Section 4
Contexts of Elementary and Secondary Education
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The indicators in this section of *The Condition of Education* measure aspects of the context for learning in elementary and secondary schools. Such aspects include the content of learning; expectations for student performance; the climate for learning and other organizational aspects of schools; characteristics of teachers, principals, and staff; processes of instruction; mechanisms of choice in education; and financial resources. Indicators prepared for this year’s volume appear on the following pages, and all indicators in this section, including indicators from previous years, appear on the NCES website (see the “List of Indicators on The Condition of Education Website” on page xxii for a full listing of indicators).

The first indicators in this section consider school characteristics and the climate for learning, which is shaped by different factors in the school environment. First, an indicator provides information on the characteristics of public schools. In addition, indicators found in this volume consider measures of the concentration of poverty in public schools and the pervasiveness of violence in public schools. Indicators on the website feature the concentration of racial and ethnic groups in public schools and the suspension and expulsion of students.

Other indicators in this section look at principals and teachers. Two indicators in this volume examine the characteristics of principals and teachers, while another indicator found on the website compares the extent and nature of teacher training that U.S. teachers receive in certain subject areas with the training received by teachers in foreign countries. In addition, there are indicators in this volume on principal and teacher turnover. Indicators on school staff and international teaching comparisons can be found on the Web.

In this section, there are indicators on the website that focus on the learning opportunities that are afforded to children, including student/teacher ratios in public schools. Other indicators on the website highlight parent and family involvement in education, participation in early literacy activities, and afterschool activities.

School choice provides parents with the opportunity to choose a school for their children other than their assigned public school. Indicators regarding school choice (found on the website) report on the parental choice of charter schools or private schools as an alternative to their child’s assigned public school.

The final indicators in this section detail financial support for education. In this section of *The Condition of Education*, the primary focus is on describing the forms and amounts of financial support made available to education from public and private sources and the items on which funds are spent. In this volume of *The Condition of Education*, there are also indicators on variations in expenditures per student, trends in expenditures per student in elementary and secondary education by school poverty level, and international comparisons of education expenditures.

Indicators of contexts of elementary and secondary schooling from previous editions of *The Condition of Education* not included in this volume are available at http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe.
**Characteristics of Public Schools**

**In 2008–09, charter schools and schools with a magnet program each composed a higher percentage of all public schools than they did in 1998–99 (5 vs. 1 percent for charter schools and 3 vs. 1 percent for schools with a magnet program).**

Regular public schools constituted 90 percent of all public schools in 2008–09, with alternative schools for students at risk of school failure (6 percent), special education schools (2 percent), and vocational schools (1 percent) making up the remainder. The distributions of public schools by school type differed by school level in 2008–09. Ninety-eight percent of elementary schools were regular schools, with other school types making up less than 2 percent of elementary schools. At the secondary level, 80 percent of schools were regular schools, 14 percent were alternative schools, 5 percent were vocational schools, and 1 percent were special education schools.

Charter schools are publicly funded schools that are typically governed by a group or organization under a legislative contract or charter with the state. They can be regular schools, alternative schools, special education schools, and vocational schools as well as Title I schools and schools with magnet programs (see indicator 3 for more information on charter schools). Some 5 percent of all public schools were charter schools in 2008–09, up from 1 percent in 1998–99.

The percentage of public schools with a magnet program was higher in 2008–09 than it was in 1998–99 (3 vs. 1 percent). A Title I school is designated under appropriate state and federal regulations as a high-poverty school that is eligible for participation in programs authorized by Title I of P.L. 107-110. In 2008–09, some 63 percent of public schools were Title I schools.

The distribution of public schools by school size differed by school level in 2008–09. Some 38 percent of secondary schools were small (enrollment of less than 300 students), as compared to 27 percent of elementary schools. In that same year, 26 percent of secondary schools were large (1,000 or more students), as compared to 4 percent of elementary schools.

The percentage of public schools where White students accounted for more than 50 percent of enrollment was lower in 2008–09 than in 1998–99 (63 vs. 72 percent). In contrast, the percentage of schools where Hispanic students accounted for more than 50 percent of enrollment was higher in 2008–09 than in 1998–99 (13 vs. 8 percent). In both years, the percentage of schools where Black students accounted for more than 50 percent of enrollment was approximately the same (11 percent).

In 2008–09, nineteen percent of public schools were high-poverty schools (i.e., schools where more than 75 percent of the students were eligible for the free or reduced-price lunch program). The distributions of public schools by poverty level differed by school level. In 2008–09, about 22 percent of elementary schools and 11 percent of secondary schools were high-poverty schools.

In 2008–09, the largest percentage of public schools were in rural areas (32 percent), followed by suburbs (28 percent), cities (26 percent), and towns (14 percent).

**For more information:** Table A-27-1

**Glossary:** Combined school, Elementary school, Magnet school or program, Public school, Regular school, Secondary school, Title I school

**Technical Notes**

Estimates are for public schools in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. The percentage distributions for school size and race/ethnicity exclude schools that did not report enrollment. High-poverty schools are defined as public schools where more than 75 percent of the students are eligible for the free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) program, and low-poverty schools are defined as public schools where 25 percent or fewer students are eligible for FRPL. Small schools are defined as public schools with enrollments of less than 300 students, and large schools are defined as public schools with enrollments of 1,000 or more students. For more information on locale, poverty, race/ethnicity, and region, see supplemental note 1. For more information on the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3.
### Figure 27-1. Percentage distribution of public schools, by school level and enrollment size: School year 2008–09

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School level</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Combined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Less than 300 students</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>300-499 students</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>500-999 students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,000 or more students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Estimates are for public schools reporting enrollment data in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. For more information on the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3.


### Figure 27-2. Percentage distribution of public schools, by school level and school poverty level: School year 2008–09

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School level</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Combined</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low poverty</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mid-low poverty</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mid-high poverty</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>High poverty</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Missing/school did not participate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Estimates are for public schools in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. High-poverty schools are defined as public schools where more than 75 percent of the students are eligible for the free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) program, and mid-high poverty schools are those schools where 51 to 75 percent of students are eligible. Low-poverty schools are defined as public schools where 25 percent or fewer students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-low poverty schools are those schools where 26 to 50 percent of students are eligible for FRPL. For more information on the free or reduced-price lunch program, see supplemental note 1.

In 2008–09, greater percentages of Black, Hispanic, and American Indian/Alaska Native students attended high-poverty elementary and secondary public schools than did White or Asian/Pacific Islander students.

The percentage of students eligible for the free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) program provides a proxy measure for the concentration of low-income students within a school. In this indicator, schools are divided into categories by FRPL eligibility; high-poverty schools are defined as public schools where more than 75 percent of the students are eligible. In 2008–09, approximately 22 percent of elementary and 8 percent of secondary school students attended high-poverty public schools, up from the 20 percent of elementary and 6 percent of secondary school students who did so in 2007–08 (see table A-28-1 and U.S. Department of Education 2010, indicator 25).

