Effects of the Implementation of Proposition 227 on the Education of English Learners, K – 12

Year 3 Report

> *Project Leadership*:
> Thomas B. Parrish, Project Director
> Amy Merickel, Deputy Project Director
> Robert Linquanti, Associate Project Director
>
> *Report Authors*:
> Amy Merickel
> Robert Linquanti
> Thomas B. Parrish
> Maria Pérez
> Marian Eaton
> Phil Esra

> October 29, 2003

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Executive Summary

In 2000, the California Department of Education contracted the American Institutes for Research (AIR) and WestEd to conduct a five-year evaluation study of the effects of the implementation of Proposition 227 on the education of English Learners. This report covers Year 3 of the study, during which we continued to evaluate the impact of this proposition, and focused, using a set of criteria, on examining schools across the state that appear effective on the basis of EL students' test scores. Gaining insight into what factors appear to contribute to EL students' academic performance in these schools may provide lessons for the education of ELs across the state.

Primary emphases of this year's work include exploration of the elements of effective practice; selection of a sample of "effective" and comparison schools from across the state to explore evidence of the elements of effectiveness; and analyses of statewide data on EL student outcomes. Major activities included case study site visits as well as the continuation and expansion of our analyses of state data on student achievement and English language proficiency through spring 2002.

Our analyses of English learner student achievement and English language proficiency are based on extant state data. Results are presented from analyses of data from the SAT-9, the California Standards Tests (CST), the California English Language Development Test (CELDT), and the Language Census. Important findings from these analyses include:

- Since the passage of Proposition 227, almost all students across all language classifications in all grades have experienced performance gains in reading, math, and language arts on the SAT-9. Despite these gains, considerable performance gaps persist between EL/RFEP (i.e., ELs and former ELs who have been redesignated as fully English proficient) and English only (EO) students.

- SAT-9 performance improved for EL/RFEP students across all instructional program model types.

- Schools that have continued to offer bilingual instruction to a substantial proportion their English learners, as well as those schools that transitioned from bilingual education, show EL percentages and overall rates of poverty that are two to three times as high as schools that never offered bilingual instruction, making performance comparisons among these different instructional program model types difficult.

- Preliminary analysis of California Standards Test scores shows patterns of performance similar to those reported for the SAT-9 score analysis.

- California English Language Development Test annual test takers' scores improved from 2001 to 2002. Analysis of 2001 Initial CELDT results revealed that schools offering bilingual education were much more likely to have ELs who enter with substantially lower initial English proficiency. This again renders

problematic any comparisons on overall attainment of English proficiency among schools with different instructional model types. More detailed analyses of CELDT results will be presented in future reports, as data from additional administrations of the test become available

- The overall percentage of EL students redesignated each year rose gradually over the past decade from about 5 percent in 1992–93 to 9 percent in 2000–01, then dropped to 7.8 percent in 2001–02.

A primary purpose of the case study analyses was to gain a better understanding of selected elements of effective practice with ELs through visits to a sample of California schools. Schools that appeared "effective" were identified on the basis of EL test scores. The AIR/WestEd team visited a selection of sites that included nine "effective" schools, whose EL students appeared to have had sustained relatively high performance over the previous 3 years as compared to the state average; three "growth" schools, whose EL students appeared to have made relatively substantial academic progress over the past 3 years; and six "comparison" schools, whose EL students had scored below the state EL student average on state assessments during this period. Each "comparison" school was paired with either an "effective" or "growth" school. In all, 18 case study sites were selected. The site visits included interviews with district- and school-level administrators; focus groups with teachers, parents, and students; document reviews; and classroom observations.

The purpose of the visits was to explore research-supported elements of effective practice related to how schools with ELs organize themselves to enhance educational opportunities for these students. While attention was given to instructional strategies through classroom observations, these activities constituted a relatively small portion of our case study design. This approach was not intended to minimize the importance of instructional strategies to effective practices. Clearly, what occurs at the classroom level has at least as much influence on EL academic success as more macro-level, organizational components. However, exploring such instructional strategies as the degree of connection between the curriculum to state standards, the degree of fidelity to curriculum in individual classrooms, and more detailed analyses of the instructional quality would require repeated visits to a larger sample of classrooms. Although this type of in-depth investigation is beyond the scope of this study, we will explore approaches for incorporating some of these more micro-level elements of instructional strategies into future data-gathering efforts.

The major purpose of this year's visits was to explore the extent to which sites that appeared "effective" through empirical analyses also appeared "effective" through direct observation. Overall, the relationship between effectiveness, as determined by test results, and the observed implementation of selected organizational practices associated in the research literature with effectiveness was strong. That is, schools that appeared to be more effective with their ELs, based on the test performance of their students, were found to have a greater number and degree of the selected elements of effective practice than their less effective (lower-scoring) counterparts. We believe such sites can be studied to better understand and take advantage of the factors that contribute to EL academic success. Findings from these case study analyses are summarized around seven key elements related to effective practice: 1) leadership, 2) a clear instructional plan, 3) accountability and

assessment, 4) schoolwide climate, 5) instructional strategies, 6) staff development, and 7) family involvement.

In addition to this exploration of "effective" practice, several other critical themes that emerged from our prior years of study continued as major concerns from this year's fieldwork. These additional issues include: 1) the redesignation of English learners; 2) class placement, segregation and tracking; 3) waivers; 4) other changes and reforms affecting the instruction of ELs; 5) the relationship between the state English Language Arts (ELA) and English Language Development (ELD) standards for instruction; and 6) examination of the impact of the Community-Based English Tutoring (CBET) program and the English Language Acquisition Program (ELAP).

Recommendations from this year's study include:

1. The state and school districts should continue to investigate and document the attributes of schools that are "beating the odds" in regard to educational outcomes for ELs, and explore how any components of effectiveness might be fostered in more schools across the state.

2. The state and school districts should improve the collection and maximize the use of newly available CELDT data.

3. The state should take steps to standardize and clarify alternative instructional program waiver provisions.

4. School districts should articulate CBET programs with neighborhood schools.

5. Schools should limit prolonged separation of ELs from English speaking students to cases of demonstrated efficacy in teaching EL students how to speak English and meet state standards.

6. The state should carefully evaluate all policies that may unintentionally penalize schools and districts with successful EL programs. For example, success with English learners generates no financial rewards for schools. In fact, funding is lost when these students are redesignated. Funding and monitoring mechanisms should be considered that reward progress and that prevent disincentives to help students from occurring.

7. State policymakers should reconsider redesignation within the context of new federal annual achievement objectives for ELs.

Chapter I – Introduction to the Year 3 Report

Introduction

In June of 1998, Proposition 227 was passed by 61 percent of the California electorate. The initiative was intended to significantly alter the ways in which the state's English learners (ELs) are taught. Proposition 227 requires that ELs be taught "overwhelmingly in English" through sheltered/structured English immersion (SEI) programs during a transition period and then transferred to mainstream English-language classrooms.

In 2000, the California Department of Education issued a contract to the American Institutes for Research (AIR) and WestEd for a five-year evaluation of the *Effects of the Implementation of Proposition 227 on the Education of English Learners*. (The staffing and organization for this evaluation project appear in Appendix A.) This report covers Year 3 of the study, which continued to evaluate the impact of this proposition, and focused on examining schools across the state that appear effective on the basis of EL students' test scores. Gaining insight into what factors seem to contribute to EL students' test performance in these schools may provide lessons for the education of ELs across the state. This study also includes an evaluation of the Community Based English Tutoring (CBET) program established by Proposition 227 and an evaluation of the English Language Acquisition Program (ELAP).[1]

The research questions specified for the evaluation are:

1. How are various provisions of Proposition 227 and ELAP being implemented in California schools, districts, and the University of California?

2. Which programs and services being provided to ELs are most effective and least effective in ensuring equal access to the core academic curriculum, the achievement of state content and performance standards, and rapid acquisition of English?

3. What are other program benefits (to parents, teachers, etc.) of the various programs and services?

4. What unintended consequences, both positive and negative, have occurred as a result of Proposition 227 implementation?

5. How have the implementation of Proposition 227 and ELAP provisions affected the academic achievement of ELs, as measured by STAR results, redesignation

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[1]   The authorization for this evaluation, as specified in the Request for Proposals, is as follows: "As required by AB 56 (Mazzoni), AB 1116 (Ducheny), and Budget Language 6110-001-001(24)."

rates, dropout rates, high school graduation exam passing rates, and high school graduation rates?

6. What impact have the Professional Development Institutes had on the staff of participating ELAP schools?

7. What have been the effects of the Community Based English Tutoring (CBET) programs on the participants and on ELs?

8. What changes would strengthen Proposition 227 and ELAP implementation and impact?

Additional reports submitted during the first two years of this evaluation include the Year 1 Methodology Report, Year 1 Final Report, Year 2 Final Report, and Proposition 227 and Instruction of English Learners Evaluation Update (2002).

Purpose of this Report

Building on the work from the first two years of study, this report describes Year 3 activities and presents findings and recommendations. In addition to the evaluation of CBET, ELAP, student achievement, and the implementation and effects of Proposition 227, a special focus of this third year is on exploring what constitutes "effective" practices and policies for ELs. Primary emphasis this year includes attempts to operationalize the concept of effectiveness, selection of a sample of "effective" and comparison schools to further explore this concept, and analyses of statewide data regarding the academic achievement and English acquisition of ELs.

This first chapter provides background information about the study, provides counts of EL students across the state, and briefly describes other research germane to this effort. The second chapter of this report describes the methodology used during this third year of the study. (Additional detail regarding the methodological design for this study can be found in the Year 1 Methodology Report.) Chapter 3 presents analyses of student achievement data and language proficiency analyses, and Chapter 4 discusses themes related to school and district effectiveness and Proposition 227 based on case study site visits. Chapter 5 offers recommendations for the provision of educational achievement for ELs. The research plan for Years 4 and 5 of the study is summarized in Chapter 6.

Background

Prior to Proposition 227, a previous California law, the Chacon-Moscone Bilingual-Bicultural Education Act of 1976, stipulated that districts must offer bilingual educational opportunities to any student identified as an English learner. This 1976 law was, in part, a response to the 1974 U.S. Supreme Court case *Lau vs. Nichols* that required districts to take affirmative steps to ensure access to standard curriculum for ELs. Although the Chacon-Moscone Act (AB 1329) sunsetted in 1987, when Proposition 227 appeared on the ballot 11 years later, approximately 30 percent of California's ELs were still in bilingual instructional programs (California Language Census, 1998).

In June of 1998, Proposition 227 was enacted. In addition to the primary intent that ELs be taught primarily in English, the initiative included parental waiver exceptions allowing parents to request alternative programs for their children. Section 3 of Article 310 of the initiative states, "Under such parental waiver conditions, children may be transferred to classes where they are taught English and other subjects through bilingual education techniques or other generally recognized educational methodologies permitted by law. Individual schools in which 20 students or more of a given grade level receive a waiver shall be required to offer such a class; otherwise, they must allow the students to transfer to a public school in which such a class is offered."

During the same time frame, two related programs were also established. The Community Based English Tutoring (CBET) program, which is part of Proposition 227, was designed to "provide free or subsidized English-language instruction to parents or other members of the community who in turn pledge to provide English-language tutoring to California school children who are limited-English proficient." Thirteen months later, the California Legislature enacted the English Language Acquisition Program (ELAP) under AB 1116. The purpose of ELAP is to "improve the English proficiency of California pupils in grades 4 through 8 and to better prepare them to meet the state academic content and performance standards."

EL Counts and Distribution

Exhibits I-1 through I-4, presented on the following pages, show the distribution of ELs across the state by grade, language, and county. (See the Glossary for additional information regarding the terms used in these exhibits.)

Exhibit I-1 presents the number and percentage of students classified as either English learner (EL) or Fluent English proficient (FEP) in the years 1997-1998 and 2001-2002. The FEP classification includes students whose primary language is not English and who have met district criteria for proficiency and literacy in English either upon entry into the school system (IFEP) or through the district's redesignation process (RFEP). As shown, there is a consistently higher percentage of ELs in the lower grades than in the higher grades in both 1997-98 and 2001-02. Comparing each grade level across the two years, the percentage of ELs remains relatively stable; the largest increase was in kindergarten, where ELs went from 35.9 percent to 38.9 percent of all kindergarten students. Overall, the count

of students labeled as ELs increased by 10.9 percent. The number of FEP students increased by 21.9 percent overall, from 12.6 percent of all students to 14.3 percent of all students.

Exhibit I-1: Total Students, EL Students*, and FEP Students** in California by Grade, 1997-98 and 2001-2002

Students: 1997-1998

Grade	Total	EL*	FEP**	Percent EL	Percent FEP
Kindergarten	463,684	166,682	33,238	35.9%	7.2%
Grade 1	488,429	169,146	34,832	34.6%	7.1%
Grade 2	489,070	160,052	36,523	32.7%	7.5%
Grade 3	463,034	141,605	38,719	30.6%	8.4%
Grade 4	451,069	129,505	46,151	28.7%	10.2%
Grade 5	434,280	114,202	52,212	26.3%	12.0%
Grade 6	426,302	97,962	60,122	23.0%	14.1%
Grade 7	426,245	88,275	66,309	20.7%	15.6%
Grade 8	412,604	80,432	68,094	19.5%	16.5%
Grade 9	458,650	84,647	75,780	18.5%	16.5%
Grade 10	423,865	67,764	74,150	16.0%	17.5%
Grade 11	378,819	51,170	69,420	13.5%	18.3%
Grade 12	317,595	36,509	62,503	11.5%	19.7%
Ungraded	93,657	18,215	2,426	19.4%	2.6%
TOTAL	**5,727,303**	**1,406,166**	**720,479**	**24.6%**	**12.6%**

Students: 2001-2002

Grade	Total	EL*	FEP**	Percent EL	Percent FEP	Change in Percentage of ELs and FEPs (1997/98-2001/02) EL	FEP
Kindergarten	457,165	177,638	24,021	38.9%	5.3%	3.0	-1.9
Grade 1	488,311	173,093	41,849	35.4%	8.6%	0.8	1.5
Grade 2	491,610	175,274	43,139	35.7%	8.8%	3.0	1.3
Grade 3	488,633	162,217	51,577	33.2%	10.6%	2.6	2.2
Grade 4	485,301	138,420	67,770	28.5%	14.0%	-0.2	3.8
Grade 5	491,274	127,787	76,712	26.0%	15.6%	-0.3	3.6
Grade 6	493,218	112,936	82,872	22.9%	16.8%	-0.1	2.7
Grade 7	472,363	98,576	81,953	20.9%	17.3%	0.2	1.7
Grade 8	461,133	91,486	84,146	19.8%	18.2%	0.3	1.7
Grade 9	499,505	97,751	89,005	19.6%	17.8%	1.1	1.3
Grade 10	459,588	77,446	83,471	16.9%	18.2%	0.9	0.7
Grade 11	420,295	60,271	77,444	14.3%	18.4%	0.8	0.1
Grade 12	365,907	45,620	72,476	12.5%	19.8%	1.0	0.1
Ungraded	73,072	20,733	1,704	28.4%	2.3%	9.0	-0.3
TOTAL	**6,147,375**	**1,559,248**	**878,139**	**25.4%**	**14.3%**	0.8	1.7

*EL = English Learner
**FEP = Fully English Proficient. The available CBEDS data do not separate redesignated FEP students (RFEP) from students whose native language is not English but who were initially identified as FEP upon entry into the school system (IFEP).

Source: California Department of Education, California Basic Educational Data System (CBEDS) and Language Census Data Files (R30-LC).

Exhibit I-2 presents a statewide count of ELs by primary language. Spanish is the most common primary language for ELs, comprising 83.5 percent of the EL population in 2001-2002. Due to the steady growth of the Hispanic population in California, this group has increased not only in the percentage of total enrollment it represents, but also in the percentage of ELs.

Exhibit I-2: Statewide Count of English Learner Students by Language

Language	1997-1998			2001-2002			% Change in Numbers of ELs (1997/98-2001/2002)
	Number of ELs	Percent of All Students	Percent of ELs	Number of ELs	Percent of All Students	Percent of ELs	
Spanish	1,140,197	19.9%	81.1%	1,302,383	21.2%	83.5%	14.2%
Vietnamese	43,008	0.8%	3.1%	37,797	0.6%	2.4%	-12.1%
Hmong	30,551	0.5%	2.2%	26,801	0.4%	1.7%	-12.3%
Cantonese	25,360	0.4%	1.8%	24,945	0.4%	1.6%	-1.6%
Pilipino (Tagalog)	20,062	0.4%	1.4%	19,813	0.3%	1.3%	-1.2%
Korean	15,521	0.3%	1.1%	18,002	0.3%	1.2%	16.0%
Khmer (Cambodian)	18,694	0.3%	1.3%	13,475	0.2%	0.9%	-27.9%
Armenian	13,584	0.2%	1.0%	11,946	0.2%	0.8%	-12.1%
Mandarin (Putonghua)	10,380	0.2%	0.7%	11,793	0.2%	0.8%	13.6%
Punjabi	7,323	0.1%	0.5%	8,914	0.1%	0.6%	21.7%
Russian	7,598	0.1%	0.5%	7,977	0.1%	0.5%	5.0%
Arabic	5,900	0.1%	0.4%	7,545	0.1%	0.5%	27.9%
Lao	8,343	0.1%	0.6%	5,745	0.1%	0.4%	-31.1%
Japanese	4,967	0.1%	0.4%	5,122	0.1%	0.3%	3.1%
Farsi (Persian)	5,028	0.1%	0.4%	5,558	0.1%	0.4%	10.5%
Hindi	3,964	0.1%	0.3%	4,548	0.1%	0.3%	14.7%
Mien	5,192	0.1%	0.4%	3,947	0.1%	0.3%	-24.0%
Urdu	1,851	0.0%	0.1%	2,797	0.0%	0.2%	51.1%
Portuguese	2,207	0.0%	0.2%	2,383	0.0%	0.2%	8.0%
All others	36436	0.6%	2.6%	37,757	0.6%	2.4%	3.6%
Total	**1,406,166**	**24.6%**	**100.0%**	**1,559,248**	**25.4%**	**100.0%**	**10.9%**

Source: California Department of Education, California Basic Educational Data System (CBEDS) and Language Census Data Files (R30-LC).

Exhibit I-3 presents the counts and percentages of ELs by county in the years 1997-1998 and 2001-2002. As shown, the bulk of ELs are primarily in a few counties across the state. For example, Los Angeles County has more than a third of the state's EL population, with 36.6 percent in 2001-2002. In addition, the EL populations of a number of California counties have increased by 30 percent or more during this three-year span: Riverside, San Bernardino, Stanislaus, Contra Costa, Sonoma, Solano, Napa, Placer, San Benito, Lake, Inyo, Plumas, Calaveras, Mariposa, and Sierra.

Exhibit I-3: Counts and Percentages of English Learners by County

County	1997-1998			2001-2002			% Change in Numbers of ELs (1997/98-2001/02)
	ELs	% EL of total enrollment in County	% of All ELs in State	ELs	% EL of total enrollment in County	% of All ELs in State	
Los Angeles	561,293	35.5%	39.9%	570,635	33.4%	36.6%	1.7%
Orange	137,835	30.1%	9.8%	156,725	31.1%	10.1%	13.7%
San Diego	101,989	22.1%	7.3%	114,498	23.2%	7.3%	12.3%
Riverside	54,477	19.1%	3.9%	74,416	22.3%	4.8%	36.6%
San Bernardino	57,076	16.0%	4.1%	74,203	18.8%	4.8%	30.0%
Santa Clara	55,992	22.2%	4.0%	59,451	23.9%	3.8%	6.2%
Fresno	47,231	27.0%	3.4%	51,582	27.8%	3.3%	9.2%
Alameda	39,882	19.0%	2.8%	47,699	21.9%	3.1%	19.6%
Sacramento	34,684	16.9%	2.5%	44,455	19.5%	2.9%	28.2%
Kern	26,349	18.6%	1.9%	31,613	21.0%	2.0%	20.0%
Ventura	27,033	20.6%	1.9%	30,654	21.5%	2.0%	13.4%
Monterey	23,779	34.8%	1.7%	28,933	39.4%	1.9%	21.7%
San Joaquin	23,453	21.2%	1.7%	26,162	20.5%	1.7%	11.6%
Tulare	21,472	25.6%	1.5%	24,452	28.1%	1.6%	13.9%
Stanislaus	16,843	18.4%	1.2%	21,999	21.9%	1.4%	30.6%
Contra Costa	15,832	10.5%	1.1%	21,925	13.6%	1.4%	38.5%
San Mateo	19,925	21.5%	1.4%	21,059	23.6%	1.4%	5.7%
Santa Barbara	17,173	27.1%	1.2%	19,691	29.6%	1.3%	14.7%
Merced	15,589	31.8%	1.1%	17,388	32.8%	1.1%	11.5%
San Francisco	19,099	30.8%	1.4%	17,018	27.9%	1.1%	-10.9%
Imperial	14,976	46.2%	1.1%	16,550	49.0%	1.1%	10.5%
Sonoma	8,721	12.3%	0.6%	12,348	16.9%	0.8%	41.6%
Santa Cruz	10,548	26.6%	0.8%	10,936	27.4%	0.7%	3.7%
Solano	6,120	8.7%	0.4%	8,370	11.4%	0.5%	36.8%
Madera	6,211	25.9%	0.4%	7,292	28.5%	0.5%	17.4%
Yolo	5,751	21.7%	0.4%	6,275	21.6%	0.4%	9.1%
Napa	3,752	19.8%	0.3%	5,258	27.0%	0.3%	40.1%
Kings	3,976	16.0%	0.3%	4,684	18.1%	0.3%	17.8%
Butte	3,678	10.4%	0.3%	4,154	12.1%	0.3%	12.9%
San Luis Obispo	3,003	8.3%	0.2%	3,742	9.9%	0.2%	24.6%
Sutter	2,768	17.8%	0.2%	3,075	18.9%	0.2%	11.1%
Marin	2,685	9.5%	0.2%	3,024	10.5%	0.2%	12.6%
Placer	1,827	3.7%	0.1%	2,601	4.5%	0.2%	42.4%
Mendocino	1,863	11.7%	0.1%	2,401	15.8%	0.2%	28.9%
Yuba	3,074	23.1%	0.2%	2,276	16.1%	0.1%	-26.0%
San Benito	1,695	16.2%	0.1%	2,203	19.1%	0.1%	30.0%
Colusa	1,558	36.0%	0.1%	1,798	41.3%	0.1%	15.4%
El Dorado	1,305	4.5%	0.1%	1,495	5.1%	0.1%	14.6%
Tehama	911	8.3%	0.1%	1,169	10.6%	0.1%	28.3%
Glenn	1,130	18.3%	0.1%	927	15.3%	0.1%	-18.0%
Humboldt	664	3.0%	0.0%	831	4.0%	0.1%	25.2%
Shasta	919	3.0%	0.1%	818	2.7%	0.1%	-11.0%
Lake	440	4.4%	0.0%	620	5.9%	0.0%	40.9%
Del Norte	265	5.0%	0.0%	326	6.5%	0.0%	23.0%
Inyo	222	6.3%	0.0%	293	8.7%	0.0%	32.0%
Mono	249	12.8%	0.0%	287	12.7%	0.0%	15.3%
Modoc	272	12.1%	0.0%	255	10.8%	0.0%	-6.3%
Siskiyou	181	2.2%	0.0%	206	2.9%	0.0%	13.8%
Lassen	87	1.6%	0.0%	107	2.1%	0.0%	23.0%
Plumas	65	1.8%	0.0%	93	2.8%	0.0%	43.1%
Calaveras	54	0.8%	0.0%	78	1.1%	0.0%	44.4%
Amador	49	1.0%	0.0%	58	1.0%	0.0%	18.4%
Nevada	72	0.5%	0.0%	56	0.4%	0.0%	-22.2%
Tuolumne	60	0.7%	0.0%	54	0.7%	0.0%	-10.0%
Mariposa	2	0.1%	0.0%	17	0.6%	0.0%	750.0%
Sierra	2	0.1%	0.0%	8	1.0%	0.0%	300.0%
Trinity	5	0.2%	0.0%	5	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%
Alpine	0	0.0%	0.0%	0	0.0%	0.0%	--
Total	**1,406,166**	**24.6%**	**100.0%**	**1,559,248**	**25.4%**	**100.0%**	**10.9%**

Source: California Department of Education, California Basic Educational Data System (CBEDS) and Language Census Data Files (R30-LC).

Exhibit I-4 presents a visual depiction of the percentage of ELs in each county in California in 2001-2002. ELs comprise more than 30 percent of the county enrollment in 6 counties: Monterey, Merced, Imperial, Colusa, and the two largest counties in terms of enrollment, Los Angeles and Orange. Almost two thirds of all counties in California have at least 10 percent ELs.

Exhibit I-4: Percentage of English Learners by County in California, 2001-2002
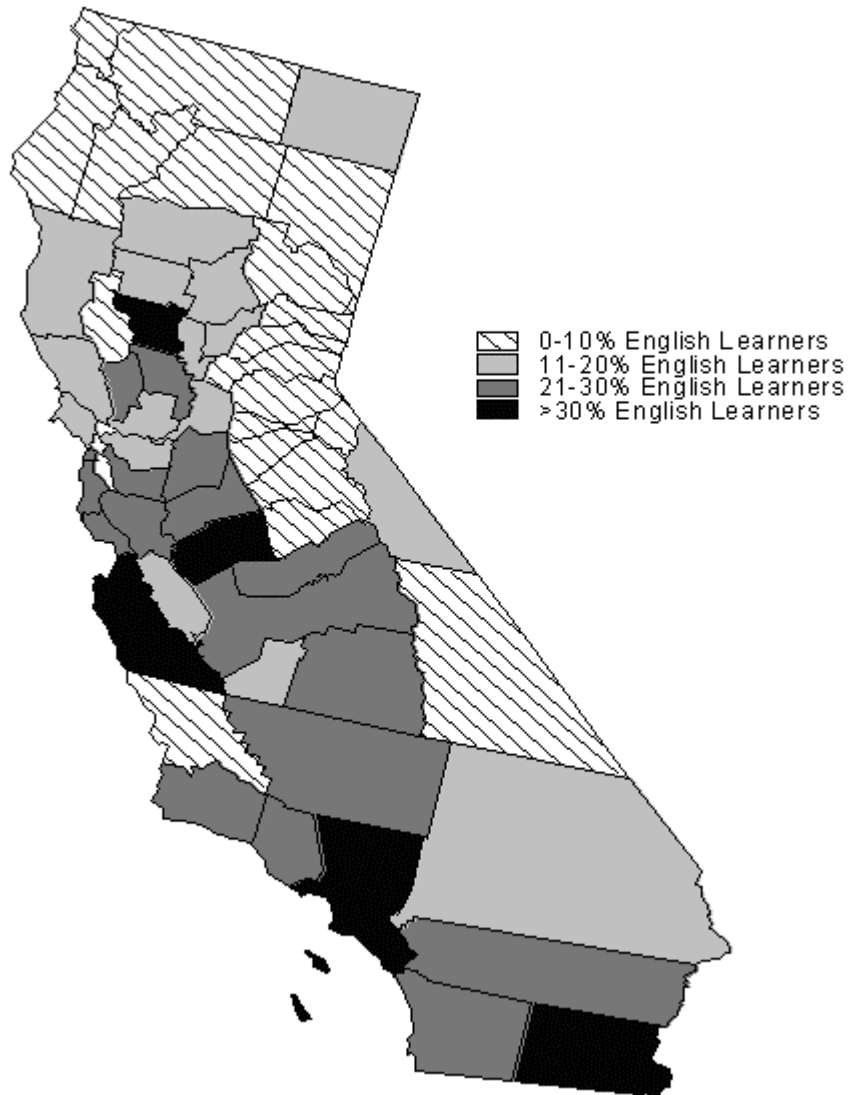
Source: California Department of Education, California Basic Educational Data System (CBEDS) and Language Census Data Files (R30-LC)

Exhibit I-5 presents the statewide assignment of ELs by type of EL instructional service in the years 1997-1998 and 2001-2002. It shows a significant change between the two years in the percentage of all ELs assigned in four of the five categories in which comparisons were possible. There was a 63.0 percent drop in ELs assigned to English language development (ELD) with primary language instruction in the academic subjects, an expected change due to the decrease of bilingual education programs since the passage of Proposition 227. There was also a 61.5 percent drop in the number of ELs not assigned to any English learner services at all. At the same time, there was a large increase in the number of ELs assigned to either ELD with Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE) or ELD and SDAIE with primary language support, which was also expected with the passage of the proposition.

Exhibit I-5: Statewide Assignment of EL Students to EL Services, 1997-1998 and 2001-2002

English Learner Service	1997-1998		2001-2002		% Change in Numbers of ELs (1997/98-2001/2002)
	Number of ELs	Percentage of all ELs	Number of ELs	Percentage of all ELs	
English Language Development (ELD)	159,617	11.4%	173,145	11.1%	8.5%
ELD and Academic Subjects Through the Primary Language (L1)	409,879	29.1%	151,836	9.7%	-63.0%
ELD and Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE)	307,176	21.8%	599,979	38.5%	95.3%
ELD and SDAIE with Primary Language Support	305,764	21.7%	389,904	25.0%	27.5%
Other Instructional Services (category not used in 1998)	-	-	166,747	10.7%	-
Not Receiving any English Learner Services	201,844	14.4%	77,637	5.0%	-61.5%
Withdrawn from Services by Parents (category not used in 2002)	21,886	1.6%	-	-	-
Total	**1,406,166**	**100.0%**	**1,559,248**	**100.0%**	**10.9%**

Source: California Department of Education, California Basic Educational Data System (CBEDS) and Language Census Data Files (R30-LC).

Exhibit I-6 shows the assignment of ELs to instructional settings in 1999-2000 and 2001-2002. These instructional settings provisions became law as a result of the passage of Proposition 227. Therefore, data were not collected prior to 1999-2000, and the categories are different from those shown in Exhibit I-5. The lack of pre-Proposition 227 data results in a less dramatic percent change between the years in Exhibit I-6 than what is presented in Exhibit I-5. The number of students assigned "alternative course of study" settings decreased by 11.4 percent between 1999-2000 and 2001-2002. (These "alternative" settings include classes in which ELs are taught English and other subjects through bilingual education techniques or other generally recognized methodologies permitted by law.) In addition, the number of students placed in mainstream classrooms at a parent's request decreased by 5.6 percent, and the number of students assigned to settings other than those specified in the CBEDS data decreased by 19.0 percent.

Exhibit I-6: Statewide Assignment of EL Students to Instructional Settings, 1999-2000 and 2001-2002

Instructional Setting	1999-2000		2001-2002		% Change in Numbers of ELs (1999/2000-2001/2002)
	Number of ELs	Percentage of all ELs	Number of ELs	Percentage of all ELs	
Alternative Course of Study	187,832	12.7%	166,330	10.7%	-11.4%
Structured (Sheltered) English Immersion	691,212	46.7%	754,558	48.4%	9.2%
English Language Mainstream Classroom – Students Meeting Criteria	450,424	30.4%	510,671	32.8%	13.4%
Mainstream Classroom – Parental Request	39,808	2.7%	37,566	2.4%	-5.6%
Other Instructional Setting	111,251	7.5%	90,123	5.8%	-19.0%
Total	**1,480,527**	**100.0%**	**1,559,248**	**100.0%**	**5.3%**

Source: California Department of Education, California Basic Educational Data System (CBEDS) and Language Census Data Files (R30-LC).

Other Relevant Research

This section provides a selective review of studies relevant to this evaluation. In the following subsections, selected findings from research in the following areas are reviewed: 1) the effectiveness of instructional programs serving English learners; 2) services for English learners in California since the passage of Proposition 227; 3) effective practices with English learners; and 4) instructional practices for teaching English to EL students. Research in the first two areas was reviewed in previous reports of this evaluation and has been updated. The third and fourth areas have been added this year due to our focus in Year 3 on exploring elements of effective practice with EL students through case study site visits. Although we include a review of research on instructional practices with ELs, our case studies focus primarily on how schools and districts organize themselves to enhance educational

opportunities for ELs. Detailed analyses and evaluations of instructional practice observed in our site visits, while clearly important, were considered beyond the scope of this study.

Selected Findings on the Effectiveness of Instructional Programs Serving English Learners

In general, few studies of services for English learners in the United States are considered scientific (i.e., methodologically and statistically sound), and few provide conclusive information on which instructional programs serving English learners are effective (de Cos, 1999). The National Research Council (NRC), in its review of the research on programs serving English learners, acknowledged the limitations of the research conducted in the field (August & Hakuta, 1997). The NRC report discusses the difficulties involved in synthesizing results across studies, stating that this is partly due to the highly politicized character of the field and inconsistently applied program labels. Of particular concern were program evaluation studies that lacked appropriate comparison groups and random assignment of subjects or controls for pre-existing differences. The sample of studies below highlights the difficulty of assessing the effectiveness of bilingual education or other services for English learners.

A longitudinal study by Gersten and Woodward conducted between 1985 and 1997 in El Paso, Texas, compared the outcomes of English learners in bilingual immersion and transitional bilingual programs. The bilingual immersion approach was described as accelerating the introduction of English while maintaining some Spanish language instruction and integrating second-language instruction with content area materials. Initial differences found in reading and language favoring the bilingual immersion program disappeared by the seventh grade. In fact, by seventh grade many English learners in both program models were not meeting grade-level achievement, as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, in either reading comprehension or vocabulary. A follow-up at the high-school level indicated high attrition rates for students in both programs and comparable low achievement rates (in de Cos, 1999).

Ramírez and his colleagues (1991) conducted a national study to compare the effectiveness of three instructional methods for English learners: (1) "early-exit" bilingual programs, which contain some initial instruction in the child's primary language that is phased out over the course of approximately two years, when the students are expected to transfer into English mainstream classrooms; (2) "late-exit" bilingual programs, in which students receive substantial instruction in their primary language until the 6th grade (when they are expected to transfer out); and (3) structured English immersion (SEI) programs, in which all instruction is in English (with occasional use of students' primary language for purposes such as clarifying instructions) and in which students are expected to remain for two to three years before moving into English mainstream classes (Ramírez, et al., 1991). The study found that while early-exit students initially outperformed immersion students in mathematics and reading in English, by the end of the third grade their advantage had essentially disappeared and they obtained comparable results when tested in English. Due to the design of the study, the authors were unable to directly compare the late-exit programs with the early-exit and immersion programs, and they therefore relied on indirect comparisons which have since been questioned by the NRC (Meyer and Fienberg, 1992).

In 1992, Berman Weiler Associates released a study funded by the California Legislature intended to examine effective elements in a range of California English learner programs (Berman et al., 1992). The study identified five instructional models used across the state and concluded that each had unique advantages and limitations. For example, sheltered English programs offered more continuity than pull-out English as a Second Language programs, but tended to expose students to an overly simplified curriculum. Berman and his colleagues concluded that no single instructional model for English learners is appropriate for all schools. Chambers and Parrish (1991) performed analyses of the programs in the Berman Weiler study and found the resources used for bilingual and sheltered immersion classes to be essentially equal in cost, but "pullout" programs to be more expensive.

A 1996 meta-analysis by Rossell and Baker of approximately 300 evaluation studies of programs serving English learners found only 25 percent of the studies methodologically acceptable (having a treatment and control group and a statistical control for pre-treatment differences where groups were not randomly assigned). In examining studies that compared transitional bilingual education with structured immersion, the researchers found different effects across subject areas, based on a varying number of studies. For example, for reading, 12 studies were compared and the researchers found 2 studies that showed no difference between transitional bilingual and structured immersion, while 10 studies found structured immersion to be better than transitional bilingual. The analysis has since been criticized for its overwhelming use of Canadian French "structured immersion" programs, which are different from U.S. English immersion programs (de Cos, 1999). Green (1998) conducted a similar meta-analysis by reviewing the same studies, applying the same criteria and adding the additional criterion that effects had to be measured after a minimum of one academic year. The application of this additional criterion reduced the number of valid studies from 75 to 11, from which Green concluded that the scholarly literature moderately favors the use of primary language instruction.

Ongoing long-term research by Thomas and Collier (1997) highlights possible shortcomings of research examining the effectiveness of program models. The authors maintain that examination of language minority students' achievement over a one- to four-year period is too short and leads to an inaccurate perception of actual long-term performance. As a result of their long-term approach to examining the English reading and math achievement of K-12 English learners, they conclude that only language minority students who have received strong cognitive and academic development through their first language for many years, as well as through English, are doing well in school as they reach the last of the high school years.

A report recently issued by the New York City Board of Education (2000) on the progress of English learners in New York City Schools indicates that children who entered the city's schools when they were young (kindergarten and grade 1) exited EL programs faster and in larger cumulative percentages than those entering in the middle and higher grades. For students entering in kindergarten, 62 percent had reached the exit criterion in three years or less. The study also found that consistency of programmatic approach appeared to be a more important determinant of exit rate than the specific educational philosophy and methods of the bilingual/ESL programs. Relatively strong proficiency in

English and the home language (for Spanish speakers) contributed to the students' ability to meet the program exit criterion within three years.

August and Hakuta (1997) and Genesee (1999) suggest that there is no one best model that will serve all students, and emphasize the importance of designing services for English learners that consider the community context, the needs of students who will be served, and the resources that are available for implementing the program.

Selected Findings on Services for English Learners in California Since the Passage of Proposition 227

Preliminary research since the passage of Proposition 227 highlights a range of issues affecting schools. Overall, Proposition 227 appeared to significantly shift the proportion of ELs enrolled in various instructional models, with bilingual education programs enrolling approximately 170,000 students in 1998-99, down from about 400,000 the previous year (Gándara et al., 2000). This trend has continued, although at a much slower rate, with over 166,000 EL students enrolled in an alternative course of study requiring parental waiver, and 151,000 EL students reported currently receiving some or most academic instruction in their primary language (CDE, 2002). A study conducted in the first year of Proposition 227's implementation by Garcia & Curry-Rodriguez (2000) found that districts adapted their previous policies on educational strategies for English learners to conform to Proposition 227, but that related program practices were not significantly affected by those adaptations. While initial response to the state law created confusion regarding implementation, these authors note, it did not universally redirect California district or school policies and related practices regarding the language of instruction for English learners. Rather, the authors found that the districts they studied which had a history of opposing bilingual instruction tended to embrace all-English programs, while those that had supported it were able to continue offering native-language instruction through the Proposition's parental choice provisions.

The implementation of Proposition 227, combined with a concurrent policy mandate under the state's Public Schools Accountability Act to test all students in academics using English regardless of language of instruction, also affected classroom instruction and professional development. Impacts that were reported to be observed by several researchers included literacy instructional practices stressing mechanics over comprehension, and emphasizing oral English skills. Moreover, these researchers also found that many teachers expressed anxiety about being held legally liable for using EL students' primary language even minimally, and about the ability of EL students to perform on state-mandated, norm-referenced tests in English. Finally, researchers also cited continued shortages in teaching staff trained in educating ELs (Gándara et al., 2000; Gutierrez et al., 2000; Stritikus & Garcia, 2000; Palmer & Garcia, 2000).

Findings from a California Department of Education (1999) district survey assessing the types of technical assistance needed to implement Proposition 227 indicated that teacher training and adequate materials remained an important issue in the state. While district administrators indicated that their teachers were well informed about the policy's requirements, they also noted that teachers had not received adequate staff development in the instructional strategies, curriculum, and materials needed to serve English learners

through structured English immersion, an alternative course of study, or English mainstream classrooms. Other studies have also cited a lack of appropriate instructional materials (including primary language materials) as a significant challenge faced by teachers (Schirling et al., 2000; Alamillo & Viramontes, 2000).

A study conducted by the Institute for Research in English Acquisition and Development (READ Institute) profiled five California school districts implementing Proposition 227 and identified common issues and challenges that were independent of district size, location, and demographics. The study suggests that as districts moved away from primary language instruction, they encountered challenges that made planning for English immersion difficult. These included undefined educational terminology, long-standing support for bilingual education, and a poor understanding of immersion (Clark, 1999).

Several studies published in a Bilingual Research Journal series highlight the issue of parent understanding of, and involvement with, Proposition 227. As Garcia (2000) notes, parent exception waivers provide a means for the continuation of bilingual education programs. However, significant differences in both the quality and content of the information provided to parents about placement options for their children exist, and may affect the percentages of parents choosing the bilingual education option (Garcia, 2000; Gutierrez et al., 2000; Maxwell-Jolly, 2000; Schirling et al., 2000).

A recent study by Rossell (2002) presents findings from interviews conducted during the spring of 1999 and fall of 2001 with 39 administrators and 66 teachers. She also reports on observations of 170 classrooms in 29 different schools in California. Rossell found that implementation of structured English immersion programs varied across districts and schools. She reported that many district administrators assumed that as long as English learners were being instructed in English, the district was in compliance with Proposition 227. This led to many ELs being placed in mainstream classrooms rather than sheltered English immersion classrooms. Visits to school districts also revealed variation among parental waiver policies, although Rossell concludes that parents have easy access to waivers.

Selected Findings on Effective Practices with English Learners

Based on their review of 33 studies, the National Research Council committee on improving schooling for language-minority children, chaired by August and Hakuta (1997), identify 13 attributes of effective schooling for English learners at both the school and classroom levels, although some of the attributes (e.g., explicit skills instruction) are more relevant to the classroom level than others. These attributes resonate with findings from several other research studies, lending support for their consideration in our framework on elements of effective practice with English learners, despite the acknowledged methodological and statistical limitations of the studies. The 13 identified attributes include the following:

1. **Supportive Schoolwide Climate.**[2] The "ethos" of a school values cultural and linguistic diversity, has high expectations for all students, and incorporates family and community involvement into its regular routine.

2. **School Leadership.**[3] Someone, preferably but not exclusively the principal, makes English learner instruction a priority and maintains a commitment to curricular improvement through recruitment and ongoing staff development.

3. **Customized Learning Environment.**[4] School staff are aware of the specific and unique needs of their English learner students and tailor curriculum and instruction accordingly.

4. **Articulation and Coordination Within and Between Schools.**[5] There is a coherent and cohesive program of English learner instruction at both the school and district level, involving teachers from all grade levels and content areas.

5. **Use of Native Language and Culture in Instruction.**[6] The classroom environment reflects an additive perspective on diversity and takes advantage of students' native language and culture as resources to be built upon.

6. **A Balanced Curriculum.**[7] Teachers engage English learners in a variety of meaningful activities that develop higher-order as well as basic skills.

7. **Explicit Skills Instruction.**[8] Teachers are explicit about their learning goals, they assess student progress in meeting those goals, and they frequently model how to successfully complete an assignment.

8. **Opportunities for Student-Directed Activities.**[9] Teachers encourage cooperative learning among English learners through task-based participation structures focused on the mutual creation of meaning.

9. **Use of Instructional Strategies that Enhance Understanding.**[10] Teachers employ strategies, like maintaining routines, providing comprehensible input, using appropriate questioning techniques, and fostering metacognitive awareness, specifically intended to enhance English learners' access to academic content.

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[2] See Slavin & Calderón (2001), Atunez, DiCerbo, & Menken (2000), and Reyes, Scribner, & Paredes (Eds.) (1999).
[3] See Garcia (1991).
[4] See Padrón, Waxman, & Rivera (2002), ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education (2000), and Garcia (1991).
[5] See Menken (2000a).
[6] See ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education (2000), Reyes, Scribner, & Paredes (Eds.) (1999), and Garcia (1991).
[7] See Barley et al. (2002), Padrón, Waxman, & Rivera (2002), and Atunez, Dicerbo, & Menken (2000).
[8] See Barley et al. (2002), Padrón, Waxman, & Rivera (2002), and Atunez, Dicerbo, & Menken, (2000).
[9] See Padrón, Waxman, & Rivera (2002) and Garcia (1991).
[10] See Padrón, Waxman, & Rivera (2002), Atunez, Dicerbo, & Menken (2000), ERIC Clearinghouse on Urban Education (1997), and Carrasquillo & Rodríguez (1996).

10. **Opportunities for Practice.**[11] English learners have many chances to work with a text through interrelated, extended reading, writing, listening, and speaking activities. They also interact with native speakers about the content of instruction.

11. **Systematic Student Assessment.**[12] The school has a regular mechanism for monitoring English learner progress and for conveying that information to teachers and students.

12. **Staff Development.**[13] School staff are provided with ongoing opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills related to English learner instruction.

13. **Home and Parent Involvement.**[14] The school maintains open dialogue with the families and community it serves, is responsive to their needs and concerns, and develops meaningful and realistic opportunities for involvement.

In order to examine more closely how attributes such as those listed above might contribute to effective practices, we considered the work of several researchers that have undertaken case-based studies of instructional practices and school organization benefiting English learners.[15] The two studies reviewed below serve both to illustrate key elements from this effective practices literature, and also to highlight some conceptual elements considered in the framework of effective practices and in the case-study methodology for our study's third-year activities.

Doherty et al. (2003) reports on a study examining the influence of the Five Standards for Effective Pedagogy on student achievement gains. Developed over the course of 3 decades' work in culturally- and linguistically-diverse settings, Tharp and Gallimore first proposed the Five Standards for Effective Pedagogy in 1988 (now adopted by the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, & Excellence (CREDE)) as key elements of successful instruction (p. 1):

- **Joint Productive Activity: Teacher and Students Producing Together.** "Teachers and students work together on a common product or goal and have opportunities to converse about their work."

- **Developing Language and Literacy Across the Curriculum.** Students develop "competence in the language and literacy of instruction and in the academic disciplines through extended reading, writing, and speaking activities."

- **Making Meaning: Connecting School to Students' Lives.** Instruction is contextualized "in the experiences and skills of students' homes and communities."

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[11] See Padrón, Waxman, & Rivera (2002), Atunez, Dicerbo, & Menken (2000), and Garcia (1991).
[12] See Menken (2000b).
[13] See Slavin & Calderón (2001) and Atunez, Dicerbo, & Menken (2000).
[14] See Atunez, Dicerbo, & Menken (2000) and Carrasquillo & Rodríguez (1996).
[15] See Doherty, Hilberg, Pinal, & Tharp (2003) and Berman, Minicucci, McLaughlin, Nelson, & Woodworth (1995).

- **Teaching Complex Thinking.** Complex thinking is taught "through challenging activities requiring application of content knowledge to achieve an academic goal, with clear standards and systematic feedback on performance."

- **Teaching Through Conversation.** Students are taught "dialogically, using planned, goal-directed instructional conversation between a teacher and a small group of students."

Use of the Five Standards for Effective Pedagogy (or, CREDE standards) has its roots in the Kamehameha Elementary Education Program (KEEP) in Hawaii and has extended to the Rough Rock Elementary (Navajo) School in Arizona, to the schooling of American Indian groups in Alaska, and, subsequently, to the instruction of other low-income and racial/ethnic minority groups in the United States. Use of the CREDE standards with Hispanic English learners in California is the focus of the Doherty et al. studies.

After examining the implementation of the standards among 15 teachers at one public elementary school with a predominantly Hispanic English learner student population, Doherty et al. (2003) report that greater use of the CREDE standards in English instruction reliably predicted SAT-9 achievement gains in students' English comprehension, reading, spelling, and vocabulary. They note that this finding is consistent with other "correlational, quasi-experimental, and true experimental designs [that] have documented a systematic relationship between use of the CREDE standards and a broad range of affective, behavioral, and cognitive indicators of improved student performance"[16] (p. 3). If further experimental tests of the efficacy of the CREDE standards bear out this single-school study's results, the authors propose "scaling up to a variety of linguistic and cultural communities" so that more students benefit from this model of teaching and learning (p. 19).

Berman et al. (1995) employ a qualitative approach in their case studies of eight "exemplary" schools, and the organizational and practice elements that typify them. The focal schools were selected through a nomination and screening process that included extensive telephone interviews and one-day site visits to determine the level at which the following criteria were being met: "1) high quality language arts, mathematics, or science programs for LEP students; 2) significant school restructuring (i.e., with respect to governance, organization of teaching, uses of time); and 3) implementation of a well-designed English language acquisition program" (p. 3). Six "indicators of excellence" were used to assess these criteria:[17]

1. Innovation (the school departs from standard instruction, scheduling, organization, and/or curriculum segmentation in order to facilitate program goals).
2. Embedded (the practices for LEP students are not isolated, but are part of the entire school program and are articulated with the practices used in earlier and later grades).
3. High standards (school staff have embraced and can articulate the program's philosophy including its vision of quality education for LEP students).

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[16] This passage cites the correlational studies of Doherty & Pinal (2002), Estrada (2000), and Padrón & Waxman (1999); the quasi-experimental study of Hilberg, Tharp, & DeGeest (2000); and the experimental studies of Saunders & Goldenberg (in press) and Saunders & Goldenberg (1999).
[17] These six items are reproduced from Berman et al. (1995, Introduction, p. 3).

4. Longevity (the school's use of the identified practices is a serious long-term effort).
5. Qualified staff (staffing and staff training are appropriate to the practices being implemented with LEP students).
6. Generalizability (the school serves students who are fairly typical of LEP students nationally and its situation (e.g., funding) is not so unique as to preclude other schools learning from it).

The eight focal schools selected for the Berman et al. (1995) study based on "the indicators of excellence" received visits by research teams who interviewed students, teachers, support staff, administrators, and district and state officials who also observed instruction and staff meetings. The authors note that the purpose of the study was not to link the indicators quantitatively to student outcomes, but rather to describe how "these schools are highly innovative and follow practices that are considered by researchers to provide outstanding learning opportunities for LEP and all students" (p. 4 of Introduction).

While each of the eight case studies is characterized by a unique constellation of these attributes of "effectiveness," Berman et al. (1995) distill seven "lessons" all of the focal schools have learned which can, in turn, be departure points for others (p. 1 of Chapter 10):

- A comprehensive schoolwide vision provided an essential foundation for developing outstanding education for EL students.

- Effective language development strategies were adapted to different local conditions in order to ensure EL students access to the core curriculum.

- High quality learning environments for EL students involved curricular strategies that engaged students in meaningful, in-depth learning across content areas led by trained and qualified staff.

- Innovative instructional strategies that emphasize collaboration and hands-on activities engaged EL students in the learning process.

- A schoolwide approach to restructuring schools' units of teaching, use of time, decision-making, and external relations enhanced the teaching/learning environment and fostered the academic achievement of EL students.

- External partners had a direct influence on improving the education program for EL students.

- Districts played a critical role in supporting quality education for EL students.

As a result of reviewing these and other key research studies, our team constructed a framework that consolidated several elements of effective practice with English learners to guide our site visit data collection methods. These include the following and are discussed in further detail in Chapter 4:

- Utilizing a clear, explicitly-defined plan of standards-based instruction to teach English learners in a manner that is responsive to their cultural and linguistic

backgrounds by embedding new learning in meaningful connections to existing knowledge;

- Promoting language and literacy development through opportunities for challenging, engaging, facilitated learning;

- Conveying high expectations for student performance while attending to the skills needed to meet those expectations through ongoing assessment to inform instruction; and

- Cultivating schoolwide accountability for English learner linguistic and academic achievement via strong leadership, well-prepared staff, and district, school, and community support to provide a foundation on which other effective practices can be built, sustained, and continuously renewed.

Selected Literature on Instructional Practices for Teaching English to English Learners

The enactment of Proposition 227 and other, more recent policy initiatives intended to improve the academic achievement of California's children have brought new attention and resources to bear on the education of English learners, particularly regarding English language instruction. In addition to adopting content area standards in English language arts, mathematics, and other academic subjects, the State Board of Education adopted content and performance standards for English Language Development. Also, the state's professional development initiative created institutes for reading, high school English, and mathematics, and supported institutes to prepare teachers of English learners to help their students meet state standards. The public school accountability system requires that all students be tested in English and that the test scores of English learners be included in schools' academic performance index.

These developments have helped to foster research perspectives on curriculum and pedagogical methods that will equip English learners with the content knowledge and English skills needed for academic and career success. The research summarized below focuses primarily on the teaching of English as a second language. This research is influencing current discussions of practice in California schools, but also advocates for additional research to inform basic decisions about second-language learning processes and effective instructional practice in specific settings.

Wong Fillmore and Snow's "What Teachers Need to Know about Language" (2000) and Scarcella's "Academic English: A Conceptual Framework" (2003) map the complex linguistic issues underlying the instruction of English learners and native English speakers. Both emphasize the need to develop curricula and teacher knowledge that will support English learners' mastery of the more formal registers of English associated with academic reading and writing as well as of spoken English appropriate to formal contexts—that is, to address key vocabulary, grammar, and writing and speaking conventions through explicit teaching, feedback, and guided practice. Researchers in the area of academic language such

as Schleppregrell and Columbi (2002) illustrate the varieties of academic English associated with particular content areas. However, as Scarcella points out, further work is needed to translate the recognition of the need for strong instruction in academic English into a research-based set of recommendations for practice in particular situations:

> ... it would be useful to understand the specific language features (e.g., phonological, lexical, grammatical, and discourse features) English learners should be taught at different English proficiency levels. This will entail investigating the teachability of language features as well as the factors that affect their teachability (e.g., practice, input, corrective feedback). It will also be important to explore the extent to which English learners of diverse proficiency levels are able to acquire the features of academic English... there is a need to collect data on what English learners in different sets of circumstances and contexts are able to do...In terms of instruction, teaching academic English should probably include a consideration of the three dimensions of academic English. However, the extent to which the various dimensions are emphasized in different grades and to learners of different proficiency levels should be explored (p. 32).

Other writers have explored the research literature addressing cognitive processes and instructional needs of English learners. In her review of research on the cognitive reading processes of English learners in the United States, Fitzgerald (1995) found that the cognitive reading processes of ESL readers were, "on the whole,... substantively the same as those of native English speakers," though slower. Based on her review, she recommended that teachers take account of ESL readers' slower processing by showing more patience, taking care when wording questions, making interactive comments to maximize the opportunity for activating thought processes, and being particularly attentive to developing readers' topic knowledge for specific reading selections. She also noted that most of the research she reviewed concerned older readers, and that very little attention had been paid to how cognitive reading processes emerge and develop for students in preschool through second grade. She therefore called for more research on such issues as how ESL cognitive reading processes develop over time, from the inception of learning English onward to some relatively high level of proficiency, and how early ESL reading processes are similar to, and different from, those of early native English literacy.

