# The Condition of Education 2010 



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## Commissioner's Statement

## Introduction

To ensure reliable, accurate, and timely data, which are necessary to monitor the progress of education in the United States, Congress has mandated that the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) produce an annual report, The Condition of Education. This year's report presents 49 indicators of important developments and trends in U.S. education. These indicators focus on participation and persistence in education, student performance and other measures of achievement, the environment for learning, and resources for education.

This statement summarizes the main findings of the indicators, which are divided into the five sections shown below. Each indicator is referenced by its number in the volume (e.g., indicator 1).

## Special Section on High-Poverty Schools

Drawing upon data from various NCES survey collections presented in The Condition of Education 2010, this special section provides a descriptive profile of high-poverty schools in the United States. It examines the characteristics of students who attend these schools, as well as the principals, teachers, and support staff who work in these schools. Using the percentage of a school's enrollment that is eligible for the National School Lunch Program's free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) as the measure of school poverty, the characteristics of highpoverty schools are as follows:

- In 2007-08, there were 16,122 schools, or 17 percent of all public schools, that were considered high-poverty schools. That is, in these schools, 75 percent or more of the student enrollment was eligible for free or reduced-price meals.
- A greater percentage of high-poverty secondary schools were classified as alternative and special education schools than were low-poverty schools.
- A greater percentage of high-poverty public schools were eligible to participate in the federal Title I program for disadvantaged students than were lower-poverty public schools.
- In 2007-08, approximately 20 percent of elementary school students and 6 percent of secondary school students attended high-poverty public schools.
- In 2007-08, greater percentages of Hispanic, Black, and American Indian/Alaska Native students attended high-poverty public elementary and secondary schools than did White or Asian/Pacific

Islander students; in addition, greater percentages of Asian/Pacific Islander students attended these schools than did White students.

- The percentage of students who were limitedEnglish proficient was higher in high-poverty schools than in low-poverty schools.

The characteristics of principals who work in highpoverty public schools are as follows:

- In 2007-08, approximately 21 percent (or 13,400 ) of all elementary school principals worked in high-poverty schools, compared with 27 percent (or 16,700 ) who worked in low-poverty schools. About 12 percent (or 2,500 ) of all secondary school principals worked in high-poverty schools, while 33 percent (or 7,000 ) worked in low-poverty schools.
- Compared with low-poverty schools, high-poverty elementary and secondary schools employed a larger percentage of Black and Hispanic principals and a smaller percentage of White principals.
- The educational attainment of principals varied by school poverty level among secondary schools but not among elementary schools. In high-poverty secondary schools, the percentage of principals whose highest educational level was an education specialist or professional diploma was smaller than the respective percentage of principals in low-poverty secondary schools.

The characteristics of teachers and support staff who work in high-poverty public schools are as follows:

- In 2007-08, approximately 21 percent (or 410,400 ) of all full-time elementary school teachers taught in high-poverty schools, while 28 percent (or 543,800 ) taught in low-poverty schools. About 8 percent (or 87,100 ) of all full-time secondary school teachers worked in high-poverty schools, compared with 40 percent (or 414,500 ) who worked in low-poverty schools.
- High-poverty elementary and secondary schools employed a greater percentage of Black and Hispanic teachers and a smaller percentage of White teachers than did low-poverty schools.
- Teacher educational attainment and professional certification varied by school poverty levels. For both elementary and secondary schools, a smaller percentage of teachers working in highpoverty schools had a master's degree for their highest education level than teachers working in low-poverty schools.


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- Generally, for both elementary and secondary schools, there were no measurable differences between high- and low-poverty schools in the distribution of school support staff, such as school counselors or other para-professionals.

The outcomes for students who attend high-poverty public schools are as follows:

- On each NAEP assessment given between 1998 and 2009, average reading scores for 4th- and 8th-grade students from high-poverty schools were lower than the scores for students from low-poverty schools.
- On each NAEP assessment given between 2000 and 2009, average mathematics scores for 4th- and 8th-grade students from high-poverty schools were lower than the scores for students from low-poverty schools.
- In 2008, the average NAEP music and visual arts scores for 8th-grade students from high-poverty schools were lower than the scores for 8th-graders from low-poverty schools.

In 2007-08, the average percentage of 12 th-graders who graduated with a diploma during the previous year was lower at high-poverty schools than at low-poverty schools. The percentage of graduates attending a 4-year-college was lower for graduates from high-poverty schools than for graduates from low-poverty schools.

## Section 1: Participation in Education

As the U.S. population increases in size, so does enrollment at all levels of education. Because of mandatory enrollment laws at the elementary and secondary levels, growth is due largely to increases in the size of the school-age population. At the postsecondary level, both population growth and increasing enrollment rates help account for rising enrollments in undergraduate and postbaccalaureate (graduate and first-professional) programs. The cohorts of students have become more diverse over time, with Hispanic students in particular making up increasing proportions of the school-age population. Similarly, enrollment has risen among students who speak a language other than English at home.

- Between 2000 and 2008, rates of enrollment in formal education increased for young adults ages $18-19$ and for adults ages 20-24 and 25-29, the ages at which individuals are typically enrolled in college or graduate school. For children ages 3-4 (typically nursery school ages), the enrollment rate
increased from 20 to 53 percent between 1970 and 2008 and has remained stable (between 52 and 56 percent) since 2000 . For youth ages $7-13$ and 14-15, enrollment rates have remained at nearly 100 percent over the past 38 years, reflecting states' compulsory age requirements for school attendance (indicator 1).
- From 2007-08 to 2019-20, total public school enrollment is projected to increase by 6 percent to 52.3 million students. Enrollment in prekindergarten through grade 8 is projected to reach an estimated high of 37.2 million in 2019-20. Enrollment in grades 9-12 is projected to decline through 2011 and then increase from 2011-12 to 2019-20, surpassing its 2007-08 enrollment by 2019-20. From 2007-08 to 2019-20, the South is projected to increase its share of enrollment to 40 percent (indicator 2).
- Private school enrollment in prekindergarten through grade 12 increased from 5.9 million in 1995-96 to 6.3 million in 2001-2002 and then decreased to 5.9 million in 2007-08. About 11 percent of all elementary and secondary school students were in private schools in 2007-08. While Roman Catholic schools maintained the largest share of total private school enrollment overall from 1995-96 to 2007-08, the percentage of private school students enrolled in nonsectarian schools increased from 20 to 22 percent during this period, and the percentage enrolled in Conservative Christian schools increased from 13 to 15 percent (indicator 3).
- Between 1988 and 2008, the percentage of public school students who were White decreased from 68 to 55 percent. During this period, the percentage of Hispanic students doubled from 11 to 22 percent, and in 2008, Hispanic enrollment exceeded 10 million students. In general, from 1988 to 2008 White enrollment decreased in each region and Hispanic enrollment increased, while Black enrollment remained stable. Asian enrollment increased in the Northeast and Midwest but remained stable in the West and South (indicator 4).
- Between 1979 and 2008, the number of school-age children (children ages 5-17) who spoke a language other than English at home increased from 3.8 to 10.9 million, or from 9 to 21 percent of the population in this age range. The percentage of school-age children who spoke English with difficulty increased from 3 to 6 percent between 1979 and 2000 and then decreased to 5 percent in 2008. Of the school-age children who spoke a language other than English at home and who
spoke English with difficulty, 75 percent (or 2.0 million) spoke Spanish (indicator 5).
- Since the enactment of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1975, the number and percentage of children and youth receiving special education services increased nearly every year until 2004-05. In 1976-77, some 3.7 million children and youth (or about 8 percent of public school enrollment) were served under IDEA. By 2007-08, the number who received services had increased to 6.6 million (or about 13 percent of public school enrollment). Of those who received services, 39 percent received them for a specific learning disability. About 95 percent of the children and youth who received services in 2007-08 were enrolled in regular schools; of those children, the percentage who spent most of their school day in a general class was higher in 2007-08 than in 1989-90 (57 vs. 32 percent) (indicator 6).
- From 2000 to 2008, undergraduate enrollment in postsecondary institutions increased by 24 percent to 16.4 million students, and it is expected to reach 19.0 million students in 2019. In 2008, females accounted for 57 percent and males accounted for 43 percent of enrollment. By 2019, females are expected to account for 59 percent of total undergraduate enrollment. Enrollment in public institutions increased from 10.5 million students in 2000 to 12.6 million in 2008, a 19 percent increase. Private institutions experienced a higher rate of growth during this period: enrollment increased 44 percent, from 2.6 to 3.8 million students. Undergraduate enrollment at 2-year institutions increased from 5.9 to 7.0 million students between 2000 and 2008, while at 4 -year institutions it increased from 7.2 to 9.4 million students (indicator 7 ).
- Postbaccalaureate enrollment was 1.6 million students in 1976; enrollment fluctuated between the mid-1970s to the early 1980s, but since 1983 it has increased every year, reaching 2.7 million students in 2008. Enrollment in postbaccalaureate programs, which include graduate and first-professional programs, is projected to increase through 2019 to 3.4 million students. In 2008, females comprised 59 percent of enrollment and males comprised 41 percent, and in 2019 females and males are expected to respectively comprise 61 and 39 percent of postbaccalaureate enrollment (indicator 8 ).


## Section 2: Learner Outcomes

How well do U.S. students and the American education system perform? Data from national and international assessments of students' academic achievement can
help address this question, as can data on adults' educational experiences and earnings. In areas such as mathematics and reading, the performance of elementary and secondary students has shown some improvement since the assessments were first given, but not for all groups of students or for all grade levels. The association between education and the employment and earnings of adults helps underscore the importance of education for individuals and society.