In terms of the racial/ethnic distribution of students across schools of all poverty levels, in 2008–09, 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. For example, at the elementary level, 45 percent of Hispanic, 44 percent of Black, and 31 percent of American Indian/Alaska Native students were enrolled in high-poverty schools, compared with 17 percent of Asian/Pacific Islander and 6 percent of White students. Smaller percentages of students of all racial/ethnic groups attended high-poverty schools at the secondary level than at the elementary level, but the relative patterns among the racial/ethnic groups were similar at both levels.

Examining the racial/ethnic distributions within schools of a given poverty type provides a more detailed snapshot of the extent to which students of various races/ethnicities are concentrated in certain schools.

For more information: Tables A-28-1 and A-28-2

Glossary: National School Lunch Program, Public school

While over half (54 percent) of public school students in 2008–09 were White, 14 percent of students attending high-poverty schools were White (see table A-28-2). Black and Hispanic students, in contrast, were overrepresented in high-poverty schools. Blacks made up 17 percent of students overall and 34 percent of students in high-poverty schools, and Hispanics made up 21 percent of students overall and 45 percent of students in high-poverty schools. Asians/Pacific Islanders made up 5 percent of the student population overall and 4 percent of the student population in high-poverty schools, and American Indians/Alaska Natives made up 1 percent of students in all schools and 2 percent of students in high-poverty schools.

The distribution of students in high-poverty schools also differed by the locale (city, suburban, town, and rural) of the schools. In 2008–09, the percentage of students in high-poverty schools who attended city schools was nearly twice as large as the percentage of all students who attended city schools (58 vs. 29 percent). On the other hand, 35 percent of all public school students attended schools in suburban areas, but only 23 percent of students in high-poverty schools attended schools in suburban areas. Students attending schools in towns and rural areas were also underrepresented among students attending high-poverty schools, comprising 12 and 24 percent, respectively, of students in all schools, compared with 9 and 11 percent, respectively, of students in high-poverty schools.

For more information: National School Lunch Program, Public school

Technical Notes

Private school students are excluded from the analysis because large proportions of private schools do not participate in the FRPL program. 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.
Figure 28-1. Percentage of public school students in high-poverty schools, by race/ethnicity and school level: School year 2008–09

1 Includes students whose racial/ethnic group was not reported.

NOTE: High-poverty schools are defined as public schools where more than 75 percent of the students are eligible for the free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) program. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. Persons with unknown race/ethnicity are not shown. For more information on race/ethnicity and poverty, see supplemental note 1. For more information on the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3.


Figure 28-2. Percentage distribution of the race/ethnicity of public school students, by locale and school poverty level: School year 2008–09

NOTE: High-poverty schools are defined as public schools where more than 75 percent of the students are eligible for the free or reduced-price lunch (FRPL) program, and mid-high poverty schools are those schools where 51 to 75 percent of students are eligible. Low-poverty schools are defined as public schools where 25 percent or fewer students are eligible for FRPL, and mid-low poverty schools are those schools where 26 to 50 percent of students are eligible for FRPL. For more information on 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.

In 2009, some 19 percent of 5- to 17-year-olds were in families living in poverty, compared with 15 percent in 2000 and 17 percent in 1990.

In 2009, approximately 19 percent of 5- to 17-year-old children in the United States were in families living in poverty (see table A-29-1). The region with the highest rate of poverty among school-age children in 2009 was the South (21 percent), followed by the West (18 percent), Midwest (18 percent), and the Northeast (16 percent).

At the state level, child poverty rates across the United States ranged from 10 to 32 percent in 2009. In the District of Columbia and Mississippi, 32 and 29 percent, respectively, of children were living in poverty in 2009. In contrast, New Hampshire and Maryland each had 10 percent of school-age children living in poverty. When compared to the U.S. national rate of child poverty in 2009, some 21 states had rates that were lower than the national average, 16 states and the District of Columbia had rates that were higher than the national average, and 13 states had rates that were not measurably different from the national average. Of the 17 jurisdictions (16 states and the District of Columbia) that had poverty rates above the national average, 14 were located in the South.

In general, child poverty rates across the United States decreased from 1990 to 2000. For the United States as a whole, 17 percent of school-age children in 1990 were in poverty, compared with 15 percent of children in 2000. From 1990 to 2000, the child poverty rate decreased in 38 states. Six states and the District of Columbia had increases in child poverty rates from 1990 to 2000. Both the Midwest and the South experienced a decrease in child poverty rates over this time period (from 15 to 12 percent and 20 to 18 percent, respectively), while the Northeast and the West did not show a measurable change.

From 2000 to 2009, the percentage of school-age children living in poverty in the United States increased from 15 to 19 percent. The child poverty rate was higher in 2009 than in 2000 for 36 states and all regions. In spite of the general decrease in child poverty rates from 1990 to 2000, some 30 states and the District of Columbia had higher child poverty rates in 2009 than in 1990, while 17 states had child poverty rates that were not measurably different than they were in 1990. Three states, Louisiana, Mississippi, and West Virginia, had significant decreases in the percentages of children living in poverty from 1990 to 2009. The percentages of school-age children living in poverty were higher in 2009 than in 1990 for the West, Midwest, and Northeast, while the child poverty rates in 1990 and 2009 in the South were not measurably different.

From 2008 to 2009 the child poverty rate increased from 17 to 19 percent. All regions experienced increases in child poverty rates between 2008 and 2009, as did 18 states.

For more information: Table A-29-1

Technical Notes
Children in families include own children and all other children in the household who are related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption. For more information on poverty and region, see supplemental note 1. For more information on the American Community Survey, see supplemental note 3.
Figure 29-1. Percentage of 5- to 17-year-olds in families living in poverty, by state: 2009

NOTE: Children in families include own children and all other children in the household who are related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption. For more information on poverty and region, see supplemental note 1. For more information on the American Community Survey (ACS), see supplemental note 3.


Figure 29-2. Percentage of 5- to 17-year-olds in families living in poverty, by region: 1990, 2000, and 2009

1 Based on 1989 incomes collected in the 1990 decennial census.
2 Based on 1999 incomes collected in the 2000 decennial census.

NOTE: Children in families include own children and all other children in the household who are related to the householder by birth, marriage, or adoption. For more information on poverty and region, see supplemental note 1. For more information on the American Community Survey (ACS), see supplemental note 3.

Indicator 30

Rates of School Crime

From 1992 to 2008, the rate of nonfatal incidents of crime against students ages 12–18 at school declined from 144 to 47 crimes per 1,000 students, and for students away from school the rate declined from 138 to 38 crimes per 1,000 students.