Gersten and Baker's research synthesis, "What We Know About Effective Instructional Practices for English-Language Learners" (2000), found only a few rigorous research studies addressing this question, so the authors augmented their review of published findings with insights from workgroups of education professionals. The authors advised educators to recognize that English learners need *both* explicit English language development and academic instruction (that is, students should not be expected to develop sophisticated English skills through academic instruction conducted in English). They identified five instructional variables that appear to be critical components of instruction that simultaneously develop language proficiency and academic performance: 1) building and using vocabulary as a curricular anchor; 2) using visuals to reinforce concepts and vocabulary; 3) implementing cooperative learning and peer tutoring strategies; 4) using native language strategically, and 5) modulating cognitive and language demands (i.e., reducing other cognitive demands when focusing on English language content instruction but reducing language demands while students are struggling with cognitively demanding

content). They also call for a significant increase in the quality and quantity of instructional intervention studies of English learners, especially English learners with disabilities.

The field of Second Language Acquisition has long debated the relative efficacy of teaching second languages using primarily formal (grammar-focused) or communicative methods (meaning-focused approaches in which explicit rule teaching and error correction are limited or avoided). Current writers in the field such as Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, and Thurrell (1997), Doughty and Williams (1998) and Lightbown and Spada (1999), call for a balanced approach as well as more research on the application of theory to practice. Lightbown and Spada (1999) conclude from their review of SLA that "data from a number of studies offer support for the view that form-focused instruction and corrective feedback provided within the context of communicative programs are more effective in promoting second language learning than programs which are limited to a virtually exclusive emphasis on either accuracy or on fluency. Thus, we would argue that second language teachers can (and should) provide guided, form-based instruction and corrective feedback in certain circumstances," in particular, pointing out differences between students' first language and the target language. However, the authors also highlight the need for additional research on the application of theory to practice: "Decisions about when and how to provide form focus must take into account differences in learner characteristics" (e.g., educated adults, children beginning school in a second language, immigrants who cannot read and write their own language, or adolescents studying a foreign language a few hours a week all will have different needs.). The challenge, they argue, is to find the optimal balance of these two orientations. They also stress that more research is needed to answer practical questions about features of a language that respond best to form-focused instruction and those that can be learned through adequate exposure to the language; when corrective feedback should be offered, and when learners should be allowed to focus their attention on the content of their utterances.

While this research provides important information about the forces that are shaping instructional decisions for English learners in California, its complexity and emerging nature have also influenced our decision not to analyze in detail and evaluate aspects of classroom instruction within our examination of effective practices with ELs in the case study schools we visited this year. In Chapter 4, the elements of effective practice with English learners that guided our 18 school site visits are further described.

Chapter II – Methodology

Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of the research methods used to conduct the evaluation, beginning with an outline of the major methods that have been used during the past 3 years. Later sections in the chapter will describe Year 3 activities in more detail. The first year of the project was devoted to gaining a broad overview of English learner education and the impact of Proposition 227 in California between 1998 and 2000. We used data from the state's education databases (CBEDS and the Language Census) to identify and categorize districts and schools in terms of the numbers of English learner (EL) students served and the nature of the instruction provided. We conducted exploratory telephone surveys with a sample of 39 districts selected to represent the range of conditions we had identified, and we conducted intensive site visits to eight districts. Site visits included interviews with district and school personnel, coordinators of Community Based English Tutoring (CBET) programs, classroom observations, and focus group discussions with teachers, parents, and students. In the second year of the study, we explored themes that had emerged during the first year's research. We did so through surveys administered to a statewide sample of teachers, principals, district administrators, and CBET coordinators, as well as interviews with stakeholders offering a range of perspectives on the origins and implementation of the law. We also used data from California's statewide assessment (Stanford Achievement Test, version 9 – SAT-9) to explore trends in the academic achievement of current and former English learners and native English-speaking students between 1998 and 2001.

In this third year of evaluation, research focused on exploring how school effectiveness may impact English learners' academic achievement. Major activities included case study site visits and the continuation and expansion of our analysis of state data on student achievement through spring 2002. The following sections of this chapter discuss the research methods employed this year:

- Use of state test data to identify schools that seemed effective in educating ELs
- Case study site visits
- Statewide student achievement analyses

Three different instructional model type delineations were used in the report for the different types of analyses. Since this can be confusing, the following is an attempt to clarify these distinctions:

1. For the **SAT-9 statewide instructional model analyses**, there are three classifications: continuing-bilingual, transitioning-from-bilingual, and never-bilingual schools. We used these classifications in an attempt to categorize schools regarding instructional setting and service configurations pre- and post-Proposition 227. Chapter 3 describes strengths and weaknesses associated with this typology in more detail. It is worthy of

note, however, that this approach to categorizing schools, or any other approach that does not include statewide, consistent, student-level outcome data linked over time, precludes definitive causal statements regarding the efficacy of one instructional model over another.

2. For both the **CELDT and CST statewide instructional model analyses**, there are two classifications: "substantial" L_1 and "not substantial" L_1 in 2001-02. For these analyses, we used two classifications rather than three because the CELDT and CST were not administered pre-Proposition 227. Given that it is not possible to compare how EL students' language proficiency and performance changed on these tests pre- and post-Proposition 227, it did not seem reasonable to characterize schools by the three scenarios of change in instructional model type.

3. For the purposes of **case study sample selection**, we also used these two classifications, "substantial" L_1 and "not substantial" L_1. The rationale for using two classifications is that the primary purpose of the case study site visits was broader than examining the effects of Proposition 227 exclusively. In addition to continuing to collect data on the implementation of Proposition 227, we focused on exploring what factors may contribute to school effectiveness for ELs. Thus, we were less interested in change in model type over time, than in which of the two primary model types were prevalent for the current year.

Additional details on the methods for the full five-year study can be found in the Evaluation Methodology Report.[1]

Methods Used During Year 3

Case Study Site Visits

In Year 3, the AIR/WestEd team sought examples of effective policies and instructional practices for EL students by visiting a selection of sites that included nine "effective" schools, whose EL students appeared to have had sustained relatively high performance over the previous 3 years as compared to the state average; three "growth" schools, whose EL students appeared to have made relatively substantial academic progress over the past 3 years; and six "comparison" schools, whose EL students had scored below the state EL student average on state assessments during this period. Each "comparison" school was paired with either an "effective" or "growth" school. In all, 18 case study sites were selected. Emerging themes and other findings in relation to these case studies are reported in aggregate rather than by site, to protect the confidentiality of participating schools and school districts.

Development of the Achievement Indices

As a first step, AIR/WestEd worked to construct a definition of "effectiveness," employing a wide range of measures detailed in this section. Using SAT-9 and California Standards Test (CST) data, AIR/WestEd identified what appeared to be "effective" schools with regard to practices with EL students. For the purposes of this study, "effective" and

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[1] Please refer to the October 2000 Methodology Report or the methodology chapter of the Year 2 Final Report for further information.

"comparison" schools were defined in terms of the academic performance of their current ELs and former ELs (i.e., redesignated fluent English-proficient, or RFEP, students), as measured by scores on the SAT-9 reading, language, and mathematics tests between 1998 and 2002.

In order to rank all the schools in the state based on these scores for the purpose of case study sample selection, we created index scores by standardizing and averaging SAT-9 reading, language, and mathematics scaled scores for all tested EL/RFEP students in each school statewide across 3 years (1999, 2000, and 2001). Index scores were based on student-level SAT-9 data provided by the California Department of Education (CDE). In addition, index scores were calculated at the school level for EL/RFEP performance on the 2002 administration of the 2002 CST-English Language Arts[2] and for EL performance on the 2002 SAT-9. Because student-level data for the latter had not yet been received from the CDE, these measures were calculated using publicly available online data. Ultimately, each school was assigned a percentile rank on each of these three indices based on how its index score compared to those of other schools in its sampling stratum.[3] Since "growth" schools were defined in terms of students' academic progress as reflected by positive change in EL SAT-9 scores over 3 years, the evaluation team also developed a "change" index representing the trend in SAT-9 scores at each school from 1999 to 2001. Exhibit II-4 on page II-9 displays each selected school's relevant percentile rank or change score according to the established indicators for "effective", "growth", and "comparison" schools.

Defining the Sampling Strata

In order to sample schools that utilized a range of approaches to EL instruction, we categorized California's schools along three dimensions: the grade levels served, the percentage of students in the school who were EL, and the amount of primary language (L_1) instruction offered to ELs.

Percentage of students who are English Learners

To ensure that a range of school populations were sampled, schools serving "high," "moderate," and "low" percentages of EL students were identified using student-level data from the CDE. Exploratory analyses were conducted in order to develop operational definitions for these categories for elementary and middle schools. The percentage ranges differ by school grade level because elementary schools typically enroll higher percentages of EL students than secondary schools (which tend to draw their students from larger areas). The cut-points were selected so as to assign roughly 15 percent of schools at each grade level to the "high" category, 20 percent to the "moderate" category, 30 percent to the "low" category, and 35 percent to the "lowest" category. Schools in the lowest category were not considered for site visits. Exhibit II-1 shows the cut-points for "high," "moderate," "low," and "lowest" when defining the percentage of English learners in any school.

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[2] Preliminary versions of the CST were not completely aligned with the California subject matter standards. Final versions of the English language arts (ELA) standards tests were first administered in Spring 2001, and final versions of the mathematics standards tests were first administered in Spring 2002. Concerns about the validity of using scores from the preliminary versions led us to focus on ELA, which had 2 years of acceptable data and was of particular interest for a study of the progress of English learners over time.
[3] The definitions of these sampling strata are provided in the next section of this chapter.

Exhibit II-1: Established Cut-points for High, Moderate, and Low Percentage of English Learners

EL Percent Category	Range of Percent English Learners in School		
	Elementary	Middle	High School
High	61 or higher	41 or higher	36 or higher
Moderate	41 to 60	26 to 40	21 to 35
Low	21 to 40	13 to 25	11 to 20
Lowest	20 or less	12 or less	10 or less

Amount of primary language (L_1) instruction offered to ELs

Schools offering L_1 instruction to one-quarter or more of their EL students were classified as "substantial" L_1 schools, and schools offering L_1 instruction to smaller proportions or none of their EL students were classified as "not substantial" L_1 schools.[4] We used two school-level statistics from the Language Census to make this determination:

- The proportion of ELs receiving academic instruction in their primary language in 1998

- The proportion of ELs assigned to an alternative course of study (generally understood to imply substantial instruction in students' primary language) in 2002

The first measure refers to the provision of academic instruction in students' primary language as an instructional service. It has been collected for many years. The second measure was introduced in 1999 after the passage of Proposition 227 to provide information on the instructional settings in which EL students were placed. For the purposes of selecting the sample, we classified schools that provided academic instruction in L_1 to 25 percent or more of their ELs in 2001 as having provided a substantial amount of L_1 instruction.[5]

At first consideration, the 25 percent threshold might seem low for characterizing a school as providing substantial L_1 instruction. It should be kept in mind, however, that most schools offering L_1 instruction (or alternative courses of study) operate a transitional bilingual program for some students and structured English immersion for others. Furthermore, transitional bilingual programs are typically "early exit" programs designed to phase students into English within a few years. Thus a school offering alternate courses of study to a quarter of its ELs might be operating bilingual classrooms for half of the EL students in the lower half of the grades that it serves, or a late-exit (K through 6) program for one-quarter of its students.[6]

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[4] As described earlier, for the purpose of sample selection, the scores of all tested EL/RFEP students in each school statewide were standardized and averaged across subjects, grades, and years; as school-wide averages, these scores do not disaggregate the EL student scores by their participation in the various instructional models.

[5] The cut-point for defining "substantial" proportions of students receiving L1 instruction in districts and schools was set at 25 percent in last year's student achievement analyses and this year's case study analyses. In this year's achievement analyses, however, the cut-point was increased to greater than 50 percent, in response to concerns expressed by the project's State Work Group.

[6] Because the Language Census collects school-level rather than grade-level data on instructional arrangements, it cannot tell us which students are actually receiving L1 instruction.

In response to concerns expressed by the project's State Work Group, the language proficiency and achievement analyses detailed in Chapter 3 use a cut-point of greater than 50 percent of ELs receiving L_1 instruction rather than the 25 percent used here (as Exhibit II-4 shows, five of the seven "substantial" L_1 site visit schools fall above the greater than 50 percent cut-point).

Categorizing the Schools

Once these strata had been established, every school in the state could be characterized by a combination of 1) school level (i.e., elementary, middle, or high); 2) the percentage of English Learners it serves; and 3) the instructional approach it employs for a substantial proportion of its ELs. Exhibit II-2 depicts the distribution of all schools in California using these classifications.

Exhibit II-2: Distribution of Schools in California by Percentage of ELs, Instructional Approach, and School Grade Level, 2001–02

School Type		School Grade Level			
		Elementary	Middle	High	Total
Low EL / "Not Substantial" L_1	*Number*	1250	476	455	2181
	Percent	22.5%	8.6%	8.2%	39.2%
Moderate EL / "Not Substantial" L_1	*Number*	1006	288	169	1463
	Percent	18.0%	5.2%	3.0%	26.3%
High EL / "Not Substantial" L_1	*Number*	940	148	51	1139
	Percent	16.9%	2.7%	0.9%	20.5%
Low EL / "Substantial" L_1	*Number*	41	11	10	62
	Percent	0.7%	0.2%	0.2%	1.1%
Moderate EL / "Substantial" L_1	*Number*	199	10	6	215
	Percent	3.6%	0.2%	0.1%	3.9%
High EL / "Substantial" L_1	*Number*	487	11	3	501
	Percent	8.8%	0.2%	0.1%	9.0%
Total Schools		3923	944	694	5561
Percent of Schools		70.5%	17.0%	12.5%	100.0%

"Not substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02
"Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2001-02

In addition to sampling strata defined in terms of the above criteria, we included a "Central Valley" stratum to ensure that schools in the state's rural agricultural areas were represented in the study. Schools in this region face somewhat different challenges than schools in more urban areas and tend to have lower average scores than schools in more urbanized regions of the state.

Selecting the Case Study Sites

Within these strata, California schools were sorted in ascending order, first by the percentile rank of their achievement index score (SAT-9 composite, 1999-2001), then by the percentile rank of their average 2002 CST-ELA score, and finally by the percentile rank of their 2002 SAT-9 score. As with the 1999-2001 SAT-9 percentile ranks, the 2002 SAT-9 percentile ranks were generated by averaging across reading, language, and math scores, as well as across grades in each school. We selected "effective" schools from among the top-ranked schools in each stratum.

"Growth" schools were defined as the top-ranked elementary schools within each stratum according to positive change in achievement scores over time. These "growth" schools were included in the sample in order to explore circumstances that may contribute to improved EL performance. To ensure representation of the range in proportion of EL students, one site was chosen from the pool of schools with a high percentage of EL students, one school was chosen from the moderate EL percent group, and one was chosen from the low EL percent group.

"Comparison" schools in this sample were defined as the lower-ranked schools within each stratum. These schools were included in the sample in order to investigate what, if any, differences in policy and practices for ELs might play a part in lower achievement outcomes. For logistical purposes, the sampling team made every effort to nest "comparison" schools in districts from which we selected "effective" or "growth" schools.

Exhibit II-3 displays how each of the sampled schools fits within the sampling frame. "Effective" schools are labeled Effective 1-9, "growth" schools are labeled Growth 1-3, and "comparison" schools are labeled Comparison 1-6. If resource constraints were not a concern, we would have selected and visited at least one of the three school types (i.e., "effective," "growth," and "comparison") in each of the cells shown in this exhibit. However, given the real world of resource constraints, it was necessary for the study team to make choices about how to best concentrate our efforts. For example, while we are interested in examining whether schools that experienced substantial EL performance gains could lend insight into contributing factors to school effectiveness, we are primarily interested in exploring whether the top-ranked schools across strata appeared effective through direct observation. Thus we selected fewer "growth" schools than we did "effective" sites. In addition, the three "growth" were selected across the "not substantial" L_1 strata for reasons of comparability within the "growth" school category.

Exhibit II-3: Matrix of Sampled Schools[7]

School Type		Concentration of ELs				Total
		High EL	Mod EL	Low EL	Lowest EL	
"Not Substantial" L_1	Elementary	G1, C1	E1, G2, C2	E2, G3		7
	Secondary	E7, E8, C3				3
"Substantial" L_1	Elementary	E4	E5, C4	E6, C5		5
	Secondary	E9, C6				2
Central Valley	Elementary	E3				1
Total						**18**

E: "Effective"
G: "Growth"
C: "Comparison"
"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2000-01
"Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2000-01

Exhibit II-4 displays each selected school's relevant percentile ranks, as well as change scores for "growth" schools. These percentile ranks were the primary sampling criteria.

Secondary criteria were also used to govern sample selection within the context of the percentile rankings. Exhibit II-5 displays most of the demographic and student performance data used as secondary criteria for selection: poverty level,[8] language diversity,[9] geographic region, and California English Language Development Test (CELDT) language proficiency scores. To control for poverty, the mean and median poverty levels were calculated within each stratum. Schools that deviated more than 10 percent from either the mean or median poverty level in their stratum were not selected. The average poverty level of the schools in our sample is 71 percent, and all selected schools have poverty levels representative of the average level of poverty in their stratum overall.

To ensure that the sample represented the various language groups in California, consideration was given to the home languages spoken by ELs at each school. Eighty-one percent of ELs in California are Spanish speakers, and five percent speak either Vietnamese or Hmong. Because the sample was selected to appropriately reflect the state's linguistic diversity, on some occasions it was necessary to exclude more highly ranked "effective" or "growth" schools according to our measures.

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[7] The "effective" elementary school originally selected from the "not substantial" L_1 "high EL" stratum was unable to participate. Nevertheless, school "G1" met the criteria for both "growth" and "effective" schools. We therefore selected a replacement school from a different stratum. For additional discussion of school participation constraints that arose during sample selection, see the following section, "Confirming Case Study Site Participation."

[8] That is, the percentage of students eligible for national school lunch program.

[9] That is, a balance of schools which have a predominantly Spanish-speaking EL population and those with a more diverse linguistic mix.

Ten primary and secondary languages other than English are represented in the schools, and 17 schools have a predominantly Spanish-speaking EL population. One school, Growth 1, has a predominantly Hmong-speaking EL population. With regard to geographic diversity, the selected sample draws from a broad range of regions throughout California. Eight schools are located in the Los Angeles area and one school is located in the San Diego area. Three sites are located in the Central Valley or Central Coast region, three are located in the Northeast/Sacramento area, and another three are in the San Francisco Bay Area.

Urbanicity was also a secondary criterion. There was a range of urbanicity in the sample; the sampled schools were located primarily in urban and suburban areas, with a few schools located on the fringe of large or medium cities.[10]

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[10] Note that the majority of the state's EL students are located in urban or suburban areas.

Exhibit II-4: Sampled School Data – Primary Selection Criteria

School	School Level[11]	Instructional Approach	Percent English Learners 2000-2001	EL Achievement Percentile Rank (SAT-9, 1999-2001)	EL Achievement Percentile Rank (CST, 2002)	EL Achievement Percentile Rank (SAT-9, 2002)	Change in SAT-9 EL Z-Score (1999-2001)	Change in SAT-9 EL Z-Score (2000-01)	Change in SAT-9 EL Z-Score (1999-2000)	Percent Students Receiving Primary Language Instruction	Total Student Enrollment 2000-2001
Effective 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	43	99	99	99				0	783
Effective 2	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	34	95	96	95				0	865
Effective 3	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	25	96	98	96				0	302
Effective 4	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	79	97	98	97				52	1299
Effective 5	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	57	96	96	96				86	345
Effective 6	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	38	86	92	88				30	533
Effective 7	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	21	97	97	94				0	1116
Effective 8	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	33	96	95	96				0	1178
Effective 9	Middle	"Substantial" L_1	19	92	92	92				70	1163
Growth 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	67	72	83	86	0.44	0.19	0.26	0	437
Growth 2	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	53	73	91	91	0.45	0.41	0.05	0	985
Growth 3	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	31	95	89	91	0.58	0.10	0.48	0	504
Comparison 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	63	36	26	26				0	609
Comparison 2	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	58	39	29	40				0	285
Comparison 3	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	51	69	27	30				60	357
Comparison 4	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	28	23	28	16				25	758
Comparison 5	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	27	30	37	27				0	1103
Comparison 6	Middle	"Substantial" L_1	79	4	38	39				85	1008

"Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2000-01

"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2000-01

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[11] We divided schools into four school level categories based on the grades of enrollment. Schools enrolling: grades Kindergarten through 5 were classified as elementary schools, those enrolling grades 6 through 8 as middle schools, and those enrolling grades 9 through 12 as high schools. Schools with grade spans K-6 or K-8 were also classified as elementary schools. Schools serving wider grade spans (e.g., K-12, 6-12) were classified as "other."

Exhibit II-5: Sampled School Data – Secondary Selection Criteria

School	School Level[12]	Instructional Approach	Percent Students Eligible for National School Lunch Program	Total Languages Spoken	L1	Percent L1	L2	Percent L2	L3	Percent L3	Region	Percent of Students Scoring in CELDT Levels 1-2, 2001	Percent of Students Scoring in CELDT Levels 3-5, 2001
Effective 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	92	3	Spanish	99	Pilipino	1	French	0	LA County	28	72
Effective 2	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	74	2	Spanish	99	Tongan	1	.	0	LA County	33	67
Effective 3	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	80	3	Spanish	86	Hmong	12	Punjabi	3	Northeast / Sacramento	54	46
Effective 4	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	89	8	Spanish	74	Korean	22	Other ~Eng	2	LA County	53	47
Effective 5	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	81	10	Spanish	54	Cantonese	41	Other ~Eng	2	Bay Area	38	62
Effective 6	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	53	6	Spanish	93	Pilipino	3	Mandarin	3	Border Counties	50	50
Effective 7	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	40	14	Spanish	48	Mandarin	16	Korean	16	LA County	34	66
Effective 8	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	55	17	Spanish	41	Cantonese	23	Mandarin	13	LA County	29	71
Effective 9	Middle	"Substantial" L_1	59	2	Spanish	99	Vietnamese	1	.	0	Central Coast	34	66
Growth 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	98	7	Hmong	78	Spanish	14	Hindi	3	Northeast / Sacramento	35	65
Growth 2	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	83	8	Spanish	89	Vietnamese	8	Tongan	1	LA County	60	40
Growth 3	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	32	15	Spanish	51	Vietnamese	20	Pilipino	7	Monterey Area	42	58
Comparison 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	85	5	Spanish	99	Punjabi	1	Vietnamese	1	LA County	38	62
Comparison 2	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	96	5	Spanish	62	Hmong	26	Lao	10	Northeast / Sacramento	33	67
Comparison 3	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	61	7	Spanish	88	Cantonese	9	Vietnamese	2	Bay Area	42	58
Comparison 4	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	54	8	Spanish	62	Hmong	29	Mien	7	Fresno Area	52	48
Comparison 5	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	59	15	Spanish	79	Mien	8	Lao	4	Bay Area	42	58
Comparison 6	Middle	"Substantial" L_1	96	1	Spanish	100	.	0	.	0	LA County	71	29

L1: Most common language spoken by ELs in school

L2: Second most common language spoken by ELs in school

L3: Third most common language spoken by ELs in school

"Substantial" L_1:   Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2000-01

"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2000-01

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[12] Please see the previous footnote for an explanation of how school levels were defined.

Exhibit II-6: Sampled School API Rankings

School	School Level[13]	Instructional Approach	Statewide API Rank 1999	Similar School API Rank 1999	Percent of Students Tested 1999	Statewide API Rank 2000	Similar School API Rank 2000	Percent of Students Tested 2000	Statewide API Rank 2001	Similar School API Rank 2001	Percent of Students Tested 2001
Effective 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	10	10	100	9	10	98	9	10	99
Effective 2	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	9	10	99	8	10	98	9	10	98
Effective 3	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	5	9	99	5	9	100	6	10	100
Effective 4	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	5	10	99	4	10	100	6	10	99
Effective 5	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	8	10	90	9	10	86	8	10	99
Effective 6	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	6	10	98	5	6	100	6	8	99
Effective 7	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	8	7	92	7	6	99	8	7	99
Effective 8	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	7	10	95	7	10	99	7	9	99
Effective 9	Middle	"Substantial" L_1	5	10	97	5	10	100	6	10	99
Growth 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	2	1	100	2	5	100	4	8	98
Growth 2	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	4	10	98	3	9	99	6	10	99
Growth 3	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	8	9	93	9	10	100	9	10	100
Comparison 1	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	1	2	98	1	4	98	1	3	99
Comparison 2*	Elementary	"Not Substantial" L_1	2	2	98	1	2	100	*	*	*
Comparison 3	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	2	2	73	2	2	85	1	2	96
Comparison 4	Elementary	"Substantial" L_1	5	2	100	4	3	99	4	1	100
Comparison 5	Middle	"Not Substantial" L_1	2	4	100	2	5	99	1	2	98
Comparison 6	Middle	"Substantial" L_1	1	8	28	1	1	98	1	3	98

"Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2000-01

"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2000-01

*This school (or the district on behalf of the school) has certified to the California Department of Education that an irregularity in testing procedures occurred during the Spring 2001 SAT-9 testing. Therefore, a 2001 API Base score was not reported for this school.

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[13] Please see footnote 10 for an explanation of how school levels were defined.

In addition to the secondary criteria shown in Exhibit II-5, each school's Academic Performance Index (API) statewide and similar-school ranks (1999-2001) were used as a secondary check to confirm the level of performance indicated by the EL performance indices generated by the study team.[14] As Exhibit II-6 suggests, the API rankings of the sampled schools are generally consistent with the EL performance indices generated by the study team.

As previously described, this analysis, which attempts to identify "effective" EL schools as well as the characteristics that make them successful, is preliminary and exploratory. For example, the limited sample of schools visited is insufficient to be considered in any way representative of the state. However, it was because of the exploratory nature of this work that in-depth analyses, including site visits, were deemed appropriate and necessary. Such in-depth analyses, by definition, result in small samples. When drawing a sample of this size, the selection design must be considered purposive. That is, schools are not randomly selected, but rather are chosen with some specific purpose in mind. Such samples are by their very definition biased. All of the factors that preclude this sample from being representative of the state, from its small size, to its primary focus on Spanish speaking ELs, to the restrictions placed around school poverty, create such biases. These small samples, which provide a basis for more intensive study, are balanced by statewide survey samples as included in the survey analyses from Year 2. In Year 4, we will once again take some the principles learned from this exploratory analysis and apply them to a much larger sample of schools that can be presented as representative of the state.

Confirming Case Study Site Participation

Once a provisional list of site visit schools was selected, we interviewed the school principals to better understand each school's unique goals and circumstances. These calls provided us with an opportunity to ensure that there were no special circumstances to preclude the school's selection. That is, we checked to be sure that the principals shared the impression that their schools were effective (when applicable), that the Language Census data on the instructional programs offered were accurate, and that none of the schools were magnets. These screening calls also provided project staff with important contextual data prior to the site visit.

When a selected school was unavailable or was unwilling to participate, another highly ranked school was selected in its stead. However, when one of the key selected districts refused to participate, our sampling model required modification. Project staff had initially selected two schools from this district – one "effective" middle school and one "effective" high school. Based on our indices of EL performance, there did not appear to be appropriate replacement high schools in the state. Because only two high schools were included in the original sample (this school and one "comparison" school), the evaluation team concluded that it would not be of value to visit the selected "comparison" high school in the absence of an "effective" school pair. The best available alternative was to broaden the middle school sample. As a result, high schools are not a part of this year's analysis; the evaluation team plans to concentrate more on this area in Year 4.

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[14] Note that the state generates API ranks on the basis of schoolwide performance, whereas our indices were created using the scores of EL/RFEPs specifically.

In addition, although four "effective" middle schools were initially selected, one could not participate within our evaluation time frame. The visit to this school has been postponed, and data pertaining to this site are not included in this report. A total of 18 schools were visited this year.

Conducting the Site Visits

During March and April of 2003, AIR/WestEd conducted site visits to 18 schools in 14 California school districts. The purposes of these visits were to:

1) Explore the concept of effective practices with English learners through information gathered from classroom observations, focus groups, and interviews with local practitioners.

2) Collect local perspectives on the impact of Proposition 227 and other policies affecting the education of English learners.

The evaluation team used data gathered during these site visits to help assess whether the indices of EL performance are legitimate indicators of school "effectiveness." We also used the site visits to identify policies and practices that may contribute to high EL performance.

The site visits in Year 3 were designed to gather extensive data from a diverse set of local informants. The visits included interviews with district- and school-level administrators; focus groups with teachers, parents, and students; document reviews; and abbreviated classroom observations.

Extensive preparation was required for these site visits. Protocols were developed for each of the 19 data collection activities that were to occur during the visits. Copies of all protocols associated with these activities are found in Appendix B of this report. The district-level data collection activities included the following:

- Superintendent interview
- EL Coordinator interview
- CBET Coordinator interview
- ELAP Coordinator interview
- District English Learner Advisory Committee (DELAC) Chair interview
- Professional Development Coordinator for EL instruction interview
- Director of Personnel interview
- Evaluation and Assessment Coordinator interview
- Document review
- Data system review

The data collection activities for each of the 18 sampled schools included the following:

- Principal interview
- School EL Coordinator interview
- Other EL service provider (i.e., bilingual aide) interview
- Focus group with teachers

- Focus group with parents
- Focus group with students
- Classroom observations
- Follow-up interviews with observed teachers

Site Visit Planning and Preliminary Data Collection Activities

The school visits were planned to last one day. One-day visits to the corresponding district office were planned as well. A senior-level researcher headed each team and was accompanied by a junior-level researcher. The first contact with the case study districts was in the form of a letter to the superintendent, explaining that the district had been selected as a case study site for this independent evaluation. In addition, the letter indicated this year's focus on exploring effective practices with EL students. The letter explained that steps would be taken to minimize the burden on case study sites, and that the schools and districts would not be named in any reports. After the letter was sent, project staff called each case study superintendent to secure his or her district's participation. If a site refused or seemed reluctant to participate, an evaluation team member attempted to gain their participation by reiterating the importance of the study, AIR/WestEd's commitment to independent research and evaluation, the emphasis on minimizing burden, and guarantees of confidentiality.

Each of the site visit teams was responsible for scheduling the various activities for their visit. During the initial call with the superintendent, an evaluation team member reviewed the plans for the site visit and suggested that the superintendent appoint an individual who could serve as the district point person for the visit. The site visit team then worked with that person to schedule the district-level interviews and other data collection activities. In addition, a school-level point person also served as a key contact for scheduling data collection activities at each school.

The exact composition of site visit activities varied across the case study sites, based on district and school organization. For example, although this chapter has listed interviews with the ELAP coordinator, the CBET coordinator, and the district EL administrator, in many districts a single individual assumed all of these responsibilities. Other districts do not employ an ELAP or CBET coordinator because they do not receive funds for these programs. In addition, some district-level interviews were conducted by phone prior to the site visit.

Once the schools and districts agreed to participate and the dates of the site visits were established, the site visitors worked with the district- and school-level point people to identify the appropriate respondents for the site visit activities and to set a schedule.

On-Site Data Collection

Interviews

All interviews were semi-structured and guided by a protocol of questions, but interviewers pursued additional topics that the interviewee introduced if those topics seemed germane to the site's approach to the education of ELs. The interviewer took notes during the interview and, when permission was granted, audiotaped the session. Interviewees were assured that they would not be directly identified in any reports. Although all of the site

visitors were experienced interviewers, they were trained on the specific protocols developed for the site visits.

Focus Groups

Teacher, parent, and student focus groups were conducted at each school. The teacher and parent focus groups each consisted of approximately 8 to 10 participants. These focus groups were held at each of the school sites at the time that was most convenient for the participants. Approximately five to eight ELs participated in each student focus group. These focus groups were scheduled so as not to interfere with instructional time (e.g., during lunch or recess). We asked the school point person to help us recruit the participants for all focus groups, and explained the importance of including a diversity of views and experiences. For instance, teachers who were former bilingual educators and teachers who did not have much experience teaching EL students prior to Proposition 227 were both strong candidates for the focus groups. Refreshments were provided for all focus groups, and childcare was offered as needed during parent focus groups. In general, one of the site visitors moderated the group discussion and the other recorded it. All focus groups were audiotaped (with the knowledge and permission of the participants), and all respondents were guaranteed confidentiality.

Although it would be valuable to gather the perspectives of parents and students from different home language groups, it was not feasible to conduct a focus group in more than one language. Thus, the language of the focus group was determined on a school-by-school basis. Some of the site visitors were fluent in Spanish and were capable of conducting focus groups in that language. When needed, however, a translator was used. As with the interviews, the focus groups were semi-structured.

Classroom Observations

Site visitors observed four to six classrooms for approximately one hour each at the case study schools. These abbreviated classroom observations were included primarily to add overall context to the intensive interviews and focus groups conducted on site. A preparation sheet was sent to the schools in advance with the request that basic information be provided with regard to the classroom we would be observing (e.g., class size, number of English learners at each English proficiency level, instructor certifications, and instructional setting).

We attempted to observe a mix of classes for EL students that was representative of what each school offered. The site visitors used a protocol to guide their observations, which were focused on the extent to which the following five principles of effective pedagogy for ELs were in evidence: language and literacy development, instructional conversation, contextualization/making meaning, challenging activities, and joint productive activity. In addition, the observation protocol focused on the substance of the classroom activities and environment. The site visitors were trained to be unobtrusive observers. These brief observations were designed to provide richness, context, and a fuller understanding of local practice.

Site Visit Analysis

Site visitors took extensive notes during each data collection activity, and audio-taped many of them. Upon returning to AIR and WestEd, teams typed notes from each interview

and focus group into Microsoft Word files, and entered the files into NUD*IST software designed to facilitate qualitative data analysis. As a supplement to this data, site visitors rated each site using an internal rating scale based on research-based criteria associated with school and classroom effectiveness for ELs. These criteria, taken from August and Hakuta (1997), are described in Chapter 1.

Site visitors met for an all-day debriefing after all visits had concluded. The purpose of the session was for site visitors to share and make sense of what they had learned in the field.

The qualitative data gathered through interviews, focus groups, and observations were analyzed within and across the case study sites. Through these analyses, the evaluation team was able to identify emerging themes relating to potentially effective practices with ELs, as well as draw comparisons across strata. The emerging themes from the case studies, found in Chapter 4 of this report, will add important contextual information to the evaluation as a whole.

In addition to qualitative data analyses, student achievement data analyses were conducted for each of the 18 case study sites. Project staff used data from assessments such as the SAT-9 and CST, along with growth measures such as longitudinal progress in API scores, to present a more comprehensive picture of EL performance at every school visited during Year 3. Findings from analyses of these data can be found in Chapter 4 of this report.

Student Achievement Analyses

Analyses of student achievement data were a major activity during Year 3 of the evaluation. We extended an analysis begun last year to track statewide changes in student performance on California's norm-referenced achievement test in the years following the passage of Proposition 227 by incorporating an additional year of data. In addition, we performed initial analyses of three other measures related to student performance that will form the basis for more detailed analyses in Year 4 of the evaluation. These measures are scores on the California Standards Tests (CST) and the California English Language Development Tests (CELDT), and the percentages of English Learners who have been redesignated as fluent English proficient over the past decade. This section describes the data sources used for the analyses and then outlines the analyses themselves.

A major component of the analyses consisted of investigations into changes in English learner, former-English learner and English-only student performance across three instructional approaches. There are significant limitations associated with statewide analyses of EL performance. However, we conducted what we considered to be careful analyses and attempted to build upon existing research. In Chapter 3 we detail the strengths and limitations of our analysis methods and state why conclusions about the effectiveness of Proposition 227, or any particular instructional strategy for ELs, should be considered with caution based on the available statewide data.

Data Sources

The analyses were performed using a variety of data sources outlined below (for more detailed information, please see Chapter 3):

- **Stanford Achievement Tests, Version 9 (SAT-9).** The SAT-9, a norm-referenced standardized test, was administered in English to all students in grades 2 through 11 each spring between 1998 and 2002. The evaluation used student-level scaled scores in reading, language arts and mathematics to generate average scaled scores for students grouped by English proficiency, and tracked these averages over time. Last year, we reported on performance trends between 1998 (the year prior to the implementation of Proposition 227) and 2001. This year, we have extended the analyses to include 2002 data.

- **California Standards Tests (CST).** The CSTs are a series of criterion-referenced tests aligned with California's content standards in several subjects. Although pilot versions of the tests existed earlier, the finalized versions of the English language arts (ELA) and mathematics tests were first administered in spring 2001 and spring 2002, respectively. Thus, two years of data for ELA and one year of data for mathematics are available for analysis this year. Paralleling our SAT-9 analyses, we compared the percentage of students in different English proficiency categories who scored proficient or advanced in ELA and mathematics.

- **California English Language Development Test (CELDT).** Since 2001, California has assessed the English language proficiency of its English learners in grades K through 12 using the CELDT. The CELDT is used both to make an initial determination of the English proficiency level of students whose level has not been previously established (initial test-takers) and to monitor the annual progress of students whose initial proficiency has already been established (annual test-takers). In Year 3 of the evaluation, individual-level CELDT data were available for all test-takers for 2001 and annual test-takers in 2002.

- **Language Census.** The annual Language Census collects school-level information about the numbers of EL and fluent English proficient (FEP) students enrolled each March and the number of EL students that the school has redesignated as FEP since the previous spring. Dividing one year's redesignation count by the previous year's count of English learners provided us with a rough estimate of the rate at which EL students are being redesignated. We also used two school-level statistics from the Language Census to determine the following:

  1. The proportion of ELs receiving academic instruction in their primary language in 1998
  2. The proportion of ELs assigned to an alternative course of study (generally understood to imply substantial instruction in students' primary language) in 2002

Data Analysis Strategies for SAT-9 Data

We pursued four general analytic approaches in examining SAT-9 scores. (A more detailed discussion of analysis methods will appear in Chapter 3.)

Approach 1: Within-Grade Analyses (Successive Groups)

The within-grade analyses each focus on a single grade level over time (e.g., 3rd graders in 1998, 3rd graders in 1999, 3rd graders in 2000, and so on). Within each grade, we compared the average scores of students in reading, language arts, and math over time, calculating the gains in each group's average scores over the four-year period as well as changes in the performance gap between the groups. We analyzed data for English-only, English learners, and former English learners (EL students who have been redesignated as fluent English proficient, or "RFEP"); however, our primary comparison is between English-only students and the combined group of EL and RFEP students.

Approach 2: Cohort Analyses[15]

In Year 2 of the evaluation, we followed three cohorts across three years: grades 2–5, 6–8, and 9–11. This year, expanding each cohort with the additional year of data at our disposal would have created overlaps (e.g., grades 2–6 and 6–9), so we chose to instead follow students over four years in two cohorts: grades 2–6 and 7–11 (the grade 2–6 cohort consists of students who were in grade 2 in 1998, students who were in grade 3 in 1999, students who were in grade 4 in 2000, and so on). The cohort analyses compare the same English proficiency groups as those compared in the within-grade analyses.

Approach 3: Instructional Model Analyses

These analyses organize student SAT-9 data by three instructional model types:

- Continuing bilingual schools: schools that provided academic instruction in students' primary language to a substantial proportion of their ELs both in 1998 (prior to the passage of Proposition 227) and in 2002

- Transitioning-from-bilingual schools: schools that offered "substantial" L1 instruction in 1998 but not in 2002

- Never-bilingual schools: schools that did not offer "substantial" L_1 instruction in either year

The purpose of these analyses is to explore the performance and progress of EL/RFEP students within the context of the use of primary language in instruction. In each case "bilingual" refers to attendance at a school in which 50 percent or more of the EL students are receiving bilingual instruction[16] (see the previous *Defining the Sample Strata*

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[15] For ease of discussion, this report uses the term "cohorts" to describe the statistical groups that were described as "quasi-cohorts" in the Year 2 Report. These groups of students are not pure cohorts because the student-level data provided by the CDE does not include unique student identifiers, making it impossible to link the data between years (for example, it is impossible to determine how many of the grade 2-6 cohort's 6th grade students are also included in the cohort's 5th grade student population). Despite this limitation, we have removed "quasi" from this term to improve overall readability. We have also grouped the students differently to take advantage of the additional year of data.

[16] As mentioned earlier, the cut-point for defining "substantial" proportions of students receiving L1 instruction in districts and schools was set at 25 percent in last year's student achievement analyses and this year's case study analyses. In this year's achievement analyses, however, the cut-point was increased to greater than 50 percent, in response to concerns expressed by the project's State Work Group. The technical appendix includes results using both cut-points; as can be seen, the change does not significantly change the results and has no impact on the general observations made.

section for further discussion). For each type of school, we examine changes in achievement and changes in the achievement gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs.

Data Analysis Strategies for Data Other Than SAT-9 Data

In future years, it will be possible to conduct trend analyses on **California Standards Test** scores that parallel those we have conducted for the five years of SAT-9 data. This year, as the CSTs are new and trend lines are short or non-existent, we present descriptive statistics comparing the performance of EO and EL/FEP students in each grade on the English Language Arts (ELA) and mathematics CSTs. The ELA analyses include data from 2001 and 2002 and changes between the years for students in grades 2 through 11; the mathematics analyses include data for 2002 for students in grades 2 through 7.[17]

Similarly, **CELDT** results will enrich our understanding of the progress of English learners toward English proficiency when the test is well established and additional years of complete data are available. This year, we use available CELDT data to provide an overview of California's EL population: the proportions of students taking the test for initial placement and for assessment of annual progress, the proportions of students in each of the five English proficiency levels, meeting the state's "English language proficient" criterion, and gaining at least one proficiency level since the first test administration in 2001. By next year, more detailed analyses of student progress and time in U.S. schools should be possible.

Finally, this year's report presents statewide trends in **redesignation** of ELs to FEP status over the past decade. Next year, as we continue our exploration of schools that are effective in fostering the progress of EL students, we will add analyses of school-level redesignation rates and explore ways that CELDT data in combination with redesignation counts might provide more informative measures of school effectiveness.

State Work Group Meetings

The State Work Group was initially convened by the CDE to advise on the implementation of this project. The research team typically meets with this group twice a year to consult on such issues as major changes in personnel, data collection schedules, sample selection, evaluation design, and report review. This year, in addition to the regularly scheduled fall and spring meetings, the evaluation team held a series of conference calls with the State Work Group to discuss methods for selecting schools that appeared to be demonstrating effective practices with ELs. We also received substantive feedback from the State Work Group with regard to methodologies used for sample selection in Year 3, which will be used to guide further work in future years.

Senior Advisor Meetings

As in previous study years, key members of the research team met with Senior Advisors this year to receive their feedback on our Year 3 study design prior to our first meeting with the State Work Group. It is important to note that, while discussions with

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[17] Although mathematics results are available for higher grades, interpreting results for different English proficiency groups is problematic because in grades 8 through 11 students take a test aligned with the mathematics course in which they are enrolled. Since EL/FEP and EO students in the same grades are not necessarily enrolled in the same proportions in courses such as general mathematics, introductory algebra, and geometry, differences in language proficiency are confounded with differences in course content.

Senior Advisors were invaluable in informing ongoing iterations of sample selection criteria, all final decisions regarding methodology were made by the study team, with input from the CDE and the State Work Group.

Chapter III – Findings From Student Achievement and Language Proficiency Analyses

Introduction

In this chapter we present analyses of the academic achievement and English language proficiency of English learners in California. For a comprehensive review of the research that addresses Proposition 227's impact on student achievement, please see Chapter III of last year's report.[1] This review includes a discussion of how our analyses were informed by the work of other researchers. In presenting our analyses, we caution against inferring direct causal relationships between Proposition 227 and these findings. Many other significant policy and programmatic developments have also influenced teaching and learning for California's ELs during this time period (e.g., new standards-based English Language Arts materials and teacher training related to the new materials, class size reduction, ELD standards and testing, and the Public Schools Accountability Act). This chapter concludes with a description of some of the strengths and weaknesses of the analytic approaches used in Year 3 as well as a discussion of data that would be needed to more fully explore the effects of alternative approaches to EL instruction.

Data Used for Analyses

Our analyses of English learner student achievement and language proficiency are based on extant state data. California collects and reports on various types of data on students and schools including student demographics, instructional services information, and student achievement data. In this chapter, we present results from analyses of data from the SAT-9, the California Standards Tests, the California English Language Development Test, and the Language Census. In the following section, we briefly describe these data sources and their limitations.

SAT-9 Data

Part of California's Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR) Program, the SAT-9 was first administered statewide in spring 1998, just prior to the passage of Proposition 227. The state mandates that this test be administered to all students in grades 2 through 11, regardless of English proficiency. Students in all of these grades are tested in reading, language arts, mathematics. In addition, elementary school students are tested in spelling, and secondary students are tested in science and social studies. Results are presented by grade level, overall, and separately for several groups including English Only (EO) students, EL students, former EL students who have been redesignated as fluent (RFEP), and students whose first language was not English but who were identified as initially proficient in English when they began school (IFEP). The SAT-9 school-level data, which are available on the

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[1] The full report is available online at www.air.org (click on the "Elementary and Secondary Education" section of the Publications page) and at www.wested.org/cs/wew/view/rs/661.

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California Department of Education's Web site, have been the most commonly used to analyze EL achievement under Proposition 227.

The validity of using an English-language academic assessment to evaluate the achievement of students who are not proficient in the language has been widely challenged.[2] The SAT-9 is designed to test students' content-area knowledge and skills, not their English proficiency. However, students' ability to understand the language of the test influences the opportunity they have to demonstrate what they know and are able to do in the subjects tested. The SAT-9 is also considered an inappropriate measure of English fluency since limited subject-area knowledge may lead to scores that do not accurately reflect students' English language proficiency. Nonetheless, SAT-9 scores are the only comprehensive statewide indicators of student achievement available for the period during which Proposition 227 was being implemented, and thus provide important information despite their limitations. Furthermore, the state's Public Schools Accountability Act requires that all students be tested in academic core subjects using English regardless of language of instruction.

A critical issue in the use of SAT-9 data is to determine the most appropriate form of the data to use. The results of SAT-9 are reported in the following forms: raw scores, national percentile ranks (NPRs), normal curve equivalents (NCEs), and scale scores. Raw scores show the number of correctly answered items in a test. Generally, they are not used for comparative analyses given that they are not weighted by item difficulty (i.e., advanced questions are credited equally with less challenging questions). In addition, raw scores are not vertically equated so comparisons across grade levels cannot be made. NPRs are norm-referenced scores that indicate what percentage of students in the nationally representative norm group had scores that fell below a given scale score. NCEs are norm-referenced scores that contain the same information as percentile ranks but have the advantage of being based on an equal-interval scale.[3] NCEs allow meaningful comparisons across different tests. Unlike scale scores, norm-referenced scores depend on the time of year of testing.[4] Finally, scale scores are student achievement measures that are adjusted by test item difficulty and are vertically equated. The latter means that scale scores are comparable across grade levels, which allow for tracking student achievement across years, and therefore, making conclusions about achievement growth over time.

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[2] See Gándara & Rumberger (2002), Thompson, DiCerbo, Mahoney, & MacSwan (2002), Stevens, Butler, & Castellon-Wellington (2000), and American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association, & National Council on Measurement in Education (1999).

[3] That is, the difference between two successive scores on the NCE scale has the same meaning throughout the scale. The normal curve is represented on a scale of 1 through 99 with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of approximately 21.

[4] For example, a scale score that has a percentile rank of 61 in the fall of third grade would have a lower percentile rank in the spring of third grade, because national performance improves during the school year.

Our analyses include two improvements over many of the analyses conducted in other recent studies. First, most previous analyses have been based on SAT-9 national percentile ranks (NPRs). The use of NPRs and normal curve equivalents (NCEs) for measuring student achievement growth has been challenged for a number of reasons.[5] Our analyses use scaled scores to measure changes in achievement over time. When examining results for a single year, scale scores can be difficult to interpret in the absence of comparative information, while NPRs and NCEs allow the comparison of the relative rankings of students and schools. However, as the purpose of this analysis is to compare growth in achievement over time across different groups of students (EL/RFEPs versus EOs), the use of scale scores is the most suitable.

Second, our statewide analyses differ from existing research in that they are based on individual student-level SAT-9 data obtained directly from the California Department of Education (CDE), rather than on the aggregated data downloaded from the CDE Web site used by other studies. The data available on the Web site consist of downloadable school-level data files and a report generator.[6] The report generator analyzes student-level data, but limits the ways in which the data can be grouped.

In particular, the data available from the CDE web site are not disaggregated by various language classifications (i.e., EO, RFEP and IFEP). This may explain why previous research that has examined changes in the achievement gap between ELs and English-proficient students has included in the English-proficient category former EL students who have been redesignated as English proficient (RFEP). A problem with analyzing data aggregated in this way is that students who are higher-performing ELs in one year may be moved out of that category (redesignated as fluent in English) the next year and have their scores combined with EO students. With direct access to the student-level data, we were able to combine the ELs with the RFEPs and consider the achievement gap between these students and EOs. By utilizing this approach, we avoided the bias and distortion caused by "skimming" the best performing ELs out of the EL category as they are redesignated into the RFEP category.[7]

Another potential benefit of the SAT-9 data set is that it includes student-level information regarding students' participation in different instructional programs. For 2000-01 through 2001-02, these include 1) EL in ELD, 2) EL in Bilingual, and 3) EL in SDAIE.[8] However, we conducted preliminary analyses using this variable and found important limitations that prevent us from using it in this year's analyses. The first is that, in 2001-02,

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[5] For a full discussion on the differences between scaled scores and NPRs/NCEs, and on the appropriateness of their use, see Methodological Note 2 in the Technical Appendix. For details on concerns related to previous research, please see Chapter III of last year's Year 2 Report. The full report is available online at www.air.org (click on the "Elementary and Secondary Education" section of the Publications page) and at www.wested.org/cs/wew/view/rs/661.

[6] See Methodological Note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on the limitations of the school-level SAT-9 data files.

[7] See Methodological Note 4 in the Technical Appendix for more information on differences between the data used in our analyses and those available on the CDE website.

[8] The guidelines for educators completing the SAT-9 header sheet offer the following definitions of these instructional programs: "The EL in ELD is a student in an English immersion program; EL in bilingual means that the student receives core content in primary language; and EL in SDAIE means that the student is receiving core instruction through a program of specially-designed academic instruction in English."

information about instructional program participation is missing for approximately 20 percent of EL students. This percentage varies widely from 2001-02 Language Census (R30-LC) data, which indicate that only five percent of ELs receive no services. Therefore, while some portion of the students for whom SAT-9 program participation data is missing may not receive any EL instructional services, the variable is missing for a significantly higher proportion of ELs. Further complicating the issue, preliminary analysis also shows that the students missing EL program participation data have the highest test score performance. Given the difficulty of interpreting this outcome, the large number of students missing this variable, and concerns about the variable itself as described below, we decided to further explore this variable before using it in our analyses.

The second limitation relates to the variable's structure, as respondents may mark all of the program participation options that apply. This presents challenges for interpretation when students are indicated as receiving more than one program participation option.[9] As there are seven possible combinations of these program options, it is difficult to isolate the impact of each of the three primary options. In addition, some of the program participation combinations indicated by the data are difficult to interpret (e.g., EL students indicated as receiving Bilingual and SDAIE and ELD). Beginning in 2002-03, however, this limitation should be removed, as the variable choices and structure will be changed so that respondents must select a single option only, and these will match the more delineated instructional service options of the R-30 Language Census.[10]

A third limitation for longitudinal analysis is that this SAT-9 program participation variable cannot be linked over time. In other words, it is not possible to compare student performance in the different instructional services before Proposition 227 was passed with their performance across these programs after the law's passage. However, we still consider this variable to have promise, and plan to draw upon it in next year's analysis, assuming that some of the issues described above will be satisfactorily resolved.

California Standards Tests (CST) Data

In addition to the nationally-normed SAT-9, the CDE has also administered a series of criterion-referenced tests aligned with California's content standards for English Language Arts (ELA) and mathematics at every grade level and other academic subjects in particular grades. Individual scores on the CST are reported on a 5-point proficiency scale (far below basic, below basic, basic, proficient, or advanced), and group scores are typically reported as the percentage of test takers scoring at each performance level. Pilot versions of the CST began in 2000, and versions of the ELA and mathematics tests with standards-based performance levels were administered in spring 2001 and spring 2002, respectively. Thus, two years of individual-level data for ELA and one year of individual-level data for mathematics were available for analysis this year. Paralleling our SAT-9 analyses, we compare the percentage of students in different language classifications who scored at the proficient or advanced levels in ELA and mathematics.

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[9] While STAR program documentation for educators states, "These three programs are mutually exclusive, and only one is coded for each student," respondents nevertheless often coded more than one program participation code per student.

[10] These are EL in ELD; EL in ELD and SDAIE; EL in ELD and SDAIE with Primary Language Support; and EL in ELD and Academic Subjects through Primary Language.

California English Language Development Test (CELDT) Data

Since 2001, California has assessed the English language proficiency of its English learners in grades K through 12 using the CELDT. Prior to the development of the CELDT, school districts used a variety of tests to determine students' English proficiency and to evaluate students for redesignation as fluent English proficient. The new test provides a consistent standard for assessing the English proficiency of all California ELs and a basis for setting a statewide minimum performance level for identifying students as "English proficient."

The CELDT has four versions for students in grade spans K-2, 3-5, 6-8, and 9-12. It includes tests of students' listening/speaking, reading, and writing skills, results of which are reported for each skill level as well as overall (a weighted average of the subtest scores).[11] Scores are reported in terms of five English proficiency levels (beginning, early intermediate, intermediate, early advanced, and advanced).

