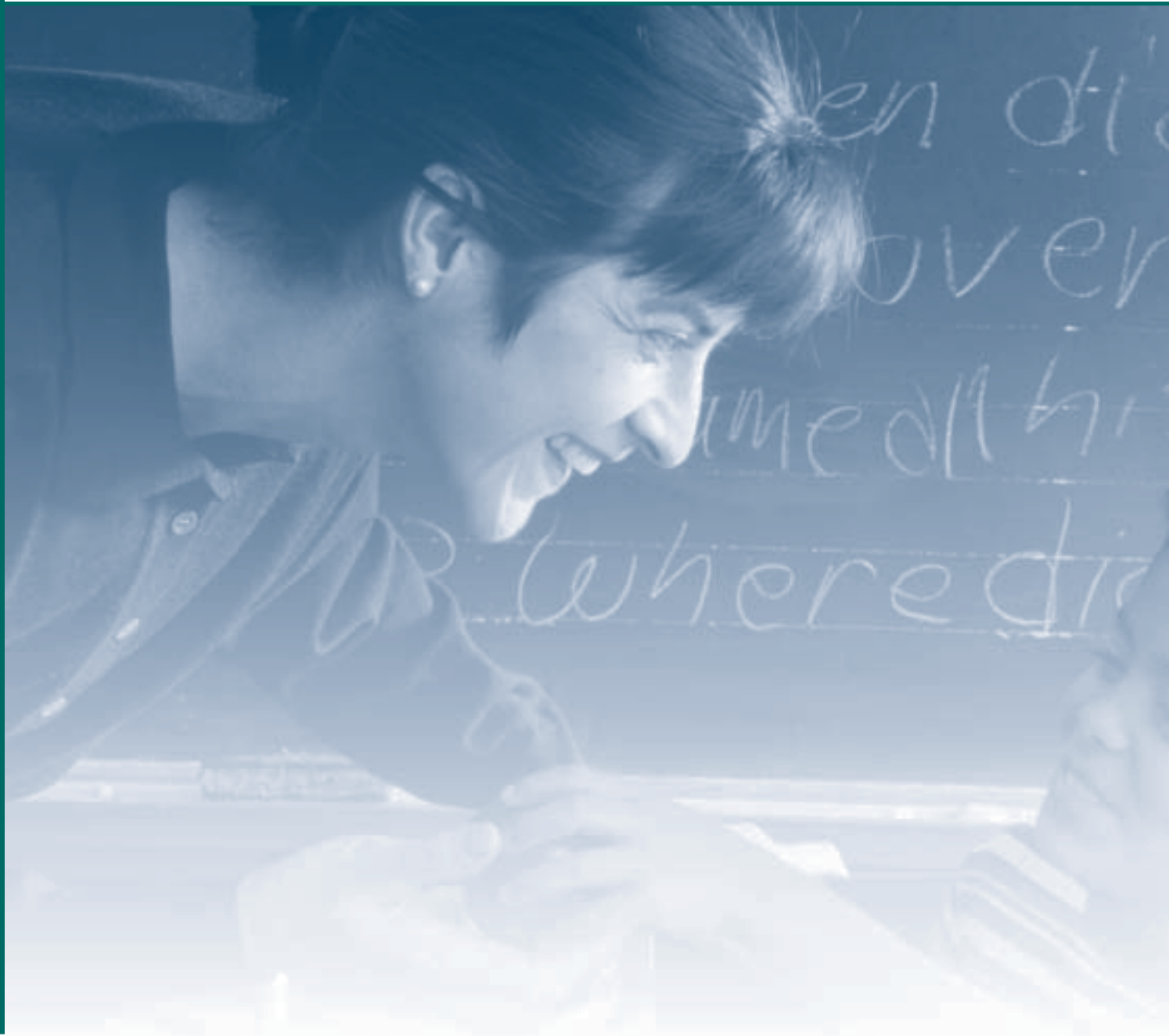


Section 4

Contexts of Elementary and Secondary Education





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Summary: Contexts of Elementary and Secondary Education

The indicators in this section explore why some schools may be more successful than others at helping students learn. Research indicates that what occurs in classrooms, the training and ability of the teaching force, and the overall culture and atmosphere of the school all affect student learning (NCES 2001–030). This section looks at each of these factors.

To gauge what goes on in the classroom, this section looks at the content of student learning as measured by the academic level of the courses students have taken. It also examines the instructional practices of teachers, the use of technology in schools, classroom size, and extra support for children with special needs, as aspects of the opportunity to learn in schools. Because learning in the classroom takes place within the context of a school, this section looks at various contexts of elementary and secondary schools. Some contextual dimensions considered are the control of the school (public or private); school size; community type (urban, suburban, or rural); and the composition of the student body, which includes such measures as the percentage of enrolled students who are minority students, who come from poor or single-parent families, or whose English proficiency is limited. Some analyses also look at student characteristics (e.g., race/ethnicity or sex) to provide additional perspective on questions of equality in learning opportunities.

To gauge the training and ability of the teaching force, this section examines teacher characteristics that evidence suggests matter for student learning. These characteristics include teachers' academic and professional preparation, the extent to which this preparation matches the subjects they teach, the distribution of new and experienced teachers, and teacher participation in professional development. These indicators compare teachers according to these characteristics, and their perceptions of the teaching environment, in different school contexts. The demography of the teacher workforce and patterns of recruitment and retention are also discussed here.

To gauge aspects of the overall culture and atmosphere of the school, this section looks at the condition of school facilities, rates of underenrollment and overcrowding, school-related violence and student victimization, disciplinary practices, and leadership qualities of principals. These indicators provide additional perspectives on learning environments and their relationships to the different school and classroom-level contexts.

In addition to these three areas, this section looks at school choice programs and charter schools to provide perspective on how school contexts relate to different parental choices and differences in institutional control.