- Average reading scores assessed by the National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) increased by 4 points each for 4th-graders (from 217 to 221) and for 8th-graders (from 260 to 264) from 1992 to 2009 . At grade 4, the average reading scale score on the 2009 assessment was not measurably different from the average score in 2007 , but was higher than scores on all of the previous assessments since 1992. The percentages of 4th-grade students performing at or above the Basic, at or above the Proficient, and at the Advanced achievement levels showed no measurable change from 2007 to 2009. At grade 8, the 2009 average reading score was 1 point higher than the 2007 score. From 2007 to 2009, the percentages of 8 th-grade students performing at or above Basic and at or above Proficient each increased 1 percentage point, and the percentage performing at Advanced did not measurably change (indicator 9).
- From 2007 to 2009, there were no measurable changes in average National Assessment for Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scores for White, Black, or Hispanic 4th-grade students, but the 2009 scores were higher than those from the assessment years prior to 2007. The 2009 reading achievement gap between White and Black 4th-graders was 26 points, which was not measurably different from the gap in 2007 but was smaller than all other gaps from earlier assessment years. The 4th-grade White-Hispanic gap in 2009 (25 points) was not measurably different from the gap in 2007 or 1992. At grade 8, average reading scores in 2009 for White, Black, and Hispanic students were higher than their scores in 2007. The White-Black achievement gap was 26 points and the White-Hispanic gap was 24 points; neither gap was measurably different from the corresponding gaps in 2007 or 1992 (indicator 10).
- From 1990 to 2009, average mathematics scores assessed by NAEP increased by 27 points for 4th-graders (from 213 to 240 ) and by 20 points for 8th-graders (263 to 283). At grade 4, the average mathematics scale score on the 2009 assessment was unchanged from the score in 2007 , but was higher than scores on all of the previous assessments since 1990. The percentages of 4th-grade students


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performing at or above the Basic, at or above the Proficient, and at the Advanced achievement levels showed no measurable change from 2007 to 2009. The average mathematics score for 8th-graders was higher in 2009 than in any previous assessment year. The percentages of 8th-grade students performing at or above the Basic, at or above the Proficient, and at the Advanced achievement levels all showed increases of 1 to 2 percentage points from 2007 to 2009 (indicator 11).

- From 2007 to 2009, there were no measurable changes in average NAEP mathematics scores for White, Black, or Hispanic 4th-grade students, but the 2009 scores were higher than those from the assessment years prior to 2007. The mathematics achievement gap between White and Black 4th-graders was 26 points, which was not measurably different from the gap in 2007 but smaller than the gap in 1990 ( 32 points). The 4th-grade White-Hispanic gap (21 points) in 2009 was not measurably different from the gap in 2007 or 1990 . At grade 8 , average mathematics scores in 2009 for White, Black, and Hispanic students were higher than scores on any of the previous assessments. The White-Black achievement gap was 32 points in 2009 and the White-Hispanic achievement gap was 26 points; neither gap was measurably different from the corresponding gaps in 2007 or 1990 (indicator 12).
- Long-term trend results from NAEP indicate that the achievement of 9- and 13-year-olds in reading and mathematics improved between the early 1970 s and 2008 ; however, the 2008 reading and mathematics scores of 17 -year-olds were not measurably different from their scores in the early 1970s. In reading, 9-year-olds scored higher in 2008 than in any previous assessment, with an increase of 4 points since 2004 and 12 points since 1971. In mathematics, the average scores of 9 - and 13-year-olds in 2008 were the highest of any assessment year (indicator 13).
- On the 2008 NAEP Arts Assessment, which was given to a sample of 8th-grade public and private school students, 8th-graders in high-poverty schools had responding scores that were 45 points lower in music and 43 points lower in visual arts than the scores for 8th-graders in low-poverty schools. Females scored 10 points higher on average than males in music and 11 points higher in visual arts. White and Asian/Pacific Islander students scored higher than Black and Hispanic students in both music and visual arts (indicator 14).
- The 2007 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) measured three content
domains at grade 4 (number, geometric shapes and measures, and data display) and four at grade 8 (number, algebra, geometry, and data and chance). In 2007, U.S. 4th-graders scored between 22 and 43 points higher than the TIMSS scale average of 500 across the content domains. They outperformed students in more countries in data display than they did in the other content domains. U.S. 8th-graders outperformed peers in the most countries in data and chance and in the fewest countries in geometry. While their average scores in number and data and chance were 10 and 31 points above the TIMSS scale averages of 500, their average score in geometry was 20 points lower than the TIMSS scale average; their average score in algebra was not measurably different from the TIMSS scale average (indicator 15).
- The 2007 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) measured three content domains at grade 4 (life science, physical science, and earth science) and four at grade 8 (biology, chemistry, physics, and earth science). In 2007, U.S. 4th-graders scored between 33 and 40 points higher than the TIMSS scale average of 500 across the content domains. They outperformed students in more countries in life science and physical science than they did in earth science. U.S. 8th-graders outperformed students in more countries in biology and earth science than they did in chemistry and physics. While their average scores in biology, chemistry, and earth science were 10 to 30 points above the TIMSS scale average, their average score in physics was not measurably different from the TIMSS scale average (indicator 16).
- In 2008, among young adults ages 25-34 who worked full time throughout a full year, those with a bachelor's degree earned 28 percent more than young adults with an associate's degree, 53 percent more than young adult high school completers, and 96 percent more than young adults who did not earn a high school diploma. The median of the earnings for young adults with a bachelor's degree was $\$ 46,000$; for those with an associate's degree, $\$ 36,000$; for high school completers, $\$ 30,000$; and for those who did not earn a high school diploma or equivalent certificate, $\$ 23,500$. In 2008, at every educational level, the median of the earnings for young adult males was higher than the median earnings for young adult females; for example, young adult males with a bachelor's degree earned $\$ 53,000$, on average, while their female counterparts earned $\$ 42,000$. In the same year, the median of White young adults' earnings was higher than that of Black and Hispanic young adults' earnings at each educational level, except the level of master's degree or higher, where there were no measurable differences (indicator 17).


## Section 3: Student Effort and Educational Progress

Many factors are associated with a student's persistence and progress toward a high school diploma, college degree, or other credential. Factors such as the student's effort and expectations, parents' educational attainment, and family income are associated with various measures of educational attainment, including graduation and dropout rates, immediate college enrollment rates, and high school and postsecondary degree attainment. Monitoring these factors and tracking educational attainment provide key indicators for describing the progress of students and schooling in the United States.

- In 2006-07, about three-quarters of the 2003-04 freshman class ( 2.9 million students) graduated from high school on time with a regular diploma. This estimate of the percentage of an incoming freshman class that graduates 4 years later is the averaged freshman graduation rate. Vermont had the highest averaged freshman graduation rate, at 88.6 percent, and Nevada had the lowest, at 52.0 percent. Fifteen other states had rates of 80 percent or more, and 11 other states and the District of Columbia had rates below 70 percent. The overall averaged freshman graduation rate increased from 71.7 percent in $2000-01$ to 73.9 percent in 2006-07, but between 2004-05 and 2005-06 it decreased from 74.7 to 73.4 percent (indicator 18).
- The status dropout rate represents the percentage of 16 - through 24-year-olds who are not enrolled in school and have not earned a high school diploma or equivalent credential, such as a General Educational Development (GED) certificate. In 2008, the status dropout rate was 8 percent, down from 14 percent in 1980. In general, dropout rates for Whites, Blacks, and Hispanics each declined between 1980 and 2008, although in each year of that period the status dropout rate was lower for Whites and Blacks than for Hispanics. In 2008, foreign-born Hispanics and Asians dropped out at a higher rate than native-born Hispanics and Asians. For example, the status dropout rate for foreign-born Hispanics was 35 percent, which was higher than the rate of 11 percent for native-born Hispanics. In contrast, foreign-born Whites, Blacks, and persons of two or more races dropped out at a lower rate than their native-born counterparts (indicator 19).
- The rate of college enrollment immediately after high school completion increased from 49 percent in 1972 to 67 percent in 1997 and fluctuated between 62 and 69 percent through 2008. The difference between enrollment rates of high school completers from low- and high-income families fluctuated between 1972 and 2008, but in each year
of this period the rates of high school completers from low-income families trailed those from highincome families by at least 20 percentage points. In 2008, the immediate enrollment rate gap between students from low- and high-income families was 25 percentage points. Differences in the immediate college enrollment rate by race/ethnicity have also persisted over time. For example, enrollment rates of Black and Hispanic high school completers have been lower than the rates of their White peers almost every year since 1985 (indicator 20).
- About 57 percent of first-time students seeking a bachelor's degree or its equivalent and attending a 4 -year institution full time in 2001-02 completed a bachelor's degree or its equivalent at that institution within 6 years. Six-year graduation rates were highest at private not-for-profit 4-year institutions (64 percent), followed by public 4-year institutions (55 percent) and private for-profit 4-year institutions (25 percent). Asian/Pacific Islander students had the highest 6-year graduation rate ( 67 percent), compared with Whites ( 60 percent), Hispanics (48 percent), Blacks (42 percent), and American Indians/Alaska Natives (40 percent) (indicator 21).
- In 2009, some 89 percent of 25 - to 29 -year-olds had received at least a high school diploma or equivalency certificate, 31 percent had attained at least a bachelor's degree, and 7 percent had completed a master's degree or higher. Between 1971 and 2009, the high school completion rate increased from 59 to 89 percent for Blacks and from 48 to 69 percent for Hispanics. The White-Black gap in high school attainment decreased from 23 to 6 percentage points, and the White-Hispanic gap decreased from 33 to 26 percentage points. Although the percentage of young adults with a bachelor's degree increased for all racial/ethnic groups between 1971 and 2009, the White-Black gap in bachelor's degree attainment increased from 12 to 18 percentage points, and the White-Hispanic gap increased from 14 to 25 percentage points (indicator 22).
- Between 1997-98 and 2007-08, the number of degrees earned increased by 34 percent for associate's degrees, by 32 percent for bachelor's degrees, and by 45 percent for master's degrees. The number of degrees earned increased for all racial/ ethnic groups for each type of degree, but at varying rates. For example, the number of bachelor's degrees awarded to White students increased by 25 percent, while the number awarded to Hispanic students increased by 86 percent and the number awarded to Black students increased by 55 percent. In 200708 , females of each racial/ethnic group generally earned more degrees than their male counterparts for each type of degree; for example, Black females


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earned 69 percent of associate's, 66 percent of bachelor's, 72 percent of master's, 63 percent of first-professional, and 66 percent of doctoral degrees awarded to Black students (indicator 23).

