What Happened to the K-12 Education Labor Market During COVID? The Acute Need for Better Data Systems

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The COVID-19 pandemic upended the U.S. education system and the economy in ways that dramatically affected the jobs of K-12 educators. However, data limitations have led to considerable uncertainty and conflicting reports about the nature of staffing challenges in schools. We draw on education employment data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) and State Education Agencies (SEA) to describe patterns in K-12 education employment and to highlight the limitations of available data. Data from the BLS suggest overall employment in the K-12 labor market declined by 9.3 percent at the onset of the pandemic and remains well below pre-pandemic levels. SEA data suggest that teachers have not (yet) left the profession in mass as many predicted, but that turnover decreased in the summer of 2020. We explore possible explanations for these patterns including (1) weak hiring through the summer of 2020 and (2) high attrition among K-12 instructional support staff. State vacancy data also suggest that schools are facing substantial challenges filling open positions during the 2021-22 academic year. Our analyses illustrate the imperative to build more timely, detailed, and nationally representative data systems on the K-12 education labor market to better inform policy.

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Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic upended the U.S. education system in ways that dramatically affected the jobs of K-12 employees. However, there remains considerable uncertainty about the nature and degree of staffing challenges during the pandemic. We draw on data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) and State Education Agencies (SEA) to describe patterns in K-12 education employment and to highlight the limitations of available data. Data from the BLS suggest overall employment in the K-12 labor market declined by 9 percent at the onset of the pandemic and remains well below pre-pandemic levels more than two years later. SEA data suggest that teachers have not (yet) left the profession in mass as many predicted, with turnover decreasing in the summer of 2020 and then increasing modestly in 2021 back to pre-pandemic levels. We explore possible explanations for these patterns including weak hiring through the summer of 2020 and high attrition among K-12 instructional support and non-instructional staff. State vacancy data also suggest that schools faced substantial challenges filling open positions during the 2021-22 academic year. Our analyses illustrate the imperative to build nationally-representative, detailed, and timely data systems on the K-12 education labor market to better inform policy.

JEL: I2, J2, J45
Introduction

In the spring of 2020, the COVID-19 pandemic swept across the country, shuttering schools and shifting classes online. This rapid change introduced major new operating costs for schools in the form of facilities upgrades, new supplies required for operating schools safely, and new technology for supporting remote instruction. Districts were forced to rethink staffing roles and make employment decisions with considerable uncertainty about the future outlook of education funding. Initial fears led to sobering predictions about huge budget shortfalls in state and local funding for public education, with projections of job losses that would exceed the Great Recession and linger for many years (Griffith 2020; Page 2020).

In addition to the immediate financial consequences, the pandemic also altered teachers’ work dramatically, exposing them to potential health risks, increasing their workloads, and inducing considerable stress (Diliberti, Schwartz, and Grant 2021; Diliberti and Kaufman 2020; Kraft, Simon, and Lyon 2021; Zamarro et al. 2022; Steiner and Woo 2021). Policymakers, administrators, and pundits all warned of a massive exodus from the teaching profession (French 2020; Griffith 2020; Page 2020) – with teachers expressing serious concerns about the lack of childcare, low pay relative to the increased job stress and health risks, and the transition to online learning (Diliberti, Schwartz, and Grant 2021; Diliberti and Schwartz 2022). By the end of the 2019-20 school year, one in three teachers reported they were likely to leave their job (EdWeek Research Center 2020). More recent surveys conducted by RAND in 2021 and the National Education Association in 2022 find that teachers continue to report high rates of burnout and intentions to leave the profession (Zamarro et al. 2021; Jotkoff 2022). Two years into the pandemic, district leaders remain concerned about a new wave of teachers exiting the profession (Diliberti and Schwartz 2022; Kaufman, Diliberti, and Hamilton 2022). Still, there remains
considerable debate about what happened to the education labor market during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Much of the debate stems from a lack of data on the U.S. K-12 labor market that is 1) nationally representative, 2) detailed, and 3) timely. Here, we endeavor to leverage a range of available national and state datasets while simultaneously highlighting the limitations of each data source. Several datasets from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) describe national employment trends and are updated monthly. However, the data available from the BLS are limited because they do not always allow researchers to disentangle trends in higher education and private schools from those in the K-12 public education sector. Additionally, BLS data are often revised many months after the release of preliminary estimates and may not have accurately measured employment for educators during the unique transition to virtual schooling in the first months of the pandemic.