Coursetaking and Standards

Trends in Science and Mathematics Coursetaking

The percentage of high school graduates who completed advanced coursework in science and mathematics increased between 1982 and 1998.

Compared with regular academic courses, advanced courses generally demand greater effort and challenge students more. Trends in high school coursetaking can thus provide an indication of changes in levels of student effort and learning (Chaney, Burgdorf, and Atash 1997). Changes in the rigor of coursetaking can also serve as an indicator of changes in the quality of secondary education that schools deliver. This indicator can only be viewed as a proxy, however, as the academic content of courses varies by state and school district, even when classified at the same level of rigor or with the same title.

Since the 1980s, when states began to make the requirements for a diploma more demanding (NCES 95–029, table 151), the percentage of high school graduates completing some advanced coursework in science and mathematics has increased. In 1982, 35 percent of high school graduates had completed advanced science coursework (i.e., at least one course classified as more challenging than general biology); by 1998, this percentage increased

to 62 percent. Most of this increase is attributable to increases in chemistry I and/or physics I. Between 1982 and 1998, the percentage of students who had completed chemistry I or physics I doubled (from 15 to 30 percent), and the percentage of students who had completed chemistry I and physics I increased from 6 to 16 percent. The percentage of graduates who had completed at least one course of either chemistry II, physics II, or advanced biology coursework did not change significantly (see supplemental table 26-1).

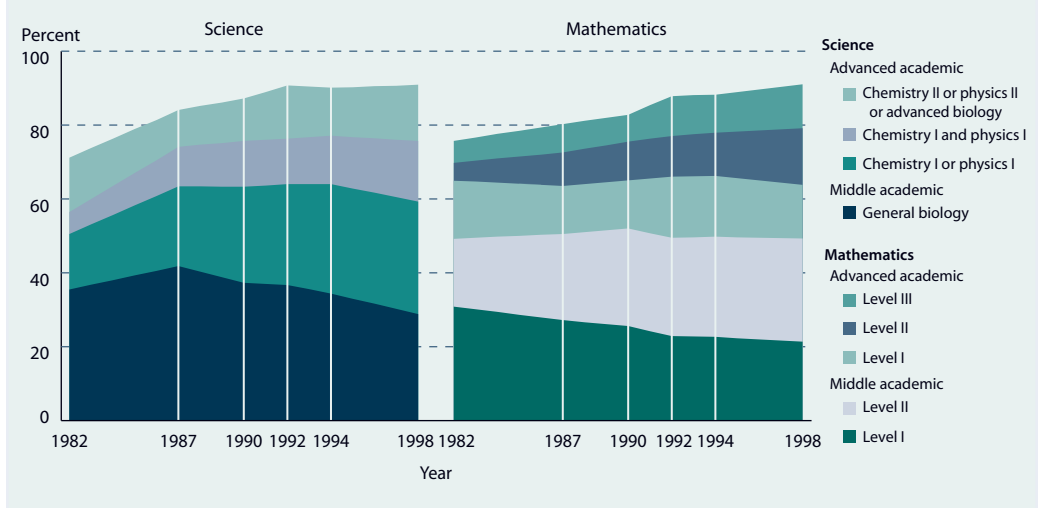
The percentage of high school graduates who had completed courses in advanced academic mathematics (i.e., completed at least one course classified as more challenging than algebra II and geometry I) increased from 26 percent in 1982 to 41 percent by 1998. Moreover, the percentage who had completed advanced level II (i.e., precalculus or an introduction to analysis) tripled (from 5 to 15 percent), while the percentage who had completed advanced level III (i.e., a course in calculus) doubled (from 6 to 12 percent) (see supplemental table 26-2).

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, High School and Beyond Longitudinal Study of 1980 Sophomores, "First Follow-up" (HS&B:1980/1982); National Education Longitudinal Study of 1988, "High School Transcript Study" (NELS:1988/1992); and National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) High School Transcript Studies, 1987, 1990, 1994, and 1998.



FOR MORE INFORMATION:
Supplemental Note 5
Supplemental Tables 26-1,
26-2
NCES 95–029; Chaney,
Burgdorf, and Atash 1997;
Lee et al. 1998; Chen et al.
forthcoming

COURSE-TAKING LEVELS: Percentage of high school graduates who completed middle or advanced level science and mathematics courses, by level of highest course completed: Selected years 1982 to 1998



Coursetaking and Standards

Coursetaking in Science and Mathematics

Asian/Pacific Islander and White high school graduates along with private school graduates complete advanced levels of science and mathematics coursework at higher rates than their peers.

Trends in coursetaking since 1982 indicate that a larger proportion of students than in the past are completing advanced level, high school science and mathematics coursework (*indicator 26*). Unlike measures of the quantity of courses taken, these trends suggest a qualitative change in secondary education. These trends, however, do not reveal which students are taking these more academically challenging courses (see *Supplemental Note 5* for a listing of these courses). This indicator highlights differences among 1998 high school graduates who completed some advanced level science and mathematics coursework.

Among these graduates, Asian/Pacific Islanders were more likely than graduates of any other race/ethnicity to have completed advanced science and mathematics courses. Whites were more likely to have completed advanced science and mathematics courses than Blacks, Hispanics, and American Indian/Alaska Natives. This course-taking pattern differs from that for English and foreign languages, where graduates of all races and ethnicities completed advanced courses at comparable rates (NCES 2001–072, *indicator 34*).