This indicator examines the rate of nonfatal incidents of crime against students ages 12–18, both at school and away from school. Nonfatal crime includes theft and all violent crime; violent crime includes serious violent crime (rape, sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated assault) and simple assault. The rate of nonfatal crime against students ages 12–18 declined between 1992 and 2008. This pattern held for the crime rate at school and away from school as well as in the following three subcategories: theft, violent crime, and serious violent crime. Specifically, from 1992 to 2008, the rate of nonfatal crime against students at school declined from 144 to 47 crimes per 1,000 students; the theft victimization rate, from 95 to 24 thefts per 1,000 students; the violent crime rate, from 48 to 24 crimes per 1,000 students; and the serious violent crime rate, from 10 to 4 crimes per 1,000 students (see table A-30-1). During the same time period, the total nonfatal crime rate against students away from school declined from 138 to 38 crimes per 1,000 students, the theft victimization rate declined from 68 to 19 thefts per 1,000 students, the rate of violent crime declined from 71 to 19 crimes per 1,000 students, and the serious violent crime rate declined from 32 to 8 crimes per 1,000 students.

In the more recent period from 2007 to 2008, the rate of total nonfatal crime against students at school decreased from 57 to 47 crimes per 1,000 students. During this period, the theft victimization rate at school declined from 31 to 24 thefts per 1,000 students, but the rate of violent crime did not measurably change (26 crimes per 1,000 students in 2007 and 24 in 2008). In addition, there was no measurable difference between 2007 and 2008 in the rate of total crime against students away from school; this was also true for rates of theft, violent crime, and serious violent crime away from school.

Nonfatal crime rates at school and away from school differed depending on the type of crime. From 1992 through 2008, the rate of serious violent crime against students was generally lower at school than away from school. For example, in 2008, the student victimization rate for serious violent crime was four crimes per 1,000 students at school, compared with eight per 1,000 students away from school. In contrast, the rate of theft against students at school was generally higher than the rate of theft away from school.

In 2008, the rate of nonfatal crime against students varied according to student characteristics. The rates of total nonfatal crime and violent crime were lower for female students than for male students both at school and away from school (see table A-30-2). For example, the violent victimization rate at school was 19 crimes per 1,000 female students, compared with 29 per 1,000 male students; away from school, the rate of violent crime was 12 crimes per 1,000 females, compared with 25 per 1,000 males. However, there was no difference between male and female students in the rates of theft against them; this was true for theft at school and away from school. At school, the rate of total nonfatal crime against Black students (68 crimes per 1,000 students) was higher than the rate for White students (44 per 1,000 students) and Hispanic students (47 per 1,000 students). In general, the violent victimization rate (at school and away from school) was higher for students from households with incomes of less than $15,000 than it was for students from households with higher income levels.

For more information: Tables A-30-1 and A-30-2

Technical Notes

Total nonfatal crime includes violent crime and theft. Violent crime includes serious violent crime and simple assault. Serious violent crime includes rape, sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated assault. Theft includes purse snatching, pickpocketing, all burglaries, attempted forcible entry, and all attempted and completed thefts except motor vehicle thefts. Theft does not include robbery in which threat or use of force is involved. “At school” includes inside the school building, on school property, or on the way to or from school. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding and missing data on student characteristics. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1. There were changes in the sample design and survey methodology in the 2006 National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) that affected survey estimates. Due to this redesign, 2006 data are not presented in this indicator. Data from 2007 onward are comparable to earlier years. For more information on NCVS, see supplemental note 3.
Figure 30-1. Rate of nonfatal incidents of crime against students ages 12–18 at school, by type of crime: Selected years, 1992–2008

Rate (per 1,000 students)

Year

Rate
0 20 40 60 80 100 120 140 160 180

Total
Theft
Violent
Serious violent

1 Serious violent crime is also included in violent crime.

NOTE: Total nonfatal crime includes violent crime and theft. Violent crime includes serious violent crime and simple assault. Serious violent crime includes rape, sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated assault. Theft includes purse snatching, pickpocketing, all burglaries, attempted forcible entry, and all attempted and completed thefts except motor vehicle thefts. Theft does not include robbery in which threat or use of force is involved. “At school” includes inside the school building, on school property, or on the way to or from school. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. There were changes in the sample design and survey methodology in the 2006 National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) that affected survey estimates. Due to this redesign, 2006 data are not presented. Data from 2007 onward are comparable to earlier years. For more information on NCVS, see supplemental note 3.


Figure 30-2. Rate of nonfatal incidents of crime against students ages 12–18 at school and away from school, by type of crime and sex: 2008

Rate (per 1,000 students)

At school
100 80 60 40 20 0

Total Theft Violent Serious violent

Rate (per 1,000 students)

Away from school
100 80 60 40 20 0

Total Theft Violent Serious violent

Male Female

1 Interpret data with caution. The standard error of the estimate is equal to 30 percent or more of the estimate’s value.

1 Serious violent crime is also included in violent crime.

NOTE: Total nonfatal crime includes violent crime and theft. Violent crime includes serious violent crime and simple assault. Serious violent crime includes rape, sexual assault, robbery, and aggravated assault. Theft includes purse snatching, pickpocketing, all burglaries, attempted forcible entry, and all attempted and completed thefts except motor vehicle thefts. Theft does not include robbery in which threat or use of force is involved. “At school” includes inside the school building, on school property, or on the way to or from school. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. For more information on the National Crime Victimization Survey, see supplemental note 3.

A larger percentage of full-time teachers held a postbaccalaureate degree in 2007–08 than in 1999–2000. Forty-nine percent of elementary school teachers and 54 percent of secondary school teachers held a postbaccalaureate degree in 2007–08, compared with 43 percent and 50 percent, respectively, in 1999–2000.

In the 2007–08 school year, there were 3.5 million full-time teachers, up from 3.1 million in 1999–2000. There were 2.1 million full-time elementary school teachers in 2007–08, including 1.9 million public school and 167,000 private school teachers (see table A-31-1). At the secondary level, there were 1.1 million full-time teachers, including 1.0 million public school and 61,000 private school teachers. The number of elementary and secondary full-time teachers in public schools increased from 1999–2000 to 2007–08; however, the number of private teachers in 1999–2000 was not measurably different from the number in 2007–08 at either level.

The majority of full-time teachers were women in 2007–08. At the elementary level, 84 percent of public school and 87 percent of private school teachers were female; these estimates were about the same as those in 1999–2000. At the secondary level, 59 percent of public school teachers were female, up from 55 percent in 1999–2000. Females represented 53 percent of private school secondary teachers in 2007–08, an estimate not measurably different from that in 1999–2000.

The racial/ethnic distribution of full-time teachers shifted slightly from 1999–2000 to 2007–08. The percentage of teachers who were Hispanic was higher in 2007–08 than in 1999–2000 (8 vs. 6 percent for elementary, and 7 vs. 5 percent for secondary). At the elementary level, there were no measurable differences from 1999–2000 to 2007–08 in the percentage of teachers who were White or in the percentage who were Black. At the secondary level, the percentage of teachers who were White was lower in 2007–08 (83 percent) than in 1999–2000 (86 percent).