The CELDT is used both to make an initial determination of the English-proficiency level of students whose level has not been previously established (initial test-takers) and to monitor the annual progress of students whose initial proficiency has already been established (annual test-takers). Initial CELDT testing occurs throughout the year as students arrive in a school without an established level; annual testing occurred between May and October in 2001, and in subsequent years between July and October.

For purposes of identifying students who may be ready for redesignation, the State Board of Education has defined "English proficient" as an overall CELDT score of Early Advanced with no sub-score lower than Intermediate. In Year 3 of the evaluation, individual level CELDT data were made available by CDE to the evaluation team for all test-takers in 2001 and for annual test-takers in 2002.

Language Census Data

We utilized Language Census data in some of our analyses to characterize schools' instructional approaches for educating EL students before and after the passage of Proposition 227. Previous research comparing EL achievement in schools using structured English immersion (SEI) versus schools implementing bilingual education has tended to rely on small samples of schools selected through nomination processes.[12] A limitation of this small-sample approach is that it calls into question the generalizability of the findings. We have used an alternative strategy of analyzing data from virtually all schools in the state in which EL students are enrolled.

Using Language Census data, we classified the schools in the state as having maintained bilingual programs after the passage of Proposition 227, having transitioned away from bilingual programs, or never having had bilingual programs. Because of the limitations in student-level data on language of instruction available from the CDE described above in the "SAT-9 Data" section, we had to rely on classifying schools into three types

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[11] Overall scores are based only on the listening/speaking sub-test for students in grades K-1, but on all three sub-tests for students in grades 2-12.

[12] See, for example, Amselle & Allison (2000), *Californians Together* (2000), and Gold (2000).

based on the instructional approach that the majority of EL students in each school are receiving. We used two school-level statistics from the Language Census to make this determination:

- The proportion of ELs receiving academic instruction in their primary language in spring 1998

- The proportion of ELs assigned to an alternative course of study (indicating instruction in students' primary language) in spring 2002

The first measure refers to the provision of academic instruction in students' primary language as an instructional service. The second measure was introduced in 1999 after the passage of Proposition 227 to provide information on the instructional settings in which EL students were placed.

We also used the Language Census to calculate redesignation rates. The Census collects school-level information about the numbers of English learners and FEP students enrolled each March and the number of EL students that the school has redesignated as fluent English proficient (FEP) since the previous spring. Dividing one year's redesignation count by the previous year's count of English learners provides a rough estimate of the rate at which EL students are being redesignated. In future years, data from the CELDT and CST (discussed below) may make possible more refined redesignation rate estimates based on students' English proficiency levels, academic performance, and time in U.S. schools.

A significant concern with relying on Language Census data is the reliability of the program labels used[13]. To address this concern, we performed correlational analyses of data on instructional settings and services provided for years in which both sets of counts are available.[14] Although we employed several methods to validate our classification scheme, we nevertheless recognize that using Language Census data to classify school-level instructional approaches for EL students is a limitation of our study.

Summary of Analytic Approaches

Our analyses focused on changes in the achievement of EL and former EL (RFEP) students from 1998 (prior to the passage of Proposition 227) to 2002. However, the data available through the CDE Web site are not disaggregated by various subsets of the English-fluent category (i.e., EO, RFEP and IFEP). This may explain why previous research that has examined changes in the achievement gap between ELs and English proficient students has included in the English proficient category former EL students who have been redesignated as English proficient (RFEP). With direct access to the student-level data, we were able to combine the ELs with the RFEPs and consider the achievement gap between these students and EOs. By utilizing this approach we avoided the bias and distortion caused by "skimming" the best performing ELs out of the EL category as they are redesignated into the RFEP category. We include information on the EO-EL gap in the technical appendix since it has been the focus of previous research.

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[13] See Rossell (2002).
[14] See Methodological Note 5 in the Technical Appendix.

For some of the approaches used in this chapter, we have included sample sizes in the exhibits. We have done this where a small sample size had the potential to affect the validity of any conclusions drawn. In situations where the sample sizes were sufficiently large for all categories of students under consideration, we have not included the sample information in the exhibits. For example, in the within-grade and cohort analyses below, there are over 50,000 students in each category. Because this sample size is sufficiently large to obviate concerns over statistical validity, no information regarding individual sample sizes is provided.

We pursued several general analytic approaches. We introduce each approach briefly here and provide further explanations as we present the results.

Approach 1: Within-Grade Analyses (Successive Groups)

The within-grade analyses each focus on a single grade level over time (e.g., 3rd graders in 1998, 3rd graders in 1999, 3rd graders in 2000, and so on). We examined grades 2 through 11 from 1998 to 2002. Within each grade, we compared the average scores of students in reading, language arts, and math over time, calculating the gains in each group's average scores over the four-year period, as well as changes in the performance gap between the groups. We analyzed data for English-only, English learners, and former English learners (EL students who have been redesignated as fluent English proficient, or RFEP); however, our primary comparison is between English-only students and the combined group of EL and RFEP students. A concern with this type of analysis is that the demographic characteristics of different "waves" of students can vary substantially and distort the representation of effectiveness of different schools or programs. To address this potential confounding factor, we also conducted *cohort analyses*.

Approach 2: Cohort Analyses[15]

The cohort analyses take advantage of the fact that SAT-9 scaled scores are calibrated so that a student's growth from grade to grade can be estimated. This makes it possible to track the same cohort of students as it progresses through the grades, measuring gains in average SAT-9 scores, as well as changes in the performance gaps between different language proficiency groups over time. In Year 2 of the evaluation, we followed three cohorts across three years: grades 2–5, 6–8, and 9–11. This year, expanding each cohort with the additional year of data at our disposal would have created overlaps (e.g., grades 2–6 and 6–9), so we chose to instead follow students over four years in two cohorts: grades 2–6 and 7–11 (the grade 2–6 cohort consists of students who were in grade 2 in 1998, students who were in grade 3 in 1999, students who were in grade 4 in 2000, and so on). The cohort analyses compare the same English proficiency groups as those compared in the within-grade analyses.

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[15] As previously mentioned in the Methodology chapter, for ease of discussion, this report uses the term "cohorts" to describe the statistical groups that were described as "quasi-cohorts" in the Year 2 Report. It should be kept in mind, however, that these groups of students are not pure cohorts because the student-level data provided by the CDE do not include unique IDs that would make it possible to link individual students' scores across years.

Approach 3: Instructional Model Analyses

While Approach 2 tracks changes in the achievement of all EO and EL/RFEP students statewide, regardless of the type of school they attended, Approach 3 analyses compare student achievement in three types of schools classified by the instructional model type in which a substantial proportion of their EL students are served:[16]

- *Continuing-bilingual* **schools:** schools that provided academic instruction in students' primary language (L_1) to more than 50 percent of their ELs both in 1998 (prior to the passage of Proposition 227) and in 2002

- *Transitioning-from-bilingual* **schools:** schools that offered L_1 instruction to more than 50 percent of their EL students in 1998 but not in 2002

- *Never-bilingual* **schools:** schools that did not offer L_1 instruction to more than 50 percent of their EL students in either year

The purpose of these analyses is to explore the performance and progress of EL/RFEP students within the context of the use of primary language in instruction in their schools. In each case, *continuing-bilingual* refers to schools in which more than 50 percent of the EL students are receiving bilingual instruction. For each of the three school types, we examine changes in achievement and changes in the achievement gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs. We have used the within-grade and cohort analyses in this third approach, presenting instructional model analyses for grades 2 through 6.

As noted in our Year 2 report, the three types of schools discussed above serve substantially different student populations. *Never-bilingual* schools had roughly half as many low-income students as *continuing-bilingual* and *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools (40 percent vs. 76 and 74 percent respectively), and *never-bilingual* schools had a fraction of the English learners found in the other two model types (20 percent vs. 52 and 44 percent). Another important difference is that 69 percent of ELs in *never-bilingual* schools are Spanish speakers, compared with 92 percent in *continuing-bilingual* and *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools. Given the disparity in important demographic characteristics such as these, conclusive comparisons of performance across the three school types cannot be made without further analysis of how these important contextual factors impact student performance and whether the impact differs according to the instructional model type.

Approach 4: California Standards Test Analyses

Introduced in 2001, CST is relatively new and trend lines are short. Therefore, we present descriptive statistics comparing the performance of EO and EL/RFEP students in each grade on the English Language Arts and Mathematics CSTs. The ELA analyses include data from 2001 and 2002 and changes between the years for students in grades 2 through 11; the mathematics analyses include data for 2002 for students in grades 2 through 7.[17] In

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[16] In response to concerns expressed by the project's State Work Group, the language proficiency and achievement analyses use a cut-point of greater than 50 percent of ELs receiving L_1 instruction rather than the 25 percent used in the case study analyses.

[17] Although mathematics results are available for higher grades, interpreting results for different language classification groups is problematic as students in grades 8 through 11 take a test aligned with the mathematics course in which they are enrolled. Since EL/RFEP and EO students in the same grades are not necessarily

future years, it will be possible to conduct trend analyses on California Standards Test scores that parallel those we have conducted for the five years of SAT-9 data.

Approach 5: California English Language Development Test Analyses

This year we use CELDT data that are available to provide an overview of California's EL population. This includes:

- The proportions of students taking the test for initial placement and for assessment of annual progress
- The proportions of students in each of the five English proficiency levels
- The proportions of students meeting the state's "English language proficient" criterion
- The proportions of students gaining at least one proficiency level from 2001 to 2002.

In future reports, CELDT results should enrich our understanding of the progress of English learners toward English proficiency. By next year, more detailed analyses of student progress and time in U.S. schools should also be possible.

Approach 6: Analyses of Counts of Students Redesignated from English Learner to Fluent English Proficient

We use Language Census data to present statewide trends in redesignation of ELs to RFEP status over the past decade. Next year, as we continue our exploration of schools that are "effective" in fostering the progress of EL students, we will add analyses of school-level redesignation rates and explore ways that CELDT data in combination with redesignation counts might provide more informative measures of school effectiveness.

Approach 1. Within-Grade Analyses (Successive Groups)

Within-grade analyses of SAT-9 mean scaled scores in reading, language arts, and mathematics were conducted for successive groups of students in grades 2 through 11. Mean scaled score gains were computed for students in each of the four available language classifications (EO, IFEP, RFEP, and EL), as well as for the total population and for the combined EL/RFEP category. In addition, the performance gap between EOs and ELs, and between EOs and EL/RFEPs, was computed. In assessing changes in the performance gaps, we report 5-year (1998–2002) and 4-year (1999–2002) changes. This is because 1998 was the first year of statewide SAT-9 testing, and gains using 1998 as the baseline year may confound students' acclimation to the test with higher achievement levels.[18]

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enrolled in the same proportions in courses such as general mathematics, introductory algebra, and geometry, differences in language proficiency are confounded with differences in course content.

[18] See Hakuta, Butler, & Bousquet (1999).

Tables containing complete results from the within-grade analyses, including mean scaled scores, standard deviations, and sample sizes, are presented in the Technical Appendix (see Exhibits 4 through 9). Based on these results, the discussion in this chapter focuses on the performance of EOs and the combined EL/RFEP group, on the performance gap between these two groups, and on changes over the five-year period (1998–2002). We first summarize major findings of the within-grade analyses and then highlight findings from grades 3 and 5 for reading and math, which are generally illustrative of and consistent with findings from the other grades and for language arts. By highlighting a few grades and subjects, we are able to discuss the results in greater depth. We chose to highlight elementary grades because these grades contain higher percentages of ELs than do middle and secondary grades. Furthermore, grade 3 is often identified by researchers, educators, and policymakers as the grade at which all students should be able to read.[19] Grade 5 was selected because it is typically the exit grade for elementary school. We highlight reading and mathematics because of the greater national attention given to these two subjects.

Major Findings from Within-Grade Analyses

Gains were made by students across all language classifications

Over the five years of testing, virtually all grades showed increases in academic performance in all three subject areas. This was true for the combined sample of all students, for EOs, for the EL/RFEP group, and for all other subgroups. Gains were greater in the lower grades than in higher grades.

Considerable gaps between the performance of EL/RFEPs and EOs persist, though they appear to be closing in some cases

In 1998, there were consistent performance gaps between EO students and their EL/RFEP counterparts, particularly in the more language-dependent areas of reading (where gaps were greatest) and language arts. However, slight gap closing occurred from 1998 to 2002 across each subject. In reading, EL/RFEPs gained slightly more mean scaled score points relative to their EO counterparts, which led to a reduction of the gap over the five years in all grades. The gap narrowed by 2 to 6 points (.05 to .15 standard deviations[20]) across the grades. Similarly slight gap closing occurred in language arts, with a reduction of between 1 and 4 points (.025 and .1 standard deviations) for all but one grade, for which the gap stayed the same. The gap in math, however, has been more persistent. For five of the ten grades, the gap did not change at all, and the greatest change was only 2 points (.05 standard deviations). Despite the reductions seen in some areas, substantial performance gaps between EL/RFEPs and EOs continue to exist in all three subjects.

Examining Reading Performance in Grades 3 and 5

Exhibit III-1 through III-4 display within-grade performance in reading for successive groups of grade 3 and 5 students from 1998 to 2002. (Findings from these two grades are generally consistent with the results for the other grades.) The exhibits show

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[19] Although the benchmark we highlight in this chapter is reading, we also analyzed language arts, which tests areas including students' grammar, analytic, and writing skills, and found similar results. Please see the Technical Appendix for reading and language arts results.

[20] For a discussion of the use of standard deviations as a measure of the size of gap changes, please see Methodological Note 6 in the Technical Appendix.

performance and gains for EOs and EL/RFEPs, the performance gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs, and any gap changes over the five years.

The reading performance of each successive group of EO and EL/RFEP 3rd graders increases between 1998 and 2002 (15 mean scaled score points for EOs and 18 for EL/RFEPs). There are also smaller gains for the grade 5 successive EO and EL/RFEP groups. The performance gap between EOs and EL/RFEPS narrows slightly for both grades: 3 points (.075 standard deviations) for grade 3, and 5 points (.125 standard deviations) for grade 5. While these are small changes, it is worth noting that the trend appears to be steady and ongoing.

Exhibit III-1: Reading Scores, Grades 3 and 5 (Within-Grade Analyses)

Grade 3		
	EO	**EL/RFEP**
1998	611	571
1999	617	577
2000	621	582
2001	625	586
2002	626	589
Gain (1998–2002)	**15**	**18**

Grade 5		
	EO	**EL/RFEP**
1998	653	617
1999	656	621
2000	656	623
2001	658	626
2002	660	629
Gain (1998–2002)	**7**	**12**

Note: Calculated gains and gaps figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

Exhibit III-2: Reading Score Gap Between EO and EL/RFEP Students, Grades 3 and 5 (Within-Grade Analyses)

	Grade 3 Gap	**Grade 5 Gap**
1998	40	36
1999	40	35
2000	39	33
2001	39	32
2002	37	31
Gap Change (1998–2002)	**-3**	**-5**

Note: Calculated gains and gaps figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

Exhibit III-3: Within-Grade Analyses: Reading, Grade 3
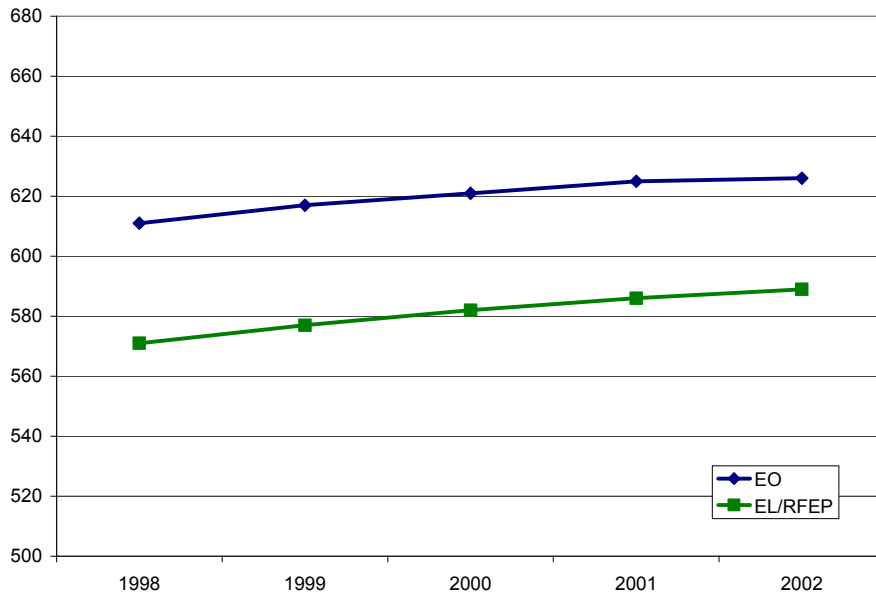
Exhibit III-4: Within-Grade Analyses: Reading, Grade 5
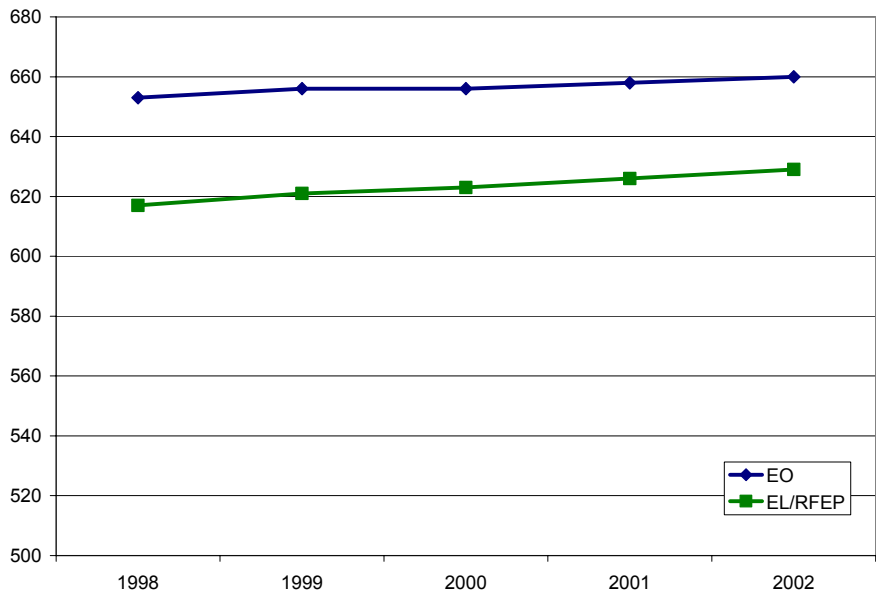
Examining Math Performance in Grades 3 and 5

Exhibits III-5 through III-8 display within-grade performance in math for successive groups of grade 3 and 5 students from 1998 to 2002, showing EO and EL/RFEP gains, gaps, and gap changes over the time span. As with the reading analyses above, the math results for grades 3 and 5 were generally consistent with the math results for other grades (see Exhibits 7 through 9 in the Technical Appendix for complete results).

Exhibit III-5: Math, Grades 3 and 5 (Within-Grade Analyses)

Grade 3		
	EO	**EL/RFEP**
1998	597	574
1999	606	582
2000	613	590
2001	617	595
2002	620	599
Gain (1998–2002)	**23**	**25**

Grade 5		
	EO	**EL/RFEP**
1998	644	621
1999	649	627
2000	653	631
2001	657	636
2002	660	639
Gain (1998–2002)	**16**	**18**

Note: Calculated gains and gaps figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

Exhibit III-6: Math Score Gap Between EO and EL/RFEP Students, Grades 3 and 5 (Within-Grade Analyses)

	Grade 3 Gap	**Grade 5 Gap**
1998	23	23
1999	23	22
2000	23	22
2001	22	22
2002	21	21
Gap Change (1998–2002)	**-2**	**-2**

Note: Calculated gains and gaps figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

When we examine these tables and the accompanying figures below, we note both greater gains and smaller gaps between EOs and EL/RFEPs than were seen in reading. In fact, the math performance gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs is consistently about two-thirds the size of the reading gap. The performance gap between EOs and EL/RFEPS decreases by 2 points (.05 standard deviations) for both grades from 1998 to 2002.

Exhibit III-7: Within-Grade Analyses: Math, Grade 3
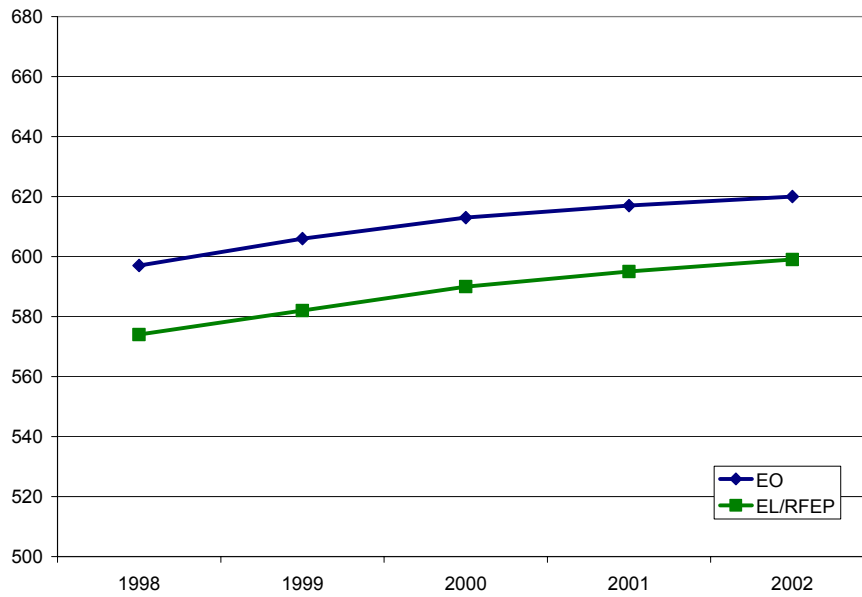
Exhibit III-8: Within-Grade Analyses: Math, Grade 5
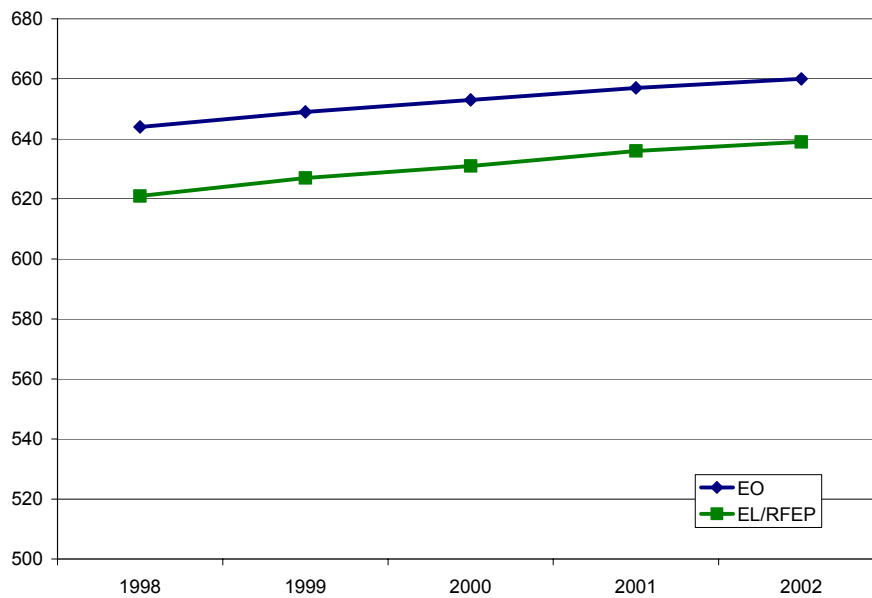
Approach 2. Cohort Analyses

As discussed earlier, a concern with successive-group analysis is that the demographic characteristics of different "waves" of students can vary substantially and distort the representation of effectiveness of different schools or programs. To address this limitation, the project team also undertook cohort analyses of academic achievement in reading, language arts, and math for two progressive grade sets: grades 2–6 and 7–11. The results found in the within-grade analysis are generally confirmed by the cohort analyses.

As with the successive-groups analysis presented above, exhibits displaying data (including mean scaled scores, standard deviations and sample sizes) for both cohorts in all three subject areas are provided in the Technical Appendix (Exhibits 10 through 18). Below, we summarize the major cohort findings and point out a methodological consideration that provides an important qualifier for the findings. After summarizing the major findings from the cohort analysis, we highlight the analysis of achievement gains, gaps, and gap changes for the two cohorts in reading and math. We highlight these two analyses in order to discuss the findings in greater detail than would be possible with the full set of cohort results. The reading results presented here are generally consistent with the language arts results for both cohorts, which are included in the Technical Appendix.

Major Findings from Cohort Analyses

As with the successive-group analyses, each of the language subgroups in the examined cohorts increased their academic performance in all subject areas over the five years. However, because students normally have increasing scores as they advance through the grades, the observed gains in performance are not as telling in the cohort results as they are in the within-grade analyses (i.e., we *expect* 4th graders to perform better than 3rd graders). Rather, a comparison of the overall gains in the language subgroups over the five years indicates the relative performance of EL/RFEPs and EOs.

Significant reading performance gaps persist, but narrow slightly

In both cohorts, the five-year performance gaps in reading between EO and EL/RFEP students narrow slightly. The gap reduction is greater for the grade 7–11 cohort, where the overall gains for both language groups are also less dramatic. The gains and gaps in reading are very similar to those for language arts.[21]

Math performance gaps do not change substantially

In math, the gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs decreases somewhat for the grade 7–11 cohort, although the change is smaller than for reading. For the grade 2–6 cohort, the gap does not change at all.

Examining Cohort Performance in Reading

Exhibits III-9 through III-12 display performance in reading for the two cohorts of students: those beginning as 2nd graders in 1998 and ending as 6th graders in 2002, and those beginning as 7th graders in 1998 and ending as 11th graders in 2002. Performance is shown by

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[21] See Exhibits 13 through 15 in the Technical Appendix for complete language arts cohort analysis results.

EO and EL/RFEP language groups, as are gains, the performance gap, and any changes in the performance gap over the five years. In addition, we include performance data for ELs (without redesignated students included) to illustrate how performance gap findings can vary depending on whether EL performance is considered alone, or in conjunction with RFEP performance.

Exhibit III-9: Reading Mean Scaled Scores, Grades 2–6 and 7–11 (Cohort Analyses)

Cohort Grades 2–6		
	EO	**EL/RFEP**
1998 (Grade 2)	581	546
1999 (Grade 3)	617	577
2000 (Grade 4)	644	607
2001 (Grade 5)	658	626
2002 (Grade 6)	669	642
Gain (1998–2002)	**88**	**96**
Cohort Grades 7–11		
	EO	**EL/RFEP**
1998 (Grade 7)	680	644
1999 (Grade 8)	696	663
2000 (Grade 9)	693	663
2001 (Grade 10)	698	669
2002 (Grade 11)	704	679
Gain (1998–2002)	**24**	**35**

Note: Calculated gains and gaps figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

Exhibit III-10: Gap in Reading Mean Scaled Scores Between EO and EL/RFEP Students, Grades 2–6 and 7–11 (Cohort Analyses)

	Grades 2–6 Gap	Grades 7–11 Gap
1998	35	37
1999	40	32
2000	37	30
2001	32	29
2002	27	25
Gap Change (1998–2002)	**-8**	**-12**

Note: Calculated gains and gaps figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

Exhibit III-11: Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 2–6
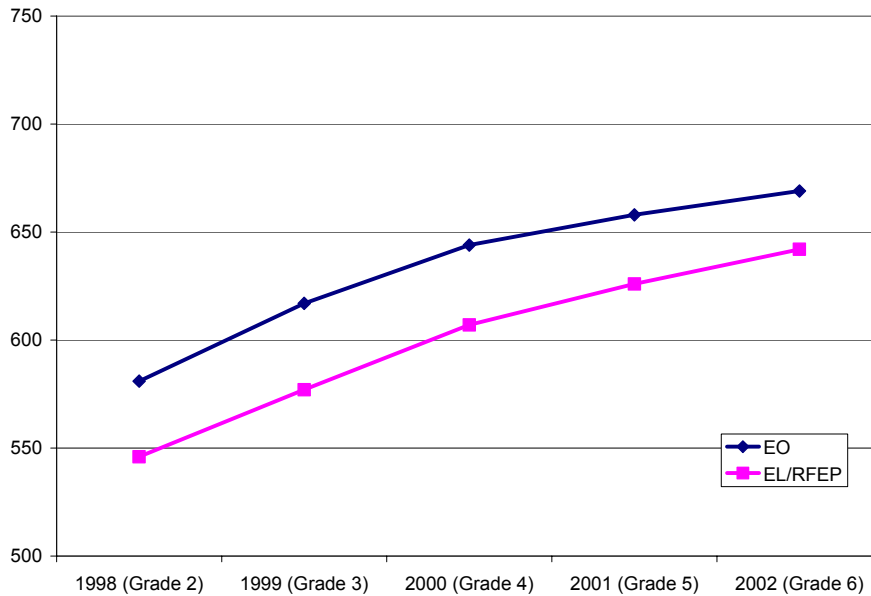
As the grade 2–6 cohort exhibits above suggest, both EOs and EL/RFEPs make substantial performance gains over the five-year period in reading, though the performance gap remains substantial. The gap decreases slightly over the time period, by 8 mean scaled score points, or .2 standard deviations.

Exhibit III-12: Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 7–11
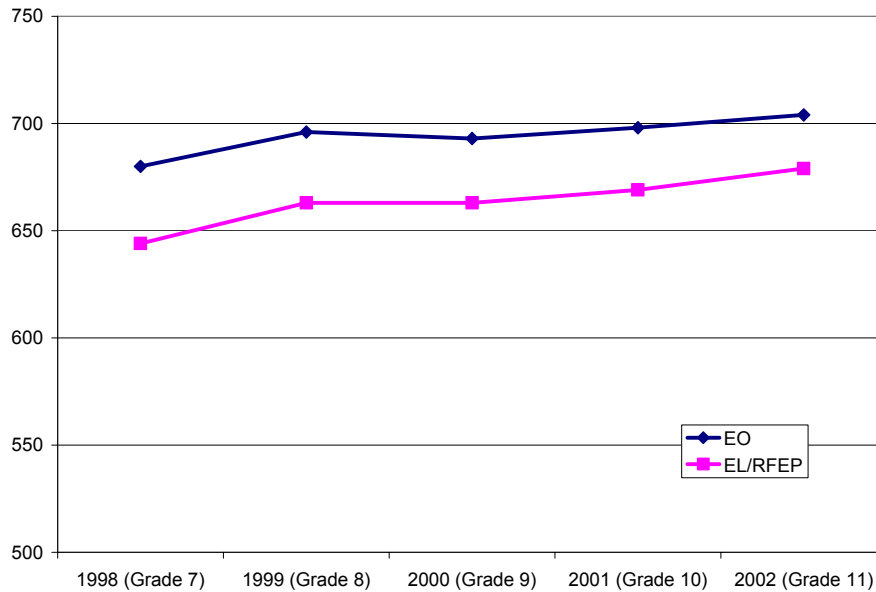
In examining the table and related figure above on the grade 7–11 cohort, we find much more modest performance gains for both EOs and EL/RFEPs relative to the 2–6 cohort. Nevertheless, EL/RFEPs in this cohort also out-gain their EO counterparts (35 vs. 24 mean scaled score points, respectively) over the five-year period, resulting in a gap reduction of 12 mean scaled score points (.3 standard deviations).

Examining Math Performance in the Cohorts

Exhibits III-13 through III-16 display performance in math for the two cohorts of students. As with the previous discussion of reading performance, scores are shown by EO and EL/RFEP language groups, as are gains, the performance gap, and any changes in the performance gap over the five years.

Exhibit III-13: Math Mean Scaled Scores, Grades 2–6 and 7–11 (Cohort Analyses)

Cohort Grades 2–6		
	EO	**EL/RFEP**
1998 (Grade 2)	571	549
1999 (Grade 3)	606	582
2000 (Grade 4)	632	609
2001 (Grade 5)	657	636
2002 (Grade 6)	676	654
Gain (1998-2002)	**105**	**105**
Cohort Grades 7–11		
	EO	**EL/RFEP**
1998 (Grade 7)	673	651
1999 (Grade 8)	685	664
2000 (Grade 9)	696	678
2001 (Grade 10)	701	687
2002 (Grade 11)	707	693
Gain (1998-2002)	**34**	**42**

Note: Calculated gains and gaps figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

Exhibit III-14: Math Mean Scaled Score Gap Between EO and EL/RFEP Students, Grades 2–6 and 7–11 (Cohort Analyses)

	Grades 2–6 Gap	Grades 7–11 Gap
1998	22	21
1999	23	21
2000	23	19
2001	22	14
2002	22	14
Gap Change (1998–2002)	**0**	**-7**

Note: Calculated gains and gaps figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

Exhibit III-15: Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 2–6
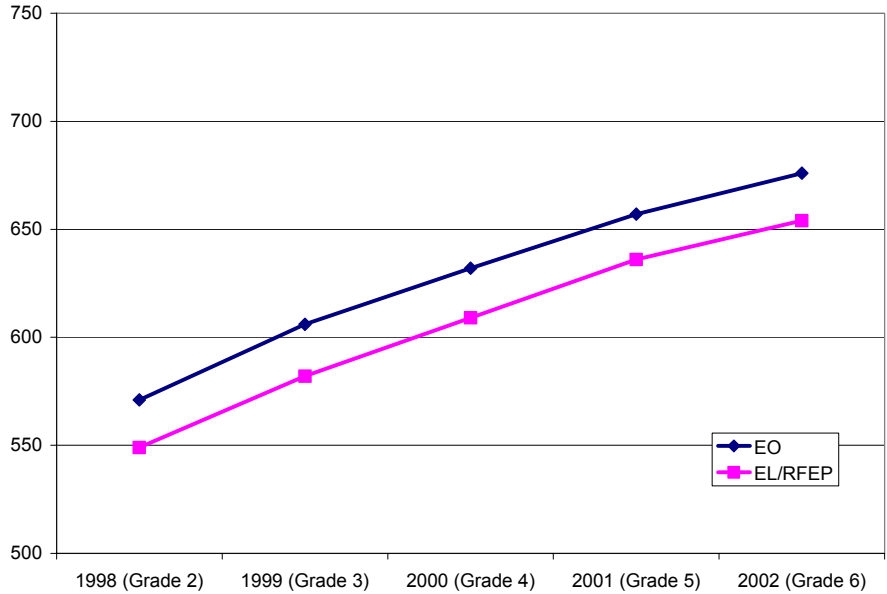
As the grade 2–6 cohort exhibits above indicate, both EOs and EL/RFEPs make substantial performance gains over the five-year period in math (similar to those seen for reading). However, as with reading, the performance gap remains substantial. Moreover, while the reading gap decreases over time, the math gap remains constant over the five years.

Exhibit III-16: Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 7–11
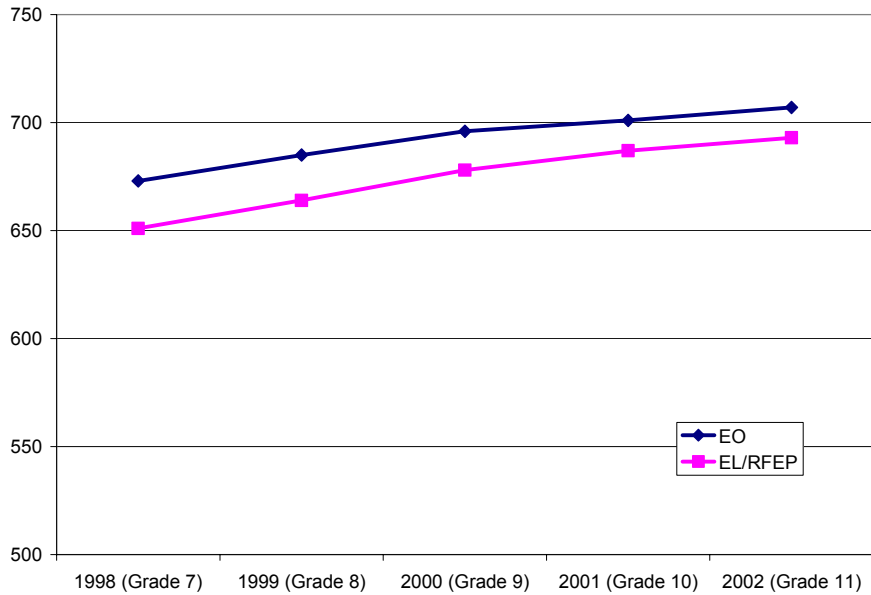
In examining the grade 7–11 cohort (Exhibits III-13, III-14 and III-16), we find more modest performance gains than for the grade 2–6 cohort, mirroring the difference between the two cohorts in reading. The math score gap between EO and EL/RFEP students narrows by 7 points (.175 standard deviations), compared with 12 points (.3 standard deviations) in reading. Taking the two math cohorts together, the gap between EO and EL/RFEP students is more stable in math than in reading. However, as a percentage of the original score gap, the gap change for math and reading (.33 and .32, respectively) is very similar for the grade 7–11 cohorts.

Approach 3. Instructional Model Analyses

A third set of analyses from last year attempts to explore the performance of EL students across three combinations of instructional settings and services provided by schools pre- and post-Proposition 227. In this analysis, we evaluate overall gains for ELs across these school configurations as well as changes in the gap between EO and EL/RFEP students' yearly performance before the implementation of Proposition 227 up to the most current available data. We use the same approach as last year in characterizing schools by the three scenarios of change in instructional model type from pre- and post-Proposition 227.

This section begins with a description of the approach used to classify schools. We then analyze the reading and math performance of EO and EL/RFEP students using within-grade analyses for successive groups of grades 2 to 6[22] and cohort analyses. The first approach compares the reading and math performance gain and gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs observed in the same grades over time (i.e., grade 3 in 1998 versus grade 3 in 1999, and so on). The latter approach follows the same cohort of students over time and analyzes their reading and math performance evolution. The three cohorts of students analyzed are the 1998-2001 grade 3-6 cohort (i.e., students are first observed in grade 3 in 1998, then in grade 4 in 1999, and so on), then the cohort 1998-2002 grade 2-6, and finally the 1999-2002 grade 2-5 cohort. Finally, this section presents school and students' demographic characteristics.

Identification of School Instructional Model Type

In this section schools are classified into three different categories according to our delineation of their instructional model type pre- and post-Proposition 227. We used Language Census data to define three broad categories of schools:

- *Continuing-bilingual* ("substantial" L_1 → "substantial" L_1): Schools providing primary language (L_1) instruction to more than 50 percent of their ELs both before and after the passage of Proposition 227.

- *Transitioning-from-bilingual* ("substantial" L_1 → "not substantial" L_1): Schools that offered L_1 instruction to more than 50 percent of their ELs prior to the passage of Proposition 227, but significantly reduced or eliminated primary language following the passage of Proposition 227.

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[22] Grade 7 – 11 are not included in this analysis due to insufficient number of junior high and high schools in the sample offering substantial L1 instruction pre and post Proposition 227.

- *Never-bilingual* ("not substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "not substantial" L_1): Schools that did not offer L_1 instruction to more than 50 percent of their ELs either before or after the passage of Proposition 227.

The cut-point of more than 50 percent of ELs receiving primary language instruction was used as the standard for a "substantial proportion."[23] For example, if a school educated 55 percent of its ELs using instruction in their primary language prior to the passage of Proposition 227, but reduced that figure to 30 percent after the passage of the law, the school would be identified as a *transitioning-from-bilingual* school.

The percentage of ELs receiving primary language instruction before Proposition 227 passed is based on 1997-98 Language Census data, which provides counts of students receiving English Language Development services combined with academic instruction in their primary language. The post-Proposition 227 measure is based on 2001–02 Language Census data that provides counts of EL students in each school being instructed in settings labeled "alternative courses of study," which indicates the use of primary language instruction.

Exhibit III-17 shows the number of schools in each category. This approach to distinguishing schools based on the among the primary instructional approaches for ELs they offer shows that four percent of California schools with EL enrollments for these two years continued to offer primary language instruction to more than 50 percent of their ELs in 2002. Eleven percent offered primary language instruction to more than 50 percent of their EL students prior to the passage of Proposition 227, but significantly decreased or eliminated those offerings in 2002. *Never-bilingual* schools constituted 85 percent of the schools included in our analysis.

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[23] The analyses presented here, which classify schools offering academic instruction in the primary language to more than 50 percent of their ELs as "substantial" L_1 schools, differ from those presented last year, which used a 25 percent criterion to define "substantial" L_1. This change was made in response to concerns expressed by the project's State Work Group that the 25 percent cut-point caused the scores of too many students who were not receiving instruction in the primary language to be included in the results for "substantial" L_1 schools. To maintain continuity with last year's analyses, we have included results based on the 25 percent definition in the Technical Appendix (see Exhibits 22 through 28). In addition, Methodological Note 7 in the Technical Appendix presents a sensitivity analysis, which compares the number of schools classified as *continuing-bilingual*, *transitioning-from-bilingual*, and *never-bilingual* when different cut-points are used.

Exhibit III-17: School Distribution Across Instructional Model Types[24]

Instructional Model Type: Pre- and Post-Proposition 227 (1998-99 and 2001-02)	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Continuing-bilingual ("Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Substantial" L_1)	272	4%
Transitioning-from-bilingual ("Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Not Substantial" L_1)	782	11%
Never-bilingual ("Not Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Not Substantial" L_1)	6,146	85%
Total Number of Schools with EL Students	7,200	100%

"Substantial" L_1:   Primary language instruction offered to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school
"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to 50 percent or less of EL students in the school

Student Achievement by School Instructional Model Typology

Using SAT-9 mean scaled scores, student performance gains and gaps between EOs and EL/RFEPs were analyzed as a function of their school's instructional model type pre- and post-Proposition 227. Exhibits 19 through 21 in the Technical Appendix contain the full results of the successive grade analysis for each year and subject for grades 2–6 by the three school categories. The results obtained from the cohort analyses are presented in Exhibits 29 through 46 in the Technical Appendix. As mentioned, the instructional model analysis examines student performance at the school level, as it was not possible to accurately differentiate performance by the actual instructional program in which each individual student was placed using state data. It is also important to keep in mind that these analyses do not control for demographic differences among students attending the different types of schools, and therefore should be considered as descriptive rather than explanatory. Differences in school and student demographic characteristics are presented at the end of this section.

Major Findings from the Instructional Model Analyses

Gains are made by all students in all instructional model types

As shown in the successive grade analyses, EO and EL/RFEP students made performance gains in all three subjects in all three types of schools. This analysis indicates that EL/RFEP students in grades 2 – 6 show larger five-year gains in reading performance in *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools than in *never-bilingual* and *continuing-bilingual* institutions. Math performance gains for EL/RFEPs in grades 5 and 6 appear to be equal for the three different categories of schools. If we follow the same group of students over time (i.e., performing a cohort analysis), the performance gain in math was about 80 scaled score points for both the 1998–2001 grade 3–6 and the 1999–2002 grade 2–5 cohorts. This

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[24] 1,221 schools are not included in the instructional model achievement analyses. The excluded schools consist of 107 schools identified in a fourth model (*not substantial L_1 • substantial L_1*), 1,061 schools with missing instructional information for 1998, and 53 schools with missing instructional information for 2002, and therefore could not be classified.

represents a yearly improvement of approximately 27 scaled score points. The 1998–2002 grade 2–6 cohort covers an additional year and therefore shows a higher gain on the math test (107 scaled score points). A similar performance trend is observed in reading test scores. For instance, EO students in the 1998–2002 grade 2–6 cohort experienced a reading performance gain of 16 percent over this time frame, while EL/RFEP students experienced a slightly higher gain of 18 percent.

Performance gaps in reading decrease and in math tend to stay constant across instructional model types

The successive grade analyses show that in each of the instructional model types some narrowing of the reading gap between EOs and EL/RFEP average student scores occurred. For example, in second grade reading test scores the greatest gap reduction occurred among students in *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools. However, in second grade math test scores, the greatest gap reduction occurred among students in *continuing-bilingual* schools. Using a cohort analyses it is possible to observe that the test score gap in reading between EO and EL/RFEP students declined between 1998 and 2002. On average, this reading performance gap declined among schools across all instructional model types and cohorts analyzed. In the 1998–2001 grade 3–6 cohort the reading gap decreased 10 points on average, or around 28 percent of the gap observed in 1998. The percentage reduction in the reading performance gap between EO and EL/RFEP students was 22 percent for the 1998–2002 grade 2–6 cohort, and 19 percent for the 1998–2002 grade 2–5 cohort. The math performance gap between EO and EL/RFEP students, overall, tended to stay fairly constant. The math performance gap declined for the 1999-2002 grade 2-5 cohort, but actually increased slightly for the other two cohorts (i.e., 1998-2001 grade 3-6 and 1998-2002 grade 2-6). In other words, EO and EL/RFEP students are becoming more similar in terms of their reading skills, while their math skill gap shows no appreciable change.

Important demographic differences exist among the student populations served by the three different school types

Never-bilingual schools, or those where primary language instruction has never been provided to more than 50 percent of the EL students have roughly half as many low-income students as those classified as *continuing-bilingual* and *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools (41 percent vs. 76 and 74 percent respectively). *Never-bilingual* schools have a fraction of the English learners found in the other two model types (20 percent vs. 52 and 44 percent). Another important difference is that 69 percent of ELs in *never-bilingual* schools are Spanish speakers; while in *continuing-bilingual* and *never bilingual* the percentage of ELs Spanish speakers is 92 percent. Comparisons of performance across these three school types cannot be made without these considerable disparities in important demographic characteristics in mind.

Examining Reading Performance by School Instructional Model Typology for Grades 2 to 6

Exhibit III-18 below displays within-grade performance in reading for successive groups in grades 2 to 6 from 1998 to 2002. Reading performance is presented for EOs and EL/RFEPs, featuring the degree of performance gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002 by school type. As shown, the reading performance for all grades, across all school types, increases from 1998 to 2002.

Average scores for EL/RFEP students in grades 2 through 5 show greater performance gains in *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools in comparison to *never-bilingual* and *continuing-bilingual* schools. Gap reduction in grades 2 through 4 is also greatest in *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools, but not for grades 5 and 6. The latter two types of schools appear relatively comparable in terms of performance gains over time.

The level of performance (the average scaled score) for both EO and EL/RFEP groups in each grade level is higher in *never-bilingual* schools pre- and post-Proposition 227 than in the other types of schools. However, it is important to recall that on average the students in these schools are very different from those in the *continuing-bilingual* and *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools. (See "Major Findings from the Instructional Model Analyses," immediately above.) Consequently, since the demographic differences that exist across instructional model types as well as the absence of longitudinal student-level data linking performance with instructional program placements, it is not possible to determine the extent to which student performance differences across the three school instructional model types can be attributed to the alternative instructional approaches.

Exhibit III-18: Reading Performance, Gains and Gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002 by School Type, Grades 2–6

	Continuing-Bilingual Schools				Transitioning-from-Bilingual Schools				Never-Bilingual Schools			
	EO	EL/ RFEP	EL/ RFEP Gain	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	EL/ RFEP	EL/ RFEP Gain	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	EL/ RFEP	EL/ RFEP Gain	EO-EL/RFEP Gap
Grade 2												
1998	569	536		34	567	537		30	583	551		32
2002	582	552	16	30	585	564	26	21	598	571	20	27
Grade 3												
1998	598	563		35	595	564		32	614	575		39
2002	612	579	16	33	612	586	22	26	628	593	18	35
Grade 4												
1998	624	592		32	623	593		30	640	603		37
2002	635	607	15	28	635	611	18	24	650	618	15	32
Grade 5												
1998	642	611		31	640	613		27	655	620		35
2002	648	623	11	25	648	625	12	23	661	631	11	30
Grade 6												
1998	656	629		28	655	630		25	665	633		32
2002	665	639	11	25	661	639	9	22	670	642	9	28

Exhibit III-19 shows average reading performance gain for EL/RFEP students by school type in grades 2 to 6 from 1998 through 2002 by school type. The exhibit shows that all EL/RFEP students increased reading performance across all instructional model types. Students in transitioning-from-bilingual schools appear to have a greater increase in their reading performance in all but one grade, but it is important to also consider their initial performance level. For example, grade 2 EL/RFEPs in transitioning-from-bilingual schools show a gain in reading performance of 26 scaled points, while EL/RFEPs in second grade in

never-bilingual schools show a smaller gain of 20 scaled points. However, the EL/RFEPs in never-bilingual schools show an average score of 551 in 1998, while those in transitioning-from-bilingual schools have a slightly lower average score of 537 for the same year.

Exhibit III-19: EL/RFEPs Reading Performance Gain Across 1998–2002 by School Type, Grades 2–6

Chart legend: ■ Continuing Bilingual ■ Transitioning from Bilingual □ Never Bilingual

Grade	Continuing Bilingual	Transitioning from Bilingual	Never Bilingual
Grade 2	16	26	20
Grade 3	16	22	18
Grade 4	15	18	15
Grade 5	11	12	11
Grade 6	11	9	9
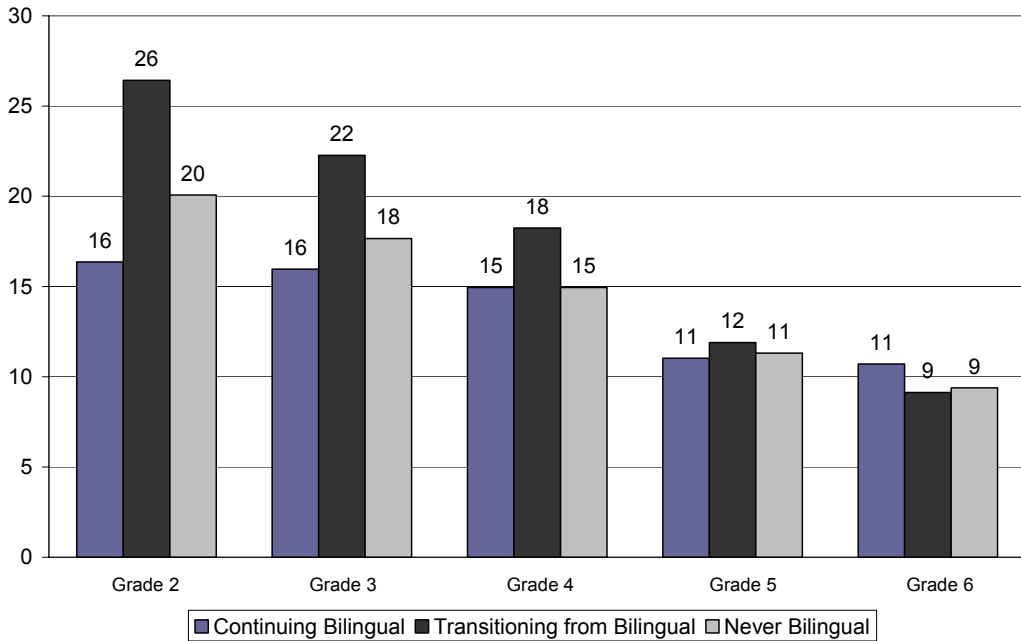
Exhibit III-20 below displays graphically the *change* in the reading performance gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs between 1998-2002 by instructional model type for grades 2 through 8. For example, the first bar of that exhibit (i.e., second graders in *continuing-bilingual* schools) corresponds to the change in the gap between the average score of EOs and EL/RFEPs students in *continuing-bilingual* schools in second grade shown in Exhibit III-18 (i.e., 30 – 34 = -4).

Exhibit III-20: Change in the Reading Performance Gap Between EOs and EL/RFEPs across 1999–2002, Grades 2–6
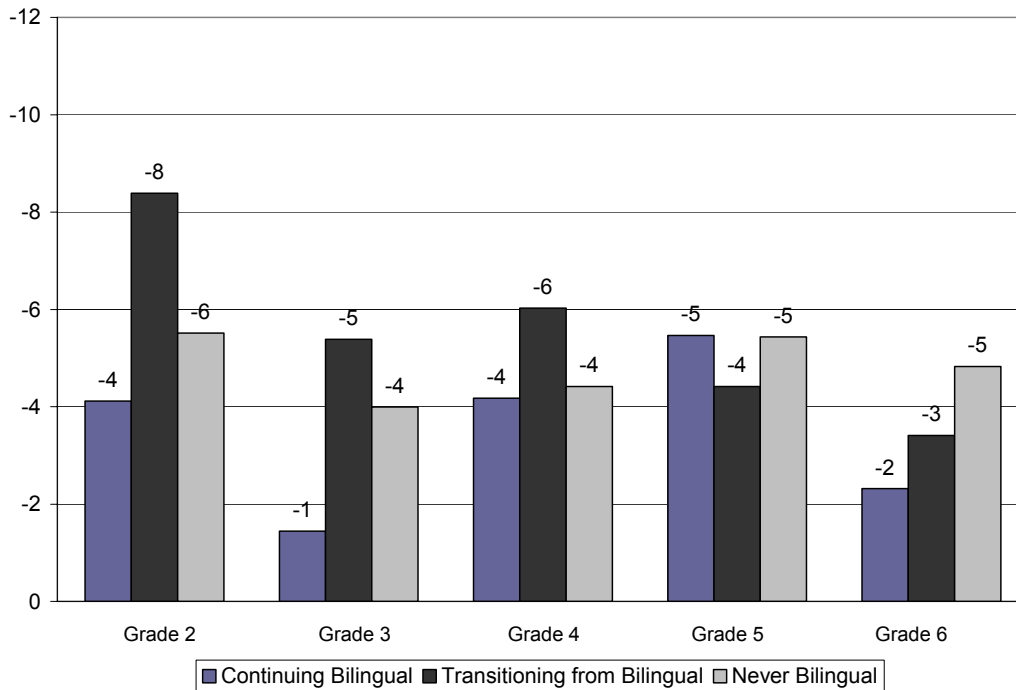
As can be seen, the reading performance gap is decreasing in each grade in each type of school (note the negative scale of the vertical axis) between 1998 and 2002. Nevertheless, no clear pattern of greater gap closing is observable in any particular type of school. For example, in grade 2 the gap is closing at a greater rate in the *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools, while the gap in grade 6 is narrowing at a greater rate in *never bilingual* schools. Grade 5 shows almost no difference in the change in the gap between school types over the five years.