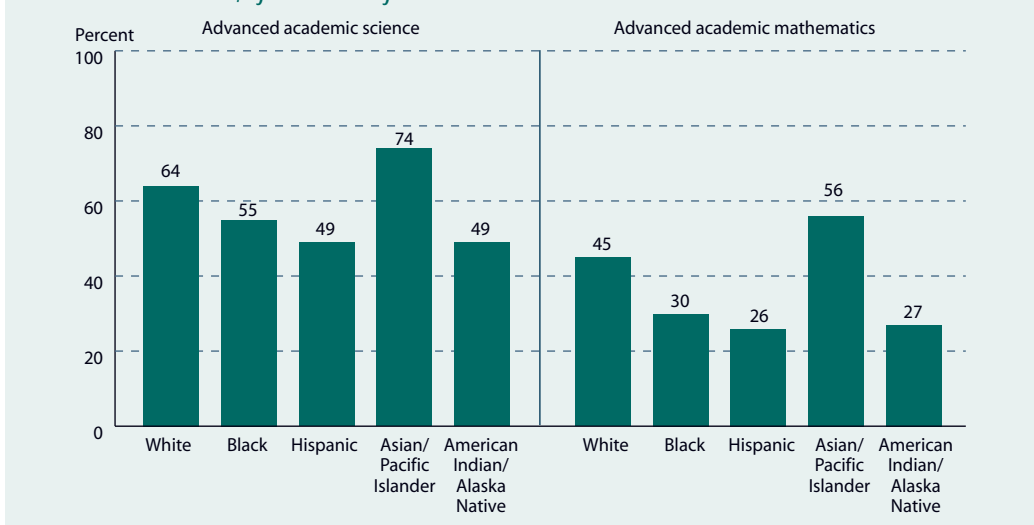
Private school graduates were more likely than public school graduates to have completed ad-

vanced courses in science and mathematics. The same is true for graduates who completed the Core New Basics curriculum—though 12 percent of those who completed this curriculum did not complete any advanced science and 43 percent did not complete any advanced mathematics.

Graduates from moderate-sized schools (i.e., with an enrollment of 300–999) completed more advanced science coursework than graduates from small schools (enrollment less than 300), and more advanced mathematics coursework than graduates from small schools and large schools (enrollment more than 999). (Apparent differences in the rates at which graduates from large and moderate-sized schools completed advanced science coursework are not statistically significant.)

Although there was parity between the completion rates of males and females in advanced mathematics, females were more likely to have completed an advanced science course than males. However, within the top two levels of advanced science coursetaking, the rates at which males and females completed advanced courses were not significantly different from each other.

ADVANCED COURSE-TAKING RATES: Percentage of high school graduates who completed some advanced level coursework in science or mathematics, by race/ethnicity: 1998



NOTE: See notes to the accompanying tables on the various levels of science and mathematics courses. Some of these estimates are revised slightly from those published in NCES 2001–072, *indicator 40*.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) High School Transcript Study, 1998.

FOR MORE INFORMATION:
Supplemental Note 5
NCES 2001–072



¹Students in this category may have taken some science courses, but these courses are not defined as science courses according to the classification used in this analysis. See *Supplemental Note 5* for more information.

²To meet the requirements of the Core New Basics curriculum, students must complete at least 4 years of English and 3 each of science, mathematics, and social studies.

NOTE: The placement of graduates in the various levels of science courses is determined by the completion of at least one course at that level. Graduates who have completed coursework at more than one level (e.g., Primary physical science and Secondary physical science) were placed into the higher level of coursework completed (i.e., Secondary physical science). Graduates may complete higher levels of coursework (e.g., Chemistry II or physics II) without having taken courses at lower levels (e.g., Primary physical science). See *Supplemental Note 5* for more details on these levels. These levels are slightly revised and the estimates recalculated from those published in NCES 2001–072, *indicator 40*. Percentages may not add to 100.0 due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) High School Transcript Study, 1998.

SCIENCE COURSETAKING: Percentage distribution of 1998 high school graduates according to highest level of science courses completed, by student and school characteristics: 1998

Student and school characteristics	Low academic level				Advanced academic level				
	No science ¹	Primary physical science	Secondary physical science and basic biology	Total	General biology	Chemistry I or physics I	Chemistry I and physics I	Chemistry II or physics II or advanced biology	Total
Total	0.6	3.0	6.3	9.3	28.6	30.2	16.3	15.1	61.5
Sex									
Male	0.7	3.7	7.3	11.1	29.5	26.7	17.7	14.4	58.8
Female	0.5	2.3	5.5	7.8	27.7	33.2	15.2	15.6	64.0
Race/ethnicity									
White	0.6	2.7	5.6	8.3	27.0	30.3	17.9	15.9	64.1
Black	0.8	1.7	7.9	9.6	34.5	32.9	12.0	10.3	55.1
Hispanic	0.9	6.5	9.5	15.9	34.4	26.5	11.6	10.7	48.8
Asian/Pacific Islander	0.2	1.8	5.3	7.1	18.5	30.1	14.6	29.5	74.2
American Indian/ Alaska Native	0.0	3.8	8.7	12.5	38.9	32.4	11.2	5.1	48.6
Met Core New Basics²									
Yes	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	11.1	37.1	28.5	22.6	88.2
No	0.9	4.2	8.7	12.9	35.6	27.4	11.3	12.0	50.7
Control of school									
Public	0.7	3.3	6.8	10.0	29.6	30.5	14.8	14.4	59.7
Private	0.0	0.3	1.7	2.0	17.4	26.4	31.8	22.4	80.6
School enrollment									
Less than 300	0.6	2.8	6.1	8.9	34.6	30.7	14.9	10.3	55.8
300–999	0.5	1.5	4.1	5.6	21.1	25.8	28.3	18.7	72.8
1,000 or more	0.6	3.3	6.8	10.2	27.9	30.8	14.6	16.0	61.3

MATHEMATICS COURSETAKING: Percentage distribution of 1998 high school graduates according to highest level of mathematics courses completed, by student and school characteristics: 1998

