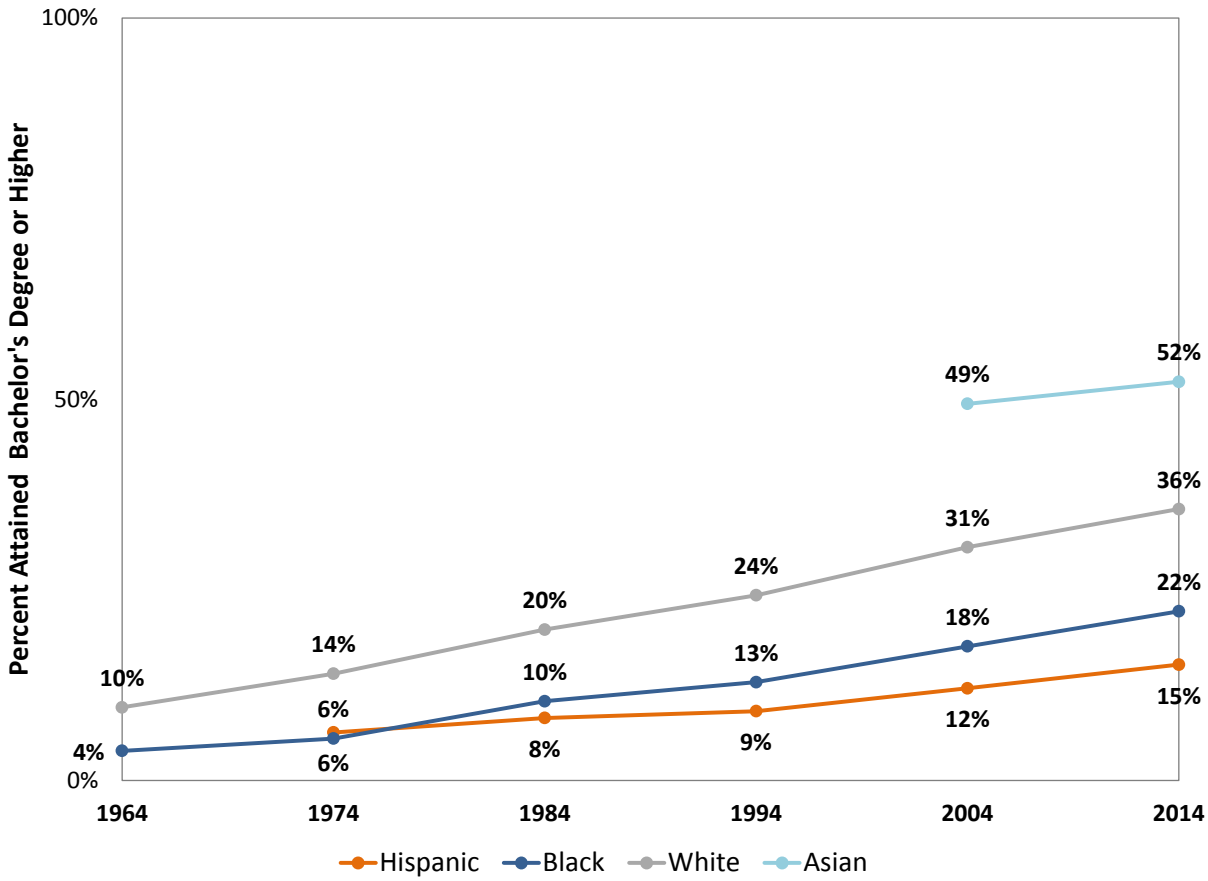
Exhibit 1.1 shows that bachelor's degree attainment has risen over time for Hispanic, black, white, and Asian adult U.S. residents. For example, in 1974, the percentage of people 25 and older who had completed college was 6 percent for both Hispanic and black residents, compared with 15 percent for Hispanics and 22 percent for blacks in 2014. In 2014, Asians had the highest rate of attainment with 52 percent having completed college. Similar trends also occurred for young adults between the ages of 25 and 29 (exhibit A.5).

The gap in bachelor's degree attainment has risen for both black and Hispanic adults.

While the high school attainment gap has closed and overall attainment for black and Hispanic students has grown, the gap in bachelor's degree attainment has steadily widened between Hispanic and whites as well as black and white U.S. residents. From 1974 to 2014, the gap between Hispanic and white bachelor's degree attainment more than doubled from 9 percent to 20 percent (exhibit A.6). The gap between black and white bachelor's degree attainments also more than doubled, from 6 percent in 1964 to 13 percent in 2014. Similar increases in gaps occurred for young adults between the ages of 25 and 29 (exhibit A.5). As discussed later in this report, part of this increase in attainment gaps is due to a

relatively smaller share of students of color enrolling in four-year colleges, while to some extent it is also due to lower completion rates among those who do enroll.

Exhibit 1.1: Percentage of U.S. residents 25 years and older attaining a bachelor's degree or higher, by race and ethnicity: From 1964 through 2014

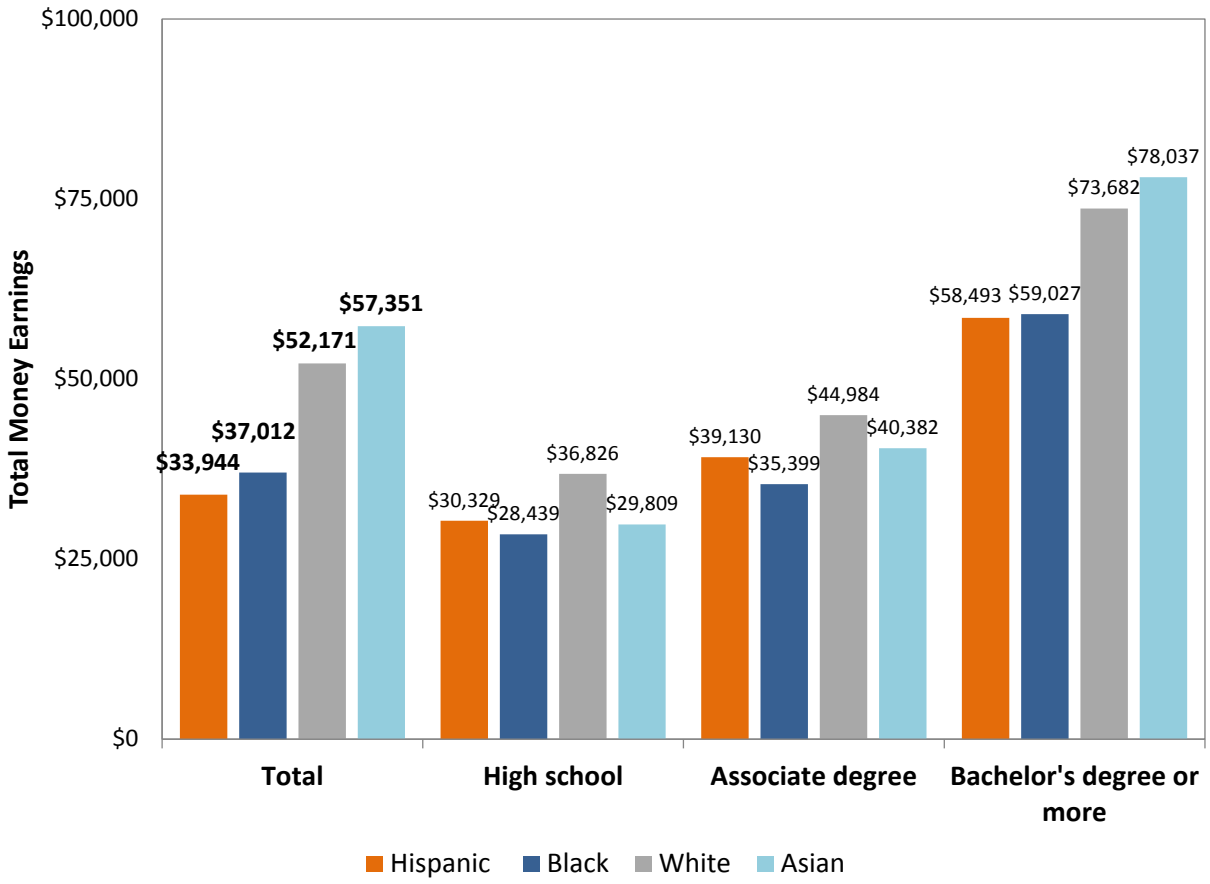


NOTE: Due to limitations in Census methodology, attainment among Asians is not available before 2002 and attainment among Hispanics is not available before 1974. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.
SOURCES: U.S. Census Bureau, March Current Population Survey, 1947 and 1952 to 2002; U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Social and Economic Supplement to the Current Population Survey, 2003 to 2015 (noninstitutionalized population, excluding members of the Armed Forces living in barracks); U.S. Census Bureau, Census of Population, 1940 and 1950.
Available at http://www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/education/data/cps/historical/index.html.

Annual earnings are strongly correlated with educational attainment and race and ethnicity.

Exhibit 1.2 suggests gaps in bachelor's degree attainment could contribute to income disparities among Hispanic, black, white, and Asian adults. In 2014, the average annual earnings were $33,944 for Hispanics and $37,012 for blacks, compared with $52,171 for whites and $57,351 for Asians. Among Hispanics, adults who had only completed a high school diploma earned $30,329, compared with $58,493 for those who had completed four-year college (or higher). Among blacks, adults with a high school diploma earned $28,439 compared with $59,027 for those who held a bachelor's degree.

Exhibit 1.2: Total money earnings for U.S. residents 18 years and older, by race and educational attainment: 2014



NOTE: Total money earnings includes earnings received for work performed as an employee during the income year, such as wages, salary, Armed Forces pay, commissions, tips, piece-rate payments, and cash bonuses earned, before deductions are made for taxes, bonds, pensions, union dues, etc. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.
SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Survey, 2015 Annual Social and Economic Supplement.
Available at https://www.census.gov/hhes/www/cpstables/032015/perinc/pinc04_000.htm.

Research also indicates that the attainment of a postsecondary degree has become increasingly important due to technological changes and increasing demand for skilled workers. At roughly 2.5 percent, the unemployment rate for college graduates is about half of the national average.[37] According to the Center on Education and the Workforce, more than 95 percent of jobs created during the economic recovery have gone to workers with at least some college education, while those with a high school diploma or less have not seen a return of their jobs. As a result, workers with at least some postsecondary education now make up 65 percent of the total employment, and bachelor's degree holders now earn 57 percent of all wages.[38] In addition to economic outcomes, educational attainment is associated with important nonpecuniary benefits that impact communities of color. For African American males, those with only a high school diploma are three times more likely to be incarcerated by age 34 as their counterparts with a four-year college degree.[39] These trends suggest gaps in

postsecondary attainment will continue to contribute to socioeconomic disparities among Hispanics, blacks, whites, and Asians.

B. Gaps in College Opportunity

Key Findings: Gaps in college access and opportunity to complete a degree have contributed to diminished social mobility across generations within the United States, particularly for people of color. These gaps in college opportunity are influenced by disparities in students' experiences before graduating from high school; and these experiences for students of color, in turn, intersect with the experiences of low-income and first-generation college students.

Overview of the Higher Education Pipeline

This section analyzes data on the higher education pipeline to and through college, which represents the different pathways students can take to complete a postsecondary degree. Taking a national lens of nationally representative data, this report examines the following points in the pipeline:

- **Applications**: Student engages in precollegiate activities, such as researching colleges or taking entrance exams, *and* applies or attempts to enroll at a postsecondary institution;
- **Admissions**: College offers admission to student *and* student has adequate financial aid to make attendance and costs of living affordable;
- **Enrollment**: Student enrolls and starts attending college;
- **Persistence**: Student remains enrolled in college and successfully accumulates credits needed to graduate; and
- **Completion**: Student meets graduation requirements and college confers the student with a postsecondary credential.

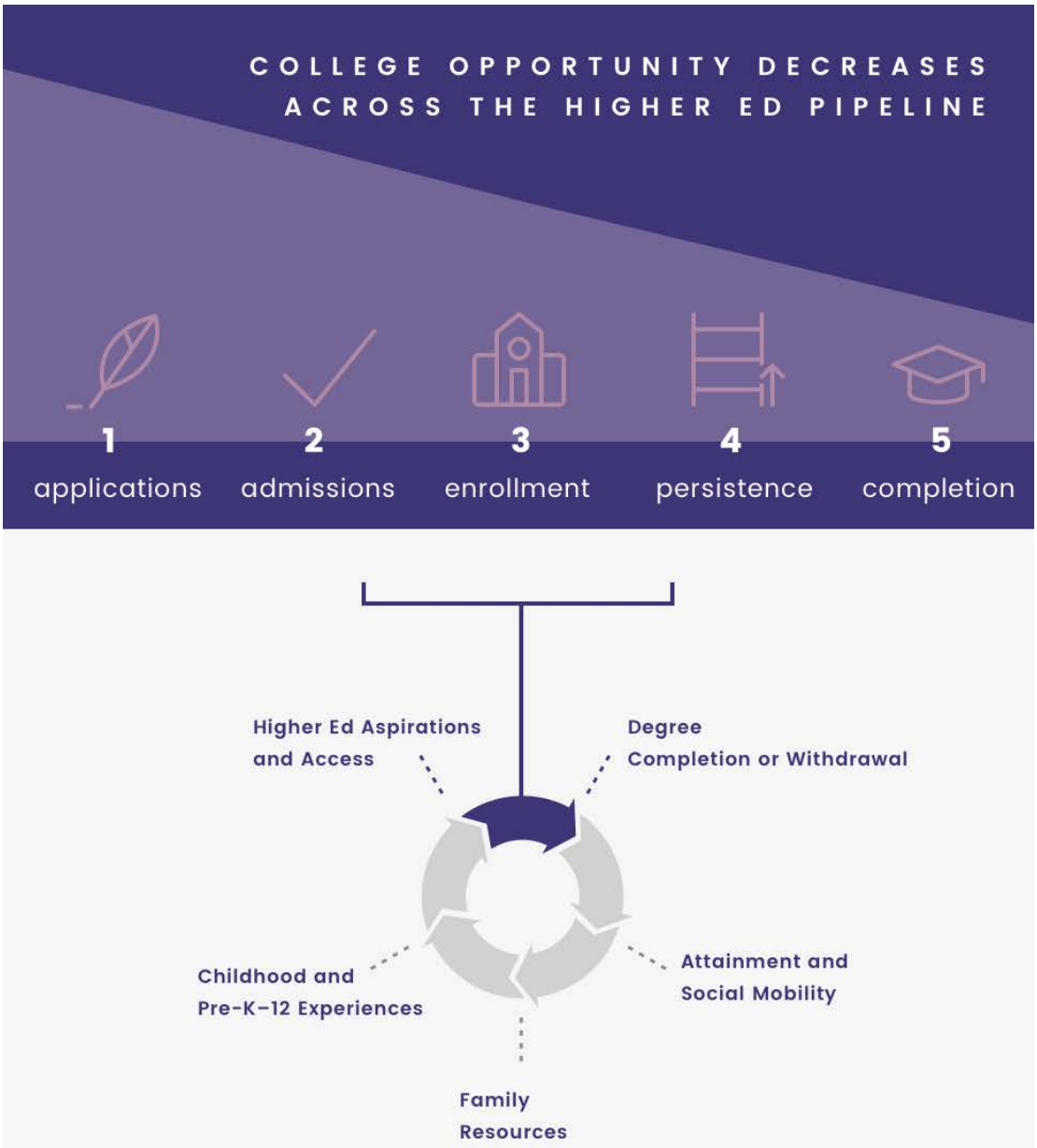
As depicted in exhibit 2.1, college opportunity diminishes for students of color at multiple points in the pipeline. These gaps in college opportunity diminish social mobility and play a role in perpetuating intergenerational disparities by race and ethnicity, and also socioeconomic status. Moreover, because of the impact parental education has on family resources, childhood experiences, and educational opportunity of future generations, such disparities in college completion are a major factor in reducing opportunities for both children and adults of color. Stated another way, institutions and the policy community face critical challenges in reducing these gaps in access and success to improve the socioeconomic and educational opportunities for people of color. This section highlights some key evidence supporting this linkage between college opportunity and racial and long-term outcomes for people of color.

College Completion and Social Mobility

While institutions of higher education serve as gateways to educational and economic mobility, too few students are able to benefit from these opportunities. The previous section demonstrated that persistent disparities in educational attainment contribute to disparities in socioeconomic outcomes

between whites, blacks, Hispanics, and Asians. Trends in social mobility may also suggest gaps in educational attainment, which may play a role in diminishing social mobility in the United States, particularly with respect to race and ethnicity.

Exhibit 2.1: College opportunities and social mobility decrease at five points along the higher education pipeline for students of color.



At multiple points in the higher education pipeline (top of graphic), participation of students of color decreases due to disparities in access and outcomes. For people of color who have not attained a college degree, social mobility is harder, leading to fewer family resources and educational opportunities across generations (bottom of graphic).

Research suggests growing gaps in college attainment have contributed to growing socioeconomic inequality and declining social mobility since the 1980s.[40, 41, 42] A four-year college degree is an important factor in facilitating upward mobility for lower-income families and stability for the middle to upper class. Having a college degree makes a person more than three times as likely to rise from the bottom of the family income ladder all the way to the top, and makes a person more than four times as likely to rise from the bottom of the family wealth (determined by cumulative assets such as home ownership) ladder to the top.[43] Since people of color are less likely to have a college degree or raise children who earn a college degree, gaps in college opportunity present a barrier to social mobility. In fact, only 23 percent of blacks raised in the middle of the income distribution surpass their parents' family wealth compared with more than half (56 percent) of whites.[44]

Childhood Experiences and Family Resources

Disparities in students' experiences in elementary and secondary education can influence the progress students make throughout the higher education pipeline. Moreover, these experiences relate to and interact with family background characteristics. Research suggests family income, parental education, and social capital (i.e., relationships to people and organizations) affect the resources available to students in the home and in school. As a result, socioeconomic factors like family income are partially linked to the experiences of students during childhood and throughout the higher education pipeline.

Research also indicates racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic isolation in public elementary and secondary schools may contribute to differences in the demography of students who attend colleges, particularly institutions with selective admissions. Racially and ethnically isolated high schools in which students of color are the majority remain, in too many cases, a microcosm of poverty and other forms of concentrated disadvantage. Research shows that one of the factors most likely to negatively contribute to the racial and ethnic gap in college completion is elementary and high school segregation.[45, 46] Studies have documented the impacts associated with racial and economic isolation in schools and neighborhoods, such as greater stress that interferes with learning and less familiarity with information and skills that are necessary for future success.[47, 48, 49, 50] Additionally, among black students, racial isolation in public elementary and secondary schools has increased since the 1980s.[51, 52]

Students of color also have less access to advanced coursework. According to the 2013–14 Civil Rights Data Collection, far fewer high schools with high proportions of black and Hispanic students offer calculus, physics, or chemistry (33 percent, 48 percent, and 65 percent, respectively) compared to high schools with low proportions of these students (56 percent, 67 percent, and 78 percent, respectively).[53]

School counselors can play a critical role in increasing college enrollment rates. Most students in high schools have access to at least one school counselor, but close to 1.6 million high school students go to schools with law enforcement officers but no guidance counselor.[54] Several studies suggest that increasing access to high school counselors improves postsecondary-related outcomes such as applying to college and matriculation.[55, 56, 57] There is some evidence that increased access to summer counseling can improve college persistence into the sophomore year.[58, 59, 60, 61] However, students of color have less access to counselors whose primary goal is to prepare students for enrolling in college.[62]

Intersection Between Socioeconomic Status, Parental Education, and Race and Ethnicity

Exhibit A.7 (see appendix A) shows there is overlap in the race and ethnicity and socioeconomic status of students and families. In 2009, approximately one-third of white and Asian high school students were from the top socioeconomic status quintile, compared to 10 percent or less of Hispanic and black students. Hispanic and black students were more than twice as likely to belong to families in the bottom socioeconomic status quintile as white and Asian students.