Examining Math Performance by School Instructional Model Typology for Grades 2 to 6

Exhibit III-21 shows the within-grade math performance and gains for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002, as well as the performance gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs by school type for grade 2 to 6. The math performance results are generally consistent with the reading performance results shown above. Math performance for all grades across all school types increases during the period 1998-2002. Also similar to the reading results, these data show higher levels of math performance for EL/RFEPs in the *never-bilingual* schools.

Exhibit III-21: Math Performance, Gains and Gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002 by School Type, Grades 2–6

	Continuing-Bilingual Schools				*Transitioning-from-Bilingual Schools*				*Never-Bilingual Schools*			
	EO	EL/ RFEP	EL/ RFEP Gain	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	EL/ RFEP	EL/ RFEP Gain	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	EL/ RFEP	EL/ RFEP Gain	EO-EL/RFEP Gap
Grade 2												
1998	560	543		17	559	544		15	573	552		21
2002	580	566	23	14	582	570	26	12	593	575	23	19
Grade 3												
1998	583	567		16	583	568		15	599	578		22
2002	608	592	25	16	609	596	28	12	622	602	25	19
Grade 4												
1998	607	590		17	607	591		15	622	601		22
2002	627	613	23	14	627	614	23	13	641	622	21	19
Grade 5												
1998	633	616		17	631	617		15	646	624		22
2002	648	633	17	15	649	635	18	14	662	642	18	19
Grade 6												
1998	653	634		20	652	635		17	663	638		25
2002	672	653	19	19	669	653	18	16	676	654	16	22

Exhibit III-22 below shows the math performance gain for EL/RFEP students from 1998 through 2002 by school type for grades 2 to 6. Again, these results are consistent with the reading performance gains for EL/RFEP students, where reasonably comparable increases across all instructional model types are observable.

Exhibit III-22: EL/RFEPs Math Performance Gain across 1998–2002 by School Type, Grades 2–6
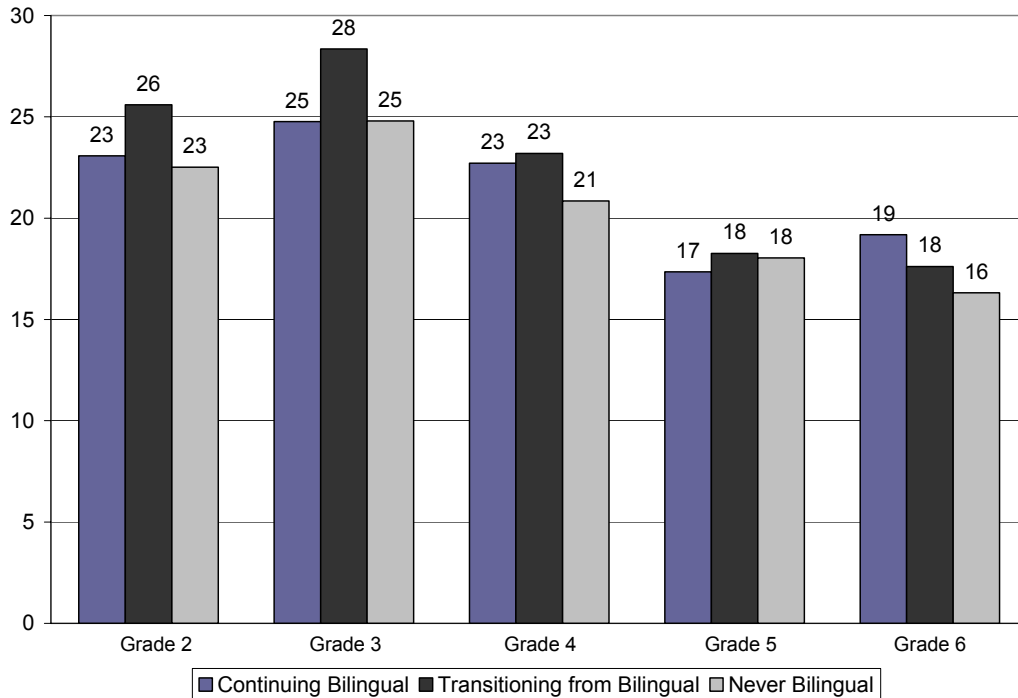
Exhibit III-23 displays the math performance gap between EOs and EL/RFEPs across 1998-2002 by school type and grade. Similar to the results obtained for reading, there is no clear pattern in the gap reduction of math scores across school types. In grade 2, for instance, *continuing-bilingual* schools appear to have the greatest gap reduction. But in grades 3 and 6 this trend is reversed, with a slight increase in the gap. In *transitional-from-bilingual* and *never-bilingual* schools the gap has decreased in every grade. But again, no clear pattern shows *transitional-from-bilingual* schools with a higher or lower gap reduction than *never-bilingual* schools.

Exhibit III-23: Change in the Math Performance Gap Between EOs and EL/RFEPs across 1998–2002, Grades 2–6
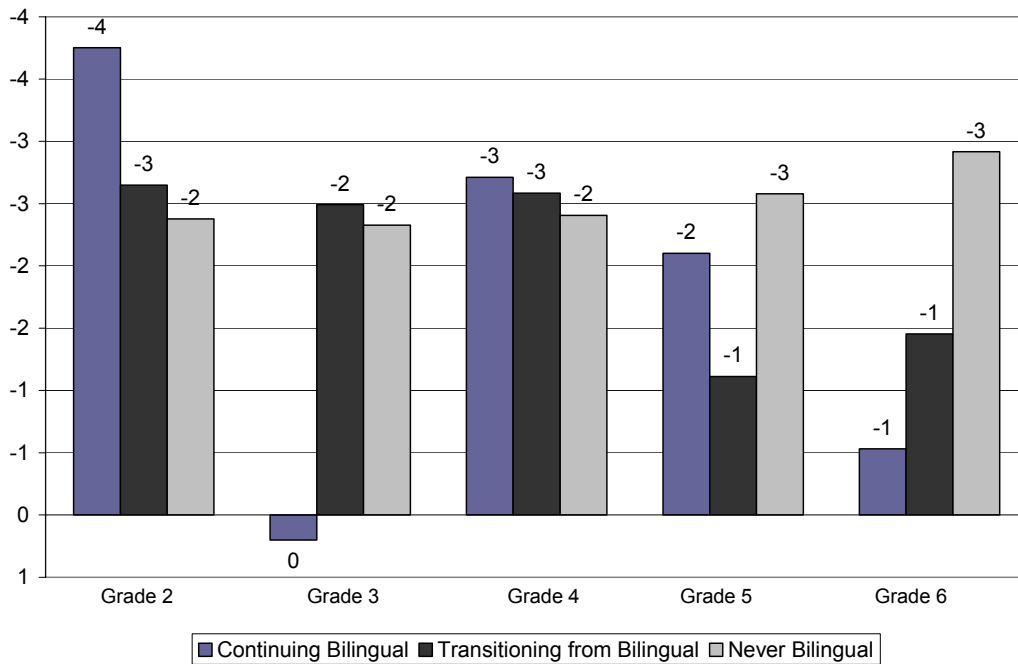
Examining Reading Performance by Cohorts and School Instructional Model Typology

Exhibit III-24 presents the results of the reading test score cohort analysis. As was mentioned at the beginning of this section, our analyses of school instructional model types were restricted to grades 2 through 6 due to an insufficient number of junior high and high schools that offered "substantial" L_1 pre- and post-Proposition 227 (i.e., 1998 to 2002). Given the variability in the results observed, we present all the possible cohorts that can be generated from the available data spanning the four to five years of interest, pre- and post-Proposition 227. These cohorts are the following: Grades 3 to 6 from 1998 to 2001; Grades 2 to 6 from 1998 to 2002; and Grades 2 to 5 from 1999 to 2002. As shown in the exhibit below and mentioned previously in the general findings, reading test score gains between 1998 and 2002 are observable across all instructional model types.[25] In terms of the actual test score gains, for the 1998-2002 grade 2-6 cohort, for instance, reading test scores of EO students in *continuing-bilingual* schools increased 96 points from an average of 569 in 1998 to 665 in 2001. EO students of this cohort in *never-bilingual* schools experienced an increase in their reading test scores of 86 points (from an average of 670 to 583). In the case of EL/RFEPs the reading performance gain is also evident. As Exhibit III-24 shows, EL/RFEP students of the most recent cohort (i.e., the 1999-2002 grade 2-5 cohort) in *continuing-bilingual* and in *never-bilingual* schools improved their reading performance in 74 points, or 13 percent in relation to their 1998 reading performance level.

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[25] Exhibit 29 to 37 in the Technical Appendix present these data in graphic form. The upward slope of the line in these graphs shows that the reading proficiency of EO and EL/RFEP students improved year by year,

Exhibit III-24: Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1998-2001 Grades 3-6, Cohort 1998-2002 Grades 2-6, and Cohort 1999-2002 Grades 2-5

	1998 - Grade 3			2001 - Grade 6					
Reading	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO Gain ('98–'01)	EL/RFEP Gain ('98–'01)	Gap change ('98–'01)
Continuing-bilingual	598	563	35	662	637	24	64	74	-10
Transitioning-from-bilingual	595	564	32	660	636	24	65	72	-8
Never-bilingual	614	575	39	669	641	28	55	66	-11

	1998 - Grade 2			2002 - Grade 6					
Reading	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO Gain ('98–'02)	EL/RFEP Gain ('98–'02)	Gap change ('98–'02)
Continuing-bilingual	569	536	34	665	639	25	95	104	-8
Transitioning-from-bilingual	567	537	30	661	639	22	94	102	-8
Never-bilingual	583	551	32	670	642	28	86	91	-5

	1999 - Grade 2			2002 - Grade 5					
Reading	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO Gain ('99–'02)	EL/RFEP Gain ('99–'02)	Gap change ('99–'02)
Continuing-bilingual	574	542	32	648	623	25	74	80	-7
Transitioning-from-bilingual	574	542	32	648	625	23	74	83	-9
Never-bilingual	590	557	33	661	631	30	72	74	-3

EL/RFEP students in the 1998–2001 grade 3–6 cohort experienced the highest reading test score percentage gain in never-bilingual schools, while EO students in this cohort had a higher gain in transitioning-from-bilingual schools.

Examining Math Performance by Cohorts and School Instructional Model Typology

Exhibit III-25 shows the results of the math test score cohort analysis. The main difference between this analysis and the one of the reading test scores is that, despite the overall improvement in math performance of EO and EL/RFEP students, no clear pattern of the math performance gap evolution between these two groups of students is evident.[26] The last column of Exhibit III-25 presents these changes in the math performance gap between EO and EL/RFEP students.

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[26] See Exhibits 38 to 46 in the Technical Appendix for the graphical representation of the data in Exhibit III-25.

Exhibit III-25: Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1998-2001 Grades 3-6, Cohort 1998-2002 Grades 2-6, and Cohort 1999-2002 Grades 2-5

Math	1998 - Grade 3			2001 - Grade 6			EO Gain ('98–'01)	EL/RFEP Gain ('98–'01)	Gap change ('98–'01)
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap			
Continuing-bilingual	583	567	16	666	650	16	83	83	0
Transitioning-from-bilingual	583	568	15	665	648	18	82	80	3
Never-bilingual	599	578	22	674	651	23	74	73	1

Math	1998 - Grade 2			2002 - Grade 6			EO Gain ('98–'02)	EL/RFEP Gain ('98–'02)	Gap change ('98–'02)
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap			
Continuing-bilingual	560	543	17	672	653	19	112	110	2
Transitioning-from-bilingual	559	544	15	669	653	16	110	108	1
Never-bilingual	573	552	21	676	654	22	103	102	1

Math	1999 - Grade 2			2002 - Grade 5			EO Gain ('99–'02)	EL/RFEP Gain ('99–'02)	Gap change ('99–'02)
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap			
Continuing-bilingual	567	551	16	648	633	15	82	82	-1
Transitioning-from-bilingual	567	551	16	649	635	14	82	84	-2
Never-bilingual	582	560	22	662	642	19	80	82	-2

Demographic Differences among Student Populations Served by the Three Types of Schools

To provide context for the performance differences observed for both EOs and EL/RFEPs across the three instructional model types, we considered the demographic profiles of the schools in each of those types. We computed the percent of students receiving free or reduced lunch, the average percent of English learners by school, the percent Spanish speakers of the English learners' population, and average school size by instructional model type. As Exhibit III-26 shows, the concentration of English learners is significantly greater in *continuing-bilingual* and *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools than in *never-bilingual*. *Continuing-bilingual* schools have almost twice the percent of students receiving free or reduced lunch in comparison to never-bilingual schools. This indicates that important socioeconomic status (SES) differences exist among English learners populations, and therefore that overall performance across the three instructional model types cannot reasonably be compared without taking the important contextual factor into account.

Exhibit III-26: Demographic School and Students' Characteristics by Instructional Model Type

	Continuing-Bilingual	*Transitioning-from-Bilingual*	*Never-Bilingual*
Percent of Students Receiving Free or Reduced Lunch	75.9%	73.5%	40.1%
Percent English Learners	51.7%	43.8%	19.7%
Percent Spanish Speakers of the English Learners' Population	91.9%	91.6%	69.3%
Average School Size	934	1,001	1,368

Approach 4. California Standards Test Analyses

California established performance standards in 2001 for the California Standards Tests (CST) in English Language Arts (ELA) and in 2002 for the CST in mathematics. These tests differ from the SAT-9 in that they are explicitly aligned to California's content standards in these subjects and are criterion-referenced. The CSTs thus offer a slightly different view of student achievement in the state, one that is important both because the measures are designed to be aligned with the instructional goals for all students and for which California schools are held accountable, and because the tests will continue to be administered in future years. With only two years of ELA scores and one year of mathematics scores, at present the CST data allow only a broad "baseline" description of EO and EL/RFEP performance and provide minimal information about student gains over time. These results are presented below. Further analyses of trends in CST performance will be conducted in Year 4 of the evaluation.

Overall Results

Performance of individual students on the CSTs is reported on a 5-point scale, ranging from far below basic (1) to advanced (5); and group scores are reported as the percentage of students performing at each level. As with the SAT-9 analysis, student-level scores and background data provided by the California Department of Education were used to create aggregate measures of performance for English Only (EO) students and current and former English learners (EL/RFEP). We present the percentages of EO and EL/RFEP students scoring at proficient (4) or advanced (5) on these tests. Exhibit III-27 presents results for students in grades 2 through 11 on the CST-ELA in 2001 and 2002, and Exhibit III-28 presents results for students in grades 2 through 7 on the mathematics standards tests in 2002.[27] For all charts in this section, numerical counts as well as disaggregated scores by language classification are displayed in Exhibits 51 through 58 in the Technical Appendix.

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[27] In each of grades 2 through 7, all students take a grade-specific CST mathematics test. In higher grades, students take a test aligned with the content of the particular mathematics classes they are taking (for example, 8th grade general mathematics, algebra, geometry, or integrated mathematics). Because differing proportions of

Exhibit III-27: Percentage of Students Scoring Proficient or Above on the California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000-01 and 2001-02)

Grade	2000-01			2001-02			Change in Gap
	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	
2	39.5%	12.1%	27.4	38.1%	13.8%	24.4	-3.0
3	38.7%	11.3%	27.4	41.1%	14.5%	26.6	-0.9
4	38.8%	11.8%	26.9	40.6%	14.4%	26.2	-0.7
5	35.5%	9.9%	25.7	37.0%	11.9%	25.2	-0.5
6	37.8%	10.9%	26.9	36.4%	11.3%	25.0	-1.9
7	36.1%	11.1%	25.0	36.2%	12.8%	23.5	-1.6
8	39.0%	11.2%	27.8	38.2%	12.1%	26.0	-1.8
9	34.0%	9.0%	25.0	36.2%	11.6%	24.7	-0.3
10	35.8%	10.4%	25.4	35.9%	11.7%	24.2	-1.2
11	32.0%	10.1%	21.9	32.3%	11.5%	20.8	-1.1

Exhibit III-28: Percentage of Students Scoring Proficient or Above on the California Standards Test of Mathematics (2001-02)

Grade	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap
2	49.4%	27.0%	22.4
3	43.5%	23.7%	19.7
4	41.2%	22.8%	18.4
5	34.0%	16.8%	17.2
6	37.1%	18.3%	18.8
7	31.8%	15.7%	16.2

For each of the three sets of CST scores shown above (ELA 2001, ELA 2002, and mathematics 2002), the patterns of performance are similar to those reported for the within-grade and cohort analyses of SAT-9 scores. A substantially larger percentage of EO students scored at or above the proficiency level than did EL/RFEP students for all years and grades of CST scores considered. Also, the gaps between EO and EL/RFEP scores are fairly consistent throughout the grades in each set of scores. For ELA scores, that gap hovers in the mid-twenties for both years, with no apparent trend in the gap other than a consistent lessening of the gap in the 11th grades of both years caused by a sharp drop in EO performance in both 2001 and 2002. For mathematics scores, the gap for the grades studied is generally in the high teens, with a slight decreasing trend in the gap from the second through seventh grades (sixth grade is the exception).

EL/RFEP and EO students may be enrolled in these classes, interpretation of group scores is complicated. More detailed analyses of secondary mathematics results will be pursued in Year 4.

While the mathematics scores will serve as a baseline for future analyses, the presence of two consecutive years of ELA scores allows for some consideration of the direction and quantity of changes in the scores and gaps for ELA. Between 2001 and 2002, the percentage of EO students scoring at or above the proficiency level on the ELA CST increased by more than one percentage point in four of the ten grades studied, increased by less than a half percentage point in three of the grades, and decreased in the remaining three grades. For the EL/RFEP students, on the other hand, the ELA CST scores increased in all ten grades. In eight of the ten grades, that increase was greater than one percentage point. While none of the increases or decreases in either category was greater than three percentage points, the net effect was a slight closing of the gap between the EO and EL/RFEP proficiency percentages in all ten grades examined. Though this is an encouraging trend, these gap closures are fairly small, ranging from as little as 0.3 percentage points (9th grade) to 3.0 points (2nd grade). Also, there is no clear pattern in the amount of gap change from grade to grade, particularly when one considers that in a few of the grades the drop in EO performance contributed substantially to the gap closure (e.g., 2nd grade, 6th grade, and 8th grade).

Results by School Instructional Model Typology

Paralleling our analysis of SAT-9 scores, we report CST results separately for students in schools providing "substantial" L_1 instruction (i.e., those that offer primary language instruction to more than 50 percent of their ELs) and schools not providing "substantial" L_1 instruction in the year the test was administered.[28] Exhibit III-29 presents the average results on the ELA standards test for students in "substantial" L_1 schools and Exhibit III-30 presents the average ELA test results for students in "not substantial" L_1 schools. The average results on the mathematics standards test for students in "substantial" L_1 and "not substantial" L_1 schools are presented in Exhibit III-31. In all of the tables below "substantial" L_1 is defined as offering primary language instruction to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school in the given year.[29]

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[28] Because the CSTs have only recently been implemented, we divide schools into two groups according to the percentage of EL students they enrolled in alternative courses of study in 2001 or 2002, rather than according to the "continuing-bilingual," "transitioning from bilingual" and "never bilingual" classifications used for the SAT-9 trend analyses. This allows us to consider the performance of students in all the schools in operation now rather than excluding from the analysis students enrolled in schools for which instructional approach information is missing for 1997-98.

[29] See Exhibits 48-50 in the Technical Appendix for a display of the same data using a cut point of equal to or greater than 25 percent of students offered primary instruction to define *substantial L_1*.

Exhibit III-29: Percentage of Students Scoring Proficient or Above on the California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000–01 and 2001–02) in "Substantial" L_1 Schools

Grade	2000-01			2001-02			Change in Gap
	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	
2	26.2%	5.5%	20.8	25.0%	5.9%	19.1	-1.6
3	25.0%	5.9%	19.1	28.6%	7.5%	21.1	2.0
4	26.1%	7.0%	19.1	28.1%	8.8%	19.2	0.1
5	24.1%	6.5%	17.6	25.2%	7.3%	17.9	0.3
6	28.3%	8.2%	20.1	29.7%	8.3%	21.4	1.3
7	36.6%	10.6%	26.0	29.8%	7.9%	21.9	-4.1
8	42.7%	12.4%	30.4	32.3%	8.1%	24.2	-6.1
9	32.3%	13.4%	18.9	16.4%	1.7%	14.7	-4.3
10	32.5%	16.7%	15.9	12.4%	1.6%	10.9	-5.0
11	25.5%	12.9%	12.5	10.4%	0.3%	10.2	-2.4

"Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02

Exhibit III-30: Percentage of Students Scoring Proficient or Above on the California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000–01 and 2001–02) in "Not Substantial" L_1 Schools

Grade	2000-01			2001-02			Change in Gap
	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	
2	40.2%	13.1%	27.2	38.8%	14.8%	24.0	-3.2
3	39.5%	12.1%	27.4	41.7%	15.4%	26.3	-1.1
4	39.4%	12.5%	26.9	41.2%	15.1%	26.1	-0.8
5	36.1%	10.4%	25.8	37.5%	12.4%	25.1	-0.6
6	38.0%	11.0%	26.9	36.5%	11.5%	25.0	-1.9
7	36.1%	11.1%	25.0	36.3%	12.8%	23.5	-1.5
8	38.9%	11.1%	27.8	38.2%	12.2%	26.1	-1.7
9	34.0%	8.9%	25.1	36.3%	11.6%	24.7	-0.3
10	35.9%	10.4%	25.5	36.0%	11.7%	24.3	-1.2
11	32.1%	10.1%	22.0	32.4%	11.5%	20.9	-1.1

"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to 50 percent or less of EL students in the school in 2001-02

Exhibit III-31: Percentage of Students Scoring Proficient or Above on the California Standards Test of Mathematics (2001–02)

Grade	"Substantial" L_1 Instruction			"Not Substantial" L_1 Instruction		
	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap
2	36.8%	19.6%	17.1	50.1%	28.0%	22.0
3	31.7%	16.3%	15.4	44.0%	24.7%	19.4
4	29.1%	16.2%	12.9	41.8%	23.7%	18.1
5	22.5%	10.6%	11.8	34.5%	17.5%	16.9
6	30.8%	15.0%	15.8	37.2%	18.4%	18.8
7	25.7%	11.0%	14.7	31.9%	15.7%	16.2

"Substantial" L_1:	Primary language instruction offered to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02
"Not Substantial" L_1:	Primary language instruction offered to 50 percent or less of EL students in the school in 2001-02

Patterns of performance on the CST for students in both instructional settings are still similar to those reported for the within-grade and cohort analyses of SAT-9 scores. In both "substantial" L_1 and "not substantial" L_1 schools and for all grades shown, more EO students than EL/RFEP students scored at the proficient or above levels in ELA in 2001 and 2002 and in mathematics in 2002. In addition, fewer EL/RFEP and EO students in "substantial" L_1 schools scored at proficient or above than their counterparts in "not substantial" L_1 schools. In fact, in grades 2 through 6, the gap between EOs across these school types is two to four times greater than the gap between EL/RFEPs for both language arts and mathematics. As discussed earlier in the chapter, these differences cannot be attributed solely to differences in instructional approach because the schools differ in other important ways such as the overall percentage of ELs they serve and the average poverty level of the school's enrollment. In addition, the scores of EL students being served through the particular instructional approaches could not be disaggregated.

As in the case of the SAT-9 results, EL/RFEP students generally showed some improvement in ELA performance between 2001 and 2002, and the performance gap between EO and EL/RFEP students narrowed slightly in most grades. Over this period, the percentage of students scoring at proficient or above in ELA in "not substantial" L_1 schools increased for EO students in seven of the ten grades tested and for EL/RFEP there was an increase in all ten grades. The percentage of students scoring at proficient or above in ELA in "substantial" L_1 schools increased for EO students in four of the ten grades examined and for EL/RFEP there was in increase in five of the ten grades. One important point to keep in mind when viewing the results of the "substantial" L_1 schools, however, is that there is a significant drop-off in the numbers of students represented in the data, most noticeably between fifth and sixth grades and then again between sixth and seventh grades (see Technical Appendix, Exhibit 53). The average number of EO students tested in grades two through six for 2001 is 12,744 and for 2002 is 11,000. The average number of EO students tested in grades seven through eleven, on the other hand, is 2662 for 2001 and 1758 for 2002. The same striking difference is true for the EL/RFEP students. The average number of EL/RFEP students tested in grades two through six in 2001 is 18,710 and in 2002 is

17,180, whereas the average number for grades seven through eleven in 2001 is 1290 and in 2002 is 650. Ultimately, such numbers contribute to dramatic swings such as that seen for the eleventh grade EL/RFEP students in "substantial" L_1 schools. Between 2001 and 2002, the percentage of these students scoring at proficient or above dropped from 12.9 percent to 0.3 percent. The 2002 percentage is based on the scores of 345 students of whom one tested proficient.

In short, preliminary results from CST indicate that while growth has occurred in California schools, regardless of instructional approach, there is room for improvement in the performance of both EO and EL/RFEP students and in the reduction of the gap between EO and EL/RFEP performance.

Approach 5. California English Language Development Test Analyses

Background

This year's report introduces preliminary analyses of the California English Language Development Test (CELDT). Implemented in the 2001-2002 school year, CELDT is an English language proficiency assessment based on California's K-12 English Language Development (ELD) standards. It is administered each year to all California students previously identified as English learners (ELs), as well as to newly identified language-minority students, whose English proficiency is assessed for possible EL status. The test is used to determine limited English proficiency, assess progress, and indicate attainment of English proficiency.

The CELDT measures three sub-skill areas: listening and speaking; reading, and writing. An overall proficiency level is calculated by weighting scores from these three sub-skill areas.[30] In addition, four different test forms are employed, corresponding to four designated grade spans: K–2, 3–5, 6–8, and 9–12. Test results for each sub-skill and for overall proficiency are presented in scaled scores and proficiency levels. While CELDT scaled scores are equated *within* each grade span, they are not vertically equated *across* grade spans. That is, scaled score comparisons cannot be made among students taking different test forms. However, the five proficiency levels have been calibrated by the test publisher in order to be equivalent in meaning across grade spans. Moreover, the overall proficiency scores, which combine the three sub-skill areas, are considered by CDE to be the most reliable for comparative purposes. For this reason, only overall proficiency level results are used in our analyses.

Students previously identified by districts as English learners take the "annual" version of the CELDT. Newly identified language-minority students (i.e., those indicating a home language other than or in addition to English) are given the "initial" version of the CELDT within 30 calendar days of enrolling in a California public school. Therefore, initial CELDT-takers are more likely to be new to the school system, and many of these students

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[30]The listening and speaking portion is weighted 50 percent, while reading and writing are each weighted 25 percent. Currently, kindergartners and 1st grade students are assessed only in listening and speaking, which therefore constitutes their entire overall proficiency rating.

are in fact kindergartners and/or recent immigrants. Because of this, results from the initial CELDT likely represent students' initial English proficiency levels upon entering California public schools.[31]

CELDT data also include several demographic and instructional background variables. Among these are the number of years the student has been enrolled in California or U.S. schools, the grade at which the student became continuously enrolled in his current school and district, the type of language instruction the student receives, the student's primary language, and (for 2002 annual CELDT-takers) the student's prior CELDT scores. However, demographic data from the first two years of CELDT administration are far from complete, and data for 2002 initial CELDT-takers are not yet available. Consequently, this year's analysis of CELDT results will be largely descriptive, offering a preliminary overview of English learner performance using the 2001 initial and 2001and 2002 annual CELDT results. More detailed analyses of CELDT results will be presented in future reports.

Distribution of Initial and Annual CELDT-Takers in 2001

Exhibit III-32 displays the distribution of students who took the initial or annual CELDT in 2001 by grade. Of all students administered the CELDT in 2001, just under 30 percent took the initial test, while more than 70 percent took the annual test. For most grade levels, 82 to 86 percent of students took the annual CELDT in 2001. Two exceptions to this pattern were kindergartners and 9th graders: All of the former and 30 percent of the latter took the initial CELDT. While it is obvious that kindergarten students are by definition initial – in fact, half of all initial CELDT-takers are kindergartners – it is likely that 9th graders contained a higher proportion of newly enrolling high school students and transfers from other districts and states without prior language assessment records. Because many of these students may actually have been in California schools for some time, caution is required in interpreting initial CELDT results from this first year of implementation.

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[31] Note, however, that in the first CELDT administration, students with no prior history of English proficiency assessment were given the "initial" test. This included an unknown number of students transferring between California schools without records, as well as students with missing or lost records.

Exhibit III-32: Percentage of Students Taking 2001 Initial and Annual CELDT, by Grade

	2001 Initial		2001 Annual		Total
	Number of students	Percentage of students	Number of students	Percentage of students	Total number of students
K	260,024	100.0%		0.0%	260,024
1	35,637	18.2%	159,986	81.8%	195,623
2	26,432	13.7%	166,679	86.3%	193,111
3	24,685	13.6%	156,520	86.4%	181,205
4	22,868	14.5%	135,134	85.5%	158,002
5	21,072	14.3%	125,877	85.7%	146,949
6	20,077	15.6%	108,263	84.4%	128,340
7	19,069	17.1%	92,351	82.9%	111,420
8	16,085	15.8%	85,456	84.2%	101,541
9	32,184	31.1%	71,239	68.9%	103,423
10	15,294	18.4%	67,735	81.6%	83,029
11	11,341	17.4%	53,768	82.6%	65,109
12	6,549	14.3%	39,288	85.7%	45,837
Total	511,317	28.8%	1,262,296	71.2%	1,773,613

English Language Proficiency Levels of Students on 2001 and 2002 CELDT

The CELDT delineates performance using five proficiency levels: Beginning, Early Intermediate, Intermediate, Early Advanced, and Advanced. Exhibits III-33 through III-36 display the percentage of students at each overall proficiency level for all students who took the 2001 CELDT (including both initial and annual), those who took the 2001 initial CELDT, those who took the 2001 annual CELDT, and those who took the 2002 annual CELDT. Although we present data for all CELDT-takers as a point of reference regarding overall performance, because the initial and annual test takers are so different, we believe that interpretive analyses should primarily be based on results disaggregated by these two sub-populations.

Exhibit III-33: 2001 All CELDT-Takers – Percentage of Students at Different Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	Number of students	Percentage of students
Beginning	300,353	16.9%
Early Intermediate	400,246	22.6%
Intermediate	639,892	36.1%
Early Advanced	347,626	19.6%
Advanced	85,496	4.8%
Total	1,773,613	
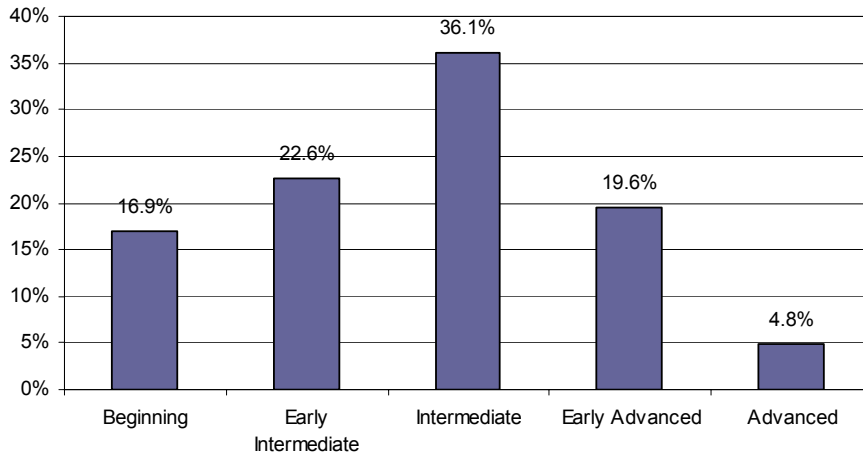
Exhibit III-34: 2001 Initial CELDT-Takers – Percentage of Students at Different Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	Number of students	Percentage of students
Beginning	155,798	30.5%
Early Intermediate	111,922	21.9%
Intermediate	130,569	25.5%
Early Advanced	82,366	16.1%
Advanced	30,662	6.0%
Total	511,317	
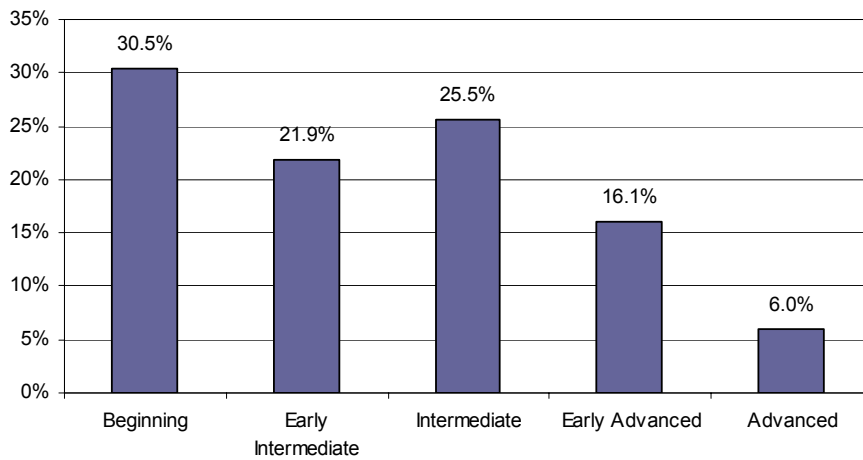
Exhibit III-35: 2001 Annual CELDT-Takers – Percentage of Students at Different Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	Number of students	Percentage of students
Beginning	144,555	11.5%
Early Intermediate	288,324	22.8%
Intermediate	509,323	40.3%
Early Advanced	265,260	21.0%
Advanced	54,834	4.3%
Total	1,262,296	
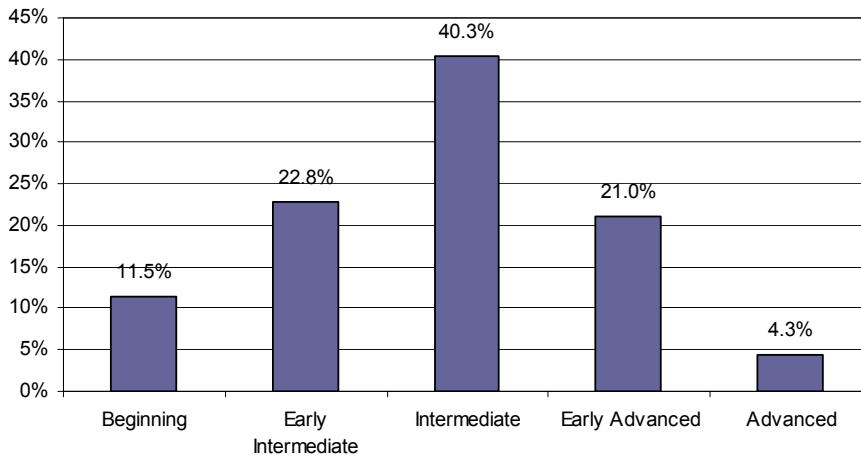
Exhibit III-36: 2002 Annual CELDT-Takers – Percentage of Students at Different Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	Number of students	Percentage of students
Beginning	124,177	9.6%
Early Intermediate	248,578	19.2%
Intermediate	476,737	36.8%
Early Advanced	326,671	25.2%
Advanced	120,889	9.3%
Total	1,297,052	
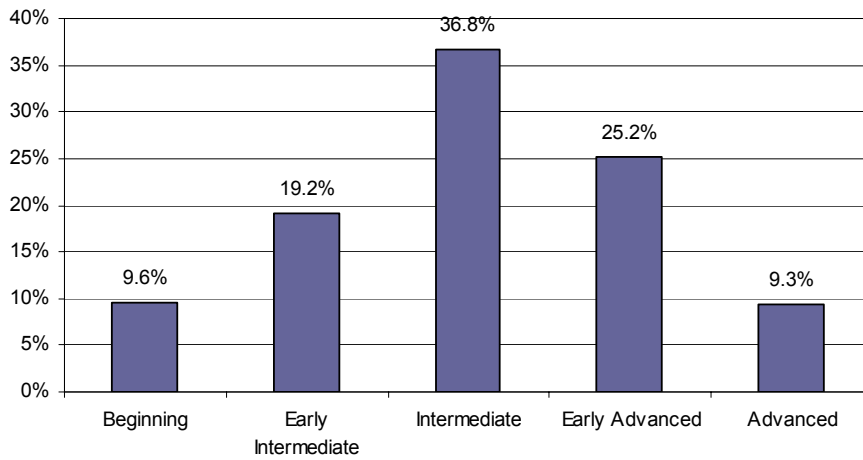
As Exhibit III-33 indicates, almost 40 percent of all 2001 CELDT-takers are below Intermediate, while about 25 percent of them are at Early Advanced or Advanced. Given the profile of initial CELDT-takers described above, it is not surprising that, when considered separately, a much greater proportion of initial CELDT-takers (52.4 percent) are below Intermediate, and that almost twice as many of them (over 30 percent) score at the Beginning level (see Exhibit III-34).

In sharp contrast to initial CELDT-takers, only 11.5 percent of the 2001 annual CELDT-takers score at Beginning, while just over 40 percent are at Intermediate, and about one-quarter are at Early Advanced or above. Moreover, the percentage of the 2002 annual CELDT-takers scoring at Early Advanced and Advanced increases from 25.3 to 34.5 percent when compared to 2001 annual results. While this is a promising change, two key factors need to be remembered in interpreting these results. First, student performance on standardized tests tends to improve after the first administration due to students' increasing familiarity with the test.[32] Second, as discussed later in this chapter, it appears that EL students were redesignated at lower rates in 2002 compared to 2001.[33] Since redesignated students leave the pool of CELDT-takers, a proportional decrease in redesignation could have the effect of keeping students at higher English proficiency levels in the test-taking population and thus could contribute to the increasing percentage of high-scoring CELDT-takers. For these reasons, it may be difficult to determine the extent to which these increases in CELDT scores over time indicate true improvement of EL students' English language proficiency in California. Additional years of CELDT data will help to clarify the patterns observed so far.

Years 2001 CELDT-Takers Have Been Enrolled in California Schools

The 2001 CELDT data include information about the number of years that students have been enrolled in California schools. The information is recorded categorically, from "less than one year" to "five or more years." As indicated earlier, about 11 percent of the 2001 initial CELDT-takers and about 31 percent of the 2001 annual CELDT-takers are missing data for this variable. Additionally, students with implausible values were also removed from the analysis.[34]

Exhibits III-37 and III-38 show the percentage of students by years enrolled in California schools for both the 2001 initial and the 2001 annual CELDT data.

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[32] See Hakuta (1999).
[33] ELs are redesignated to fluent English proficient (RFEP) status based on English language proficiency and performance in grade level academic subjects using English. Additional factors (local assessments, teacher judgment, parental input) are also considered.
[34] 965 initial and 3,687 annual CELDT-takers were removed. See Methodological Note 9 in Technical Appendix for more information on procedures used.

Exhibit III-37: 2001 Initial CELDT– Percentage of Students Enrolled in CA Schools, by Number of Years

Number of Years enrolled in CA schools	Number of students	Percentage of students
Less than 1 year	326,353	71.9%
1 year	30,904	6.8%
2 years	17,072	3.8%
3 years	13,792	3.0%
4 years	11,783	2.6%
5 years*	53,833	11.9%
Total	453,737	

*11 percent of 2001 Initial CELDT-takers have missing data.
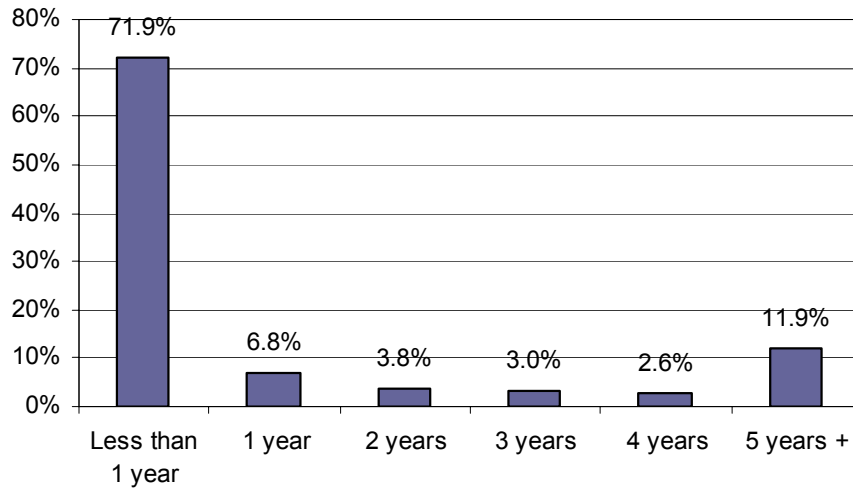
Exhibit III-38: 2001 Annual CELDT– Percentage of Students Enrolled in CA Schools, by Number of Years

Number of Years enrolled in CA schools	Number of students	Percentage of students
Less than 1 year	48,841	5.6%
1 year	146,272	16.8%
2 years	144,299	16.6%
3 years	120,881	13.9%
4 years	98,991	11.4%
5 years +	309,658	35.6%
Total	868,942	
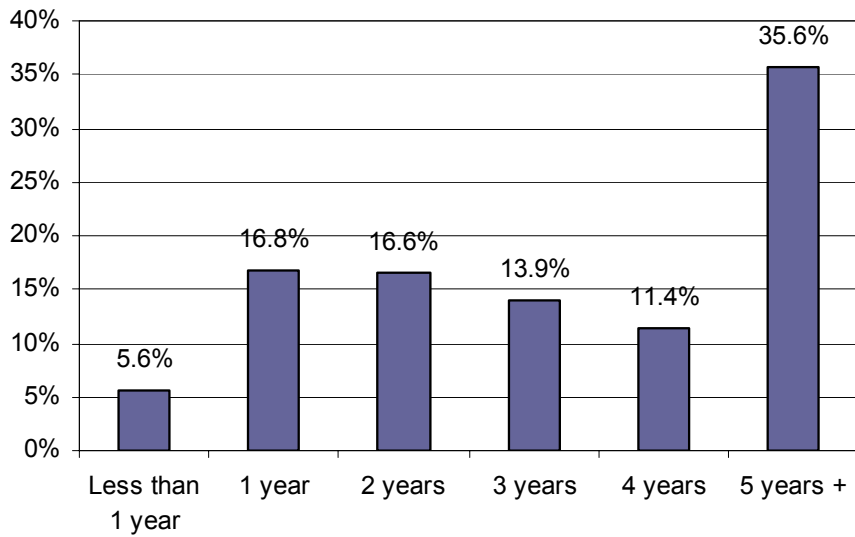
Among 2001 initial CELDT-takers, about 72 percent had been enrolled in California schools for less than one year. It should be noted that approximately half of all 2001 initial CELDT-takers are kindergartners, and about 70 percent of the students enrolled for less than one year are kindergarteners. However, about 12 percent of initial CELDT-takers were enrolled in California schools for five or more years and still had not been redesignated.

Of the 2001 annual CELDT-takers, almost 36 percent have been enrolled in California schools for five or more years and have not been redesignated. As noted in our survey results from last year's report, school and district administrators reported that the large majority of EL students who are redesignated take more than three years to do so. They also reported that it is ELs' academic performance in core subjects – even more than their English proficiency – that keeps them from being redesignated. It is clear that a large percentage of students remain English learners for several years, and as shown below, a small but notable percentage of these continue taking CELDT even after reaching the English proficient level, perhaps due to not meeting academic criteria for redesignation.

Percentage of EL Students Meeting California's English Language Proficiency Standard in 2001 and 2002

In new reclassification guidelines adopted in September 2002, the California State Board of Education began requiring use of the CELDT to assess English language proficiency. The Board defined the performance standard for "English proficient" as Early Advanced or above for overall proficiency, with each of three sub-skill areas (listening and speaking; reading, and writing) at Intermediate or above[35].

Among the 2001 and 2002 annual CELDT-takers, approximately 24 percent and 32 percent, respectively, met the Board's definition of English proficiency. Although there is an 8 percent increase from 2001 to 2002, it is important to remember the caveats mentioned earlier when interpreting these results: performance on standardized tests tends to improve after the first administration due to students' increasing familiarity with the test, and it appears that EL students were redesignated at lower rates in 2002 compared to 2001, potentially keeping students at higher English proficiency levels in the test-taking population.

Exhibits III-39 and III-40 display the percentages of 2001 and 2002 annual CELDT-takers who met the English proficient definition by years enrolled in California or U.S. schools.[36] As with the 2001 CELDT, the 2002 annual CELDT has a substantial percentage of students missing demographic data; in fact, almost 50 percent of 2002 annual CELDT-takers lack information on this variable. And as in 2001, students with implausible values were also removed from the analysis.[37]

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[35] Since students in kindergarten and 1st grade take only the listening and speaking section, their English Language Proficiency is determined solely based on this score.

[36] In 2001, the CELDT collected data on years in California schools; in 2002, these data were collected on years in US schools.

[37] In 2002, 4,107 annual CELDT-takers were removed from the analyses because of implausible values. See Methodological Note 9 in Technical Appendix for more information on procedures used.

Exhibit III-39: 2001 Annual CELDT-Takers – Percentage of Students Meeting English Language Proficiency, by Years Enrolled in California Schools

Years enrolled in CA schools	Number of students	Percentage of students	Total number of students
Less than 1 year	5,917	12.1%	48,841
1 year	23,900	16.3%	146,272
2 years	21,738	15.1%	144,299
3 years	16,449	13.6%	120,881
4 years	19,935	20.1%	98,991
5 years +	110,949	35.8%	309,658
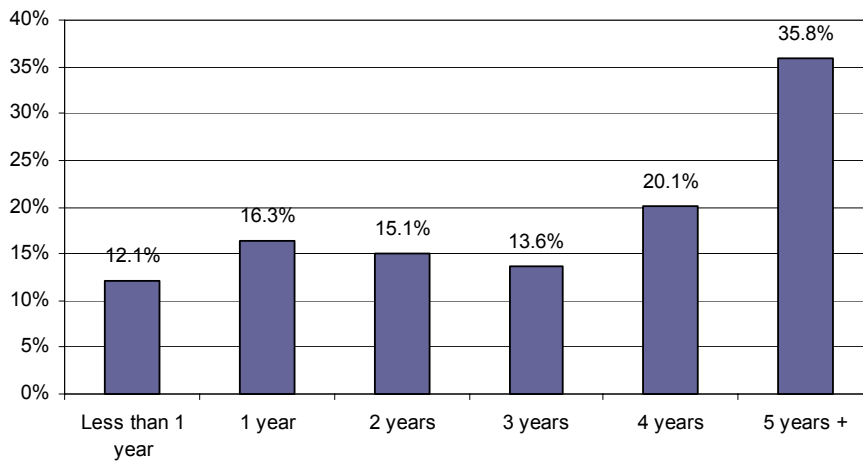
Exhibit III-40: 2002 Annual CELDT-Takers: Percentage of Students Meeting English Language Proficiency, by Years Enrolled in U.S. Schools

Years enrolled in U.S. schools	Number of students	Percentage of students	Total number of students
Less than 1 year	8,606	21.7%	39,710
1 year	30,163	25.1%	120,255
2 years	20,721	19.9%	103,869
3 years	18,125	20.8%	87,227
4 years	21,535	30.6%	70,310
5 years +	111,927	47.4%	236,273
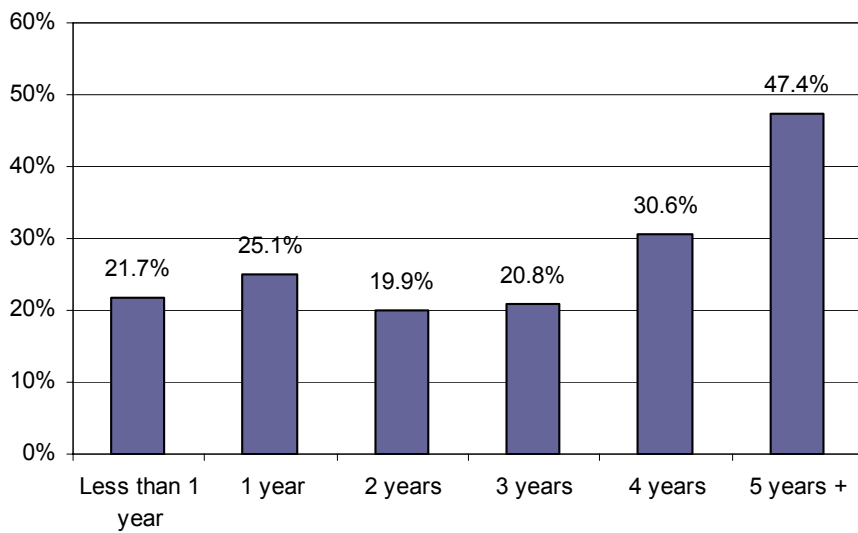
Exhibit III-39 shows that about 12 percent of 2001 annual CELDT-takers who have been enrolled in California schools for less than one year meet the English proficient standard. Around 15 percent of those who have been enrolled in California schools for one, two, or three 3 years meet the standard, as do 20 percent of those enrolled four years. Furthermore, the percentage increases to about 36 percent for students enrolled in California schools for five or more years, which, as noted earlier, is where many ELs cluster.

Exhibit III-40 shows a similar pattern for 2002 annual CELDT-takers, although U.S. schools are used instead of California schools. The percentages stay around 20 to 25 percent for those who have been enrolled in U.S. schools for one, two, or three years, then increase to 30 percent for those in U.S. schools for four years. Finally, nearly half of those enrolled in U.S. schools for five or more years meet the English proficient standard.

When comparing the percentage of students meeting the English proficient level on the 2001 and 2002 annual CELDT by years enrolled in California or U.S. schools, the 2002 administration shows consistently higher percentages across all years-of-enrollment values. While this progress is promising, interpretation of these results is somewhat ambiguous. As mentioned earlier, students become familiar with a test after its first administration and their scores tend to improve.[38] Additionally, as discussed later in this chapter, fewer EL students were redesignated in 2002 compared to 2001; hence students at higher proficient levels remained as ELs and took the annual CELDT in 2002.

Percentage of EL Students Making Progress on the CELDT

In addition to meeting the standard for English proficiency, students may also make progress along the entire continuum of English language development. In this section, we examine progress that students have made toward the English Proficient level. To do this, analyses were conducted on the matched score data set of 862,004 students with CELDT results for both 2001 and 2002.[39]

For this analysis, "progress" is defined utilizing the definition recently adopted by the California State Board of Education to comply with No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Title III regulations. That is, students are considered to be making progress if they 1) improve at least one proficiency level from 2001 to 2002, or 2) meet or maintain the English proficient level (as defined above) in 2002. Thus, credit for progress is given to those students who "cross the finish line" to English proficiency for the first time, and to those who "stay across the finish line" when they retake CELDT.

By this definition, about 56 percent of those students with prior CELDT scores made progress from 2001 to 2002. Exhibit III-41 displays the percentage of students who made progress by number of years enrolled in U.S. schools.

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[38] See Hakuta (1999).

[39] Of the 1,297,052 students who took the 2002 annual CELDT, approximately 20 percent (261,192) are missing prior CELDT scores. In addition, following CDE conventions, students receiving exemptions from the listening & speaking portion of the CELDT and those retained in grade from 2001 to 2002 were also excluded.

Exhibit III-41: Percentage of Students Who Made Progress from 2001 to 2002, by Years Enrolled in U.S. Schools

Years enrolled in U.S. schools	Number of students	Percentage of students	Total number of students
Less than 1 year	11,933	56.1%	21,275
1 year	44,098	63.8%	69,164
2 years	31,034	45.9%	67,662
3 years	28,483	45.7%	62,361
4 years	31,508	62.7%	50,257
5 years +	88,282	60.6%	145,579
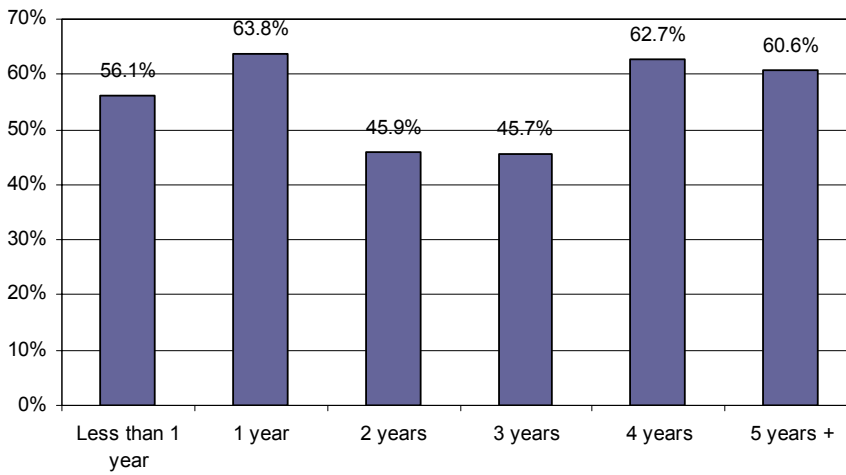
Students who have been enrolled in U.S. schools for one year made more progress than other students, followed by those who have been enrolled for four or for five or more years. Students who have been enrolled for two years or for three years showed smaller percentages (almost 46 percent) making progress than the other groups. However, about 52 percent of students who have been enrolled in U.S. schools for two years are in 2nd grade, and approximately 57 percent of students who have been enrolled for three years are in 3rd grade. It is worth noting that 2nd graders take the CELDT reading and writing subtests for the first time, while 3rd graders cross from the K–2 to the 3–5 grade span and receive a different test form. In both instances, these students are presented with much more challenging test material than they had encountered in the previous year, and therefore may be less likely to demonstrate progress.

EL Students' Initial English Proficiency Levels, Compared Between "Substantial" L$_1$ and "Not Substantial" L$_1$ Schools[40]

In last year's comparative analyses of academic performance gains between schools ever offering "substantial" L$_1$ instruction (whether they continued or transitioned from it) and those never offering "substantial" L$_1$ instruction, we noted substantial differences in these schools' levels of student poverty and EL concentrations.[41] This year, using 2001 initial CELDT data, we are able to consider whether these school types differ in the initial English proficiency of their newly arrived EL students. This is a potentially significant factor in predicting performance on academic assessments using English, and in predicting how long students will take to gain the English proficiency needed to demonstrate what they know on such assessments.