A larger percentage of full-time teachers held a postbaccalaureate degree (master’s degree, education specialist or professional diploma, first-professional degree, or doctoral degree) in 2007–08 than in 1999–2000. Forty-nine percent of elementary school teachers and 54 percent of secondary school teachers held a postbaccalaureate degree in 2007–08, compared with 43 percent and 50 percent, respectively, in 1999–2000. In 2007–08, a higher percentage of public elementary school teachers held such degrees than did private elementary school teachers (50 vs. 30 percent).

In general, full-time teachers in public elementary and secondary schools had fewer years of teaching experience in 2007–08 than in 1999–2000, while private elementary school teachers had more teaching experience in 2007–08 than in 1999–2000 (see table A-31-2). Public elementary school teachers averaged 13 years of teaching experience in 2007–08 and 15 years in 1999–2000. In addition, 27 percent of public elementary school teachers had 20 or more years of teaching experience in 2007–08, compared with 34 percent in 1999–2000. Public secondary school teachers had 14 years of teaching experience, on average, in 2007–08, and 15 years in 1999–2000; about 28 percent of these teachers had 20 or more years of teaching experience in 2007–08, compared with 37 percent in 1999–2000.

In 2007–08, private elementary school teachers had 14 years of teaching experience, on average, while in 1999–2000 they had 13 years of experience. In addition, 28 percent of them had 20 or more years of experience in 2007–08, compared with 24 percent in 1999–2000. From 1999–2000 to 2007–08, there were no measurable changes in either of these experience measures for secondary private school teachers.

In 2007–08, about 89 percent of elementary and 87 percent of secondary public school teachers held a regular teaching certificate; an additional 4 percent of public school teachers at each level had satisfied all requirements except a probationary period. In comparison, in private schools, 57 percent of elementary and 55 percent of secondary teachers held a regular teaching certificate, with 3 percent of elementary and 2 percent of secondary teachers holding a probationary certification. In 2007–08, approximately 1 percent each of elementary and secondary public school teachers held no teaching certification in the state where they taught, compared with 35 percent of elementary and 41 percent of secondary private school teachers.

For more information: Tables A-31-1 and A-31-2

Glossary: Combined school, Doctoral degree, Education specialist/professional diploma, Elementary school, First-professional degree, Master’s degree, Private school, Public school, Secondary school

Technical Notes

Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on race/ethnicity, see supplemental note 1. Regular certification includes regular or standard state certificates and advanced professional certificates (for both public and private school teachers) and full certificates granted by an accrediting or certifying body other than the state (for private school teachers only). Probationary certificates are for those who have satisfied all requirements except the completion of a probationary period. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see supplemental note 3.
Figure 31-1. Percentage distribution of full-time school teachers, by school level and highest degree earned: School years 1999–2000 and 2007–08

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Year</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999–2000</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007–08</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: “Less than bachelor’s” includes teachers with an associate’s degree and those without a postsecondary degree; in 2007–08, it also includes those with vocational certificates. “Education specialist/professional diploma” includes teachers with a certificate of advanced graduate studies in. See glossary for the definition and a list of first-professional degrees. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.


Figure 31-2. Percentage distribution of full-time teachers, by sector and certification type: School year 2007–08

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Sector</th>
<th>Elementary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: The regular certification category includes regular or standard state certificates and advanced professional certificates (for both public and private school teachers) and full certificates granted by an accrediting or certifying body other than the state (for private school teachers only). Probationary certificates are for those who have satisfied all requirements except the completion of a probationary period. Temporary certificates are for those who require additional college coursework and/or student teaching. Waivers or emergency certificates are for those with insufficient teacher preparation who must complete a regular certification program in order to continue teaching. No certification indicates that the teacher did not hold any certification in the state where the teacher had taught. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding.

Teacher Turnover: Stayers, Leavers, and Movers

Indicator 32

In 2008–09, some 8 percent of public school teachers left the teaching profession compared with 16 percent of private school teachers. Another 7 percent of all teachers moved from their 2007–08 school to a different school.

From school years 1988–89 to 2008–09, a lower percentage of public school teachers left the profession than private school teachers. In 1988–89, 6 percent of public school teachers, or 132,000 teachers, left the profession, while 13 percent of private school teachers, or 40,000 teachers, left the profession. Similarly, in 2008–09, some 8 percent of public school teachers, or 270,000 teachers, left the teaching profession, compared with 16 percent of private school teachers, or 77,000 teachers (see table A-32-1). The percentage of teachers in public schools who left the profession increased from 1988–89 to 2008–09. The percentage of private school teachers who left did not measurably change over the same time period.

In addition to teachers who left the teaching profession, another 7 percent of all teachers moved from their 2007–08 school to a different school (either outside or within their district or within or between sectors) for the following school year (see table A-32-2). Eight percent of public school teachers and 5 percent of private school teachers moved in 2008–09. The percentage of public school teachers who moved in 2008–09 was not measurably different from the percentage who moved in 1988–89 (8 percent in both years), but the percentage of private school teachers who moved was lower in 2008–09 (5 percent) than in 1988–89 (10 percent).

Overall, the percentage of teachers leaving the profession in 2008–09 was higher among teachers with the most teaching experience (20 years or more) and teachers with the least teaching experience (3 years or fewer), compared with teachers with 10 to 19 years of experience. There were no measurable differences in the percentages leaving teaching between teachers with the most or least amount of experience and teachers with 4 to 9 years of experience. Twelve percent of all teachers with 3 or fewer years of experience and 11 percent of teachers with 20 or more years of experience left the teaching profession in 2008–09, compared with 5 percent of teachers with 10 to 19 years of experience. The same pattern held true across experience levels for teachers in public schools who left teaching. Among private school teachers, a higher percentage of teachers with 3 or fewer years of teaching experience (23 percent) or 4 to 9 years of experience (17 percent) left the teaching profession in 2008–09, compared with private school teachers with 20 or more years of experience (11 percent).

Similar to teachers who left the profession, the percentage of teachers moving schools in 2008–09 was higher among teachers with the least amount of teaching experience. Thirteen percent of teachers with 3 or fewer years of experience moved schools, compared with between 5 and 9 percent of teachers with higher levels of experience. However, in contrast to the pattern observed among leavers, a smaller percentage of teachers with the highest amount of experience moved schools (5 percent), compared with teachers with 3 or fewer years (13 percent) or 4 to 9 years of experiences (9 percent).

Higher percentages of the youngest teachers than of teachers of other ages moved between schools in 2008–09. Overall, 14 percent of teachers under age 30 moved schools, compared with 7 percent of teachers ages 30 to 39, some 6 percent of those ages 40 to 49, some 5 percent of those ages 50 to 59, and 2 percent of those age 60 or over. The same pattern held for the youngest teachers at both public and private schools. The percentage of teachers age 60 or over who moved schools was lowest compared to teachers of all other age groups who moved.

When looking at teacher movers by region, a higher percentage of teachers in the South and West moved schools in 2008–09 than did teachers in the Northeast. The percentage of teachers moving schools in the South was also higher than that of teachers in the Midwest.