## Section 4: Contexts of Elementary and Secondary Education

The school environment is described by a number of features, including the characteristics of teachers, principals, and staff; student/teacher ratios; the racial/ ethnic distribution of students; the poverty level of students; and the climate for learning. Variations in current expenditures and differences in how funds are spent are also important features to consider. Monitoring these and other factors provides a more complete picture of the conditions in schools that can influence education. Society also influences and supports education through means such as learning activities that take place outside of school and financial support.

- Regular public schools comprised 92 percent of public schools in 2007-08; alternative schools for students at risk of school failure ( 6 percent of public schools), special education ( 2 percent), and vocational schools (less than 1 percent) made up the remainder. The distribution of school size differed by school level: only 4 percent of elementary schools had enrollments of 1,000 students or more, compared with 26 percent of secondary schools. The percentage of public schools that were highpoverty increased from 12 percent in 1999-2000 to 17 percent in 2007-08. About 20 percent of elementary and 9 percent of secondary schools were high-poverty schools in 2007-08 (indicator 24).
- In 2007-08, greater percentages of Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native students attended high-poverty schools than did White or Asian/Pacific Islander students. Within high-poverty schools, Hispanics and Blacks represented the greatest shares of enrollment at both the elementary and secondary level. Hispanics represented the highest percentage of students at high-poverty elementary and secondary schools in suburban areas and cities, as well as at high-poverty elementary schools in towns. A greater percentage of Black and White students (31 percent each) attended high-poverty elementary schools in rural areas than did students of all other racial/ethnic groups. Black students also represented the greatest percentage of student enrollment at high-poverty secondary schools located in towns and rural areas (44 and 34 percent, respectively) (indicator 25).
- During the 2007-08 school year, 75 percent of public schools recorded one or more violent
incidents of crime, 17 percent of schools recorded at least one serious violent incident, 47 percent recorded one or more thefts, and 67 percent recorded one or more other incidents. There was variation in the number of incidents of violent and serious violent crimes among schools. For example, 24 percent of schools recorded 20 or more violent incidents, compared with 11 percent that recorded $1-2$ violent incidents. However, the percentage recording 20 or more violent incidents was not measurably different from the percentage recording no violent incidents (indicator 26).

■ In the 2007-08 school year, there were 3.5 million full-time teachers, including 2.1 million elementary school teachers and 1.1 million secondary school teachers. The majority of teachers were female: at the elementary level, 84 percent of public school and 87 percent of private school teachers were female. The percentage of full-time public school teachers who held a degree higher than a bachelor's degree was larger in 2007-08 than in 1999-2000. For example, 49 percent of elementary public school teachers held a degree higher than a bachelor's degree in 2007-08, compared with 43 percent in 1999-2000. In general, public elementary and secondary school teachers had more years of teaching experience in 1999-2000 than they had in 2007-08 (indicator 27).

- In the 2007-08 school year there were approximately 3.7 million teachers, of which close to 3.2 million were continuing teachers and 516,500 were newly hired teachers. These newly hired teachers made up 14 percent of all teachers in the 2007-08 school year. Over half $(277,300)$ of newly hired teachers were teachers who had transferred from another school system; 97,500 teachers came directly into teaching after finishing training; 66,500 teachers had delayed their entry into teaching after completing training; and 75,200 had taught in the past and were reentering the profession. In 2007-08, a higher percentage of continuing teachers held a regular teaching certificate ( 86 percent) than did newly hired teachers in each of the four career paths described above (indicator 28).
- From 1999-2000 to 2007-08, the percentage of public school principals who were female increased from 52 to 59 percent at elementary schools and from 22 to 29 percent at secondary schools; the percentage of private school principals who were female did not measurably change at the elementary or secondary level. The percentage of principals under 40 years old and the percentage 55 years and older each increased at public elementary and secondary schools between 1999-2000 and 2007-

08, while the percentage of principals between 45 and 54 years old decreased. For example, 10 percent of elementary school principals were under 40 years old in 1999-2000, compared with 19 percent in 2007-08. Principals were also less experienced in 2007-08 than in 1999-2000: 10 percent of principals had 20 or more years of experience in 1999-2000, compared with 5 percent in 2007-08 (indicator 29).

- In 2007-08, public schools employed approximately 5.8 million staff: 3.7 million were in elementary schools and close to 1.8 million were in secondary schools. Professional instructional staff—principals, teachers, instructional coordinators and supervisors, librarians/library media specialists, and school counselors-accounted for 63 percent of public elementary school staff, with teachers making up 56 percent of all elementary school staff. Greater percentages of staff at public secondary schools were professional instructional staff than at public elementary schools. In terms of school enrollment size, in 2007-08, the percentages of staff that were professional instructional staff were consistently higher for larger elementary schools than for smaller elementary schools (indicator 30).
- The ratio of students to teachers, which is sometimes used as a proxy measure for class size, declined between 1990-91 and 2007-08, from 17.6 to 15.8 students per teacher for all regular public schools. In every year during this period, the student/teacher ratios tended to be higher in public schools with larger enrollments than in those with smaller enrollments. For example, in 2007-08, regular public secondary schools with 1,500 or more students enrolled, on average, 6.1 more students per teacher than regular public secondary schools with enrollments under 300 students (indicator 31).
- The number of charter schools in the United States increased from 1,500 in 1999-2000 to 4,400 in 2007-08. In 2007-08, about 54 percent of charter schools were elementary schools, and secondary and combined schools accounted for 27 and 19 percent of charter schools. More than half of charter schools ( 55 percent) were located in cities in 2007-08, with 22 percent in suburban areas, 8 percent in towns, and 15 percent in rural areas. This distribution differed from that of all public schools: 26 percent of all public schools were located in cities; 28 percent, in suburban areas; 14 percent, in towns; and 31 percent, in rural areas. From 1999-2000 to 2007-08, the number of students enrolled in charter schools in the United States more than tripled, increasing from 340,000 to 1.3 million students (indicator 32).
- From 1989-90 to 2006-07, total elementary and secondary public school revenue increased from $\$ 353$ to $\$ 584$ billion (a 66 percent increase in 2008-09 constant dollars). Federal revenue increased by 130 percent, state revenue increased by 67 percent, and local revenue increased by 56 percent. During this period, the percentage of total revenue for public elementary and secondary education that came from local sources declined (from 47 to 44 percent), while the percentage of total revenue flowing to public schools from federal sources increased (from 6 to 8 percent). The percentage from state sources was 47 percent in 1989-90 and 48 percent in 2006-07 (indicator 33).
- From 1989-90 to 2006-07, total expenditures per student in public elementary and secondary schools rose from $\$ 8,748$ to $\$ 11,839$ (a 35 percent increase in 2008-09 constant dollars), with most of the increase occurring after 1997-98. The various components of expenditures increased at different rates during this time period. Spending on interest on school debt per student increased the most, at a rate of 100 percent, followed by capital outlay ( 81 percent) and current expenditures ( 30 percent) (indicator 34).
- Across U.S. districts, the total variation in instruction expenditures per student decreased between school years 1989-90 and 1997-98, but increased each year from 1997-98 through 200607. In 2006-07, it was greater than it was in the early 1990s. Variations in instruction expenditures due to both between- and within-state differences increased from 1997-98 through 2006-07 (indicator 35).
- Between 1995-96 and 2006-07, current expenditures per student in public elementary and secondary schools increased by 29 percent in 2008-09 constant dollars. Current expenditures per student, which include instructional, administrative, and operation and maintenance expenditures, were $\$ 9,991$. They were highest in high-poverty districts $(\$ 10,978)$ and low-poverty districts ( $\$ 10,850$ ) and lowest in middle-poverty districts $(\$ 9,181)$. Expenditures increased the most for high-poverty and middle high-poverty districts ( 35 and 32 percent, respectively) and the least for low-poverty districts ( 26 percent) (indicator 36).
- In 2007-08, some 61 percent of teachers worked in districts where at least one pay incentive, such as a cash bonus or a salary increase, was offered. Forty-six percent of teachers worked in districts where a pay incentive was offered for obtaining National Board for Professional Teaching Standards


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Certification (NBPTS); 30 percent worked in districts where a pay incentive was offered as a way to recruit or retain teachers for positions in fields with teacher shortages; 15 percent worked in districts where a pay incentive was offered for excellence in teaching; and another 15 percent of teachers worked in districts where a pay incentive was offered for recruiting or retaining teachers to teach in less desirable locations. A greater percentage of teachers in city schools than in suburban, town, and rural schools were offered a pay incentive. For example, 28 percent of teachers in city schools were offered incentives for demonstrating excellence, which was higher than the 6 to 13 percent of teachers employed in other locale types who were offered that incentive (indicator 37).

- In 2006, U.S. expenditures per student at the postsecondary level were $\$ 25,109$, more than twice as high as the average of $\$ 12,336$ for the member countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) who reported data. At the combined elementary and secondary level, the United States spent $\$ 10,267$ per student, which was 41 percent higher than the OECD average of $\$ 7,283$. In 2006, the OECD countries that spent the highest percentage of their gross domestic product (GDP) on total education expenditures were Iceland, the United States, Denmark, and Republic of Korea. At the postsecondary level, the United States spent 2.9 percent of its GDP on education, the highest percentage of all the OECD countries reporting data (indicator 38).


## Section 5: Contexts of Postsecondary Education

The postsecondary education system encompasses various types of institutions under public, private not-for-profit, and private for-profit control. Indicators in this section include the racial/ethnic distribution of college students, student fields of study and degree attainment by institution type, trends in studying abroad, faculty compensation and benefits, and the total cost of postbaccalaureate education.

- In 2008, some 63 percent of college students were White, 14 percent were Black, 12 percent were Hispanic, 7 percent were Asian/Pacific Islander, 1 percent were American Indian/Alaska Native, and 3 percent were students from other countries. Compared with Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native students, a relatively high percentage of Black students (12 percent) attended colleges where Blacks constituted

75 percent or more of the enrollment. A smaller percentage of Hispanic students ( 6 percent) attended colleges where their racial/ethnic group constituted 75 percent or more of the enrollment. (indicator 39).