The National Center for Education Statistics’ (NCES) Common Core of Data (CCD) collects nationally representative data that would be useful for examining changes in the K-12 public education labor market across specific job categories. Unfortunately, these Full-Time Equivalent (FTE) employment data collected by NCES are released with delays that are frequently a year or more limiting their utility to inform policy in real time. Thus, we turn to data from selected State Education Agencies (SEA), which provide more detailed and timely employment data. The challenge here is that SEAs’ disparate and sometimes opaque approaches to reporting employment data offer an incomplete view of the national education labor market.

In this brief, we draw on the education employment data available from the BLS, NCES, and SEAs to inform our understanding of the past, present, and future of the education workforce in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic. We document patterns over time from 2000 to 2022
while highlighting specific changes in the labor market from March 2020 to May 2022 — the period from the start of the COVID-19 pandemic through the 2021-2022 school year. Our exploratory analyses serve to illustrate the unprecedented changes in the K-12 education labor market during the COVID-19 pandemic. We find that the K-12 education labor market shrank rapidly by about 9 percent from March to May 2020. Employment levels two year later in March 2022 remained 4 percent below pre-pandemic levels. At the outset of the pandemic, more K-12 instructional support staff appear to have left their positions than teachers during the same period in previous years.

Data from across 16 SEAs show that teachers did not leave their jobs in mass in the summer of 2020 as many people feared. However, data on teacher departures in the summer of 2021 was limited causing policymakers and journalists to rely on anecdotal cases on social media and incomplete data from sources such as LinkedIn (Anders 2022), leading to a narrative the pandemic caused historically high turnover. We show across 7 states that turnover (typically defined as leaving a school or district) has increased modestly in the summer of 2021, returning to pre-pandemic levels. Possible explanations for the large decline in overall employment but limited changes in teacher turnover include weak hiring through the summer of 2020 and high attrition among K-12 instructional support and non-instructional staff. A range of data sources also suggest that schools faced substantial challenges filling open positions during the 2021-22 academic year. However, the lack of high-quality data makes it difficult to study the teacher labor market, and K-12 education jobs more broadly, at a time when this information is critically important for policymakers.

Our brief makes several contributions to the literature. First, we introduce readers to the full range of national data available to study K-12 employee labor markets and point out the
strengths and weakness of these datasets. We then use these data to provide a comprehensive overview of employment patterns before and during the pandemic across existing datasets. We build on state- and district-specific analyses of teacher turnover (Rosenberg and Anderson 2021; Camp, Zamarro, and McGee 2022; Bacher-Hicks, Chi, and Orellana 2022; Goldhaber and Theobald 2021; Donohue et al. 2022) to provide a national picture of teacher turnover using publicly available data from SEAs. We also shine a light on the incongruous trends of declining overall employment but relatively stable teacher turnover and provide data in support of two hypotheses for reconciling these patterns. Finally, we describe how the federal government might expand the Statewide Longitudinal Data Systems Grant Program to build a detailed national picture of the K-12 employee labor market from individual-level state data systems.

**Educator Labor Market Data**

To explore changes in the educator labor market during the pandemic, we first draw on four surveys from the BLS: the Current Employment Statistics (CES), the Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (QCEW), the Job Openings and Labor Turnover Survey (JOLTS), and the Current Population Survey (CPS). Each BLS survey captures similar but not fully overlapping populations of education employees given distinct sampling targets and survey designs. Table 1 provides a quick summary of the unit and population captured by each BLS survey. The CES surveys approximately 144,000 businesses and government organizations including school districts each month. These data allow us to estimate the number of primary and secondary jobs in the U.S. K-12 public education sector. The QCEW uses unemployment records from the Quarterly Contributions Reports (QCR) that all private companies and government organization (i.e., local, state) file as a part of the federal unemployment insurance program. This
data includes a near census of public and private organizations to estimate employment and wages in elementary and secondary schools. Kindergarten teachers are included in the CES estimate but not the QCEW (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2021a; 2021e). The JOLTS surveys roughly 16,000 organizations including public and private sector primary, secondary, and post-secondary schools on hiring, layoffs, and quits each month. These data provide insights into the circumstances under which education employees left their positions. We observe the number of hires and job separations for state and local government education employees, which includes K-12 school districts and higher education institutions, but excludes private schools.