For more information: Tables A-32-1 through A-32-3

Glossary: Doctoral degree, Education specialist/professional diploma, First-professional degree, Master’s degree, Private school, Public school

Technical Notes

Stayers are those teachers who remained at the same school. Movers are those teachers who moved to a different school. Leavers are those teachers who left the profession. Teachers left the profession for a variety of reasons, including taking a job in a field other than elementary or secondary teaching, pursuing further education, leaving for family reasons, retiring, or other miscellaneous reasons. The denominator used to calculate the percentages in this indicator is the weighted number of School and Staffing Survey (SASS) teachers surveyed during the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) year. SASS teachers who died or left the country are excluded. For more information on SASS and TFS, see supplemental note 3. Race categories exclude persons of Hispanic ethnicity. For more information on race/ethnicity and poverty, see supplemental note 1. Average base salary was calculated in 2009–10 school year constant dollars and adjusted using the Consumer Price Index (CPI). For more information on the CPI, see supplemental note 10.
Figure 32-1. Percentage of public and private school teacher leavers: Various school years 1988–89 through 2008–09

NOTE: Leavers are those teachers who left the profession. Denominator used to calculate the percent is the weighted number of SASS teachers surveyed during the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS) year; Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) teachers who died or left the country are excluded. For more information on SASS, see supplemental note 3.


Figure 32-2. Percentage of teacher leavers, by years as a teacher and school sector: School year 2008–09

NOTE: Leavers are those teachers who left the profession. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see supplemental note 3.

From 1999–2000 to 2007–08, the percentage of principals who were female increased from 52 to 59 percent at public elementary schools and from 22 to 29 percent at public secondary schools.

Schools employed 118,400 principals in the 2007–08 school year, up from 110,000 principals in 1999–2000 (see table A-33-1). In 2007–08 there were 78,500 elementary school principals, with 79 percent at public schools and 21 percent at private schools. At the secondary level there were 24,500 principals, with 88 percent at public schools and 12 percent at private schools.

From 1999–2000 to 2007–08, the percentage of public school principals who were female increased at both the elementary and secondary levels, although the gender distribution varied by level. The percentage of principals who were female increased from 52 to 59 percent at public elementary schools and from 22 to 29 percent at public secondary schools. From 1999–2000 to 2007–08, there was no measurable change at either school level in the percentage of private school principals who were female.

There were changes in the distribution of principals by age from 1999–2000 to 2007–08. At public elementary and secondary schools, the percentage of principals under age 40 increased, as did the percentage of principals age 55 and over, while the percentage of principals ages 45 to 49 and 50 to 54 decreased. For example, 10 percent of public elementary school principals were under age 40 in 1999–2000, compared with 19 percent in 2007–08. The percentage of public elementary school principals who were age 55 and over increased from 22 to 33 percent during this time. From 1999–2000 to 2007–08, the percentage of private school principals ages 55 and over also increased at the elementary and secondary levels, while the percentage of principals ages 45 to 49 and 50 to 54 decreased at both levels. However, unlike public school principals, the percentages of elementary and secondary principals at private schools who were under age 40 in 1999–2000 were not measurably different from the percentages in 2007–08.

The percentage of public school principals with 20 or more years of experience as a principal was lower in 2007–08 than in 1999–2000 at both elementary and secondary schools. During this period, the percentage of public secondary school principals with 20 or more years of experience as a principal decreased from 10 to 5 percent. About 36 percent of public secondary school principals had 3 or fewer years’ experience as a principal in 2007–08, compared with 30 percent in 1999–2000.

Compared with public school principals, a higher percentage of private school principals had 20 or more years of experience as principals in 2007–08. For example, 19 percent of private elementary school principals had 20 or more years of experience as a principal, compared with 8 percent of their public school peers. However, when comparing teaching experience, the percentage of private school principals with few years of experience was higher than that of public school principals. In 2007–08, about 26 percent of private elementary school principals had 3 or fewer years of teaching experience, compared with 3 percent of public elementary school principals.

Educational attainment differed between public and private school principals. In 2007–08, about 32 percent of private elementary school principals and 18 percent of private secondary school principals had a bachelor’s degree or less, while 1 percent each of public elementary and public secondary school teachers had a bachelor’s degree or less. A higher percentage of public elementary school principals held a doctoral or first-professional degree (8 percent) than did private elementary school principals (5 percent); there was no measurable difference between public and private school secondary principals in the percentage of principals who held a doctoral or first-professional degree.

Principals’ median annual salary, calculated in constant 2009–10 dollars, was generally higher in 2007–08 than in 1999–2000. From 1999–2000 to 2007–08, the median salary of public secondary school principals increased from $86,900 to $90,100. The salary of secondary school principals was higher than the salary of elementary school principals, and the salary of public school principals was higher than the salary of private school principals. In 2007–08, principals at public elementary schools had lower median salaries than those at public secondary schools ($86,000 vs. $90,100). Public school principals outearned their private school peers, whose salaries were $46,100 in private elementary schools and $67,600 in private secondary schools.

For more information: Table A-33-1
Glossary: Elementary school, Private school, Public school, Secondary school

Technical Notes
Median annual salary estimates were adjusted using the Consumer Price Index (CPI). For more information on the CPI, see supplemental note 10. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see supplemental note 3.
Figure 33-1. Percentage of male principals, by school type and level: School years 1999–2000 and 2007–08

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year and school type</th>
<th>1999–2000</th>
<th>2007–08</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Principals from Bureau of Indian Education schools were excluded from the analysis. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see supplemental note 3.


Figure 33-2. Percentage distribution of public school principals, by school level and years of experience as a principal: School years 1999–2000 and 2007–08

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years as a principal</th>
<th>1999–2000</th>
<th>2007–08</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 or fewer years</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4–9 years</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–19 years</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 or more years</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Principals from Bureau of Indian Education schools were excluded from the analysis. Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see supplemental note 3.

In 2008–09, some 12 percent of all principals left the profession. In addition to principals who left the profession, another 6 percent of all principals moved from their 2007–08 school to a different school for the 2008–09 school year.

In 2008–09, some 12 percent of all principals left the profession (see table A-34-1). The percentage of principals in public schools who left the profession (“leavers”) was not significantly different from the percentage of those in private schools who left the profession (12 and 11 percent, respectively). Forty-five percent of public school principals who left after the 2007–08 school year were retired in 2008–09, and 22 percent of private school principal leavers were retired (see table A-34-3). In addition to principals who left the profession, another 6 percent of all principals moved from their 2007–08 school to a different school for the 2008–09 school year (“movers”) (either outside or within their district or between or within sectors) (see table A-34-1). The percentage of principals who were movers was higher at public schools than at private schools (7 percent vs. 3 percent, respectively).