- From 1987-88 to 2007-08, the number of U.S. students studying abroad rose steadily, from 62,300 to 262,400 students. In 2007-08, an estimated 15 out of every 100 students in a bachelor's degree program studied abroad during their undergraduate careers. Some 56 percent of all U.S. students who studied abroad studied in Europe in 2007-08, compared with 64 percent who did so in 1997-98 and 75 percent in 1987-88. After Europe, Latin America hosted the greatest percentage of American students ( 15 percent) in 2007-08, followed by Asia (11 percent) and Oceania and Africa ( 5 percent each). Among U.S. study abroad students in 2007-08, social sciences, business and management, and humanities were the top three fields of study (indicator 40).
- Of the 1.6 million bachelor's degrees awarded in 2007-08, over 50 percent were concentrated in five fields: business ( 21 percent), social sciences and history ( 11 percent), education ( 7 percent), health professions and related clinical sciences ( 7 percent), and psychology ( 6 percent). Overall, from 1997-98 to 2007-08 there was a 32 percent increase in the number of bachelor's degrees conferred. In addition, in 2007-08, about 57 percent of all bachelor's degrees conferred were awarded to females; females also earned between 49 and 85 percent of all degrees awarded in the five most prevalent bachelor's degree fields (indicator 41).
- In 2007-08, of the 625,000 master's degrees awarded, over 50 percent were concentrated in two fields: education ( 28 percent) and business ( 25 percent). Women earned 77 and 45 percent, respectively, of all degrees awarded in those two fields. Overall, 194,900 more master's degrees were awarded in 2007-08 than in 1997-98 (a 45 percent increase). During this period, the number of doctoral degrees awarded increased by 38 percent and the number awarded to women increased by 68 percent. Between 1997-98 and 2007-08, there was a 16 percent increase in the number of first-professional degrees awarded and a 35 percent increase in the number awarded to women. The field of pharmacy saw the greatest percent increase (199 percent) in the number of degrees awarded (indicator 42).
- Between 1997-98 and 2007-08, the number of degrees conferred by private for-profit institutions increased by a larger percentage than the number
conferred by public and private not-for-profit institutions; this was true for all types of degrees. For example, during this period the number of bachelor's degrees conferred by public and private not-for-profit institutions increased by 27 percent for both types of institutions, while the number conferred by private for-profit institutions quadrupled. In addition, the number of master's degrees conferred by private for-profit institutions increased eight-fold, resulting in an increase in their share of total master's degrees conferred (indicator 43).
- Average inflation-adjusted salaries for full-time instructional faculty with academic ranks in colleges and universities were 24 percent higher in 2008-09 than in 1979-80. The increase was greatest for instructors, whose average salary increased by 46 percent, followed by professors, whose average salary increased by 30 percent. The average faculty salary was higher in 2008-09 than in 1979-80 at most types of institutions, with increases ranging from 9 percent at public 2 -year colleges to 41 percent at private doctoral universities. In the more recent period from 19992000 to 2008-09, average faculty salaries increased by 4 percent. In 2008-09, the average faculty salary was $\$ 73,600$, with institutional averages ranging from $\$ 43,500$ at private 2 -year colleges to $\$ 97,700$ at private doctoral universities (indicator 44).
- The percentage of full-time college students ages 16-24 who were employed increased from 34 to 52 percent between 1970 and 2000, decreased to 47 percent in 2001, but did not change measurably from 2001 through 2008. In addition, the number of hours these students worked per week has increased since 1970. In 1970, about 4 percent of full-time students worked 35 or more hours per week, but between 2000 and 2007 that percentage fluctuated between 8 and 9 percent. In contrast to the increase among full-time college students, there was no measurable change in the percentage of part-time college students who were employed between 1970 and 2008. Part-time college students worked fewer hours in 2008 than they did in 1970 (indicator 45).
- From 1999-2000 to 2007-08, the percentage of full-time, full-year undergraduates who received federal grants, available to those who qualify by income, increased from 31 to 33 percent, while the percentage with federal loans increased from 44 to 50 percent. In 2007-08, about 80 percent of low-income dependent undergraduates received federal grants, compared with 15 percent of middleincome and less than 1 percent of high-income undergraduates. The percentage of middle-income undergraduates who took out loans in 2007-08 (49 percent) was not measurably different from
that of low-income undergraduates ( 51 percent), but higher percentages of low- and middle-income undergraduates took out loans than did highincome undergraduates ( 35 percent) (indicator 46).
- For full-time, full-year, dependent undergraduates, the total price of education was higher in 2007-08 than in 1999-2000 at all institutions. Many students and families receive financial aid to help cover their expenses, usually in the form of grants and loans. The net price of education is calculated as the total price of attendance (the cash outlay, including loans, that is needed to cover educational expenses) minus grants. After adjusting for inflation, the net price of attendance was higher in 2007-08 than in 2003-04 for students at public 2and 4 -year institutions and at private not-for-profit 4 -year institutions. For low-income students at all institutions, however, the net price of attendance was not significantly higher in 2007-08 than in 2003-04 (indicator 47).
- In 2007-08, the average total price for 1 year of full-time graduate education ranged from $\$ 31,300$ for a master's degree program at a public institution to $\$ 58,000$ for a first-professional degree program at a private not-for-profit institution. For all degree programs, the average total price of attending a graduate program was greater in 2007-08 than in 2003-04. Most full-time graduate students receive some type of financial aid, such as grants and assistantships (awarded on a discretionary basis); subsidized, unsubsidized, or private loans; or tuition assistance from their employer. Some 85 percent of full-time students at the master's level, 88 percent at the first-professional level, and 93 percent at the doctoral level received some type of aid in 2007-08 (indicator 48).
- In 2007-08, student tuition accounted for 18 percent of the total revenue for public institutions, 36 percent for private not-for-profit institutions, and 87 percent for private for-profit institutions. State appropriations ( 25 percent) were the largest source of revenue for public institutions, while tuition and fees ( 18 percent) were the second largest source. In 2007-08, instruction was the largest expenditure category for both public and private not-for-profit institutions. At private for-profit institutions, the largest single expenditure category was a group made up of student services and academic and institutional support (indicator 49).


## Conclusion

Overall, progress on national assessments in reading and mathematics has been made among 4th- and 8th-graders since the early 1990 s. On both mathematics and reading

## Commissioner's Statement

assessments, significant achievement gaps among racial/ ethnic groups remain, though the mathematics and reading gaps between White and Black 4th-graders have narrowed since the assessments were first given. Other measures of progress showing improvement are the status dropout rate, which has declined among students in all racial/ethnic groups, and rates of postsecondary degree attainment, which have increased for Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaska Native students.

It is important to examine how outcomes on measures of progress differ among students of varying poverty levels. On the 2009 national reading and mathematics assessments, the percentages of 4th- and 8th-graders from high-poverty schools performing at or above the Basic, at or above the Proficient, and at the Advanced achievement levels were lower than the respective percentages of 4th- and 8th-graders from low-poverty schools. In 2007-08, 12-graders attending high-poverty schools were less likely than those attending low-poverty schools to graduate with a diploma during the previous year, and graduates from high-poverty schools were less likely than graduates from low-poverty schools to attend a 4-year college.

Enrollment in U.S. schools is expected to continue growing in the coming years. From 2007 through 2019, public elementary and secondary education enrollment is projected to increase to 52 million students; the South is expected to experience the largest increase in the number of students enrolled. Undergraduate enrollment is expected to increase from 16.4 million students in 2008 to 19.0 million in 2019. Enrollment in postbaccalaureate programs is projected to increase through 2019 to 3.4 million students.

These increases in enrollment have been accompanied by a growing diversity of students. Between 1988 and 2008, the percentage of public school students who were White decreased from 68 to 55 percent, while the percentage of public school students who were Hispanic doubled from 11 percent to 22 percent. In 2007-08, greater percentages of Hispanic, Black, and American Indian/Alaska Native students attended high-poverty elementary and secondary schools than did White or Asian/Pacific Islander students.

NCES produces an array of reports each year that present findings about the U.S. education system. The Condition of Education 2010 is the culmination of a yearlong project. It includes data that were available by April 2010. In the coming months, other reports and surveys informing the nation about education will be released. Along with the indicators in this volume, NCES intends these surveys and reports to help inform policymakers and the American public about trends and conditions in U.S. education.


Deputy Commissioner
National Center for Education Statistics

The Condition of Education is available in two forms: this print volume for 2010 and a Web version on the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) website (http:// nces.ed.gov/programs/coe). The Web version includes the following: the 2010 Commissioner's statement, a user's guide, special analyses from 2000 through 2010, all indicators from this edition, and selected indicators from earlier editions of The Condition of Education. (See page xxix for a list of all the indicators that appear on The Condition of Education website.)

The print volume of The Condition of Education 2010 consists of five sections of indicators, as well as an additional "special section" that examines high-poverty schools using data drawn from various indicators in the volume. Each section begins with a summary of the general topic areas covered by the indicators in the section. Each indicator consists of a page with key findings and technical notes, one or two figures and/or tables on the adjacent page, and one or more supplemental tables, found in appendix $A$. The supplemental tables feature the estimates used in the indicator discussion as well as additional estimates related to the indicator. Where applicable, tables of standard errors for estimate tables are available on the Web (http://nces.ed.gov/programs/ coe). Additional information on data sources, analyses conducted, and definitions of variables and measures can be found in the supplemental notes in appendix $B$. Finally, a glossary of key terms, a bibliography, and an index are featured in appendices $C-E$.

This icon on the main indicator page lists references for related indicators, supplemental tables, glossary terms, and other sources that provide more information relating to the indicator. Indicators use the most recent national and international data available from either NCES or other sources that are relevant to the indicator. When the source is an NCES publication, such as the Digest of Education Statistics 2009 (NCES 2010-013), the publication can be viewed on the NCES website (http:// nces.ed.gov/pubsearch).

## Data Sources and Estimates

The data in this report were obtained from many different sources-including students and teachers, state education agencies, local schools, and colleges and universitiesusing surveys and compilations of administrative records. Users of The Condition of Education should be cautious when comparing data from different sources. Differences in aspects such as procedures, timing, question phrasing, and interviewer training can affect the comparability of results across data sources.