Exhibit III-42 shows proficiency levels for initial CELDT-takers at "substantial" L$_1$ and "not substantial" L$_1$ schools in 2001. As defined in the previous sections, "substantial" L$_1$ schools offered primary language instruction to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02.[42] Among 2001 Initial CELDT takers, about eight percent are in "substantial" L$_1$ schools and about 92 percent are in "not substantial" L$_1$ schools[43]. As shown, about 43 percent of EL students enter "substantial" L$_1$ schools at the Beginning level, compared to 29 percent in "not substantial" L$_1$ schools. Sixty-seven percent of newly entering EL students in "substantial" L$_1$ schools are below Intermediate, compared with about 50 percent of their counterparts in "not substantial" L$_1$ schools. Most strikingly, in 2001 the "not substantial" L$_1$ schools newly enrolled nearly *twice* as many ELs at the Early Advanced and Advanced levels relative to "substantial" L$_1$ schools (23.0 percent compared with 11.5 percent). These results demonstrate that the two types of schools start with different EL student populations. Not only do "substantial" L$_1$ schools have proportionally many more

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[40] As mentioned previously, "substantial" L$_1$ schools are defined as those offering primary language instruction to more than 50 percent of their EL students in the given year.

[41] *Never-bilingual* schools had half the student poverty level and half to one-third the concentration of ELs compared to *continuing-bilingual* and *transitioning-from-bilingual* schools.

[42] We also conducted the same analysis defining *substantial L$_1$* schools as schools offering primary language instruction to 25 percent or more of their EL students. The analysis results using this definition are similar to the results presented in this section and can be found in Exhibit 47 of the Technical Appendix.

[43] There are 227 2001 initial CELDT takers whose schools did not have EL students from 1991-92 through 2001-02 according to the California Language Census data. These students were excluded from the analysis, because they could have been classified as IFEP students.

EL students and students living in poverty, they also newly enroll EL students at all grade levels with lower initial English proficiency levels compared to "not substantial" L_1 schools.

Another interesting point of comparison between these two types of schools is the percentage of initial versus annual CELDT-takers. This provides an indication of the degree of stability among the EL populations being served at each kind of school. On this measure, the two types of schools show virtually identical ratios of initial to total CELDT test-takers: 30 percent for "substantial" L_1 schools and 29 percent for "not substantial" L_1 schools. In summary, although the stability in regard to new ELs is virtually identical across the two types of schools, the initial English proficiency of new ELs across the two school types is quite different.

Exhibit III-42: 2001 Initial CELDT: Percentage of Students, by Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	"Substantial" L_1		"Not Substantial" L_1	
	Number of students	Percentage of students	Number of students	Percentage of students
Beginning	18,231	42.6%	136,925	29.4%
Early Intermediate	10,610	24.8%	100,960	21.7%
Intermediate	9,077	21.2%	120,567	25.9%
Early Advanced	3,924	9.2%	77,595	16.7%
Advanced	966	2.3%	29,446	6.3%
Total	**42,808**		**465,493**	

"Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02

"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to 50 percent or less of EL students in the school in 2001-02
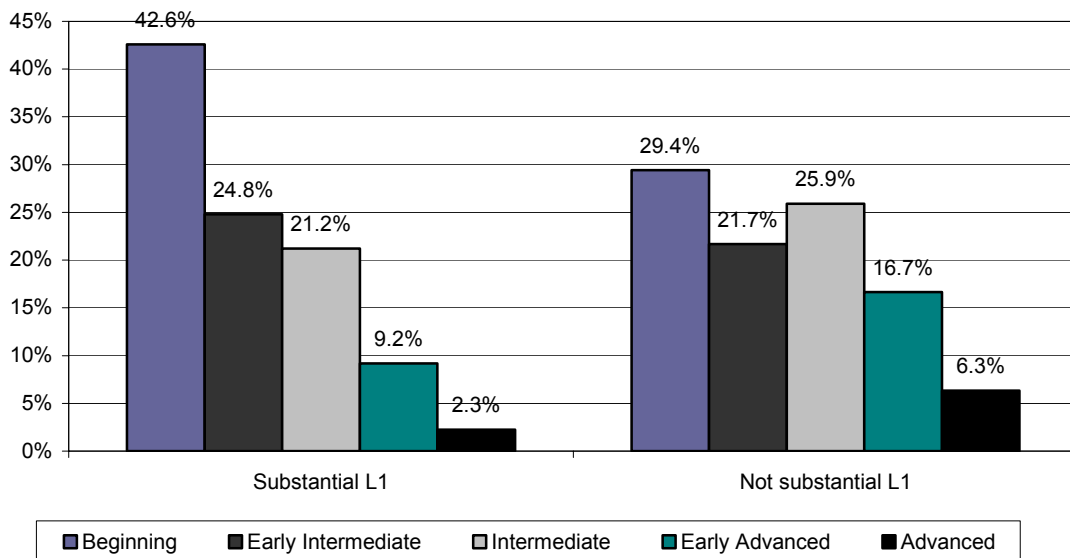
Approach 6. Student Redesignation Analyses

As noted earlier, redesignation refers to students' change in status from English Learner (EL) to fluent English proficient (RFEP) once they have met specific English language proficiency, academic achievement, and other criteria. The annual rate at which students move from EL to RFEP status – the redesignation rate – was often cited during the campaign for Proposition 227 and it remains a source of concern and confusion to this day. While classified as English learners, students must be provided with specialized instruction to help them attain English language proficiency and to gain meaningful access to core academic curriculum while learning English.

The criteria and procedures underlying student redesignation – and therefore school and district redesignation rates – vary widely across districts in ways that can significantly alter the meaning of redesignation and render district rates non-comparable. Historically, each school district has chosen its own language assessment instruments and set its own redesignation criteria within guidelines established by the state. While greater standardization has recently occurred with the California State Board of Education's adoption of new reclassification guidelines that require specified performance levels on the CELDT and the California Standards Test of English Language Arts, we still found evidence of significant district variation in redesignation criteria and procedures. These variations were in part due to (1) additional local criteria utilized, (2) teachers' perceptions of the impact of redesignation status on course placement (particularly at the secondary level), (3) the relative importance placed on redesignation as a success indicator, and (4) differences in staff resources to conduct reviews on a regular basis. (See Chapter IV, *Other Topics Related to Proposition 227 and Instruction of English Learners*, below, for further discussion.) Thus, analysis of redesignation rates, and interpretation of any patterns and changes, must be undertaken with caution.

Preliminary examination of statewide redesignation data from the Language Census for the past decade shows that school-level redesignation rates vary widely across schools and even within the same schools in different years. Research is needed to further explore what factors are contributing to such a variance, including what role instructional leadership, incentives and sanctions, and efficient procedures may be playing at both district and school site levels. As a first step, this year's analyses describe only state-level trends in redesignation.

As Exhibit III-43 demonstrates, the overall percentage of EL students redesignated each year rose gradually over the past decade from about 5 percent in 1992–93 to 9 percent in 2000–2001, then dropped to 7.8 percent in 2001–2002. Middle and high schools redesignate a larger proportion of their EL students than elementary schools. This is not surprising given that higher proportions of elementary students are at the earlier stages of English language development than are secondary school students and typically have spent fewer years in school. Among elementary and middle school students, the 10-year trend in redesignation rates is a gradual increase between 1992–93 and 1997–98, an accelerated increase in the 3 years following the passage of Proposition 227, and a drop-off in 2001– 2002, the year after CELDT testing began. The pattern for high school students is more erratic: a faster increase during the early years, followed by a decline in 1999–2000 and 2001–2002.

These statistics, along with data collected from site visits in the first year of the evaluation and this year, suggest that the passage of Proposition 227 may have resulted in somewhat greater effort being expended by schools in the years immediately following to review students for possible redesignation. In particular, many school and district informants suggested the Proposition "shone a spotlight" on EL students, and educators in all instructional programs were eager to demonstrate greater success using the broadly publicized redesignation statistic. Additionally, the years immediately following Proposition 227 also saw the introduction of state ELD standards and an increase in standards-based professional development in working with ELs. These data also seem to suggest that the introduction of the CELDT and the California Standards Test in 2001 may actually have reduced the proportion of students being redesignated. The latter hypothesis is based on a one-year dip in the redesignation rate; additional years of data will be needed to determine whether the decline is a one-year event or the beginning of a trend.

Exhibit III-43: Percentage of Students Redesignated Each Year, by School Level[44]

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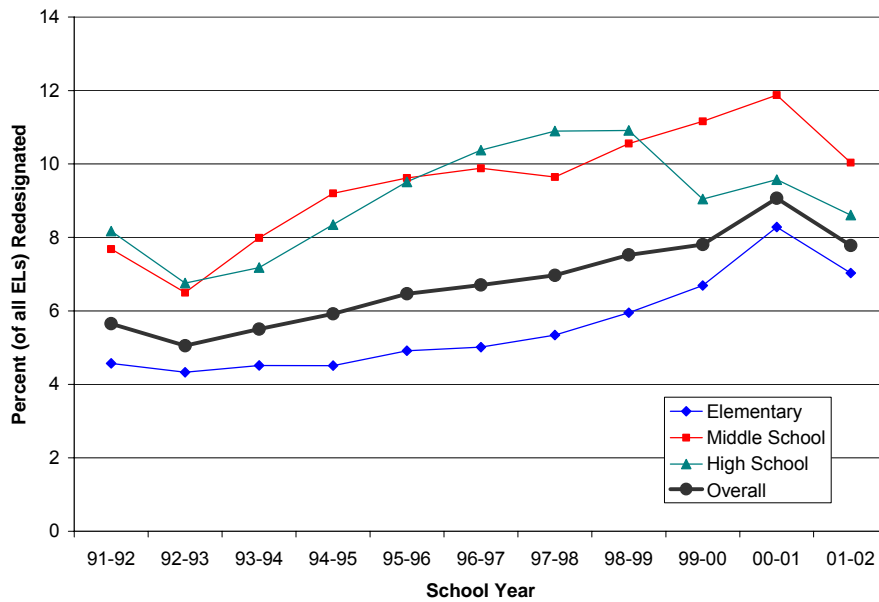
[44] As described in Chapter 2, we divided schools into four school level categories based on the grades enrolled in them. Basically, schools enrolling: grades between Kindergarten and 5 were classified as elementary schools, grades between 6 and 8 as middle schools, and grades between 9 and 12 as high schools. Schools with grade spans K-6 or K-8 were also classified as elementary schools. Schools serving wider grade spans (e.g., K-12, 6-12) were classified as "other."

Summary

In this chapter we have presented major findings from the analytic approaches used in Year 3, as well as highlighted results from specific analyses within those approaches. While we acknowledge serious limitations associated with the state data available for instructional model analyses, we have attempted to explore the efficacy of various instructional models with the data currently available. Note that this section concludes with a description of some of the strengths and weaknesses of the analytic approaches used in Year 3 as well as a discussion of data that would be needed to fully explore the effects of alternative approaches to EL instruction. With these limitations in mind, we have attempted to be conservative in our interpretation of empirical results. Below are listed what we consider to be the most important findings.

- *Since the passage of Proposition 227, almost all language groups in all grades have experienced performance gains in reading, math, and language arts on the SAT-9.* Performance gains were seen in both the successive-group and cohort analyses, with greater gains generally found in the lower grades.

- *Considerable SAT-9 performance gaps persist between EL/RFEP and EO students.* While the gap between the two language groups narrowed in some cases, nowhere did it close substantially. The gaps between the language groups in reading and language arts tended to narrow more than the gaps in math performance.

- *SAT-9 performance improved and gaps decreased for students across all instructional model types, but no clear pattern favoring a single type of school is observed.* Performance gains are seen in all three subjects, and none of the three instructional model types clearly emerges as having better results. Each of the instructional model types shows a narrowing of the gap between EO and EL/RFEP students, again with no clear advantage being shown for one school type over another.

- *Conclusive comparisons of performance across instructional model types cannot be made due to substantial student demographic differences.* The "continuing-bilingual" schools show rates of poverty and EL percentages that are roughly twice as high as those for the other two instructional model types, making performance comparisons across the model types difficult.

- *Preliminary analysis of California Standards Test scores shows patterns of performance similar to those reported for the SAT-9 score analysis.* A substantially larger percentage of EO students scored at or above the proficiency level than did EL/RFEP students for all years and grades of CST scores considered. The performance gaps between the two groups are fairly consistent throughout all grade levels.

- *California English Language Development Test annual test takers' scores improved from 2001 to 2002.* 34.5 percent of annual CELDT-takers scored at Early Advanced or Advanced in 2002, compared to 25.3 in 2001. However, performance on standardized tests tends to improve after the first implementation, and it appears that EL students were redesignated at lower rates

in 2002. Additional years of CELDT data will help clarify our preliminary observations.

- *The passage of Proposition 227 may have resulted in somewhat greater effort being expended by schools in the years immediately following to review students for possible redesignation.* The overall percentage of EL students redesignated each year rose gradually over the past decade from about 5 percent in 1992–93 to 9 percent in 2000–01, then dropped to 7.8 percent in 2001–02.

Strengths and Limitations of the Analyses

In approaching the academic achievement of English learners, and its relation to different instructional arrangements over time, the AIR/WestEd team has brought to bear a number of analytic strengths and methodological innovations that we believe add significant value over previous analyses. However, the team also acknowledges several enduring limitations to both the data and our approaches. These strengths and limitations are summarized below so that the findings from our analyses are placed in proper perspective and context.

Strengths and contributions of these analyses include the following:

1. *Using individual student-level performance data.* As part of this statewide study, we have been provided with individual student data for the entire California public school student population, from 1998 to 2002.[45] This has allowed us to calculate performance changes more accurately by avoiding the need to weight averages of student performance at the school level, as other studies have been forced to do. It has also allowed us to include the 1998 academic year – considered a baseline year prior to the implementation of Proposition 227 – which others studies could not due to dissimilarities in that year's data as presented on the CDE Web site.

2. *Using within-grade as well as cohort analyses.* We have studied both successive groups in given grades (e.g., 3rd graders in 1998, 1999, etc.) as well as cohorts of students across grades and time (e.g., 2nd graders in 1998, 3rd graders in 1999, etc.). These approaches afford different and mutually-supporting views of the same data, and strengthened our confidence in the findings.

3. *Reporting performance of English learners (ELs) alone and combined with redesignated fluent-English-proficient (RFEP) students.* Having individual student data has allowed us to include calculations of combined EL/RFEP student performance. This overcomes the key problem of "skimming" the highest-performing ELs into a different category, and more accurately depicts the longitudinal performance of the entire population that has ever been EL.

4. *Constructing categories of schools by instructional services pre- and post-Proposition 227.* Given the lack of detailed student-level data on instructional settings and services, the team used school-level data to broadly categorize schools as continuing bilingual education, transitioning from it, or never having it. This has

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[45] In order to protect confidentiality, these data do **not** include unique student identifiers; therefore, individual student performance cannot be tracked over time.

allowed us to analyze performance gains and gaps within and among groups of students by model type over time.

5. *Qualifying our conclusions carefully, and explicitly noting limitations.* Since this study attempts to respond to very challenging and ambitious research questions, we have introduced a number of innovative methods that we believe can advance our understanding and research in this area. As part of that effort, we are careful to place our findings in perspective and to note explicitly the limitations of our analyses. While we do report and compare changes in performance gaps among subgroups of students, we also note that the magnitude of these changes is very slight. In fact, even the largest gap changes are very small as a function of score standard deviations, and may be attributable entirely to measurement error. It is therefore wise not to over-interpret the relative differences in gap change, but rather to note the similarity of performance patterns across instructional model types, and the large role that factors such as student-poverty concentration may play.

6. *Reporting multiple measures of EL student achievement.* In this study, we examine the performance of EL, RFEP, and EO students on nationally-normed achievement tests (the SAT-9 through spring 2002) and criterion-referenced tests aligned with California subject area content standards as well as EL students' performance on the California English Language Development Test. These measures have different, complementary strengths and limitations and together provide a richer picture of the achievement of EL students than would any single test. The longitudinal SAT-9 data provide information about how students have performed relative to national norms over the years during which Proposition 227 was being implemented. The CST is aligned with California content standards and thus provides an indication of the extent to which students are mastering the knowledge and skills for which California students, teachers and schools are held accountable. The CELDT for the first time provides a common statewide standard for gauging the progress of EL students in learning English, and provides useful contextual information for interpreting results of SAT-9 and CST, tests of academic content that are administered in English regardless of students' levels of English proficiency.

Limitations of our analyses include the following:

1. *Using standardized, norm-referenced test data.* Testing English learners with assessments constructed for and normed on monolingual native-English speakers introduces serious, well-documented validity issues. Chief among these issues are that low EL performance may reflect low English proficiency rather than low content knowledge, and that judging EL performance relative to such a norming population introduces negative bias. The team has tried to maximize the accurate representation of progress and performance gaps by using mean scaled scores rather than norm percentile ranks or normal curve equivalents. Nevertheless, the lack of student-level English proficiency data, and norm populations that more accurately reflect California's population, may seriously limit the meaningfulness of EL test results.

2. *Characterizing instructional model types at the school level.* Using Language Census data, we characterized schools into one of three instructional model types on the basis of the instructional services and settings provided to ELs students pre- and post-Proposition 227. This strategy for defining school categories by percent of ELs receiving certain instructional services and settings is somewhat crude, since it cannot differentiate which ELs receive which instructional services or settings. For example, although the schools we categorize as "continuing-bilingual" have a substantial proportion (more than 50 percent) of their ELs receiving primary language instruction pre- and post-227, a significant proportion of the ELs in these schools (as many as 49 percent) may be receiving other types of instructional services and settings.

3. *Alternative explanations to account for findings.* Clearly, Proposition 227 did not occur in a policy vacuum. Several other important – and potentially confounding – policy reforms were implemented during the same timeframe, including class size reduction, the Public Schools Accountability Act with its Academic Performance Index, the introduction of standards-based curricula with related teacher training, Pupil Promotion and Retention, and major statewide professional development initiatives around reading and English learner instruction, to name a few. Attributing any of our findings exclusively to Proposition 227 would therefore be tenuous at best.

4. *Inability to link student data across years and assessments.* The lack of unique student identifiers in assessment files makes it impossible to track individual students' progress over time or to directly examine the relationships among different aspects of student achievement (e.g., between English proficiency levels and scores on tests of academic subject area knowledge). The ability to combine information across data sources would allow much more powerful and controlled analyses of student achievement.

Future Data Needs

As has been noted throughout this chapter and in the accompanying methodological notes, we lack certain kinds of data for more thorough analyses, and are unable to combine other kinds of available data in ways that would extend or illuminate our current findings regarding student achievement. The state is currently collecting important data on students' progress in ELD and core academic subjects, and these data need to be stored in ways that will facilitate their analysis. Some examples of student and program data that would be needed *at the individual student level* to extend and improve these kinds of analyses include: 1) instructional services provided each year (e.g., primary language instruction or support, ELD, SDAIE); 2) initial English proficiency on entry; 3) annual ELD scaled scores and proficiency levels in listening/speaking, reading, and writing; and 4) time in the state school system. Linking such data to individual students longitudinally would provide a much richer context for understanding performance outcomes, and may aid in fostering accountability for and improvement of EL student success.

Chapter IV – Case Study Analyses

Introduction

This chapter highlights findings from the case study site visit data collected during Year 3. As described in Chapters I and II, a primary purpose of these case studies was to gain a better understanding of the possible elements of effective practice with ELs through visits to a sample of California schools. Schools that appeared "effective" were identified on the basis of EL students' test scores.[1] By exploring the extent to which those sites that appeared "effective" through empirical analyses also appear "effective" through direct observation, we can better assess those factors that seem to contribute to EL students' academic performance. Our goal is to shed light on what may constitute effective practices and policies for ELs, and to consider how these principles might be better applied to EL instruction statewide. The themes presented in this chapter reflect insights from the visitors to the case study sites (18 schools in 13 districts), and analyses of the interview, focus group, and observation data from these sites. These themes are also informed by the set of findings related to implementation of Proposition 227 presented in the Year 2 Report. In addition, this chapter explores several other topics related to Proposition 227 and the instruction of English Learners, extending important themes from the first two years of our study and building on this year's fieldwork. These themes include: 1) the redesignation of English learners; 2) class placement, segregation and tracking; 3) waivers; 4) significant changes and reforms affecting the instruction of ELs; 5) understanding and utilizing state ELA and ELD standards for instruction; and 6) examination of the impact of the CBET and ELAP programs.

Elements of Effective Practice with English Learners

This chapter presents findings from our site visits and explores these findings in relation to various elements of effective practice with English learners (ELs). The chapter includes seven subsections, each corresponding to a key element related to effective practice examined in our data: 1) leadership, 2) an instructional plan, 3) accountability and assessment, 4) school climate, 5) instructional strategies, 6) staff development, and 7) family involvement. A discussion of other issues related to Proposition 227 and the instruction of English learners concludes this chapter.

These seven elements of effective practice emerged from our review of the literature on effective practices with ELs and from the extensive qualitative data from site visits, as well as the prior two years of this study. Starting with August and Hakuta's (1997) framework on 13 attributes of school and classroom effectiveness for ELs, we then re-clustered these into the seven more broadly defined elements listed above, incorporating insights gained from our evaluation of particular elements of effective practice with ELs. For example, we added an element not included in August and Hakuta's framework – accountability – and folded their attributes of "customized learning environment" and "articulation and coordination of

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[1] See Chapter II on the study methodology for a full discussion of the sampling design.

practices within and between schools" into a new category – a clear instructional plan. The organization of this chapter thus reflects what selected research literature identifies as key elements of effective practice with ELs, while also incorporating insights from our case study data. We seek to explore the interaction within the school environment of these key elements, shown in Exhibit IV-1 below, to explain the extent to which the school supports these hypothesized effective practices with English learners. In each section of this chapter, we present relevant findings and discuss the perceived contribution of each element of effective practice with English learners.

It is important to acknowledge that other elements may play a large role in influencing student achievement. Additional elements of effective practice worthy of exploration in greater detail include the implementation of standards-based curricula and the quality and amount of instruction in English Language Arts and English Language Development. However, exploring such instructional elements of effective practice would require more in-depth visits to a much larger sample of classrooms, and would therefore pose serious resource challenges for this study. In the remaining years of study, we will explore how these and other important instructional aspects of effectiveness might be examined in ways that would feasibly fit within the scope of this evaluation.

Exhibit IV-1: Elements of Effective Practice with English Learners Explored in this Study[2]

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                         ┌──────────────────┐
                         │    Leadership    │
                         └──────────────────┘
                                  │
  ┌────────────────────┐          │          ┌────────────────────┐
  │ Family Involvement │          │          │ Instructional Plan │
  └────────────────────┘          │          └────────────────────┘
              \                   │                   /
               \        ╭─────────────────────╮     /
                \       │   The School as a    │    /
  ┌──────────────┐      │     Social System:   │      ┌────────────────────┐
  │    Staff     │──────│  Elements of Effective│─────│  Accountability and│
  │ Development  │      │    Practice with     │      │     Assessment     │
  └──────────────┘      │   English Learners   │      └────────────────────┘
                /       ╰─────────────────────╯     \
               /                   │                   \
              /                    │                    \
  ┌────────────────────┐           │          ┌────────────────────┐
  │   Instructional    │                      │   School Climate    │
  │     Strategies     │                      │                    │
  └────────────────────┘                      └────────────────────┘
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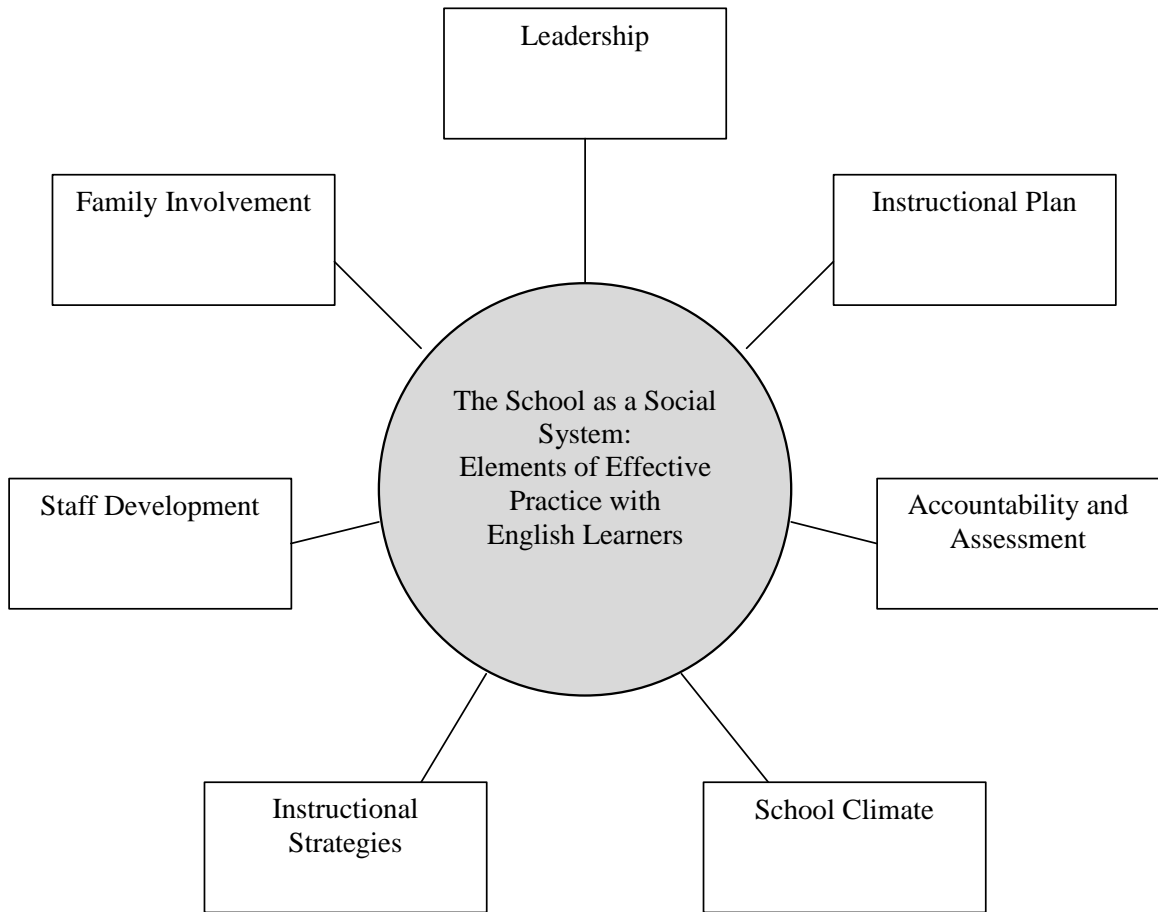
Another purpose of this chapter is to examine the extent to which those case study sites that appear "effective" through analyses of statewide student achievement data (e.g., SAT-9) also appear "effective" through direct case study observation. Our site visits suggest strong correlations overall between the implementation of the identified elements of effective practice and EL academic performance. However, these relationships do not hold for all elements. For example, the nature and quality of staff development varied widely among the *effective* schools in our sample; one *effective* school even lamented having no staff development at all.[3] Of course, we do not expect a complete and uniform link between the elements of effective practices with ELs studied in our analysis and higher than average test scores. Rather, the question explored this year was whether any relationship between outcomes and these practices would be observed.

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[2] Figure adapted from Banks and McGee Banks (1997, p. 25).
[3] Throughout this chapter, modifiers are placed in italics to identify case study schools as "effective," "growth," or "comparison," and to identify schools as "substantial" or "not substantial" L_1. Schools offering L_1 instruction to one-quarter or more of their EL students were classified as *substantial L_1* schools for the case study sample selection, and schools offering L_1 instruction to smaller proportions or none of their EL students were classified as *not substantial L_1* schools.

Based on our elementary school site visits, there appears to be a fairly strong relationship between the observed practices and student performance. Elementary schools that appeared to be beating the odds in regard to student academic performance most often also appeared exemplary on one or more of these criteria when observed in site visits. While this year's efforts are exploratory in investigating the relationship between achievement as indicated by test scores and school-level indicators of effectiveness, we consider our findings to be encouraging. If statewide data can point to schools that are truly beating the odds in regard to EL instruction, there should be much to be learned from these sites regarding how to improve EL instruction statewide.

Leadership

August and Hakuta (1997) cite leadership as an essential component of effective schooling for English learners. Similarly, the overwhelming consensus among the AIR/WestEd site visitors was that strong leadership was among the most critical predictors of overall effectiveness. During interviews at *effective* schools, most teachers and EL coordinators stated that strong leadership is key to their success.

Based on observations by the site visit teams, six of the nine *effective* schools were said to have "effective" leadership, with the other three demonstrating "average" leadership. Moreover, based on the ratings across the research criteria given to each school by the site visitation teams, in regard to leadership, *effective* schools scored highest, *growth* schools rated slightly lower, and *comparison* school rated lowest. These data seem to support the expected correlation between school effectiveness and strong leadership.

It was a challenge for the research team to capture the essence of a less tangible element like leadership during our site visits. We therefore add to prior knowledge by summarizing what we observed. Strong leadership appears to entail several components, although not every component needs to be present. Our field data suggest that strong leaders:

- Demonstrate personal qualities such as being dynamic, proactive, highly motivated, positive, involved, supportive, responsive, and flexible

- Hold high expectations for everyone, including his or herself, staff, and students

- Hold staff accountable for student achievement

- Facilitate proper implementation of English Language Development and English Language Acquisition standards on an ongoing basis

- Maintain a strong, consistent focus on EL issues and the adopted curriculum

- Create a structure that is organized, clear, efficient, and coordinated

- Create a collaborative, team approach and consider themselves to be team members and facilitators

- Maintain a vision that is clearly articulated, understood by staff, and carried out in practical ways

Although strong leadership is often manifest in a single individual, such as the principal, our field notes suggest that it can also be distributed among a number of administrators, veteran teachers, or even all certified staff on the school site, as teachers take ownership of a common vision and subsequently enact common practices to reach that vision. As the principal at one *not substantial L₁ effective* elementary school stated, "[You must] start with the top teachers, get them to buy in. If you sell to them, they will provide the leadership to others."

Personal Characteristics

As delineated above, the first group of leadership indicators pertain to personal characteristics. Our observations suggest that an effective leader is dynamic and proactive. As one EL coordinator at a *not substantial L₁ comparison* middle school said, "The principal is a real go-getter [and] that [attitude] is trickling down to the rest of the staff. The motivation is high." She seeks out staff and students to meet their needs, rather than waiting for people to come to her. When people do come to her, she is responsive and supportive, flexible, and positive. One teacher at a *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school said, "My principal has been very supportive. If, for example, I see a particular book that would serve my kids very well, the principal will say, 'I'll see if I can get that book.' She tries to facilitate ways to get English learners as much English as possible." The principal is involved and considers himself first and foremost a teacher, rather than a detached administrator. He may be firm in approach, but also creates buy-in for teachers so they can take ownership of their job.

High Expectations and Accountability

As a positive, proactive person, the leader's expectations are high for everyone, including the students. At one *not substantial L₁ effective* elementary school, a teacher noted that teachers understand that it is their job to ensure that the students will go on to college and succeed. They believe it is their job to push their students. As a teacher at a different *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school put it, "she [the principal] believes actions speak louder than words and pushes everyone to be the best they can be." Another principal at a *not substantial L₁ effective* middle school stated that a "school culture of high expectations" is essential to EL student progress. The leader thus creates an internal accountability system so that teachers, staff, and principal all consider themselves responsible for student success.

Focus on EL Instruction

In order to have high expectations for each student, the principal plays a key role in ensuring the proper implementation of the ELD/ELA standards and ELD lessons on an ongoing basis. She consistently focuses on EL issues, holding high standards for all students, and creates a strong adherence across the school to the adopted curriculum. A principal at one *not substantial L₁ effective* elementary school stated, "teachers don't have a choice to use it [Open Court] or not. They can enhance it, but they have to teach every part of it."

Structure and Teamwork

Another key indicator of strong leadership is creating a structure across the school that is organized, efficient, and coordinated. The principal facilitates collaboration and a team approach, of which she is one member. Many teachers described as a strength of their school the collaboration and articulation between teachers, facilitated by the principal. Although at some schools a specific person such as the principal was not mentioned as the

source of the collaboration between the teachers, there is some source of leadership present, such as leadership teams or mentor teachers, to facilitate such collaboration.

Vision

In order to have a well-coordinated, structured system in place, the school vision must be clearly articulated and carried out in practical ways. There must be a clear vision for EL instruction with well defined approaches to implementing this vision, which are well understood, "owned by," and utilized by instructional staff. One teacher expressed this "buy-in" that occurred at her *growth not substantial L_1* elementary school: "We are proactive and do whatever it takes to get the job done. We write proposals to get funding and get that extra funding needed. Having an administrator such as the one we have is key. The teachers working together as a team is important. We have team leaders and delegated responsibilities that are shared by all." An EL Coordinator at another district commented on a successful school in her district and said, "It makes such a difference when you don't see divisiveness among the staff and everybody believes in the same vision."

Leadership at Schools Visited

As stated previously, six of the nine *effective* schools appear to have strong leadership. Yet, two of the six *comparison* schools appear to have strong leadership as well, according to the internal rating scale completed by the site visitors. At one of these schools, a *substantial L_1 comparison* elementary school, the principal displays qualities similar to those previously described, holds high expectations for everyone, facilitates grade-level collaboration and common planning time, monitors student progress, and is responsive to student needs, according to the teacher focus group. This school shows that strong leadership in itself may not always translate into outstanding student achievement. Conversely, two other *effective* schools, both of which are *not substantial L_1* middle schools, have average leadership, according to site visit teams. At these schools, there appears to be no clear vision or goals articulated to the teachers, teachers are not very familiar with the standards to guide instructional goal setting, teacher expectations of students appear to be low, and achievement data are not used for planning instruction and student placement. These schools suggest that a number of interrelated factors contribute to student achievement, and that although strong leadership seems to be an important component for effectiveness, it is not always necessary.

Systematic Assessment to Inform Instruction and Accountability[4]

Another key element of effective practice with ELs appears to be systematic student assessment that informs ongoing efforts to improve program practices and to adjust instruction to EL needs. According to the site visit teams, seven out of the nine *effective* schools have an effective data system in place that informs instruction; one school has an average assessment system; and one school appears to have a weak data system in place. Overall, *growth* schools are rated slightly lower in terms of data system effectiveness than *effective* schools, and *comparison* schools are rated lower yet.

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[4] For additional discussion related to using data to inform instruction, see section below titled "Balanced Curriculum."

In general, this element of effective practice with ELs indicates whether someone at the district or school level has identified the data needs, created a useful data system, trained personnel accordingly, and ensured that data are used in instructional decisions. In the best cases, professional development and intervention program needs are also identified and implemented according to data results. As the data coordinator in one district stated, "All the information that we collect from the schools is then returned in a user-friendly format. The data collected informs principals and teachers about what is going on at the school…[which has resulted in] providing intervention [services] for those students that have been identified as needing assistance, [staff] attending professional development, and dialogue between teacher teams." To be effective, there must be a clear and smooth path from the data system to classroom instruction, as well as clear goals and expectations.

District-School Interaction

Sometimes this path begins at the district level, in cases where there is close coordination between district and school administrators; and sometimes the path begins at the school level where there is weak coordination between district and school. At one district, where the sample school was rated by site visitors as effective in data usage, the data coordinator said, "monitoring is done through coordination efforts with the local school. We monitor program implementation, evaluate program effectiveness, modify programs to ensure student success, and measure progress of students with all the content areas." Due to a greater focus on data and a more sophisticated data system, teachers now support and use the data to identify those students who are "at risk," place students in the proper instructional level, and further develop programs that are recognized as needing improvement. A few district administrators mentioned that they often send their data coordinators out to school sites to talk about how to use the data.

Organized Process for Using Data

However, whether the district is closely involved with the school's use of data may be less important than whether the data are organized, understandable, user-friendly, and easily accessible. There must be some consistency of usage either across the district or within the school to be considered effective in this area. A prime example of this organized process is in one district, where schools hold "academic conferences" among grade level teachers who are released for the day to review the academic progress of each student in that grade. Each teacher speaks about each of his students, using a question protocol. An action plan is developed, which must be carried through within six weeks of the review. This consistent process is also reflected at a *substantial L₁ effective* school, where a teacher stated, "we're data-driven – our strength is that we collaborate through department meetings and constant individual student monitoring." A few of the districts provide binders to schools with aggregate data by school, as well as data on individual students, which include both test scores and demographic data over time. Mandatory training for principals is provided at the beginning of the school year on how to use the binders. In contrast, in another district, a *not substantial L₁ effective* middle school is not able to understand the data provided by the district, nor how to use it to inform instruction. The school EL coordinator stated that they are "data-given instead of data-driven."

Many of the sample schools noted the tremendous amount of work required to use data effectively. Some principals use categorical money to hire paraprofessionals to do data

entry and create reports for teachers. A few administrators and teachers complained about over-assessing students, and that it drains everyone involved. Lacking sufficient data systems in their districts, some of the sample schools create their own systems, using software such as Microsoft Excel, to track test, demographic, and placement data over time.

Multiple Assessment Measures

Most of the schools in the sample use multiple measures to assess students, including a combination of state and local assessments. In addition to such state assessments as the California English Language Development Test (CELDT), the Stanford Achievement Test, Ninth Edition (SAT-9), the CST (California Standards Test), and the SABE (Spanish Assessment of Basic English), many schools also use assessments provided by the curriculum they are using, such as Open Court and Into English, as well as informal assessments, such as examining student work and teacher feedback. One principal at a *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school mentioned daily assessments as the most powerful assessment tools of all, in which comprehension checks are conducted after each lesson. Most districts visited also require schools to conduct local assessments in writing, reading comprehension, and math. Finally, districts use the CELDT for English Language Development (ELD) level designations, as well as local ELD assessments, and consider demographic data such as ethnicity, poverty, and home language in their data reports to schools.

Accountability

A majority of the sample districts and schools use data for some type of an accountability system for teachers. Three of the *effective* schools in the sample[5] hold the tenet that "everyone is accountable," and put systems in place to maintain it. These systems require a clear vision, goals, consistency, collaboration, and structure. The principal at one of these schools, which is a *not substantial L₁* elementary school, stated, "We have instructional leaders at each grade level for pacing and collaboration. We have assessment analyses for Open Court – we show this to each other at grade-level meetings. We hold everyone accountable, and it's a structured environment, with a lot of collaboration, so you cannot be here if you want to work with a closed-door policy." At another *not substantial L₁ effective* elementary school, the principal believes in accountability. He shows teachers data indicating how well they stack up against other teachers. He tries to protect the teachers' names, but often others know who they are as well. He said, "If their class is near the bottom, year after year, this tells you something." At a third *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school, the principal takes personal responsibility for student achievement, and filters this responsibility to the teachers. The principal said she tries to praise the teachers, but also tells them they cannot rest. She said, "I put pressure on them, but that's how education is, it's stressful, because today schools are held accountable for a one shot picture." These three schools have effective data usage systems in place to monitor student achievement, as well as the professional development, instructional practices, and intervention programs needed to maintain or raise scores.

Other schools also have accountability systems in place, using methods such as developing EL leadership teams to monitor student progress, frequent principal

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[5] Two of these schools are *not substantial L₁* elementary schools, and the third is a *substantial L₁* elementary school.

walkthroughs, and standards-based report cards. One *not substantial L₁ effective* middle school uses a CDE-developed handbook called, "Taking Center Stage," which specifies criteria for classroom walkthroughs to evaluate whether the curriculum is student-centered. A group of teachers, parents, and students developed questions, observed 12 classes, and presented the results to the community. Another *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school is part of a Community of Schools project. Mutual accountability is part of this program, in which teams conduct classroom and school walkthroughs to examine whether effective techniques are being utilized. Another *not substantial L₁ comparison* elementary school uses an Open Court coach and a service provider to keep track of achievement and inform the principal of progress. The principal then meets with individual teachers to talk about the extent to which each child is meeting the benchmarks.

As many of our respondents explained, several pieces of the puzzle – strong leadership, collaboration, clearly articulated, high expectations – must fit together for an effective accountability system that informs and improves student achievement to be in place.

Clear Plan for Instruction of EL Students

A clear plan for instruction of EL students that is appropriate to local needs also appears to be a critical element of school effectiveness. Schools that have such a plan in place have a commonly shared vision that both administrators and teachers can articulate, and have an EL instructional program that is well-defined and implemented.

The AIR/WestEd site visit team identified a clear plan as one of the three most important predictors of overall school effectiveness (along with strong leadership and systematic assessment). In addition, many of the school administrators and teachers at *effective* schools indicated that a clear and consistently implemented instructional plan for ELs is central to their effectiveness. Moreover, according to the site visitors, seven out of the nine *effective* schools have implemented a clear plan for instruction of EL students successfully, and two have done so to a lesser extent. *Growth* schools are rated slightly lower than *effective* schools in terms of their effectiveness in this regard, and *comparison* schools are rated lower yet. These data seem to support a correlation between school effectiveness and a clear instructional plan for ELs.

Schoolwide Goals for EL Students

One element of a clear instructional plan is a set of common goals. Without clear goals and a plan for implementing those goals, schools cannot provide EL students with the direction they need to acquire English and succeed academically, regardless of the instructional model adopted. As explained by the EL coordinator of a *not substantial L₁ growth* elementary school that has focused recently on the principle of clear expectations, "The purpose is to make sure that the teacher understands what she is teaching and that she is able to explain that to the students so that everyone has the same understanding about the goals and the purposes of the lesson…If the teachers are clear about the goals of a lesson and are able to articulate the purpose of the lesson for the students, then the students have a better understanding of what they are learning at that time."

Across all sites, when asked about their goals for the education of EL students, nearly all school administrators and teachers indicated that ensuring that all students have equal academic opportunities, meet academic performance standards, and become proficient in English are important. More specifically, many school respondents also stated that they make a concerted effort to redesignate EL students before they leave the school. In the *substantial L₁* schools, most also specified developing bilingualism and biliteracy in the primary language and in English as important goals for EL students.

There was a marked difference between the *comparison* schools and the *effective* and *growth* schools in the degree to which they could articulate their goals for ELs as well as the extent to which they feel they are meeting them. While respondents at *effective* and *growth* sites could generally discuss their goals for ELs at length, teachers from at least three *comparison* schools expressed confusion about their goals. A comment from a teacher at a *not substantial L₁ comparison* school exemplified this ambiguity: "We haven't heard what the major goal is – it's not articulated." Similarly, while staff at *effective* and *growth* schools universally conveyed a positive impression about the extent their goals are being met, some respondents at *comparison* schools were less optimistic. This was typified by the response of an EL coordinator from a *not substantial L₁ comparison* elementary school, who said "I don't think that we are doing a good job at attaining [our] goals at all." In contrast, the principal of a *not substantial L₁ growth* elementary school emphasized a common sentiment expressed across *effective* and *growth* when she stated that "Our kids have great needs and we have a vision that nothing gets in our way. We believe we can do it. All the energies are placed towards our goals. Teachers, principals and classified staff give with their hearts and do it with the responsibility that is given to them, so that the highest expectations are truly met."

Overall, case study data suggest that identifying the most critical goals and laying out a clear plan for meeting and implementing them are key components of effectiveness.

Implementation and Articulation of the Plan

Another aspect of a clear instructional plan for EL students is articulation and coordination of practices within the school. August and Hakuta (1997) observe that "collaboration between special language teachers [e.g., ELD or bilingual teachers] and mainstream classroom or content teachers to articulate students' instructional programs" is a hallmark of effective schools. They also note that "effective schools are characterized by a smooth transition between levels of language development classes and coordination between special second-language programs and other school programs, as well as between levels of schooling." Our case study data support the observation that *effective* and *growth* schools are more likely to have consistent articulation and coordination of practices within the school, but suggest that such articulation between schools may not be widespread.

Many staff at *effective* and *growth* schools consider the collaboration facilitated through regular department, grade-level, and cross-grade meetings to be one of the most critical practices they engage in. Opportunities to share strategies that work well with their EL students and to monitor the progress of individual students by examining data at such meetings were cited as particularly valuable. For instance, a teacher at a *not substantial L₁ effective* school explained that prior to the beginning of each school year, grade-level planning meetings are held in which they "get together and look at student test results from the

previous year to foreshadow any problems." He went on to say that as a "data-driven school," this is not a "one-shot deal" that they engage in annually, but rather that they "are constantly assessing students and using that to differentiate instruction as appropriate." In addition, informal collaborations among teachers were more commonly mentioned as occurring at the *effective* and *growth* schools than at the *comparison* schools we visited. A teacher at another *not substantial L₁ effective* school described the nature of such collaborations at her school: "You can walk around school, and you will hear teachers talking about some situation or some problem and always working together to get it taken care of. If somebody's working on a specific unit and struggling with it, people are willing to share ideas, materials, strategies. It's not competitive."

Consistency of school instructional practices was also frequently cited by site visit interview and focus group respondents as a key aspect of effectiveness. However, respondents' thoughts about how to best achieve consistency differed to some extent across sites. In several *effective* and *growth* schools, a practice of "pacing" has been adopted, whereby all teachers at a given grade level are expected to teach and test the same lessons at the same time. The comments of a principal at a *not substantial L₁ growth* elementary school illustrate this approach: "I came in with the 'no excuses' attitude. I said, 'We are not doing well, so what can we do? We can't have this go on and we need to all get on the same page.'" She instituted many changes, including trying new approaches to diagnosing areas in which EL students most needed help, heterogeneously mixing ELs in classrooms with native English speakers, and creating a lesson plan for each week so that all teachers use "the same lesson plan and all the students get the same education." These changes, particularly the latter, were credited by administrators and teachers alike as having the most positive impact on raising achievement of their EL students. The statement by a principal at a *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school about the strengths of her school represent an alternative view of consistency: "What makes our school a success is consistency. I believe so much in consistency. For example, we have the standards posted in everyday language in each classroom to help teachers maintain which standards they should be working on." In this case, implementing consistent practices was interpreted by the administrator as taking steps to ensure that teachers adopt the same foundational principles in their teaching, as opposed to identical lessons.

August and Hakuta (1997) stress that another important practice is instituting a gradual, carefully planned transition between special language instruction (e.g., immersion or bilingual) settings and mainstream classes that is "supported with activities (prior to reclassification and after mainstreaming)." It was not clear from our data that this is area of emphasis across the sites in our sample. However, the principal of one *not substantial L₁ effective* elementary school did comment on their efforts in this regard. She explained that there is close monitoring of EL students' language acquisition and academic progress both before and after they have been redesignated. Moreover, she reported that "a districtwide committee of teachers developed a checklist of what EL students would need to have in order to succeed in mainstream instruction" and that this checklist is "now used to help monitor progress."

A continuing area of concern in regard to the need for a clear plan, however, is that as in prior study years, few respondents from case study sites reported articulation of practices with other schools. In fact, only one school, a *substantial L₁ effective* middle school,

indicated that this is done systematically. In any case, it is worth highlighting because the practices of the school in this regard seem promising. Teachers reported that they visit feeder elementary schools "to test incoming students and collaborate with high schools in recommending next year's classes for our students." The school EL coordinator elaborated that assessing students prior to their entering the school "is a big help because it cuts down on assessing at the beginning of the school year and helps create a student record of the EL student before they even begin here." In addition, teachers reported that the school "is starting to collaborate and have articulation with our four middle schools by standardizing practices." For example, they are working on establishing common transition criteria and gathering the same types of data on incoming students (e.g., STAR as well as running records).

Customized Learning Environment

Augusta and Hakuta (1997) note that a customized learning environment, i.e., one adapted to meet the identified instructional needs of EL students is another key attribute of effective practice with English learners. They point out that many studies indicate that there is no one best approach to educating ELs and that different approaches are appropriate to the wide range of circumstances faced by schools and students. Thus, Augusta and Hakuta (1997) observe that "Researchers recommend that local staff and community members identify the conditions under which one or some combination of approaches is best suited and then adapt models to match their particular circumstances." While the new focus on standards-based accountability is likely to lead to greater consistency in EL instruction across the state, the need for some customization to best suit local circumstances remains.

One example of a customized learning environment was found in a *substantial L_1 effective* site we visited. This school had a diverse mix of Asian and Hispanic students. Traditionally these communities had expressed very different interests and needs, which posed some challenges for the school. The school responded by carefully listening to parents and then designing instructional services that fit their needs and were pedagogically sound. As a result the school had a mix of program options for ELs, including immersion, bilingual, and dual immersion. This produced some very interesting, and perhaps not entirely predictable results. For example, a number of Hispanic students with strong English language skills enrolled in dual immersion Korean/English classrooms. Several parents we interviewed expressed great pride in this program and the fact that their children were becoming tri-lingual, while demonstrating strong academic progress as evidenced by their English standardized test performance.

A principal at a *not substantial L_1 growth* elementary school described another promising effort to meet the instructional needs of their EL students. Noting that "they understand the critical important of primary language literacy" in supporting English proficiency, she explained that the school does not offer bilingual classes, but that attempts are made to build upon students' primary languages. She explained that one approach they have adopted is to use grant funding to translate Open Court stories into an Asian language that is the home language of a large percentage of their student body. After school, instructional aides read these stories aloud and discuss them with students on the day before the same stories are taught in English in these students' regular classrooms.

Many sites we visited also mentioned utilizing data on EL students' English proficiency levels to appropriately tailor instructional services to their needs. Sharing CELDT data with teachers to ensure that they are familiar with their students' levels and can appropriately differentiate instruction was a commonly reported approach to customizing instruction. The principal of a *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school hands out note cards to all teachers with student information showing each EL student's CELDT level and whether the student is Title I. She explained that the purpose of the card is "to help teachers know the student's level, how to should structure questions, and what type of response they can expect."

In addition, several sample schools reported placing students in classrooms or programs with attention to their English proficiency levels. In some *effective* and *growth* schools, EL students are grouped by CELDT levels for ELD instruction and dispersed throughout heterogeneous classes during other periods of the day. At a *not substantial L₁ growth* elementary school, the EL coordinator initiated an effort to group students not only by their CELDT level, but also by the area in which they have the greatest need for ELD. She sent out a survey to the teachers to classify each student's proficiency in English phonics, reading, comprehension, and writing. The survey and CELDT data was then used to sort students into classes for 30 minutes of daily ELD instruction. Both the teachers and administrators credited this approach as a key contributor to their students' rapid increase in achievement. The EL coordinator added that "Now the teachers are happier because they have a focus for their ELD instruction time that was determined by the survey (phonics, reading, writing, etc.)." Notably, since the overwhelming majority of their students come from high poverty backgrounds, this school has opted to provide "ELD" to their native English speakers as well (although the EOs are grouped in separate classrooms than ELs for this part of the day). Interestingly, while this example illustrates the most formalized example we observed of providing ELD to monolingual English speakers, the belief that ELD strategies benefit all students, not solely ELs, was a common theme expressed across many sites in our sample.

Schoolwide Climate

A school's climate can exert a strong influence on student outcomes. How teachers and students feel about the school can powerfully shape the learning opportunities that take place within its classrooms. August and Hakuta (1997) observe that a supportive school climate, particularly with regard to respect for linguistic and cultural diversity, is an attribute of effective EL schooling. Of course, respect for linguistic and cultural differences does not necessarily require primary language instruction. As August and Hakuta note, the decision to employ primary language instruction is best determined by the profile of the given student population, available human and material resources, and degree of instructional leadership and community support. Our case study data support this observation.

This section describes what we learned from EL students about the importance they place on bilingualism and biculturalism and how bilingualism and biculturalism were salient themes at many of the *effective* sites in our sample; it then discusses the rewards and challenges of teachers' work with ELs. The section concludes with a note of cautious optimism about schools' potential to create a positive climate for English learners.

Value of Bilingualism and Biculturalism to EL Students

Across all sites, EL students told us about the importance of maintaining their native languages and cultures. The reasons they gave were most often related to family and career. Students regarded their home languages as a link to their families and, by extension, their cultures. As a student at a *not substantial L₁ growth* school explained, if he were not able to speak his native language, he would not be able to communicate with his parents and siblings at home. Similarly, at a *not substantial L₁ effective* school, a student mentioned that his native language is what connects him to his homeland – without it, he "wouldn't be able to talk to anyone when he goes back." More explicitly, another student at a *not substantial L₁ growth* school said, "It is important to read and write in your home language so you don't forget it. It is part of your culture."

Besides familial and cultural advantages, students pointed out the career benefits of knowing two languages. A student at a *not substantial L₁ effective* school cast himself in a professional translator role, saying, "If you have a job and someone doesn't know how to speak English, you can speak to them in Spanish."

A striking feature of many of the *substantial L₁ effective* schools in our sample is that teachers and administrators frequently articulated views similar to those expressed by EL students on the importance of bilingualism and biculturalism. It was not uncommon for biliteracy to be referred to as a special asset of which students should be proud. A teacher at a *substantial L₁ effective* school exemplified this sentiment. "I think it is a gift," she said, "to be able to speak two languages." A teacher at another such site, when asked how well she thought ELs were doing at her school, said they are doing well because they are "proud of knowing Spanish and English."

Rewards and Challenges of Working with English Learners

While perhaps most predominant at the *effective* schools we visited, our data suggest that teachers from all sites in our sample very much value their work with ELs. English learners were often described as "eager to learn," and were noted for bringing diversity into the school that "broadens the classroom environment." Teachers talked about the rewards they feel when they are able to connect with their students and successfully provide services they need. They especially appreciated seeing the progress their ELs make. As one teacher at a *not substantial L₁ comparison* school put it, she likes "seeing the light bulb go on when they finally have the understanding." At a *substantial L₁ effective* school, a teacher boasted that ELs at his site "did the same as the mainstream kids on the district multiple measures." This sense of being rewarded by progress, whether measured by classroom- or district-based measures, was a consistent theme across our teacher interviews.