Generally, a higher percentage of principals over the age of 60 than principals in younger age groups left the profession (see table A-34-2). In 2008–09, some 20 percent of all principals age 60 or over left the profession, compared with 13 percent of principals ages 50 to 59, 8 percent of principals ages 40 to 49, and 9 percent of principals ages 30 to 39. These differences in percentages of leavers by age group were seen among principals overall as well as among public school principals, while the only significant difference among the percentages of private school principals leaving the profession was that a higher percentage of principals under 30 (24 percent) left the profession than principals ages 40 to 49 (8 percent). Among principals over the age of 60, a higher percentage of public school than private school principals left the profession (27 vs. 10 percent, respectively).

Compared to principals who left the profession in 2008–09, principals who moved to other schools in 2008–09 followed an opposite pattern in terms of age. A lower percentage of all principals over the age of 60 than of principals in most of the younger age groups moved to other schools. Three percent of all principals age 60 or over moved to other schools in 2008–09, compared with 6 percent each of principals ages 50 to 59 or 40 to 49 and 9 percent of principals ages 30 to 39.

Overall, a higher percentage of principals with the highest level of experience at any school (10 or more years) left the profession in 2008–09, compared with principals with the lowest level of experience at any school (less than three years). Among public school principals, 18 percent who had been a principal at any school for 10 or more years left the profession, while 8 percent of those who had been a principal at any school for less than three years left the profession. The patterns by which public and private school principals left the profession differed in terms of levels of experience. A higher percentage of private school principals who had been a principal at any school for less than three years (16 percent) left the profession, compared with those who had been a principal at any school for 10 or more years (8 percent).

Of those public school leavers with the most experience as principals (10 or more years), a higher percentage were retired in 2008–09 (68 percent), compared with those who were working in a K–12 school, but not as a principal (8 percent) or were working in K–12 education, but not in a K–12 school (20 percent) (see table A-34-3). Among the most experienced private school principal leavers, a higher percentage were retired in 2008–09 (40 percent), compared with those who were working in a job outside of K–12 education (22 percent).

While a higher percentage of more experienced principals left the profession than less experienced principals, a higher percentage of less experienced principals moved to other schools (see table A-34-2). A lower percentage of all principals with 10 or more years experience as a principal anywhere (5 percent) moved to other schools in 2008–09, compared with principals with less than three years of experience (8 percent).

For more information: Tables A-34-1 through A-34-3

Glossary: Education specialist/professional diploma, Elementary school, Private school, Public school, Secondary school

Technical Notes

Stayers are 2007–08 principals who were principals in the same schools in 2008–09. Movers are 2007–08 principals who were principals in different schools in 2008–09. Leavers are 2007–08 principals who were no longer principals in 2008–09. “Other” includes principals who had left their 2007–08 school, but for whom it was not possible to determine a mover or leaver status in 2008–09. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Principal Follow-up Survey (PFS), see supplemental note 3.
### Figure 34-1. Percentage distribution of principal stayers, movers, and leavers, by school sector: School year 2008–09

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School sector</th>
<th>Stayers</th>
<th>Movers</th>
<th>Leavers</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All school principals</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public school principals</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private school principals</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:** Stayers are 2007–08 principals who were principals in the same schools in 2008–09. Movers are 2007–08 principals who were principals in different schools in 2008–09. Leavers are 2007–08 principals who were no longer principals in 2008–09. "Other" includes principals who had left their 2007–08 school, but for whom it was not possible to determine a mover or leaver status in 2008–09. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see supplemental note 3. Detail may not sum to totals due to rounding.


### Figure 34-2. Percentage of principal leavers, by school sector and years as a principal at any school: School year 2008–09

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School sector</th>
<th>Less than 3 years</th>
<th>3–5 years</th>
<th>6–9 years</th>
<th>10 or more years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All school principals</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public school principals</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private school principals</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NOTE:** Stayers are 2007–08 principals who were principals in the same schools in 2008–09. Movers are 2007–08 principals who were principals in different schools in 2008–09. Leavers are 2007–08 principals who were no longer principals in 2008–09. "Other" includes principals who had left their 2007–08 school, but for whom it was not possible to determine a mover or leaver status in 2008–09. For more information on the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), see supplemental note 3.

Indicator 35
Public School Revenue Sources

From 1989–90 through 2007–08, total elementary and secondary public school revenues increased from $356 billion to $599 billion, a 68 percent increase after adjusting for inflation.

From 1989–90 through 2007–08, total elementary and secondary public school revenues increased from $356 billion to $599 billion, a 68 percent increase after adjusting for inflation to 2009–10 dollars (see table A-35-1). During this period, the total amount coming from each revenue source (federal, state, and local) increased, but the percentage increases differed by revenue source. Federal revenues, the smallest of the three revenue sources, increased by 125 percent, compared with increases of 73 percent for state revenues and 56 percent for local revenues.

The percentage of total revenues for public elementary and secondary education that came from local sources declined from 47 percent in 1989–90 to 44 percent in 2007–08. While the percentage coming from state sources was similar in 1989–90 and 2007–08 (47 and 48 percent, respectively), the percentage fluctuated during this period: it was lowest (45 percent) in 1993–94 and highest (50 percent) in 2000–01. The percentage of total revenues from federal sources increased from 6 to 9 percent from 1989–90 through 2004–05, and in 2007–08 it was 8 percent.

In 2007–08, there were significant variations across the states in the percentage of public school revenues coming from each revenue source. In 25 states, the majority of education revenues came from state governments, while in 15 states and the District of Columbia the majority came from local revenues. In 10 states, no single revenue source made up a majority of education revenues (see table A-35-2).

In 2007–08, the percentage of revenues coming from state sources was highest in Vermont (86 percent) and Hawaii (85 percent). (Hawaii has only one school district.) The percentage of revenues coming from state sources was lowest in Nevada and Illinois (31 percent each). The percentage of revenues coming from federal sources was highest in Louisiana (17 percent) and Mississippi (16 percent) and lowest in New Jersey and Connecticut (4 percent each). Among the states, the percentage of revenues coming from local sources was highest in Nevada (63 percent) and lowest in Hawaii (3 percent) and Vermont (8 percent). The percentage of revenues from property taxes also differed by state, ranging from a high of 54 percent in Connecticut to lows of 0 or nearly 0 percent in Hawaii and Vermont.

For more information: Tables A-35-1 and A-35-2

Glossary: Consumer Price Index (CPI), Elementary school, Secondary school, Property tax, Public school, Revenues

Technical Notes

Revenues have been adjusted for the effects of inflation using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) and are in constant 2009–10 dollars. For more information about the CPI, see supplemental note 10. Other local government revenues includes revenues from sources such as local nonproperty taxes and investments, as well as revenues from student activities, textbook sales, transportation and tuition fees, and food services. For more information about revenues for public elementary and secondary schools, see supplemental note 10. For more information about the Common Core of Data, see supplemental note 3.
Figure 35-1. Total revenues for public elementary and secondary schools, by revenue source: School years 1989–90 through 2007–08

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School year</th>
<th>Total revenues (in billions of constant 2009–10 dollars)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1989–90</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993–94</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997–98</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001–02</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005–06</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007–08</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Revenues are in constant 2009–10 dollars, adjusted using the Consumer Price Index (CPI). For more information about the CPI and revenues for public elementary and secondary schools, see supplemental note 10. For more information about the Common Core of Data, see supplemental note 3.