An important limitation of the CES, QCEW, and JOLTS data is that they do not allow researchers to disaggregate estimates for specific occupations within the K-12 education sector using publicly available data (e.g., classroom teachers vs. instructional support staff vs. bus drivers). At the national level, we turn to the CPS data that allow for a more detailed view into employment trends for U.S. K-12 public- and private-sector workers. CPS provides more granular occupation information to estimate separate employment trends for teachers and other instructional support and non-instructional staff. The CPS surveys a representative sample of American households on a monthly basis. However, the design of the CPS survey may have limited the reliability of data collected about the K-12 education sector during the initial transition to virtual schooling. In particular, many currently employed K-12 teachers may not have reported working full time as schools transitioned to remote instruction at the beginning of the pandemic (Gicheva 2022). Relatedly, the response rate for the CPS survey declined sharply by 17.4 percentage points from February 2020 to March 2020 (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2022). We provide a detailed discussion of the issues with using the CPS for understanding the K-12
labor market during the pandemic in Appendix B. We consider the weaknesses of the CPS to be serious enough that we only describe general patterns from our analyses.

We also use data on budgeted teaching and staff positions (i.e., FTEs) from the CCD. An advantage of the CCD staff counts is they capture the full population of public-school employees to provide a comprehensive national view. Additionally, they include the number of specific education employees (e.g., teachers, school support staff, district administrators). However, the CCD data, which are collected in October of each school year, provide only a snapshot of current staffing levels at one time annually and are released with a considerable delay of a year or more. Another limitation is that annual reports of total FTEs do not provide sufficient information to track turnover in the K-12 public education sector given the lack of individual-level longitudinal data.

Finally, we draw on SEA data to examine teacher turnover and hiring trends using all publicly available data reported by states.\(^1\) We began by collecting employment data from states that publish teacher hiring data and then focused on a subset that also provide teacher turnover data (Saenz-Armstrong 2021). We identified 16 states that provide estimates of teacher turnover for pre-pandemic years and at least the first year of the pandemic, the 2019-20 school year (See Appendix Table C.1 for full details). Differences in turnover definitions and data reporting approaches across states present substantial challenges and make it difficult to compare patterns across states.\(^2\) We define teacher turnover as the percent of employed public teachers in the base school year that do not return (however defined) in the subsequent school year. For example, the

\(^1\) See Appendix Table C.1 for state definitions of teacher turnover.
\(^2\) For example, some states count within-district moves in their measures of teacher turnover whereas other states only count moves between-districts (See Appendix Table C-1 for more details). States also measure turnover at different times during the school year (e.g., October 2020 to October 2021). Even the years (previous vs. current) that are used to label a similar estimate of turnover are inconsistent across states. We standardize state definitions of teacher turnover to the degree that is possible. All remaining differences in definitions are described in Appendix Table C-1.
turnover rate for 2018-19 is the percent of teachers in 2018-19 that did not return to the school (or district in some cases) they taught in during the 2019-20 school year. Despite these limitations, data from SEAs does provide important insights about how turnover has changed within individual states over time.

Findings

How Many K-12 Education Jobs Were Lost During the COVID-19 Pandemic?

The CES and QCEW provides timely national data on primary and secondary education employment. Figures 1 and 2 display K-12 employment trends in the CES and QCEW, respectively. The estimates from both the CES and QCEW are quite similar despite the differences in data collection procedures and samples. The CES estimates in Figure 1 show the K-12 public education labor market grew steadily over the first decade of the 21st century, rising from 7.2 million employees to over 8.1 million at its height in 2008. Education employment then declined steadily from 2009 to 2012 in the wake of the Great Recession and has never fully recovered. The total number of primary and secondary education employees began to increase slowly starting in 2014, reaching about 8 million employees before the start of the pandemic. Figure 2 depicting employment trends in the elementary and secondary education sector using the QCEW shows a very similar pattern.

Both the CES and QCEW data also illustrate the sudden and steep decline in employment in the K-12 public education sector with the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic. Data from the CES suggest that between March and May 2020, K-12 public education employment decreased by about 9.3 percent. Data from the QWEC show a similar 8.7 percent decrease in the employment of elementary and secondary education teachers from March and May 2020. The
rapid decline in jobs at the beginning of the COVID-19 recession was unprecedented in its magnitude, more than twice the number of jobs during the four-year contraction following the Great Recession. This steep decline erased 20 years of labor market expansion in the span of two months. In the months since, total employment has been volatile given high levels of uncertainty as the pandemic persists but appears to be recovering.