Student and school characteristics	No math-ematics ¹	Non-academic	Low academic	Middle academic			Advanced academic			
				Level I	Level II	Total	Level I	Level II	Level III	Total
Total	0.8	3.6	5.3	21.2	27.7	48.9	14.4	15.2	11.8	41.4
Sex										
Male	1.1	4.1	6.2	22.1	26.4	48.5	13.2	15.0	11.9	40.1
Female	0.6	3.1	4.6	20.1	28.9	49.0	15.7	15.3	11.6	42.6
Race/ethnicity										
White	0.8	3.2	4.6	19.0	27.4	46.3	15.7	16.5	13.0	45.1
Black	0.9	3.6	8.3	26.0	30.8	56.8	14.1	9.3	7.0	30.4
Hispanic	0.9	6.3	7.5	30.9	28.2	59.1	8.4	10.7	7.1	26.2
Asian/Pacific Islander	0.2	2.8	2.6	16.0	22.8	38.8	10.3	25.3	19.9	55.5
American Indian/ Alaska Native	0.7	8.6	6.3	27.5	29.9	57.4	9.3	10.8	6.7	26.9
Met Core New Basics²										
Yes	0.4	0.7	2.6	10.2	28.8	39.0	18.7	20.5	18.1	57.4
No	1.4	7.1	8.7	34.7	26.4	61.1	9.0	8.6	4.0	21.6
Control of school										
Public	0.9	3.9	5.8	22.2	28.6	50.8	14.2	13.4	11.0	38.7
Private	0.0	0.5	0.5	9.8	18.9	28.8	16.5	33.5	20.3	70.3
School enrollment										
Less than 300	0.9	2.9	5.1	23.4	32.9	56.3	13.3	13.4	8.1	34.8
300–999	0.9	2.3	3.5	11.5	18.5	30.0	21.9	21.8	19.6	63.3
1,000 or more	0.8	4.0	5.7	22.1	27.6	49.8	13.4	14.6	11.7	39.7



FOR MORE INFORMATION:
Supplemental Note 5
NCES 2001–072

Special Programs

Inclusion of Students With Disabilities in Regular Classrooms

Inclusion rates for students of almost all disability types have increased over the past decade.

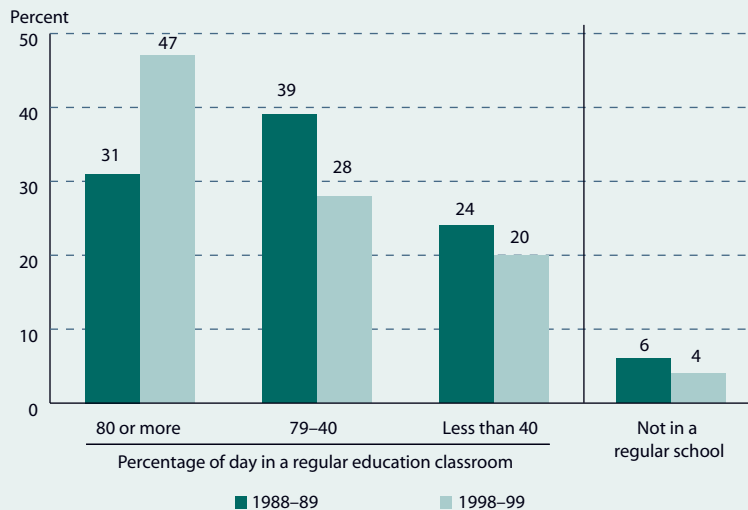
Since 1975, Congress has required that students with disabilities receive an education in the “least restrictive environment.”* Such an environment is determined on a case-by-case basis. Data suggest that, since 1988, U.S. schools have found the regular education classroom to be the “least restrictive environment” for increasing numbers of students with disabilities.

In 1998–99, states reported that 47 percent of students with disabilities spent 80 percent or more of the day in a regular education classroom. In 1988–89, only 31 percent of such students did so. The increase in the percentage of students with disabilities included in regular classrooms is noteworthy because the number of such students has been growing faster than total school enrollments. The ratio of special education students to total K–12 enrollment in

1988–89 was 112 per 1,000 students; in 1998–99, it was 130 per 1,000 students (NCES 2001–034, table 53).

Although the percentage of students with disabilities placed in regular classrooms for at least 80 percent of the day increased between 1988–89 and 1998–99, the size of increase varied by type of disability. The largest increase occurred among students with specific learning disabilities (from 20 to 45 percent). The smallest increases occurred among students with multiple disabilities (from 7 to 11 percent) and those who are both deaf and blind (from 12 to 14 percent). The percentage of students with disabilities educated in separate facilities declined for students of all disability types (for which data exist) except for those with visual impairments (see supplemental table 28-1).

SPECIAL EDUCATION: Percentage distribution of students ages 6–21 with disabilities, by educational environment: 1988–89 and 1998–99



*Congress first required that students with disabilities receive an education in the “least restrictive environment” in the Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142). This requirement is still in effect under section 612(a)(5) of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) Amendments of 1997 (P.L. 105-17).

NOTE: Students counted as disabled are those students served under Part B of the IDEA in the United States and outlying areas. See *Supplemental Note 10* for definitions of all disability types. Percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services. (2000). *22nd Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*; and U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services. (2001). *23rd Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*.

FOR MORE INFORMATION:
 Supplemental Note 10
 Supplemental Table 28-1
 NCES 2001–034



School Choice

Parental Choice of Schools

The proportion of children enrolled in chosen public schools and in private, not church-related schools increased between 1993 and 1999. Differences in parental choice of schools are related to race/ethnicity, household income, and region.