Most indicators in The Condition of Education summarize data from surveys conducted by NCES or by the Census Bureau with support from NCES. Brief explanations of the major NCES surveys used in this edition of The

Condition of Education can be found in supplemental notes 3 and 4 of this volume. More detailed explanations can be obtained on the NCES website (http://nces.ed.gov) under "Surveys and Programs." Information about the Current Population Survey (CPS), another frequent source of survey data used in The Condition of Education, can be found in supplemental note 2 and at http://www.census. gov/cps/.

Data for indicators reported in this volume are obtained primarily from two types of surveys: universe surveys and sample surveys. Some indicators report data taken from entire populations (universe surveys), such as indicator 36 (Public School Expenditures by District Poverty). With this type of survey, information is collected from every member of the population. For example, data for indicator 36 were obtained from each school district in the United States. When data from an entire population are available, estimates of the total population or a subpopulation are made by simply summing the units in the population or subpopulation. A universe survey is usually expensive and time consuming, so researchers often opt to collect data from a sample of the population of interest (sample survey). Other indicators report data from sample surveys, such as indicator 9 (Reading Performance). Indicator 9 reports information from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), which assesses a representative sample of students rather than the entire population of students. When a sample survey is used, statistical uncertainty is introduced because data come from only a portion of the entire population. This statistical uncertainty must be considered when reporting estimates and making comparisons.

Various types of estimates derived from universe and sample surveys are reported in The Condition of Education. Many indicators report the size of a population or a subpopulation, and often the size of a subpopulation is expressed as a percentage of the total population. In addition, the average (or mean) values of some characteristic of the population or subpopulation may be reported. The average is obtained by summing the values for all members of the population and dividing the sum by the size of the population. An example is the annual average salaries of full-time instructional faculty at degree-granting institutions (indicator 44). Another population measure that is sometimes used is the median. The median is the value of a population characteristic at or above which 50 percent of the population is estimated to fall and at or below which 50 percent of the population is estimated to fall. An example is the median annual earnings of young adults who are full-time, full-year wage and salary workers (indicator 17).

Estimates based on universe and sample survey data may be affected by a wide range of potential data collection errors, such as coverage errors, response errors, data coding errors, and data entry errors. Estimates of the size of these types of errors are typically not available.

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

## Standard Errors

When data from sample surveys are reported, as is the case with most of the indicators in The Condition of Education, the standard error is calculated for each estimate. The standard errors for all estimated totals, means, medians, or percentages reported in the supplemental tables of The Condition of Education can be viewed on the NCES website (http://nces.ed.gov/ programs/coe).

The standard errors of the estimates for different subpopulations in an indicator can vary. As an illustration, indicator 13 reports the average mathematics scores of 13 -year-old students between 1973 and 2008. In both 1994 and 1996, the average mathematics score for 13 -year-olds was 274 (see table A-13-2). In contrast to the similarity of these scores, the standard errors for these estimates were 0.9 and 1.0 , respectively (see table S-13-2). The average score with the smaller standard error provides a more reliable approximation of the true value than the average score with a higher standard error. In addition, standard errors tend to diminish in size as the size of the sample (or subsample) increases.

For indicator 17 , which reports median annual earnings, special procedures are followed for computing the standard errors for these medians. See appendix $G$ of the source and accuracy statement for the Current Population Study (CPS) 2009 Annual Social and Economic supplement (ASEC) for information on how to calculate the standard errors (http://www.census.gov/apsd/techdoc/ cps/cpsmar09.pdf).

## Data Analysis and Interpretation

When estimates are from a sample, caution is warranted when drawing conclusions about the size of one population estimate in comparison to another, or about whether a time series of population estimates is increasing, decreasing, or staying about the same. Although one estimate may be larger than another, a statistical test may find that there is no measurable difference between the two estimates because of the standard error associated with one or both of the estimates. Whether differences in means or percentages are statistically significant can be determined using the standard errors of the estimates.

Readers who wish to compare two sample estimates to see if there is a statistical difference will need to estimate the precision of the difference between the two sample estimates. This would be necessary if one wanted to compare, for example, the mean proficiency scores between groups assessed in the National Assessment of Educational Progress. To estimate the precision of the difference between two sample estimates, one must find the standard error of the difference between the two sample estimates ( $E_{A}$ and $E_{B}$ ). Expressed mathematically, the difference between the two is $E_{A}-E_{B}$. The standard error of the difference ( $s e_{A-B}$ ) can be calculated by taking the square root of the sum of the two standard errors associated with each of the two sample estimates ( $s e_{A}$ and $\left.s e_{B}\right)$ after each has been squared. This relationship can be expressed as

$$
s e_{A-B}=\sqrt{s e_{A}^{2}+s e_{B}^{2}}
$$

After finding the standard error of the difference, one divides the difference between the two sample estimates by this standard error to determine the "t value" or " $t$ statistic" of the difference between the two estimates. This $t$ statistic measures the precision of the difference between two independent sample estimates. The formula for calculating this ratio is expressed mathematically as

$$
t=\frac{E_{A}-E_{B}}{s e_{A-B}}
$$

Assuming a normal distribution, the next step is to compare this $t$ statistic to 1.96 , the statistically determined value for making a decision at a 95 percent confidence level as to whether there is a statistical difference between two estimates. A 95 percent confidence level means that if a test is conducted 100 times, only 5 times out of 100 would it be expected that the difference between the two sample estimates ( $E_{A}$ and
$\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{B}}$ ) is due to chance alone. Therefore, if the $t$ statistic is greater than 1.96, then there is evidence that a difference exists between the two populations. If the $t$ statistic is equal to or less than 1.96 , then there is less certainty that the observed difference is a real difference and is not simply due to sampling error. This level of certitude, or significance, is commonly referred to as the " 05 level of (statistical) significance."

As an example of a comparison made between two sample estimates to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the estimates, consider the data on the performance of 4th-grade students in the 1992 and 2009 NAEP reading assessments (see table A-9-1). The average scale score in 1992 was 217 and the average scale score in 2009 was 221 . Is the difference of 4 scale points between these two different samples statistically significant? The standard errors of these estimates are 0.9 and 0.3 , respectively (see table S-9-1). Using the formula above, the standard error of the difference is 0.97 . The $t$ statistic of the difference between the two sample estimates (the estimated difference of 4 scale points divided by the standard error of the difference) is 4.32 . This value is greater than 1.96 -the critical value of the $t$ distribution for a .05 level of significance with a large sample. Thus, one can conclude that there was a statistically significant difference in the reading performance of 4th-graders between 1992 and 2009 and that the reading score for 4 th-graders in 2009 was higher than the reading score for 4th-graders in 1992.

For all indicators in The Condition of Education that report estimates based on samples, differences between estimates (including increases or decreases) are stated only when they are statistically significant. To determine whether differences reported are statistically significant, two-tailed $t$ tests at the .05 level are typically used. The $t$ test formula for determining statistical significance is adjusted when the samples being compared are dependent. The $t$ test formula is not adjusted when performing multiple comparisons. When the difference between estimates is not statistically significant, tests of equivalence are often used. An equivalence test determines the probability (generally at the .15 level) that the estimates are statistically equivalent, that is, within the margin of error that the two estimates are not substantively different. When the estimates are found to be equivalent, language such as " $x$ " and " $y$ " "were similar" or "about the same" has been used; otherwise, the data will be described as having "no measurable difference." When the variables to be tested are postulated to form a trend, the relationship may be tested using linear regression, logistic regression, or ANOVA trend analysis instead of a series of $t$ tests. These alternate methods of analysis test for specific relationships (e.g., linear, quadratic, or cubic) among variables.

A number of considerations influence the ultimate selection of the data years that are featured in The Condition of Education. To make analyses as timely as possible, the latest year of data is shown if it is available during report production. The choice of comparison years is often also based on the need to show the earliest available survey year, as in the case of the NAEP and the international assessment surveys. In the case of surveys with long time frames, such as surveys measuring enrollment, the decade's beginning year (e.g., 1980 or 1990) often starts the trend line. In the figures and tables of the indicators, intervening years are selected in increments in order to show the general trend. The narrative for the indicators typically compares the most current year's data with those from the initial year and then with those from a more recent period. Where applicable, the narrative may also note years in which the data begin to diverge from previous trends.

## Variations in Population

In considering the estimates shown in the tables and figures in this volume and on the NCES website, it is important to keep in mind that there may be considerable variation among the members of a population in the characteristic or variable represented by the population estimate. For example, the estimated average mathematics score of U.S. 4th-graders in 2009 was 240 (see table A-11-1). In reality, many U.S. students scored above 240 points, and many scored below 240 points. Likewise, not all faculty salaries, benefits, and total compensation at postsecondary institutions were the same at each type of institution in 2008-09 (indicator 44). Because of this variation, there may be considerable overlap among the members of the two populations that are being compared. Although the difference in the estimated means of the two populations may be statistically significant, many members of the population with the lower estimated mean may actually be above the estimated mean of the other population, and vice versa. For example, there may be a percentage of young adults with a high school diploma or equivalent that have higher earnings than young adults with a bachelor's degree or higher (indicator 17). The extent of such overlap is not generally considered in the indicators in this volume. Estimates of the extent of variation in such population characteristics can be computed from the NCES survey datasets or are available in published reports. For example, estimates of the variation in students' assessment scores can be found using the NAEP Data Explorer at http://nces.ed.gov/ nationsreportcard/nde/ or in the appendices to most NAEP reports.

## Rounding and Other Considerations

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

Indicators in this volume that use the Consumer Price Index (CPI) use a base academic year of 2008-09 and a base calendar year of 2008 for constant dollar calculations. For more information on the CPI, see supplemental note 10 .

## Race and ethnicity

The categories denoting race and ethnicity in The Condition of Education are in accordance with the 1997 Office of Management and Budget (OMB) standard classification scheme. These classifications are based primarily on the respondent's self-identification, as is the case with data collected by the U.S. Census Bureau, or, in rare instances, on observer identification. Under the OMB standards, race and ethnicity are considered separate concepts. "Hispanic or Latino" is an ethnicity category, not a racial category. Race categories presented in The Condition of Education 2010 exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity; thus, the race/ethnicity categories are mutually exclusive.