There are also disparities by race and ethnicity in the highest level of education attained by either parent. In 2009, the majority of white and Asian high school students had a parent with at least a bachelor's degree, compared with fewer than a quarter for both Hispanic and black students (exhibit A.8).

Aspirations, Access, and College Completion

Several studies have documented the associations between parental education and their children's outcomes, such as educational aspirations and persistence (i.e., staying in college and continuing to make progress toward a degree).[63] Students' aspirations to continue their education after high school are shaped by personal and environmental factors such as family and community expectations.[64, 65] Aspirations aside, low-income and first-generation students often lack the knowledge and guidance necessary for a smooth transition from high school to a postsecondary institution. The entry process, which involves taking admissions tests, researching institutions, identifying and securing financial aid, and applying to and ultimately selecting a postsecondary institution, can be difficult for many first-generation students to navigate.[66, 67] Low socioeconomic-status students can also be susceptible to having their educational plans change, or even fall apart, during the summer and first few weeks of college (often known as "summer melt") due to lack of sufficient academic and non-academic support.[68, 69]

Persistence can be a challenge for students whose parents have lower levels of academic attainment. For example, a report that examined the postsecondary experiences of first-generation college students found that they persisted in postsecondary education and attained credentials at lower rates than their non-first-generation counterparts. This finding held for students at four-year institutions as well as at community colleges.[70] Moreover, structural factors at postsecondary colleges and universities add to disparities throughout the higher education pipeline and beyond. According to the Georgetown Center on Education and the Workforce, America's white and Asian college students are concentrated in the country's best-funded, most selective four-year colleges and universities, which spend anywhere from two to nearly five times as much per student as do less well-funded colleges, where black and Hispanic students are often concentrated. Since well-funded, selective institutions benefit from more resources and social capital among their students, racial and ethnic concentration in postsecondary schools may deepen gaps in college opportunity.[71]

III. The Higher Education Pipeline for Underrepresented Students of Color

The following section provides more details on the current state of the racial and ethnic student enrollment and outcomes in our nation's institutions of higher education. While not comprehensive, it examines how students of different racial and ethnic backgrounds progress through the higher education pipeline, from college applications to degree completion. Spotlighted are trends in enrollment and completion across time and institutional sector — and, additionally, statistics about admissions and financial aid for undergraduate students of color.

A. Access: Applications, Admissions, and Enrollment

The first several steps of the higher education pipeline include college applications, admissions, and enrollment at both two-year and four-year institutions. This section presents statistics on the access to postsecondary education among high school students of color and students entering institutions through less traditional pathways.

Key Findings:

- Differences between racial and ethnic groups in financial need contribute to issues of unmet financial need among black and Hispanic students.
- Recent undergraduate college enrollment trends reveal that the share of non-white undergraduate students has steadily increased over time, while the share of white student enrollment has declined by more than 25 percentage points from 1980 to 2014.
- Fewer Hispanic and black high school graduates enroll in four-year colleges than white and Asian high school graduates, but two-year college is a common pathway for Hispanic students.
- Considerable variation also appears across institution types (public, for-profit, private non-profit). White students enroll in private, non-profit institutions more than their black and Hispanic counterparts, and the percentage of students enrolled at for-profit institutions was highest among black students and lowest among Asian students.

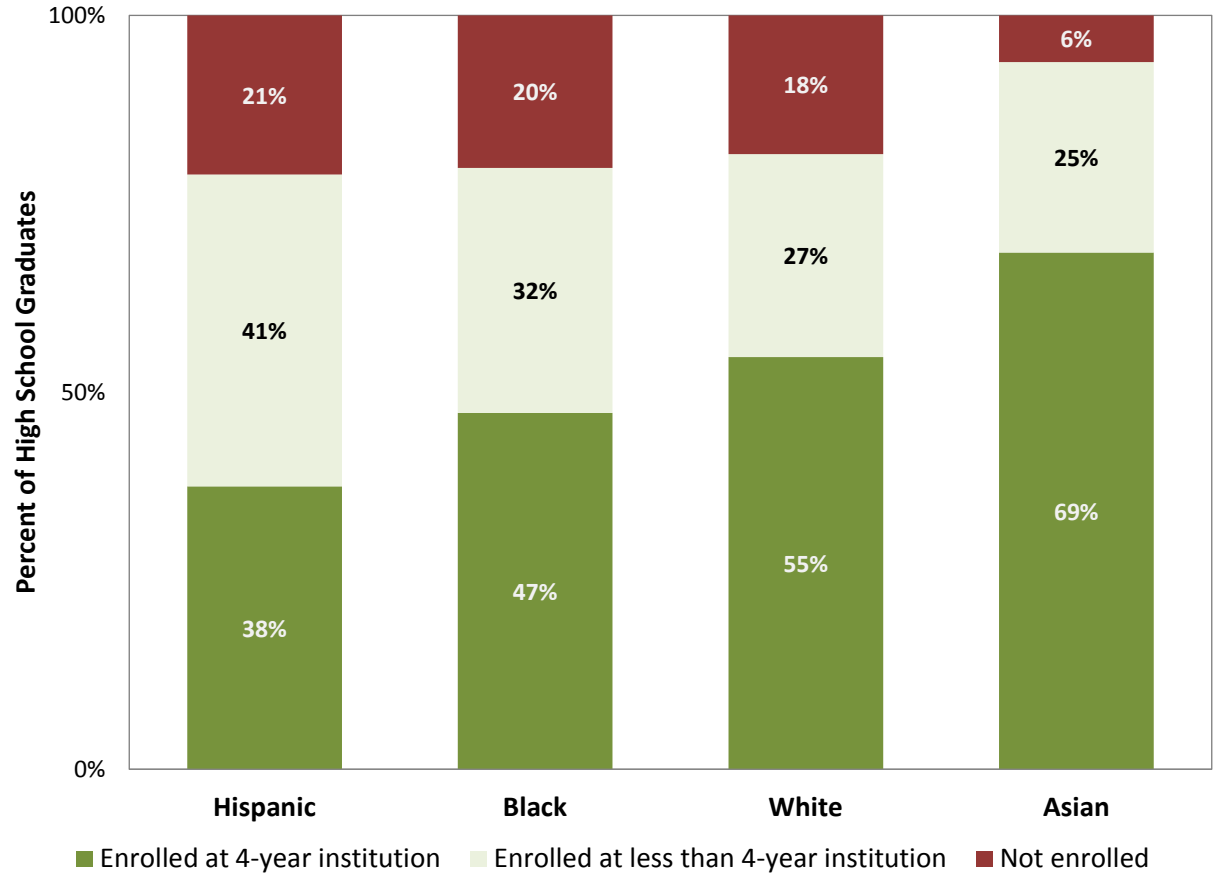
Trends in College Enrollment for Recent High School Graduates

Even though most high school graduates apply to at least one college or enroll in open enrollment institutions, Hispanic and black students enroll in college (particularly four-year colleges) at a lower rate than their white and Asian counterparts. However, data also indicate that two-year institutions are still a common postsecondary option for Hispanic high school graduates.

Fewer Hispanic and black high school graduates enroll in four-year colleges than white and Asian high school graduates, but two-year college is a common pathway for Hispanic students.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) releases estimates from the Current Population Survey (CPS) on the percentage of high school graduates between the ages of 16 and 24 who enrolled in college the next fall. According to the BLS report for 2015, the college enrollment rate of recent Asian (83 percent) and white (71 percent) graduates was higher than the rate for their Hispanic (69 percent) and black (55 percent) counterparts.[72] Exhibit 3.1 shows white and Asian students enroll more often in four-year colleges than black and Hispanic students immediately after high school, according to longitudinal data from the U.S. Department of Education.[73, 74] Enrollment in college is also correlated with socioeconomic status and parental education, which may influence the relationship between race and ethnicity and college-going (see exhibits A.9 and A.10).

Exhibit 3.1: Percentage of high school graduates enrolled in postsecondary institutions, by race and ethnicity and institution type: Fall 2013



NOTE: The data are based on high school graduates from the 2009 High School Longitudinal Study Freshman Cohort who enrolled in postsecondary institutions. The high school graduate category includes completion of diploma, GED, and high school-equivalent degrees. The Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09). For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bmgbge1b.

Although both BLS and Department of Education data indicate disparities by race and ethnicity, comparing these data sets over time suggests the overall gap in college enrollment appears to be closing.[75] This trend is partially explained by gradual increases in the enrollment rates of black and Hispanic students, particularly in attending community colleges and less selective schools. It also may be explained by stagnation (and possibly even declines) in the college-going rates of white students during the aftermath of the Great Recession.[76]

For both black and Hispanic high school students, fewer students enroll at selective institutions.

The Department of Education collects few data elements that directly measure admission outcomes. However, one alternative measure collected by the Department is the extent to which students of color enroll at institutions that require passing through a selective admissions process. Far fewer black and Hispanic students attend selective and highly selective institutions, compared to white and Asian students — as measured by the percentage of enrollment after high school by race and ethnicity, and by each Carnegie selectivity category: "more selective," "selective," and "inclusive/open enrollment" (exhibit A.11).

In addition, black and Hispanic students place into remedial education courses at a higher rate. According to a recent report by the State Higher Education Executive Officers and Complete College America, at two-year institutions, more than 70 percent of black students and 60 percent of Hispanic students enroll in at least one remedial course, compared with just over 50 percent of white and Asian students.[77] At four-year institutions, black students are more than twice as likely to be enrolled in remedial education.[78]

Most black, Hispanic, and Asian students do not have adequate resources to pay for college.

Another important factor that influences enrollment patterns is whether students are able to afford college. The percentage of students with zero expected family contribution (EFC) — an indicator of high financial need — is 47 percent for Hispanic students, 60 percent for black students, and 37 percent for Asian students. In comparison, only 29 percent of white students have zero EFC; and over a third have an EFC of more than $10,000, suggesting many white students have more resources to pay for attending college (exhibit A.12).

Among undergraduate students, two-thirds of Hispanic, black, and Asian students had a gap between total resources (e.g., EFC, grants, scholarships, and federal student loans) and the total cost of attendance, while 54 percent of white students had a financial gap in 2012.[79] More than 80 percent of Hispanic, black, and Asian students had a gap between their financial need (cost minus EFC) and grants and scholarships, compared with 71 percent for white undergraduate students.[80] In order to pay for their education, many of these students may need to take out additional loans or work. Others may not enroll at all if there is too large a gap between available money and the cost of attendance.

In fact, Hispanic and black students are more likely than white students to assume more debt than they can afford and struggle to repay their loans, in part because borrowers of color borrow more than white borrowers.[81] Research has found significant variation in education-debt levels by race and household income, with black and lower-income students accumulating higher levels of education debt compared

to their white and upper-income peers.[82] Black graduates have an average of $52,726 in student debt compared to $28,006 for the typical white bachelor's degree graduate four years after graduation.[83] Even after controlling for socioeconomic status and college completion rates, blacks incurred more student loan debt than similarly situated white borrowers.[84]

Trends in College Enrollment for All Students

The data described above illustrate disparities in applications, admission, and financial aid among high school students by race and ethnicity. The following examines trends in *total* enrollment as a result of the enrollment of both high school graduates and older, non-traditional students.

Non-white undergraduate enrollment has steadily increased since 1980.

Exhibit 3.2 below shows that the share of non-white undergraduate students has steadily increased. Since 1980, the share of white undergraduate enrollment has declined from 81 percent of total enrollment to 55 percent in 2014. During the same period, the share of undergraduate enrollment has increased steadily for black, Hispanic, and Asian students. Similar trends occurred for graduate school enrollment (exhibit A.13).

Fewer Hispanic and black students are enrolled full-time than white and Asian students.

Fewer Hispanic and black undergraduate and graduate students are enrolled full-time than white and Asian students. From 1980 to 2014, the percentage of white and Asian students enrolled full-time has risen, while the percentage of Hispanic students enrolled full-time has barely increased and the percentage of black students enrolled full-time actually declined.[85]

Half of Hispanic degree-seeking students enroll at two-year institutions, while most black, white, and Asian students enroll at four-year institutions.

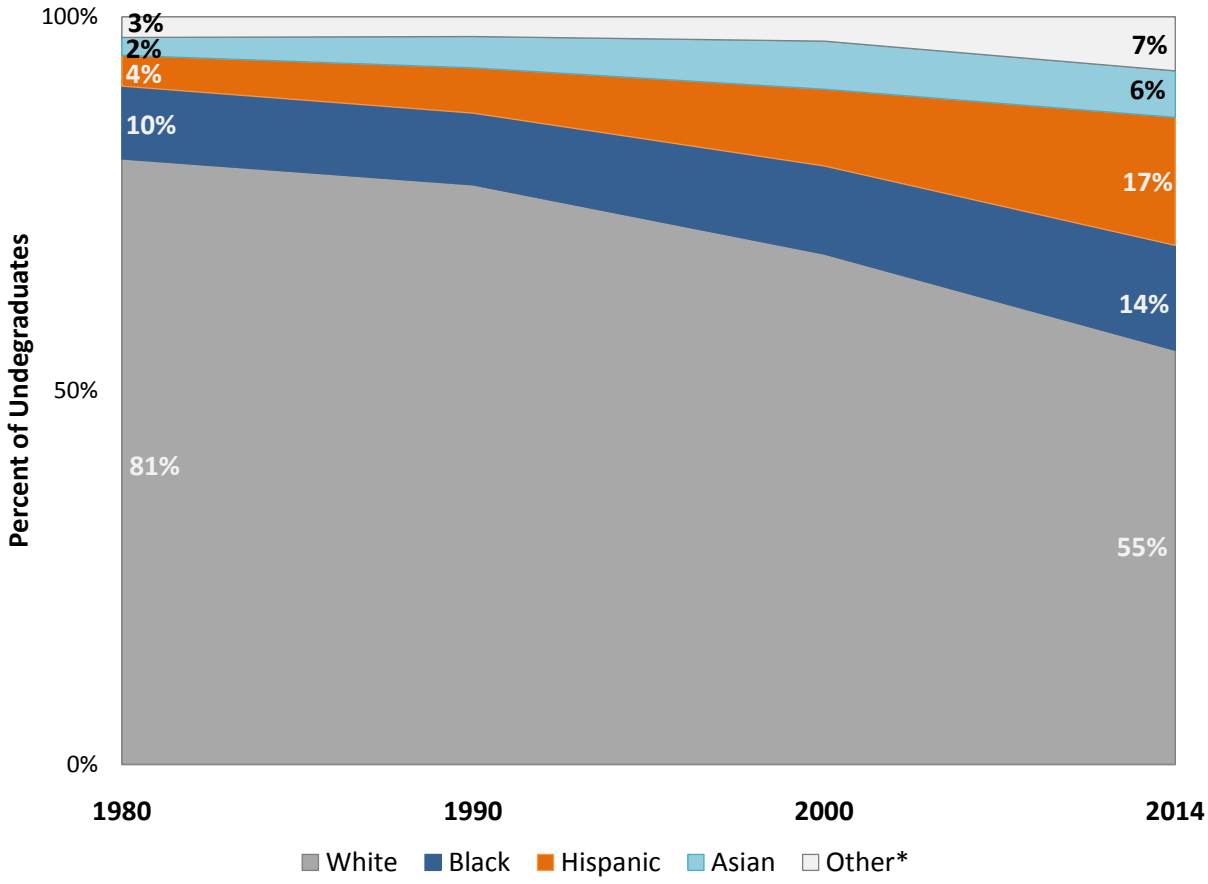
Similar to the college enrollment patterns of recent high school graduates, about half of all Hispanic students are enrolled at four-year institutions, compared with 58 percent of black students, 64 percent of white students, and 62 percent of Asian students (exhibit A.14).

Black and Hispanic students are more likely to enroll at for-profit institutions.

The percentage of students enrolled at public institutions was highest among Hispanics (83 percent) and lowest among black students (71 percent). The percentage of students enrolled at private, non-profit institutions was highest among white students and lowest among Hispanics. However, the percentage of students enrolled at for-profit institutions was highest among black and Hispanic students and lowest among Asian students (exhibit A.14). Factors that may contribute to higher enrollment of black and Hispanic students at for-profit institutions and community colleges include insufficient financial resources to pay the high sticker prices of private colleges with selective admissions policies, and a lack of information and guidance about admissions processes.[86] It is important to note that students of color may in some instances start their postsecondary education at two-year colleges and then transfer to four-year public and private, nonprofit institutions, which provides them the opportunity to complete a bachelor's degree. However, Department data on transfers from two-year to four-year institutions are limited.

In addition to full-time status and sector, data are available on the sex and age for each race and ethnicity category. Black and Hispanic students are, on average, more likely to be female and older. In 2014, the percentage of women undergraduates was 62 percent for black students, 57 percent for Hispanics, 55 percent for white students, and 52 percent for Asian students.[87] In 2011, among black beginning undergraduate students (i.e., students enrolling in postsecondary education for the first time), 19 percent were 25 years or older compared with 11 percent among Hispanic students, 14 percent among white students, and 3 percent among Asian students (exhibit A.15).

Exhibit 3.2: Percentage of U.S. undergraduates enrolled in postsecondary institutions, by race and ethnicity: Selected years from 1980 through 2014



NOTE: The data are based on fall enrollment at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant an associate degree or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. The Asian category includes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander. *The other category includes American Indian/Alaska Native, two or more races, and nonresident alien. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.*
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS), "Fall Enrollment in Colleges and Universities" survey 1980; Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Fall Enrollment Survey"; and IPEDS Spring 2001 through Spring 2015, Fall Enrollment component.
Available at https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d15/tables/dt15_306.10.asp.

B. Student Success: Persistence, Completion, and Degree Attainment

Key Findings: The next section overviews the disparities in the rate of completion — particularly bachelor's degree completion — among undergraduate students by race and ethnicity. In part, these disparities result from lower Hispanic and black enrollment in four-year colleges, as discussed earlier. Another important factor is gaps in the graduation rates among students seeking the same degree by race and ethnicity. The information below highlights patterns in the graduation rate among first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking students in addition to those who enter college through less traditional pathways.

- All races have lower graduation rates at for-profit institutions when compared with public and private, nonprofit institutions. The graduation rate for black students was 20 percent at for-profit institutions, 41 percent at public institutions, and 45 percent at private nonprofit institutions among the first-time, full-time cohort.
- The students in each of the four race and ethnicity categories have higher graduation rates when they attend more selective institutions.
- When looking at the cohort of all students entering college, degree completion is lower among black and Hispanic students than white and Asian students. Nearly half of Asian students who enroll in postsecondary institutions complete a bachelor's degree within six years, compared with 36 percent of white students and only 17 percent of black and Hispanic students.
- In 2013–14, nearly two out of three associate and bachelor's degrees were awarded to white students, even though white students comprised only 55 percent of undergraduates.