Figure 35-2. State revenues for public elementary and secondary schools as a percentage of total school revenues, by state: School year 2007–08

NOTE: Both the District of Columbia and Hawaii have only one school district each; therefore, neither is comparable to the other states. For more information about revenues for public elementary and secondary schools, see supplemental note 10. For more information about the Common Core of Data, see supplemental note 3.

Total expenditures per student in public elementary and secondary schools rose 39 percent in constant dollars from 1989–90 through 2007–08, with interest on school debt increasing faster than current expenditures or capital outlay.

Total expenditures per student in fall enrollment in public from 8 to 10 percent. The percentage spent on tuition elementary and secondary schools measured in constant and other items remained around 2 percent throughout 2009–10 dollars rose from $8,832 in 1989–90 to $12,236 in 2007–08, a 39 percent increase (see table A-36-1). Most of this increase occurred after 1998–99. The various components of total expenditures increased at different rates during this time period. Spending on interest on school debt per student increased at the highest rate at 105 percent (from $159 to $326), followed by capital outlay at 83 percent (from $749 to $1,368) and current expenditures at 33 percent (from $7,925 to $10,542).

In the 2007–08 school year, payments of salaries and employee benefits for instructional and noninstructional staff, after adjusting for inflation, together composed $8,464 of current expenditures per student in public elementary and secondary schools. From 1989–90 through 2007–08, the amount of current expenditures per student spent on salaries and employee benefits together increased by 30 percent, with salaries alone increasing 22 percent and employee benefits alone increasing 62 percent. During this period, the amount of current expenditures spent on purchased services increased 57 percent. As a result of these different rates of increases, salaries as a share of current expenditures decreased from 66 to 60 percent between 1989–90 and 2007–08, while the percentage of current expenditures spent on employee benefits rose from 17 to 20 percent, and the percentage spent on purchased services increased from 8 to 10 percent. The percentage spent on tuition and other items remained around 2 percent throughout the period.

Among the major functions of current expenditures, spending on student and staff support increased at the highest rate (62 percent) between 1989–90 and 2007–08, followed by instruction (34 percent) and transportation (32 percent) (see table A-36-2). Spending also increased by a smaller percentage on three other major functions of current expenditures: operation and maintenance (20 percent), food services (17 percent), and administration (16 percent). Of the seven major functions of current expenditures, only spending on enterprise operations declined (32 percent).

In the 2007–08 school year, 61 percent of the $10,542 spent on current expenditures in public elementary and secondary schools went toward instruction expenditures such as salaries and benefits of teachers (see table A-36-2). About 14 percent went toward student and staff support; 10 percent, operation and maintenance; 8 percent, administration; 4 percent each, transportation and food services; and less than 1 percent, enterprise operations.

For more information: Tables A-36-1 and A-36-2
Glossary: Expenditures, Public school

Technical Notes
Expenditures have been adjusted for the effects of inflation using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) and are in constant 2009–10 dollars. For more information about the CPI, see supplemental note 10. Current expenditures are presented by both the service or commodity bought (object) as well as the activity that is supported by the service or commodity bought (function). Total expenditures exclude “Other current expenditures” such as community services, private school programs, adult education, and other programs not allocable to expenditures per student at public schools. Enterprise operations include expenditures for operations funded by sales of products or services, along with amounts for direct program support made available by state education agencies for local school districts. For more information about the classifications of expenditures, see supplemental note 10. For more information about the Common Core of Data, see supplemental note 3.
Figure 36-1. Percentage change in inflation-adjusted total expenditures per student in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by expenditure type and objects of current expenditures: School years 1989–90 to 2007–08

NOTE: “Current expenditures,” “Capital outlay,” and “Interest on school debt” are subcategories of “Total expenditures”; “Salaries,” “Employee benefits,” “Purchased services,” “Supplies,” and “Tuition and other” are subcategories of “Current expenditures.” Expenditures have been adjusted for the effects of inflation using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) and are in 2009–10 constant dollars. For more information about the CPI and classifications of expenditures, see supplemental note 10. For more information about the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), “National Public Education Financial Survey,” 1989–90 and 2007–08.

Figure 36-2. Current expenditures per student in fall enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, by expenditure object: School years 1989–90 through 2007–08

[In constant 2009–10 dollars]

NOTE: Expenditures have been adjusted for the effects of inflation using the Consumer Price Index (CPI) and are in constant 2009–10 dollars. For more information about the CPI, see supplemental note 10. For more information about classifications of expenditures, see supplemental note 10. For more information about the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), “National Public Education Financial Survey,” 1989–90 through 2007–08.
Variations in Instruction Expenditures

Total variation in instruction expenditures per student has increased among public school districts since 1997–98, primarily due to an increase in the variation between states.

A number of methods can be used to measure the variation in the amount that school districts spend per student on instruction. This indicator uses the Theil coefficient to measure the variation in the instruction expenditures per student in unified public school districts for prekindergarten through grade 12. The Theil coefficient provides a national measure of differences in instruction expenditures per student that can be decomposed into separate components to measure school district-level variations between and within states. The between-state and within-state components indicate whether the national variation in instruction expenditures per student is primarily due to differences in expenditures between states or within states. Similarly, the trends in the two components indicate whether the change over time in the national variation of instruction expenditures per student is primarily due to changes between states or within states. The Theil coefficient can range from zero, indicating no variation, to a maximum possible value of 1.0. The value of the Theil coefficient remains unchanged if expenditures in all districts are increased by the same percentage; therefore it was not necessary to adjust instruction expenditures for inflation at the national level.

The variation in instruction expenditures per student over time may reflect differences across school districts in the amount of services or goods purchased, such as the number of classroom teachers hired. These changes may, in part, reflect various state finance litigation, school finance reform efforts, and changes in the composition of student enrollment. Further, some of the variation in expenditures per pupil may be due to cost differences across states and districts within states. Changes in cost differences across and within states may also affect the changes in the variation over time.

Across U.S. districts, the total variation in instruction expenditures per student decreased between school years 1989–90 and 1997–98 and then increased between school years 1997–98 and 2007–08 (see table A-37-1). In 2007–08, the total variation in instruction expenditures per student was greater than it was in the early 1990s. Both the between-state and within-state variations in instruction expenditures per student decreased between 1989–90 and 1997–98 and increased between 1997–98 and 2007–08. Like the total variation, the between-state variation was greater in 2007–08 than it was in the early 1990s. The within-state variation was smaller in 2007–08 than it was in the early 1990s.

Between 1989–90 and 2007–08, differences between states accounted for a greater proportion of the variation in instruction expenditures per student among public school districts than did differences within states. The percentage of the total variation due to between-state differences increased from 72 percent in 1989–90 to 78 percent in 2007–08, while the percentage of the total variation due to within-state differences decreased from 28 to 22 percent.