**Which Type of K-12 Education Jobs were Hardest Hit?**

The lack of timely employment data for teachers and instructional support staff limits our capacity to understand how the COVID-19 pandemic influenced employment for specific education occupations. Cooper and Hickey (2022) use the CPS data to show the immediate job losses were relatively larger among school support staff, with meaningful declines among teachers as well.\(^3\) In auxiliary analyses, we replicate these findings using recently updated CPS data and find that job losses for instructional support and non-instructional staff were more pronounced than for teachers but recovered quickly and varied widely across specific occupations.

This general pattern of results is consistent with occupation specific data from Colorado and Illinois (Colorado Department of Education 2021; Illinois State Board of Education 2021). At the end of the 2020-21 school year, there were 3 percent fewer office and administrative support staff, 5 percent fewer people in crafts, trades, and services, and 4 percent fewer paraprofessionals compared to the 2018-19 school year. In Illinois, there were 1 percent fewer nurses and 6 percent fewer guidance counselors in the in 2019-20 school year compared the previous school year.

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\(^3\) We find that estimates of total employment in specific education occupations vary considerably from month to month in the CPS limiting researchers’ ability to make precise inferences about employment changes in specific occupational sectors.
Data on total FTE positions for the 2020-21 academic year collected by the CCD also supports the conclusion that turnover was relatively higher for non-teaching professions. Figure 3 shows the number of FTE teachers, school staff, and district administrators/principals (NCES 2022a) measured in October from 2014 to 2020. Between October 2019 and October 2020, the number of public school teachers declined by about 166,000 while the combined total number of school staff and administrators declined by about 173,000. However, these annual FTE measures provide an incomplete picture of the dynamic turnover that happened during the pandemic because they do not capture any exits or job losses that occur during the school year after October if these jobs were filled by the following October. Data from the CES and QCEW both suggest that many K-12 education sector jobs were lost in March and April of 2020 but had been recovered prior to October of 2020.

**Were Predictions of Unprecedented Turnover True?**

The BLS and NCES data do not allow us to observe K-12 teacher turnover information. Data reported by SEAs suggest that the high rates of teacher turnover that many feared have not yet materialized in practice. Figure 4 displays average teacher turnover across 16 states for the two school years prior to the pandemic and two post-pandemic school years (i.e., 2019-20, 2020-21). We encourage readers to focus on the relative changes over time shown in Figure 4 rather than any state-specific differences in absolute levels given different data reporting practices used across SEAs. We find clear and consistent evidence that there was no increase in teacher turnover after the start of the pandemic. In fact, we estimate that turnover declined by 1.04 percentage points, on average, in the summer of 2020 across the 16 states the publicly report data.
The relatively stable rate of turnover after the 2019-20 school year is likely a consequence of the economic insecurity caused by the pandemic. Research shows that teachers are less likely to leave their jobs during a recession (Nagler, Piopiunik, and West 2020; Goldhaber and Theobald 2021; Eagan et al. 2022). The turnover patterns shown in Figure 4 are also consistent with results from a national survey of school districts (Diliberti and Schwartz 2021), an analysis of detailed individual level data from six large schools districts (Rosenberg and Anderson 2021), and teacher turnover in Arkansas (Camp, Zamarro, and McGee 2022), Massachusetts (Bacher-Hicks, Chi, and Orellana 2022), Washington State (Goldhaber and Theobald 2021), and Providence Public Schools (Donohue et al. 2022). Additionally, recent research indicates that teacher intentions to transfer schools or leaving the profession is an imperfect proxy for actual rates of teacher turnover (Nguyen et al. 2022). This finding helps to explain why survey results that forecasted an exodus from classrooms have not (yet) come to pass.

Questions still remain about whether turnover increased after the 2020-21 school year as the economy recovered and new COVID-19 variants continued to make work in schools challenging. Turnover data for the 2020-2021 school year is currently available from 7 states: Colorado, Maryland, Massachusetts, North Carolina, South Carolina, Texas, and Washington. As shown in Figure 4, these data suggest that teacher turnover increased in the summer of 2021 by 1.2 percentage points among these 7 states, returning to levels similar to those observed prior to onset of the pandemic.\(^4\) However, increasing rates of teacher turnover remain a distinct possibility as the COVID-19 pandemic persists, making efforts to standardize and expand data collection efforts even more pressing.