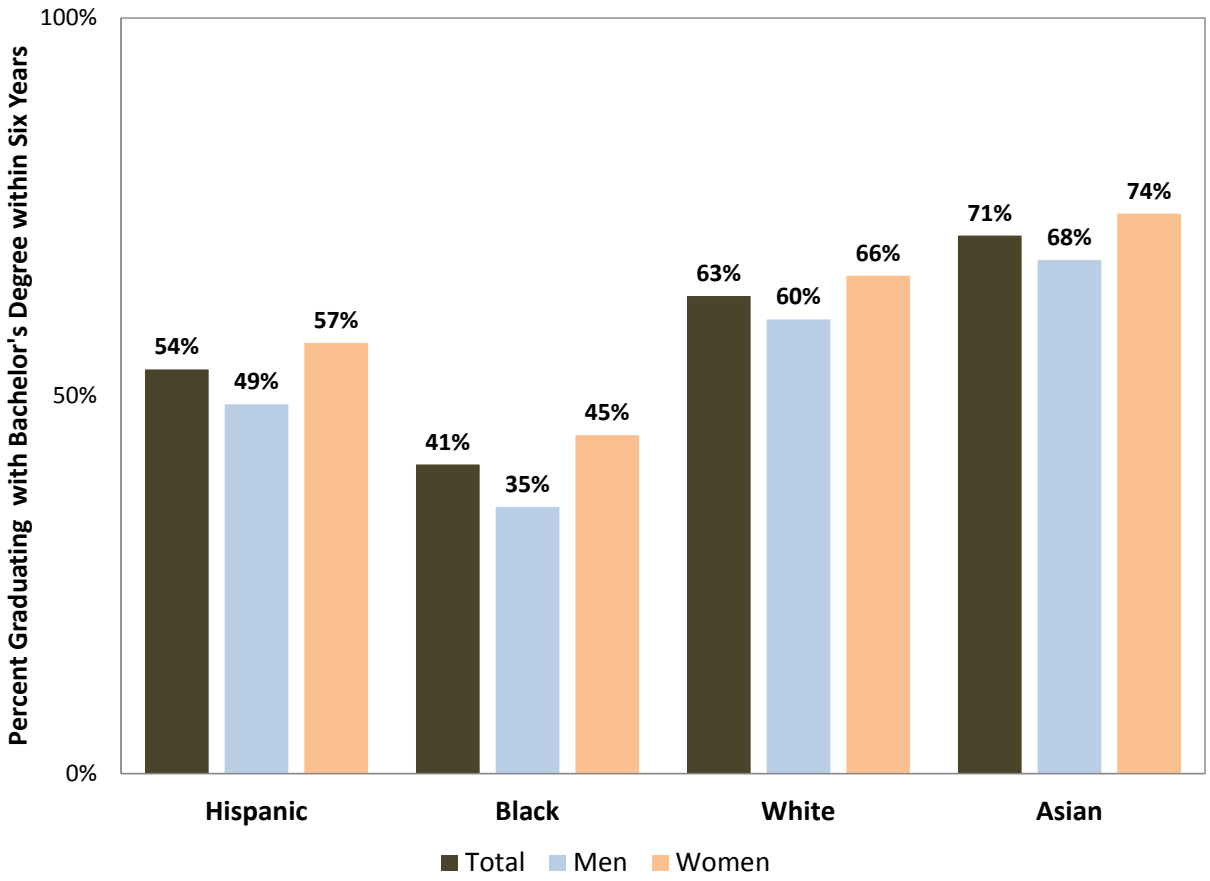
Graduation Rate Among First-Time, Full-Time, Bachelor's Degree-Seeking Students

Black students who pursue a four-year college degree — particularly men — graduate at a much lower rate than white and Asian students. Graduation rates among Hispanic students also are somewhat lower than white and Asian students.

Exhibit 4.1 shows substantial gaps in the six-year graduation rate among Hispanic, black, white, and Asian first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking students. In 2013–14, the graduation rate was 54 percent for Hispanic students and 41 percent for black students, compared with 63 percent for white students and 71 percent for Asian students. Among men, the graduation rate gaps were even larger. For example, the graduation rate for black men was about half the graduation rate for Asian men and 25 percentage points lower than white men, while the graduation rate for black women was about two-thirds the graduation rate for Asian women and 21 percentage points lower than the rate for white

women. The graduation rate for Hispanic men was 11 percentage points lower than white men, while the rate for Hispanic women was 9 percentage points lower than white women.

Exhibit 4.1: Percentage of first-time, full-time U.S. students graduating with a bachelor's degree within six years of enrollment, by race and ethnicity and sex: 2007–08 through 2013–14



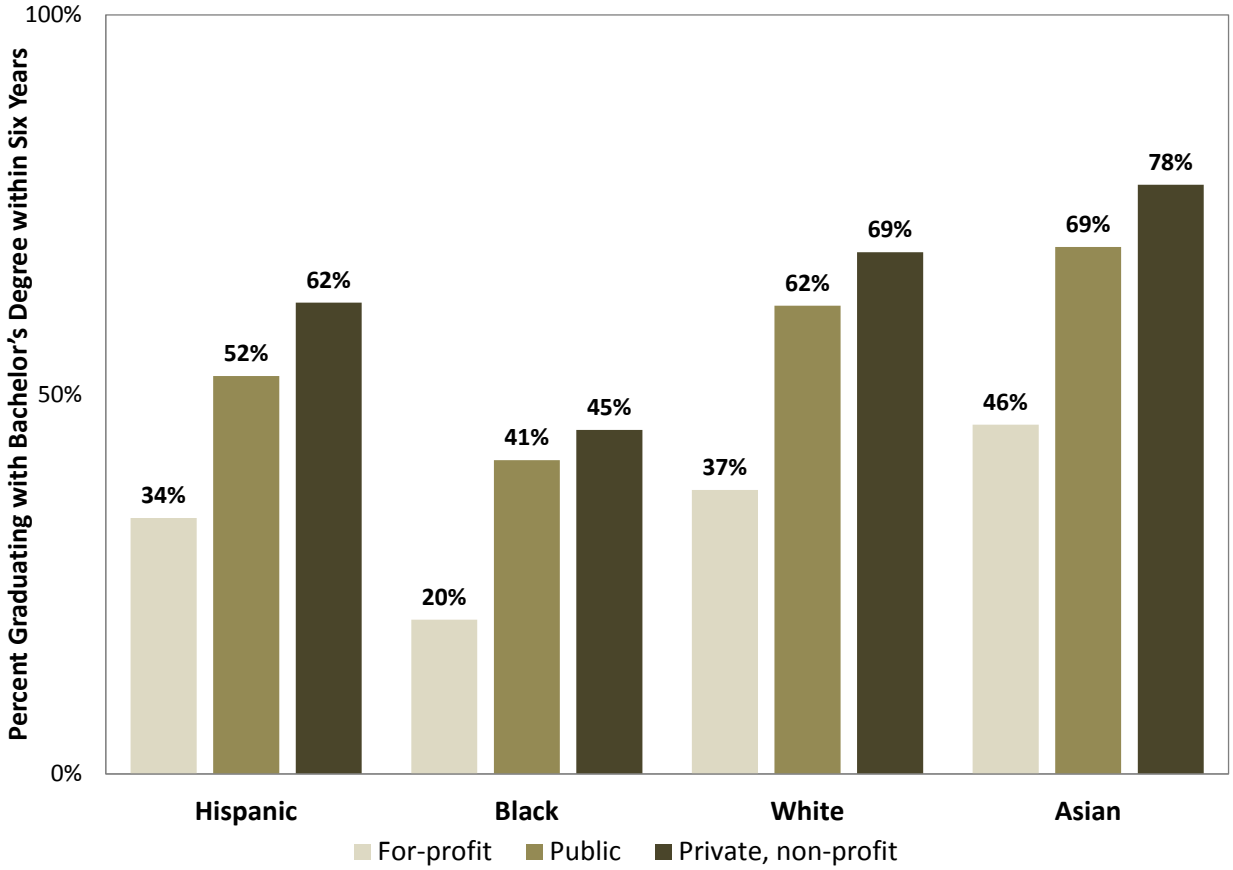
NOTE: The data are based on the six-year graduation rate for the 2007–08 first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking cohort. Transfer-out students are counted as not graduating. Includes institutions that participate in Title IV *financial aid programs and four institutions not participating in* Title IV *programs. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.*
SOURCE: Ginder, S.A., Kelly-Reid, J.E., and Mann, F.B. (2015). Graduation Rates for Selected Cohorts, 2006–11; Student Financial Aid, Academic Year 2013–14; and Admissions in Postsecondary Institutions, Fall 2014: First Look (Provisional Data) (NCES 2015-181). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. See table 1 at http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2015/2015181.pdf.

Graduation rates are lower at for-profit institutions, compared with public and private non-profit institutions.

Exhibit 4.2 shows the six-year graduation rate among Hispanic, black, white, and Asian bachelor's degree-seeking students by sector (i.e., institution control). For these four race and ethnicity categories, the graduation rate was lowest at for-profit institutions and highest at private, non-profit institutions in 2013–14.[88] For instance, the graduation rate among Hispanic students was 34 percent at for-profit institutions compared with 52 percent and 62 percent at public and private, non-profit institutions, respectively. Because the percentage of black and Hispanic enrollment is higher at for-profit institutions

(exhibit A.14), differences in graduation rates across sectors could contribute to disparities in completion by race and ethnicity.

Exhibit 4.2: Percentage of first-time, full-time U.S. students graduating with a bachelor's degree within six years, by race and ethnicity and institution control: From 2007–08 through 2013–14



NOTE: The data are based on the six-year graduation rate for the 2007–08 first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking cohort at degree-granting postsecondary institutions. Includes institutions that participate in Title IV *financial aid programs and four institutions not participating in* Title IV *programs. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.*
SOURCE: Ginder, S.A., Kelly-Reid, J.E., and Mann, F.B. (2015). Graduation Rates for Selected Cohorts, 2006–11; Student Financial Aid, Academic Year 2013–14; and Admissions in Postsecondary Institutions, Fall 2014: First Look (Provisional Data) (NCES 2015-181). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. See table 1 at http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2015/2015181.pdf.

Most students of color who attend highly selective and moderately selective institutions graduate, and graduation rate gaps for students of color are smaller at these campuses.

Numerous studies show that students of color gain significant educational and economic benefits as a result of attending selective institutions.[89, 90] Similarly, graduation rates are higher at more selective institutions among Hispanic, black, white, and Asian bachelor's degree-seeking students. For example, in 2013–14, the graduation rate of Asian students was slightly below 50 percent at institutions with inclusive or open admissions (less selective), compared with 59 percent at (moderately) selective institutions and 85 percent at more (highly) selective institutions (exhibit A.16).[91]

Moreover, the graduation rate gap between Hispanic and white students — along with the graduation rate gap between black and white students — is lower among students attending similarly highly selective colleges. In 2013–14, the black graduation rate was 15 percent lower than the white graduation rate at institutions with inclusive or open enrollment, but the gap closed to 10 percent at more selective institutions (exhibit A.16). Since Hispanic and black high school graduates are less likely to enroll at highly selective institutions than white and Asian students (exhibit A.11), selectivity (and ultimately the institutional supports and resources associated with selectivity) may in part influence racial and ethnic disparities in the graduation rate. However, a focus on addressing equity gaps within institutions remains another key way to grow talent.

Exhibit A.17 presents more statistics on first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking enrollment and graduation rates for all race and ethnicity categories by sex, sector, and control. While disparities in graduation rate by race and ethnicity are large, there is substantial variation in the graduation rate within each race and ethnicity category by other important institutional and student characteristics.

Persistence and Completion Among All Undergraduates

Completion rates among undergraduate students, including community college students and transfer students, further illustrate clear disparities in postsecondary outcomes across race and ethnicity.

Among students who entered postsecondary schooling in 2003–04, only one in five who completed a degree after six years were black or Hispanic.

For the cohort of undergraduates who began their postsecondary studies in 2003–04 and completed at least an associate degree by 2008–09, 71 percent were white, 8 percent were black, 9 percent were Hispanic, 6 percent were Asian, and 4 percent were identified in another category.[92] In comparison, among all entering students in the same cohort, 62 percent were white, 14 percent were black, 15 percent were Hispanic, 5 percent were Asian, and 5 percent were identified in another category.[93]

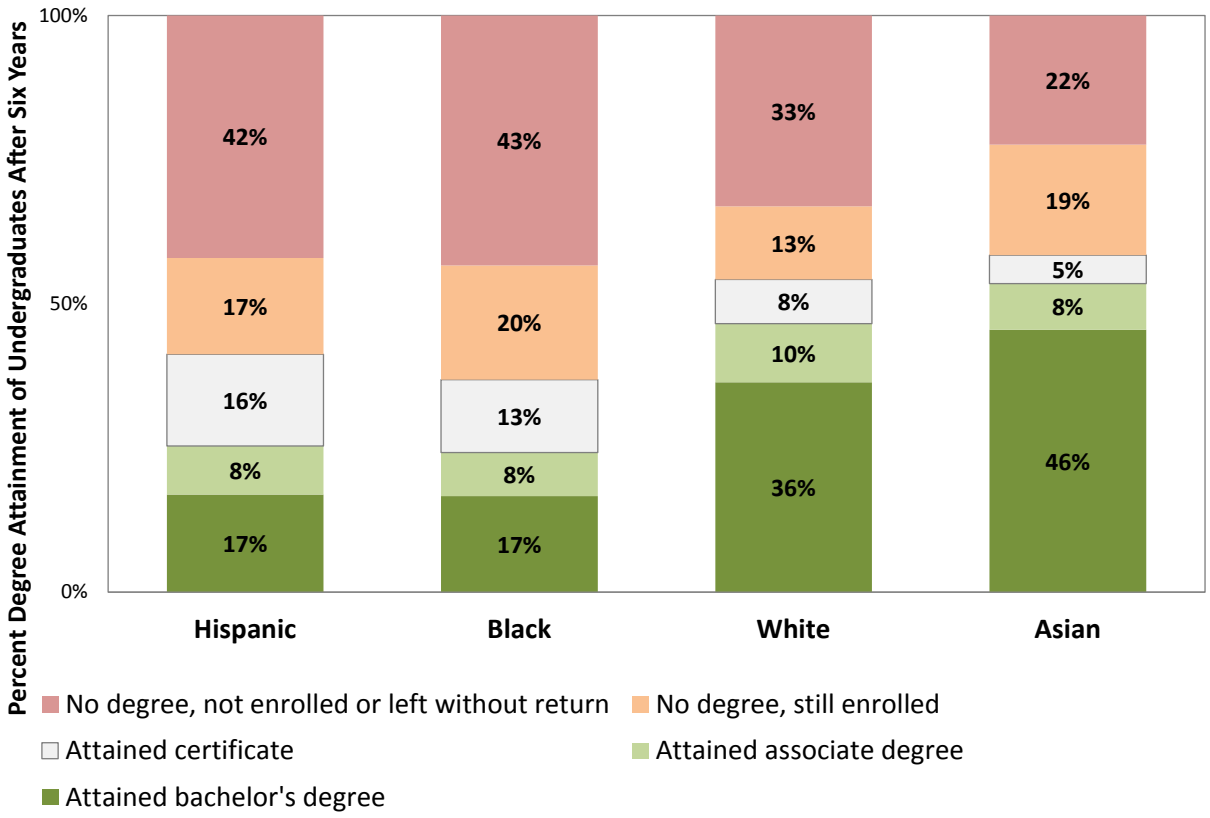
On-time completion is lower among black and Hispanic students than white and Asian students.

For the same cohort of students, disparities exist in the persistence and degree attainment outcomes four years after enrollment. Only 5 percent of black and 5 percent of Hispanic undergraduate students enrolled in college had attained a bachelor's degree within four years, compared with 18 percent among white students and 24 percent among Asian students. On the other hand, the percentage who dropped out was 44 percent among Hispanic students, 44 percent among black students, 34 percent among white students, and only 20 percent among Asian students (exhibit A.18).

Nearly half of Asian students who enrolled in postsecondary education complete a bachelor's degree, compared with fewer than one in five black and one in five Hispanic students.

Exhibit 4.3 shows persistence and degree attainment outcomes six years after enrollment by race and ethnicity and indicates that the disparities became even starker after an additional two years. Only 17 percent of black and 17 percent of Hispanic undergraduate students completed a bachelor's degree within six years of entering the postsecondary institution in the 2003–04 academic year, compared with 36 percent for white students and nearly half of Asian students. The percentage of students who dropped out was 42 percent for Hispanic students, 43 percent for black students, 33 percent for white students, and 22 percent for Asian students.

Exhibit 4.3: Percentage degree attainment of U.S. students within six years of entering postsecondary programs, by race and ethnicity and institution type: From 2003–04 through 2008–09



NOTE: The data are based on students participating in the 2003–04 Beginning Postsecondary Students study cohort. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2003–04 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study, Second Follow-up (BPS:04/09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code hgbgeb2.

In addition to disparities by race and ethnicity, large gaps in educational attainment are present by socioeconomic status (exhibit A.19) and first-generation college status (exhibit A.20). Since race and ethnicity are related to socioeconomic status and parental education, these disparities could in part influence educational attainment outcomes by race and ethnicity.

In 2013–14, nearly two out of three associate and bachelor's degrees were awarded to white students.

Due to disparities at each step of the higher education pipeline, the racial and ethnic composition of undergraduate and graduate degrees completed was still predominantly white. In 2013–14, nearly two out of three associate and bachelor's degrees were awarded to white students (see appendix B for more details by award level). Yet, during this time, only 55 percent of undergraduates were white.

C. Smaller Populations of Students of Color*

Key Findings: U.S. Department of Education data are limited for smaller racial and ethnic groups of students, including American Indian/Alaska Native and Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students. In addition, there is limited data for students reported as two or more races. However, disparities in graduation rates also exist among these students of color. This section briefly presents data available on these smaller populations.

American Indian/Alaska Native Students

In 2014, institutions enrolled 138,600 American Indian/Alaska Native students.

- About 138,600 American Indian/Alaska Native undergraduates were enrolled in fall 2014 compared with 77,900 in 1980.[94]
- About 14,300 graduate students were American Indian/Alaska Native.[95]

Almost half of American Indian/Alaska Native undergraduate students were enrolled in two-year community colleges.

- Forty-eight percent of American Indian/Alaska Native undergraduate students were enrolled at two-year institutions in 2014, compared with 36 percent of white students and 38 percent of Asian students, excluding Pacific Islanders.[96]
- Eighty percent enrolled at public institutions compared with 76 percent for white.[97] Eleven percent enrolled at private, non-profit institutions compared with 18 percent for white.[98] Nine percent enrolled at for-profit institutions.[99]

In the 2013–14 academic year, graduation rates were lower among American Indian/Alaska Native bachelor's degree-seeking students compared with white and Asian students (exhibit A.23).

- In 2013-14, 41 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native students graduated within six years out of 10,200 first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking students, compared with 63 percent among white students and 71 percent among Asian students, excluding Pacific Islanders.[100]
- The graduation rate was 43 percent among women and 39 percent among men.[101]
- Twenty percent graduated within six years at for-profit institutions compared with 40 percent at public institutions and 49 percent at private, non-profit institutions.[102]

* The Department of Education implemented reporting guidelines in 2007 to conform to the Office of Management and Budget Statistical Policy Directive 15, "Standards for Classification of Federal Data on Race and Ethnicity." Categories are American Indian/Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Hispanic or Latino, Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander, and White (also see appendix E). For reporting purposes, ethnicity is required to be collected separately from race, so individuals identified as Hispanic are not included in racial categories. For example, individuals identifying as both Hispanic and American Indian/Alaska Native are not counted in the American Indian/Alaska Native category.

Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander Students

In 2014, institutions enrolled 52,300 Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.

- About 52,300 Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander undergraduates were enrolled in fall 2014 compared with 57,500 in fall 2010 — the first time institutions reported enrollment separately for Asians and Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islanders, respectively.[103]
- About 6,500 graduate students were Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.[104]

Three times as many Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander undergraduate students were enrolled at for-profit institutions compared with white students.

- Forty-one percent of undergraduate students were enrolled at two-year institutions compared with 36 percent of white students and 38 percent of Asian students, excluding Pacific Islanders.[105]
- Sixty-eight percent enrolled at public institutions compared with 76 percent of white students.[106] Fourteen percent enrolled at private, non-profit institutions compared with 18 percent of white students.[107] Eighteen percent enrolled at for-profit institutions — three times the percentage among white students.[108]

In 2013–14, graduation rates were lower among Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander bachelor's degree-seeking students compared with white and Asian students (exhibit A.23).

- In 2013–14, 50 percent of Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students graduated within six years out of 2,500 first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking students compared with 63 percent among white students.[109]
- The graduation rate for both men and women was close to 50 percent.[110]
- Twenty-six percent graduated at for-profit institutions compared with 49 percent at public institutions and 61 percent at private, non-profit institutions.[111]

Students of Two or More Races

In 2014, institutions enrolled 579,500 students identifying as two or more races, and the number of students identifying in this group is steadily increasing.