Teachers, however, were also quite clear about the challenges they face on a daily basis. Foremost among these was differentiating instruction to meet the learning needs of students of varying ability levels, especially at or beyond the intermediate level. Several teachers across sites talked about "late entries," or, students who come in the middle grades and for whom teachers are expected to "frontload six years of education." A teacher at a *substantial L₁ comparison* school described her work with ELs as a "tough act to juggle." "The difficult thing," she said, "is that these kids are all at different levels." The pressure they are under to deliver a specified curriculum within a particular timeframe and to adequately

address all the language and content standards were other frequently-mentioned classroom challenges. Lack of family involvement was an additional point of concern.

Cautious Optimism about the Future of EL Instruction

Overall, sites were cautiously optimistic about the future of EL education, as reflected by a principal at a *substantial L_1 effective* school: When asked how ELs were doing at the school, his response was that, while he thinks they are doing better, he knows that the school "still has a long way to go." This was a typical answer across sites, indicating a recognition that schools have not traditionally served the EL population well, and that, despite statewide attention to EL issues and evidence of increased EL performance, there is continued room for improvement.

Teachers and school administrators identified a number of obstacles that affect their ability to deliver quality EL instruction. One obstacle was what they perceive as an "overwhelming" emphasis on standardized testing. School staff also shared concerns related to the high level of redesignation criteria. Teachers at one *substantial L_1 comparison* school called the redesignation criteria "too sophisticated." The principal at a *not substantial L_1 comparison* site observed, "Given the criteria to redesignate, with standardized test scores as low as ours, even the EOs wouldn't qualify." We also heard doubts about the validity of results on content tests. The Director of Curriculum in one district wondered how they can be expected to assess ELs when the tests "are not designed for ELs." A teacher at a *substantial L_1 comparison* school expressed similar concerns: "ELs are being held accountable for something that's absolutely out of their hands. These tests are biased because ELs don't have the same experiences that EOs have." Difficulties recruiting qualified teachers and maintaining programs in the face of budget cuts were other areas of caution site informants mentioned when describing their abilities to serve English learners.

Effective Instructional Practices and Strategies

As August and Hakuta (1997) note, instructional programs embody a complex series of components; therefore, programs categorized under a single label (e.g., bilingual and immersion) may vary considerably. Consequently, rather than examining broad programmatic types, this section examines school- and classroom-level elements that are associated, in the literature, with the effective schooling of language-minority students.[6] These elements serve as a framework to discuss the information gathered through our interviews with district and school administrators; our interviews and focus groups with teachers; and our classroom observations. In the discussion below, we divide these elements of effective instructional practice into two broad categories: 1) balanced curriculum and 2) opportunities for practice.

Balanced Curriculum

District and school administrators, as well as teachers, consistently acknowledged the importance of adopting and implementing balanced curricula that would ultimately prepare students to meet rigorous standards. Interviewees frequently associated a balanced curriculum with specific actions, such as integrating cultural elements that represent the school's community, taking into account students' individual differences, providing equal

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[6] See August & Hakuta (1997) and Dalton (1998).

access to a rigorous curriculum, and providing adequate training for teachers. Moreover, there was widespread recognition of the critical role played by teachers in maximizing available resources in order to effectively educate English learners.

In general, interviewees discussed the characteristics associated with a balanced curriculum by referring to three elements: 1) the official adoption of textbooks and instructional materials (i.e., formal curricula), 2) the actions and experiences that seem to produce changes in student values, perceptions, and behaviors (i.e., similar to the "hidden curriculum" as defined by Glatthorn (1987)), and 3) the implementation process--in particular, the role of the teacher in determining the classroom dynamics, learning environments, and learning activities during this process. Following is a more in-depth discussion about these three elements of a balanced curriculum.

1) Formal Curriculum

One of the most cited influences on the adoption of a curriculum by districts and schools is its alignment with the state standards. Overall, there was widespread recognition that educators place special attention on the mathematics, reading, and English language arts standards since these are the skills that are directly assessed by high stakes tests (e.g., CST, CAHSEE). The reasoning for this emphasis is well represented in the statement made by a school district official who said, "The gateway for the academic standards is literacy and math."

In addition to alignment with standards, some interviewees noted that it is also important "to be strategic" in order to cover the most critical aspects as students progress from one ability level to the next one. To illustrate, an assistant superintendent said, "Some of the critical standards at the elementary grade level are phonics and phonemic awareness. For example, by the end of kindergarten, students have to be able to recognize the letters and know their sounds; they must know how to blend and segment words; and they must know about rhyme. Starting at kindergarten, students must understand that in English certain letters make certain sounds and that these might be different from the sound-letter correspondence in their home languages (i.e., sound discrimination)." The assistant superintendent also noted that as students progress, fluency becomes a critical standard. She explained, "In order for students to develop comprehension skills, they must also develop fluency and automaticity with the alphabet, letter sounds, and blending words. Depending on where students are, the writing standards are also critical because [this skill] enables students to put their thoughts down on paper. Therefore, writing leads to comprehension."

The relevance of the strategic implementation of standards was also noted at a *not substantial L_1 growth* elementary school, where teachers reported that they chose Santillana Intensive English to teach ELD rather than the supplement that comes with the Open Court curriculum. In their opinion, the Santillana lessons place a higher emphasis on phonics and on the development of reading and comprehension skills specifically for ELs.

To effectively educate students, interviewees also frequently noted that it is critical that the curriculum be comprehensive and inclusive, integrating topics from all the subject areas. For instance, at a *not substantial L_1 growth* elementary school, teachers said that their core curriculum for the lower grades (K through 3) is exclusively dedicated to reading and

English language arts, ELD, and mathematics. However, reportedly, students at this school do not take social studies until the upper-elementary grade levels or science until middle school. However, teachers stated that their adopted ELD curriculum (i.e., Santillana Intensive English) has enabled them "to enhance the students' learning experience" since it is based on a thematic approach that incorporates topics from these content areas.

In contrast, the bilingual coordinator of a *not substantial L₁ comparison* elementary school said that most of their instructional time is dedicated to reading, writing, and arithmetic; therefore, she stated that there "is little room left for integrating the rest of the core content." "For instance," she added, "the social studies textbooks and science kits are being barely used by the teachers, since almost no time is left for teaching these subjects."

2) "Hidden" Curriculum

In reference to the hidden curriculum, many interviewees talked about the school's vision and goals for students, the level of expectations for students, and the inclusion of multicultural elements that are representative of the school's community. Overall, interviewees stated that a balanced curriculum integrates English language development (ELD) into the curriculum, giving equal attention to developing English language proficiency, as well as academic knowledge and skills in the content areas. Likewise, some interviewees stated that they do not see the ELD standards as separate from ELA standards. For example, a district administrator said, "I see them as pathways to the ELA standards. They are critical benchmarks that teachers need to be aware of. This is why I prefer to call [ELD standards] pathways or benchmarks that help the students to really have access to meeting or exceeding the ELA standards."

In general, school administrators and teachers stated that, aside from designating a proportion of the day for explicit ELD instruction, it is also important "to give attention" to this element while teaching the different content areas. According to one district administrator, "ELs that do not have advanced English proficiency need to be immersed in a strategic intervention program." This is why the district decided to adopt the High Point program for all the ESL classes and for those students in the 4th and 5th grade "who cannot navigate the Open Court Program at their grade level." Interviewees reported this program exposes students to the content areas at the same time that it emphasizes the development of English language proficiency.

Some district- and school-administrators and teachers maintained that a balanced curriculum incorporates elements that take into account the students' background knowledge and experience. For instance, both teachers from *substantial L₁* and *not substantial L₁* schools stated that it is important that their materials and activities include multicultural topics that represent the cultural and linguistic composition of the students and the community that they serve. According to them, the incorporation of multicultural elements is a critical aspect in providing equal access to the curriculum.

Similarly, some schools noted that the use of materials in the students' primary language is an important element in their programs. For instance, the principal of a *not substantial L₁ growth* elementary school said that she is planning to produce Spanish audiotapes of the Santillana Intensive English materials in order to give ELs "access to the

content before covering it in English." Apparently, this approach was effectively used in the past with a different curriculum.

This school also promotes the development of "cultural proficiency." For instance, they established a home visiting program, which has been instrumental in incorporating relevant cultural elements into the school's curriculum and practices. Reportedly, these home visits have had a "transformational" effect on the school's decision-making process, as well as in creating an awareness of the characteristics of the students and families served by the schools. The principal explained, "Everything that we do celebrates our cultures. It's a world celebration and it's all focused on literacy." For instance, the school has multicultural celebrations, and the students do research and write about their countries, cultures, and lifestyles.

3) Implementation of Curriculum

In relation to implementation, interviewees discussed the expected alignment between curriculum and instruction, the expected pacing, and the role of teachers in giving ELs equal access to a rigorous and standards-based curriculum. There was common agreement across sites that the *delivery* of the curriculum is the truly critical factor rather than the curriculum itself. Therefore, an overarching theme was the central role that teachers play in providing equal access to a rigorous and standards-based curriculum. After all, it was frequently noted, "it is up to the teachers" to adapt and implement the materials while matching their students' needs. Along these lines, the bilingual coordinator of a *not substantial L_1 comparison* elementary school said, "I don't think that what matters is the curriculum. I think that it depends more on the teacher who carries the program. Many times we have programs and standards that are sitting on the shelves. The greatest asset is actually the teacher." In addition, it was frequently noted that in order for the teachers to successfully implement the curriculum, it is important to assist them in this process by regularly providing meaningful training, guidance, and support.

For instance, for the last five years, a *not substantial L_1 growth* elementary school has focused on preparing and guiding teachers so that they can "use instructional strategies that ensure that the standards and the core curriculum are being effectively presented to the students." School administrators and teachers noted that one of the most essential contributors to their progress has been a partnership with the Center for Research and Teaching Excellence, through which they receive "Best Practice" training. Reportedly, the use of these strategies in combination with the Open Court and Santillana Intensive English curricula has provided teachers with "a strong foundation," which has lead to "excellent" results, in terms of pedagogical practices and student outcomes.

On the other hand, at a *not substantial L_1 comparison* elementary school with similar numbers of ELs, there was common agreement that it is difficult for teachers to effectively implement and provide equal access to the curriculum since they lack the knowledge and skills to differentiate instruction for students with varying abilities. It appears that this school does not provide teachers with the necessary training opportunities or ongoing guidance to make the necessary adaptations to the curriculum and their pedagogical practices.

Another salient theme across sites was the influence that teacher buy-in has on the actual application of the curriculum in the classroom. For instance, at a *substantial L₁ effective* middle school with a high level of implementation of the adopted materials, teachers expressed satisfaction with the adopted curricula and resources (e.g., enrichment materials, technology, and professional development). They remarked that teacher input was taken into account in selecting the core materials, and this fact seems to have created a positive perception about the curricula and associated resources.

According to some interviewees, structure, consistency, and coherence were factors related to the "effective" implementation of the curriculum. One assistant superintendent summarized this viewpoint by saying, "What I think makes schools most effective is coherence, coherence, coherence. In other words, not running off in fifty million directions, but put our heads together, narrow the focus and sustain it." Some schools reported that they build consistency and coherence into the implementation of the curriculum through different approaches, such as by monitoring the pacing at which teachers are covering the curricula, by observing classrooms, through shared planning, and by collaborating within and/or across grade levels.

For instance, interviewees at a *not substantial L₁ growth* elementary school commented that for the last five years, schools across their district have been using Open Court and Saxon Math. Reportedly, the consistent use of these curricula has had a positive effect on the students; for example, the continuity in curriculum seems to facilitate the transition of students transferring from one school in the district to another.

Another approach for implementing structured and consistent curricula reported by staff at a *substantial L₁ effective* middle school mentioned was maintaining "a close relationship" with the feeder elementary schools and the high schools in order to align their curricula. For instance, teachers visit the elementary schools to test incoming students, and give suggestions to the high schools with respect to the course offerings for the following year. In addition, they reported that they have begun "to collaborate and have articulation" with the other four middle schools. They explained, "We are standardizing practices, for example, by establishing common transition criteria and [by gathering the same] data from incoming students (e.g., STAR, running records)."

Sometimes, even within the same school, the lack of consistency and coherence may be problematic. For instance, at a *not substantial L₁ comparison* elementary school, the lack of coherence between two adopted curricula was reported to be an ongoing challenges for the teachers. At this school, administrators and staff reported difficulties in the concurrent implementation of Open Court and Success for All (SFA). According to them, SFA is designed to teach students at their corresponding reading level, while Open Court is designed to cover the grade-level standards. Students at varying ELD levels are assigned to mixed-grade classrooms in order to teach reading through SFA. Since SFA is not aligned with the ELA standards and it does not include an ELD component, teachers use the Open Court curriculum to cover these areas. According to the majority of the teachers, they would rather use Open Court, which is better aligned with the district- and state- mandated tests.

Finally, interviewees frequently reflected on the importance of adapting the curriculum to meet the individual needs of their students, and some districts and schools

reported using student achievement data for this purpose. In this respect, the principal of a *not substantial L₁ growth* elementary school explained that the publishers do not necessarily address the needs of ELs; therefore, she remarked, "It is up to the school to assess what those needs are." She concluded, "We have to see to the needs of our population [rather than making] the kids adjust to what we have. We need to align our delivery system and the curriculum with the needs of the student."

For instance, at a *substantial L₁ effective* middle school, the EL coordinator said that one contributor to their success is that they are constantly reviewing their EL program, both during general staff meetings and during EL-focused teacher meetings. She added, "Our EL teachers are consistently meeting formally and informally to discuss their students' progress. Reviewing student work at the EL team meetings has helped us to better understand what kind of progress we are making with our delivery system." Teachers at this school believe one of their greatest strengths is the continuous and consistent use of student data (e.g., student portfolios and achievement scores) to monitor their progress, as well as to "help to inform and improve upon the current curriculum."

In another instance, an assistant superintendent said that the district "expects all schools to use their data as a means to improve their programs, educational practices, and student outcomes; however, different schools are at different levels in this respect." Site visit data from two elementary schools in this district confirmed this statement. Reportedly, at one *substantial L₁ effective* school, teachers and administrators continuously analyze student progress, both through standardized tests and ongoing classroom assessments, for formative purposes. For instance, the assistant principal said that they acquired two programs (i.e., Write from the Beginning and Thinking Maps) to support the language arts curriculum because student data indicated that they needed to work further in comprehension and writing.

Opportunities for Practice

As mentioned in the literature review section of this report, research findings indicate that ELs benefit from regular and varied opportunities to apply and practice their skills and knowledge.[7] Opportunities for practice may be incorporated into a wide variety of instructional strategies. In this respect, teachers mentioned using questioning techniques to elicit individual or group responses, giving English learners opportunities for communicative interactions with English-proficient peers in pair or small-group activities, and creating opportunities for students to participate in teacher-guided or student-centered discussions and activities (e.g., instructional conversation, cooperative learning, and peer tutoring). Frequently, interviewees remarked on the importance of providing ELs with opportunities to use oral and written English, and in particular opportunities to interact with native English speakers who may model use of the language. The rest of this section will cover the use of other instructional strategies and point out how these may incorporate opportunities for practice.

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[7] See August & Hakuta (1997) and Dalton (1998).

Explicit Skills Instruction

As stated earlier, the explicit instruction of basic skills and learning strategies has been cited in the literature as a key element for the effective instruction of English learners.[8] The relevant practices mentioned by teachers and observed in the classroom fall into two pedagogical approaches. The first one is a skills-based approach, which includes the explicit instruction of discrete skills such as phonics, decoding, word recognition, and specific comprehension skills. The second one is a holistic meaning-based approach, which focuses on the active participation of the students in meaningful activities that promote the development of higher-order conceptual skills, such as reading comprehension. These pedagogical approaches can be used independently or in combination.

For instance, some elementary school teachers reported using word walls as a strategy to explicitly teach and reinforce the acquisition of oral and written language skills.[9] Word walls were on display at many of the schools we visited. Another approach used by some teachers is instructional conversation,[10] in which they draw from the students' background knowledge and prior experiences to develop skills, such as critical thinking and reflection. During a classroom observation at a *not substantial L_1 growth* elementary school, a teacher combined these methods to review and discuss words beginning with the letter "k." The vocabulary was displayed on a teacher-created word wall, which she used to guide the discussion by asking open-ended, higher-level questions. For example, after a student said that kangaroos like to jump, the teacher asked, "If you like to jump and kangaroos like to jump, does that mean that you are a kangaroo?" Throughout this lesson, the teacher regularly checked for understanding and ensured that all students had opportunities to speak. She also ensured that students were using the target vocabulary and that they spoke in complete sentences.

Student-Directed Activities

As previously noted, the research literature substantiates the value of incorporating student-directed activities into the lessons on a regular basis. Some of the most frequently cited strategies include collaborative inquiry methods, cooperative learning groups, and peer tutoring.

For instance, in a Kindergarten classroom at a *substantial L_1 effective* school, a student directed a choral reading lesson. Students read sentences from a pocket chart as the student pointed to the sentences, which were predominantly composed by high frequency words (e.g., on, he, ate, two, days of the week) from a storybook. As the group read the sentences, individual students took turns using a prop and role-playing the respective actions. For example, one of the sentences said, "On Tuesday, he ate two pears." For this sentence, two students took a fabric pear with a hole in the middle and placed the pears through a caterpillar puppet, which was held by the student leading this activity. Throughout the lesson, the teacher asked the children open-ended questions oriented toward the

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[8] See August & Hakuta (1997).
[9] A word wall is a visual display of word lists that follow a systematic organization in order to demonstrate and reinforce the skills and concepts being taught in the classroom. For instance a word wall can demonstrate spelling rules, letter-sound correspondences, high-frequency words, word families, or word categories.
[10] See Dalton (1998).

development of higher-order thinking skills. The students were actively engaged in the reading activity, as well as in the discussion.

In another classroom at a *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school, students worked in pairs for about 20 minutes. The students' task was to compare and contrast two characters. Afterwards, the student dyads took turns presenting and discussing their work with the entire group. Throughout this discussion, the students used "accountable talk"[11] (e.g., "These characters were similar because…"), and each group presented the reasoning for selecting a strategy (e.g., "We chose a bubble map because…").

Instructional Strategies that Enhance Understanding

The research literature provides some evidence that the effective instruction of ELs integrates strategies to develop advanced comprehension skills. Some of the relevant strategies mentioned by teachers include articulating learning goals, activating the students' background knowledge, explicitly teaching metacognitive reading strategies, checking for comprehension, illustrating and modeling skills and tasks, modifying speech, using comprehensible input or scaffolding techniques, lowering the affective filter[12], and using manipulatives, visual materials, and realia (see Glossary).

For instance, some teachers reported that they modify their speech according to the students' proficiency or knowledge levels. Some of the strategies mentioned by teachers include speaking more slowly, restating, paraphrasing, repeating, emphasizing key words, providing word definitions, simplifying language, using simpler grammatical structures and translating key words or phrases into the students' primary language.

The development of metacognitive strategies was observed in a third grade classroom at a *substantial L₁ effective* elementary school during instructional conversations in which the teacher emphasized important aspects about the strategies or the content of the students' work. For example, the teacher asked, "What did you notice about their presentation?" Students responded, "They used transition words." These students were also observed engaging in similar conversations as they worked in pairs.

Staff Development

Another important component of effective schooling for English learners is staff development. August and Hakuta (1997, p. 184) note that, although there is widespread agreement on the importance of this component, it has not been adequately emphasized in the effective schools literature: "A real question that remains is what sort of training is most relevant for improving school processes, as well as teacher knowledge and skills."

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[11] A "principles of learning" concept; see footnote 13, below.)
[12] An affective filter (Dulay and Burt, 1977; Krashen, 1982) is a mental barrier (e.g., high anxiety, low motivation, poor self-confidence). In the second language acquisition process, EL students' affective filter can prevent them from using comprehensible input. One way to facilitate second language acquisition is to create a classroom environment that lowers the affective filter by creating an environment where the students are encouraged to use their language skills freely. A strategy to create such an environment is to model proper language use rather than to correct the students' linguistic errors.

This section of the report addresses a number of salient themes related to staff development that surfaced in the site visit data. The first is the extent to which staff development at sites has prepared schools for the implementation of Proposition 227. The second is the extent to which teachers – including those with Cross-Cultural Language & Academic Development (CLAD) and Bilingual Cross-Cultural Language & Academic Development (BCLAD) credentials – are prepared to work with English learners. The third concerns staff development needs and different approaches to the content and delivery of staff development to meet those needs. Included also in this discussion are implications for promising practices.

Staff Development in Preparation for Proposition 227

While there was some variation in how sites used staff development to prepare for Proposition 227, the majority of sites thought that staff development in this area was inadequate. This finding is consistent with the findings described in our Year 1 and 2 reports. Only two sites (*effective* and *comparison substantial L_1* schools) stated that Proposition 227 "didn't have a big effect" on the provision of staff development. Other *not substantial L_1 effective* schools reported staff development around the proposition as absolutely necessary and were upset by not having received it. The EL coordinator at one of these schools commented on the lack of a unified understanding about Proposition 227 that staff development could have helped provide. "When Prop. 227 first came out," she said, "if you called the district three times, you would get three different answers." The professional development coordinator at the district also noted the confusion. She said, "Teachers were not prepared for the implementation of 227. Nobody was." Responding to a question about staff development related to Proposition 227, the principal of a *not substantial L_1 growth* school summed up her feelings with this statement: "Those are nightmare days that are behind me."

In contrast to these responses, one *substantial L_1 comparison* school had a more positive experience with the staff development provided in relation to parent notification provisions of Proposition 227. The principal reported that, in the first year of implementation, district-community liaisons provided the necessary information to parents and, concurrently, trained teachers on how to hold parent meetings. Over the next two years, teachers and other site personnel took over responsibility for these meetings.

While this site was satisfied with the staff development provided in relation to the legalities of the proposition, it noted a weakness in terms of its instructional implications. As the professional development coordinator of the district said, "The professional development was rushed. We needed more time to make that transition. They [the teachers] knew the legalities, but in terms of managing a classroom filled with 1s, 2s, and 3s [students at these ELD levels], we were very weak." Indeed, regarding staff development provided in preparation for implementing the proposition, most sites declared that it was inadequate and it did not help them prepare for the realities of the post-227 classroom.

Staff Development and CLAD/BCLAD Credentials

Across sites, professional development coordinators tended to agree that teachers, even those holding a CLAD credential, require more staff development. In particular, they thought that teachers needed to improve their ability to instruct classes of students at

different ELD levels. The district professional development coordinator (hereafter referred to as "PD coordinator") of a *not substantial L₁ effective* school pointed out the need for language specialists at the elementary level. "The CLAD is not sufficient at elementary because they are teaching so many other things," she said. "It really takes training to work with students at beginning levels of ELD… Students need a specialist to teach at this level."

The PD coordinator of a *substantial L₁ effective* school agreed that CLAD training is insufficient, noting that "the district only wanted BCLAD [Bilingual Cross-Cultural Language & Academic Development] [teachers] because they're the most highly prepared." The PD coordinator of a different *substantial L₁ effective* school concurred: "With BCLAD in many ways they are more prepared. They're more linguistically conscious." However, this individual also noted that there is often a gap between holding a CLAD/BCLAD and having the ability or disposition to use CLAD/BCLAD strategies in systematic and skillful ways.

The PD coordinator overseeing a *not substantial L₁ comparison* school and a *substantial L₁ effective* school in our sample agreed on these points: "Teachers with a CLAD certificate are not fully prepared to teach ELs. Teachers with a BCLAD at least have the language skills, but this does not mean that they have mastered the strategies to teach ELs… The fact that they have a certificate is good, but we need to ensure that they use what they know… so they need additional training." The majority of sites noted this concern over the insufficiency of CLAD training, considering BCLAD training more substantial, though still not a guarantee of appropriate instruction for ELs.

Staff Development Needs

Due to the perceived insufficiency of the CLAD, and even BCLAD training, sites had many ideas about what additional staff development is needed and how it could best be delivered. The PD coordinator of one *not substantial L₁ effective* school thought that more staff development is needed on strategies to use with ELs, and that, additionally, classroom coaching is an important element in successful implementation. The PD coordinator overseeing a *substantial L₁ effective* and a *not substantial L₁ comparison* school held a similar opinion, but was concerned specifically about staff development targeting students at the intermediate level and above. Citing the district's yearly evaluation, she said, "In general, after reaching the ELD 3 level, 55 percent of the ELs are not making adequate progress in acquiring English language proficiency. This finding indicates that teachers need additional training and that the district has not done a very good job for the past four years in providing a sequenced and consistent training program that teaches teachers how to do ELD in depth." She continued to point out that when district staff visits classrooms, they do not see teachers using a lot of techniques to differentiate instruction to meet varying student needs, especially at the secondary level.

The need for staff development around differentiation techniques resonated with the PD coordinator of another *substantial L₁ effective* site. She commented that teachers need training on how to modify lessons for students of varying language levels: "If you have a variety of ELs in your class, how will you differentiate your instruction? That's the hardest area and, if not done well, that's where the kids fall through the cracks." At a *not substantial L₁ growth* site, the PD coordinator also pointed to the need for staff development related to the needs of higher-level ELs and the technique of differentiation. More specifically, she said,

"Teachers need to have a much deeper understanding of linguistics and the acquisition of a new language. There is also the need for teachers to understand the need to develop academic language in both spoken and written forms. We know how to get kids to the intermediate stage, but don't seem to know how to get them beyond that. We also need to know how to do differentiation of delivery of curriculum [to students at different English proficiency levels]."

Different Approaches to Meeting Staff Development Needs

In reviewing the data related to staff development provided at the sample sites, a number of different approaches emerged. These approaches can be described in terms of the level at which the staff development takes place, in terms of its content and delivery, and in terms of its potential effectiveness.

Levels of Staff Development

The staff development described by case study respondents typically took place at two levels: the district level (central) and/or the school or cluster of schools (local) level.

District Level. Arrangements for the teachers to attend the central, district-level trainings were made in two primary ways – during or outside school hours. One approach was for the district to "buy back" days from the teachers' contracts. In one *not substantial L_1 effective* site, the district schools would close for a period of three days so that teachers could attend the district's staff development activities. Another approach was for the district to sponsor after-school meetings or summer meetings. The PD coordinator of a *not substantial L_1 effective* school had a negative opinion, however, on the success of staff development held outside of school hours. She said, "After-school or summer training didn't work. We did an assessment and decided they need to have training during the school day." She felt that teachers' motivation drops sharply when staff development is done on their own time.

A noted benefit of central, district-level staff development is consistency. As the PD coordinator overseeing a *substantial L_1 effective* and a *not substantial L_1 comparison* school in our sample explained, "The central office wants to provide some direct institutes for teachers because this way the district can ensure that teachers across [the district] are getting a consistent message." The logistics of providing direct training in large districts are difficult, however, so these central offices may look toward supplemental funds, such as from NCLB Titles II or III, to hire more staff to train staff development educators.

School Level. Local, school-level staff development generally took place at the school site and involved having teachers share the information they had learned at conferences or workshops. As the principal of one *not substantial L_1 effective* site described, their top math teacher "will go to professional development workshops and this teacher will come back and do math professional development for all the teachers." The idea that teachers were expected to share the information they had learned at staff development workshops with other teachers at their site was a common one. Alternatively, staff development at the school site entailed periodic in-services that all teachers, or teams of teachers, would attend. The benefit of school-based staff development is its potential to address a school's unique needs. The EL coordinator at one *substantial L_1 effective* site, was clear about the need for teachers to receive both district- and school-based staff development: "Once you get through the basic training

in ELD which the school has from the district, you need more of a program developed just for the school."

Relationship Between District- and School-Level Professional Development. In several instances, the theory of a "trickle-down" effect from central, district-level staff development to local, school-level staff development was highlighted. The PD coordinator overseeing a *substantial L₁ effective* and a *not substantial L₁ comparison* school described the effect this way: "[The district] provides ELD and SDAIE training to district administrators, coaches, principals, and school-level coordinators. The intent is to train the leadership and provide them with necessary resources so that they can in turn train teachers in their local districts and at their individual school sites."

But there was concern that principals, who as instructional leaders are expected to play this integral role in staff development, are either underprepared or undervalued. A PD coordinator overseeing a *substantial L₁ effective* and a *not substantial L₁ comparison* school in our sample reiterated the idea that the district counts on principals to develop knowledge and skills in teachers, but expressed concern that "not all principals are aware of the needs of ELs and able to assist." The principal of a *not substantial L₁ comparison* school expressed frustration about the role she plays in training teachers and helping students: "We have had one or two workshops a year to learn how to help the teacher. We don't have much support to help the children. There is no respect for this work with bilingual children. It pulls the rug out from under us and it feels like a slap in the face. When the children tell you 'thank you' for the help, we feel really good. We feel underappreciated for the work we do."

The capacity of the "trickle-down" theory of staff development to work is dependent on a number of variables; foremost among those mentioned in our interviews is, as the last quote indicated, knowledgeable and valued leadership. Time and money, especially given state budget cuts, were also cited as factors constraining the adequate provision of staff development at both the district and school levels. In the words of the PD coordinator of a large district, "Even with a number of people [who deal specifically with ELs], it is a heavy load. They are doing the best they can and what they are doing are mostly compliance issues. They do not have a lot of support or time for training."

Content and Delivery of Staff Development

Familiarizing teachers with a district-adopted reading program (such as Open Court or High Point) or additional district-disseminated programs (such as Principles for Learning) forms the content of other staff development efforts. In fact, a number of interviewees commented that the only funds they received for ELD staff development were those connected with the initial adoption of a reading program. About this, the EL coordinator at a *not substantial L1 growth* school observed, "The first year we got the adoption, we received everything, but that was it." Another mechanism for teachers to learn about EL education is for them to attend professional conferences featuring highly regarded EL experts.

Regardless of staff development content, interviewees across sites generally expressed the belief that teachers learn best through practice-oriented, active learning. The PD coordinator of a *substantial L₁ effective* school complained that "most of it [staff development] has been lecture format," and suggested that "participants need to be just like

learners, so staff development should always involve activities." The PD coordinator of a *not substantial L₁ effective* school was happy with its approach to staff training: "We touch on theory, but basically give hands-on strategies that they can take and implement in class the next day."

There was also general agreement that staff development was not a "stand-alone" event, but that it ideally involved having teachers share what they learned with other teachers at their sites. Nonetheless, the PD coordinator of a *not substantial L₁ effective* school pointed out this approach was difficult to enforce. "Teachers are expected to do mini-lessons at their sites after attending conferences," she said, "but no one is responsible to track whether this happens or not."

Characteristics of Effective Staff Development

Viewed against the backdrop of the effective professional development literature,[13] data from our site visit interviews point to a number of effective staff development practices. Effective staff development has the following characteristics: It is systemic in scope, yet flexible and responsive to local needs; it is ongoing and job-embedded; and it is intentional in its goals and objectives.

Systemic in Scope, Yet Responsive to Local Needs

As discussed earlier in this section, staff development takes place at two levels – the more central, district level and the more local, school level. The first characteristic of effective staff development refers to how staff development at each level complements the other. A promising model is one in which teachers systemically receive a consistent program of training from their districts but, in addition, have opportunities, at the more local level, for trainings congruent with their unique interests and concerns. This model was well-articulated by the PD coordinator of *substantial L₁ effective* and *not substantial L₁ comparison* schools. In addition to what the central district office provides to teachers, she said that, "Each local district has the freedom to choose additional support programs and to provide training relevant to those programs – for example , WRITE, High Point, Thinking Maps, and GLAD." What seems particularly promising is the idea that the boundary between the central and local levels is permeable; what is offered at the local level, for example, may ultimately impact the more centralized agenda. In this case, as the PD coordinator described it, "As [the central district] develops its own training modules, it incorporates elements from those other [local district] programs, especially when there are positive comments and results."

Ongoing and Job Embedded

Staff development that is more than just an isolated, stand-alone event is another promising practice. The EL coordinator of a *substantial L₁ effective* school described how her local district is offering staff development to teachers on the "Principles of Learning."[14] Over

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[13] See Guskey (2000, pp.16-22).
[14] The "Principles of Learning" are nine teaching and learning principles distilled by the University of Pittsburgh's Institute for Learning as part of a synthesis of 25 years of findings on how children learn. These principles are the following: organizing for effort, clear expectations, fair and credible evaluations, recognition of accomplishment, academic rigor in a thinking curriculum, accountable talk, socializing, intelligence, self-

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the course of several years, teachers in the district have been receiving staff development that moves them through each of the principles. For example, when the principle was "clear expectations," the teachers focused on understanding the goals of what they were teaching and communicating that to students through the use of performance criteria and rubrics. Now the teachers are learning about "accountable talk" and how to promote higher-level thinking in their students through the use of questioning strategies that require analysis and synthesis. Teachers are supported in moving through the principles by coaches and fellow staff who visit their classrooms and provide them with feedback on the use of the strategies with students. In this way, the staff development teachers in this district receive is part of an ongoing process to acquire a cohesive body of knowledge and skills. It is facilitated through the use of the teachers' own classrooms and colleagues as sites and sources of learning.

Intentional in Its Goals and Objectives

Related to the first two characteristics of effective staff development is the third: staff development that is intentional in its goals and objectives. Designing training opportunities that satisfy both central standards and local needs and are informed by a longer-term, practice-based view of teaching requires establishing a clear vision of what it is that staff development is trying to achieve. We observed some districts and schools to be taking the establishment of this vision very seriously. The director of curriculum in one large district, which contributed both a *substantial L_1 effective* and a *not substantial L_1 comparison* school to our sample, described how they have come to adopt a more data-driven, open-ended approach to decisions about staff development. "This decision [about what staff development activities are needed] should be based on the student achievement data so that teachers can be enabled to target areas where students are not making adequate progress," she said. "We are getting away from this idea that you can plan a professional development calendar one year in advance. We are saying that professional development needs to be built upon what you see in assessment results." The EL coordinator of a *substantial L_1 effective* school explained how, at her site, making decisions about staff development activities is a shared responsibility. Grade-level chairs, administrators, and support staff attended a two-day retreat where they worked on developing changes in staff development. She described this as an opportunity to allow teachers to give more input to the school and pointed out that, in fact, the school's staff development plan did change based on ideas generated during the retreat. Setting a staff development agenda that is informed by data and generated through practitioner input helps ensure that goals and objectives are realistic and relevant.

Family Involvement

A final component of effective schooling for EL students is family involvement. Like staff development, researchers have only recently begun to understand the importance of this component for successful social and academic outcomes. Studies now illustrate the ways in which efforts to strengthen home-school connections benefit ELs both affectively and academically.[15] One of our goals in the site visits was to document such efforts.

Review of our data suggests no clear connection between family involvement and the *effective*, *growth*, and *comparison* indices used to stratify the sample. There was no notable

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management of learning, and learning as apprenticeship. See the following link for more information: http://www.instituteforlearning.org.
[15] See August & Hakuta (1997, p. 185).

pattern of family involvement practices among all the *effective* schools, for example; some *effective* schools had no family involvement activities in place at all. Thus, instead of trying to validate our predictive model, this section describes what we learned about family involvement from the sites visited. It discusses activities that target cognitive/academic outcomes and social/affective outcomes, paying particular attention to the Community Based English Tutoring (CBET) program. It also identifies some barriers to the success of those activities and suggests approaches schools can take to facilitate family involvement.

Cognitive and Academic Activities

Cognitive and academic family involvement activities are those that specifically attempt to improve student achievement. Among the activities frequently mentioned in the parent focus groups were efforts to read with children at home and help them with their homework. Additional efforts to improve student achievement on the part of the parents included assigning an appropriate study area at home and monitoring television viewing. Parents also talked about their participation in parent-teacher conferences and co-curricular support activities, like "math and science nights" and Saturday "Reading Boosts." We saw evidence of a variety of such activities across most sites in our sample.

The importance of a teacher's assistance in helping families provide cognitive and academic support for their children did not go unnoticed by parents. A parent focus group at a *substantial L_1 effective* school documented the role that teachers can play in working with parents to improve student learning. One mother mentioned that she felt able to help her son with his homework, but when it came to math, she actually confused him since she learned how to do math differently from the way her son is doing it in school. She described how she asked the teacher to explain to her how math is being taught. She got a math mini-lesson, which helped her to be able to help her son. At a *not substantial L_1 effective school*, parents told us they were limited in their ability to provide support because they did not understand the teachers' assignments. Many expressed frustration over not understanding because of the language barrier.

Social and Affective Activities

Social and affective family involvement activities are those that attempt to enhance, more generally, home-school connections. Among the activities frequently mentioned in the parent focus groups were efforts to volunteer in their children's classrooms, serve on committees, like the PTA, take parent education classes, and attend special school events, like Open House night. Regular communication from the school, in language(s) that parents could understand, was integral to parents' knowing about and taking advantage of these activities.

During the parent focus group at one *substantial L_1 effective* site, parents commented on the importance of regular communication from the school: "The school sends lots of notes home. Every Wednesday they send a folder home of what's happening at the school, of any new changes, and they invite parents to participate in different activities." Parents at another *substantial L_1 effective* school also remarked on the school's efforts to maintain regular communication: "On the first day of school, we get letters informing us of what is happening with our children . . . Information is available through monthly newsletters, phone calls from teachers, and written notes from teachers to the parents." The EL

coordinator at this site agreed that her site does a good job of establishing communication with parents. "Teachers," she said, "do a lot to contact the parents so that they are informed about what is happening at the school and in the classroom." At a *not substantial L₁ effective* school, parents complained that they "don't know how to get involved" because communications from the school come in English and they cannot read them.

Community Based English Tutoring (CBET)

In all but a few cases, positive results from parents' participation in the CBET program were explicitly noted. The results of CBET participation tended to be described in two ways: first, CBET was said to improve parents' skills in helping their children academically and, additionally, in improving their skills vocationally; second, CBET was said to be an effective way of ensuring and monitoring parent involvement in their children's academic work, both at school and at home.

In a parent focus group at a *not substantial L₁ effective* school, parents praised the CBET program for the opportunities it afforded them to learn English and computer-based job-related skills. In relation to the program's role in teaching her English, one mother said, "I attended the program for a long time. Now, I understand more of what I read in English. This has helped a lot because now I understand a lot on the homework that my daughters bring." Another mother agreed, stating, "Sometimes the children say that they don't understand the homework. Now that I am able to read the instructions, I also know how to help my kids with the homework." At a *not substantial L₁ comparison* site, the EL coordinator said that CBET has been instrumental in giving parents the English skills they need to complete their GEDs and get jobs.

Because of positive results like this, attendance of (non-school-based) CBET classes in one district in our sample has swelled to 500 participants per semester. According to the CBET coordinator, those numbers "are getting bigger every year." She attributed the program's success to close collaboration with the adult school and provision of childcare. Participants are able to make time to take English and computer classes that are relevant to their lives and allow them to obtain employment because they know that their children will be cared for in their absence. This "overwhelming" request for more CBET classes was noted in another district as well.

Beyond the skills-building effect of CBET programs, many sites noted an increase in parents' involvement in their children's education. At one *substantial L₁ effective* site, the principal noted that CBET parents tended to volunteer in class and attend school activities more frequently than non-CBET parents. He described the weekly logs his school uses to track what parents are doing to help their children be successful in school. We saw this practice in place at another *substantial L₁ effective* school and a *not substantial L₁ comparison* school as well. The CBET coordinator at one of the *not substantial L₁ growth* schools described, in alignment with the "pledge" requirement of CBET, how parents there were asked to sign a "contract" or "pact" attesting to their commitment to read to their children and to monitor what they watch on TV.

Barriers to Family Involvement

Our site visit data also point to several factors that can create significant barriers to family involvement. These include cultural and linguistic differences that may lead to racial tensions, need for transportation, inadequate skills, and lack of time and energy.

Cultural/linguistic differences

Some interviewees noted that newly arrived families in the United States are often not as involved as families whose residency is longer established. The language barrier was clearly identified as contributing to this lesser involvement. As the EL coordinator of one *not substantial L_1 comparison* site made clear, it was her bilingual abilities that allowed her to successfully reach out to these parents. She said, "The reason that we get things from the EL parents is that I speak Spanish." Newly arrived families whose children attend schools where no bilingual services are available are at a clear disadvantage when it comes to home-school connections.

A perceived cultural difference reported at some sites was that some EL parents "care more about their children's behavior than their academic performance." In a focus group at a *substantial L_1 comparison* school, teachers remarked, "When there is a conference, the parents come, but when their kids don't get in trouble, they don't schedule a conference." The principal of a *substantial L_1 effective* school also made this observation on the effect of cultural difference on family involvement: "The Hispanic population is hardest to make realize that kids need to be there every day at school and if little baby is sick, it doesn't mean all brothers and sisters need to stay at home." Teachers in a focus group at another *substantial L_1 effective* school observed, "One thing with Latinos is the feeling that they always have one foot in their home country, as if they are going back, and one foot in the U.S. So, we need to let them know that they are here and have to react to some of the things of being here." From the parents' perspectives, however, there was evidence that such culture-based perceptions and conclusions may make them feel unjustly targeted. At one *not substantial L_1 growth* school, for example, the parents interviewed said that the school administration shows favoritism towards other ethnic minorities at the school. During a focus group, these parents revealed that they do not like the principal because they feel she looks at them as different, as less educated, and as people who do not care about their kids.

Logistical barriers

Interviewees at several sites indicated that it is the logistics of the home-school connection that get in the way of family involvement. They frequently mentioned transportation as a problem, particularly when the children are bussed to a "non-neighborhood school" from surrounding communities. The principal at a *substantial L_1 comparison* school said that parent involvement for ELs "is not best when they have to drive over."

Socioeconomic barriers

Also, the general socioeconomic reality of many EL parents makes family involvement in schooling a difficult goal to achieve. Parents at a *substantial L_1 effective* school explained that volunteering at the school is not always possible because they work very hard and are very tired. Other parents at this school feel that their ability to help their children is constrained by their own limited education.

Activities to Facilitate Family Involvement

Review of our data on family involvement suggests three approaches that schools can take to enhance family involvement: maintain regular school-home communication in the native language(s); emphasize the positive aspects of EL students' presence at the school; and develop a climate of co-responsibility.

Regular School-Home Communication in Native Language

The frequency with which the theme of communication came up in our data cannot be overstated. Across all sites, there was agreement that the ideal situation would be to have a bilingual/bicultural staff (including the principal, teachers, and administrative staff) that would maintain regular pathways of open home-school communication. The absence of such staff was a significant issue, as arrangements to compensate fell far short. For example, in one *not substantial L_1 effective* school, we were told that the district would translate letters or class information, but only with one- to two-weeks' lead time. This lead-time rules out translation services for any unforeseen communication needs, which are more often the norm than the exception. As a teacher from a *not substantial L_1 growth* school explained, it is "important to have a teacher that talks in Spanish. When teachers are not bilingual, [the parents] feel they cannot participate that much in their child's education if they cannot communicate with the teacher in their own language."

Positive Emphasis on EL Presence at the School

The data also pointed out the need for home-school communication to have a positive tone. Some home-school communication was described to us as routinely negative. We heard stories of schools only calling EL parents when they do not show up for an Open House or when their children get in trouble, and of EL parents only receiving letters that are framed around "at-risk" issues. A mother in a parent focus group at a *not substantial L_1 effective* site explained her frustration about repeatedly negative messages from her child's teacher about homework: "The teacher calls and asks about what is going on. I say I did not have time to review the homework or that [my son] told me that he had finished and I believed him. We have to face the teacher each time." Home-school communication would likely be better received by EL parents if it emphasized the positive aspects of their children's presence at the school.

Climate of Co-Responsibility

Lastly, effective family involvement that we saw often reflected expectations of co-responsibility. Where more effective schools wanted to encourage parents to take responsibility for their children's education by becoming more involved in academic and social ways, they were also responsive to parents' interests and needs. One way this was enacted was through a home-visit program, where teachers visit their students' homes to learn more about their communities, their families, and their lives. The principal of a *not substantial L_1 growth* site that implemented such a program remarked on its effect on parent involvement at the school. "Since we have made the home visit program," she said, "we have since had tremendous participation." Schools also promoted a number of family involvement activities, recognizing that not all parents have the time and energy to be part of longer-term decision-making committees. They thus implicitly acknowledge that some parents may be more able to do short-term, specific tasks at the school.

Schools also encouraged a climate of co-responsibility by insisting on a spirit of teacher-parent collaboration. For example, the principal at a *substantial L$_1$ effective* school considered family involvement "the hallmark of his personal philosophy." Consequently, teachers and parents at the school met at the beginning of the year to talk about their goals and to establish high expectations for both students and teachers. Seen as valued collaborators in this way, parents contributed to important changes at the site. "It was parent involvement," the EL coordinator at a *substantial L$_1$ comparison* school explained, "that actually stimulated the transition from a four-track school to the current single-track system.

Examining "Effective" Ratings Across the Seven Criteria

The forgoing discussion has attempted to delineate some of the practices our team witnessed at school and district sites that both align with the research literature on effective practice with ELs, and appeared to us to help explain the different academic outcomes. As shown in Exhibit IV-2, three of the nine sampled sites identified as *effective* based on statewide achievement data, also received "effective" ratings on the seven criteria guiding the site visits. However, complete correspondence between the effectiveness ratings assigned by our site visit teams and predicted effectiveness was not always found. For example, the *comparison* schools received 26 percent "effective" ratings in relation to what would have been possible (11 "effective" ratings in relation to the 42 possible (six sites by seven criteria)).

Exhibit IV-2: Percentage of Sites with "Effective" Ratings Across the Seven Criteria

	Effective Sites	Growth Sites	Comparison Sites	Overall
	(N=9)	(N=3)	(N=6)	(N=18)
Leadership	78%	33%	33%	**56%**
Accountability and Assessment	78%	33%	33%	**56%**
Instructional Plan	56%	33%	17%	**39%**
School Climate	44%	33%	33%	**39%**
Instructional Strategies	67%	33%	17%	**44%**
Staff Development	44%	33%	17%	**33%**
Family Involvement	56%	33%	33%	**44%**
Overall	**60%**	**33%**	**26%**	

On the other hand, the relationship between "effectiveness" as evidenced by state student academic achievement data on state assessments, and the practices and characteristics observed among the sampled sites was strong. As shown, the *effective* sites had an overall effectiveness rating of 60 percent in relation to 33 percent and 26 percent for the *growth* and *comparison* sites. It is also interesting to note the comparable findings from the field data for the *growth* and *comparison* sites. These data suggest that high achievement over time may be a stronger predictor of effective local practice than a one-time jump in performance.

The areas of effectiveness that predominated in the *effective* sites in relation to the others were leadership, systematic assessment, and effective instructional practices. On the other hand, "effective" overall school climate and staff development were among the biggest challenges across all sites. Even among the *effective* sites, less than one-half were shown to excel in these areas. It is also worth noting that only one among the *comparison* sites were rated as having highly "effective" staff development, a clear plan of instruction for ELs, or highly "effective" instructional practices.

In conclusion, among the sites selected in our sample, EL students' academic performance (as indicated by test scores) that "beats the odds" seemed to be a good predictor for finding many of the practices that we identified as "effective" on site. Schools that do better than expected on standardized tests seem to be doing so for a reason – many of the elements of a supportive school environment and strong instructional practice are in place. While no one criterion appeared absolutely essential to success, strong leadership and the constructive use of assessment data to inform instruction are the strongest candidates based on this limited sample. On the other hand, each of these elements also appeared in at least one of the *comparison* schools, suggesting that while each of these elements are important, none in isolation appears sufficient to assure high levels of student performance. Rather, it appears that a "critical mass" of the elements of effective practice with ELs may be more likely to contribute to measurably improved student performance. Of course, other important elements of instructional practice, not studied this year, may also contribute greatly to EL student performance.

Other Topics Related to Proposition 227 and Instruction of English Learners

This study is continuing to pursue and develop several other critical themes related to Proposition 227 and the instruction of English Learners. These include redesignation of English learners, class placement, segregation and tracking, waivers, significant changes and reforms affecting instruction of ELs, and the relationship between the state English Language Arts (ELA) and English Language Development (ELD) standards for instruction. These topics – as well as the Community Based English Tutoring (CBET) program and the English Language Acquisition Program (ELAP) – are discussed below.

Redesignation of English Learners to Fluent English Proficient (RFEP)

The study team has continued to carefully explore the issue of redesignation of English learners for two primary reasons: 1) because of its relation to Proposition 227's implied requirements to establish "reasonable fluency" criteria for EL transition from structured English immersion (SEI) to mainstream classrooms; and 2) because of its potential relationship to tracking, segregation, and access to grade-level instructional opportunities. This year's case study site visits suggest that redesignation continues to be a complex and problematic area at both district and site levels for several reasons, discussed below.

A key development in California's statewide policy in this area was the adoption of new reclassification guidelines in September 2002 by the California State Board of Education.[16] These new guidelines establish requirements to use the California English Language Development Test (CELDT) to assess English language proficiency, and the California Standards Test of English-Language Arts (CST-ELA) to assess performance in basic academic skills. Specific minimum performance standards on both these state assessments are also set forth in these guidelines for statewide use in redesignation decisions. Nevertheless, our interviews with district and site staff indicate that, while the new CELDT criteria are often cited, the new CST-ELA academic performance criterion is seldom referred to and may not be widely understood. In particular, several district and site administrators and teachers continue to refer to SAT-9 (Stanford Achievement Test, version 9) or CAT-6[17] (California Achievement Test, sixth edition) as the academic achievement criterion they use for redesignation decisions.

Moreover, other district criteria (permitted under state guidelines) and differing procedures appear to cause redesignation rates and even the meaning of redesignation to vary widely across districts. For example, one district visited requires its EL students to attain the 40th percentile on SAT-9/CAT-6 English Language Arts *and* Mathematics sections, and Advanced in Overall Proficiency with no sub-skill below Early Advanced on the CELDT. Another district allows Kindergartners to be redesignated at the end of the school year based only on CELDT Listening/Speaking performance and local curriculum-based assessments. Some also note that there is an incentive to redesignate by the end of second or third grade as progress in English Language Development (ELD) is much easier in early grades. It is harder

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[16] CA reclassification guidelines are available at: http://www.cde.ca.gov/statetests/celdt/resources/reclassofels.pdf
[17] In 2003, CAT-6 replaced SAT-9 as California's norm-referenced test.

to meet redesignation criteria at higher grades since grade-level standards (and both the CELDT and CST-ELA) quickly become more demanding.

Further complicating this picture is the issue of where districts set their "reasonable fluency" criterion cut-point for EL transition from SEI to mainstream classrooms. While most of the sites visited use CELDT, some set the criterion at "Intermediate," while others use "Early Advanced." That is, some districts set their "reasonable fluency" criterion at the level required for redesignation. This has little practical effect on ELs in schools where SEI already takes place in a mainstream classroom. Indeed, this helps explain why many SEI students in mainstream classrooms are not monitored for redesignation: it would have no programmatic implication beyond provision of ELD services, which are required until students are redesignated. (Moreover, in several instances, administrators assumed but did not verify that teachers are providing "sheltered instruction" in academic content for those ELs in mixed SEI/mainstream settings.) However, in other schools visited – particularly those with large numbers of ELs in the upper elementary grades – the practice of setting high "reasonable fluency" criteria to transition ELs from SEI to mainstream settings leads to increased EL segregation in separate SEI classrooms and decreased access to grade-level academic instruction (see section on tracking and segregation below).

Some districts use CELDT scores as the "trigger" for identifying students for redesignation review, while others use SAT-9/CAT-6 or CST results. Timing for reviews also varies, with some districts reviewing in March so that newly redesignated students may be reported in Language Census counts for that year. Others review students on a continual basis based on teacher referral.

Our site visit data suggest that districts and school sites are giving increased attention to setting explicit expectations and monitoring student progress in ELD and academic core subjects. In one district, improved procedures for identifying ELs who had met redesignation criteria but were not previously reviewed led to *several hundred more* students being redesignated in comparison to the previous year. Moreover, in several instances, teachers and administrators noted an urgency to redesignate students before they finish elementary grades, in order to avoid the tracking that occurs for ELs entering secondary schools. Several teachers even cited pressure from parents to redesignate their students before they move to middle school, where tracking often begins. These teachers told of EL students with "reasonable fluency" who were in mainstream classrooms in elementary school, but then placed in separate "ESL tracks" at middle school based on EL status alone rather than language proficiency or academic criteria. They noted that the students themselves often perceive this as a failure, since they were no longer in mainstream classrooms with native English speakers. Some students also expressed concern regarding their ability to substantially advance their English when all their classmates are ELs.

Class Placement, Segregation and Tracking

As indicated above, class placements for ELs, and potential segregation and tracking, are closely related to instructional program designs and options, district policies, and site criteria used for placement eligibility. Each of these elements is influenced in turn by factors such as the relative proportion of ELs and English-fluent students at a school, the English

proficiency levels of EL students, maximum class size constraints, the timing of students' arrival, and the structure of the school calendar (year-round vs. traditional).

In our visits to schools and districts, ELs in elementary schools were placed in one of the two or three program options offered at the school site (e.g., SEI, mainstream, and if offered, alternative program providing bilingual instruction). To what extent this initial placement decision was made via parental choice through program waivers is discussed in detail below.

Elementary schools commonly place ELs in programs based on their CELDT level. In our school sample, these levels were used to define SEI classrooms as well as transitional criteria to "mainstream" classrooms, when these are separate. Several schools mentioned rules to ensure that ELs were not entirely segregated from fluent English peers. In one district, for example, a proportional rule is applied to each SEI classroom, so that at least 25 percent of the class is composed of native English speakers. (There was some suggestion, however, that these may actually be the lowest performing EO students since it was noted that they, too, "benefit from ELD.")

Several elementary school respondents mentioned ongoing concerns with the constraints of class-size reduction requirements (maximum of 20 students in grades K through 3), which particularly affect EL students arriving at mid-year. These students "are placed wherever there is space available," according to one school EL coordinator. "This is terribly inappropriate. There might be a student that came straight from Mexico and the only spot in the entire school is in an EO classroom, so that is where he goes." A similar problem was also reported in schools trying to transition students meeting "reasonable fluency" criteria into mainstream classrooms. The EL coordinator at another school noted, "Although we test and assess [ELs] frequently, the real thing that determines when a student is ready to be transitioned up to another level is [whether] classes are full." Depending upon the concentration of ELs at a school, explained a district EL coordinator, there may be a self-contained SEI classroom comprised exclusively of ELs, "SEI and mainstream in one classroom," or even "bilingual and SEI in the same classroom."