\(^4\) Among these 7 states, average levels of turnover were 13.3, 12.5, 11.6, and 12.8 percentage points in 2017-18, 2018-19, 2019-20, and 2020-21, respectively.
Why Did Jobs Decline?

We turn to the JOLTS data to explore possible explanations for the large decline in overall K-12 education employment given that teacher turnover has been relatively stable through 2021. Data suggest this decline is explained by a range of factors including weak hiring at the start of the pandemic and an increase in total employee separations (i.e., retirements, layoffs, quits from a school district). The decline in hiring is clearly evident in Figure 5, which plots the total number of separations and hires in the public education sectors (i.e., primary, secondary, postsecondary). Hiring plummeted at the start of the COVID-19 pandemic. Schools and universities hired an average of 32,000 fewer educators per month in the six months after the pandemic relative to the average over the five prior years. Federal stimulus aid supported ephemeral hiring booms in January and June 2021, but they were not large enough to offset months of anemic hiring. JOLTS data also show that total separations of employees from K-12 public schools and public colleges/universities also reached an all-time high during the COVID-19 pandemic. At their peak in March 2020, the number of total separations (294,000) was roughly double the steady rate observed across the prior two decades.

The rise in total separations in the JOLTS data raises a puzzle. How did total separations (i.e., quits, layoffs, retirements,) reach historically high levels in the JOLTS if teacher turnover has remained relatively stable? One possible answer is that these separations are largely driven by job losses in the higher education sector. A major weakness of the JOLTS is that estimates aggregate K-12 and post-secondary workers together, posing a challenge because of the differences in how schools and universities responded to the COVID-19 pandemic. Universities laid off large numbers of support staff as buildings emptied and classes shifted online (Douglas-Gabriel and Fowers 2020). University revenues are projected to decline by $17 billion to $30
billion over the period from 2020 to 2025 (Kelchen, Ritter, and Webber 2021). Additionally, 20 percent of universities responded to the pandemic by not renewing or terminating contracts for at least some non-tenure track faculty (American Association of University Professors 2021). A second possible explanation, consistent with patterns in the CPS, is that job reductions in K-12 education were primarily driven by school and district staff rather than classroom teachers.

Continued Staffing Challenges in the Wake of COVID

Districts across the country are still struggling to fill open teaching, instructional support, and service positions (Heyward 2021; Goldhaber and Gratz 2021). In September 2021, at the beginning of the 2021-22 school year, 80 percent of schools reported having at least one full or part-time teacher vacancy, and 38 percent of schools reported having more total staff vacancies than in previous years (National Center for Education Statistics 2021). Teacher vacancies rose appreciably in the fall of 2021 in 18 of 20 large U.S. school districts (Barnum 2021). In the fall of 2020 the majority of school leaders reported facing acute shortages of substitutes, bus drivers, special education teachers, and paraprofessionals (Schwartz and Diliberti 2022). 54 percent of undergraduate-level and 42 percent of graduate-level teaching programs reported that the pandemic influenced the number of new students entering the program (King 2022). State hiring data show that the proportion of newly hired teachers declined 0.6 percentage points in 2019-20 and 1.9 percentage points in 2020-21 compared to the three school years prior to the pandemic (i.e., Colorado, South Carolina, Texas) (Colorado Department of Education 2021; Smith 2021; Center for Educator Recruitment, Retention, & Advancement 2021).
Conclusion

At the outset of the pandemic, school leaders were acutely concerned about a repeat of the Great Recession, when the housing market collapse led to a prolonged drop in public education funding and a substantial decline in the education sector workforce. We find that the initial shock of the COVID-19 pandemic caused an unprecedented decrease in the size of the U.S. K-12 public education labor force, but that this historic decline was not driven by increased teacher turnover. We read the state hiring/vacancy data in conjunction with the JOLTS and CCD data to support two potential explanations: a massive slowdown in hiring coupled with increased separations (e.g., quits, layoffs, retirements,) concentrated among instructional support and non-instructional staff.