- About 579,500 undergraduates of two or more races were enrolled in fall 2014 compared with 293,700 in fall 2010 — the first time institutions reported this category. [112]
- About 62,600 graduate students identified as two or more races.[113]

Students identifying as two or more races enrolled predominantly at four-year institutions, and one in eight enrolled at for-profit institutions.

- Thirty-five percent of undergraduate students identifying as two or more races were enrolled at two-year institutions compared with 36 percent of white undergraduate students.[114]
- Seventy-three percent enrolled at public institutions compared with 76 percent of white students.[115] Fifteen percent enrolled at private, non-profit institutions compared with 18 percent of white students.[116] Twelve percent enrolled at for-profit institutions — twice the percentage among white students.[117]

- Seventy-three percent enrolled at public institutions compared with 76 percent of white students.[118] Fifteen percent enrolled at private, non-profit institutions compared with 18 percent of white students.[119] Twelve percent enrolled at for-profit institutions — twice the percentage among white students.[120]

In 2013–14, 65 percent of students identifying as two or more races completed their bachelor's degree — at a similar rate as white students (exhibit A.23).

- In 2013–14, 65 percent of students of two or more races graduated within six years out of 11,500 first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking students compared with 63 percent among white students.[121]
- The graduation rate was 62 percent among men and 68 percent among women.[122]
- Thirty-six percent graduated within six years at for-profit institutions compared with 59 percent at public institutions and 73 percent at private, non-profit institutions.[123]

D. Multiple Dimensions of Gaps in College Opportunity

Key Findings: In addition to data broken down by race and ethnicity, disaggregation of outcomes by family income and parental education within each race and ethnicity group offers additional insights about disparities in college completion and postgraduate salaries. Available data show the following:

- In 2009, bachelor's degree attainment among beginning postsecondary undergraduate students was higher for white and Asian students compared to black and Hispanic students, even after accounting for family income.
- For Hispanic, black, white, and Asian undergraduate students, students whose parents completed college were twice as likely as first-generation students to attain a bachelor's degree.
- In 2012, postgraduate salaries among white and Asian students were higher than those of black and Hispanic students, particularly among students who came from low- and middle-income families.
- Within the same race or ethnicity, bachelor's graduates expect to make about the same salary regardless of the college completion of their parents.

Four-Year College Attainment Disaggregated by Income Quartile.

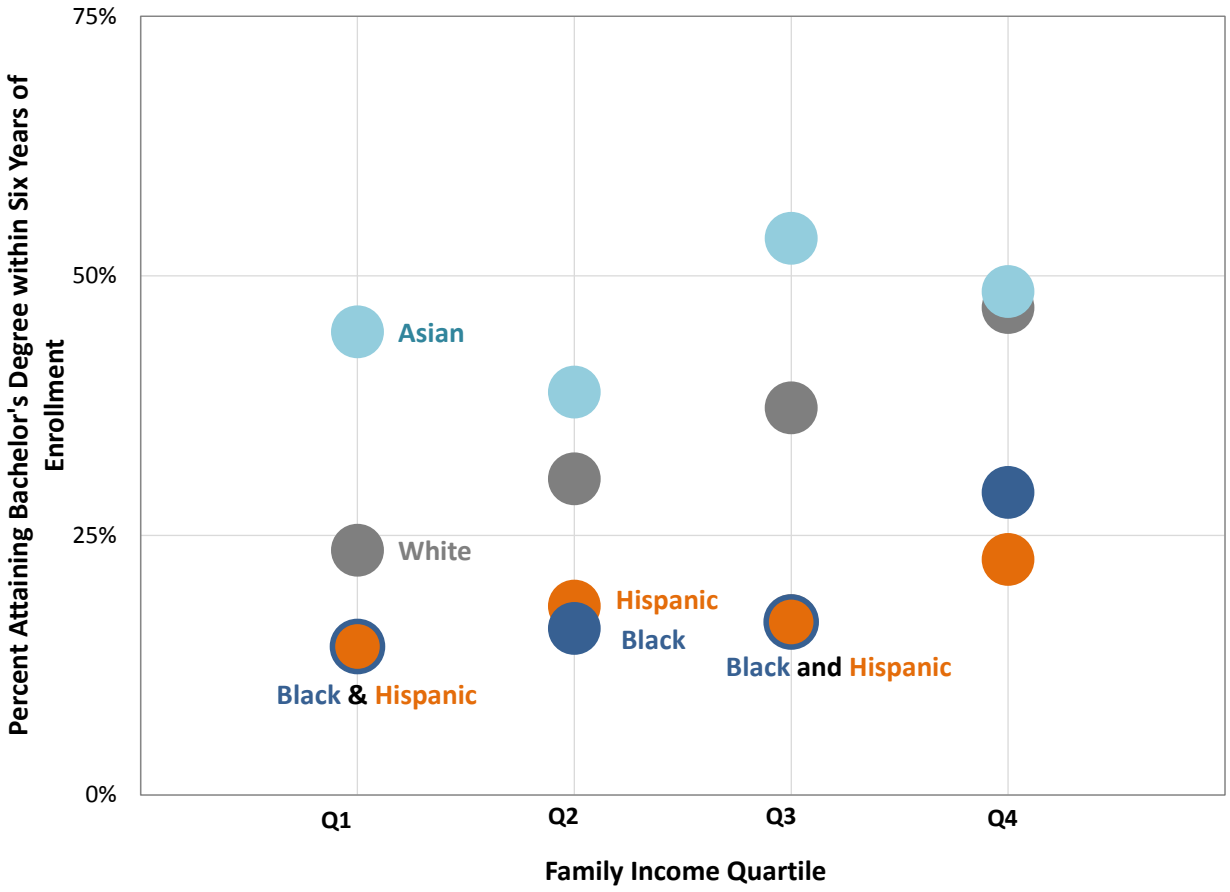
Among low-income students who entered postsecondary education in 2003–04, about 14 percent of black and 14 percent of Hispanic students attained a bachelor's degree compared to 24 percent of white students.

Exhibit 5.1 shows that bachelor's degree attainment among beginning postsecondary undergraduate students is higher for white and Asian students compared to black and Hispanic students, even after taking into account family income. Among low-income students who entered postsecondary education in 2003–04, about 14 percent of black and 14 percent of Hispanic students attained a bachelor's degree compared to 24 percent of white students and 45 percent of Asian students.[124] White students in the top income quartile also tend to earn a bachelor's degree at a higher rate than their lower-income peers. However, across each income category, the estimated attainment rates for white students are always greater than the estimated attainment rates for both black and Hispanic students.

Students whose parents completed college are about twice as likely to attain a bachelor's degree.

Almost one in three black and one in three Hispanic students beginning their undergraduate studies who had at least one parent with a bachelor's degree completed their own bachelor's degree within six years, compared to only one in seven first-generation students of the same race and ethnicity. A similar pattern holds among white and Asian students. As noted earlier, due to lower levels of parental education among black and Hispanic students, these trends could in part contribute to disparities in completion (see exhibit A.24).

Exhibit 5.1: Percentage bachelor's degree attainment of students within six years of postsecondary enrollment, by race and ethnicity and family income quartile: From 2003–04 through 2008–09



NOTE: The data are based on students participating in the 2003–04 Beginning Postsecondary Students study cohort. These statistics are estimates based on a sampling of students, and standard errors may be large. Interpret with caution, particularly for the non-white subgroups. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2003–04 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study, Second Follow-up (BPS:04/09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bhhbgdf20.

In 2012, postgraduate salaries among white and Asian students were higher than those of black and Hispanic students, particularly among students who came from low- and middle-income families.

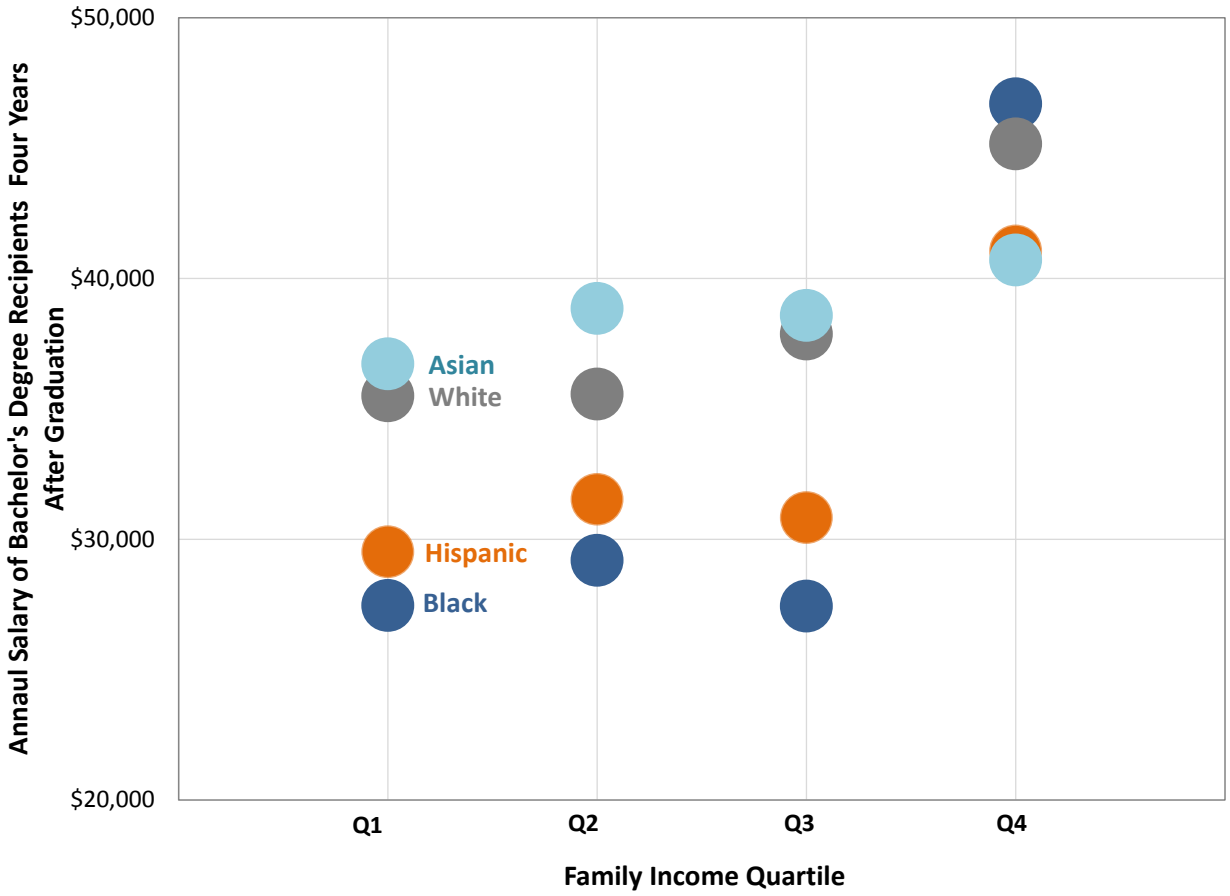
Exhibit 5.2 breaks down the average annual salary of four-year college graduates of Hispanic, black, white, and Asian students by their family's income at the time of their graduation. Especially among low- and middle-income students, postgraduate salaries were higher among white and Asian students compared to black and Hispanic students in 2012. Moreover, within each racial and ethnic group, postgraduate salaries are higher for upper-income students than low- and middle-income students. For instance, white students whose family fell in the top income quartile made an average of $45,163 four years after graduation compared to only $35,506 among white students whose families were in the bottom income quartile. These trends suggest that the factors associated with family income such as

access to dynamic regional labor markets and connections to social capital may influence postgraduate earnings.

The salary that four-year college graduates expect to make is no different if their *parents* finished college or did not finish college.

The average annual salary of bachelor's graduates by race and ethnicity and parental education indicate that, although the educational attainment of the student is an important contributor to labor market outcomes for four-year college graduates, there is little correlation between whether a student's parent(s) completed college and labor market success (exhibit A.25).[125]

Exhibit 5.2: Total annual salary of bachelor's degree recipients four years after graduation, by race and ethnicity and family income: 2012



NOTE: The data are based on students participating in the 2007–08 Baccalaureate and Beyond study. Family income percentiles are grouped by quartiles among both independent and dependent students at time of graduation. Figures also exclude foreign students. These statistics are estimates based on sampling of students and standard errors may be large. Interpret with caution, particularly for the non-white subgroups. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2008/12 Baccalaureate and Beyond Longitudinal Study (B&B:08/12). For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bhhbgef5.

IV. Promoting Higher Education Access and Inclusion for All Students: Leadership Examples

Practices for Promoting Higher Education Access for All Students in Institutions of Higher Education

As noted earlier in this report, at too many institutions, underrepresented students of color face far lower odds of graduating than other students, far higher chances that they will struggle to afford a higher education, and significant academic obstacles. Many states and institutions have taken extraordinary and significant steps to increase access for underrepresented students of color, and to improve the educational experiences and academic success of students of color and low-income students.

States that are committed to advancing campus diversity and inclusion in higher education can contribute in many ways, for example, by creating goals toward this end and providing support to Institutions of Higher Education (IHEs). The state boards of education can work in conjunction with IHEs to create more diverse and inclusive campuses. For example, Delaware has committed to increase college access through its Delaware Goes to College initiative, a goal to have zero college-ready students who do not apply to college. This initiative encourages all high schools to make time for students to apply to college, assist families with completing FAFSA applications, create a College Acceptance Day, as well as provide outreach to families to ensure that students attend and remain in college. Colorado's School Counselor Corps Grant Program (SCCGP) awards funding to eligible school districts to increase the availability of effective school-based counseling. The program's goal is to improve the high school graduation rate and increase the percentage of students who appropriately prepare for, apply to, and continue into postsecondary education. Approximately 60 percent of students served participate in the free and reduced price lunch programs. SCCGP schools increased their matriculation rates by approximately 13 percentage points with the first year of funding and were able to maintain that increase during the next two years.

This section includes some publicly available examples of institutional practices, and highlights them as possible models for other institutions seeking approaches to expand access and promote safe and welcoming campus environments, including for students of color. While many more noteworthy practices at institutions across the country could be cited, the examples that follow are provided to show a variety of approaches in different institutional settings. This publication also contains hyperlinks and URLs for information created and maintained by outside third parties. As indicated at the beginning of this report, information to such outside sources is provided for the reader's convenience. The inclusion of these examples is not to be construed as an endorsement by the Department of Education or the federal government. The Department of Education does not guarantee the accuracy, relevance, timeliness, or completeness of the outside information contained at hyperlinks or URLs. Further, the inclusion of this information or a hyperlink or URL does not reflect the importance of the organization, nor is it intended to endorse any views expressed, or products or services offered.

Institutional Commitment to Promoting Student Body Diversity and Inclusion on Campus

Research shows that colleges and universities seeking to implement programs to promote campus diversity identify how it relates to the core institutional mission and unique circumstances of the educational institution. Often, core institutional documents inform goals, objectives, and priorities that can lead institutions in turn to allocate necessary funds and resources to those purposes. For example, the institution could adopt a mission statement describing how the institution intends to promote student body diversity and inclusion as well as the necessary climate and conditions to do so.[126]

In turn, campus leaders could consider aligning policies and practices across the institution with this mission statement.[127] These steps could be connected to the institution's overall strategic plan and vision for student learning and success. Implementation of the campus diversity plan need not be considered the sole responsibility of a single designated diversity committee.[128] Institutions could also build their capacity to collect and analyze the data required to set and track their diversity and inclusion efforts in order to facilitate assessment of the plan's effectiveness.[129] The joint Department of Education and Department of Justice Guidance on the Voluntary Use of Race to Achieve Diversity in Postsecondary Education provides a checklist of key steps for colleges and universities, including reasons for a plan and considerations when implementing the plan.

- **The University at Albany** (UAlbany), part of the State University of New York (SUNY), includes diversity and inclusion as a part of its strategic plan, reinforcing the system-wide Diversity Vision and Mission Statement. The 2010 Strategic Plan sets forth a key strategic goal "to enhance the quality of undergraduate education at UAlbany and attract and serve a highly qualified and diverse group of students." (Planning is underway during the 2016–17 academic year to update the strategic plan.) In an effort to fulfill that portion of its plan, the university has established the Diversity Transformation Fund, which provides funding to faculty and staff for development of new and innovative initiatives that model inclusiveness and impact campus climate. Among other campus resources, the university funds the Office of Diversity and Inclusion, which is charged with promoting and furthering the university's commitment.

- **Southwestern University**, a faith-based private university in Texas, builds on its Core Values with a diversity statement that commits to "continuing the development of an increasingly diverse community of students, faculty, and staff." The Strategic Plan identifies actions to advance the objectives outlined in the Mission, Core Values, and Diversity Statement. A chief diversity officer leads the Office of Diversity Education and supports the Coalition for Diversity and Social Justice, an umbrella organization for eight cultural, identity, and social justice groups. Also, under the auspices of the office, the Diversity Enrichment Committee provides funding for programs that further diversity on campus.

- The **University of Mississippi** not only supports diversity in its UM 2020 Strategic Plan but produced a stand-alone Diversity Matters plan in which key actions and metrics for measuring progress are outlined. The university funds the work of the William Winter Institute for Racial Reconciliation — which works in communities and classrooms on campus, in Mississippi, and

beyond, to support a movement of racial equity and wholeness — and the Critical Race Studies Group.

- The Mission and Goals Statement at the **University of Maryland, College Park** sets forth a number of objectives, among which are those to "reduce the achievement gap for African American/Black, Hispanic, and low-income students" and "expand the diversity of the graduate student body through collaborations with University System of Maryland partner institutions that focus on recruitment, academic success, professional development, and the creation of a supportive work environment for all students." The university implements these objectives in part through a holistic admission review process and review factors.

- At the **University of Michigan**, the Campuswide Strategic Plan focuses on three strategic areas to address inclusivity. Strategy 1 aims to create an inclusive and equitable campus climate; Strategy 2 aims to recruit, retain, and develop a diverse community; and Strategy 3 aims to support innovative and inclusive scholarship and teaching.

Diversity Across All Levels of an Institution

Promoting diversity and inclusiveness across all levels of the institution, including the institution's administration and faculty, can be an important way to achieve a diverse and inclusive campus climate. Institutional leadership that focuses on diversity and inclusion, such as a chief diversity officer assigned the duties of overseeing the development and implementation of the institution's commitments to diversity, can spearhead these efforts. These administration and faculty challenges are not insignificant, as people of color are often underrepresented among institutions' leadership: in 2013–14, seven times as many faculty were white as were either black or Hispanic (see appendix C for statistics on faculty).

Campus leadership, including a diverse faculty, plays an important role in achieving an inclusive institution. Faculty's curricular decisions and pedagogy, including their individual interactions with students, can foster inclusive climates. Also, students report it is important that they see themselves reflected in the faculty and curriculum to which they are exposed to create a sense of belonging and inclusiveness. Research suggests that greater representation of underrepresented groups among faculty may increase students' sense of academic validation.[130] Research at the K-12 level, for instance, demonstrates that teachers of color may hold higher expectations for students of color and employ a deeper cultural understanding of their students.[131, 132, 133] Faculty creates the curricula and, therefore, has the responsibility and discretion to select the educational content to which students are exposed and the educational experiences fostered in the classroom. The curriculum and classroom interactions greatly impact all students — including students of color.

Institutions may wish to consider how historical and current policies and practices may serve as barriers to diversity goals. They could also consider various parts of the pipeline, including how they may expand the hiring pool for administrators and faculty, as well as programs that support and retain diverse administrators and faculty.[134]

Mentoring programs, for instance, can help address relatively high rates of turnover among underrepresented minority faculty.[135] The campus climate can affect the success of both students *and* faculty.[136]

- For example, the **University of Illinois at Chicago** in 2011 created the Cluster Initiative to Increase Diversity and the Interdisciplinary Culture at UIC, a faculty hiring initiative that was designed to develop diverse academic leadership and enrich the student learning experience.