Public school choice programs* provide parents with additional options as to where to enroll their children. Although such programs are not available everywhere, the percentage of school districts that allow parents to send their children to a public school other than their assigned school (or a “chosen school”) increased between 1993 and 1999 (see supplemental table 29-1). This increase may explain the fact that the percentage of children in grades 1–12 whose parents sent them to their assigned public school declined from 80 to 76 percent over these 6 years. Most of this decline can be attributed to parents enrolling their children in chosen public schools. The percentage of children enrolled in chosen public schools increased from 11 to 14 percent during this period, whereas the percentage enrolled at private, not church-related schools increased from 1.6 to 2.3 percent. The percentage enrolled in private, church-related schools remained about the same (see supplemental table 29-2).

as to where to enroll their children in 1999. Black students were more likely to attend a chosen public school than White or Hispanic students, while White students were more likely to attend a private school than Black or Hispanic students. Such differences, however, may reflect differences in family income, and the availability in the community of private schools, private school scholarships, and public school choice programs rather than differences in racial or ethnic preferences. For example, in 1999, students from higher income households were more likely to attend a private school than students from lower income households, and the reverse was true for chosen public schools.

Data for 1999 suggest that more students attend chosen public schools when more choice is available. In 1999, a greater percentage of school districts in the West offered public school choice programs than districts in the Northeast, Midwest, or South. In the same year, students living in the West were more likely to attend chosen public schools than students living in any other region.

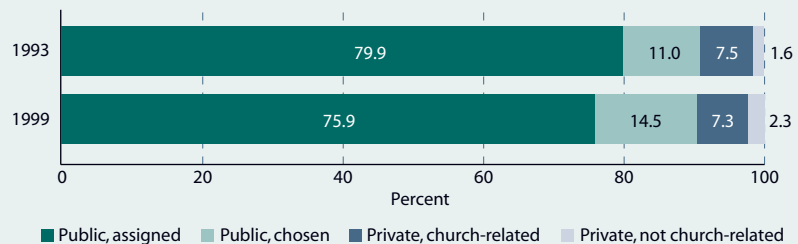
*Public school choice programs “allow public school students to enroll in another school or district outside their attendance area without justification based on special needs” (NCES 98–203). These programs can include within-district or out-of-district school choice options (which can include charter schools and magnet schools).

NOTE: Excludes students who are home schooled and not enrolled in a public or private school for 9 hours or more per week. These students account for 1.7 percent of the population of school-aged children (NCES 2002–039). Percentages may not add to 100.0 due to rounding.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES. National Household Education Surveys Program (NHES), “School Readiness” survey, 1993; “School Safety and Discipline” survey, 1993; “Parent and Family Involvement” survey, 1996; and “Parent Interview” survey, 1999.

Among parents who chose not to send their children to their assigned public school, not all were equally likely to make the same choice

DIFFERENCES IN PARENTAL CHOICE: Percentage distribution of students in grades 1–12, by school type: 1993 and 1999



School type	1993	1999	Percent difference	Percentage change
Public, assigned	79.9	75.9	3.99	-4.99
Public, chosen	11.0	14.5	3.47	31.49
Private, church-related	7.5	7.3	0.26	-3.46
Private, not church-related	1.6	2.3	0.77	49.36



FOR MORE INFORMATION:
 Supplemental Note 1
 Supplemental Tables 29-1,
 29-2
 NCES 97–909

School Choice

Public Charter Schools

Public charter schools are more likely than regular public schools to be located in urban areas, to enroll a higher proportion of Black and Hispanic students, and to employ teachers with fewer years of teaching experience.

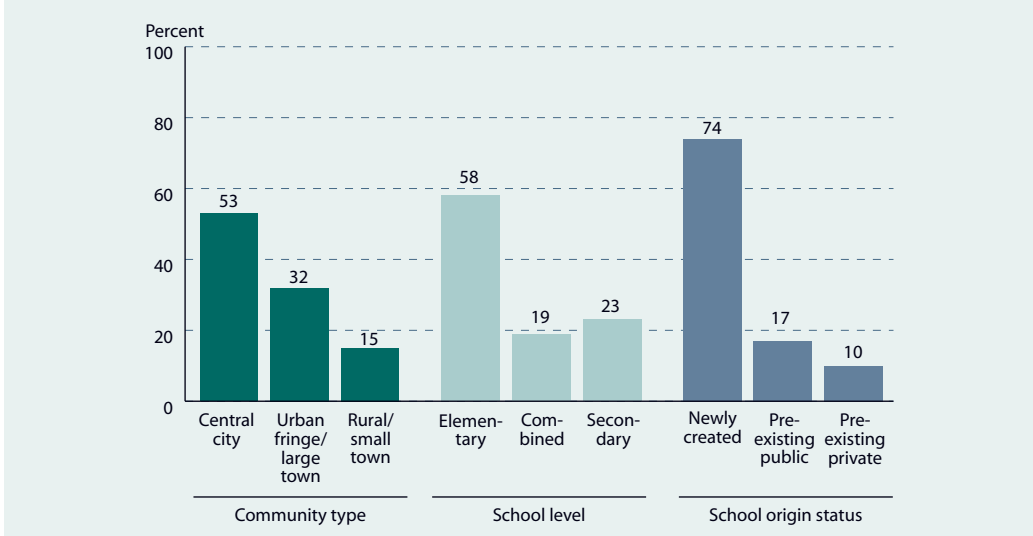
A public charter school is a publicly funded school that is typically governed by a group or organization under a contract or charter with the state, which exempts it from selected state or local rules and regulations. In return for funding and autonomy, the charter school must meet accountability standards. A school's charter is reviewed (typically every 3 to 5 years) and can be revoked if guidelines on curriculum and management are not followed or the standards are not met (U.S. Department of Education 2000e).

In the 2000–01 school year, there were 1,993 public charter schools in the 37 states that allowed charter schools and the District of Columbia (NCES 2002–356). A different survey of the 1,010 public charter schools that were open during the 1998–99 school year and still open during the 1999–2000 school year reveals that these schools served less than 1 percent of public elementary and secondary students and that they were unevenly distributed across the nation: 47 percent were in Arizona, California, and Michigan, and more than half were located in urban areas. More than half of these schools were elementary schools (see supplemental table 30-1).

