

Article

Not peer-reviewed version

Cohort Dynamics and Longitudinal Trends in High School Computer Science Participation

Cynthia Blitz , David Amiel^{*} , Teresa Duncan

Posted Date: 11 March 2025

doi: 10.20944/preprints202503.0802.v1

Keywords: computer science education; high school; access; participation; enrollment; gender disparity; racial disparity



Preprints.org is a free multidisciplinary platform providing preprint service that is dedicated to making early versions of research outputs permanently available and citable. Preprints posted at Preprints.org appear in Web of Science, Crossref, Google Scholar, Scilit, Europe PMC.

Copyright: This open access article is published under a Creative Commons CC BY 4.0 license, which permit the free download, distribution, and reuse, provided that the author and preprint are cited in any reuse.

Preprints.org (www.preprints.org) | NOT PEER-REVIEWED | Posted: 11 March 2025

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

Disclaimer/Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions, and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions, or products referred to in the content.

Cohort Dynamics and Longitudinal Trends in High School Computer Science Participation

Cynthia L. Blitz 1,*, David J. Amiel 1, and Teresa G. Duncan 2

- ¹ Center for Effective School Practices, Graduate School of Education, Rutgers University; New Brunswick, NJ 08901, USA
- ² Deacon Hill Research Associates, LLC; Fredericksburg, Virginia, 22401, USA

* Correspondence: clblitz@rutgers.edu

Abstract: Recent research highlights the need to more systematically study the interac-9 tions among varying degrees of computer science (CS) access, school context and compo-10 sition, and subsequent CS participation, and, how taken together, these dynamically 11 shape CS pathways. This study aims to address this need by collecting and analyzing lon-12 gitudinal data that tracks participation in CS courses among three cohorts of HS students 13 at six large suburban schools in the northeastern US. Despite each of the six participating 14 schools consistently offering multiple CS courses throughout the study period, our anal-15 yses reveal that access does not always translate into participation. While overall CS partic-16 ipation was highly variable across schools, the increases between successive cohorts was 17 much more stable across schools (typically by six to nine percentage points). Yet, these 18 gains were neither large enough to meaningfully move towards universal CS participa-19 tion, nor differential enough to close existing participation gaps. Although the sample 20 limits the generalizability of findings, a cohort-centered analysis accounts for the frequent 21 shifts within schools' CSE ecosystems that cloud other longitudinal methodologies, and 22 the consistency of our findings across multiple contexts highlights how such analyses 23 paint a comprehensive picture of access, participation, persistence, and success in CS ed-24 ucation. 25

Keywords: computer science education; high school; access; participation; enrollment; 26 gender disparity; racial disparity 27

28

29

ame Last-**1. Introduction**

High school (HS) computer science (CS) courses are a primary tool to provide neces-30 sary knowledge and skills to students. These courses serve to both encourage and prepare 31 students to pursue future CS-related opportunities, both in college and beyond (Armoni 32 & Gal-Ezer, 2022). Over the past decade in the U.S., major public investment and educa-33 tional policy have worked to expand access to K-12 computer science education (CSE), 34 and evidence suggests that progress has been made. For example, 60% of high schools in 35 the US offered a foundational computer science course in the 2023-2024 school year, a 36 stark increase from just 35% 6 years before (Code.org et al., 2024). Yet, long-term un-37 derrepresentation of females, Black and Hispanic students, and economically disadvan-38 taged students across all stages of the CS pipeline continues to persist (Chan et al., 2022; 39 Freeman et al., 2024; L. Jaccheri et al., 2020; National Academies of Sciences & Medicine, 40 2024). Recent national data reveals that despite representing half of the population, female 41

Academic Editor: Firstname Lastname

Received: date Revised: date Accepted: date Published: date

Article

Citation: To be added by editorial staff during production.

Copyright: © 2025 by the authors. Submitted for possible open access publication under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https://creativecommons.org/license s/by/4.0/).

students made up only 33% of HS CS course-takers in 2024; similarly, Hispanic students 42 account for 29% of the national HS population, but only 20% of CS course-takers 43 (Code.org et al., 2024). When considering AP CS participation, Black students accounted 44 for only 4% of AP CS exams in 2019, Hispanic students 12%, and females 24% (Wyatt et 45 al., 2020), all much lower than their share of the population . Further, in schools serving 46 student populations historically underrepresented in CS, AP CS courses have a lower 47 minimum standard for programming skills, potentially impacting students' acquisition of 48transferable skills for future study and employment (Sax et al., 2022). 49

Taken together, this suggests that access to CSE in HS is a necessary, but not suffi-50 cient, step towards broader and more equitable participation of students from historically 51 underrepresented groups (Bruno & Lewis, 2021; Margolis et al., 2012). Recently, research 52 has highlighted the need to more systematically study the interactions among CS access, 53 school context and composition, and subsequent CS participation, and, how taken to-54 gether, these dynamically shape CS pathways (National Academies of Sciences & 55 Medicine, 2024). Such research could uncover the mediators of CS participation for differ-56 ent types of learners, in different kinds of schools, with access to different kinds of courses. 57 In turn, findings could inform changes to policy and practice to support the recruitment, 58 engagement, and retention of underrepresented students into CSE pathways. 59