- At **The University of Texas at Austin**, the Thematic Faculty Initiative incorporates a three-tiered approach to prepare, recruit, and retain faculty. First, the university hires graduate research assistants who are mentored and exposed to the value of working in an academic environment committed to diversity and inclusion. Second, the university recruits intellectually and culturally diverse faculty members, providing a line of funding through the Division of Diversity and Community Engagement for these hires. Finally, the university provides fellowships to faculty members across the university whose research, teaching, or special projects focus on diversity and community engagement issues.

- In tandem with efforts to expand college access to low-income, first-generation, and historically underrepresented students, **Columbia University** has invested $85 million to support the recruitment and retention of underrepresented faculty. The Provost's Grant Program for Junior Faculty Who Contribute to the Diversity Goals of the University provides awards, of up to $25,000 each, to support new or ongoing research and scholarship, seed funding for innovative research for which external funding would be difficult to obtain, and curricular development projects. The Dean's Faculty Diversity Research Awards Program at Teachers College supports faculty research projects related to diversity for one semester.

Outreach and Recruitment of Prospective Students

Institutions committed to enhancing student diversity can take steps to improve outreach and recruitment to a diverse array of students. For instance, institutions often work to proactively develop relationships and provide support to the elementary and secondary schools that are located within the communities surrounding the institution. Institutions could consider how they target their financial aid resources and how their admissions processes — such as early decision procedures — may act as a barrier to groups of students, including low-income students.[137] There are many ways institutions can promote diversity through their financial aid and admissions, including transfer or articulation agreements with other institutions, such as with community colleges; recruitment or additional consideration for community college transfer applicants; targeted financial aid; and holistic application reviews.[138] As the joint Department of Education and Department of Justice Guidance on the Voluntary Use of Race to Achieve Diversity in Postsecondary Education describes, postsecondary institutions may develop admissions procedures designed to achieve diversity, including procedures that involve admissions preferences for certain groups of students.

As a recent review of rigorous research on college access strategies suggests, institutions may most effectively expand access when they employ strategies to address multiple barriers to college access *together*, instead of in isolation.[139] Students encounter many barriers in accessing higher education, such as the complex process of identifying appropriate institutions, applying for financial aid, and completing paperwork to matriculate on-time, or difficulties filling gaps in financial aid.[140, 141, 142] Some strategies supported by research include providing comprehensive, ongoing support from administrators and peers; advising from peers near the students' age; targeting support for elements such as FAFSA completion and test prep; and exposing students to college-level work while they are in high school.[143, 144, 145, 146] The joint Guidance on the Voluntary Use of Race to Achieve Diversity in Postsecondary Education sets out examples of mentoring, tutoring, retention, and support programs postsecondary institutions might consider in pursuing diversity.

Examples of institutional outreach programs include the following:

- The LIFT College Access Mentoring program at the **University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign** provides access and exposure to college for the community's underrepresented youths in tandem with mentoring.

- At **The University of Texas at Austin**, the Neighborhood Longhorns program partners with local elementary and middle schools that have a high proportion of low-income students to improve academic performance. The university's Math Masters program prepares students from underrepresented Texas high schools with the skills necessary for successful completion of college-level math courses.

- At the flagship campus of **Rutgers University**, the Office for Diversity and Academic Success in the Sciences (ODASIS) aims to increase the recruitment and academic success of underrepresented students, as well as educationally and economically disadvantaged students, who are interested in pursuing careers in the science, technology, engineering, and mathematics professions. The Summer Preparatory Program in chemistry and calculus, one example of an ODASIS program, involves intensive academic support during the summer prior to students' freshman year in order to strengthen and articulate the foundation of course content necessary to excel in future gatekeeper courses within a science curriculum.

Support Services for Students

As this report describes, students of color face disproportionate barriers to completing higher education. One significant challenge is helping students transition academically when they have attended schools with fewer resources, less-qualified teachers, and limited college prep coursework, as well as "college knowledge" regarding the rigor of coursework in higher education.[147] In general, student support services are associated with improved academic outcomes throughout the student's college experience.[148] A Department of Education analysis found that a variety of student support services are related to improved outcomes, such as peer tutoring, labs, workshops, counseling, and referrals to outside sources — and that what may be most important is that students receive an appropriate

package of student-centered services from the institution.[149] Promising academic support strategies include the following:

- **Well-designed Course Placement Strategies**: Many institutions require entering students to take screening exams and, if they do not pass the cutoff, take remedial or developmental courses. Although half of all undergraduates take at least one developmental course, research indicates that many of the tests are poor predictors of success in college-level courses and may not be a good use of students' or institutions' time and money.[150] Evidence suggests that emerging strategies could help, such as using computer-adaptive placement testing; basing placement on high school transcripts, not tests; and having high school juniors take placement exams so they can address academic gaps during their senior year.[151, 152, 153] Also, research indicates Statway — a new pathway for developmental math that addresses complex problems affecting student success, along with the companion Quantway pathway — may improve credit-earning for all students, including students of color.[154]

- **Mentoring or Coaching:** These programs help college students identify strategies to overcome both academic and "real-life" barriers.[155] Rigorous evidence indicates that individualized mentoring and coaching — distinct from academic advising — can increase the odds that college students remain enrolled in school.[156] Mentoring and coaching might be particularly helpful for first-generation students who are less familiar with the institutional structure of higher education.

- **On-campus Support and Summer Bridge Programs:** First-year experience programs, which support the academic performance and social development of college students and also increase students' sense of campus community and connection to their institutions, can improve academic achievement and credit-earning.[157] Summer bridge programs, which ease students' transition to college and help students develop academic skills and social resources to succeed, can also improve persistence and completion for participants.[158] For example, the Center for Academic Reinforcement at **Howard University** identifies academic difficulties experienced by students who enter the university, providing a pre-summer college preparation program, a pre-college orientation program for entering freshmen, individualized peer mentoring and tutoring in mathematics, mini courses in areas such as critical thinking and essay writing, and intervention courses for students who do not pass the Graduate School's Expository Writing Examination.

- **Challenges Outside the Classroom:** Many American students also encounter challenges outside of the classroom that may affect their success in school, such as housing insecurity, hunger, transportation to school, and affording textbooks.[159] A recent study of more than 4,000 undergraduates at 10 community colleges, for instance, found that about half of respondents struggled with either food or housing insecurity.[160] As with other barriers described in this report, students of color may disproportionately encounter these issues. Institutions have experimented with various strategies to support students with housing insecurities and living

costs, such as establishing a campus single point of contact, connecting students with federal benefits, and providing emergency aid or micro grants.[161] Rigorous research demonstrates that one program in particular, **City University of New York**'s Accelerated Study in Associate Programs (ASAP), nearly doubled graduation rates among participating low-income students after three years.[162] The ASAP program covers the gap between students' financial aid and their need and provides an array of services such as free transportation MetroCards, a program advisor with a small caseload, and free textbooks to borrow.[163]

Inclusive Campus Climate

Institutions may take steps to foster inclusive campus climates for all members of their communities. Many factors can affect campus climate. Campus composition makes a difference: underrepresented students tend to experience less frequent discrimination at more compositionally diverse institutions, compared to less diverse institutions.[164] Also, students report less discrimination and bias at institutions where they perceive a stronger institutional commitment to diversity.[165] As a foundation, institutions could perform an assessment of their campus climate related to diversity in order to identify areas for improvement — for instance, ways different groups of students perceive discrimination on campus. These assessments can inform a continuous process of planning, implementing, and reflecting on progress made and lessons learned. Performing assessments that address unique aspects of the campus community can ensure they align with institutions' efforts to improve their campus climates and student outcomes.[166]

The level of experience and exposure to different races and ethnicities varies for all persons in campus environments. As a result, institutions may wish to develop and facilitate programming to increase the cultural competency of leadership, faculty, staff, and students by implementing training. Promising evidence suggests that diversity training and workshops can influence the behavior and attitudes of academic leaders and faculty, including acting inclusively and engaging in fair hiring practices.[167] Research indicates that trainings for both leaders and students can be more effective when they involve active learning techniques, not just lectures, so participants engage with the course content, and when the trainings avoid assigning blame or responsibility to participants for current diversity issues.[168]

Research suggests that, for faculty to develop cultural competencies, it may be helpful for training to include an orientation, as well as an ongoing and developmentally sequenced curriculum such as Cultural Competency Training (CCT). CCT is designed not only to teach learners about cultural differences and ways in which to engage respectfully with persons of other cultures, but also to provide implicit bias training to increase learners' awareness of the unconscious and subtle associations made between groups of people and stereotypes attributed to the group. Some institutions offer this training and provide certificates and recognition to faculty and staff upon completion. Cultural competency is a life-long learning endeavor; thus, earning a certificate does not constitute mastery of the subject, but rather demonstrates a willingness to learn.

Much of the dialogue around diversity and inclusion in higher education suggests that curricula to which students are exposed can greatly impact the way in which they view and engage the world. Research suggests this begins with institutions' orientation and induction of new students into the campus

environment.[169] Many IHEs include cultural competency training in new student orientation, and also require that students take coursework in diversity as freshmen. These programs can create opportunities for students to have positive interactions with diverse peers, which research demonstrates can lead students to feel a greater sense of belonging to their college or university.[170] Examples of institutions implementing such strategies include the following:

- **Southern Methodist University** in Dallas requires all graduating students to have taken a human diversity co-curricular course. A variety of courses in disciplines ranging from anthropology to English to religion are designated as courses that can satisfy this requirement.

- The **University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign** offers an I-Connect Diversity and Inclusion Workshop for first-year and transfer students, which uses collaborative exercises and discussion to build participants' communication skills and their ability to collaborate, learn, and work in diverse environments. The university's year-long Learn, Envision, Navigate, and Synthesize (LENS) Diversity Certificate Program enables students to build the skills necessary to engage on the multicultural campus and global society. Participants take courses, attend workshops and cohort meetings, and design their own action project.

- The **University of Mississippi** University Police Department requires Hate vs. Bias Training for all new officers and has employed additional diversity training within the department for existing officers. The university provides a Welcome Home onboarding program to new employees, which emphasizes the university's commitment to racial reconciliation. New students are required to attend the Respect the M orientation session to facilitate a more inclusive and diverse campus climate. MPower is an optional, first-year summer program for students to instill appreciation for university culture and for cultural differences and inclusivity.

In addition, institutions may incorporate diversity training into broader campus programs and training. Research suggests that coupling diversity training with larger initiatives, such as new student orientation or broader professional development efforts for university employees, as opposed to holding standalone trainings, may be more effective.[171] Similarly, institutions also could consider how best to support student-, staff-, and faculty-led initiatives that incorporate conversations about diversity and inclusion into campus life.[172] For example, some institutions support discrete components of student government, such as a diversity affairs council, that promote diversity and inclusion. Many institutions engage students in the decision-making process on matters involving diversity and efforts to improve campus climate.

- At the **University of Illinois-Chicago**, the Chancellor's Status Committees are advisory groups comprising staff, students, and faculty that collaboratively monitor the needs of underrepresented and underserved groups and proactively make policy recommendations to improve the climate for these groups on campus. The Diversity Advisory Committee, which includes student representatives, provides counsel to the provost and vice provost for diversity on diversity policy, procedures, and strategy.

- The Multicultural Programming Council at **Georgia State University** functions as the advisory board to the Multicultural Center and its programs. The Council is comprised of student leaders of multicultural groups, which provide input on events and initiatives developed and supported by the Multicultural Center, as well as workshops, advisement, and funding to student groups.

Cultural and socio-emotional support systems are helpful for all students to thrive on campus and can be important for students who do not comprise a racial or ethnic majority. Institutional leaders in these areas create visible, easily accessible support systems and resources customized to students' needs. Successful institutions also make available financial support to close the need gap for students who are economically disadvantaged. Research shows that, in general, fostering involvement outside of the classroom, such as in extracurricular activities, can play a critical role in diverse students' academic development and persistence — but students of color tend to have lower rates of engagement in campus organizations, potentially due to negative campus climates or because available activities do not reflect their cultural interests.[173] Safe spaces that reflect students' cultural backgrounds can help reduce feelings of isolation or alienation among students of color, and can provide a sense of meaning and validation.[174] Examples of institutions providing such support systems include the following:

- The Diversity Initiatives and Resource Centers at **California State University-Fullerton** offer workshops and trainings designed for students to become self-aware, culturally competent, civically engaged, and critical thinkers. The African American Resource Center, Asian Pacific American Resource Center, Chicana/Chicano Resource Center, LGBTQ Resource Center, and Titan Dreamers Resource Center (for undocumented students) operate under its umbrella and strengthen the integration of diverse populations of students into the university.

- **Brown University** provides multiple socio-emotional resources that can be helpful for students of color and their allies with its Center, which serves as a gathering place for communities of color. Students are encouraged to build meaningful relationships across differences, develop racial and ethnic consciousness, and enact change at Brown and beyond. In collaboration with student organizations and academic departments, the center also offers a variety of forums and events through the Heritage Series. Other resources include alumni of color affinity groups, the newly-launched Social Justice Peer Education Program, Black Student Initiative, Latino Student Initiative, and Asian American Student Initiative.

- **Santa Fe College** in Florida similarly provides multiple resources. The College Achievement Program (operated by the College Achievement Office) provides the opportunity for students from diverse backgrounds to enhance their academic, professional, cultural, personal, and overall college experience, reinforcing behaviors that embrace compassion, civility, justice, social responsibility, and mutual respect. The Global Roundtable for Academic Development (GRAD) offers students an opportunity to broaden their learning outside of the classroom, brainstorm student success strategies, and promote better understanding about how to succeed in college and in the global economy. The Multicultural Student Center supports approximately 2,000 international students, including those who are first generation.

- Beyond the usual array of multicultural student organizations, the **University at Albany** has established the Office of Intercultural Student Engagement, which sponsors activities and events that increase the cultural competency of students, faculty, and staff. The Multicultural Resource Center enhances the university's commitment to social justice and diversity by supporting students of all backgrounds and cultural identities. The center features the Asian Heritage Suite and the African Heritage Suite, affinity group spaces that also provide opportunities for dialogue about the history, culture, obstacles, and achievements of people of African or Asian descent. The C.H.A.R.G.E Peer Educator Program provides the opportunity for students seeking leadership experiences related to diversity and inclusion to receive training to facilitate cultural competency discussions. Peer educators assist students in residence halls to create an environment where faculty, staff, and students understand, embrace, and model respect for diversity.

A Multi-Pronged Commitment to Diversity

The institutions referenced in this section have in most cases managed to increase diversity in student enrollment, graduation rates, and faculty. [†] While it may not be possible to definitively ascribe this success to a particular diversity effort, the broad range of activities in which these institutions engage suggest that a multi-pronged commitment to diversity can have a discernible impact.

- At **California State University-Fullerton**, enrollment of black and Hispanic students increased from 27 percent in 2001 to 41 percent in 2014. During this same time frame, graduation rates for black students increased from 29 to 43 percent, and for Hispanic students from 39 to 49 percent.

- At **Georgia State University**, black and Hispanic enrollment increased from 38 to 50 percent between 2001 and 2014. Graduation rates for black students increased from 25 to 56 percent, and for Hispanic students from 38 to 55 percent. The percentage of non-white, full-time faculty increased from 15 to 24 percent between 2001 and 2011.

- At **University of Illinois at Chicago**, black and Hispanic enrollment increased from 26 to 34 percent between 2001 and 2014. Graduation rates for black students increased from 27 to 43 percent, and for Hispanic students from 38 to 56 percent. Non-white, full-time faculty now comprise 30 percent of the faculty, a noticeably higher percentage than at most universities.

[†] Graduation rates refer to graduation rates within 150 percent of normal time for first-time, full-time students. Enrollment refers to undergraduate certificate/degree-seeking students. Faculty refers to full-time instructional staff (the percentage of non-white faculty is calculated with the race unknown and nonresident alien categories included in the denominator, but not the numerator). SOURCES: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Human Resources Survey," "Fall Enrollment Survey," "Graduation Rate Survey." Available at http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/.

- At **Southern Methodist University**, the graduation rate for Hispanic students has increased from 64 to 83 percent between 2001 and 2014. The percentage of non-white, full-time faculty increased from 13 to 19 percent between 2001 and 2011.

- At the **University at Albany**, black and Hispanic students now graduate at similar rates as white students.

V. Conclusion

Diversity in higher education is critically important to ensuring student success. During the last seven years, the Obama Administration has worked to improve access to higher education, as well as to help more students complete their college educations and obtain quality degrees. Since the start of the Administration, the Department of Education has focused on making college more affordable and accessible to more students, particularly low-income students and students of color, through reforms such as increases to the size of Pell Grant awards; simplification of federal financial aid; and greater use of evidence-based practices in Department of Education grant competitions to promote student success. Additionally, a stronger focus on the importance of college completion in improving students' odds for success and reducing negative outcomes like defaults on student loans has helped to shift the national dialogue on higher education.

The Obama Administration celebrates the progress that has been made and the strides that have been taken to reach important milestones — more students of color are going to college than seven years ago; the college-going numbers of black and Hispanic college students have risen by more than 1 million since 2008; and the share of Hispanic young adults with a bachelor's degree has increased by 4 percentage points throughout the same time period. Yet, as outlined in this report, there are many challenges that remain and demand our attention. The path forward will require a thoughtful discourse and a range of strategies, including those outlined here. Policy makers and institutions of higher education play central, vital roles in supporting these strategies and expanding access to an affordable, high-quality education, including for low-income students and students of color.

- **Enhancing Public Information and Transparency***:* Increasing underrepresentation of students of color in higher education requires clear and actionable information. With access to more accurate, timely, and relevant data, the Department of Education can identify inequities and highlight areas for improvement. Currently, however, the absence of data on certain key items — like information on race associated with family income — means that policy makers and researchers cannot evaluate the outcomes of students by institution; and the absence of information on certain student characteristics like disability status and sexual orientation makes it challenging to identify diversity and achievement gaps between those students and their peers. Moreover, even where there are useful data on achievement gaps, more research is needed to improve opportunity for students of color. For instance, research on admissions decisions and financial aid offers and other key areas of the higher education pipeline could provide actionable information to help more students persist.

- **Improving Application and Admissions Practices:** Student body diversity and graduation rates for low-income students and students of color may increase as institutions evaluate and improve their admission and application practices to ensure that access and educational opportunity are available to the students who need it most. Institutions and their partners in the field can help students navigate the sometimes overly complex admissions processes, including

by offering opportunities for far more intensive counseling. Institutional policies for admissions could redefine talent by taking into consideration how the institution's goals align with diversity.

- **Ensuring College Is Affordable:** One of the most significant obstacles to higher education for many low-income students and students of color is the high — and growing — cost of attending college. Many institutions are working to replace achievement-based aid with need-based aid programs that better target available dollars to the students who need them most. Still others are guaranteeing aid availability across an educational program, so that a student's aid doesn't disappear between sophomore and senior years, leaving them in the lurch. While policy makers have worked to reinvest in critical financial aid programs in recent years, their efforts have not kept pace with the rising costs of college. Greater public investments in programs like the Pell Grant program, or President Obama's proposed America's College Promise program (which makes two years of community college or two years at a Historically Black College or University (HBCU) or minority-serving institution (MSI) tuition-free for students) would help to ensure that a higher education remains accessible to students of color and low-income students. Moreover, more and better data — such as the information provided through the Department of Education's College Scorecard — can help students to expand their options and understand which schools will give them the biggest bang for their buck.