These charter schools differed from traditional public schools in the characteristics of the students they served. They enrolled higher percentages of Black and Hispanic students as well as lower percentages of White students than traditional public schools. A higher percentage of these charter schools than traditional public schools had more than 75 percent minority enrollment as well as more than 75 percent of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (see supplemental table 30-2).

Teachers in these charter schools had less teaching experience than those in traditional public schools. For example, in 1999–2000, a higher percentage of traditional public elementary and secondary school teachers had 10 or more years of experience than teachers in these charter schools. There were also differences between the two groups in the percentage of secondary teachers who had obtained a major in the subject they taught, with traditional public school teachers more likely to have a major in the subject they taught than teachers in this set of charter schools (see supplemental table 30-3).

PUBLIC CHARTER SCHOOLS: Percentage of public charter schools, by community type, school level, and school origin status: 1999–2000



NOTE: Public charter schools include all public charter schools open as of the 1998–99 school year and still operating in the 1999–2000 school year.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES. Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public Charter School Survey," 1999–2000.

FOR MORE INFORMATION:
Supplemental Tables 30-1,
30-2, 30-3, 30-4

NCES 2002–356; Geske,
Davis, Hingle 1997; Wells
1998; U.S. Department of
Education 2000e



Teachers

Academic Background of College Graduates Who Enter and Leave Teaching

College students with low college entrance examination scores are more likely than students with high scores to prepare to become teachers and to enter the teaching profession. They are also more likely than their high-scoring peers to remain in the teaching profession.

Many studies show that students learn more from teachers with strong academic skills than they do from teachers with weak academic skills (Ballou 1996; Ehrenberg and Brewer 1994, 1995; Ferguson and Ladd 1996). However, studies of teachers' academic qualifications reveal that college graduates with the lowest college entrance examination (i.e., SAT or ACT) scores are more inclined to become K–12 teachers than those with the highest scores (NCES 2001–030). Using SAT or ACT scores as a proxy for academic caliber, this indicator compares academically weak and strong 1992–93 college graduates with regard to selected features of their teaching careers.

Graduates who scored in the bottom quartile of SAT or ACT scores were more likely than those in the top quartile to have taught before 1997 (14 versus 10 percent) and about twice as likely to predict that they would be teaching full time by 2000 (10 versus 4 percent). They were also more likely to have majored in education (15 versus 7 percent) as well as have prepared to teach,* regardless of whether they actually taught (12 versus 6 percent) or not (6 versus 3 percent) (see supplemental table 31-1).

Among graduates who became teachers, those who scored in the bottom quartile were more likely than those in the top quartile to have taught only in elementary schools, only in public schools, and in schools where 50 percent or more of children were eligible for free or reduced-price lunch. Those who scored in the top quartile were more likely than those in the bottom quartile to have taught only in secondary schools as well as only in private schools. In fact, the percentage of graduates who taught only in secondary schools and who scored in the top half is not statistically different from the average for all graduates (or 50 percent) (see supplemental table 31-3). Among graduates who became teachers, school location, size, and rates of minority enrollment were not significant factors distinguishing those in the bottom quartile from those in the top quartile (see supplemental table 31-2).

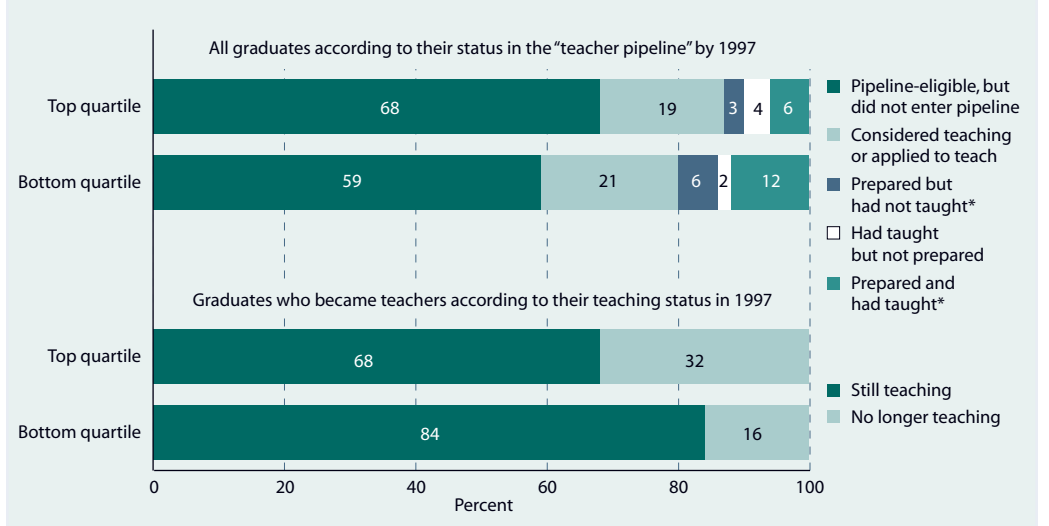
Among graduates who became teachers, those who scored in the bottom quartile were more likely than those in the top quartile to still be teaching in 1997 (84 versus 68 percent) (see supplemental table 31-2).

*Graduates classified as "prepared to teach" had completed a student-teaching assignment or had earned a teaching certificate.

NOTE: The "teacher pipeline" is an analytic framework that organizes graduates by the number of steps they have taken to become teachers. "Pipeline-eligible" refers to all graduates who were not teachers before receiving their bachelor's degree. "Entering the pipeline" refers to taking some steps to become a teacher.

SOURCE: Baccalaureate and Beyond Longitudinal Study, "Second Follow-up" (B&B:1993/1997).