Unfortunately, data compatible with such robust analyses are not readily available. 60 Current research relies heavily on publicly available educational data. Although data of 61 this kind is suitable for capturing access to CSE (such as CS course availability), it is typi-62 cally aggregated, both (a) within schools, inhibiting analyses of specific student groups or 63 their intersections, and (b) across schools, clouding any insight into student CSE partici-64 pation, since school-to-school variations cannot be disentangled without dis-aggregated, 65 student-level data. For example, Code.org et al. (2024) show that Hispanic students make 66 up 29% of the U.S. HS student body, but only 20% of CS course-takers. This provides 67 evidence for a national skew in CS participation, but cannot make sense of CSE participa-68 tion on smaller scales (such as individual schools, districts, or states). 69

Research often looks at the collection of all CS enrollments from year to year, com-70 paring the demographic makeup of students enrolled in CS courses with overall popula-71 tions. Although an informative approach, this is not a strong analytical match to the fluid 72 and rapidly evolving CSE spaces that are studied, where curricular changes, teacher turn-73 over, and evolving policies impact CSE regularly (Adrion et al., 2016; Ni et al., 2024; 74 Pollock et al., 2017). Fluctuations in the year-to-year demographic composition of HS CS 75 course-takers could be caused by actual change in student behavior, but this kind of anal-76 ysis would become compromised over time by changes in course pre-requisites, grade-77 level eligibility, offering more or fewer sections of courses, changes in staffing, etc. Exam-78 ining patterns in year-to-year HS CS enrollments offers an imprecise measure; for in-79 stance, detecting that 25% of HS students in a particular year achieving 100% is only pos-80 sible if every HS student (in all grades 9-12) takes a CS course every year, but achieving 81 25% does not imply that every HS student takes any CS. 82

A shift in analysis perspective can offer more detail and relevant, actionable findings. 83 Instead of comparing the entire HS student body each year, considering each year's grad-84 uating cohort's cumulative HS experience offers many benefits. A longitudinal method-85 ology in this vein allows for more nuanced analyses of participation at a student level, can 86 be more easily studied alongside its interplay with access, which enables researchers to 87 identify impactful shifts in school CSE policy and capacity. This level of granularity would 88 not be possible when considering the entire HS student population each year, as course 89 and policy changes do not impact all students equally (say, by grade level). A cohort-90 based analysis, on the other hand, groups students that are more equally affected by pol-91 icy shifts. 92

Despite a growing need to more carefully examine student participation in CS, and a 93 methodology that could frame those analyses, there is a shortage of data and research that 94 explores CS participation in this way and considers how it evolves, both generally and for 95 different student populations (particularly by gender and race). This study aims to ad-96 dress this gap by collecting and analyzing longitudinal academic data and tracking CSE 97 in three cohorts of HS students at six large suburban schools in the northeastern U.S. Each 98 of the six participating schools regularly offers CS courses, which allows us to interpret 99 participation more independently of access. Additionally, in each of the schools, the num-100 bers, names, and types of courses offered each year varies, which offer school policy/ca-101 pacity shifts that can be later matched and associated with changes in participation. Such 102 fluctuations are commonplace in CSE; this approach, and its findings, will be applicable 103 beyond the scope of the studied sample of schools. 104

2. Data and Methods

This study utilizes student-level administrative data from six public high schools in 106 a northeastern state, collected in accordance with ongoing data-sharing agreements be-107 tween the district and the University. The sample of students for the present study con-108 sists of three cohorts: students who completed high school in the spring of 2022, 2023, or 109 2024 for which we were able to obtain HS course enrollment data for 9th, 10th, 11th, and 110 12th grade (N=3,641 students). This selection criterion ensures that within each cohort, all 111 students had the same opportunities to take a CS course(s) during their high school tenure 112 (and students are not "undercounted" for missing years of data). Characteristics of each 113 school and its student population are shown in Table 1. 114

Enrollment data was aggregated by school and year to determine the number and 115 type of courses offered to students during each academic year. First, all courses were clas-116 sified as either "CS" or "not CS" using codes from the School Courses for the Exchange of 117 Data (SCED) classification system (National Forum on Education Statistics, 2023), where 118 a manually verified subset of courses with codes 10 (Information Technology) or 21 (En-119 gineering and Technology) were classified as "CS." Next, each CS course was classified as 120 either "foundational" or "advanced." Courses were considered foundational that were 121 introductory and/or level 1 as determined by their course names, levels, and course de-122 scriptions (as available). For example, Introductory Programming, Computer Applica-123 tions, CS Essentials, CS Discoveries, and App Development were considered foundational 124 for this analysis. Courses such as Computer Programming II, AP CSP, AP CSA, Interactive 125 Media and Game Design, Cybersecurity and Computer Networking II, and Programming 126 with Java (with a prerequisite) were considered advanced. Importantly, an "advanced" 127 classification does not necessarily imply that students must complete a foundational 128 course as a prerequisite. 129