- **Providing Strong Supports to Help Students Succeed:** Institutions and their partners can work to ensure students — including students of color and low-income students — have the academic and social supports they need to thrive in college. Advising programs, mentoring opportunities, and comprehensive social support structures can help ensure that low-income students and students of color feel welcome and are ready and able to succeed academically, socially, and emotionally. The Administration has worked to encourage more institutions to contribute to the growing body of evidence about the best ways to serve students — particularly low-income students and students of color — and to bring those evidence-based practices onto their campuses. Programs like First in the World and the Department of Education's proposed College Opportunity and Graduation Bonus program and HBCU and MSI Innovation for Completion Fund help to seed such practices across the country, and to bring them to scale where they prove worthy of greater investment.

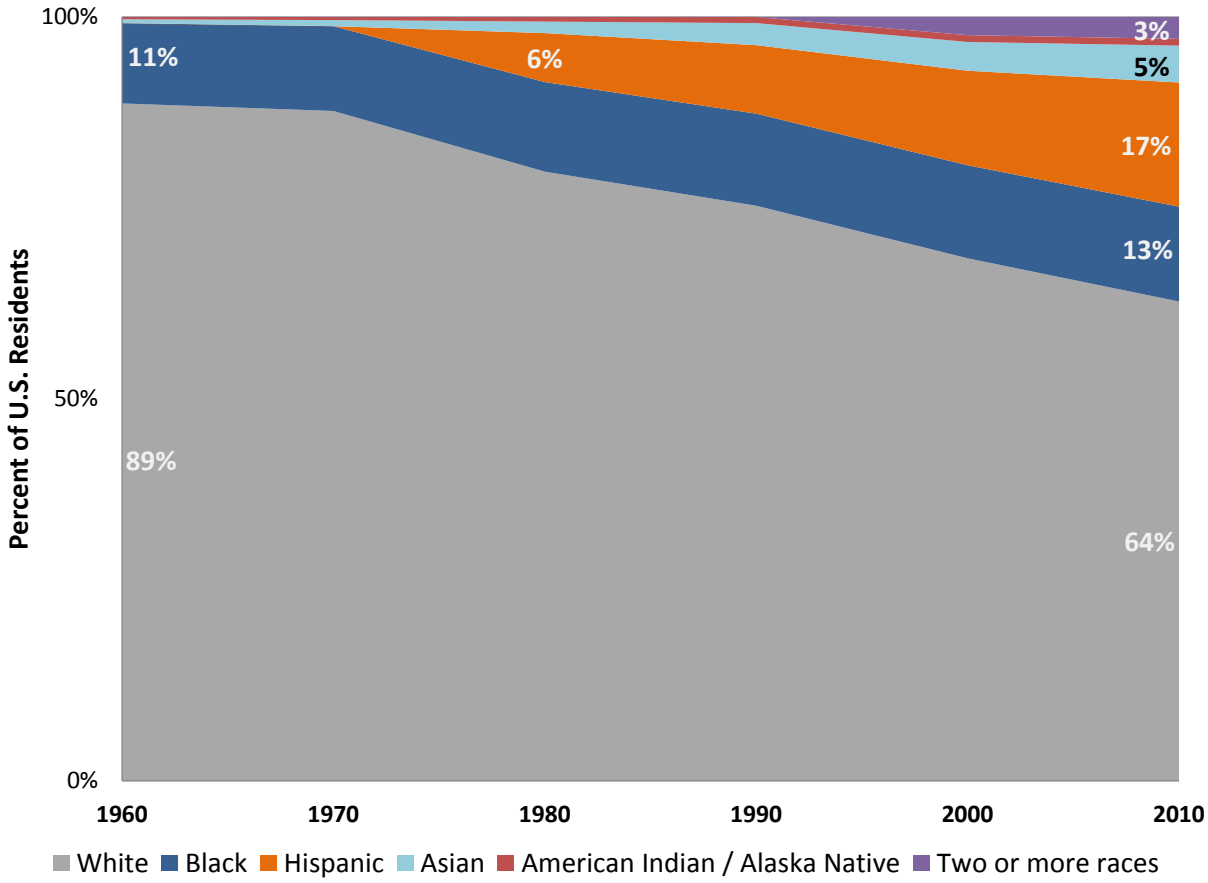
- **Ensuring Safe and Inclusive Campuses:** Too often, high school students of color, low-income students, and first-generation students feel that college is a place they do not belong. For students who decide to enroll in college, it is often an isolating experience where they do not feel accepted, welcomed, or well-treated. Colleges and universities can work to make their campuses inclusive, safe, and hospitable environments, where all students feel respected, to help ensure that everyone is able to pursue their educational opportunities to their fullest potential. For instance, colleges may work with other non-profit organizations to reach out to students of color and others; use campus climate surveys and data on student outcomes for student subgroups to identify areas for improvement; and make the most of resources from the federal government to help improve access and the outcomes for students of all backgrounds.

The Obama Administration recognizes both the tremendous value of increased diversity in higher education, and the role of higher education as a keystone to health, happiness, and economic mobility for all students, including low-income students and students of color. Diverse and inclusive environments at colleges and universities also strengthen American democracy by facilitating the exchange of perspectives and values among students from various ethnic, cultural, and economic backgrounds. In highlighting strategies to support diversity and success for students of all backgrounds, the Administration suggests a path forward to strengthen the postsecondary education system for all.

Appendix A: Supplemental Charts

Opportunity Gaps in Postsecondary Education

Exhibit A.1: Percentage of U.S. population, by race and ethnicity: Decades from 1960 to 2010



NOTE: The 1960 and 1970 Census did not collect data on Hispanics as a separate race category. Separate figures on number of Hispanic residents were not collected before 1974. American Indian/Alaska Native U.S. residents represented less than 1 percent from 1960 to 2010 and therefore the percentages are not listed on the chart. Similarly, U.S. residents who were Asian or Two or more races represented less than 1 percent in 1960 and therefore the percentages are not listed on the left side of the chart. The Asian category includes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.
SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Historical Census Statistics on Population Totals by Race, 1790 to 1990, and by Hispanic Origin, 1970 to 1990, for Large Cities and Other Urban Places in the United States, available at https://www.census.gov/population/www/documentation/twps0076/twps0076.pdf;
U.S. Census Bureau, Overview of Race and Hispanic Origin, Census 2000 brief available at http://www.census.gov/prod/2001pubs/c2kbr01-1.pdf.
U.S. Census Bureau, Overview of Race and Hispanic Origin: 2010, Census 2010 brief available at http://www.census.gov/prod/cen2010/briefs/c2010br-02.pdf.

Exhibit A.2: Percentage of U.S. population, by age group and race and ethnicity: 2014

Age group	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	American Indian/Alaska Native	Two or more races
Under 18 years old	52%	14%	24%	5%	0.9%	4%
19 to 24 years old	55%	15%	21%	5%	0.9%	3%
25 to 44 years old	58%	13%	20%	7%	0.7%	2%
45 to 64 years old	69%	12%	12%	5%	0.7%	1%
65 years old	78%	9%	8%	4%	0.5%	1%

NOTE: The Asian category includes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, Population Division, Annual Estimates of the Resident Population by Sex, Age, Race, and Hispanic Origin for the United States and States: April 1, 2010 to July 1, 2014.
Available at https://www.census.gov/popest/data/national/asrh/2015/index.html.

Exhibit A.3: Percentage of U.S. residents 25 years and older attaining a high school diploma, by race and ethnicity, and gaps between blacks and whites and Hispanics and whites 25 years and older attaining a high school diploma: Decades from 1964 to 2014

Year	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Black-white gap	Hispanic-white gap
1964	50%	26%	n/a	n/a	25 points	n/a
1974	63%	41%	37%	n/a	23 points	27 points
1984	75%	59%	47%	n/a	17 points	28 points
1994	85%	73%	53%	n/a	12 points	32 points
2004	90%	81%	58%	87%	9 points	32 points
2014	93%	86%	62%	90%	7 points	27 points

NOTE: The data include GED and high school-equivalent degrees. Due to limitations in Census methodology, attainment among Asians is not available before 2002, and attainment among Hispanics is not available before 1974.The Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.
SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, March Current Population Survey, 1947 and 1952 to 2002; U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Social and Economic Supplement to the Current Population Survey, 2003 to 2015 (noninstitutionalized population, excluding members of the Armed Forces living in barracks); U.S. Census Bureau, Census of Population, 1940 and 1950.
Based on data available at http://www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/education/data/cps/historical/index.html.

Exhibit A.4: Percentage of U.S. residents from 25–29 years old attaining a high school diploma, by race and ethnicity, and gaps between blacks and whites and Hispanics and whites from 25–29 years old attaining a high school diploma: Decades from 1964 to 2014

Year	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Black-white gap	Hispanic-white gap
1964	72%	49%	n/a	n/a	27 points	n/a
1974	83%	68%	53%	n/a	15 points	31 points
1984	87%	79%	59%	n/a	8 points	28 points
1994	91%	84%	60%	n/a	7 points	31 points
2004	93%	88%	62%	96%	5 points	31 points
2014	96%	90%	75%	97%	6 points	21 points

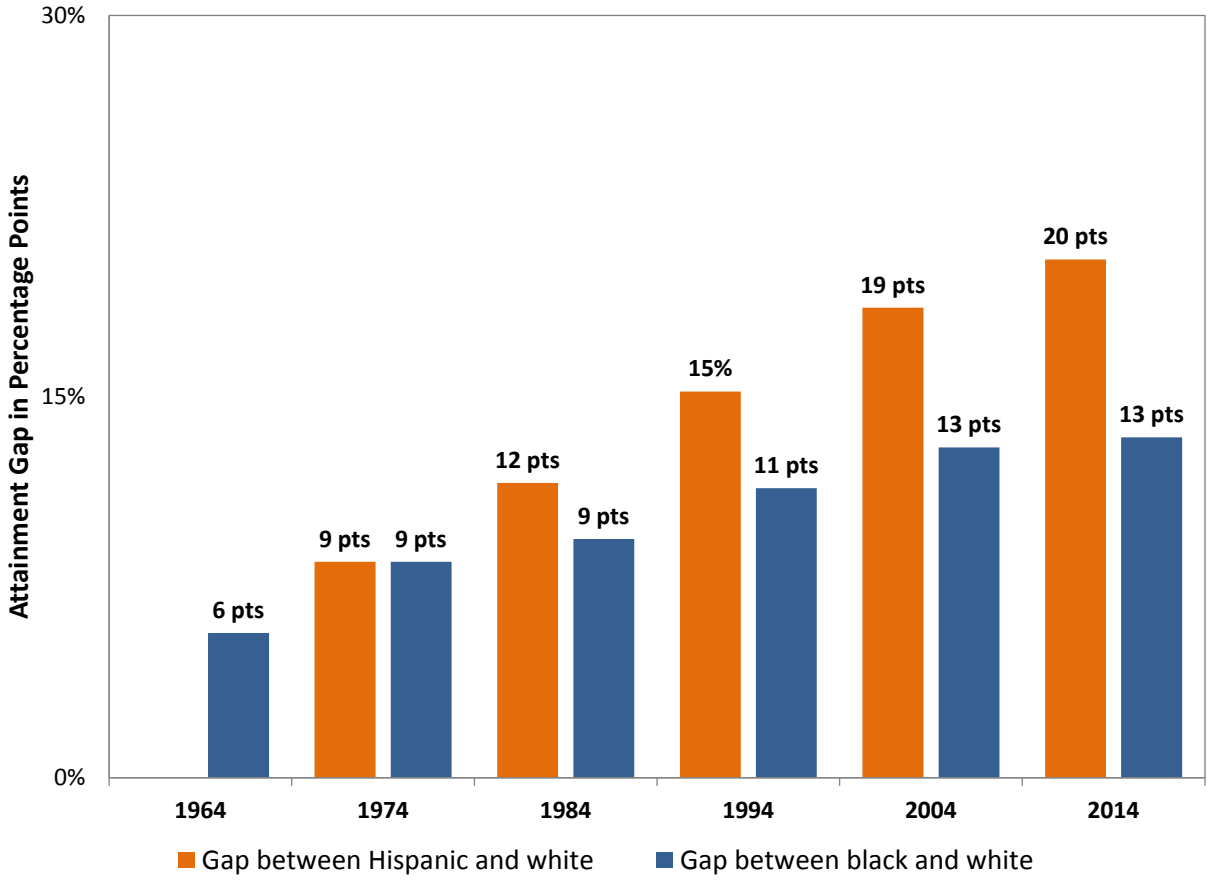
NOTE: The data include GED and high school-equivalent degrees. Due to limitations in Census methodology, attainment among Asians is not available before 2002 and attainment among Hispanics is not available before 1974. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.
SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, March Current Population Survey, 1947 and 1952 to 2002; U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Social and Economic Supplement to the Current Population Survey, 2003 to 2015 (noninstitutionalized population, excluding members of the Armed Forces living in barracks); U.S. Census Bureau, Census of Population, 1940 and 1950.
Based on data available at http://www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/education/data/cps/historical/index.html.

Exhibit A.5: Percentage of U.S. residents 25–29 years old attaining a bachelor's degree, by race and ethnicity, and gaps between blacks and whites and Hispanics and whites from 25–29 years old attaining a bachelor's degree: Decades from 1964 to 2014

Year	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian	Black-white gap	Hispanic-white gap
1964	14%	6%	n/a	n/a	8 points	n/a
1974	22%	8%	6%	n/a	14 points	16 points
1984	23%	12%	11%	n/a	12 points	13 points
1994	27%	14%	8%	n/a	13 points	19 points
2004	35%	17%	11%	61%	18 points	24 points
2014	41%	22%	15%	62%	19 points	26 points

NOTE: Due to limitations in Census methodology, attainment among Asians is not available before 2002 and attainment among Hispanics is not available before 1974. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.
SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, March Current Population Survey, 1947 and 1952 to 2002; U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Social and Economic Supplement to the Current Population Survey, 2003 to 2015 (noninstitutionalized population, excluding members of the Armed Forces living in barracks). U.S. Census Bureau, Census of Population, 1940 and 1950.
Based on data available at http://www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/education/data/cps/historical/index.html.

Exhibit A.6: Percentage point attainment gaps between blacks and whites and Hispanics and whites 25 years and older earning a bachelor's degree: Decades from 1964 to 2014



NOTE: Due to limitations in Census methodology, attainment among Asians is not available before 2002 and attainment among Hispanics is not available before 1974. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.
SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau, March Current Population Survey, 1947 and 1952 to 2002; U.S. Census Bureau, Annual Social and Economic Supplement to the Current Population Survey, 2003 to 2015 (noninstitutionalized population, excluding members of the Armed Forces living in barracks); U.S. Census Bureau, Census of Population, 1940 and 1950.
Based on data available at http://www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/education/data/cps/historical/index.html.

Exhibit A.7: Family socioeconomic status in quintiles of U.S. high school student freshmen, by race and ethnicity: 2009–10

Race/ethnicity	First quintile (lowest)	Second quintile	Third quintile	Fourth quintile	Fifth quintile (highest)
Hispanic	43%	23%	15%	12%	7%
Black	26%	30%	19%	15%	10%
White	10%	17%	22%	24%	28%
Asian	14%	9%	19%	22%	35%

NOTE: The data are based on students in the 2009 High School Longitudinal Study Freshman Cohort. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code ggbgbb9.

Exhibit A.8: Parental education of U.S. high school student freshmen, by race and ethnicity: 2009–10

Race/ethnicity	Less than high school	High school	Associate degree	Bachelor's degree	Graduate degree
Hispanic	27%	40%	14%	12%	7%
Black	7%	49%	20%	14%	10%
White	2%	35%	16%	27%	20%
Asian	5%	23%	9%	34%	29%

NOTE: The data are based on students in the 2009 High School Longitudinal Study Freshman Cohort. High school includes completion of diploma, GED, and high school-equivalent degrees. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve codeggbgb57.

The Higher Education Pipeline

Exhibit A.9: Postsecondary enrollment percentages at four-year and less than four-year institutions among 2013 U.S. high school graduates, and percentages of graduates not enrolled in postsecondary education, by family socioeconomic status in quintiles: Fall 2013

Socioeconomic status quintile	Enrolled at four-year institutions	Enrolled at less than four-year institutions	Not enrolled
First quintile (lowest)	31%	41%	29%
Second quintile	36%	37%	27%
Third quintile	45%	33%	22%
Fourth quintile	53%	31%	16%
Fifth quintile (highest)	76%	18%	6%

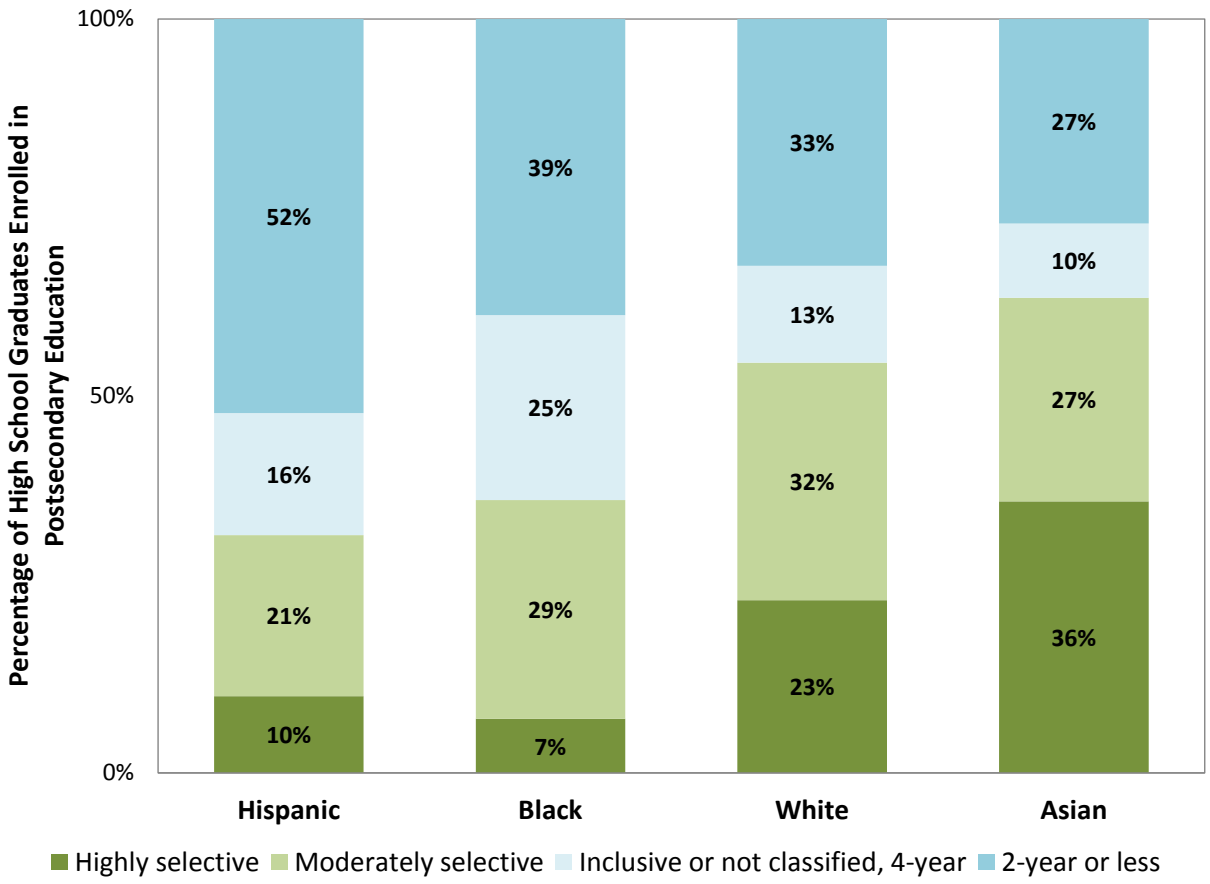
NOTE: The data are based on high school graduates from the 2009 High School Longitudinal Study Freshman Cohort who enrolled in degree-granting postsecondary institutions. High school graduate includes completion of diploma, GED, and high school-equivalent degrees. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bmgbge1b.