Our analyses suggest that the data collection infrastructure in the U.S. is largely inadequate for providing detailed, real-time information about national trends in the K-12 teacher workforce. This lack of nationally-representative, detailed, and timely data substantially limits the information policymakers have when attempting to make data-informed decisions during crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic. Our lack of a national teacher labor market data system leads to conflicting and potentially erroneous conclusions about the current state of the teacher labor market.

We see a central role of the federal government in supporting states to collect and report teacher turnover statistics. The vast majority of states do not make detailed data on teacher supply and demand available, which is likely due in part to a lack of a capacity (Saenz-Armstrong 2021). The federal government has successfully supported state efforts to build student data systems through the Statewide Longitudinal Data Systems (SLDS) Grant Program (NCES 2022b). The NCES could expand the SLDS Grant Program to support SEAs to enhance
their data systems tracking K-12 education employees. These data would allow state and federal policymakers to develop more targeted solutions to staffing challenges by helping them to diagnose specific challenges and their causes. Which type of education employee types are the most difficult to recruit and retain? Are staffing challenges localize or more broadly distributed? Do shortages reflect limited educator supply or excess demand due to high rates of turnover from the profession. A national picture of detailed K-12 employment data would also shine a light on districts and states that have succeeded in attracting and retaining effective educators.

The future trajectory of the K-12 teacher labor market remains an open question. Previous recessions had both immediate and delayed effects on education employment (Kraft and Bleiberg 2021). The U.S. Department of Education has advised states to spend Elementary and Secondary School Emergency Relief funds by 2024 (U.S. Education Department 2021), creating a potentially large fiscal cliff for states and districts (National Conference of State Legislators 2021). Concerns about teacher stress and burnout remain and employee separations appear to be on the rise again. Vaccine hesitancy and new COVID-19 variants could unexpectedly cause further school closures and economic slowdowns, tipping the economy back into a recession. We expect that the COVID-19 recession and prolonged pandemic will continue to shape both prospective employees’ decisions whether to pursue a career in K-12 education and current education employees’ decisions whether to remain in the profession. Going forward, having nationally-representative, detailed, and timely data will be essential to building and sustaining a strong educator workforce.
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<table>
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<th>JOLTS</th>
<th>CPS</th>
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*Note: Current Employment Survey=CES; Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages=QCEW; Job Openings and Labor Turnover Survey=JOLTS; Current Population Survey=CPS.*
Figure 1. Total employment in U.S. local government education industry
Notes: Adapted from Gould (2020). Estimates are seasonally adjusted.
Figure 2. Elementary and Secondary School Employment

Note: Employment estimates are seasonally adjusted. Employment describes the average number of elementary and secondary school employees in a quarter.
Figure 3. Budgeted Teaching and Staff Positions
Source: Common Core of Data Non-Fiscal File
Figure 4. State teacher turnover across time

Note: Percent teacher turnover is the percent of employed public teachers in the base school year that do not return (however defined) in the subsequent school year. Percent teacher turnover is averaged across 16 states except in 2020-21 when it is a subsample of 7 states. Grey lines represent teacher turnover for each of the 16 states and the black line represents the national average.

Source: See Appendix C-1 for source information.
Figure 5. State and local government education separations and hires
Note: Estimates are seasonally adjusted.
Appendix A. Data Sources and Definitions

This appendix describes the differences in how various Bureau of Labor Statistics surveys define occupation.

**Current Employment Statistics (CES)**

CES surveys approximately 144,000 businesses and government agencies each month about employment, hours, and earnings (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2021a). We observe the number of seasonally adjusted local government education employees from January 2000 to September 2021. This includes all employees of school districts and excludes private schools and higher education institutions.

**Quarterly Census of Employment and Wages (QCEW)**

The QCEW collects employment and wage records from about 10.8 million businesses and government organization through the Quarterly Contributions Report (QCR), which is collected as part of the unemployment insurance program (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2021e). The submissions include employment records for each month in the quarter. (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2021a).