Variables were then created for each student, using enrollment data, to indicate 130 whether the student took at least one CS course, foundational CS course, and advanced 131 CS course at any point during their HS tenure. Then, grouped within their school cohorts 132 (the Class of 2022, 2023, or 2024, hereafter referred to as Co22, Co23, and Co24), CS partic-133 ipation was calculated as the percentage of students within a group (meeting the data 134 inclusion requirement) taking at least one relevant course. Drawing from demographic 135 data, CS participation was also calculated for subgroups of each cohort, such as the per-136 centage of females in the Co22 taking at least one CS course or the proportion of Hispanic 137 students in the Co24 that took an advanced CS course. 138

All data cleaning, preprocessing, and analyses took place in R (R Core Team, 2024), 139 and additional packages were used to present data and findings (Iannone et al., 2024; 140 Pedersen, 2024; Wickham, 2016). 141

144

	Table 1.	Characteristics	s of the sample.				
Characteristic	HS 1	HS 2	HS 3	HS 4	HS 5	HS 6	Total
All Students (N)	992	363	585	379	1123	199	3641
Gender							
Mala	474	193	295	187	555	106	1810
Male	(47.7%)	(53.2%)	(50.4%)	(49.3%)	(49.4%)	199 3641 106 1810 (53.3%) (49.7%) 93 1831 (46.7%) (50.3%) 11 268 (5.5%) (7.4%) 23 293 (11.6%) (8.0%) 87 1250 (43.7%) (34.3%) 73 1755	(49.7%)
Eserals	518	170	290	192	568	93	1831
Female	(52.2%)	(46.8%)	(49.6%)	(50.7%)	(50.5%)	(46.7%)	(50.3%)
Race							
Asian	89	80	12	24	52	11	268
	(9%)	(22%)	(2.1%)	(6.3%)	(4.6%)	(5.5%)	(7.4%)
D11.	29	13	30	%) (6.3%) (4.6%) (5.5%) (36 162 23	293		
Black	(2.9%)	(3.6%)	(5.1%)	(9.5%)	(14.4%)	(11.6%)	(8.0%)
TT:	158	129	501	189	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		
Hispanic	(15.9%)	(35.5%)	(85.6%)	(49.9%)	(16.5%)	23 199 3641 55 106 1810 4%) (53.3%) (49.7%) 68 93 1831 5%) (46.7%) (50.3%) 52 11 268 6%) (5.5%) (7.4%) 62 23 293 4%) (11.6%) (8.0%) 86 87 1250 5%) (43.7%) (34.3%) 81 73 1755 6%) (36.7%) (48.2%) 3, 11) 2.3 (1, 3) n/a (2, 7) 1 (1, 1) n/a	(34.3%)
1471- 1 -	702	135	39	125	681	73	1755
White	(70.7%)	(37.2%)	(6.7%)	(33%)	(60.6%)	(36.7%)	(48.2%)
CS Information *							
CS, All	5 (1, 7)	1.8 (0, 4)	4 (3, 5)	3.3 (1. 5)	7.3 (3, 11)	2.3 (1, 3)	n/a
CS, Foundational	2.2 (1, 3)	0.8 (0, 2)	2.5 (2, 3)	1.7 (1, 2)	4.6 (2, 7)	1 (1, 1)	n/a
CS, Advanced	3.2 (1, 4)	1 (0, 2)	1.5 (1, 2)	1.7 (0, 3)	2.7 (1, 4)	1.6 (1, 2)	n/a
				1 0000 00			、 <u> </u>

Table 1. Characteristics of the sample.

* Number of courses from 2018-2019 through 2023-2024 school years: Avg. (Min, Max).

3. Results

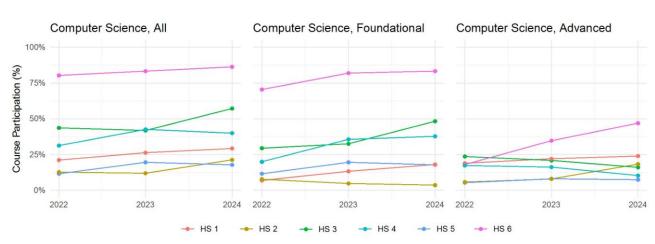
3.1. Overall Participation in CS Courses

Overall CS participation, the percentage of students within a graduating class who 148 have taken at least one CS course in 9th – 12th grade, offers a comprehensive, but broad, 149 measure of CS participation. As seen in Figure 1, across the six schools studied, this figure 150 generally remains below 50%, with two schools consistently showing participation rates 151 under 25% for the three cohorts. Across all schools, for the Co22, the percentage of students taking at least one CS course ranged from 12% - 80%; for the Co23, the range expanded slightly to 12%-83%, and for the Co24, the spread increased to 18%-86%. 154

Although there are significant variations across schools, CS participation rates of suc-155 cessive cohorts within schools is much less volatile, and trends, however small, begin to 156 emerge from the data. Compared to the Co22, the Co24 has a higher rate of CS participa-157 tion in every school, with an average net change of +8.5% (though only two schools 158 showed growth between both the 2022 to 2023 cohorts and 2023 to 2024 cohorts). Aside 159 from HS 3, which had a +13.5% change over this period, all schools showed increases be-160 tween 6% and 9%, pointing towards somewhat steady, moderate growth in CS participa-161 tion. 162