Exhibit A.10: Postsecondary enrollment percentages at four-year and less than four-year institutions among 2013 U.S. high school graduates, and percentages of graduates not enrolled in postsecondary education, by parental educational attainment: Fall 2013

Parental educational attainment	Enrolled at four-year institutions	Enrolled at less than four-year institutions	Not enrolled
Parent(s) did *not* attain bachelor's degree	38%	37%	25%
Parent(s) attained bachelor's degree or higher	68%	22%	10%

NOTE: The data are based on high school graduates from the 2009 High School Longitudinal Study Freshman Cohort who enrolled in degree-granting postsecondary institutions. High school graduate includes completion of diploma, GED, and high school-equivalent degrees.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bmgbge1b.

Exhibit A.11: Percentage of 2013 U.S. high school graduates enrolled in postsecondary education, by race and ethnicity and selectivity of institution: Fall 2013



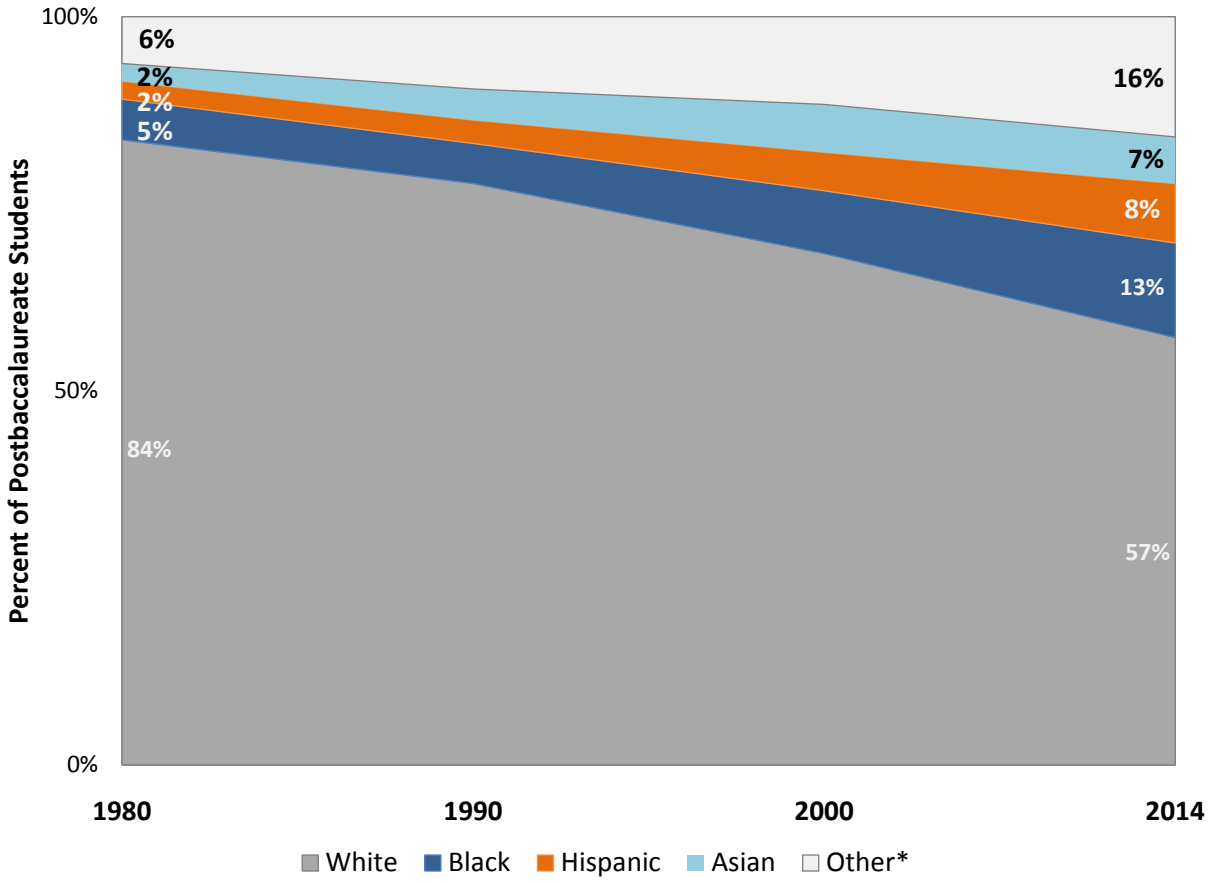
NOTE: The data are based on high school graduates from the 2009 High School Longitudinal Study Freshman Cohort enrolled in degree-granting postsecondary institutions. High school graduate includes completion of diploma, GED, and high school-equivalent degrees. IPEDS selectivity code based on 2010 Carnegie classifications. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSLS:09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bmgbgekfa.

Exhibit A.12: Percentage of expected family contribution for U.S. undergraduate students, by race and ethnicity and level of contribution: Fall 2012

Race/ethnicity	Zero	$1 - 5,000	$5,001 - 10,000	$10,001 – 20,000	Greater than $20,000
Hispanic	47%	23%	14%	9%	9%
Black	60%	18%	9%	8%	8%
White	29%	19%	18%	18%	18%
Asian	37%	29%	21%	13%	13%

NOTE: The data are based on individuals participating in the 2012 Undergraduate National Postsecondary Student Aid Study. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2011-12 National Postsecondary Student Aid Study (NPSAS:12). For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bmbgec0.

Exhibit A.13: Percentage of U.S. postbaccalaureate students, by race and ethnicity: Selected years from 1980 to 2014



NOTE: The data are based on fall enrollment at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant associate degrees or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. The Asian category includes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students. *The other category includes American Indian/Alaska Native, two or more races, and nonresident alien students. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.*

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS), "Fall Enrollment in Colleges and Universities" surveys 1980; Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Fall Enrollment Survey;" and IPEDS Spring 2001 through Spring 2015, Fall Enrollment component.

Available at https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d15/tables/dt15_306.10.asp.

Exhibit A.14: Percentage of U.S. undergraduate students, by race and ethnicity, level of institution, and control of institution: 2014–15

Race/ethnicity	Four-year	Two-year	Public	Private, non-profit	For-profit
Hispanic	47%	23%	14%	9%	9%
Black	60%	18%	9%	8%	8%
White	29%	19%	18%	18%	18%
Asian	37%	29%	21%	13%	13%

NOTE: The data are based on full-time fall enrollment at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant associate degrees or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. The Asian category includes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.*
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Spring 2015, Fall Enrollment component. Available at https://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d15/tables/dt15_306.50.asp.

Exhibit A.15: Age of entering U.S. undergraduates at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by race and ethnicity: Fall 2011

Race/ethnicity	19 years old or younger	20–24 years old	25 years old or older
Hispanic	77%	13%	11%
Black	65%	16%	19%
White	75%	11%	14%
Asian	84%	12%	3%

NOTE: The data are based on fall enrollment at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant an associate degree or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. Interpret Asian data point on percent 25 years old or older with caution. Estimate is unstable because the standard error represents more than 50 percent of the estimate. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.*
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2011–12 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study, First Follow-up (BPS:12/14).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code hgbc07.

Exhibit A.16: Percentage graduation rate within six years for first-time, full-time U.S. students seeking a bachelor's degree, by race and ethnicity, and the graduation rate gaps between black and white students and Hispanic and white students, by Carnegie selectivity of the postsecondary institution: 2013–14

Carnegie selectivity	Hispanic	Black	White	Asian	Black-white gap	Hispanic-white gap
Inclusive/open admission	39%	31%	45%	49%	15 points	7 points
Selective	50%	43%	57%	59%	14 points	7 points
More selective	76%	70%	80%	85%	10 points	3 points

NOTE: The data are based on the six year graduation rate for 2007–08 first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking cohort at degree-granting postsecondary institutions. Includes institutions participating in Title IV *financial aid programs. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.*
SOURCE: Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Graduation Rate Survey," 2007–08 cohort provisional data.

Exhibit A.17: Number of first-time, full-time U.S. students seeking a bachelor's degree and the percentage of them graduating within six years, by race and ethnicity, sex, institution control, and Carnegie selectivity of institution: From 2007–08 through 2013–14

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, all races and ethnicities				***1,412,793***	***100.00%***	***60%***
Total, American Indian or Alaska Native				***10,210***	***0.72%***	***41%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	202	0.01%	21%
			More Selective	0	0.00%	N/A
			Selective	12	0.00%	33%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	299	0.02%	38%
			More Selective	539	0.04%	72%
			Selective	533	0.04%	44%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	993	0.07%	27%
			More Selective	900	0.06%	67%
			Selective	2,376	0.17%	38%
	Men	For-profit	N/A	4	0.00%	25%
			Inclusive/Open admission	128	0.01%	17%
			More Selective	0	0.00%	N/A
			Selective	37	0.00%	27%
		Private, non-profit	N/A	244	0.02%	59%
			Inclusive/Open admission	455	0.03%	42%
			More Selective	73	0.01%	55%
			Selective	209	0.01%	35%
		Public	N/A	1,656	0.12%	47%
			Inclusive/Open admission	1,260	0.09%	28%
			More Selective	113	0.01%	35%
			Selective	177	0.01%	27%

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, Asian				***90,680***	***6.42%***	***71%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	569	0.04%	46%
			More Selective	1	0.00%	0%
			Selective	9	0.00%	33%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	1,688	0.12%	62%
			More Selective	9,139	0.65%	88%
			Selective	3,225	0.23%	64%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	3,168	0.22%	49%
			More Selective	15,904	1.13%	86%
			Selective	13,984	0.99%	63%
	Men	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	622	0.04%	46%
			More Selective	16	0.00%	63%
			Selective	3	0.00%	33%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	1,135	0.08%	53%
			More Selective	7,594	0.54%	85%
			Selective	2,284	0.16%	57%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	2,895	0.20%	41%
			More Selective	15,064	1.07%	81%
			Selective	13,380	0.95%	55%

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, Black or African American				***161,646***	***11.44%***	***41%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	5,470	0.39%	19%
			More Selective	3	0.00%	0%
			Selective	395	0.03%	42%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	11,980	0.85%	38%
			More Selective	5,870	0.42%	75%
			Selective	9,474	0.67%	50%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	27,055	1.92%	36%
			More Selective	8,971	0.63%	72%
			Selective	26,213	1.86%	46%
	Men	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	3,542	0.25%	19%
			More Selective	12	0.00%	33%
			Selective	155	0.01%	37%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	9,177	0.65%	27%
			More Selective	4,265	0.30%	66%
			Selective	7,264	0.51%	39%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	18,954	1.34%	26%
			More Selective	6,163	0.44%	63%
			Selective	16,683	1.18%	36%

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, Hispanic or Latino/a				***122,489***	***8.67%***	***54%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	3,418	0.24%	34%
			More Selective	0	0.00%	N/A
			Selective	171	0.01%	61%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	3,791	0.27%	48%
			More Selective	7,563	0.54%	82%
			Selective	7,177	0.51%	56%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	13,718	0.97%	43%
			More Selective	10,886	0.77%	78%
			Selective	23,089	1.63%	54%
	Men	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	3,127	0.22%	32%
			More Selective	19	0.00%	37%
			Selective	65	0.00%	48%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	2,675	0.19%	37%
			More Selective	5,742	0.41%	77%
			Selective	4,764	0.34%	47%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	9,948	0.70%	33%
			More Selective	8,713	0.62%	70%
			Selective	17,623	1.25%	44%

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander				***2,501***	***0.18%***	***50%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	160	0.01%	24%
			More Selective	0	0.00%	N/A
			Selective	2	0.00%	100%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	111	0.01%	45%
			More Selective	134	0.01%	80%
			Selective	138	0.01%	57%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	300	0.02%	33%
			More Selective	143	0.01%	84%
			Selective	500	0.04%	51%
	Men	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	67	0.00%	28%
			More Selective	1	0.00%	100%
			Selective	0	0.00%	N/A
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	90	0.01%	60%
			More Selective	86	0.01%	79%
			Selective	96	0.01%	51%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	166	0.01%	28%
			More Selective	142	0.01%	77%
			Selective	365	0.03%	45%

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, Nonresident				***36,199***	***2.56%***	***66%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	417	0.03%	47%
			More Selective	5	0.00%	100%
			Selective	38	0.00%	74%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	1,354	0.10%	61%
			More Selective	4,717	0.33%	86%
			Selective	2,005	0.14%	65%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	1,343	0.10%	43%
			More Selective	3,692	0.26%	80%
			Selective	3,242	0.23%	58%
	Men	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	354	0.03%	32%
			More Selective	12	0.00%	58%
			Selective	23	0.00%	57%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	1,723	0.12%	57%
			More Selective	4,870	0.34%	79%
			Selective	2,233	0.16%	57%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	1,531	0.11%	38%
			More Selective	4,730	0.33%	70%
			Selective	3,910	0.28%	50%

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, Two Or More Races				***11,485***	***0.81%***	***65%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	102	0.01%	44%
			More Selective	4	0.00%	75%
			Selective	2	0.00%	50%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	554	0.04%	50%
			More Selective	1,880	0.13%	86%
			Selective	980	0.07%	65%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	445	0.03%	37%
			More Selective	893	0.06%	85%
			Selective	1,915	0.14%	58%
	Men	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	138	0.01%	33%
			More Selective	10	0.00%	40%
			Selective	3	0.00%	0%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	301	0.02%	46%
			More Selective	1,187	0.08%	83%
			Selective	568	0.04%	64%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	298	0.02%	31%
			More Selective	789	0.06%	78%
			Selective	1,416	0.10%	48%

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, Unknown				***78,741***	***5.57%***	***52%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	6,370	0.45%	16%
			More Selective	6	0.00%	67%
			Selective	108	0.01%	28%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	3,655	0.26%	48%
			More Selective	7,682	0.54%	79%
			Selective	6,038	0.43%	52%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	3,224	0.23%	39%
			More Selective	5,780	0.41%	81%
			Selective	9,754	0.69%	55%
	Men	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	5,018	0.36%	16%
			More Selective	39	0.00%	36%
			Selective	84	0.01%	42%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	2,827	0.20%	37%
			More Selective	6,376	0.45%	78%
			Selective	4,999	0.35%	43%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	2,582	0.18%	33%
			More Selective	5,625	0.40%	74%
			Selective	8,574	0.61%	46%

Race/ethnicity	Sex	Institution Control	Carnegie Selectivity	# First-Time, Full-Time Bachelor's Students	Percentage of First-Time, Full-time Bachelor's Cohort	Graduation rate
Total, White				***908,850***	***64.33%***	***63%***
	Women	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	7,093	0.50%	35%
			More Selective	18	0.00%	17%
			Selective	593	0.04%	31%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	23,862	1.69%	55%
			More Selective	68,993	4.88%	83%
			Selective	72,479	5.13%	65%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	36,203	2.56%	46%
			More Selective	104,310	7.38%	81%
			Selective	175,408	12.42%	59%
	Men	For-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	7,445	0.53%	40%
			More Selective	195	0.01%	40%
			Selective	309	0.02%	34%
		Private, non-profit	Inclusive/Open admission	20,800	1.47%	47%
			More Selective	58,233	4.12%	80%
			Selective	52,898	3.74%	57%
		Public	Inclusive/Open admission	31,050	2.20%	39%
			More Selective	98,877	7.00%	76%
			Selective	150,084	10.62%	51%

NOTE: The data are based on the six-year graduation rate for 2007-08 first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking cohort. Aggregate graduation rates for each race and ethnicity category are based on first-look report and include several institutions not participating in Title IV *aid programs. Thus, disaggregated graduation rates by sex, institution control, and Carnegie Selectivity may not sum to total graduation rates by race and ethnicity.*
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics.
Based on data available at http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/.

Exhibit A.18: Percentage of U.S. students attaining degrees within four years of postsecondary enrollment, by race and ethnicity and type of degree: From 2003–04 through 2006–07

Race/ethnicity	Attained bachelor's degree	Attained associate degree	Attained certificate	No degree, still enrolled	No degree, not enrolled, or left without return
Hispanic	5%	7%	15%	29%	44%
Black	5%	5%	11%	35%	44%
White	18%	9%	7%	33%	34%
Asian	24%	8%	4%	44%	20%

NOTE: The data are based on students participating in the 2003–04 beginning postsecondary study cohort. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2003–04 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study, Second Follow-up (BPS:04/09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code hgbgce0.

Exhibit A.19: Percentage of U.S. students attaining degrees within six years of postsecondary enrollment, by type of degree, and income quartile of parents: From 2003–04 through 2008–09

Income Quartile of Parents	Attained bachelor's degree	Attained associate degree	Attained certificate	No degree, still enrolled	No degree, not enrolled, or left without return
Low	20%	8%	13%	16%	43%
Low middle	26%	11%	11%	17%	36%
High middle	33%	9%	9%	15%	34%
High	44%	9%	6%	12%	29%

NOTE: The data are based on students participating in the 2003–04 beginning postsecondary study cohort.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2003–04 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study, Second Follow-up (BPS:04/09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code hgbgeb2.

Exhibit A.20: Percentage of U.S. students attaining degrees within six years of postsecondary enrollment, by degree type and parental education: From 2003–04 through 2008–09

Parental educational attainment	Attained bachelor's degree	Attained associate degree	Attained certificate	No degree, still enrolled	No degree, not enrolled or left without return
Parent(s) did *not* attain bachelor's degree	20%	11%	12%	15%	41%
Parent(s) attained bachelor's degree or higher	49%	7%	4%	14%	26%

NOTE: The data are based on students participating in the 2003–04 beginning postsecondary study cohort. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2003–04 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study, Second Follow-up (BPS:04/09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code hgbgeb2.

Exhibit A.21: Number of degrees awarded, by race and ethnicity and degree type: 2013–14

Degree type	Associate	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctor's
Hispanic	167,120	202,412	55,965	10,665
Black	134,483	191,218	88,515	12,615
White	601,383	1,218,792	444,700	110,156
Asian	50,333	131,680	44,613	19,118

NOTE: The data are based on degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant associate degrees or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.*
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions Survey"; and IPEDS Fall 2000 through Fall 2014, Completions component. Available at http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/.

Exhibit A.22: Percentage of degrees awarded, by race and ethnicity and degree type: 2013–14

Race/Ethnicity	Associate	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctor's
Hispanic	38%	46%	13%	3%
Black	31%	45%	21%	3%
White	25%	51%	19%	5%
Asian	20%	54%	18%	8%

NOTE: The data are based on degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant an associate degree or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.*
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions Survey"; and IPEDS Fall 2000 through Fall 2014, Completions component. Available at http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/

Exhibit A.23: Percentage graduation rates for first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking U.S. students six years after initial enrollment, by categories of small populations of students of color and sex, and graduation rate gaps between each small population category and whites and Asians: 2013–14

Race/Ethnicity	Total	Men	Women	Gap relative to whites	Gap relative to Asians
American Indian/Alaska Native	41%	43%	39%	22 points	30 points
Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander	50%	50%	50%	13 points	21 points
Two or more races	65%	68%	62%	None	6 points

NOTE: The data are based on the six year graduation rate for 2007–08 first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking cohort. Transfer-out students are counted as not graduating. Includes institutions that participate in Title IV *financial programs and four institutions not participating in* Title IV *programs. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander students.*
SOURCE: Ginder, S.A., Kelly-Reid, J.E., and Mann, F.B. (2015). Graduation Rates for Selected Cohorts, 2006–11; Student Financial Aid, Academic Year 2013–14; and Admissions in Postsecondary Institutions, Fall 2014: First Look (Provisional Data) (NCES 2015-181). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. See table 1 at http://nces.ed.gov/pubs2015/2015181.pdf.