ACADEMIC CALIBER: Percentage distribution of all 1992–93 college graduates and those who became teachers, in the top and bottom quartile of SAT or ACT scores



FOR MORE INFORMATION:
 Supplemental Notes 1, 8
 Supplemental Tables 31-1,
 31-2, 31-3
 NCES 96–899; NCES 2000–
 152; NCES 2001–030
 Marco, Abdel-Fattah, and
 Baron 1992; Ehrenberg and
 Brewer 1994, 1995; Ballou
 1996; Ferguson and Ladd
 1996

Teachers

Educational Background of Teachers

About half of secondary teachers in public schools majored in an academic subject and about 4 out of 10 majored in an academic subject area in education.

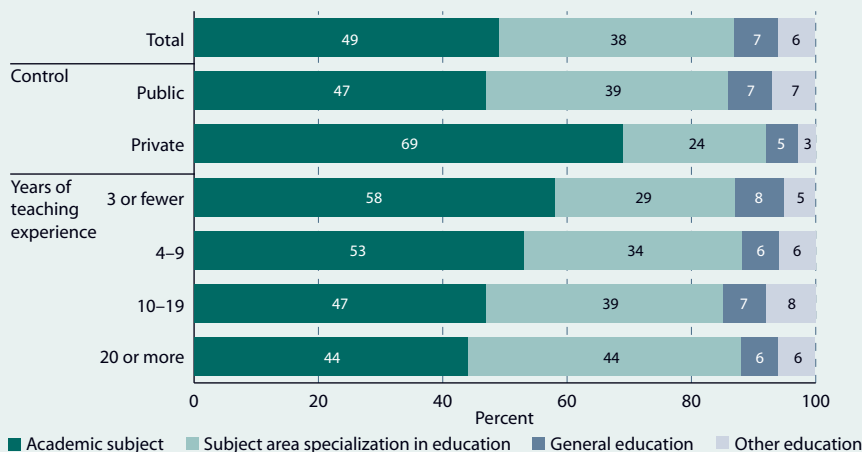
The quality of teachers is an important determinant of school quality but is difficult to measure. One traditional indicator is the level of teachers' educational attainment (NCES 2001-030). The type of degree specialization at the undergraduate and graduate levels is another common measure. This indicator examines the distribution of master's degrees and degree specialization at the undergraduate and graduate levels by various school and teacher characteristics.

Overall, 41 percent of teachers at public schools hold a master's degree, compared with 30 percent at private schools. Public and private school teachers in the Northeast are more likely to hold master's degrees than their peers in other regions. Public schools with low minority enrollments (less than 10 percent) and schools with low percentages of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (less than 15 percent) both have higher percentages of teachers with master's degrees than those with

high minority enrollments (50 percent or more) and those with high percentages of students eligible for free or reduced-price lunch (30 percent or more) (see supplemental table 32-1).

Teachers' degree specialization differs for elementary and secondary school teachers. Among all elementary teachers, 24 percent majored in an academic subject, 18 percent in a subject area specialization in education, 45 percent in general education, and 13 percent in some other education specialization (e.g., special education, curriculum and instruction, or educational administration) for their graduate or undergraduate degree (see supplemental table 32-2). Among all secondary teachers, 49 percent majored in an academic subject, 38 percent in a subject area specialization in education, 7 percent in general education, and 6 percent in some other education specialization for their graduate or undergraduate degree (see supplemental table 32-3).

TEACHERS' ACADEMIC MAJORS: Percentage distribution of secondary school teachers according to the type of undergraduate or graduate major, by control of school and years of teaching experience: 1999–2000



NOTE: Teachers with more than one major or degree are counted only once. Majors/degrees were counted in the following order: academic field, subject area specialization in education, other education, and general education. Percentages may not add to 100 due to rounding. SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES, Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), "Public, Public Charter, and Private School Teacher Surveys," 1999–2000.

FOR MORE INFORMATION:
Supplemental Note 1
Supplemental Tables 32-1,
32-2, 32-3



NCES 2001-030; Ravitch 1998

Teachers

Participation in Professional Development

Teachers who participate in more than 8 hours of professional development activity in a single area of development per year are more likely than teachers who participate 1–8 hours to report that that activity improved their teaching “a lot.” However, most teachers participate in such an activity only 1–8 hours.

Formal professional development and collaboration with other teachers provide opportunities for teachers to improve their teaching practices (NCES 2000–152; National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future 1996; Sprinthall, Reiman, and Theis-Sprinthall 1996). Research also suggests that “the more extended the professional development, the more it encourages effective classroom practices” (Wenglinsky 2000, p. 30). This indicator examines participation in 10 formal professional development activities (which are typically school or district staff workshops on a particular topic) and 6 collaborative activities with other teachers (nonadministrative teacher meetings, teacher networks, or through team-teaching or mentoring).

In 2000, 99 percent of public school teachers participated in at least one of the professional development activities. Of the selected activities, teachers most commonly attended those addressing state or district curriculum and performance standards; the least attended were those addressing the needs of students with lim-

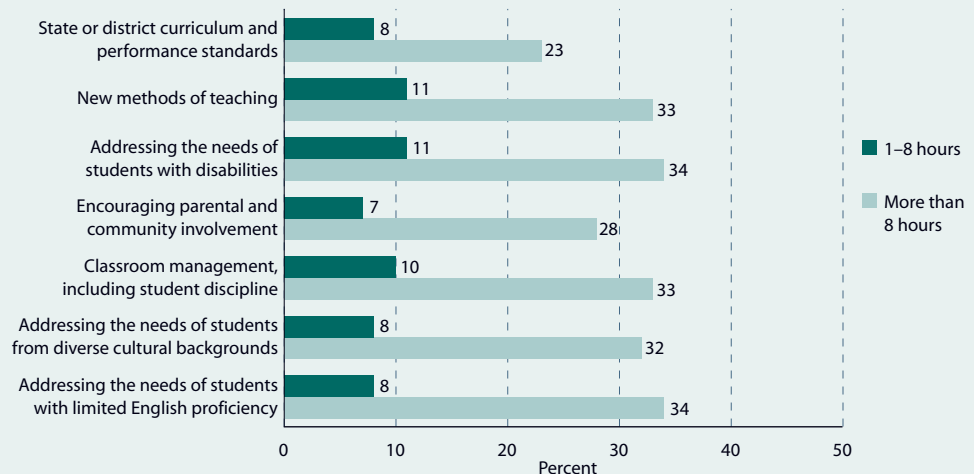
ited English proficiency (see supplemental table 33-1). In general, teachers typically reported spending 1–8 hours in a single area of development during 2000. During the same year, 92 percent of teachers participated in one of the collaborative activities, the most common of which was regularly scheduled collaboration with other teachers (69 percent). Approximately 34 percent of all public school teachers participated in this activity at least two to three times a month (see supplemental table 33-2).