Enrollment data offers additional insights into not only whether students took a CS 163 course but also which specific courses they completed during their four years of high 164 school. When CS participation was divided into foundational and advanced CS participation, as shown in Figure 2, more nuanced, sometime sporadic, patterns emerge. For instance, by examining the enrollment patterns of HS 6, which demonstrated the highest 167

5 of 11



overall CS participation rates, we see that most of their enrollment is in foundational168courses, and for the Co22, HS 6's advanced CS participation is more in line with other169

Figure 1. Participation in CS Courses by Graduating Cohort and School.

schools, but growing over time. Generally, advanced course participation is lower than 172 foundational course participation across all schools. For the 2022 cohort, advanced course 173 participation ranged from 5%-23%, compared to 8%-71% for foundational courses. Similarly, for the 2024 cohort, advanced course participation ranged from 8%-47%, compared 175 to 4%-83%. However, the within-school participation rates of foundational and advanced 176 CS courses from cohort to cohort do not share the same measured, stable change that 177 overall CS participation rates displayed. 178

3.2. Participation in CS Courses by Gender

When examining CS participation through the lens of gender, disparities between 180 male and female students emerge across schools and cohorts. Across all studied cohorts, 181 overall CS participation was higher for male students compared to female students. 182 Across all six schools, some of the highest gendered differences in participation were 183 found in HS 3, where 73% of males in the Co24 took at least one CS course, compared to 184 only 41% of females, a gap of 32%; in the same school, skews for previous cohorts were 185 also pronounced, with a 36% gap for Co23 and 31% for Co22. On the other end, HS 2 186 consistently saw smaller gender gaps in CS participation, with the male CS participation 187 percentage exceeding the female percentage by 22%, 9%, and 11% for the Co22, Co23, and 188 Co24, respectively. 189

Additionally, we used a gender-based lens to examine participation in foundational 190 and advanced courses separately. Mirroring the overall trends, for both course types, and 191 across all schools, male participation exceeded female participation (except for HS6 Co24, 192 which had a near overlap and very small group size (11 students) for advanced courses). 193 Some of the largest instances of gendered participation gaps by course type are HS 3's 194 foundational courses, with 43% of males and 17% of females in the Co22 taking a founda-195 tional CS course (a gap of 26%), and gaps of 36% and 21% for the Co23 and Co24, respec-196 tively. Foundational courses at HS 6 also saw large gender skews, with gaps of 31%, 24%, 197

Computer Science, All								
School	Co22	Co23	C	hange				
HS1	21.2%	26.4%	29.3%	8.1%				
HS2	12.7%	12.0%	21.3%	8.6%	_			
HS3	43.7%	41.9%	57.2%	13.5%	/			
HS4	31.3%	42.6%	40.0%	8.7%	/			
HS5	11.6%	19.6%	17.9%	6.3%	/			
HS6	80.3%	83.3%	86.4%	6.0%				

Computer Science, Foundational								
Co22	Co23	Co24	Co24 Change					
7.0%	13.3%	18.1%	11.1%					
7.8%	4.8%	3.7%	-4.2%	/				
29.5%	32.6%	48.3%	18.9%					
20.0%	35.7%	37.8%	17.8%					
11.6%	19.6%	17.9%	6.3%					
70.5%	81.9%	83.3%	12.8%					

Computer Science, Advanced										
Co22	Co23	Co23 Co24 Change								
18.9%	22.1%	24.0%	5.1%	_						
5.9%	8.0%	18.4%	12.5%							
23.7%	20.9%	16.1%	-7.6%	/						
17.4%	16.3%	10.4%	-7.0%	/						
5.4%	8.1%	7.5%	2.1%	/						
18.0%	34.7%	47.0%	28.9%							

170 171

Figure 2. CS Participation Details & Trends, All Students by Cohort and School.

and 17% across cohorts. Conversely, advanced courses at HS 5 and HS 2 were much closer 200 to gender parity, with gaps for successive cohorts of 6%, 9%, and 10% for HS 5 and 7%, 201 6%, and 5% for HS 2. Advanced courses tended to have smaller participation gaps, but 202 this is not always the case: like their advanced courses, HS 2's foundational courses were 203 also closer to parity, with male participation exceeding female participation by 17%, 10% 204 and 4% across the three cohorts. 205

Looking over time, the range of female CS participation across schools in Co22 was 206 5%-68%, which increased and widened slightly to 10%-79% for Co24; during the same 207 time, the range of male participation in CS courses moved from 19%-89% to 26%-96%. The 208 data for all studied schools are displayed in Figure 3, where the red lines denote overall 209 CS participation, dashed for males and solid for females. Note that in HS 5, all advanced 210 courses require a foundational course as a pre-requisite, so red lines are "hidden" under-211 neath the green ones, as they are identical. 212