**Job Openings and Labor Turnover Survey (JOLTS)**

JOLTS surveys about 16,000 public and private sector organizations on job openings, hires, and separations each month (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2021c). We observe the seasonally adjusted number of state and local government education employees separated from the payroll for the months from January 2001 to October 2021. State and local government education employees include employees of school districts and higher education institutions, but excludes private schools. We observe three types of separations: quits, layoffs, and retirements. See Appendix Table A.1 below for detailed definitions of separations.
### Appendix Table A.1. JOLTS Separation Definitions

<table>
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<th>Separation Type</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>Quits</td>
<td>Employees who left voluntarily, excluding retirements or transfers to other locations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Layoffs &amp; Firings</td>
<td>Involuntary separations initiated by the employer, including: layoffs with no intent to rehire; discharges because positions were eliminated; discharges resulting from mergers, downsizing, or plant closings; firings or other discharges for cause; terminations of seasonal employees (whether or not they are expected to return next season); layoffs (suspensions from pay status) lasting or expected to last more than 7 days. (If the employee was later recalled, they should be reported as a hire at the time of recall.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retirements</td>
<td>Retirements; transfers to other locations; deaths; or separations due to employee disability.</td>
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Note: The JOLTS data include the category “other separations”. We use the term retirements, which describes the preponderance of separations in this group.  
Source: JOLTS Data Definitions (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2021b)
Appendix B. Basic Monthly Current Population Survey

We also conducted a series of analyses using the Basic Monthly Current Population Survey (CPS). The CPS surveys approximately 60,000 households each month on a range of topics including employment and occupation. The CPS data allow for a detailed view into employment trends for U.S. K-12 public- and private-sector workers. The primary advantage of the CPS data is that it allows us to estimate employment trends for granular education occupations (e.g., elementary school teachers, school bus drivers, school psychologists).

Unfortunately, the pandemic created unique challenges for interpreting the CPS data. At the outset of the pandemic, schools temporarily stopped instruction to develop online education environments (American Enterprise Institute and College Crisis Initiative 2021). It is likely that BLS erroneously determined many education employees were unemployed during the first few months of the pandemic. The BLS survey protocols consider workers to be unemployed if they are not working, even if they are being paid (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2021a; 2021d). Relatedly the CPS response rate decreased by about 14 percentage points 4 months after the start of the pandemic from February 2020 to June 2020 (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2022). While the response rate for the CES and JOLTS also decreased at the start of the pandemic, the size of the decrease in the CPS response rate is about 3 times the decline for the CES and JOLTS. Additionally, BLS estimates from the past year are revised as a regular practice. The additional uncertainty created by the pandemic increases the likelihood of a substantial revision (Bureau of Labor Statistics 2021f; Van Dam 2021). Finally, the CPS sampling design does not support valid inferences for individual occupations and measurement error likely accounts for month-to-month fluctuations in relatively smaller education occupations (e.g., school bus monitor).
### Appendix Table B.1. CPS Educator Occupation Definitions

<table>
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<tr>
<td>2000 to 2021</td>
<td>Preschool and kindergarten teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 to 2021</td>
<td>Elementary and middle school teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 to 2021</td>
<td>Secondary school teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 to 2021</td>
<td>Special education teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Core Classroom Teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000 to 2002</td>
<td>Counselors, Educational and Vocational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 to 2002</td>
<td>Early childhood teacher’s assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 to 2021</td>
<td>Teachers’ aides/assistants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003 to 2021</td>
<td>Other teachers and instructors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020 to 2021</td>
<td>Tutors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020 to 2021</td>
<td>School bus monitors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020 to 2021</td>
<td>Bus drivers, school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020 to 2021</td>
<td>School psychologists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020 to 2021</td>
<td>Child, family, and school social workers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Instructional and School Support Staff**