Ethnicity is categorized as follows:

- Hispanic or Latino: A person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race.

Racial groupings are as follows:

- American Indian or Alaska Native: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America) who maintains tribal affiliation or community attachment.
- Asian: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, and the Indian subcontinent: for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Thailand, and Vietnam.
- Black: A person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa.
- Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands.
- White: A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, North Africa, or the Middle East.
- Two or more races: A person who selected two or more of the following racial categories when offered the option of selecting one or more racial designations: White, Black, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, or American Indian or Alaska Native.

In The Condition of Education, the following terms are typically used to represent the above categories: White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian/Alaska Native, and Two or more races. Not all categories are shown in all indicators. For more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1 .

## Symbols

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

- $\quad$ Not available. Data were not collected or not reported.
$\dagger \quad$ Not applicable. Category does not exist.
\# Rounds to zero. The estimate rounds to zero.
! Interpret data with caution. Estimates are unstable.
$\ddagger \quad$ Reporting standards not met. Did not meet reporting standards.
* $\quad p<.05$ Significance level. ${ }^{1}$


## Notes

${ }^{1}$ This level of significance means that the chance is less than 5 out of 100 that a difference was found between two estimates when no real difference exists.

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# Special Section High-Poverty Schools 

## Special Section High-Poverty Schools

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## Introduction

The Elementary and Secondary School Act of 1965 constituted an important educational component of the "War on Poverty" launched by President Lyndon B. Johnson. Through special funding (Title I), it allocated resources to school systems to meet the needs of educationally disadvantaged children. Since 1965 there has been an expansion of federal education programs, as well as a wide variety of state and local initiatives, that target resources for disadvantaged students. Many of these programs address the needs of schools and districts with high concentrations of poverty, as evidence has emerged that the level of poverty in a school can affect academic outcomes (Rumberger, 2007).

This special section of The Condition of Education 2010 uses a subset of the indicators in the full report to present a descriptive profile of high-poverty schools and their students and to compare them to low-poverty schools and their students. The school poverty measure used throughout is the percentage of a school's enrollment that is eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) through the National School Lunch Program (NSLP). High-poverty schools are those where 76-100 percent of students are eligible for FRPL and low-poverty schools are those where $0-25$ percent of students are eligible. Twenty percent of public elementary schools and 9 percent of public secondary schools in the United States are highpoverty using this definition (see table A-24-1). These high-poverty schools educate approximately 6 million elementary school students and 1 million secondary school students.

The special section describes high-poverty schools in terms of their characteristics, staffing, and students in relation to their low-poverty counterparts. The special section is organized into three general areas, each of which presents data from various sources and examines different questions.

Part I describes the characteristics of high-poverty schools and the students who attend them and addresses the following questions:

- What types of schools are high-poverty schools?
- Where are high-poverty schools located?
- What are the characteristics of the students who attend high-poverty schools?

Part II describes the principals, teachers, and support staff who work in high-poverty schools and addresses the following questions:

- What are the characteristics of principals working in high-poverty schools?
- What are the characteristics of teachers working in high-poverty schools?
- What are the characteristics of support staff working in high-poverty schools?

Part III describes the outcomes of students who attend high-poverty schools and addresses the following questions:

- How do students in high-poverty schools perform on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) assessments?
- What are the high school graduation rates for highpoverty schools?
- What are the college enrollment rates for highpoverty schools?

Throughout the special section, high-poverty schools are compared with low-poverty schools. In order to cover the breadth of material in the limited space of this special section, the middle two FRPL quarters (26-50 and 51-75 percent) are not usually discussed. The complete poverty distribution, however, is provided in each table. This special section is limited to elementary and secondary schools. Due to the low number of combined elementary/ secondary schools (schools where grade spans include both elementary and secondary grades) these schools are not discussed separately, but are included in national totals. It is important to note that the purpose of this special section is to provide descriptive information by bringing together indicators found throughout The Condition of Education report; thus, complex interactions, relationships across variables, and causality have not been explored here.

## High-Poverty Schools

## Technical Note: Measuring the Concentration of Student Poverty in Schools

The National School Lunch Program (NSLP), in the U.S. Department of Agriculture, oversees the national free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) program (http://www. fns.usda.gov/cnd/Lunch/AboutLunch/NSLPFactSheet. pdf). Children from families with incomes at or below 130 percent of the poverty level are eligible for free meals. Those from families with incomes that are above 130 and up to 185 percent of the poverty level are eligible for reduced-price meals (Ralston et al. 2008). For 2009-10, the income of a family of four at 130 percent of the poverty level was $\$ 28,665$, and the income of a family of four at 185 percent of the poverty level was $\$ 40,793$.

FRPL is commonly used to measure school poverty because (1) it is found consistently across survey collections (unlike other measures such as household income); (2) at the district level, it has a strong correlation with district poverty; and (3) at the student level it is correlated with measures of socioeconomic status (SES) reported at the student/household level (Ensminger et al. 2000).

For this report, the basis for the measurement of the concentration of student poverty in a school is the percentage of a school's enrollment that is either eligible for or actually enrolled in the FRPL program, depending on the data source used. Data from the Common Core of Data (CCD), a comprehensive, annual, national collection of data on all public elementary and secondary schools and school districts, are based on district-level submissions of the number of students who are eligible for the program. The Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), a sample survey of American schools that provides data on school staffing and other conditions in schools, asks principals, "Around the first of October, how many students at this school were approved for free or reducedprice lunches?" Data from the School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS), a national, cross-sectional survey of public elementary and secondary schools that collects information on crime and safety, asked principals to
report "the percentage of their current students that are eligible for free or reduced-price lunch." Data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) are based on a survey given to principals in the participating schools. The survey asks principals "about what percentage of students in your school was eligible to receive a free or reduced-price lunch through the National School Lunch Program?" with nine categories to select from: 0 percent, $1-5$ percent, $6-10$ percent, $11-25$ percent, $26-34$ percent, $35-50$ percent, $51-75$ percent, 76-99 percent, and 100 percent. For consistency, the term eligible is used throughout this section to describe the students who are reported.

As enrollment is voluntary (Entwisle and Astone 1994; Ralston et al. 2008), enrollment may be lower for eligible older students who have greater feelings of stigma associated with FRPL, greater feelings of independence, and more complaints about food quality and choices (Glantz et al. 1994). Due to the inherent difficulty in identifying students who may be eligible for FRPL, but are not enrolled, it is likely that, regardless of the source, the data reflect enrolled students.

The FRPL measure for school concentration of students from low-income families is constructed using absolute thresholds at $0-25$ percent, $26-50$ percent, $51-75$ percent, and 76-100 percent. Separate findings are reported for elementary schools and for secondary schools given the systematic differences in FRPL rates and school level. A small percentage of schools either did not report the number of students eligible for FRPL or do not participate in the program. For CCD, SASS, and SSOCS data, schools in this category are counted in the totals, but not always shown separately in tables in the full report. For NAEP, which may have schools that do not participate in the program, but does not have missing school level data due to extensive data collection efforts for those schools in the NAEP sample, schools in this category are included in the low-poverty category ( $0-25$ percent).

## Part I. High-Poverty Schools and the Students Who Attend Them

## What types of schools are high-poverty schools?

In 2007-08, there were 16,122 schools that were considered high-poverty schools (see table A-24-1). That is, in these schools, $76-100$ percent of the student enrollment was eligible for free or reduced-price meals. The percentage of high-poverty schools increased from 12 percent in 1999-2000 to 17 percent in 2007-08. There is some evidence that this increase was at least partly due to increased program participation rates, since from 1999 to 2007 the overall poverty rate for children under 18 increased by a smaller amount, from 17 to 18 percent (NCES-2010-013, table 21).

The percentage of high-poverty schools varied by school level in 2007-08, as 20 percent of all public elementary schools ( 12,971 schools) were high-poverty, compared with 9 percent of secondary schools $(2,142)$ and 18 percent of combined schools $(1,009)$. High-poverty elementary schools were primarily regular schools (98
percent); special education schools (schools that serve children with disabilities) and alternative schools (schools that serve students at risk for school failure) each made up 1 percent or less of high-poverty elementary schools (see table A-24-2). The distribution of school types for low-poverty elementary schools was similar to the distribution for high-poverty elementary schools.

Compared to both high- and low-poverty elementary schools, high- and low-poverty secondary schools included larger percentages of special education and alternative schools. Among high-poverty secondary schools, 73 percent were classified as regular schools, 22 percent were alternative schools, 4 percent were special education schools, and 2 percent were vocational schools (schools that provide technical or career training). Among low-poverty secondary schools, about 83 percent were classified as regular schools, 14 percent were alternative schools, 2 percent were vocational schools, and 1 percent were special education schools.

Figure 1. Percentage distribution of secondary public school types, by percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): School year 2007-08


[^0]
## Charter Schools

A greater percentage of high-poverty public schools than low-poverty public schools were charter schools. A charter school is a school that provides free public education to students under a specific charter granted by the state legislature or other appropriate authority. At the elementary level, 5 percent of high-poverty and 3 percent of low-poverty schools were charter schools (see table A-24-2). Ten percent of high-poverty public secondary schools were charter schools, compared with 3 percent of low-poverty schools. From 1999-2000 to 2007-08, the percentage of charter schools that were high-poverty increased from 13 to 23 percent, while the percentage that were low-poverty declined from 37 to 21 percent (see table A-32-1).

## Title I Schools

Title I schools are eligible to receive supplemental federal funds to assist in meeting the educational needs of at-risk students. Thus, it would be expected that a greater percentage of high-poverty public schools are eligible to participate in the federal Title I program for disadvantaged students than are lower-poverty public schools (see table A-24-2). This was the case for both elementary and secondary schools in 2007-08: about 97 percent of high-poverty elementary schools were identified as Title I schools, compared with 38 percent of low-poverty elementary schools, and 78 percent of highpoverty secondary schools were Title I schools, compared with 26 percent of low-poverty secondary schools.