Once again, despite sizable variation in participation across schools, within-school 213 variation appears more stable and indicative of gradual change over time. Because overall 214 CS participation varies so much among schools, comparing the female and male CS par-215 ticipation across schools is not trivial. Female participation at HS 6 exceeds male partici-216 pation at all other schools; this does not mean that females at HS 6 are participating in CS 217 more equitably, as a gender gap exists at HS 6, rather, it's a reflection of HS 6's overall 218 higher CS participation rates. However, examining how these percentages change over 219 time allows us to begin to look at the school-to-school variation at a more comparable 220 figure. As discussed in Section 3.1, across the studied schools, there was an average in-221 crease of +8.5% in overall CS participation; when stratified by gender, the change for fe-222 males alone is +7.2%, and +8.9% for males from Co22 to Co24. 223

Across cohorts, we are also able to gauge whether different types of courses, and at 224 different schools, are moving towards gender parity over time by looking at how the gen-225 der participation gap changes from cohort to cohort. In most cases, the trajectories of male 226 and female CS participation over time appear similar (that is, CS participation is, and 227 stays, higher for males by a relatively constant amount). However, in some isolated cases, 228 analyses reveal movement towards gender parity: foundational courses in HS 6 (which 229 has generally higher levels of CS participation than other schools) saw 52% female and 230 83% male participation in the Co22, and 76% female and 93% male participation for the 231 Co24, reducing the gender gap from 31% to under 17%. Similarly, HS 2 (which has gener-232 ally lower levels of CS participation) also moved towards gender parity, reducing their 233 overall gender participation gap from 22% to 11% from the Co22 to the Co24. 234



Figure 3. Participation in CS Courses by Gender, Graduating Cohort and School.

237

236

3.3. Participation in CS Courses by Race/Ethnicity

When examining CS participation through the lens of race/ethnicity, disparities 240among racial groups also emerge across schools and cohorts. Mirroring the overall trajec-241 tory in CS participation, CS participation is higher for the Co24 than the Co22 for many, 242 but not all, racial/ethnic groups. The degree of participation varies among schools, co-243 horts, and course types. As was the case for gender-based analyses, analyses reveal dif-244 ferences in both the raw size of the participation gaps for various racial/ethnic groups as 245 well as the direction these gaps appear to move with time. In some cases, data provide 246 evidence for movement towards racial parity in CS participation, and in other cases, 247 movement away from it. Unlike the gender-based analyses presented in Section 3.2, 248 schools' demographic compositions are more at play for racial/ethnic analyses. As such, 249 variance in group sizes within and across schools introduce additional volatility in the 250 data, and more general findings are presented to avoid over-interpretation. 251

Across the three schools where Asian students comprise at least 5% of each cohort 252 (HS1, HS2, and HS4), Asian students participated in all CS courses at higher rates than 253 their peers. In HS3, Hispanic and White students are much closer to parity with 42 to 58% 254 Hispanic and 50 to 58% White students participating in at least once CS course across the 255 3 cohorts. Finally, across the two schools where Black and Hispanic students comprise at 256 least 5% of each cohort (HS4, HS5, and HS6), the difference in participation rates between 257 the schools is large from a high of 21% Black in HS5 to a high of 100% in HS6, 13% Hispanic 258 to 89%, and 13% White to 87%. Looking within schools reveals trends that appear more 259 stable and gradual. For example, the 2023 cohort in HS6 had 78% Black, 85% Hispanic, 260 and 81% White students taking at least one CS course within the four years of high school. 261

Finally, Asian students consistently have higher participation in advanced courses262than their peers. For example, 42% of Asian students in the 2024 cohort have taken an263advanced CS course versus 7% of Hispanic students and 26% of White students (with 15%264of Asian students having had taken foundational CS, 16% Hispanic and 19% White).265

			Asian Students			Black Students					Hispanic Students					White Students					
		Co22	Co23	Co24	0	Change*	<i>Co</i> 22	Co23	Co24	C	`hange*	Co22	Co23	Co24	C	Change*	Co22	Co23	Co24	С	hange*
Г	HS 1	52%	50%	46%	-5%		18%	14%	25%	7%	\langle	4%	15%	19%	15%	/	21%	26%	30%	9%	
	HS 2	22%	41%	46%	23%	/	20%	0%	25%	5%	\langle	6%	2%	15%	9%	\checkmark	13%	5%	11%	-2%	\langle
All	HS 3	25%	29%	0%	-25%		60%	25%	50%	-10%	\langle	42%	43%	58%	16%		53%	50%	58%	5%	\langle
Ŋ	HS 4	50%	63%	100%	50%	/	29%	43%	53%	25%		28%	42%	36%	8%		33%	38%	30%	-2%	\rangle
	HS 5	43%	60%	61%	18%		2%	15%	21%	18%		9%	11%	13%	5%	/	13%	18%	16%	4%	
	HS 6	60%	100%	60%	0%		100%	78%	89%	-11%	\langle	84%	85%	89%	5%	/	75%	81%	87%	12%	
_				1	1	-			1	1 1			9					1	1		_
nal	HS 1	29%	25%	15%	-14%		0%	7%	25%	25%		4%	9%	16%	12%	_	5%	13%	19%	14%	
Foundational	HS 2	6%	11%	6%	0%	\sim	20%	0%	0%	-20%		0%	2%	4%	4%		13%	2%	2%	-11%	
ndå	HS 3	25%	14%	0%	-25%		30%	17%	38%	8%	\sim	28%	34%	49%	22%	_	47%	33%	50%	3%	\searrow
Fou	HS 4	38%	50%	100%	63%		14%	43%	53%	39%		19%	38%	34%	15%		19%	26%	28%	9%	
CS,	HS 5	43%	60%	61%	18%		2%	15%	21%	18%		9%	11%	13%	5%		13%	18%	16%	4%	
Ľ	HS 6	40%	100%	60%	20%		100%	78%	89%	-11%	\sim	76%	82%	86%	10%		63%	81%	87%	24%	
Г	HS 1	52%	47%	42%	-9%		18%	7%	25%	7%	$\overline{}$	2%	13%	7%	5%		18%	21%	26%	8%	
bed	HS 2	17%	33%	43%	26%	-	0%	0%	25%	25%		6%	0%	10%	4%	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	2%	2%	9%	7%	/
dvanced	HS 3	0%	29%	0%	0%		40%	25%	25%	-15%		23%	20%	15%	-8%	<hr/>	27%	33%	25%	-2%	\geq
Adv	HS 4	38%	50%	38%	0%	\sim	14%	0%	20%	6%		16%	11%	6%	-10%	<u> </u>	16%	21%	7%	-9%	
S,	HS 5	29%	30%	28%	-1%	\sim	0%	2%	9%	9%	/	3%	3%	3%	0%	/	6%	9%	7%	1%	
Ľ	HS 6	20%	100%	60%	40%		0%	22%	67%	67%	/	20%	35%	36%	16%	/	21%	35%	48%	27%	/