Note: Other teachers and instructors combines: adult basic education, adult secondary education, and English as a second language instructors; self-enrichment teachers; substitute teachers, short-term; all other teachers and instructors. Several occupations in the education sector were excluded including: library technicians; other educational instruction and library workers; postsecondary teachers, archivists, curators, museum technicians, and librarians.
### Appendix Table C.1. State Teacher Turnover Definitions and Sources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AR</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers who were in the school or district the previous year who did not return to that school or district the current year.</td>
<td>The Arkansas Department of Education (2022) reports the attrition rates and teacher counts at the school level. See “School wide state reports”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of certified educators who in the subsequent school year left the position they held in the base school year to the number of certified teaching positions in public school districts in the base school year.</td>
<td>Colorado Department of Education (2021) contains the number of teachers who are &quot;people who left&quot; and the &quot;head count of teachers&quot; in &quot;Personnel Turnover Rate by District and Position Categories. See &quot;Previous School Years&quot; for prior years of data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DE</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of educators who remained in the same school in the following year to the educators who remained in the same school in the base school year.</td>
<td>Delaware (2021) reports the Same School Retention rate, the within district transfer rate, between district transfer rate, and the &quot;turnover&quot; rate, which describes teachers who left Georgia school entirely.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GA</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers present in their respective roles in the fall of the base school year and the fall of the subsequent school year.</td>
<td>Georgia (Pelfrey and Flamini 2020) reports the proportion of retained teachers. The annual reports contain the proportion retained for each year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers in the base year that returned to their position in the subsequent school year.</td>
<td>Idaho (State of Idaho 2021) reports the proportion of retained teachers in a web application.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KY</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers that left teaching in a school, district or the state.</td>
<td>Kentucky Department of Education (2021) reports &quot;The proportion of teachers that left teaching in a school, district or the state.&quot; by year. Data 2017-18 are available in the archive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LA</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of the teacher workforce exiting the classroom. Includes teachers who were retiring, transferring to another Louisiana school system, or leaving due to personal reasons.</td>
<td>Louisiana (2020) reports the percent of teacher workforce exiting from classroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers who worked in the same school from one year to the next.</td>
<td>Massachusetts (Massachusetts Department Of Elementary And Secondary Education 2021) reports the &quot;roll-up&quot; estimates for schools or the proportion of teachers who don't work in the same school. Reports for individual school years are available.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MD</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers present in their respective roles in the fall of the base school year and the fall of the subsequent school year.</td>
<td>The Maryland State Department of Education (Maryland State Department of Education 2022) provided retention rates, which were made publicly available (Barnum 2022).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MI</td>
<td>Leaves School</td>
<td>The proportion of “moving” teachers (i.e., the teacher building assignment changes between the base school year and subsequent school year) and “leavers” (i.e., the teacher has a building assignment code in the base school year t and no building assignment code in the subsequent school year) to the total number of public-school teachers in the base school year.</td>
<td>The number of movers and leavers is found in Figures 3.7 and 3.8 (Education Policy Innovation Collaborative 2021) and number of employed teachers in MDE (Michigan Department of Education 2021, 33).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>Leaves District</td>
<td>The proportion of teacher who leave their district (i.e., reduction in staffing due to move out of state, retirement) in the base school year and the mobility rate (transfers to another LEA within the state).</td>
<td>North Carolina Department of Public Instruction (2021) reports the attrition and mobility rates annually in reports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>Leaves District</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers who were not reported as employed by district in the subsequent school year regardless of reason for leaving to the number of teaching positions in the base school year.</td>
<td>South Carolina Center for Educator Recruitment, Retention, &amp; Advancement (2021) contains the number of teacher departures and links to the Annual Educator Supply and Demand Reports. Table 1A in each report includes the total number of certified teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Leaves District</td>
<td>The proportion of instructional staff that are no longer employed by a district at the end of a school year to the total teacher Full Time Equivalents in the state in that school year.</td>
<td>Departures are available by year in the South Dakota Department of Education Instructional Staff Turnover and Vacancy dashboard (South Dakota Department of Education 2021a) and the number of teaching positions are available under</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TX</td>
<td>Leaves District</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers who were reported as not employed by any LEA in subsequent school year but were reported as employed in the base school year to total number of teachers in the state in the base school year.</td>
<td>The number of &quot;attriting&quot; teachers and teachers overall from Texas Education Agency (Smith 2021).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TN</td>
<td>Leaves District</td>
<td>The proportion of educators in the base year who returned to the district as of 10/1 in the subsequent year.</td>
<td>Tennessee Education Research Alliance (Patrick et al. 2021) estimates teacher retention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WA</td>
<td>Leaves District</td>
<td>The proportion of teachers present in their school districts in the fall of the base school year and the fall of the subsequent school year.</td>
<td>Calculated by authors using SAFS files from the years 2016 through 2022. Code available upon request (Washington Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction 2022).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: We define teacher turnover as the percent of employed public teachers in the base school year that do not return (however defined) in the subsequent school year. For example, the turnover rate for 2018-19 is the number of employees in 2018-19 that did not return to their schools in 2019-20 divided by the number of teachers employed in 2018-19. Type describes whether a state’s turnover measure include teachers who left their district or their school. Definition describes state definitions of teacher turnover. Source describes where teacher turnover information is stored and how it was constructed.