Figure 2. Percentage of public schools identified as Title I schools, by school level and percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): School year 2007-08


NOTE: Detail may not sum to total due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," version 1a, 2007-08.

## Where are high-poverty schools located?

Compared with other locales, cities tended to have greater percentages of high-poverty schools. In 2007-08, about 40 percent of city elementary schools were high-poverty schools, compared with 15 percent of schools in towns, 13 percent of suburban schools, and 10 percent of rural schools (see table A-24-3). A similar pattern was found at the secondary level: 20 percent of all city secondary schools were high-poverty, while in the other three locales 5 to 8 percent of schools were high-poverty.

In 2007-08, approximately 24 percent of all public elementary schools in both the South and West were
high-poverty schools, compared with 16 percent in the Northeast and 12 percent in the Midwest (see table A-24-3). The states with the highest percentages of highpoverty elementary schools in 2007-08 were Mississippi (53 percent), Louisiana ( 52 percent), New Mexico (46 percent), the District of Columbia ( 37 percent), and California (34 percent). At the secondary school level, 12 percent of all public schools in the West and 11 percent each of schools in the Northeast and South were high-poverty, compared with 5 percent of schools in the Midwest. The states with the highest percentages of high-poverty secondary schools in 2007-08 were Mississippi ( 43 percent), New Mexico (34 percent), Louisiana (27 percent), and New York (21 percent).

Figure 3. Percentage distribution of public elementary and secondary schools, by locale and percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): School year 2007-08


[^1]
## What are the characteristics of the students who attend high-poverty schools?

In 2007-08, approximately 20 percent of elementary school students and 6 percent of secondary school students attended high-poverty public schools (see table A-25-1).

## Race and ethnicity

In 2007-08, some 14 percent of students attending high-poverty elementary schools were White, 34 percent were Black, 46 percent were Hispanic, 4 percent were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 2 percent were American Indian/Alaska Native (see table A-25-2). At low-poverty elementary schools, student enrollment was on average 75 percent White, 6 percent Black, 11 percent Hispanic, 7 percent Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1 percent American Indian/Alaska Native.

This pattern held for Hispanic, Black, and White students in cities, suburban areas, and towns (see table A-25-2). For example, in suburban areas, Hispanics made up over half ( 55 percent) of all students in highpoverty elementary schools, followed by Blacks (29 percent), Whites (12 percent), Asians/Pacific Islanders (3 percent), and American Indians/Alaska Natives (1 percent). In rural high-poverty elementary schools, however, there were greater percentages of Black and White students (31 percent each) than Hispanic (27 percent), American Indian/Alaska Native (8 percent), and Asian/Pacific Islander (1 percent) students.

As at the elementary school level, Hispanics and Blacks represented the greatest shares of student enrollments in high-poverty public secondary schools. In 2007-08, some 11 percent of students in high-poverty secondary schools were White, 38 percent were Black, 44 percent were

Hispanic, 4 percent were Asian/Pacific Islander, and 3 percent were American Indian/Alaska Native. The pattern in low-poverty public secondary schools was similar to the pattern observed at the elementary level: student enrollments were on average 76 percent White, 7 percent Black, 10 percent Hispanic, 6 percent Asian/Pacific Islander, and 1 percent American Indian/Alaska Native.

At high-poverty secondary schools, Hispanic students made up the plurality of student enrollment in city and suburban schools. At high-poverty secondary schools in cities, Hispanics accounted for 47 percent of enrollment, followed by Blacks ( 40 percent), Whites (7 percent), Asians/Pacific Islanders (5 percent), and American Indians/Alaska Natives (1 percent) (see table A-25-2). In towns and rural areas, however, high-poverty secondary schools had greater percentages of Black students (44 and 34 percent, respectively). Hispanic students also made up a large proportion of enrollment in high-poverty schools in towns ( 33 percent) and high-poverty schools in rural areas (28 percent). White students accounted for 24 percent of enrollment in high-poverty rural schools.

In 2007-08, greater percentages of Hispanic, Black, and American Indian/Alaska Native students attended highpoverty public elementary and secondary schools than did White or Asian/Pacific Islander students; in addition, greater percentages of Asian/Pacific Islander students attended these schools than did White students (see table A-25-1). At the elementary level, 42 percent of Hispanic, 40 percent of Black, and 28 percent of American Indian/ Alaska Native students were enrolled in high-poverty schools, compared with 5 percent of White and 15 percent of Asian/Pacific Islander students. In secondary schools, 15 percent each of Hispanic, Black, and American Indian/ Alaska Native students were enrolled in high-poverty schools, compared with 1 percent of White and 5 percent of Asian/Pacific Islander students.

Figure 4. Percentage distribution of public elementary and secondary school students in specified racial/ethnic groups, by percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): School year 2007-08


NOTE: Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on race/ethnicity, locale, and poverty, see supplemental note

1. For more information on the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," version 1a, 2007-08.

## High-Poverty Schools

## Individualized Education Program (IEP)

The percentage of a school's enrollment having an Individualized Education Program (IEP) was not measurably different by school poverty level (see table A-24-5). An IEP is a written statement or educational plan for individuals identified with a disability or delayed skills. In 2007-08, about 12 percent of students attending high-poverty elementary schools and 15 percent of students attending high-poverty secondary schools had an IEP.

## Limited-English Proficient (LEP)

The percentage of students who were limited-English proficient (LEP) was higher in high-poverty schools than in low-poverty schools (see table A-24-5). In 2007-08, about 25 percent of students attending high-poverty elementary schools were identified as LEP, compared with 4 percent of students attending low-poverty elementary schools. At the secondary level, about 16 percent of students attending high-poverty schools were identified as LEP, compared with 2 percent attending low-poverty schools.

Figure 5. Percentage of public school students who were limited-English proficient (LEP), by school level and percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): School year 2007-08


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public School Data File," 2007-08.

## SNAPSHOT: Crime in high-poverty schools

The amount of violence occurring at schools differed by school poverty level. In 2007-08, a larger percentage of low-poverty public schools ( 32 percent) recorded no violent incidents than did high-poverty schools (17 percent) (see table A-26-2). Similarly, a larger percentage of high-poverty public schools (38 percent) than low-poverty public schools ( 15 percent) recorded 20 or more violent incidents.

Figure 6. Percentage of public schools recording violent incidents that occurred at school, by number of incidents and percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): School year 2007-08


NOTE: Violent incidents include serious violent incidents (rape or attempted rape, sexual battery other than rape, physical attack or fight with a weapon, threat of physical attack with a weapon, and robbery with or without a weapon), physical attack or fight without a weapon, and threat of physical attack without a weapon. "At school" was defined for respondents to include activities that happen in school buildings, on school grounds, on school buses, and at places that hold school-sponsored events or activities. Respondents were instructed to include incidents that occurred before, during, or after normal school hours or when school activities or events were in session. Detail may not sum to totals due to rounding.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2007-08 School Survey on Crime and Safety (SSOCS), 2008.

# Part II. Principals, Teachers, and Staff Who Work in High-Poverty Schools 

## What are the characteristics of principals working in high-poverty schools?

In 2007-08, approximately 21 percent (or 13,400 ) of all elementary school principals worked in high-poverty schools, compared with 27 percent (or 16,700 ) who worked in low-poverty schools (see table A-29-2). About 12 percent (or 2,500 ) of all secondary school principals worked in high-poverty schools, while 33 percent (or 7,000 ) worked in low-poverty schools.

Generally, in 2007-08, for both elementary and secondary schools, there were very few measurable differences in the distribution of principals by age between high- and low-poverty schools. However, differences by gender were found between high-poverty and low-poverty elementary and secondary schools. For example, 65 percent of principals in high-poverty elementary schools were female, whereas 52 percent of principals in low-poverty elementary schools were female.

There were also differences in the racial/ethnic distribution of principals by school poverty level. Compared with low-poverty schools, high-poverty elementary and secondary schools employed a larger percentage of Black and Hispanic principals and a smaller percentage of White principals. For example, in 2007-08, among principals working in high-poverty elementary schools, 58 percent were White, 22 percent were Black, and 17 percent were Hispanic. In comparison, among principals working in low-poverty elementary schools, 89 percent were White, 6 percent were Black, and 4 percent were Hispanic.

The educational attainment of principals did not vary by school poverty level among elementary schools, but it did among secondary schools. A smaller percentage of principals in high-poverty secondary schools had earned at least an education specialist or professional diploma (at least 1 year beyond a master's level) than had principals in low-poverty secondary schools. The highest level of educational attainment for about 19 percent of principals working in high-poverty secondary schools was an education specialist or professional diploma, and for another 71 percent of principals at these schools, the highest level of educational attainment was a master's degree. In comparison, 30 percent of principals at low-poverty secondary schools had attained an education specialist or professional diploma, and for another 59 percent a master's degree was the highest level of educational attainment.

## What are the characteristics of teachers working in high-poverty schools?

In 2007-08, approximately 21 percent (or 410,400 ) of all full-time elementary school teachers taught in highpoverty schools, while 28 percent (or 543,800 ) taught in low-poverty schools (see table A-27-3). About 8 percent (or 87,100 ) of all full-time secondary school teachers worked in high-poverty schools, compared with 40 percent (or 414,500 ) who worked in low-poverty schools.

Generally, in 2007-08, for both elementary and secondary schools, there were few measurable differences between high- and low-poverty schools in the distribution of teachers by gender or by age. For example, 84 percent each of teachers working in high-poverty and low-poverty elementary schools were female. However, as was the case among principals, racial/ethnic differences in the teaching staffs of high- and low-poverty schools were observed. High-poverty elementary and secondary schools employed a greater percentage of Black and Hispanic teachers and a smaller percentage of White teachers than did low-poverty schools. For example, in 2007-08, among teachers working in high-poverty elementary schools, 62 percent were White, 16 percent were Black, and 18 percent were Hispanic. In comparison, among teachers working in low-poverty elementary schools, 93 percent were White, 3 percent were Hispanic, and 2 percent were Black.