For more information: Table A-37-1

Glossary: Expenditures, Public school

Technical Notes

For more information on classifications of expenditures for elementary and secondary education, the variation in expenditures per student, and the Theil coefficient, see supplemental note 10. This indicator only includes unified public elementary and secondary districts. Unified districts serve both elementary and secondary grades. The Theil coefficient was calculated for unified districts only in order to limit any variations in expenditures per pupil due to the grade levels of the school districts or due to districts serving only students in special programs. In 2007–08, approximately 92 percent of all public elementary and secondary school students were enrolled in unified school districts. For more information on the Common Core of Data, see supplemental note 3.
Section 4—Contexts of Elementary and Secondary Education

Figure 37-1. Variation in instruction expenditures per student in unified public elementary and secondary school districts, by source of variation: School years 1989–90 through 2007–08

NOTE: The Theil coefficient measures variation for groups within a set (i.e., states within the country) and indicates relative variation and any differences that may exist among them. It can be decomposed into components measuring between-state and within-state variation in expenditures per student. It has a minimum value of zero, and increasing values indicate increases in the variation, with a maximum possible value of 1.0. The value of the Theil coefficient remains unchanged if expenditures in all districts are increased by the same percentage; therefore it was not necessary to adjust instruction expenditures for inflation at the national level. For more information on the variation in expenditures per student and the Theil coefficient, see supplemental note 10. For more information on the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3.


Figure 37-2. Percentage distribution of source of variation in instruction expenditures per student in unified public elementary and secondary school districts: Various school years, 1989–90 through 2007–08

NOTE: Detail may not sum to totals because of rounding. The Theil coefficient measures variation for groups within a set (i.e., states within the country) and indicates relative variation and any differences that may exist among them. It can be decomposed into components measuring between-state and within-state variation in expenditures per student. It has a minimum value of zero, and increasing values indicate increases in the variation, with a maximum possible value of 1.0. The value of the Theil coefficient remains unchanged if expenditures in all districts are increased by the same percentage; therefore it was not necessary to adjust instruction expenditures for inflation at the national level. For more information on the variation in expenditures per student and the Theil coefficient, see supplemental note 10. For more information on the Common Core of Data (CCD), see supplemental note 3.

In 2007, the United States spent $10,768 per student on elementary and secondary education, which was 45 percent higher than the OECD average of $7,401. At the postsecondary level, U.S. expenditures per student were $27,010, more than twice as high as the OECD average of $12,471.

This indicator uses material from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) report *Education at a Glance* to compare countries’ expenditures on education using expenditures per student from both public and private sources and total education expenditures as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP). The latter measure allows a comparison of countries’ expenditures relative to their ability to finance education. Private sources of expenditures include payments from households for school-based expenses such as tuition, transportation fees, book rentals, or food services, as well as private funds raised by institutions.

In 2007, expenditures per student for the United States were $10,768 at the combined elementary and secondary level, which was 45 percent higher than the average of $7,401 for the OECD member countries reporting data (see table A-38-1). The expenditure per student measure is based on full-time-equivalent (FTE) student enrollment rather than headcounts. At the postsecondary level, U.S. expenditures per student were $27,010, which was more than twice as high as the OECD average of $12,471. Expenditures per student varied widely across the OECD countries: at the combined elementary and secondary level, expenditures ranged from $2,165 in Mexico and $2,245 in Chile to $15,579 in Luxembourg; at the postsecondary level, they ranged from $5,576 in Poland to $20,278 in Canada, $20,883 in Switzerland, and $27,010 in the United States.

Among the OECD countries reporting data in 2007, the countries that spent the highest percentage of their GDP on total education expenditures were Iceland (7.1 percent), the United States (7.6 percent), Denmark (7.1 percent), and Korea (7.0 percent). Looking at education expenditures by level, the percentage of its GDP (4.0 percent) that the United States spent on elementary and secondary education was higher than the average percentage by all OECD countries reporting data (3.6 percent). Compared with the percentage of its GDP that the United States spent on elementary and secondary education, 6 countries spent a higher percentage, 20 countries spent a lower percentage, and 3 countries spent the same percentage. Among OECD countries, Iceland spent the highest percentage (5.1 percent) of its GDP on elementary and secondary education. At the postsecondary level, the United States spent 3.1 percent of its GDP on education, which was higher than the average percentage spent by OECD countries (1.5 percent) and higher than the percentage spent by any other OECD country reporting data.

A country’s wealth (defined as GDP per capita) is positively associated with expenditures per student on education at the combined elementary/secondary level and at the postsecondary level. For example, the education expenditures per student (both elementary/secondary and postsecondary) for each of the 10 OECD countries with the highest GDP per capita in 2007 were higher than the OECD average expenditures per student. The expenditures per student for the 10 OECD countries with the lowest GDP per capita were below the OECD average at both the elementary/secondary level and at the postsecondary level.

**For more information:** Table A-38-1

**Glossary:** Elementary/secondary school, Expenditures, Full-time equivalent (FTE) enrollment, Gross Domestic Product (GDP), Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), Postsecondary education, Purchasing Power Parity (PPP) indices

**Technical Notes**

Education expenditures are from public revenue sources (governments) and private revenue sources. Private sources include payments from households for school-based expenses such as tuition, transportation fees, book rentals, or food services, as well as funds raised by institutions through endowments or returns on investments. Data for private school expenditures at the elementary and secondary levels are estimated for some countries, including the United States. Per student expenditures are based on public and private FTE enrollment figures and on current expenditures and capital outlays from both public and private sources, where data are available. Purchasing power parity (PPP) indices are used to convert other currencies to U.S. dollars (i.e., absolute terms). Within-country consumer price indices are used to adjust the PPP indices to account for inflation because the fiscal year has a different starting date in different countries. For more information on classification of expenditures for international comparisons, see supplemental note 10. Luxembourg data are excluded from the graphs because of anomalies with respect to their GDP per capita data (large revenues from international finance institutions distort the wealth of the population). The OECD average for GDP per capita for each graph is based on the number of countries with data available (31 for figure 38-1 and 30 for figure 38-2).
Figure 38-1. Annual expenditures per student for elementary and secondary education in selected OECD countries, by GDP per capita: 2007

Linear relationship between spending and country wealth for 31 OECD countries reporting data (elementary/secondary): \( r^2 = .84; \) slope = .23; intercept = -.207.

NOTE: Luxembourg data are excluded because of anomalies with respect to their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita data. Large revenues from international finance institutions distort the wealth of the population. For more information on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), see supplemental note 11.


Figure 38-2. Annual expenditures per student for postsecondary education in selected OECD countries, by GDP per capita: 2007

Linear relationship between spending and country wealth for 31 OECD countries reporting data (postsecondary): \( r^2 = .67; \) slope = .44; intercept = -1,263.

NOTE: Luxembourg data are excluded because they do not report data for postsecondary institutions. For more information on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), see supplemental note 11.