Figure 4. CS Participation Details & Trends: All Students by Race, Cohort, and School *Red, italicized cells* indicate that the group makes up less than 5% of the school student population. * Change is calculated as the net increase/decrease between the Co22 and the Co24.

266 267

4. Discussion

The results from this study underscore the value of a cohort-based, longitudinal 271 methodology when examining CS participation at a school-specific level. In contrast to 272 typical statewide or national studies that often rely on snapshots or aggregated figures, 273 our approach provides a more fine-grained view of how participation evolves within the 274 same group of students over their four-year high school experience. By following each 275 graduating cohort, we were able to account for changes in school policies, resource allo-276 cations, and shifting course offerings over time - factors that we know happen frequently 277 in CSE ecosystems. While larger-scale studies can treat these fluctuations as "noise" due 278 to their sample size and study scope, more local explorations cannot. This design allows 279 for a more nuanced understanding of what CS participation looks like at a school level 280 and even allows further subdivisions by course type or specific student groups. 281

Importantly, within a cohort, students experience the same fluctuations to their CSE 282 ecosystem at the same point in their HS career. Consider, as a fictitious example, that a 283 school offered a new 10th grade CS course beginning in the 2020-2021 school year. By 284 adopting a cohort-centric lens, this change, along with its potential impact, will become 285 relevant with the Co23, who are in 10th grade when the course begins. Although the Co22, 286 for instance, is in HS at this time, they are in 11th grade and would not be eligible for this 287 course. Under more popular paradigms, where the total of HS CS enrollments are consid-288 ered on a year-to-year basis, it's less clear when the effects of this course can be observed, 289 and what changes are attributable to it. Looking at the 2020-2021 year, roughly 25% of 290 students (one grade level) are impacted by the change; in the following year, 50% of the 291 HS student population will have this 10th grade course as part of their CSE experience, 292 and so on. It is also possible the addition of this course outcompetes existing courses, and 293 instead of increasing participation, it simply changes which CS course(s) students take. If 294 this were the case, it would be very difficult to detect without a cohort-based perspective, 295 as there would still be a short-term increase, mid-term fluctuations, and a long-run return 296 to 2019-2020 levels. This would be readily detectable under the cohort analyses presented 297 in this study (the CS participation % of the Co23 would remain steady). In short, the goal 298 of HS CSE is to provide HS students with CS instruction (and less about the particulars of 299 when that instruction might occur), and this is precisely what a *cohort analysis* measures. 300

Despite each of the six participating schools offering multiple CS courses throughout 301 the study period, our analyses reveal that access alone does not beget participation. Over-302 all, CS participation is generally under 50%. Females consistently enrolled in CS courses 303 at lower rates than males, and Black and Hispanic students continued to participate at 304 lower rates than their White and Asian peers. Importantly, these discrepancies were evi-305 dent regardless of the schools' overall participation level. CS participation generally may 306 be higher or lower in certain schools (ranging between under 25% to over 75%), but certain 307 groups were consistently underrepresented within their schools. 308

When looking across cohorts (over time), this study finds that trend lines of CS par-309 ticipation are quite consistent across diverse school contexts, even if the absolute numbers 310 vary substantially. Where one school's enrollment might climb from 20% to 26%, another 311 moves from 70% to 76%, but in both scenarios, the overall pace of change in CS participa-312 tion may be able to be understood and calculated across schools. This pattern suggests 313 that local conditions like whether foundational CS courses require prerequisites, how 314 teachers encourage students to enroll, whether the "introductory" CS course is an AP 315 course, or the presence of initiatives to recruit underrepresented groups may have had a 316 strong influence the baseline level of CS participation years ago or at their inception, while 317 overall growth today appears to follow a common trajectory. Although overall CS partic-318 ipation generally increased for each successive cohort (typically by six to nine percentage 319 points), schools that started with relatively low participation rates did not exhibit notably 320

faster growth. If this trajectory continues, CSE is not on a path to become "equalized" 321 across schools. 322