Teacher educational attainment and professional certification varied by school poverty level. For both elementary and secondary schools, a smaller percentage of teachers working in high-poverty schools had earned at least a master's degree and a regular professional certification than had teachers working in low-poverty schools. For example, in 2007-08, some 38 percent of secondary school teachers working in high-poverty schools had a master's degree as their highest level of educational attainment, whereas 52 percent of secondary school teachers working in low-poverty schools had a master's as their highest level of attainment. Likewise, 82 percent of teachers in high-poverty secondary schools held a regular professional certification, compared with 89 percent of teachers in low-poverty secondary schools. In addition, for both elementary and secondary schools, a larger percentage of teachers working in high-poverty schools ( 21 percent for elementary and 22 percent for secondary) than of teachers working in low-poverty schools ( 16 percent for elementary and 15 percent for secondary) had less than 3 years of teaching experience (see table A-27-3).

Figure 7. Percentage distribution of full-time public secondary school teachers, by highest level of educational attainment and the percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): School year 2007-08

! Interpret data with caution (estimates are unstable).
NOTE: "Less than bachelor's" includes teachers with an associate's degree and those without a degree, including vocational certificates. "Education specialist/professional diploma" includes certificate of advanced graduate studies. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see supplemental note 3. For more information on poverty, see supplemental note 1.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public School Teacher and Private School Teacher Data Files," 2007-08.

## What are the characteristics of support staff working in highpoverty schools?

Generally, for both elementary and secondary schools, there were few measurable differences between highand low-poverty schools in the distribution of school support staff (see table A-30-1). For example, at highpoverty elementary schools, 62 percent of all staff were
professional instructional staff, 5 percent were student services professional staff, 16 percent were aides, and 17 percent were other staff. At low-poverty elementary schools, 63 percent of all staff were professional instructional staff, 6 percent were student services professional staff, 16 percent were aides, and 15 percent were other staff. Similar patterns were found at the secondary level.

# Part III. Outcomes for Students Who Attend High-Poverty Schools 

## How do students in high-poverty schools perform on NAEP assessments?

On average, students from high-poverty schools did not perform as well on National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading, mathematics, music, and art assessments as students from low-poverty schools.

## Reading

On each NAEP assessment given between 1998 and 2009, average reading scores for 4th- and 8th-grade students from high-poverty schools were lower than the scores for students from low-poverty schools (see tables A-10-1 and A-10-2). In 2009, the average NAEP reading score (on a $0-500$ point scale) for 4th-grade students from high-poverty schools was 202 , while the average score for 4 th-graders from low-poverty schools was 237 . The average score for 4th-graders from high-poverty schools increased between 1998 and 2009, from 187 to 202, while the score for 4th-graders from low-poverty schools increased from 231 to 237 . The reading achievement gap between low- and high-poverty 4th-grade students decreased from 44 points in 1998 to 35 points in 2009. The percentages of 4th-grade students from high-poverty schools performing at or above the Basic, at or above the Proficient, and at the Advanced reading achievement levels were lower than the respective percentages of students from low-poverty schools (see table A-10-3). In 2009, about 45 percent of 4th-graders from high-poverty schools performed at or above Basic, compared with 83 percent of 4th-graders from low-poverty schools. Similarly, 14 percent of 4 th-graders from high-poverty schools performed at or above Proficient, compared to 50 percent of 4th-graders at low-poverty schools.

In 2009, the average NAEP reading score (on a $0-500$ point scale) for 8 th-grade students from high-poverty schools was 243 , while the average for 8th-graders from low-poverty schools was 277. Between 1998 and 2009, scores for 8th-graders from low-poverty schools increased 4 points, from 273 to 277 , while there was no measurable change in the scores of 8th-graders from high-poverty schools. The reading achievement gap between low- and high-poverty 8th-grade students was 34 points in 2009. The percentages of 8 th-grade students from high-poverty schools performing at or above the Basic, at or above the Proficient, and at the Advanced achievement levels were lower than the respective percentages of 8th-grade students from low-poverty schools. In 2009, about 53 percent of 8th-graders from high-poverty schools performed at or above Basic, compared with 87 percent of 8th-graders from low-poverty schools. Similarly, 12
percent of 8th-graders at high-poverty schools scored at or above Proficient, compared with 47 percent of 8th-graders at low-poverty schools.

## Mathematics

On each NAEP assessment given between 2000 and 2009, average mathematics scores for 4th- and 8th-grade students from high-poverty schools were lower than the scores for students from low-poverty schools (see tables A-12-1 and A-12-2). In 2009, the average NAEP mathematics score (on a $0-500$ point scale) for 4th-grade students from high-poverty schools was 223 , while the average score for 4th-graders from low-poverty schools was 254. The average score for 4th-graders from highpoverty schools increased 18 points between 2000 and 2009, from 205 to 223, while the score for 4th-graders from low-poverty schools increased 14 points, from 239 to 254. The mathematics achievement gap between low- and high-poverty 4th-grade students was 31 points in 2009. The percentages of 4 th-grade students from high-poverty schools performing at or above the Basic, at or above the Proficient, and at the Advanced mathematics achievement levels were lower than the respective percentages of 4th-grade students from low-poverty schools (see table A-12-3). In 2009, about 64 percent of 4th-graders from high-poverty schools performed at or above Basic, 17 percent performed at or above Proficient, and 1 percent performed at Advanced. In contrast, about 93 percent of 4th-graders from low-poverty schools performed at or above Basic, 60 percent performed at or above Proficient, and 12 percent performed at Advanced.

In 2009, the average NAEP mathematics score (on a $0-500$ point scale) for 8th-grade students from highpoverty schools was 260 , while the average for 8th-graders from low-poverty schools was 298. Between 2000 and 2009, scores for 8th-graders from high-poverty schools increased 14 points, from 246 to 260 . During that period, scores for 8 th-graders from low-poverty schools increased 11 points, from 287 to 298 . The mathematics achievement gap between low- and high-poverty 8th-grade students was 38 points in 2009. The percentages of 8th-grade students from high-poverty schools performing at or above the Basic, at or above the Proficient, and at the Advanced achievement levels were lower than the respective percentages of 8th-grade students from low-poverty schools. In 2009, about 49 percent of 8th-graders from high-poverty schools performed at or above Basic, 13 percent performed at or above Proficient, and 1 percent performed at Advanced. In contrast, about 87 percent of 8th-graders from low-poverty schools performed at or above Basic, 50 percent performed at or above Proficient, and 15 percent performed at Advanced.

Figure 8. Average 8 th-grade reading scale scores, by percentage of students in school eligible for free or reducedprice lunch (FRPL): Selected years, 1998 through 2009


NOTE:The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) reading scale ranges from 0 to 500.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), selected years, 1998-2009 Reading Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer.

Figure 9. Average 8th-grade mathematics scale scores, by percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): Selected years, 2000 through 2009


[^2]
## High-Poverty Schools

## Music and Visual Arts

In 2008, the average NAEP music and visual arts scores for 8th-grade students from high-poverty schools were lower than the scores for 8th-graders from low-poverty schools (see table A-14-1). In 2008, the average NAEP music score (on a $0-300$ point scale with the average set at
150) for 8th-grade students from high-poverty schools was 123 , compared with an average score of 168 for students from low-poverty schools. For visual arts, students from high-poverty schools had an average score of 125 , and students from low-poverty schools had an average score of 168 .

Figure 10. Average music and visual arts NAEP scale scores for 8 th-grade students, by percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): 2008


NOTE: The NAEP Music and Visual Arts scales range from 0 to 300.
SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), 2008 Music and Visual Arts Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer.

## What are the high school graduation rates for high-poverty schools, according to school administrators?

In 2007-08, according to school administrators, the average percentage of 12th-graders in high-poverty secondary schools who graduated with a diploma during the previous year was lower than the average percentage for 12th-graders in low-poverty secondary schools (see table A-24-5). About 68 percent of 12 th-graders in high-poverty schools and 91 percent of 12 th-graders in low-poverty schools graduated with a diploma. Since 1999-2000, the average percentage of seniors in highpoverty schools who graduated with a diploma has declined by 18 percentage points, from 86 to 68 percent. In contrast, there was no measurable difference between the 1999-2000 graduation rate in low-poverty schools and the 2007-08 rate in low-poverty schools.

## What are the college enrollment rates for high-poverty schools, according to school administrators?

In 2007-08, according to school administrators, the average percentage of high school graduates from high-poverty secondary schools who attended a 4-year college was lower than the average for graduates from low-poverty secondary schools (see table A-24-5). About 28 percent of high school graduates from high-poverty schools attended a 4-year institution after graduation, compared with 52 percent of high school graduates from low-poverty schools. Since 1999-2000, the average percentage of graduates from high-poverty schools attending 4-year college has had no measurable change. In contrast, the average college enrollment rate of graduates from low-poverty high schools increased by 8 percentage points during this period, from 44 to 52 percent.

Figure 11. Administrator reports of the average percentage of 12th-graders from secondary public schools graduating high school and the average percentage of graduates attending 4-year institutions, by percentage of students in school eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL): School year 2007-08


SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public School Data File," 2007-08.

## High-Poverty Schools

## Summary

Drawing upon indicators presented in The Condition of Education 2010, this special section has provided a descriptive profile of high-poverty schools in the United States. It has examined the characteristics of students who attend these schools, as well as the characteristics of principals, teachers, and support staff who work in these schools. Using the percentage of a school's enrollment that is eligible for the National School Lunch Program's free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) as the measure of

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school poverty, high-poverty schools are defined as schools having 76-100 percent of their enrollment eligible for free or reduced-price meals. This special section has presented data showing that high-poverty schools differed from low-poverty schools on a number of indicators related to the types of students these schools serve; certain characteristics of the teachers and principals who work in these schools; and the educational outcomes for students who attend these schools.

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[^0]:    NOTE: Detail may not sum to total due to rounding.
    SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," version 1a, 2007-08.

[^1]:    NOTE: Detail may not sum to total due to rounding
    SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Public Elementary/Secondary School Universe Survey," version 1a, 2007-08.

[^2]:    NOTE: The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) mathematics scale ranges from 0 to 500 .
    SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), selected years, 2000-2009 Mathematics Assessments, NAEP Data Explorer.