As noted in our first year report, schools with year-round calendars were also reported to more likely risk segregating ELs either in SEI or alternative program tracks. A year-round school EL coordinator explained: "When you run a year-round school…each of the different tracks is like a separate school. We can't change someone from one track to another. If we were a traditional school, it would be very easy to move someone from one room to another." In the year-round calendar system, parental choice of instructional program model can create near-impossible instructional challenges for classroom teachers. For example, the EL coordinator at a school that is about to abandon year-round for a traditional calendar explained: "Teachers in the A track have students who are in the Spanish instruction option, mainstream option, and structured English immersion in the same classroom. If parents want a particular track, there may only be one teacher at a grade level who [ends up] doing Spanish and English instruction at the same time. A traditional calendar will help because everyone will be on the same track and we can place students in classrooms more appropriately."

We found a positive trend in cases of strong coordination regarding EL placement from elementary to secondary schools. For example, one "effective" middle school works directly with its feeder elementary schools in the spring to assess upper-elementary students, and then plans placement and programs *before* these students arrive. This allows school staff to anticipate key need areas, focus instructional planning, and develop grouping strategies, including smaller class sizes in corrective reading for lower ELD-level students. This school also creates individual EL student profiles and monitors progress carefully, moving students when they are ready across four ELD levels aligned to state ELD standards and the CELDT. A few districts also appeared to be paying more attention to prompt and accurate EL placement in secondary schools. One district in particular was testing each of its 5th and 6th grade ELs this spring using High Point diagnostic tests. "The goal," explained this district's EL coordinator, "is that by the time they enter secondary, they will already be assigned to the appropriate English proficiency level." These coordination strategies appear to be aimed at improving the appropriateness of instruction in ELD and literacy in particular.

Waivers

There are two types of waivers that parents may request: Waivers to place an EL student in an alternative course of study (in which a student's primary language is used to teach early literacy and academic subjects while the student receives ELD instruction); and those to exempt an EL (or any other) student from California's STAR testing program. As documented in our two previous years' reports, both kinds of waivers continue to present enormously complex and difficult issues, as discussed below.

Alternative Course of Instruction Waivers

Regarding instructional program waivers, our site visits this year continued to uncover significant variation in whether and how districts define their waiver policies, what forms and procedures are in place, and how school administrators and teachers implement policies and procedures set forth by their districts.

At the district level, there was variation in whether and how parents were notified, and how much guidance and support schools received regarding the issue. Some districts notify parents directly of their options, either through correspondence, face-to-face, or both. At one district, for example, standardized, translated letters are sent, explained in community meetings or at registration centers, and signed notification logs are kept. Other districts have a more general policy and leave implementation entirely to school sites. Still others appear to have no explicit policy, but rather an implicit one based on prior practices and perceived community preferences. One district administrator put it bluntly: "We don't have waivers."

As might be expected, in districts and schools where substantial L_1 instruction is offered, schools consistently had a well-developed set of procedures to explain program options, with advantages and disadvantages, to parents. Based on parent focus group interviews, there was also evidence of clear support by the community for bilingual instruction. At districts and schools where alternative programs are few or not offered, waiver forms and processes tend to be less standardized and were reported as more vague by staff and parents. "Parents get letters," another district administrator explained, "but that presumes that parents can read the letters and that there is someone at the schools who can explain it to them."

The issue of clear and balanced communication of options is an enduring one at school sites, and is mediated by the language of forms, school efforts, and community support. As one district EL Coordinator explained: "A lot of parents don't understand the rights that they have about instructional settings. It's scary for a parent to sign waivers to 'relinquish English instruction.' The language of the waiver is scary. At the beginning of the year parents don't understand the lingo and feel like they are signing away the right to an education every year. The more savvy parents are in the dual immersion program and have a better understanding. They help explain it to other parents."

The entire concept of waivers and program choice was still found to be confusing to some parents. One Vietnamese parent noted that she could read the translated letter, but still did not understand its meaning. Several parents requested school staff to advise them which option to choose. However, several parents reported never receiving any information about a choice. School administrators explained this in several ways. For some, not offering waivers results from a lack of demand. As one school EL coordinator explained, "Parents don't have a choice because there are not enough students to grant a Spanish-speaking class." Another explained that historical support eliminated any need for choice: "We have a history of teaching in English with primary language support. Parents see their children are learning. There are no waivers at all for this reason." Teachers at a third school were very clear about the school's implicit policy, with one summing up, "We don't publicly announce to parents that there is an opportunity for them to have the bilingual program; they are informed about the English program."

Finally, both teachers and parents continued to express frustration regarding Proposition 227's 30-calendar day SEI enrollment requirement for those choosing an alternative instructional program for the first time. Teachers noted there was no educational reason to have a Kindergartner in a program they will be removed from after 30 days, and argued that these students lose one month of grade-level instruction. Parents expressed frustration about placing a child in a program they had not chosen, where little or no comprehension occurs, and then removing the child from a room where he has made friends and begun to know the teacher.

STAR Test Waivers

As with alternative instructional program waivers, our site visit interviews and focus groups suggest reasonable cause for concern that parents are not being fully informed of their rights and options regard STAR test waivers. But unlike the former waivers, the lack of communication regarding test waivers was more common across all schools, including those offering bilingual instruction.

Many teachers and administrators note they take a "passive role" in informing parents of test waiver options. One principal at a school offering bilingual instruction explained, "We don't talk about [test] waivers to parents," while another said, "Testing waivers we don't encourage. We make no excuses – every child will learn. We had approximately 99 percent of the students take the [STAR] exam last year."

Given the legal obligation to inform parents of their options and to pressure to maximize the number of students taking the STAR tests (schools are penalized if their STAR participation rates fall below 95 percent, including parent waivers), this was referred to as a "very political issue." A principal at one *not substantial L₁* school noted that a teacher had lost his job due to "trying to convince" parents to sign test waivers. Other teachers mentioned telling parents who inquired about test waivers that "testing in English is very important for decisions such as redesignation and assignment to college prep classes." Teachers at another school said that they do not encourage the use of waivers and that parents "have to find out about them from someone else." This shifting of the burden to parents was evident in an explanation by the principal at a middle school, who related, "We're obligated to tell parents but the parents have to handwrite their own [test] waiver. There is no form for this."

In a notable exception across all sites visited, a principal at a *substantial L₁* middle school explained that the district's clear policy of informing parents of their test waiver rights facilitated this task: "By the time students come to [our school], the parents are pretty familiar with the test waiver policy. The school provides information that is sent home to the parents and available in our school office. Waiver information is in Spanish and English."

Given this context, it is not surprising that most parents in our focus groups said they were unaware of a test waiver option. Several nevertheless indicated that they would not seek a waiver since their child was being instructed in English. Acknowledging the timing of testing relative to their child's English language proficiency, other parents did express concern about English testing in academic subjects because their child was at more beginning levels of English. And at least one parent with a child in an alternative program expressed frustration that her child is tested in English and Spanish (i.e., on both the SAT-9 and the SABE/2), but only the English scores count.

Significant Changes and Reforms Impacting Instruction of ELs

There were once again several changes and reforms cited by teachers and administrators affecting the instruction of ELs at visited schools and districts. Principal among these were the state's now officially published ELD standards and the ongoing implementation of the CELDT. Many schools and districts described the development and implementation of ELD standards-based lessons and assessments to monitor EL progress in ELD during the school year (e.g., trimester ELD benchmark standards and ELD report card supplements). In addition, several districts have begun scoring centrally or encouraging schools to score the CELDT at the school site to aid with student placement and redesignation decisions in a more timely manner.

Much less frequently mentioned than in prior years are other major state initiatives such as class-size reduction and the state's high stakes accountability system – to some extent, because these have become accepted and familiar parts of the landscape. However, the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) was cited in a few instances as "raising the anxiety level" at schools and districts, especially regarding its potentially disproportionately negative effect on EL graduation rates. Also seldom mentioned was the federal *No Child Left Behind Act* (NCLB). However, the one NCLB provision that has been implemented so far – regarding qualifications of teachers and instructional aides – was cited frequently as a new challenge. It should be noted that NCLB's major policy provisions affecting ELs (Title I and

Title III) are still being developed for State Board review and approval, and that these are likely to have major impacts on schools and districts in the coming year.

Several teachers and administrators lauded the statewide adoption of the High Point reading intervention curriculum for ELs in grades 4 through 8 as very important and positive, although several also lamented the absence of an explicit, structured ELD curriculum aligned to the state's ELD standards. Some teachers and district EL coordinators noted that the ELD supplements found in state ELA adoptions (e.g., Open Court and Houghton-Mifflin) were helpful for "sheltering" early literacy instruction, but were inadequate to address the ELD needs of their ELs.

School and district staff mentioned internally developed and implemented reform efforts much more frequently than in past years. However, there appear to be real differences between our *effective* and *comparison* schools in the type, focus, and approach of these efforts. For example, many of the *comparison* schools cited initiatives with an external accountability focus, such as the Immediate Intervention/ Underperforming Schools Program (II/USP), the High Priority Schools Grants Program (HPSG), and the Coordinated Compliance Review (CCR). These schools also more often cited efforts to implement specific textbook series (e.g., Open Court, High Point, Hampton Brown) as an end goal. Our *effective* schools, on the other hand, referred to their textbooks as a resource and starting point. Notably, these schools much more frequently described implementing such practices as standards-based, backward-mapped lesson planning, within-grade teacher discussions, and cross-grade alignment initiatives. These school staffs also more frequently described using standards-based reading assessments, focusing on student performance data at teacher meetings and re-teaching based on data analysis, teachers observing their peers in classrooms, and focusing on developing and assessing student writing.

It was not clear if this contrast reflects a difference in where these schools are developmentally, or a difference in instructional leadership focus. There is some evidence that substantial district initiatives were more prevalent in the *effective* schools, including some major, sustained district professional development around the principal as instructional leader, principal literacy institutes (so that districts, as one administrator put it, can provide "solid feedback to the teacher on balanced literacy practices in the classroom"), and standards-based teaching. What remains unclear is whether *effective* schools receive more district support or are simply more able to take advantage of what their districts offer.

Understanding and Utilizing State ELA and ELD Standards for Instruction

Across all sites, teachers were generally more familiar with the state's ELA standards than with its ELD standards, though improving understanding of the two sets of standards and how they align is a current area of focus for many of the schools. The school EL coordinators and teachers from seven different schools explicitly mentioned that they were attempting to more fully utilize the ELD and ELA standards and in particular to leverage

ELD standards in instructing ELs, in order to bring them to grade level in ELA standards.[18] These schools, however, have had varying degrees of success in their attempts.

All of the teachers from the *effective* schools (with the exception of one school that was not asked about the standards) reported that they were well familiar with the ELA standards and most said that they had received training on using them. Some schools sent their teachers to training over the summer or on a Saturday, while others held in-service days at the school. It was less clear from our data how much training teachers had received on the ELD standards. One *substantial L_1 effective* elementary school sent a teacher from every grade level to an ELD training workshop and those trained teachers were responsible for teaching all the other teachers what they learned. Overall, standards-based instruction was given more emphasis by teachers at the *effective* schools. During a focus group at a *not substantial L_1 effective* elementary school, one group of teachers said that they use the ELD and ELA standards regularly to design instruction and have linked them to adopted curricula. Another teacher at a *not substantial L_1 effective* elementary school said that she is now seeing the benefits of the ELD standards after being required to use them in her teaching. Only one teacher at a *not substantial L_1 effective* elementary school commented that, after being required to incorporate the ELD standards in her lesson plans, she is unsure of how helpful they are because she found the ELD standards to be very similar to what was already being taught in Open Court.

Our data also indicate that the use of ELD and ELA standards from the *comparison* schools was more uneven than at the *effective* schools. The school EL coordinators were less sure of the extent to which their teachers were comfortable using either set of standards. Only one school EL coordinator at a *not substantial L_1 comparison* elementary school said that the teachers were "well aware of the ELD standards" and "provided staff development where they tried to correlate the ELD and ELA standards." However, the teachers at this same school still expressed difficulties planning instruction with the ELD standards, despite having received training. The school EL coordinators at the other *comparison* schools said either that they were unsure of how well their teachers knew the standards and understood the relationship between the two sets, or that all the teachers were at different levels of understanding and application of ELD standards. Even some of the schools that distributed the ELD standards to teachers or provided staff development to train teachers on their form and use found that teachers do not adequately incorporate these standards into their instruction.

Several site administrators across all sites – *effective*, *growth*, and *comparison* – acknowledged the potential of having aligned ELD and ELA standards, but expressed the need for more support in helping their teachers to utilize both sets of standards in a more coherent and aligned way. They also saw a greater need to help teachers review students' performance on CELDT (or other standards-based ELD assessments) with the ELD standards in mind, so that they can more effectively teach (or reteach) those standards-based skills needed to progress to higher levels of English language proficiency and grade-level performance in English language arts.

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[18] The California ELD standards are explicitly aligned to the state's ELA standards, and describe a progression in five English language proficiency levels that depict greater mastery of English. At the Early Advanced and Advanced levels, the ELD standards largely "transition to" the state's ELA standards.

Community-Based English Tutoring (CBET) Program

Established as part of Proposition 227, the Community-Based English Tutoring (CBET) Program funds local educational agencies (LEAs) to provide free or subsidized adult English-language instruction to parents or other community members who pledge to provide personal English-language tutoring to English learners. LEAs may use these funds for direct program services, community notification processes, transportation services, and background checks required of the tutors who volunteer in public schools. As with past site visits, our team interviewed district and site administrators, teachers, and parents in order to continue to gauge the impact that CBET is having on EL students and their families.

While CBET programs were slow to be implemented in 1998-99 and 1999-2000, they have been much more widely implemented since 2000-01.[19] Many of the programs are coordinated with district adult education divisions, or with community colleges and other community based organizations. Some district CBET Coordinators reported strategies for establishing new CBET programs. Specifically, they chose sites with high numbers of beginning ELs in order to target their parents, and sites with no other adult education programs. Additionally, they described school-site referral strategies in which teachers target "families in which the parent expresses confusion in helping their children with schoolwork due to the language barrier." School and district administrators identified certain other components as key to facilitating recruitment and participation. These included offering adult participants childcare, transportation to and from sites, and flexible ESL class schedules.

In a few districts we visited, minimum CBET class-size requirements, physical space limitations, year-round school calendars, and the shortage of qualified teachers have forced smaller school-based programs to consolidate or close. All those whose CBET programs were discontinued expressed disappointment, with some noting that parents still come to the school inquiring about the program, and all desired to re-establish their programs in the near future.

As discussed in our earlier reports, the extent of a CBET program's connection to schools and students depends on the particular program design, recruitment approaches, locations, and support strategies utilized. In addition to components mentioned above, our team found ample evidence of CBET initiatives being strategically integrated with site- and district-based family literacy initiatives. Parents are encouraged to take books home and read to their children. Also, many CBET courses were said to teach vocabulary specific to school matters of importance to parents. Topics included homework assignments and STAR test reports; understanding CELDT information, report cards, and standards; and navigating the public school system. Other topics mentioned were child development, parent-teacher communication strategies, and ideas for home-learning activities.

District administrators, principals and teachers almost universally praise the CBET programs at their sites, and see them as providing a popular, needed service and creating many positive "ripple effects." Many school staff reported that CBET helped to improve

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[19] See California Department of Education (2002).

home-school communication. Teachers in particular said that the CBET program increased parental presence in and contact with the school. As one administrator described, "It motivates the parents and also helps with providing student accountability at home. [These] parents are attending school functions, calling teachers and schools regarding their children, and…feeling far more connected than those parents that otherwise do not take part in the program."

Teachers also noted that their students "feel proud to see parents at the school site with a class and a teacher, having homework, and 'graduating' from a program." Several also reported instances where CBET parents subsequently volunteered at school, and later became instructional aides.

While local evaluation of CBET programs is not required, several administrators reported that they have parents maintain tutoring logs, and a few reported monitoring on electronic databases the total hours adults attend classes and tutor students. A few administrators also claimed that CBET-tutored students check out more library books, and that parent communication with teachers and attendance at ELAC and other school community events has improved. Of those interviewed, only one district's CBET coordinator spoke of systematic data collection. As she described, "We collect data…that has helped monitor student progress in certain areas such as how many children 4-7 years old have parents in program, amount of time parent read to child at home, [and] how often they attend school functions." However, none of our informants were attempting to link CBET participation to student achievement outcomes.

English Language Acquisition Program (ELAP)

The English Language Acquisition Program (ELAP), authorized in 1999 by California Assembly Bill (AB) 1116, provides funding to California's school districts to improve the English proficiency of California's EL students in grades 4 through 8. Specifically, ELAP funds are intended to better prepare these students to meet the state's academic content and performance standards. Funds may be used to supplement regular school programs; provide newcomer centers, tutorial services, or mentors; purchase special materials, or offer other related program services. Any local educational agency (LEA) – including school districts, county offices of education, or charter schools – that enrolls one or more English learners in grades 4 through 8 in the previous school year is eligible to apply for ELAP funds. In fiscal year 2001-02, 477 LEAs received $53,200,000 in ELAP funds under a formula that provides $100 per eligible EL student per year.

Under AB 1116, any LEA that receives ELAP funds must: 1) conduct academic assessments of ELs to determine students' English proficiency, ensure appropriate placement, communicate progress, and provide formative assessment information; 2) provide ELD instruction to assist students in meeting state standards; 3) provide supplemental instructional support opportunities for ELs, such as intersession, before/after school, or summer school programs; and 4) coordinate services and funding sources available to ELs. The legislation also stipulates that LEAs must evaluate the effectiveness of their ELAP-funded efforts, specifically citing the need to submit a report to CDE by October, 2003, on ELAP program implementation, as well as its effects on student performance on state ELD

and academic achievement assessments; redesignation rates, and high school completion rates.

Although ELAP is distinct from Proposition 227, its enactment was precipitated in part by the passage of the Proposition and therefore is considered in our study. As in Year 1, this year our team sought information on ELAP from case study school and district administrators. However, this year we were able to probe on themes uncovered in our Year 2 statewide survey, and our findings this year will help inform our Year 4 statewide survey.

Many of the trends and themes we have identified in the first two years of study continue to be salient this year.

Continuing the trend seen from Year 1 to Year 2, all administrators we interviewed were now well aware of ELAP resources, and most noted that these funds are combined with other categorical program funds to establish, strengthen or expand supplemental and intervention services for eligible ELs, as stipulated by the legislation. Specifically, several informants cited using ELAP funds to help pay for the teachers, instructional aides, tutors, counseling, ELD and ELA curricula, reading and reference materials and technology that are all used in these supplemental efforts. However, some also mentioned using ELAP funds to train CELDT administrators and to centrally administer the CELDT, noting that this testing program has been chronically underfunded. It was not clear whether this use was restricted to grades 4 through 8 ELs, nor whether CELDT exams were scored on-site in order to provide assessment information to teachers in a timely manner.

As in past years, administrators cite the lack of qualified teachers and, at some year-round schools during intersession, space to deliver a consistent set of services. As one ELAP coordinator at a large district explained: "It is great that we have these funds, but the teachers are burned out. Some of the regular calendar teachers work on the summer school programs. The after-school and Saturday programs are done by teachers who have been teaching all day and all week. The best thing is for teachers to service their own kids because they know them the best; but they can't do this year-round because it is difficult to teach all the time. Therefore, the quality suffers."   Several others once again lamented that the funds cannot be used with EL students outside grades 4 through 8, and hoped that these restrictions could be lifted and the funding expanded to students in other grades that need intervention services.

As we have found over the past two years, there appears to be very few formal evaluation efforts of ELAP underway at our case study districts, and our Year 2 survey data suggest that this is the case in many districts across the state. Nearly all our case study districts require and maintain records of site-level ELAP plans and budgets. Additionally, several districts report keeping records of which students receive services from ELAP-funded efforts and plan to track these students' performance on CELDT and STAR measures, as well as in redesignation. However, even these districts maintain that attributing achievement outcomes solely to ELAP is highly problematic given the overlapping, multiple treatments these students receive in different combinations across different school sites. "We track all ELs [receiving ELAP services]", explained another district coordinator, "but we don't have just one program that's ELAP. One [school] site hired an aide with the money; another used it for a computer program. Most [EL intervention] programs are multi-funded. Our summer school ELD is solely ELAP-funded, but it would be hard to target this as a single cause of

growth." Underscoring many districts' concern with evaluating ELAP adequately is precisely this great variability in treatments across schools, and the combining of ELAP with other funds for these treatments. As a third district coordinator stated, reflecting a general consensus, "ELAP is not a program, but the money has been well-spent."

Summary

This chapter presents findings from our exploration of effective practice with English learners, and initializes consideration of how these practices might be applied to enhance EL instruction in post-Proposition 227 California. Seven key elements of effective EL practice emerged from our search of relevant literature, which tended to be corroborated by our site visits. Each element is described briefly below.

- *Leadership* – Six of the nine *effective* schools in the study sample were said to have "effective" leadership; however, some of the less *effective* and *comparison* schools were also said to have strong leadership. Strong leadership appears to embody the following characteristics: 1) demonstrating personal qualities such as being dynamic, proactive, and responsive; 2) holding high expectations for everyone and holding staff accountable for student achievement; 3) facilitating proper implementation of ELD and ELA standards, and a strong, consistent focus on EL issues; 4) creating an organized, collaborative structure and team approach; and 5) maintaining and implementing a clear vision.

- *Systematic Assessment to Inform Instruction and Accountability* – Districts and schools that are effective on this dimension identify their data needs, create useful data systems, train personnel accordingly, and ensure that the data are used to inform instruction. In the best cases, data are also used to identify and implement professional development and program interventions. Seven out of the nine *effective* schools have an effective data system in place that informs instruction.

- *Clear Plan for Instruction of EL Students* - A clear instructional plan was identified by site visitors as one of the three most important predictors of overall school effectiveness for ELs (along with strong leadership and systematic assessment). Implementing such a plan entails 1) developing a set of common schoolwide goals for EL students; 2) articulating and coordinating of practices; and 3) customizing the learning environment to meet the identified instructional needs of EL students. Seven out of the nine *effective* schools were said to have successfully implemented a clear plan for instruction of EL students.

- *Schoolwide Climate* –A supportive school climate – one that respects linguistic and cultural diversity and values bilingualism, biculturalism, and biliteracy – is an attribute of effective EL schooling. The importance of these values was corroborated by students and educators at *effective* EL schools that we visited.

- *Effective Instructional Practices and Strategies* –District and school staff recognized the importance of implementing *balanced curricula* that would prepare all students to meet rigorous standards, integrate cultural elements that

represent the school's community, provide adequate training for teachers, and acknowledge the critical role played by teachers in effectively educating ELs. Our site visits, along with the literature on effective practice with ELs, also indicated that EL students benefit from opportunities to practice their skills and knowledge, explicit instruction of basic skills and learning strategies, student-directed activities, and strategies for developing advanced comprehension.

- *Staff Development* – Most sites thought that staff development to prepare staff to implement Proposition 227 was inadequate. Similarly, professional development coordinators across sites tended to agree that teachers, including those holding a CLAD or even a BCLAD credential, require more sustained, in-depth staff development and coaching – particularly in EL strategies, and differentiation. Factors conducive to effective staff development at all levels are leadership, time, and money. "Effective" staff development practices were observed to be systematic, but flexible; ongoing and job-embedded; and intentional in goals and objectives.

- *Parent Involvement* -- Parents appear to be aware of several ways in which they may provide cognitive and academic assistance to their children, but their ability to provide such assistance depends on open channels of communication between themselves and the teachers. Similarly, their involvement in the school is in part a function of the schools' ability to communicate with the parents in their home languages, and to establish a shared responsibility for student success. The CBET program appears to be effective in improving parents' English and other job-related skills, and in increasing parent volunteering and involvement in school activities. Successful school-based efforts also acknowledge the need for transportation and childcare, and affirm the importance of parent advocacy.

In addition to this exploration of effective practice with ELs, several other topics related to Proposition 227 and the instruction of English Learners were explored, extending important themes from the first two years of our study and building on this year's fieldwork. These themes include: 1) the redesignation of English learners; 2) class placement, segregation and tracking; 3) waivers; 4) significant changes and reforms affecting the instruction of ELs; 5) understanding and utilizing state ELA and ELD standards for instruction; and 6) examination of the impact of the CBET and ELAP programs.

Chapter V – *Recommendations*

The following seven recommendations are derived directly from the findings detailed in this report. They are based on the study team's research over the past three years, and are directed primarily to state and local educational leaders and policymakers. While our continued research activities over the next two years may further shape these recommendations, sufficient evidence exists to warrant their serious consideration now.

1. **The state and school districts should continue to investigate and document the attributes of schools that are "beating the odds" in regard to educational outcomes for ELs, and explore how elements of effective practice might be fostered in more schools across the state.** We have just begun to explore the instructional and organizational practices that enable these schools to excel in relation to their less effective counterparts. Our preliminary attempts to examine these linkages are promising and have revealed some extraordinary practices. Our initial evidence indicates the importance of strong leadership, explicit goals and expectations for students, standards-based instruction and the use of assessment data to modify instructional practice, among others. Schools where ELs were most fully beating the predicted odds of success much more frequently exhibited these, and other evidence-based attributes. While some of these schools have been acknowledged for their achievements, others appear to be well-kept secrets, even within their own districts. We believe it is important that the state and school districts find ways to investigate, document, and recognize excellence in achieving outcomes for ELs and promote components of effectiveness to benefit ELs statewide.

2. **The state and school districts should improve the collection and maximize the use of newly available CELDT data.** The CELDT test provides vital information in regard to measuring and monitoring school performance in educating ELs. For example, it is not possible to fully assess the degree to which schools are helping ELs make progress in English language development without some baseline measure of the English proficiency of their students. In addition, annual CELDT scores provide an important measure of progress in regard to English language acquisition for each school and district. However, many districts currently significantly underreport critical demographic data on such key variables as the number of years in U.S. schools, and students' prior CELDT scores. Also, the CELDT "header sheet" requests data on EL students' instructional services using categories that do not match either the Language Census or the STAR testing program. Finally, no data are collected on student's initial English proficiency. These gaps and inconsistencies diminish the capacity of the state and school districts to more carefully analyze CELDT results in relation to these critical factors, and can in effect undermine meaningful accountability for EL success. The value of the CELDT for assessing school performance and for identifying effective EL practices would be considerably enhanced through the provision of more clearly defined and more complete data in these areas.

3. **The state should take steps to standardize and clarify alternative instructional program waiver provisions.** After three years of studying this area, our team continues to find considerable evidence for concern regarding consistent district understanding and implementation of alternative instructional program waivers. Current legal statute specifies that parents should be the primary initiators of the waiver process, with final approval left to school officials based on their best educational assessment of the needs of the child. However, it appears that acceptance or rejection of a parent's waiver request is very often governed by prior district practice and the predisposition of providers toward particular instructional programs. Evidence of this is found in schools we visited in which virtually all ELs are in waiver programs, as well as those in which no child has ever been granted a waiver. In the most effective schools we visited during this year, we found that parents fully understood their waiver rights. Some of these also offered clear alternatives. One school, for example, was successfully operating three different programs simultaneously for ELs, and clearly responded to parental choice. In many other schools we visited, however, parents either did not have a good understanding of program waivers, had their waiver requests categorically denied, or placed in a file cabinet without serious consideration. These practices denigrate these provisions of the law and miss an important opportunity to better engage parents in their child's learning.

4. **School districts should articulate CBET programs with neighborhood schools.** Given the evidence of the importance of the link between parent involvement and EL engagement and achievement, we believe that an important opportunity is missed when CBET programs are not linked to neighborhood schools. The most effective CBET programs we observed specifically tied the goal of family members learning English with their increased connection to the school community and greater involvement in their students' linguistic and academic development.

5. **Schools should limit prolonged separation of ELs from English speaking students to cases of demonstrated efficacy.** Over the past three years we have observed, or been informed of, programs that are ostensibly designed to improve the English acquisition and academic achievement of ELs, but which consistently separate ELs from English-speaking students, offer them a narrower range of less challenging coursework, and which are often characterized by low expectations for students. Such programs are often found in secondary schools, which feature departmental, as opposed to self-contained, curricular programs. ELs that have been functioning with reasonable fluency in mainstream classrooms in elementary school often find themselves placed in "EL tracks" upon entry to middle school, based not on their English proficiency or academic performance, but simply as a result of their EL status. Some are grouped together with newly arrived immigrants with little or no English fluency. Such treatment often leaves these students with a sense of failure and demoralization. While the separation of ELs for special learning experiences is sometimes justified, such segregation should be strategic and limited to cases justified by instructional model logic and demonstrated success in relation to commonly accepted goals for ELs, e.g., intensive ELD instruction for "zero-English" students, or native language instruction in grade-level academic subject matter in carefully

designed bilingual programs. Instructional programs and master schedules which largely separate ELs from their English-fluent peers each day and over long periods of time need to be revised so that these students have ample opportunities to utilize English for academic purposes each day. Schools and districts with majority-EL populations will need to tap the wider community or technology to address this issue.

6. **The state should carefully evaluate all policies that may unintentionally penalize schools and districts with successful EL programs.** Current categorical funding designed to affect, either directly or indirectly, outcomes for ELs comes through the federal Title III and the state EIA-LEP, ELAP, and CBET programs. In each of these programs, the amount of funds allocated to districts for EL programs is based on the numbers of students designated as limited English proficient. Success with English learners generates no financial rewards for schools, yet funding is lost to the local district when these students are redesignated. Funding mechanisms based on some form of progress model – perhaps utilizing the new Title III annual measurable achievement objectives – should be considered. In addition, district allocation formulas that pay bonuses for teachers of ELs, or that allocate EL resources to schools, should be carefully monitored to ensure they do not also create disincentives in regard to monitoring or reporting student progress in the attainment of English language proficiency or academic achievement.

7. **State policymakers should reconsider redesignation within the context of new federal annual achievement objectives for ELs.** In light of emerging requirements for rigorous goal-setting and annual progress monitoring of ELs in academic achievement under Title I of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) and in English language development and proficiency attainment under Title III, the meaning and role of redesignation will need to be carefully reconsidered by the state. In particular, since new federal definitions may allow English learners to be considered "EL" for much longer periods, new methods of measuring and reporting progress will need to be implemented and disseminated in ways that students, parents, educators, policymakers and the public can understand and use. Also, tracking at upper-elementary and secondary levels based solely on labels (EL vs. RFEP), must be discouraged. While it appears that the changes imminent in the state accountability system resulting from NCLB will create better ways to monitor and report on EL progress both in ELD and academic core subjects, local and state education leaders must ensure that EL status *per se* does not adversely affect the quality of instruction and educational opportunities these students receive.

Chapter VI – Research Plan for Years 4 and 5

Introduction

This chapter supplements the proposed work plan for the remaining 2 years of this study, as previously described in the *Methodology Report* submitted to the California Department of Education (CDE) in October 2000. This plan called for the use of surveys in Years 2 and 4 and case study analyses in Years 1, 3 and 5. English Language Acquisition Program (ELAP) is a required focus of our Year 4 evaluation. In addition, we will continue our exploration of "effective" practices for English learners (ELs), especially for secondary school students. We will also explore redesignation as an indicator of program effectiveness.

Research Methods and Activities

Surveys

Surveys will be used in the fourth year of the study primarily to explore ELAP implementation and impact. The data collected in these surveys will provide information about the extent to which ELAP-funded programs and activities have met their goals and objectives. This information can be used to inform recommendations regarding program improvement. We will also be exploring possible collaborative opportunities with the CDE in regard to administering the ELAP survey.

Case Studies

In the fifth year of study, case studies are scheduled, as they were in Years 1 and 3. We will select case study sites to provide a balance in terms of urbanicity, region, and percentage of English learners, as well as the variety and mix of program models. As in the past, we will also attempt to control for such important factors as poverty and language diversity. We also hope to include several high schools as case study sites. We anticipate using our student achievement analyses to guide the selection of additional or replacement districts. That is, based on district-level analyses of achievement within strata of poverty and English learner percentages, districts that appear to be relatively high or relatively low achieving (in terms of EL student test scores) would be selected for further case study analyses. The case study site sample selection will be fully reviewed by the CDE and the State Work Group.

Student Achievement Data Analysis

In Years 4 and 5, we will continue the types of student achievement analyses presented in Chapter 3. During the third year of the study, indicators of student achievement were extended beyond the use of statewide SAT-9 and Language Census data from 1997-1998 to 2001-2002 to include three additional state databases: the California Standards Test (CST), California English Language Development Test (CELDT), and rates of redesignation of students from EL to RFEP over the past several years. The analyses

performed for these databases were parallel to those for the SAT-9. We will continue similar analyses on the databases in the fourth and fifth years of the evaluation. We will also continue to pursue student-level data disaggregated by program of instruction.

In addition, a major point in the cross model analyses has been the importance of the considerable differences between students enrolled in schools with bilingual as opposed to other EL instructional approaches. Students enrolled in schools with bilingual programs, on average, exhibit much higher rates of poverty, tend to be enrolled in schools with much higher percentage EL enrollments, and show lower levels of initial English proficiency. The best way to analyze these data, while fully taking these important factors outside of the control of schools into account, is regression analyses. Ideally, these analyses would be conducted using student-level information regarding the course of instruction, student characteristics, and individual student outcomes. Such analyses were conducted in an exploratory fashion during this past year. However, because they tend to be complex to construct and interpret, and because the quality of the individual student data available from the state for this year of the study were poor, results from these analyses are not included in this report. An important focus of our student achievement analysis during Years 4 and 5 will be to continue to pursue this line of investigation using individual student data to the greatest extent that their quality will allow.

Literature and Document Review

Critical to the success of a clear, compelling evaluation is a thorough understanding of the local and state contexts in which the initiative has been implemented. To that end, the research team continues to review relevant research literature and documentation related to the implementation of Proposition 227 and to education of ELs more broadly to ensure a well-grounded approach to data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Three major categories of research have been, and will continue to be, the focus of our attention:

- Background information
  - Research on instructional practices for EL students
  - Research and related public information on Proposition 227 (including newspaper and other journal articles)
- Regulatory documents
  - Legislation
  - State guidance or informational materials (directed to schools and the community)
- Local guidance or information documents
  - Materials prepared by schools, districts, or county offices of education to guide the implementation of Proposition 227

Work Group Meetings

The State Work Group will continue to serve in an advisory capacity through Years 4 and 5. We will consult with the State Work Group on all major evaluation activities and findings.

Senior Advisor Meetings

The evaluation team includes a group of senior advisors who are experts in fields relating to English learners and academic research. During Years 4 and 5, we will consult the senior advisors periodically for detailed suggestions and opinions on the methodology used for the evaluation. These advisors are Kenji Hakuta of Stanford University, Richard Durán of UC Santa Barbara, Amado Padilla of Stanford University, Carlos Rodriguez of AIR, and Guadalupe Valdés of Stanford University.

Information Produced by the Study

Using multiple data gathering and analysis approaches, this study has and will continue to yield information regarding the implementation and impact of Proposition 227, ELAP, and the Community Based English Tutoring (CBET) program. The evaluation of ELAP programs will be presented in a report at the end of Year 4, which will also include a summary of the local evaluations undertaken by ELAP-funded districts. We will continue to work closely with case study districts and the project work groups to identify criteria and procedures for identifying effective programs and curricula for English learners, and will make recommendations for improving services for their students.

In Years 4 and 5 of the study, we will deliver the following reports and products:

- Data collection instruments and materials intended for use by schools and/or school districts participating in the evaluation
- Reports intended to be helpful to the participating field sites
- Monthly and quarterly progress reports of work activities
- The final evaluation report for AB 1116 (ELAP)
- Detailed design plans for the fifth year of the evaluation study
- A preliminary draft of final report for AB 56
- The final evaluation report for AB 56

In addition to the required reports, a "user friendly" report similar to the one submitted at the end of Year 2 will be produced at the conclusion of the evaluation study. This document will provide insight into best practices and lessons learned in the course of our research and will be written in a manner that is clear and intelligible to the general public.

Glossary

Academic Performance Index (API):
Cornerstone of California's Public Schools Accountability Act (PSAA), with the purpose of measuring the academic performance and growth of public schools. The numerical index (or scale) ranges from a low of 200 to a high of 1000. Each public school, including charter schools, receives its own API each year. Results from English learners (ELs) are included in a school's API.

Achievement test: A test that measures the extent of a student's learning of the material presented in a particular course, textbook or instructional program. SAT-9 is an example of an achievement test.

API see *Academic Performance Index*

BCLAD see *Bilingual Cross-cultural, Language, and Academic Development*

Bilingual Cross-cultural, Language, and Academic Development (BCLAD):
Education Code §§ 44253.3 and 44253.4 require the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing to issue certificates to teachers authorizing them to provide instruction to limited-English proficient students. One type of credential is the BCLAD. This certificate requires the applicant to take the following tests: Test 1—Language Structure and First and Second Language Development; Test 2—Methodology of Bilingual, English Language Development, and Content Instruction; Test 3—Culture and Cultural Diversity; Test 4—Methodology for Primary Language Instruction; Test 5—The Culture of Emphasis; and Test 6—The Language of Emphasis. Teachers who pass all six tests receive a BCLAD certificate in one of the following languages of emphasis: Armenian, Cantonese, Pilipino, Hmong, Khmer, Korean, Mandarin, Punjabi, Spanish or Vietnamese.

Bilingual Programs: Programs that use the students' native language, in addition to English, for instruction. Students are grouped according to their home language, and teachers are proficient in both English and the students' language. [see also

Early-Exit Bilingual Programs, Late-Exit Bilingual Programs and *Two-Way (or Developmental) Bilingual Programs*]

California Professional Development Institutes (CPDI): Established in January 2000, CPDI is a discipline-based project in the professional development network of California jointly administered by the University of California, California State University, Independent Colleges & Universities, California Department of Education and the K-12 community. CPDI is aiming to serve over 70,000 teachers statewide to improve student achievement in core content areas.

CALP see *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency*

CBET see *Community-based English Tutoring*

CLAD see *Cross-cultural, Language, and Academic Development*

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP): The language ability required for academic achievement in a context-reduced environment. Examples of context-reduced environments include classroom lectures and textbook reading assignments.

Communicative-based English as a Second Language: Approach based on the theory that language acquisition occurs as a result of exposure to meaningful and comprehensible messages, rather than through formal study of grammar and vocabulary.

Community-based English Tutoring (CBET): Program that provides funding for local educational agencies (LEAs) to provide free or subsidized programs of adult English-language instruction to parents or other members of the community who pledge to provide personal English-language tutoring to English learners. In accordance with Education Code Section 315 and Title 5 of the California Code of Regulations Section 11305, LEAs may use these funds for direct program services, community

Glossary (continued)

notification processes, transportation services, and background checks required of the tutors who volunteer in public schools settings. CBET was established by Proposition 227.

Content-based English as a Second Language: Approach using instructional materials and learning tasks from academic content areas as a vehicle for developing language, as well as content skill. English is the language of instruction.

CPDI see *California Professional Development Institutes*

Cross-cultural, Language, and Academic Development (CLAD): Education Code §§ 44253.3 and 44253.4 require the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing to issue certificates to teachers authorizing them to provide instruction to limited-English proficient students. One type of credential is the CLAD. This certificate requires to applicant to take the following tests: Test 1—Language Structure and First and Second Language Development; Test 2—Methodology of Bilingual, English Language Development, and Content Instruction; and Test 3—Culture and Cultural Diversity. Teachers who pass all three tests receive a CLAD certificate.

DELAC see *District English Language Advisory Committee*

District English Language Advisory Committee (DELAC): District-level committee comprised of at least one representative from each school. Members are parents, teachers, and classroom aides who represent parents of children who are ELs and limited-English proficient learners. Many members are also part of the school site-level of this committee, which is called the English Language Advisory Committee (ELAC).

Dominant Language: The language in which the speaker has greater proficiency and/or uses more often.

Dual Language Programs see *Two-way (or Developmental) Bilingual Programs*

Early-Exit Bilingual Programs: Provide initial instruction in the students' home language,

with rapid transition into all-English instruction. Students are mainstreamed into English-only classes by the end of first or second grade.

EL see *English learner*

ELAC see *English Language Advisory Committee*

ELAP see *English Language Acquisition Program*

ELD see *English-language development*

English as a Second Language (ESL): Teaches English to ELs; may be used with students with different native languages in the same class. ESL teachers have training in principles of language acquisition and in language teaching methods, but are not fluent in the home languages of their students. Teachers for this instructional service should possess a CLAD certificate.

English Language Acquisition Program (ELAP): Funding program with the aim to improve the English proficiency of California pupils and to better prepare them to meet the state's academic content and performance standards. Funds may be used to supplement activities such as regular school programs, newcomer centers, tutorial services, mentors, purchase of special materials, or other related program services. Any local educational agency (LEA): school district, county office of education, or charter school, that enrolled one or more English learners in grades four through eight in the previous school year is eligible to apply for funds.

English Language Advisory Committee (ELAC): A committee comprised of parents, teachers, and classroom aides who represent parents of children who are ELs and limited-English proficient learners. ELACs exist at the school site-level and also at the district-level [see *District English Language Advisory Committee*].

English-language development (ELD): This term is used interchangeably with ESL (English as a Second Language).

Glossary (continued)

English learner (EL): Student whose first language is not English and who is in the process of learning English.

English mainstream classroom: Described as "a classroom in which students either are native English-language speakers or already have acquired reasonable fluency in English." In the Language Census Form (R-30), this setting is represented by two categories: students placed in a mainstream classroom who meet criteria (i.e., are native or reasonably fluent English speakers), and students placed there by parental request. Note that the law does not describe what services are provided in an English mainstream classroom. The Language Census Form, however, indicates an assumption that ELs in a mainstream English classroom will receive "additional and appropriate services."

English-only: A student who is determined through the administration of the Home Language Survey, and other assessment procedures when appropriate, to have English as their primary language.

EO see *English-only*

ESL see *English as a Second Language*

ESL Class Period: Provides a regular class period for (middle school) students devoted to ESL instruction.

ESL Pull-out: Removes (elementary school) students from their regular mainstream class for a portion of the day to receive ESL instruction.

FEP: see *Fluent-English Proficient*

Fluent English Proficient (FEP): A term applied to students whose primary language is not English and who have met district criteria for proficiency and literacy in English either upon entry into the school system or through the district's redesignation process. [see *Initially Identified as Fluent English Proficient Redesignated* and *as Fluent English Proficient*].

IFEP: see *Initially Identified as Fluent English Proficient*

Initially Identified as Fluent English Proficient (IFEP): A term applied to students whose primary language is not English, but who were identified as initially proficient in English when they entered the school system.

Instructional Services: Labels describing methods used in teaching students to listen, speak, read, and write in English and in delivering content in other core academic areas. Categories of instructional services are ELD/ESL, primary language instruction, and primary language support.

Instructional Settings: Labels for the organization of instruction aligned with the language of Proposition 227. The law states that (subject to parental exception waivers) "all children in California public schools shall be taught English by being taught in English. In particular, this shall require that all children be placed in English-language classrooms. Children who are English learners shall be educated through sheltered English immersion during a temporary transition period not normally to exceed one year. Local schools shall be permitted to place in the same classroom English learners of different ages but whose degree of English proficiency is similar. Local schools shall be encouraged to mix together in the same classroom English learners from different native-language groups but with the same degree of English fluency. Once ELs have acquired a good working knowledge of English, they shall be transferred to English-language mainstream classrooms."

L1: The first language a person acquires.

L2: The second language a person acquires, sometime after the acquisition of the first language has begun.

Language Census Form (R-30): An annual school-level count of English learners and redesignated Fluent English Proficient students enrolled in California public schools, by primary language within grade level. The census form asks for a total accounting of the instructional service categories into which the ELs fall and of the instructional settings to which the ELs are assigned. It also collects information on

Glossary (continued)

the school personnel who are teaching the ELs—in particular, the state authorizations for teaching ELs that they hold. It also asks for the number of students redesignated as fluent since the previous count and whether the district is using a state-approved instrument for assessing Oral English Proficiency.

Language proficiency: Level at which an individual is able to demonstrate the use of language for both communicative tasks and academic purposes.

Late-Exit Bilingual Programs: Use the students' home language more and longer than early-exit programs. Late-exit programs may use home language instruction 40 percent or more of the time, throughout the elementary school years, and even for students who have been reclassified as Fluent English Proficient.

LEA see *Local Education Agency*

LEP see *Limited English Proficient*

Limited English Proficient (LEP): Term used to identify those students who have insufficient English to succeed in English-only classrooms.

Local Education Agency (LEA): A district or county office of education

Mainstream classroom see *English mainstream classroom*

NABE see *National Association for Bilingual Education*

National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE): Professional association of teachers, administrators, parents, policy makers and others concerned with securing educational equity for language minority students.

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE): Organization funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA) to collect, analyze and disseminate information related to the education of linguistically and culturally diverse students.

NCBE see *National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education*

NEP see *Non-English Proficient*

Newcomer: Students who have recently immigrated; these students tend to have no fluency in English and varied educational backgrounds. Also referred to as "new arrivals" or "newly-arrived students."

Non-English Proficient (NEP): Students who come to school with no or minimal English proficiency.

OBEMLA see *Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs*

Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA): Established by the U.S. Congress in 1974 to help school districts meet their responsibility to provide an equal education opportunity to limited English proficient students. This office is part of the U.S. Department of Education.

Parental exception waivers: Parents and guardians may choose to remove their children from a SEI program and enroll them in an alternative course of study. According to California law, parents and guardians must be informed of this right and provided with full written descriptions (or upon request, spoken descriptions) of the SEI program and any alternative course of study and materials. Sometimes this alternative course of study is not offered at the school site and requires the child to receive instruction at another site.

Primary-language instruction: Instructional service where content is delivered in the student's primary language by a teacher with a BCLAD certificate.

Primary-language support: Any use of the primary language enabling students to understand terms and content and directly supporting content instruction in the second language.

Pull-out instruction see *ESL Pull-out*

Realia: Real objects and materials related to a lesson that are brought into the classroom as examples or instructional aids. Realia

Glossary (continued)

help clarify the meaning of new words and structures by enabling students to make connections to their own lives.

Redesignated as Fluent English Proficient (RFEP): refers to students who entered the school system as ELs but were reclassified after meeting district criteria for proficiency and literacy in English.

Redesignation: reclassifying an EL student as a fluent English speaker based upon the meeting of district criteria for proficiency and literacy in English.

RFEP *see Redesignated as Fluent English Proficient*

SABE see *Spanish Assessment of Basic Education*

SDAIE see *Specially designed academic instruction in English*

SEI see *Sheltered English Immersion* and *Structured English Immersion*

Sheltered English Immersion (SEI): Programs that use English adapted to the students' level of comprehension, along with gestures and visual aids, to provide content area instruction. This approach is often used for a class of students from varied native language backgrounds. In the law, "sheltered English immersion" and "structured English immersion" are used interchangeably.

Spanish Assessment of Basic Education (SABE): Series of norm-referenced tests for grades one through eight. Designed to measure achievement in the basic skills of reading, mathematics, spelling, language and study skills for students for whom Spanish is the language of instruction. Measures the skill level of Spanish speaking students in bilingual programs and assesses Spanish speaking immigrant students entering American schools from foreign educational systems.

Specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE): The teaching of grade-level subject matter in English specifically designed for speakers of other languages. It is most appropriate for students who have reached an intermediate or advanced level of proficiency in English (speaking, comprehension, reading and writing) and who possess basic literacy skills in their own language. Enacted on January 1, 1995, Senate Bill 1969 authorized a 45-hour combined training program in SDAIE/English-language development for teachers with nine or more years of full-time teaching experience in California public schools. A teacher may complete an equivalent three-semester-unit or four-quarter-unit college class as an alternative to the 45-hour SDAIE training requirement.

Structured English Immersion (SEI): Programs that use English as a medium of instruction for content areas. Structured English immersion teachers have a bilingual education or ESL credential and understand the students' first language. In the law, "sheltered English immersion" and "structured English immersion" are used interchangeably.

Transitional Bilingual Programs see *Early-Exit Bilingual Programs*

Two-way (or Developmental) Bilingual Programs: Use English and another language to provide instruction to classes composed of approximately half language minority students from a single language background and half language majority (English-speaking) students. Both groups of students develop their native language skills while acquiring proficiency in a second language.

Waivers see *Parental exception waivers.*

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Technical Appendix

Methodological Notes

Methodological Note 1: Academic Performance Index Data Considered But Not Used in Our Analysis

We considered analyzing Academic Performance Index (API) data but concluded that SAT-9 data were more appropriate. API data do not disaggregate results for English learners, nor measure students' progress even quasi-longitudinally, and the API formula is changing over time via the introduction of other assessments and contextual factors.

Methodological Note 2: Scaled Scores, National Percentile Ranks, Normal Curve Equivalents, and Measuring EL Achievement

Scaled scores are student achievement measures calibrated by Item Response Theory models. They reflect adjustments for item difficulty. For example, if a student answers an advanced question correctly, they are credited more than when they answer an easy question correctly. In addition, scaled scores have equal intervals. That is, a one-point increase at any point on the scale is equal to a one-point increase anywhere else on the scale. The scaled scores reported in the SAT-9 results are vertically equated   That is, scaled scores are comparable across grade levels which enables us to track individual student achievement across years.

Much of the previous work examining changes in EL achievement since the passage of Proposition 227 has relied on national percentile ranks (NPRs) (García and Curry-Rodríquez, 2000; Butler et al., 2000; English for the Children, 1999, 2000; Amselle and Allison, 2000). A student's percentile rank refers to the percentage of students in the norming sample who had scores less than or equal to the student's score. For example, a student who scored at the 80th percentile in reading did as well as or better than 80 percent of the students in the norming sample. The SAT-9 is a nationally normed test, and thus the norming sample is representative of the country as a whole in terms of ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and other significant characteristics, but is not representative of California. For example, the norming sample contained only 1.8 percent ELs, whereas approximately 25 percent of California students are ELs, and well over 40 percent are language-minority children (Language Census, 2001; Harcourt Brace Educational Measurement, 1997). Discrepancies between the norming sample and the California student population raise questions about the appropriateness of making generalizations about EL students from NPR scores (Thompson et al., 2002).

The use of NPRs to study changes in achievement over time poses other problems. As Thompson et al. (2002) point out,

> "true academic gains may appear as a decline according to the change in NPR across years. For example, a student could display greater mastery than the previous year, but have a lower percentile rank if students in the norm group scored proportionally higher than the tested student in the second year."

In addition, NPRs do not have equal achievement intervals. Small differences in scaled scores can create large differences in NPR, as NPR is constructed to spread students' performance along a normal curve. That is, the achievement difference between a pair of students scoring at the 6th and 10th NPR is not equal to the difference between another pair of students who score at the 46th and 50th or the 86th and 90th percentiles. When examining change over time, the implication of an unequal interval scale is that a one-point increase one year may not equal the same amount of

achievement growth as a one-point increase the next year. And while the Normal Curve Equivalent (NCE) metric was designed to equalize these NPR interval differences, it is still referenced to the normal curve distribution and national norming sample, both of which may inaccurately represent EL performance and gains.

A recent report related to the achievement of ELs under Proposition 227 examined the percentage of students scoring at or above the 50th percentile (Gándara and Rumberger, 2002). Although the analysis does provide information about the extent to which EL students met this particular standard, it may mask changes in students' scores below this standard and therefore distort changes in the achievement gap between different subgroups of students In fact, this concern was recently considered by the National Assessment Governing Board regarding the National Assessment of Educational Progress (Olson, 2002).

Methodological Note 3: Limitation of Using School Level SAT-9 Data

By using student-level data, we avoided a problem associated with school-level analyses. Analyses with school-level data should employ weights so that schools with more students are weighed more heavily that schools with fewer students. Only one of the studies we reviewed incorporated this adjustment (Thompson et al., 2002). Another limitation of the publicly available school-level data is that in order to protect student confidentiality, no scores are reported for any group of 10 or fewer students. For example, if there are only 9 ELs with test scores in the second grade at a given school, scores for those students are not reported. Finally, as mentioned above, publicly available SAT-9 data for 1998 combine EO and RFEP students, while our student-level data allow for their disaggregation.

Methodological Note 5: Language Census Variables Used to Classify Instructional Models

For the Year 2 report, we conducted analyses to confirm that the 2000-2001 instructional settings and services variables were closely matched. The correlation between the percentage of ELs in 2001 receiving ELD services with academic instruction in their primary language and the percent of ELs in 2001 in alternative course of study settings is .81. We considered whether using the 2000-2001 instructional services variable would have resulted in schools being classified differently. The findings reveal that virtually all schools (98.8%) would receive the same instructional model classification if the 2000-2001 service variable were used rather than the setting variable.

Methodological Note 6: Evaluating the Size of Performances Changes and Gap Changes

We did not perform tests of statistical significance because such tests are used to determine whether conclusions based on a sample of observations also hold true for the population from which the sample is selected. Since our analyses are based on the *entire* population of California students in grades 2-11, and not a sample, statistical significance testing is not needed.

It is important, however, to provide some guidelines for evaluating the size of the changes in performance and performance gaps. We use standard deviation units to contextualize the findings. The standard deviations of the mean scaled scores for the total group of students range from 34 to 46 points depending on the grade level and subject tested. The standard deviations are slightly lower for some subgroups (e.g., standard deviations for EL and EL/RFEPS range from 23 to 39 points).

To give the reader some sense of the magnitude of performance and gap changes, we contextualize the changes using a standard deviation of 40 (a middle value from the standard deviation range for the total group). Considering the changes this way, it becomes clear that the performance increases, and the gap decreases in particular, are very small (usually less than .20 of a standard deviation). This would also be the case if we used a standard deviation of 25 (a low value from the lower standard deviation range found among ELs and EL/REPS).