When considering the persistent underrepresentation of specific student groups in 323 CSE, it is important to note that even when gains in CS participation over time are present 324 (which is not the case for all racial/ethnic groups), they were neither large enough nor 325 differential enough to close existing equity gaps in the years to come, suggesting that the 326 present trajectory of CSE evolution may not be sufficient to reach racial or gender parity. 327 Targeted supports and intentional outreach strategies may be needed to accelerate the 328 growth of underrepresented students' participation in CSE beyond passive gains. Achiev-329 ing parity necessitates faster growth rates for historically underrepresented students and 330 ensuring that all students are participating in CS regardless of where they live necessitates 331 the same in schools with lower initial participation. Consequently, simply celebrating pos-332 itive trends may mask the continued marginalization (or worse, growing underrepresen-333 tation) of certain subgroups in CS pathways. Future research should further investigate 334 targeted strategies—like early exposure, guidance counseling, and culturally responsive 335 curricula-that can accelerate participation gains for underrepresented students and do 336 so in a way that studies whether such initiatives actually (a) grow CS participation beyond 337 passive gains, and (b) put underrepresented groups on a trajectory to reach parity, rather 338 than sustain their underrepresentation. Even when growth exists, underrepresentation 339 can grow. 340

Study limitations must also be acknowledged. The present research draws on a rela-341 tively small sample of six suburban schools in one northeastern state, which may limit the 342 generalizability of our results. However, a case can be made for generalizability when 343 considering that despite the differences in school contexts, patterns across schools stabi-344 lize when examining change over time. Additionally, the methodology we present here, 345 and the case we make for its use, is a strong alternative to comparing share of CS enroll-346 ments to share of overall population and can readily be applied to other schools. These 347 methods provide insights and granularity for local samples that broader (more general-348 izable) studies cannot; limited generalizability is in some ways a feature, not a bug, of this 349 approach. The true limitation is data availability. Student-level enrollment and demo-350 graphic data is not feasible to obtain without data-sharing agreements, measures in place 351 to protect students' identities, and often, logistic processes that are not standard across 352 schools. It takes time to build the relationships and trust with schools to get the requisite 353 for these analyses. Even then, the requirement that each student have four years of avail-354 able data is stringent, and excludes transfer students, drop-outs, is vulnerable to students 355 skipping or repeating grades, and results in many students from a school not being in-356 cluded in analysis. However, the analysis presented in this study, which excluded data in 357 this way, offers relatively consistent and stable findings, suggesting the analyses may not 358 be extremely sensitive to excluded data. 359

The results presented here reach across multiple contexts and highlight the im-360 portance of analyzing CS participation at a fine-grained level. We provide not only a the-361 oretical motivation for this type of analysis but also demonstrate that its application yields 362 insights that can be found, interpreted, and acted upon, even with limited data. The out-363 lying data points, unusually high or low participation rates, or rapid changes in CSE par-364 ticipation that are revealed by this approach can be paired with historical data on changes 365 in course offerings, school policy, or staffing. This work, already underway, has the po-366 tential to discover complex relationships among school contexts, CSE ecosystems, how 367 they change, and the resulting impacts student participation and behavior. Other future 368 efforts, some already taking place, can (a) expand the number and diversity of schools 369 studied; (b) rigorously investigate data inclusion requirements and the sensitivity of re-370 sults to data exclusion; (c) devise methods to methodologically account for transfer or 371

10 of 11

383

396

404

405

406

drop-out students; (d) augment the power and precision of analyses by incorporating 372 compatible, robust statistical methods beyond descriptives; (e) leverage additional, potentially qualitative, data on student motivations and barriers to further situate and contextualize findings, and; (f) extend the longitudinal nature of the cohort analyses by both extending the reach of data for individual cohorts (with pre- and post-HS CSE participation) and increasing the number of cohorts studied. 377

With more and more schools offering CS courses, we must quickly move away from378thinking of access as a binary. Within HS CSE, varying groups of students have varying379degrees of access to varying types of courses. In the past, understanding the intersections380between access (through this comprehensive lens) and the complexities of participation381was a technical challenge. Now, it is an imperative.382

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, CLB, DJA, and TGD; methodology, CLB, DJA, and TGD;384software, CLB, DJA; validation, CLB, DJA, and TGD; formal analysis, CLB, DJA; investigation, CLB,385DJA, and TGD; resources, CLB and TGD; data curation, CLB, DJA, and TGD; writing—original draft386preparation, CLB, DJA; writing—review and editing, CLB, DJA, and TGD; visualization, CLB, DJA;387supervision, CLB and TGD; project administration, CLB; funding acquisition, CLB and TGD. All388authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.389

Funding: This research was conducted with support from the United States Department of Educa-
tion Office of Elementary & Secondary Instruction under Educational Innovation & Research (EIR)390Award #S411C200084.392

Institutional Review Board Statement: This study was conducted in accordance with the Declara-393tion of Helsinki and approved by the Institutional Review Board of Rutgers University, New Bruns-394wick (study 2020003169, approved 5/28/2021).395

Informed Consent Statement: Not applicable.