Exhibit A.24: Percentage graduation rates for first-time, full-time, bachelor's degree-seeking U.S. students six years after initial postsecondary enrollment, by race and ethnicity and parental education: From 2003–04 through 2008–09

Parental educational attainment	Hispanic	Black	White	Asian
Parent(s) did *not* attain bachelor's degree	14%	12%	23%	33%
Parent(s) attained bachelor's degree or higher	29%	32%	54%	61%

NOTE: The data are based on students participating in the 2003–04 beginning postsecondary study cohort. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2003–04 Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study, Second Follow-up (BPS:04/09).For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bhhbgdf20.

Exhibit A.25: Total annual salary of bachelor's degree recipients four years after graduation, by race and ethnicity and parental education: 2012

Parental educational attainment	Hispanic	Black	White	Asian
Parent(s) did *not* attain bachelor's degree	$34,946	$32,715	$39,248	$37,365
Parent(s) attained bachelor's degree or higher	$30,411	$32,149	$39,788	$39,424

NOTE: The data are based on students participating in the 2007–08 Baccalaureate and Beyond study. Family income percentiles are grouped by quartiles among both independent and dependent students at time of graduation. Figures also exclude foreign students. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2008/12 Baccalaureate and Beyond Longitudinal Study (B&B:08/12). For PowerStats users wishing to recreate the estimates above in PowerStats (https://nces.ed.gov/datalab), use the QuickRetrieve code bhhbgef5.

Appendix B: Academic Level of Degrees Conferred to Students of Color

In 2013–14, nearly two out of three associate and bachelor's degrees were awarded to white students.

Exhibit B.1 shows that, due to disparities at each step of the higher education pipeline, the racial and ethnic composition of students completing undergraduate and graduate degrees in 2013–14 was still predominantly white; a similar disparity did not exist for students completing associate degrees, which are a common pathway for students of color. The percentage of associate degrees awarded by race and ethnicity was 60 percent white, 17 percent Hispanic, 13 percent black, 5 percent Asian, and 5 percent some other race and ethnicity category.[175] Most bachelor's degrees were conferred to white students: two-thirds of degrees were awarded to white students, 11 percent to Hispanic students, 10 percent to black students, 7 percent to Asian students, and 7 percent to students of another race and ethnicity category. Yet, during this time, only 55 percent of undergraduates were white. Even smaller percentages of the total master's and doctor's degrees were conferred to Hispanic and black students compared with undergraduate degrees.

In spite of the disparities in postsecondary completion by race and ethnicity, it is important to note that the diversity of college graduates has increased substantially over the last four decades.[176] There are also nuances in the composition of degree completions by the level of award.

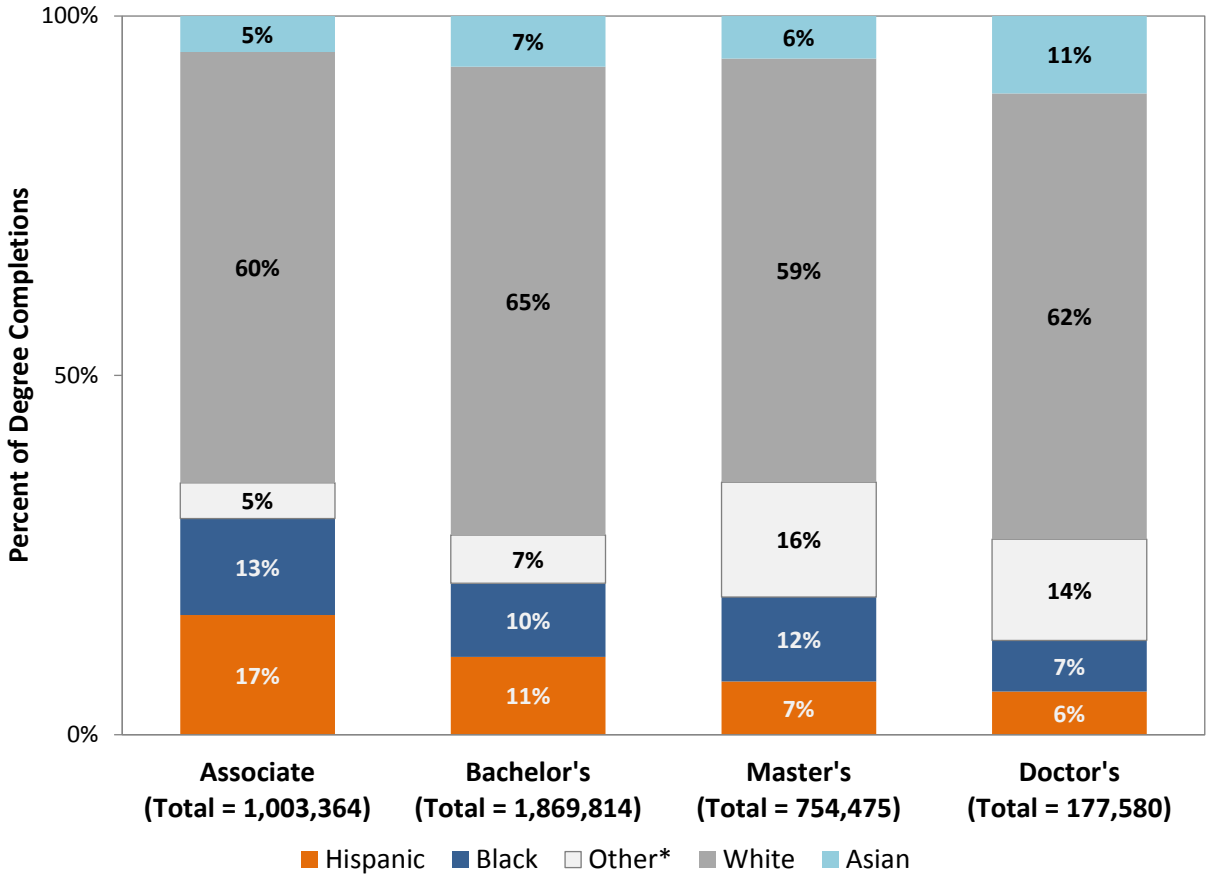
Associate degrees account for almost two out of five degrees conferred to Hispanic students.

The number (exhibit A.21) and percentage of degrees (exhibit A.22) conferred to Hispanic students by degree level suggests both four-year and two-year programs serve as common pathways for Hispanic undergraduate students. In 2013–14, 38 percent of degrees awarded to Hispanic students were associate degrees and 46 percent were bachelor's degrees. About one in six were degrees conferred at the master's or doctor's level.

Bachelor's degrees are more commonly awarded to black, white, and Asian graduates than to Hispanic graduates.

In contrast, bachelor's degree completions account for a higher share of total completions among black students than Hispanic students. In 2013–14, 31 percent of degrees awarded to black students were associate degrees, compared with 45 percent awarded as bachelor's degrees. Graduate degrees were also somewhat more common among black students, accounting for nearly one-quarter of degree completions in 2013–14. Among white and Asian graduates, bachelor's degrees accounted for an even higher share of total degree completion, while graduate degrees accounted for about one-quarter of all completions.

Exhibit B.1: Percentage of degree completions, by race and ethnicity and degree type, and total number of degree completions, by degree type: 2013–14



NOTE: The data are based on degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant associate degrees or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Reported racial and ethnic distributions of students by level of degree, field of degree, and sex were used to estimate race and ethnicity for students whose race and ethnicity was not reported. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. Some data have been revised from previously published figures. The Asian category includes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islanders. *The Other category includes American Indian/Alaska Native, two or more races, and nonresident alien students.*

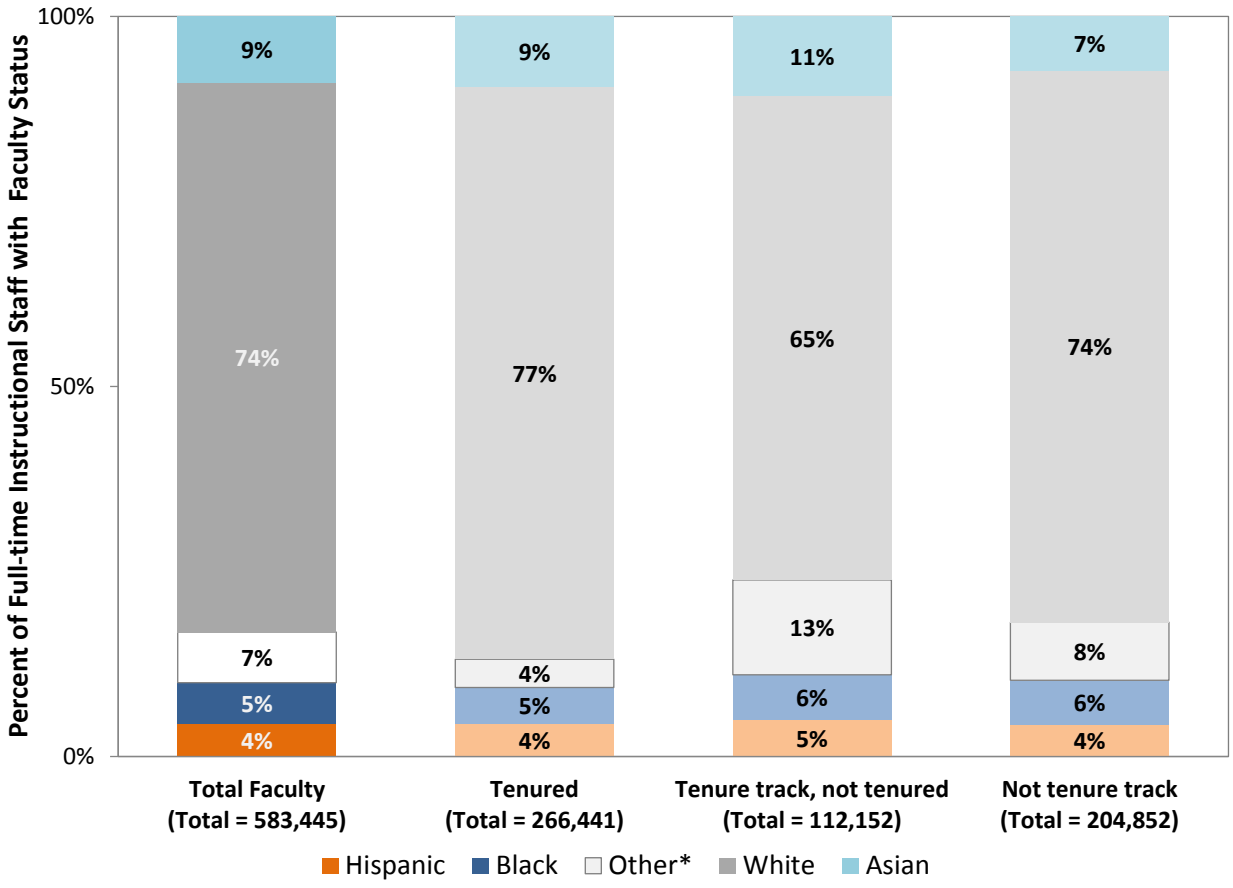
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Completions Survey"; and IPEDS Fall 2000 through Fall 2014, Completions component.

Available at http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/.

Appendix C: Faculty Diversity

In addition to student diversity and opportunity, the Department also collects data on tenure and non-tenure track faculty by race and ethnicity. Disparities in the percentage of faculty of color versus white are similar to disparities among postsecondary students. In 2013–14, fewer than one in 10 instructional faculty were either black or Hispanic. Figure C.1 shows the racial and ethnic diversity of full-time instructional faculty by tenure status. In 2013–14, 74 percent of the faculty members were white, but only 4 percent and 5 percent were Hispanic and black, respectively. Trends were similar across other faculty status categories. For instance, among the professors who were tenure track but had not yet gained tenure, 65 percent were white, 5 percent were Hispanic, 6 percent were black, 11 percent were Asian, and 13 percent fell in another category. Moreover, already tenured faculty members were even more predominantly white at 77 percent.

Exhibit C.1: Percentage of higher education full-time instructional staff, by race and ethnicity and tenure status, and total number of faculty by status: 2013–14



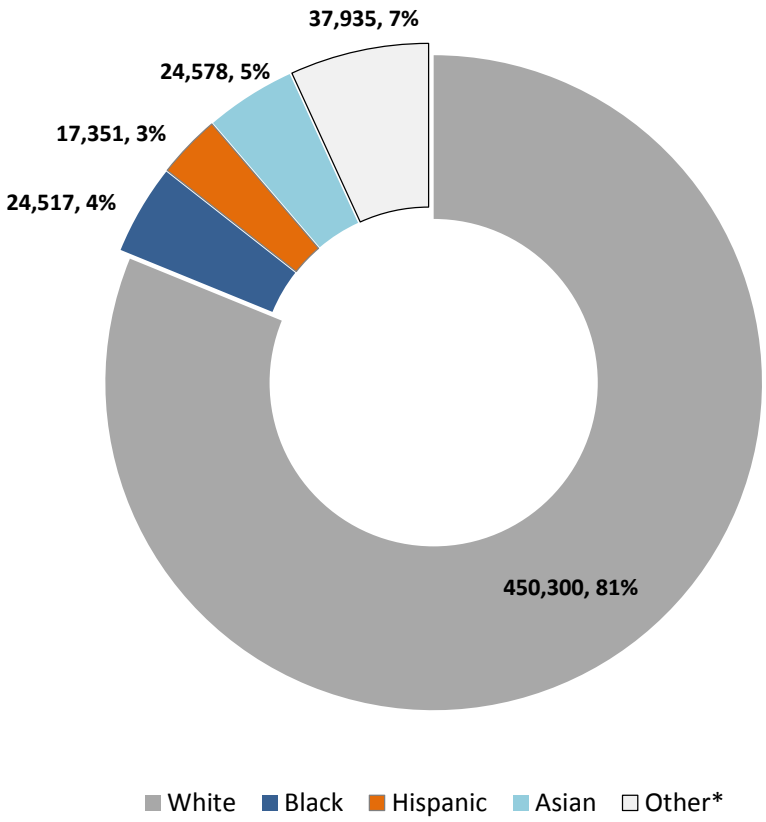
NOTE: The data are based on degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant associate degrees or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. *The other category includes American Indian/Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, two or more races, nonresidents, and unknown. Asian category excludes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander. Percentages may not add to 100 percent due to rounding.*

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Human Resources Survey," academic year 2013–14. Available at http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/.

The percentage of faculty of color has gradually increased.

Since 1993, the percentage of faculty of color has gradually increased, especially for Asians and Hispanics. From fall 1993 to academic year 2013–14, the percentage of faculty who reported as Asian nearly doubled from 5 percent to 9 percent and the percentage of Hispanic faculty increased from 3 percent to 5 percent. The percentage of black professors also increased, but at a slower rate — increasing from 4 percent to 6 percent (see exhibit C.2). Recently, the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association (TIAA Institute) published a report examining trends in faculty diversity by race and ethnicity and gender. The report found that the fastest growth in faculty occurred in the non-tenure track or part-time categories from 1993 to 2013.[177] As a result, while the composition of instructional faculty has become more diverse over time, the most progress has been made among non-tenure track and part-time faculty.[178] The authors also concluded that, on average, there is a higher percentage of faculty members of color at two-year, public, and less selective institutions compared to four-year, private (non-profit), and more selective institutions.[179]

Exhibit C.2: Number and percentages of full-time faculty at degree-granting postsecondary institutions, by race and ethnicity: Fall 1993



NOTE: The data are based on degree-granting postsecondary institutions, which are institutions that grant associate degrees or higher and participate in Title IV *federal financial aid programs. Includes "research" and "public service faculty." Asian includes Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander. *The Other category includes American Indian/Alaska Native, nonresidents, and unknown.*
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), "Human Resources Survey," fall 1993. Available at http://nces.ed.gov/ipeds/.

Appendix D: Postsecondary Data on Equity and Student Success

Below are examples of measures available from the U.S. Department of Education that could help shed light on trends in equity and student success throughout the higher education diversity pipeline.

Measures Disaggregated by Race and Ethnicity

Measures	Description	Availability	Source
Unmet financial need	Financial need is equivalent to total cost of attendance (including tuition, fees, books, materials, and cost of living) minus expected family contribution.	Infrequent, student level (national sample)	National Postsecondary Student Aid Study
Total enrollment	Percentage of students of each race and ethnicity enrolled. Desegregations by sex and academic level also available.	Annual, institution level	The Integrate Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS)
Enrollment by major	Percentage of students enrolled in each undergraduate major. Desegregations by sex also available.	Every two years, institution level (four-year schools only)	IPEDS
Persistence / retention	Percentage of students who continue to enroll in a postsecondary program at any institutions (persistence) or continue to enroll at the same institution (retention).	Infrequent, student level (national sample)	Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study
Educational attainment after enrollment	Level of educational attainment students attain after one to six years, including categories bachelor's, associate's, certificate, still enrolled (but no degree), and not enrolled (no degree).	Infrequent, student level (national sample)	Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study
Graduation rate	150% bachelor's cohort graduation rate for four-year institutions. In IPEDS, bachelor's-seeking students are considered to have graduated "on time" if they graduate within 6 years.	Annual, institution level (bachelor's-seeking student only)	IPEDS
Degree completions	Total number of degree conferred for each level of degree and major by race and ethnicity. Desegregations by sex also available.	Annual, institution level	IPEDS

Measures Disaggregated by Socioeconomic Status

Measures	Description	Availability	Source
Unmet financial need	Financial need is equivalent to total cost of attendance (including tuition, fees, books, materials, and cost of living) minus expected family contribution. Can be disaggregated by income and highest level of parental education.	Less than annual, student level (national sample)	National Postsecondary Student Aid Study
Total enrollment	Percentage of undergraduates who receive a Pell grant.	Annual, institution level	IPEDS
Enrollment by major	Percentage of students enrolled in each undergraduate major by income and highest level of parental education.	Less than annual, student level (national sample)	Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study
Persistence / retention	Percentage of students who continue to enroll in a postsecondary program at any institutions (persistence) or continue to enroll at the same institution (retention) by income and highest level of parental education.	Infrequent, student level (national sample)	Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study
Educational attainment after enrollment	Level of educational attainment students attain after one to six years, including categories bachelor's, associate, certificate, still enrolled (but no degree), and not enrolled (no degree) by income and highest level of parental education.	Infrequent, student level (national sample)	Beginning Postsecondary Students Longitudinal Study

Appendix E: Office of Management and Budget (OMB) Definitions of Race and Ethnicity Categories

This report presents information from federal data sources that define race and ethnicity categories according to OMB Directive 15 as adopted in 1997. In most cases, the data available are disaggregated by the following standard categories as defined by the OMB guidance:

- **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.
- **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. Terms such as "Haitian" or "Negro" can be used in addition to "Black or African American."
- **Hispanic or Latino**. A person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race. The term "Spanish origin" can be used in addition to "Hispanic or Latino."
- **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.

For brevity, the exhibits in this report refer to "Black or African American" and "Hispanic or Latino" as "black" and "Hispanic," respectively. Whenever possible, the figures for the Asian category are separated from figures on Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. However, before OMB Directive 15 was fully implemented, these two groups were typically grouped into the same race and ethnicity category. For instance, IPEDS transitioned to OMB Directive 15 between the 2008 collection and the 2010 collection, being fully compliant in the 2011–12 collection cycles. During the three transition years, institutions could report under the old race and ethnic coding or the new race ethnic coding with all institutions reporting the new coding structure in 2011–12. In those cases, exhibits refer to the category as "Asian," but also note that the figures include Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islanders. In a few cases, this report only displays data after the early 2000s to allow for better comparability over time.

Before the 1970s, the Census sources cited in this report did not track statistics on Hispanic individuals as a distinct ethnic category. Thus, Hispanics fell into the American Indian or Alaskan Native, black, Asian or Native Hawaiian/Other Pacific Islander, and white categories. Moreover, because Hispanic was considered an ethnicity category (rather than race), some figures reported from the 1970s and 1980s double count these individuals in both the Hispanic (ethnic) category and one of the other (race) categories. Figures from 1994 onwards provide unduplicated statistics on these individuals.

Endnotes

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