Teachers who participated in any of the professional development activities for more than 8 hours were more likely than those who participated for 1–8 hours to report that that activity improved their teaching “a lot” (see supplemental table 33-3). Among teachers who engaged in the collaborative activities, greater frequency was positively related to teachers’ beliefs about the extent to which the activity improved their classroom teaching; the one exception was mentoring another teacher (see supplemental table 33-4).

NOTE: See supplemental tables 33-1 and 33-2 for the complete list of professional development and collaborative activities.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES. (2001). *Teacher Preparation and Professional Development: 2000* (NCES 2001–088).

PERCEIVED IMPACT OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: Percentage of public elementary and secondary school teachers who participated in professional development during the past 12 months who believed the activity improved their classroom teaching “a lot,” by focus of activity and hours of participation, by selected activities: 2000



FOR MORE INFORMATION:

Supplemental Tables 33-1, 33-2, 33-3, 33-4

NCES 2000–152

National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future 1996; Sprinthall, Reiman, and Theis-Sprinthall 1996; Wenglinsky 2000

School Climate and Discipline

Student Victimization

Victimization affects all types of students. However, students who report gangs or guns at their schools are more likely to report victimization than students who do not report these conditions.

The quality of the educational environment and students' ability to learn both suffer when students are subject to assault, theft, or other forms of victimization at school (Stephens 1997). In 1999, 12 percent of 12- through 18-year-old students reported experiencing "any" form of victimization at school. Four percent reported "violent victimization" (i.e., rape, sexual assault, robbery, or assault, including attempts and threats), and 8 percent reported theft of property or "property victimization" at school (see supplemental table 34-1).

Victimization affects all types of students, but not all students are equally likely to report being victimized. In 1999, public school students were more likely than private school students to report any form of victimization (13 versus 9 percent) as well as violent victimization (4 versus 0.4 percent) and property theft (8 versus 6 percent). Male students were more likely than female students to report violent victimization at school (5 versus 4 percent), while male and female students reported similar lev-

els of property theft as well as any victimization. Overall, Black students were more likely to report having experienced any form of victimization than were White and Hispanic students. Black and Hispanic students reported similar levels of violent victimization (see supplemental table 34-1).

Two factors that generally raise rates of victimization are the presence of gangs and guns at school. Students who reported gangs at school were more likely than other students to say they experienced any victimization (18 versus 11 percent) as well as violent victimization (8 versus 3 percent) and property theft (11 versus 7 percent). Students who said that they knew a student who brought a gun to school were also more likely than other students to report any victimization (20 versus 12 percent). Likewise, students who said they had seen a student with a gun at school were more likely than other students to report any victimization (24 versus 12 percent) (see supplemental table 34-2).

¹"Any victimization" is a combination of "violent victimization" and "property victimization." If the student reported an incident of either, he or she is counted as having experienced any victimization. If the respondent reported having experienced both, he or she is counted once under the any victimization category. Also, any victimization includes those students who reported being victimized but did not provide enough information about the victimization for it to be classified as violent or property.

²Violent victimization includes any physical attack (i.e., rape, sexual assault, robbery, or assault, including attempts and threats) or taking of property directly from a student using force, weapons, or threats at school.

³Property victimization includes theft of a student's property at school.

NOTE: Response rate in parentheses. Percentage of students reporting "do not know" or "not ascertained" not reported in figure. Includes only 12- through 18-year-olds who were in primary or secondary education programs leading to a high school diploma.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Education, NCES. (forthcoming). *Are America's Schools Safe? Kids Speak Out* (NCES 2002-146).

FOR MORE INFORMATION:

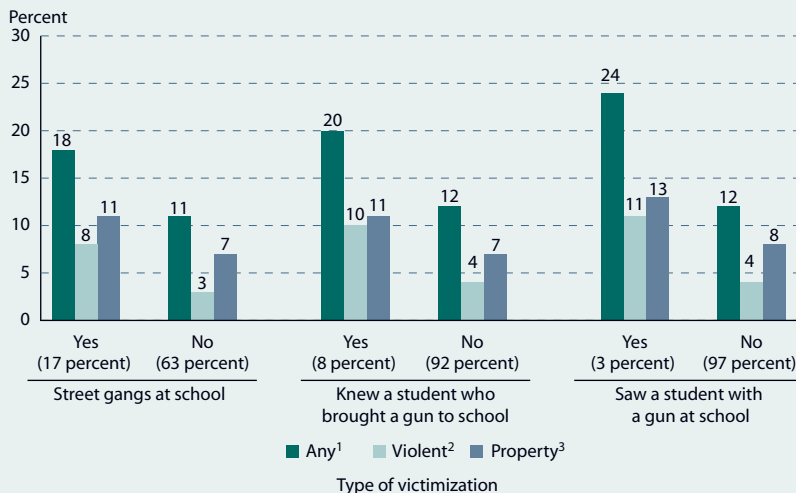
Supplemental Note 1

Supplemental Tables 34-1, 34-2

Stephens 1997



STUDENT VICTIMIZATION: Percentage of students ages 12–18 who reported criminal victimization at school according to type of victimization, by their perception of conditions at school: 1999



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