Data Availability Statement: The datasets presented in this article are not readily available, as their397access, governed by Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act, was provided by public educa-398tional agencies with researchers through board-approved, time-bound data sharing agreements.399Requests to access the datasets should be directed to corresponding author CLB.400

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflicts of interest. The funders had no role in the401design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manu-402script; or in the decision to publish the results.403

Abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in this manuscript:

CS	Computer science
CSE	Computer science education
HS	High school
Co2X	Class of 202X

References

Adrion, R., Fall, R., Ericson, B., & Guzdial, M. (2016). Broadening access to computing education state by state. Commun. 407 ACM, 59(2), 32–34. https://doi.org/10.1145/2856455
Armoni, M., & Gal-Ezer, J. (2022). High-School Computer Science – Its Effect on the Choice of Higher Education. Informatics in Education, 22(2), 183–206. https://doi.org/10.15388/infedu.2023.14

11	of	11

Bruno, P., & Lewis, C. M. (2021). Equity in high school computer science: Beyond access. Policy Futures in Education,	411
14782103211063002. https://doi.org/10.1177/14782103211063002	412
Chan, HY., Ma, TL., Saw, G. K., & Huang, YM. (2022). High School Course-Completion Trajectories and College	413
Pathways for All: A Transcript Analysis Study on Elective Computer Science Courses. Education Sciences,	414
12(11), 808. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci12110808	415
Code.org, CSTA, & ECEP Alliance. (2024). 2024 State of Computer Science Education. https://advo-	416
cacy.code.org/stateofcs	417
Freeman, J. A., Gottfried, M. A., & Odle, T. K. (2024). Explaining Course Enrollment Gaps in High School: Examination	418
of Gender-Imbalance in the Applied Sciences. Educational Policy, 38(4), 897–936.	419
https://doi.org/10.1177/08959048231174884	420
Iannone, R., Cheng, J., Schloerke, B., Hughes, E., Lauer, A., Seo, J., Brevoort, K., & Roy, O. (2024). gt: Easily Create	421
Presentation-Ready Display Tables. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=gt	422
L. Jaccheri, C. Pereira, & S. Fast. (2020). Gender Issues in Computer Science: Lessons Learnt and Reflections for the	423
Future. 2020 22nd International Symposium on Symbolic and Numeric Algorithms for Scientific Computing	424
(SYNASC), 9–16. https://doi.org/10.1109/SYNASC51798.2020.00014	425
Margolis, J., Ryoo, J. J., Sandoval, C. D. M., Lee, C., Goode, J., & Chapman, G. (2012). Beyond access: Broadening partic-	426
ipation in high school computer science. ACM Inroads, 3(4), 72–78. https://doi.org/10.1145/2381083.2381102	427
National Academies of Sciences, Engineering & Medicine. (2024). Equity in K-12 STEM Education: Framing Decisions	428
for the Future (E. R. Parsons, K. A. Dibner, & H. Schweingruber, Eds.). The National Academies Press.	429
https://doi.org/10.17226/26859	430
National Forum on Education Statistics. (2023). Forum Guide to Understanding the School Courses for the Exchange of	431
Data (SCED) Classification System. U.S. Department of Education; National Center for Education Statistics.	432
https://nces.ed.gov/forum/pub_2023087.asp	433
Ni, L., Tian, Y., McKlin, T., & Baskin, J. (2024). Who is Teaching Computer Science? Understanding Professional Identity	434
of American Computer Science Teachers through a National Survey. Computer Science Education, 34(2), 285-	435
309. https://doi.org/10.1080/08993408.2023.2195758	436
Pedersen, T. L. (2024). patchwork: The Composer of Plots. https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=patchwork	437
Pollock, L., Mouza, C., Czik, A., Little, A., Coffey, D., & Buttram, J. (2017). From Professional Development to the Class-	438
room: Findings from CS K-12 Teachers. Proceedings of the 2017 ACM SIGCSE Technical Symposium on Com-	439
puter Science Education, 477–482. https://doi.org/10.1145/3017680.3017739	440
Sax, L. J., Newhouse, K. N. S., Goode, J., Nakajima, T. M., Skorodinsky, M., & Sendowski, M. (2022). Can Computing Be	441
Diversified on "Principles" Alone? Exploring the Role of AP Computer Science Courses in Students' Major and	442
Career Intentions. ACM Trans. Comput. Educ., 22(2). https://doi.org/10.1145/3479431	443
Wickham, H. (2016). ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Springer-Verlag New York. https://ggplot2.ti-	444
dyverse.org	445
Wyatt, J., Feng, J., & Ewing, M. (2020). AP Computer Science Principles and the STEM and Computer Science Pipelines.	446
College Board. https://apcentral.collegeboard.org/media/pdf/ap-csp-and-stem-cs-pipelines.pdf	447