Methodological Note 7: Sensitivity Analysis for Alternative Cut-Points for Instructional Model Classification

We conducted sensitivity analyses to explore the implications of changing the cut-point of what is considered a "sizable percentage" of ELs receiving primary language instruction. In addition to the more than 50 percent cut-point, we considered 25 percent and 75 percent. The 25 percent cut point has 9% of the schools under continuing-bilingual category. As the cut-point was raised, progressively fewer schools fit the continuing-bilingual category (see the exhibit below).

25 percent Cut-Points for Instructional Model Classification

Instructional Model: Pre- and Post-Proposition 227	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Continuing-bilingual ("Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Substantial" L_1)	627	9%
Transitioning-from-bilingual ("Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Not Substantial" L_1)	1,241	17%
Never-bilingual ("Not Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Not Substantial" L_1)	5,295	74%
Total Number of Schools with EL Students	7,163	100%

Legend
"Substantial" L_1:   Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2001-02
"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02

50 percent Cut-Points for Instructional Model Classification[1]

Instructional Model: Pre- and Post-Proposition 227	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Continuing-bilingual ("Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Substantial" L_1)	272	4%
Transitioning-from-bilingual ("Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Not Substantial" L_1)	782	11%
Never-bilingual ("Not Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Not Substantial" L_1)	6,146	85%
Total Number of Schools with EL Students	7,200	100%

Legend
"Substantial" L_1:　　Primary language instruction offered to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02
"Not Substantial" L_1:　Primary language instruction offered to 50 percent or less of EL students in the school in 2001-02

75 percent Cut-Points for Instructional Model Classification[2]

Instructional Model: Pre- and Post-Proposition 227	Number of Schools	Percentage of Schools
Continuing-bilingual ("Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Substantial" L_1)	72	1%
Transitioning-from-bilingual ("Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Not Substantial" L_1)	292	4%
Never-bilingual ("Not Substantial" $L_1 \rightarrow$ "Not Substantial" L_1)	6858	95%
Total Number of Schools with EL Students	7,222	100%

Legend
"Substantial" L_1:　　Primary language instruction offered to more than 75 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02
"Not Substantial" L_1:　Primary language instruction offered to 75 percent or less of EL students in the school in 2001-02

In summary, the 75 percent cut-point resulted in fewer continuing-bilingual schools and not enough sample size to perform a complete analysis for all grades. The 50 percent cut-point allowed us to perform analysis until grade 6, while the 25 percent cut-point allowed us to perform analysis until grade 8. To further assess the impact of selecting the 50 percent or the 25 percent cut-point, we conducted achievement analyses for grades 2-8 using the 25 percent cut-point. The results do not suggest significant difference when using the different cut-points.

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[1] The total number of schools differs from the total shown in the previous table (7,163 versus 7,200). When using the 25 percent cut-point 37 schools followed under the category of schools with "Not Substantial" L1 in 1998 and "Substantial" L1 in 2002, and therefore were excluded from the analysis. With the 50 percent cut-point those 37 schools are classified as "Not Substantial" L1 in 1998 and "Not Substantial" L1 in 2002, and therefore they are included in the analysis.

[2] The total number of schools also differs from the total shown in the previous tables because of the same reason give above.

Methodological Note 8: Missing Language Classification Information

As can be seen in Exhibit 4 in the Technical Appendix, the sample sizes for the language classification subgroups (EOs, IFEPs, RFEPs, and ELs) do not add up to the sample sizes for the total group. This is due to missing language classification information. In 1998, approximately 10% of cases from the lower grades were not classified by language status while approximately 25% of cases from the upper grades lacked this data. The 1999 data are slightly more complete. By 2000 less than 1% of cases were missing this information. The changes in missing rates for language classification across the four years may bias our results if certain language subgroups were more likely to be missing than others and if lower performing students were more likely to be missing this data. For example, if lower performing EL students were the group most likely to be missing the language classification data, this may underestimate the 1998 gap and thus underestimate the closing of the gap from 1998 to 2001. An examination of the mean scaled scores for students missing language classification data indicate that average scores for this group tend to fall in between the mean scaled scores for EOs and EL/RFEP. Thus, it does not appear that the group of students missing language classification data is dominated by any one language group.

Methodological Note 9: Implausible Values for the Number of Years in California schools in 2001 CELDT data

The 2001 CELDT data include information about the number of years that students have been enrolled in California schools. In our data, we observe some implausible values for this information. For example, some kindergarteners show five or more years of enrollment in California schools. To avoid distorting our analysis results by including students with these implausible values, we set unreasonably large values to missing by applying the following rules: to allow a maximum of one year in California schools for kindergarten students, two years for 1st grade students, three years for 2nd graders, and four years for 3rd graders. By these rules, the values of 965 initial CELDT takers and 3,687 annual CELDT takers were set to missing.

Exhibit 1: Within-Grade Analyses: Reading, Grades 2–11, Mean Scaled Scores*

Grade 2 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	571	581	580	579	545	546	35	36
1999	576	587	587	586	551	552	35	36
2000	581	592	591	595	557	558	34	35
2001	583	595	596	592	561	563	32	33
2002	585	596	599	597	566	567	29	30
Gain (1999-2002)	9	9	12	11	15	15	-6	-6
Gain (1998-2002)	14	15	19	18	21	21	-6	-6

Grade 3 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	600	611	607	610	568	571	40	43
1999	604	617	613	617	574	577	40	43
2000	608	621	617	621	579	582	39	42
2001	611	625	623	620	582	586	39	43
2002	612	626	625	622	586	589	37	40
Gain (1999-2002)	8	9	12	5	12	12	-3	-3
Gain (1998-2002)	12	15	18	12	18	18	-3	-3

Grade 4 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	626	637	634	639	594	599	38	43
1999	630	641	639	643	598	603	38	43
2000	632	644	641	645	601	607	37	42
2001	635	647	647	645	604	611	35	42
2002	637	649	650	647	608	615	34	41
Gain (1999-2002)	7	8	11	4	10	12	-4	-2
Gain (1998-2002)	11	12	16	8	14	16	-4	-2

Grade 5 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	643	653	650	649	611	617	36	43
1999	645	656	654	654	614	621	35	42
2000	646	656	654	655	615	623	33	41
2001	647	658	658	655	617	626	32	41
2002	649	660	661	658	620	629	31	40
Gain (1999-2002)	4	4	7	4	6	8	-4	-2
Gain (1998-2002)	6	7	11	9	9	12	-5	-3

Grade 6 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	655	664	661	658	624	632	32	40
1999	658	667	665	660	628	636	31	39
2000	658	668	666	663	629	638	30	39
2001	660	669	669	663	630	640	29	38
2002	660	669	671	664	632	642	27	37
Gain (1999-2002)	2	2	6	4	4	6	-4	-2
Gain (1998-2002)	5	5	10	6	8	10	-5	-3

* Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

Grade 7 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	670	680	677	673	633	644	37	48
1999	672	683	680	675	636	647	35	47
2000	673	683	681	676	637	649	34	46
2001	674	684	684	678	639	651	33	46
2002	675	684	686	679	640	653	31	44
Gain (1999-2002)	3	1	6	4	4	6	-4	-3
Gain (1998-2002)	5	4	9	6	7	9	-6	-4

Grade 8 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	684	693	689	685	649	660	34	44
1999	686	696	692	688	652	663	32	44
2000	687	696	692	688	652	664	31	43
2001	687	696	695	689	654	666	30	42
2002	687	696	696	690	655	667	29	41
Gain (1999-2002)	1	0	4	2	3	4	-3	-3
Gain (1998-2002)	3	3	7	5	6	7	-5	-3

Grade 9 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	684	692	686	682	650	659	33	42
1999	684	693	689	683	652	662	31	41
2000	685	693	688	684	653	663	30	41
2001	684	692	691	684	652	663	29	40
2002	684	692	691	685	653	665	27	39
Gain (1999-2002)	0	-1	2	2	1	3	-4	-2
Gain (1998-2002)	0	0	5	3	3	6	-6	-3

Grade 10 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	689	698	692	687	654	665	33	43
1999	690	698	693	689	656	668	31	42
2000	690	698	693	689	656	668	30	42
2001	691	698	696	690	656	669	29	42
2002	690	698	696	690	657	670	28	41
Gain (1999-2002)	0	0	3	1	1	2	-3	-1
Gain (1998-2002)	1	0	4	3	3	5	-5	-2

Grade 11 (Reading)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	697	704	700	695	662	674	31	43
1999	697	704	701	696	663	677	28	41
2000	697	704	699	697	664	676	27	40
2001	697	703	703	697	664	677	26	40
2002	697	704	703	698	664	679	25	40
Gain (1999-2002)	0	0	2	2	1	2	-3	-1
Gain (1998-2002)	0	0	3	3	2	5	-6	-3

* Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

Exhibit 2: Within-Grade Analyses: Reading, Grades 2–11, Standard Deviations

Grade 2 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	43	43	41	41	32	33
1999	43	42	41	38	33	33
2000	43	42	40	37	34	35
2001	42	41	40	36	35	35
2002	41	41	38	37	35	35

Grade 3 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	46	46	41	37	32	34
1999	45	45	40	34	32	34
2000	45	45	40	33	32	34
2001	45	44	40	33	33	35
2002	44	44	40	34	34	35

Grade 4 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	45	44	41	36	30	34
1999	44	43	40	34	31	34
2000	44	43	40	32	31	34
2001	43	43	39	32	31	35
2002	43	42	39	32	32	35

Grade 5 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	41	40	37	32	28	32
1999	40	39	37	31	28	32
2000	40	39	37	30	28	32
2001	39	39	36	29	28	32
2002	39	38	36	29	28	33

Grade 6 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	37	36	34	29	25	29
1999	37	36	33	29	25	29
2000	37	36	34	29	25	30
2001	37	36	34	29	25	30
2002	36	36	34	28	26	30

Grade 7 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	41	39	37	33	29	35
1999	40	38	36	31	29	34
2000	41	39	36	32	30	35
2001	41	39	37	32	30	36
2002	41	39	37	32	30	36

Grade 8 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	38	36	34	29	26	32
1999	37	35	33	28	26	32
2000	37	36	33	28	27	32
2001	37	36	33	29	27	32
2002	37	36	34	29	27	33

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

Grade 9 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	37	36	34	29	24	29
1999	37	36	34	28	23	29
2000	36	36	34	28	24	29
2001	37	36	34	28	24	29
2002	36	36	34	28	24	30

Grade 10 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	37	36	34	29	25	31
1999	37	36	34	29	25	31
2000	37	36	35	29	25	31
2001	38	37	35	30	25	31
2002	38	38	36	30	25	32

Grade 11 (Reading)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	37	36	34	28	26	31
1999	37	36	34	28	26	31
2000	37	37	34	28	26	31
2001	38	38	36	30	26	32
2002	38	38	36	30	27	33

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

Exhibit 3: Within-Grade Analyses: Reading, Grades 2–11, Sample Sizes

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
Grade 2 (Reading)						
1998	411,091	234,505	29,771	3,471	101,399	104,870
1999	427,734	239,615	30,405	3,886	124,851	128,737
2000	437,930	257,370	35,207	4,371	138,791	143,162
2001	457,062	259,307	34,987	6,163	155,041	161,204
2002	321,100	162,790	24,945	4,319	129,040	133,359
Grade 3 (Reading)						
1998	423,125	235,728	30,080	6,845	104,333	111,178
1999	451,709	253,292	32,348	8,545	126,790	135,335
2000	461,237	272,074	35,890	10,365	140,632	150,997
2001	465,148	267,995	34,917	15,919	144,660	160,579
2002	472,483	266,802	34,398	14,378	156,895	171,273
Grade 4 (Reading)						
1998	407,807	224,061	30,630	12,192	96,149	108,341
1999	418,261	238,124	30,601	13,605	106,670	120,275
2000	457,618	275,717	36,292	18,481	125,048	143,529
2001	464,661	272,099	33,815	27,209	130,292	157,501
2002	463,131	266,424	34,617	29,846	132,241	162,087
Grade 5 (Reading)						
1998	405,834	220,182	31,543	18,698	88,298	106,996
1999	416,674	235,128	32,224	22,336	97,732	120,068
2000	440,150	269,107	35,168	25,878	108,140	134,018
2001	470,047	281,165	34,273	34,687	118,623	153,310
2002	472,060	275,106	34,226	39,337	123,390	162,727
Grade 6 (Reading)						
1998	402,107	215,136	32,420	23,544	76,891	100,435
1999	402,178	226,425	31,838	28,627	82,667	111,294
2000	429,670	264,640	35,343	33,801	93,752	127,553
2001	445,565	272,906	32,492	39,813	98,874	138,687
2002	474,417	284,222	34,787	47,046	108,354	155,400
Grade 7 (Reading)						
1998	400,236	207,020	34,730	25,488	69,074	94,562
1999	398,793	223,296	33,576	30,388	73,906	104,294
2000	415,894	259,222	35,647	35,507	83,287	118,794
2001	438,810	271,152	33,770	42,848	89,607	132,455
2002	452,548	278,532	34,956	45,633	93,423	139,056
Grade 8 (Reading)						
1998	387,379	201,337	35,799	26,161	62,319	88,480
1999	395,215	222,531	34,921	32,613	67,477	100,090
2000	409,369	257,584	36,621	37,259	75,693	112,952
2001	422,124	262,968	32,738	44,184	80,875	125,059
2002	442,239	272,577	35,126	48,103	86,432	134,535

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

† See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

	Grade 9 (Reading)					
	Total*[†]	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	394,784	181,202	37,876	21,869	52,720	74,589
1999	402,384	217,122	38,746	29,521	62,634	92,155
2000	421,867	270,912	43,556	34,150	70,897	105,047
2001	432,672	272,709	39,273	40,963	77,360	118,323
2002	448,506	279,472	39,562	46,083	83,378	129,461

	Grade 10 (Reading)					
	Total*[†]	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	360,926	163,682	36,198	21,033	43,581	64,614
1999	367,800	198,522	39,545	26,430	50,805	77,235
2000	382,908	249,668	42,455	30,954	57,758	88,712
2001	396,288	256,684	38,823	36,863	62,156	99,019
2002	403,731	258,576	38,554	41,180	65,408	106,588

	Grade 11 (Reading)					
	Total*[†]	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	307,627	141,655	31,945	18,998	32,515	51,513
1999	316,750	170,383	35,887	25,168	38,000	63,168
2000	328,823	217,222	39,874	26,495	43,423	69,918
2001	336,779	220,424	35,461	32,332	46,966	79,298
2002	348,970	227,514	35,714	36,334	49,398	85,732

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

[†] See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

Exhibit 4: Within-Grade Analyses: Lang. Arts, Grades 2–11, Mean Scaled Scores*

Grade 2 (Language Arts)								
	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	581	589	588	587	559	560	29	30
1999	585	595	595	594	564	565	30	31
2000	589	599	599	602	569	570	29	30
2001	590	600	602	598	572	573	27	28
2002	592	601	604	601	575	576	25	26
Gain (1999-2002)	7	6	9	7	11	11	-5	-5
Gain (1998-2002)	11	12	16	14	16	16	-4	-4

Grade 3 (Language Arts)								
	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	596	604	606	612	573	575	29	32
1999	602	612	614	622	579	582	30	33
2000	607	616	618	628	584	587	29	32
2001	610	620	623	626	588	592	28	32
2002	612	621	626	629	592	595	26	29
Gain (1999-2002)	10	9	12	7	13	13	-4	-4
Gain (1998-2002)	16	17	20	17	19	20	-3	-3

Grade 4 (Language Arts)								
	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	620	628	630	639	596	601	27	32
1999	623	631	634	642	599	604	27	32
2000	626	634	637	646	603	608	25	31
2001	629	637	642	645	606	613	24	30
2002	631	639	646	647	610	617	22	29
Gain (1999-2002)	8	8	12	5	11	13	-5	-3
Gain (1998-2002)	11	11	16	8	14	16	-5	-3

Grade 5 (Language Arts)								
	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	634	641	643	646	608	614	27	33
1999	636	644	647	651	611	618	26	33
2000	638	645	648	653	613	621	25	32
2001	640	648	653	654	616	624	23	32
2002	643	650	656	657	619	628	22	31
Gain (1999-2002)	7	6	9	6	8	10	-4	-2
Gain (1998-2002)	9	9	13	11	11	14	-5	-2

Grade 6 (Language Arts)								
	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	643	649	651	650	618	625	24	32
1999	646	653	655	653	621	629	23	32
2000	647	654	657	657	622	631	22	31
2001	649	655	661	658	624	634	21	31
2002	651	657	663	661	627	637	20	30
Gain (1999-2002)	5	4	8	8	6	8	-3	-2
Gain (1998-2002)	8	8	12	11	9	12	-4	-2

*Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

Grade 7 (Language Arts)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	655	662	663	660	626	635	27	36
1999	658	666	667	663	629	639	27	37
2000	659	667	668	665	631	641	26	36
2001	661	668	672	667	632	643	25	36
2002	662	669	674	669	634	645	24	35
Gain (1999-2002)	4	3	7	6	5	6	-3	-2
Gain (1998-2002)	7	7	11	9	8	10	-3	-1

Grade 8 (Language Arts)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	661	669	668	664	632	641	28	37
1999	664	672	671	667	634	645	27	38
2000	665	673	672	669	635	646	27	38
2001	666	674	676	670	636	648	26	38
2002	667	674	677	672	637	649	25	37
Gain (1999-2002)	3	2	6	5	3	4	-2	-1
Gain (1998-2002)	6	5	9	8	5	8	-3	0

Grade 9 (Language Arts)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	668	674	674	671	642	651	23	32
1999	670	676	678	673	644	653	23	32
2000	671	677	677	675	644	654	23	33
2001	672	678	682	675	644	655	23	34
2002	672	678	682	677	645	657	21	33
Gain (1999-2002)	2	2	4	4	1	4	-2	1
Gain (1998-2002)	4	4	8	6	3	6	-2	1

Grade 10 (Language Arts)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	669	676	673	669	639	649	27	37
1999	671	678	676	672	641	651	27	38
2000	672	678	676	673	641	652	26	37
2001	673	679	681	674	641	653	26	38
2002	674	680	682	676	642	655	25	38
Gain (1999-2002)	3	2	6	4	1	4	-2	0
Gain (1998-2002)	5	4	9	7	3	6	-2	1

Grade 11 (Language Arts)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	678	684	682	678	650	660	23	34
1999	680	686	685	681	652	663	23	34
2000	681	686	684	682	652	664	22	34
2001	681	686	688	682	652	664	22	34
2002	683	688	690	684	653	666	22	35
Gain (1999-2002)	3	2	5	3	1	3	-1	1
Gain (1998-2002)	5	4	8	6	3	6	-1	1

*Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

Exhibit 5: Within-Grade Analyses: Lang. Arts, Grades 2–11, Standard Deviations

Grade 2 (Language Arts)					
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	39	40	38	38	30	31
1999	40	40	38	37	31	32
2000	40	40	38	37	33	34
2001	40	40	39	37	33	34
2002	39	40	38	37	34	34

Grade 3 (Language Arts)					
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	41	41	41	40	31	33
1999	42	42	41	38	32	34
2000	42	42	41	36	34	35
2001	42	42	41	36	34	36
2002	42	42	41	37	35	37

Grade 4 (Language Arts)					
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	40	40	40	36	31	35
1999	40	39	39	35	32	35
2000	40	39	39	33	32	35
2001	40	39	39	33	33	36
2002	40	39	38	33	33	36

Grade 5 (Language Arts)					
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	40	40	38	33	30	33
1999	40	40	38	33	30	34
2000	40	40	39	32	31	35
2001	40	40	38	32	31	35
2002	40	40	38	32	31	35

Grade 6 (Language Arts)					
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	36	36	35	30	27	31
1999	37	36	35	31	28	32
2000	37	37	36	31	28	33
2001	37	37	37	31	29	33
2002	37	37	36	31	29	33

Grade 7 (Language Arts)					
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	38	38	37	32	27	32
1999	39	38	36	31	27	33
2000	39	39	37	32	28	33
2001	40	40	38	33	29	34
2002	40	40	39	32	29	34

Grade 8 (Language Arts)					
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	39	39	37	31	26	31
1999	39	40	37	31	26	32
2000	40	40	38	31	27	32
2001	40	41	38	32	27	33
2002	41	42	40	32	28	34

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

Grade 9 (Language Arts)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	35	35	35	30	25	30
1999	36	35	35	30	25	30
2000	36	36	36	31	25	31
2001	37	37	37	31	26	32
2002	37	38	37	31	26	32

Grade 10 (Language Arts)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	39	39	38	32	25	31
1999	39	39	38	33	25	32
2000	40	40	39	33	25	32
2001	41	41	40	34	26	33
2002	41	42	41	34	26	34

Grade 11 (Language Arts)

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	35	35	34	29	25	30
1999	36	36	35	30	25	30
2000	37	37	36	30	25	31
2001	38	38	38	32	26	32
2002	38	38	38	32	26	33

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

Exhibit 6: Within-Grade Analyses: Lang. Arts, Grades 2–11, Sample Sizes

	Total*[†]	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
Grade 2 (Language Arts)						
1998	436,607	245,384	31,035	3,612	111,752	115,364
1999	445,416	247,653	31,365	3,986	132,028	136,014
2000	451,213	263,991	36,023	4,459	144,468	148,927
2001	469,492	265,430	35,694	6,265	160,476	166,741
2002	328,535	166,662	25,375	4,374	132,118	136,492
Grade 3 (Language Arts)						
1998	419,311	233,584	29,808	6,810	103,467	110,277
1999	450,016	252,250	32,219	8,495	126,417	134,912
2000	458,979	270,780	35,717	10,307	139,922	150,229
2001	463,691	267,059	34,804	15,864	144,307	160,171
2002	472,182	266,418	34,333	14,375	157,047	171,422
Grade 4 (Language Arts)						
1998	422,726	230,614	31,400	12,420	102,279	114,699
1999	428,748	242,692	31,111	13,710	111,300	125,010
2000	464,818	279,132	36,751	18,577	128,251	146,828
2001	473,184	275,884	34,270	27,438	134,319	161,757
2002	470,855	270,091	34,998	30,058	135,705	165,763
Grade 5 (Language Arts)						
1998	414,400	223,766	32,015	18,844	91,898	110,742
1999	422,300	237,355	32,530	22,412	100,380	122,792
2000	443,655	270,712	35,335	25,871	109,846	135,717
2001	475,708	283,787	34,542	34,856	121,214	156,070
2002	477,128	277,480	34,469	39,478	125,700	165,178
Grade 6 (Language Arts)						
1998	403,657	215,249	32,333	23,514	78,272	101,786
1999	401,888	225,934	31,704	28,498	83,106	111,604
2000	428,120	263,636	35,164	33,444	93,747	127,191
2001	446,927	273,436	32,529	39,748	99,737	139,485
2002	475,776	284,706	34,816	46,968	109,278	156,246
Grade 7 (Language Arts)						
1998	398,397	205,734	34,424	25,305	69,364	94,669
1999	395,531	221,264	33,303	30,172	73,673	103,845
2000	411,266	256,345	35,263	34,990	82,478	117,468
2001	436,700	269,598	33,625	42,577	89,482	132,059
2002	451,297	277,514	34,859	45,432	93,488	138,920
Grade 8 (Language Arts)						
1998	385,212	199,632	35,555	26,044	62,537	88,581
1999	390,799	220,134	34,522	32,251	66,892	99,143
2000	407,193	256,152	36,411	37,026	75,394	112,420
2001	419,588	261,073	32,552	43,813	80,809	124,622
2002	440,968	271,580	35,002	47,852	86,533	134,385

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

[†] See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

Grade 9 (Language Arts)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	394,195	180,743	37,862	21,852	52,863	74,715
1999	400,932	216,501	38,538	29,464	62,324	91,788
2000	421,815	270,795	43,592	34,114	70,988	105,102
2001	432,628	272,586	39,290	40,935	77,436	118,371
2002	449,062	279,611	39,565	46,220	83,655	129,875

Grade 10 (Language Arts)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	357,863	162,567	35,899	20,850	43,118	63,968
1999	364,241	196,912	39,199	26,176	50,140	76,316
2000	381,029	248,329	42,232	30,948	57,465	88,413
2001	394,344	255,348	38,716	36,742	61,818	98,560
2002	402,821	257,850	38,489	41,166	65,304	106,470

Grade 11 (Language Arts)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	305,549	140,959	31,801	18,888	32,264	51,152
1999	314,122	169,186	35,619	25,002	37,570	62,572
2000	327,266	216,082	39,728	26,422	43,231	69,653
2001	335,592	219,520	35,369	32,215	46,901	79,116
2002	348,284	226,844	35,665	36,361	49,404	85,765

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs. See Methodological Note 3 in the Technical Appendix for more information on the total category.

† See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

Exhibit 7: Within-Grade Analyses: Math, Grades 2–11, Mean Scaled Scores*

	Total**	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**	**Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)**	**Gap (EO-EL)**
Grade 2 (Math)								
1998	564	571	573	575	548	549	22	23
1999	572	579	582	583	556	557	22	23
2000	579	586	588	593	562	563	23	24
2001	581	589	593	592	566	567	22	23
2002	585	592	597	597	571	572	20	21
Gain (1999-2002)	13	13	15	14	15	15	-2	-2
Gain (1998-2002)	21	21	24	22	23	23	-2	-2
Grade 3 (Math)								
1998	590	597	600	610	572	574	23	25
1999	598	606	610	619	580	582	23	26
2000	605	613	617	627	587	590	23	26
2001	610	617	623	627	592	595	22	26
2002	613	620	627	631	597	599	21	23
Gain (1999-2002)	15	14	17	12	17	17	-2	-3
Gain (1998-2002)	23	23	27	21	25	25	-2	-2
Grade 4 (Math)								
1998	613	620	624	635	592	597	23	27
1999	619	626	630	640	599	603	23	27
2000	625	632	636	645	604	609	23	28
2001	629	636	642	646	607	614	22	29
2002	632	639	646	649	612	619	20	27
Gain (1999-2002)	13	13	16	9	13	16	-3	0
Gain (1998-2002)	19	19	22	14	20	22	-3	0
Grade 5 (Math)								
1998	638	644	648	651	615	621	23	29
1999	642	649	653	658	620	627	22	29
2000	646	653	657	662	624	631	22	29
2001	651	657	663	664	628	636	22	30
2002	653	660	667	667	630	639	21	30
Gain (1999-2002)	11	11	14	9	10	12	-1	1
Gain (1998-2002)	15	16	19	16	15	18	-2	1
Grade 6 (Math)								
1998	655	662	665	664	629	637	25	33
1999	661	668	671	669	635	643	24	33
2000	663	670	674	673	637	647	24	33
2001	667	673	680	676	640	650	23	33
2002	669	676	683	679	643	654	22	33
Gain (1999-2002)	8	8	12	10	8	11	-2	0
Gain (1998-2002)	14	14	18	15	14	17	-3	0

* Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

Grade 7 (Math)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	667	673	676	673	643	651	21	29
1999	670	676	679	676	647	655	21	29
2000	672	678	681	678	648	657	21	30
2001	674	680	686	681	650	660	21	31
2002	676	681	690	682	652	662	19	29
Gain (1999-2002)	6	5	11	6	5	7	-2	0
Gain (1998-2002)	9	8	14	9	9	11	-2	0

Grade 8 (Math)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	676	682	683	680	653	660	21	29
1999	680	685	688	683	656	664	21	30
2000	681	687	688	684	656	666	21	30
2001	682	688	692	686	658	668	20	30
2002	683	688	694	687	659	669	19	29
Gain (1999-2002)	3	3	6	4	3	5	-2	-1
Gain (1998-2002)	7	6	11	7	6	9	-2	0

Grade 9 (Math)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	688	693	692	690	667	673	20	26
1999	690	695	697	692	669	676	19	26
2000	692	696	696	694	670	678	19	27
2001	692	697	701	694	670	678	19	28
2002	692	697	701	695	671	679	18	26
Gain (1999-2002)	2	2	4	3	2	3	-1	0
Gain (1998-2002)	4	4	9	5	4	6	-2	0

Grade 10 (Math)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	695	698	699	696	677	683	15	21
1999	697	701	702	699	680	687	14	21
2000	698	701	701	700	680	687	14	21
2001	698	701	706	700	680	687	14	22
2002	699	702	707	701	680	688	14	22
Gain (1999-2002)	2	1	5	2	0	1	0	1
Gain (1998-2002)	4	4	8	5	3	5	-1	1

Grade 11 (Math)

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
1998	700	703	704	701	680	688	15	23
1999	702	706	709	705	684	692	14	22
2000	703	706	708	707	684	693	14	22
2001	704	706	711	705	684	692	14	23
2002	704	707	712	707	683	693	14	24
Gain (1999-2002)	2	1	3	2	-1	1	0	2
Gain (1998-2002)	4	4	8	6	3	5	-1	1

* Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

Exhibit 8: Within-Grade Analyses: Math, Grades 2–11, Standard Deviations

Grade 2 (Math)					
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	42	42	40	41	37	37
1999	43	43	41	42	38	38
2000	43	43	41	40	39	39
2001	43	43	41	40	39	39
2002	42	43	40	40	39	39

Grade 3 (Math)					
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	42	42	42	41	35	37
1999	43	43	42	40	36	37
2000	43	44	43	39	37	39
2001	44	44	42	38	38	39
2002	44	44	43	38	39	40

Grade 4 (Math)					
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	41	41	41	38	32	36
1999	41	41	41	37	33	36
2000	42	42	41	36	34	37
2001	42	42	41	36	35	38
2002	42	42	41	35	36	38

Grade 5 (Math)					
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	40	40	40	35	30	34
1999	40	40	40	35	30	34
2000	41	41	41	36	31	35
2001	41	42	41	35	32	36
2002	41	42	41	35	33	37

Grade 6 (Math)					
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	41	42	42	37	30	35
1999	42	42	42	38	31	36
2000	43	43	44	39	32	37
2001	43	43	44	40	33	39
2002	44	44	44	39	34	39

Grade 7 (Math)					
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	39	39	41	37	26	32
1999	39	39	41	36	26	32
2000	40	41	42	38	28	34
2001	41	41	44	39	28	35
2002	42	42	45	39	29	36

Grade 8 (Math)					
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	37	37	40	35	26	31
1999	38	38	40	35	26	32
2000	38	39	40	36	26	32
2001	39	39	41	36	27	33
2002	39	39	43	37	27	34

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

Grade 9 (Math)						
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	36	36	37	33	26	30
1999	36	36	38	33	26	30
2000	37	37	38	34	26	31
2001	38	38	40	34	26	31
2002	37	38	40	34	26	31
Grade 10 (Math)						
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	34	34	36	31	27	30
1999	35	35	37	33	26	30
2000	35	36	37	33	26	30
2001	36	36	40	34	26	31
2002	36	37	40	33	26	31
Grade 11 (Math)						
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998	38	38	40	35	29	33
1999	38	39	41	36	29	34
2000	39	39	42	38	29	34
2001	40	40	44	38	29	34
2002	40	41	44	38	28	35

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs.

Exhibit 9: Within-Grade Analyses: Math, Grades 2–11, Sample Sizes

Grade 2 (Math)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	448,870	249,000	31,444	3,673	118,740	122,413
1999	451,488	249,792	31,592	4,008	135,202	139,210
2000	456,572	266,109	36,224	4,487	147,442	151,929
2001	473,990	267,123	35,931	6,318	162,958	169,276
2002	331,090	167,640	25,451	4,393	133,600	137,993

Grade 3 (Math)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	433,600	239,603	30,497	6,942	109,327	116,269
1999	458,060	255,810	32,670	8,606	129,673	138,279
2000	466,381	274,403	36,183	10,401	143,075	153,476
2001	470,057	270,171	35,159	16,003	147,018	163,021
2002	477,531	269,176	34,617	14,447	159,281	173,728

Grade 4 (Math)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	428,987	233,099	31,676	12,508	104,707	117,215
1999	433,380	244,846	31,400	13,827	112,988	126,815
2000	469,570	281,450	36,988	18,668	130,304	148,972
2001	475,585	277,006	34,378	27,470	135,444	162,914
2002	472,410	270,782	35,015	30,070	136,540	166,610

Grade 5 (Math)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	418,918	225,508	32,305	18,961	93,661	112,622
1999	425,388	238,717	32,745	22,517	101,593	124,110
2000	447,292	272,533	35,573	25,986	111,286	137,272
2001	477,442	284,546	34,611	34,899	122,062	156,961
2002	478,342	277,887	34,481	39,514	126,458	165,972

Grade 6 (Math)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	411,548	218,755	32,939	23,800	80,698	104,498
1999	407,693	228,691	32,118	28,773	84,985	113,758
2000	434,602	267,060	35,615	33,950	95,812	129,762
2001	450,254	275,004	32,688	39,984	101,076	141,060
2002	478,636	286,184	34,947	47,152	110,345	157,497

Grade 7 (Math)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	404,738	208,363	34,913	25,591	71,227	96,818
1999	401,064	223,931	33,685	30,428	75,238	105,666
2000	417,949	259,867	35,775	35,578	84,491	120,069
2001	440,665	271,472	33,885	42,903	90,974	133,877
2002	454,183	279,093	35,034	45,677	94,375	140,052

Grade 8 (Math)

	Total*†	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	390,807	202,215	35,991	26,284	64,018	90,302
1999	395,916	222,630	34,951	32,570	68,235	100,805
2000	410,160	257,456	36,697	37,252	76,527	113,779
2001	423,198	262,831	32,794	44,156	82,055	126,211
2002	443,155	272,598	35,146	48,098	87,312	135,410

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs. See Methodological Note 3 in the Technical Appendix for more information on the total category.

† See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

Grade 9 (Math)

	Total*[†]	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	401,441	183,262	38,329	22,152	54,815	76,967
1999	406,207	218,616	38,963	29,726	63,942	93,668
2000	426,202	273,205	43,889	34,338	72,386	106,724
2001	436,939	274,707	39,548	41,230	79,022	120,252
2002	452,302	281,193	39,759	46,361	84,978	131,339

Grade 10 (Math)

	Total*[†]	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	365,063	165,080	36,475	21,108	44,912	66,020
1999	369,677	199,187	39,631	26,558	51,651	78,209
2000	385,594	251,013	42,651	31,171	58,659	89,830
2001	398,397	257,614	38,907	36,995	63,093	100,088
2002	405,694	259,355	38,744	41,286	66,296	107,582

Grade 11 (Math)

	Total*[†]	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998	310,517	142,626	32,230	19,050	33,311	52,361
1999	317,536	170,700	35,933	25,221	38,430	63,651
2000	330,601	218,028	40,157	26,599	43,969	70,568
2001	338,090	220,975	35,571	32,387	47,533	79,920
2002	349,976	227,976	35,783	36,391	49,816	86,207

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs. See Methodological Note 3 in the Technical Appendix for more information on the total category.

[†] See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

Exhibit 10: Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohorts 2-6 and 7-11, Mean Scaled Scores*

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO-EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
Cohort 2-6 (Reading)								
1998 (Grade 2)	571	581	580	579	545	546	35	36
1999 (Grade 3)	604	617	613	617	574	577	40	43
2000 (Grade 4)	632	644	641	645	601	607	37	42
2001 (Grade 5)	647	658	658	655	617	626	32	41
2002 (Grade 6)	660	669	671	664	632	642	27	37
Gain (1999-2002)	56	52	58	47	58	65	-13	-6
Gain (1998-2002)	89	88	91	85	87	96	-8	1
Cohort 7-11 (Reading)								
1998 (Grade 7)	670	680	677	673	633	644	37	48
1999 (Grade 8)	686	696	692	688	652	663	32	44
2000 (Grade 9)	685	693	688	684	653	663	30	41
2001 (Grade 10)	691	698	696	690	656	669	29	42
2002 (Grade 11)	697	704	703	698	664	679	25	40
Gain (1999-2002)	11	8	11	10	12	16	-7	-4
Gain (1998-2002)	27	24	26	25	31	35	-12	-8

* Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

NOTE: Updated 07/02 to correct minor errors in grade labeling.

Exhibit 11: Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohorts 2-6 and 7-11, Standard Deviations

Cohort 2-6 (Reading)						
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998 (Grade 2)	43	43	41	41	32	33
1999 (Grade 3)	45	45	40	34	32	34
2000 (Grade 4)	44	43	40	32	31	34
2001 (Grade 5)	39	39	36	29	28	32
2002 (Grade 6)	36	36	34	28	26	30
Cohort 7-11 (Reading)						
	Total*	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998 (Grade 7)	45	44	41	36	30	34
1999 (Grade 8)	40	39	37	31	28	32
2000 (Grade 9)	37	36	34	29	25	30
2001 (Grade 10)	41	39	37	32	30	36
2002 (Grade 11)	38	38	36	30	27	33

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

NOTE: Updated 07/02 to correct minor errors in grade labeling.

Exhibit 12: Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohorts 2-6 and 7-11, Sample Sizes

Cohort 2-6 (Reading)					
	Total*†	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998 (Grade 2)	411,091	234,505	29,771	3,471	101,399	104,870
1999 (Grade 3)	451,709	253,292	32,348	8,545	126,790	135,335
2000 (Grade 4)	457,618	275,717	36,292	18,481	125,048	143,529
2001 (Grade 5)	470,047	281,165	34,273	34,687	118,623	153,310
2002 (Grade 6)	474,417	284,222	34,787	47,046	108,354	155,400

Cohort 7-11 (Reading)					
	Total*†	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**
1998 (Grade 7)	407,807	224,061	30,630	12,192	96,149	108,341
1999 (Grade 8)	416,674	235,128	32,224	22,336	97,732	120,068
2000 (Grade 9)	429,670	264,640	35,343	33,801	93,752	127,553
2001 (Grade 10)	438,810	271,152	33,770	42,848	89,607	132,455
2002 (Grade 11)	348,970	227,514	35,714	36,334	49,398	85,732

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

† See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

NOTE: Updated 07/02 to correct minor errors in grade labeling.

Exhibit 13: Cohort Analyses: Language Arts, Cohorts 2-6 and 7-11, Mean Scaled Scores*

Cohort 2-6 (Language Arts)								
	Total**	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**	**Gap (EO-EL/RFEP)**	**Gap (EO-EL)**
1998 (Grade 2)	581	589	588	587	559	560	29	30
1999 (Grade 3)	602	612	614	622	579	582	30	33
2000 (Grade 4)	626	634	637	646	603	608	25	31
2001 (Grade 5)	640	648	653	654	616	624	23	32
2002 (Grade 6)	651	657	663	661	627	637	20	30
Gain (1999-2002)	49	45	49	39	48	55	-10	-3
Gain (1998-2002)	70	68	75	74	68	77	-9	0

Cohort 7-11 (Language Arts)								
	Total**	**EO**	**IFEP**	**RFEP**	**EL**	**EL/RFEP**	**Gap (EO-EL/RFEP)**	**Gap (EO-EL)**
1998 (Grade 7)	655	662	663	660	626	635	27	36
1999 (Grade 8)	664	672	671	667	634	645	27	38
2000 (Grade 9)	671	677	677	675	644	654	23	33
2001 (Grade 10)	673	679	681	674	641	653	26	38
2002 (Grade 11)	683	688	690	684	653	666	22	35
Gain (1999-2002)	19	16	19	17	19	21	-5	-3
Gain (1998-2002)	28	26	27	24	27	31	-5	-1

* Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

NOTE: Updated 07/02 to correct minor errors in grade labeling.

Exhibit 14: Cohort Analyses: Language Arts, Cohorts 2-5, 4-7, and 8-11, Standard Deviations

Cohort 2-6 (Language Arts)						
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998 (Grade 2)	39	40	38	38	30	31
1999 (Grade 3)	42	42	41	38	32	34
2000 (Grade 4)	40	39	39	33	32	35
2001 (Grade 5)	40	40	38	32	31	35
2002 (Grade 6)	37	37	36	31	29	33
Cohort 7-11 (Language Arts)						
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998 (Grade 7)	40	40	40	36	31	35
1999 (Grade 8)	40	40	38	33	30	34
2000 (Grade 9)	37	37	36	31	28	33
2001 (Grade 10)	40	40	38	33	29	34
2002 (Grade 11)	38	38	38	32	26	33

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

NOTE: Updated 07/02 to correct minor errors in grade labeling.

Exhibit 15: Cohort Analyses: Language Arts, Cohorts 2-6 and 7-11, Sample Sizes

	Total*[†]	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
Cohort 2-6 (Language Arts)						
1998 (Grade 2)	436,607	245,384	31,035	3,612	111,752	115,364
1999 (Grade 3)	450,016	252,250	32,219	8,495	126,417	134,912
2000 (Grade 4)	464,818	279,132	36,751	18,577	128,251	146,828
2001 (Grade 5)	475,708	283,787	34,542	34,856	121,214	156,070
2002 (Grade 6)	475,776	284,706	34,816	46,968	109,278	156,246
Cohort 7-11 (Language Arts)						
1998 (Grade 7)	422,726	230,614	31,400	12,420	102,279	114,699
1999 (Grade 8)	422,300	237,355	32,530	22,412	100,380	122,792
2000 (Grade 9)	428,120	263,636	35,164	33,444	93,747	127,191
2001 (Grade 10)	436,700	269,598	33,625	42,577	89,482	132,059
2002 (Grade 11)	348,284	226,844	35,665	36,361	49,404	85,765

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

[†] See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

NOTE: Updated 07/02 to correct minor errors in grade labeling.

Exhibit 16: Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohorts 2-6 and 7-11, Mean Scaled Scores*

	Total**	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO-EL/RFEP)	Gap (EO-EL)
Cohort 2-6 (Math)								
1998 (Grade 2)	564	571	573	575	548	549	22	23
1999 (Grade 3)	598	606	610	619	580	582	23	26
2000 (Grade 4)	625	632	636	645	604	609	23	28
2001 (Grade 5)	651	657	663	664	628	636	22	30
2002 (Grade 6)	669	676	683	679	643	654	22	33
Gain (1999-2002)	71	70	73	60	63	72	-1	7
Gain (1998-2002)	105	105	110	104	95	105	0	10
Cohort 7-11 (Math)								
1998 (Grade 7)	667	673	676	673	643	651	21	29
1999 (Grade 8)	680	685	688	683	656	664	21	30
2000 (Grade 9)	692	696	696	694	670	678	19	27
2001 (Grade 10)	698	701	706	700	680	687	14	22
2002 (Grade 11)	704	707	712	707	683	693	14	24
Gain (1999-2002)	24	22	24	24	27	29	-7	-6
Gain (1998-2002)	37	34	36	34	40	42	-7	-5

* Scores are SAT-9 mean scaled scores. Calculated gains and gap figures may differ from source figures due to rounding.

** Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

NOTE: Updated 07/02 to correct minor errors in grade labeling.

Exhibit 17: Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohorts 2-6 and 7-11, Standard Deviations

	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
Cohort 2-6 (Math)						
1998 (Grade 2)	42	42	40	41	37	37
1999 (Grade 3)	43	43	42	40	36	37
2000 (Grade 4)	42	42	41	36	34	37
2001 (Grade 5)	41	42	41	35	32	36
2002 (Grade 6)	44	44	44	39	34	39
Cohort 7-11 (Math)						
	Total*	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
1998 (Grade 7)	41	41	41	38	32	36
1999 (Grade 8)	40	40	40	35	30	34
2000 (Grade 9)	43	43	44	39	32	37
2001 (Grade 10)	41	41	44	39	28	35
2002 (Grade 11)	40	41	44	38	28	35

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

NOTE: Updated 07/02 to correct minor errors in grade labeling.

Exhibit 18: Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohorts 2-6 and 7-11, Sample Sizes

	Total*[†]	EO	IFEP	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP
Cohort 2-6 (Math)						
1998 (Grade 2)	448,870	249,000	31,444	3,673	118,740	122,413
1999 (Grade 3)	458,060	255,810	32,670	8,606	129,673	138,279
2000 (Grade 4)	469,570	281,450	36,988	18,668	130,304	148,972
2001 (Grade 5)	477,442	284,546	34,611	34,899	122,062	156,961
2002 (Grade 6)	478,636	286,184	34,947	47,152	110,345	157,497
Cohort 7-11 (Math)						
1998 (Grade 7)	428,987	233,099	31,676	12,508	104,707	117,215
1999 (Grade 8)	425,388	238,717	32,745	22,517	101,593	124,110
2000 (Grade 9)	434,602	267,060	35,615	33,950	95,812	129,762
2001 (Grade 10)	440,665	271,472	33,885	42,903	90,974	133,877
2002 (Grade 11)	349,976	227,976	35,783	36,391	49,816	86,207

* Total = all students, EO = English Only students, IFEP = students whose first language was not English, but who entered school fully English proficient, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs

[†] See methodological note 3 in the Technical Appendix for details on why the total category may be larger than the sum of the other categories.

Exhibit 19. Instructional Model Analyses: Reading Performance, Gains and Gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002, Grade 2 – 6**

Grade 2	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	569	536	34	567	537	30	583	551	32
1999	574	542	32	574	542	32	590	557	33
2000	579	546	33	579	546	33	595	562	32
2001	582	549	33	582	558	24	597	567	30
2002	582	552	30	585	564	21	598	571	27
Gain (1998-2002)			-4			-8			-6

Grade 3	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	598	563	35	595	564	32	614	575	39
1999	605	570	35	602	571	30	620	581	39
2000	607	574	33	606	577	29	623	585	38
2001	610	577	34	610	582	27	627	589	38
2002	612	579	33	612	586	26	628	593	35
Gain (1998-2002)			-1			-5			-4

Grade 4	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	624	592	32	623	593	30	640	603	37
1999	628	597	31	626	597	29	644	607	36
2000	631	601	30	629	602	28	646	611	35
2001	633	604	29	632	606	26	649	615	34
2002	635	607	28	635	611	24	650	618	32
Gain (1998-2002)			-4			-6			-4

Grade 5	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	642	611	31	640	613	27	655	620	35
1999	645	616	29	643	616	27	658	624	34
2000	645	618	26	643	618	25	658	626	32
2001	647	621	26	646	622	24	660	628	31
2002	648	623	25	648	625	23	661	631	30
Gain (1998-2002)			-5			-4			-5

Grade 6	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	656	629	28	655	630	25	665	633	32
1999	659	632	27	658	634	24	668	637	31
2000	659	634	25	658	634	24	668	639	29
2001	662	637	24	660	636	24	669	641	28
2002	665	639	25	661	639	22	670	642	28
Gain (1998-2002)			-2			-3			-5

**EO = English Only students, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs, Gap (EO – EL/RFEP) = Performance gap between English Only students and English learners and former English learners who had been redesignated.

Exhibit 20. Instructional Model Analyses: Math Performance, Gains and Gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002, Grade 2 – 6**

Grade 2	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	560	543	17	559	544	15	573	552	21
1999	567	551	16	567	551	16	582	560	22
2000	574	558	16	574	558	16	589	566	23
2001	578	561	16	577	564	14	591	570	21
2002	580	566	14	582	570	12	593	575	19
Gain (1998-2002)			-4			-3			-2

Grade 3	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	583	567	16	583	568	15	599	578	22
1999	593	577	17	593	578	15	608	586	22
2000	600	584	17	601	585	15	615	593	22
2001	605	588	17	605	592	14	620	598	22
2002	608	592	16	609	596	12	622	602	19
Gain (1998-2002)			0			-2			-2

Grade 4	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	607	590	17	607	591	15	622	601	22
1999	613	598	15	613	597	16	628	607	21
2000	620	604	16	620	604	16	634	612	22
2001	624	608	16	623	609	15	638	617	21
2002	627	613	14	627	614	13	641	622	19
Gain (1998-2002)			-3			-3			-2

Grade 5	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	633	616	17	631	617	15	646	624	22
1999	638	621	18	637	622	15	651	630	21
2000	641	626	15	641	626	15	655	634	21
2001	646	630	16	646	631	15	659	639	21
2002	648	633	15	649	635	14	662	642	19
Gain (1998-2002)			-2			-1			-3

Grade 6	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	653	634	20	652	635	17	663	638	25
1999	658	639	19	658	642	16	668	644	24
2000	660	643	17	660	644	16	671	647	24
2001	666	650	16	665	648	18	674	651	23
2002	672	653	19	669	653	16	676	654	22
Gain (1998-2002)			-1			-1			-3

**EO = English Only students, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs, Gap (EO – EL/RFEP) = Performance gap between English Only students and English learners and former English learners who had been redesignated.

Exhibit 21. Instructional Model Analyses: Language Arts Performance, Gains and Gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002, Grade 2 – 6**

Grade 2	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	578	552	26	577	554	23	592	564	28
1999	583	556	27	583	556	27	598	569	29
2000	586	560	26	586	560	26	602	573	28
2001	587	561	26	588	570	18	602	576	26
2002	587	564	23	590	573	17	603	579	24
Gain (1998-2002)			-3			-6			-4

Grade 3	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	592	567	25	590	568	22	607	579	28
1999	600	575	25	598	575	22	614	586	28
2000	603	578	25	603	582	21	619	591	28
2001	605	581	25	606	588	18	622	595	27
2002	608	585	24	609	592	17	623	599	24
Gain (1998-2002)			-1			-5			-4

Grade 4	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	616	593	23	615	594	21	630	604	26
1999	619	598	21	618	597	21	633	608	25
2000	622	602	20	621	603	18	636	612	24
2001	625	606	20	625	608	16	639	616	22
2002	628	609	18	628	613	15	640	620	21
Gain (1998-2002)			-5			-6			-5

Grade 5	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	632	609	23	628	610	18	643	617	26
1999	634	613	22	632	613	19	646	622	25
2000	634	615	19	633	616	17	647	624	23
2001	637	619	18	636	620	16	649	627	22
2002	639	621	17	638	624	14	651	630	21
Gain (1998-2002)			-6			-4			-5

Grade 6	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	643	622	21	641	623	17	650	626	24
1999	646	625	21	644	628	15	653	630	23
2000	644	627	17	645	629	16	654	632	22
2001	649	631	18	647	631	16	656	635	21
2002	653	634	19	649	635	14	657	637	20
Gain (1998-2002)			-2			-3			-4

**EO = English Only students, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs, Gap (EO – EL/RFEP) = Performance gap between English Only students and English learners and former English learners who had been redesignated.

Exhibit 22. Instructional Model Analyses Using 25 Percent Cut-Point: Reading Performance, Gains and Gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002, Grade 2 – 6**

Grade 2	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	567	537	30	568	540	28	586	556	30
1999	572	544	28	575	547	27	593	563	30
2000	577	548	29	579	555	25	597	567	30
2001	581	551	30	583	562	21	599	571	28
2002	579	555	24	585	567	18	598	573	25
Gain (1998-2002)			-6			-10			-5

Grade 3	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	596	565	31	596	566	30	617	580	38
1999	602	571	31	603	573	30	623	585	38
2000	605	575	30	607	579	28	626	589	37
2001	609	578	30	611	584	27	630	593	37
2002	611	581	30	613	588	24	631	596	35
Gain (1998-2002)			-1			-6			-3

Grade 4	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	622	594	29	623	594	29	643	608	35
1999	626	598	27	627	599	28	647	612	35
2000	629	602	27	630	603	27	649	615	34
2001	631	605	26	633	608	25	651	619	33
2002	634	608	25	636	613	23	653	621	31
Gain (1998-2002)			-3			-5			-4

Grade 5	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	641	613	28	641	614	27	658	624	34
1999	643	617	26	644	617	27	661	628	32
2000	643	618	25	644	620	24	661	629	31
2001	645	621	24	647	623	24	662	632	30
2002	647	624	23	648	627	22	664	634	29
Gain (1998-2002)			-5			-5			-5

Grade 6	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	655	630	24	656	629	27	666	633	33
1999	657	634	23	661	634	27	669	638	31
2000	656	634	22	660	635	25	669	639	30
2001	658	637	21	661	638	23	670	641	29
2002	661	639	22	662	640	23	670	643	28
Gain (1998-2002)			-2			-4			-5

Grade 7	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	677	642	35	673	639	34	681	644	37
1999	678	645	33	676	643	33	683	648	35
2000	677	644	33	675	645	30	684	650	34
2001	679	647	33	677	647	30	685	652	32
2002	678	648	30	677	649	28	685	654	31
Gain (1998-2002)			-5			-6			-6

Grade 8	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	688	658	30	686	655	31	694	660	34
1999	691	661	30	690	660	30	696	664	32
2000	691	661	29	690	661	28	697	665	32
2001	691	662	29	691	663	27	697	667	30
2002	691	663	28	690	664	27	696	668	28
Gain (1998-2002)			-2			-4			-6

**EO = English Only students, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs, Gap (EO – EL/RFEP) = Performance gap between English Only students and English learners and former English learners who had been redesignated.

[†]Results based on 25 percent or more cut-point.

Exhibit 23. Instructional Model Analyses Using 25 Percent Cut-Point: Math Performance, Gains and Gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002, Grade 2 – 6**

Grade 2	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	558	543	15	560	546	14	576	555	20
1999	566	552	14	566	552	14	584	563	21
2000	572	559	14	572	559	14	591	569	22
2001	577	562	15	578	565	13	593	573	20
2002	577	566	10	581	572	10	593	577	17
Gain (1998-2002)			-5			-4			-3

Grade 3	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	582	568	14	584	570	14	602	581	21
1999	591	577	14	595	579	15	611	590	21
2000	599	585	14	602	587	15	618	597	21
2001	604	589	15	607	593	13	622	601	21
2002	607	593	14	610	598	11	624	606	18
Gain (1998-2002)			0			-3			-2

Grade 4	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	606	592	14	608	593	15	625	605	20
1999	612	598	13	614	599	15	631	611	20
2000	618	604	14	620	605	15	636	616	20
2001	622	608	14	624	610	14	640	621	19
2002	625	613	13	628	616	12	643	625	18
Gain (1998-2002)			-1			-3			-2

Grade 5	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	632	616	15	633	618	15	649	628	20
1999	636	622	14	638	623	15	654	635	19
2000	640	626	14	642	627	14	657	638	19
2001	644	631	13	646	632	15	662	643	19
2002	647	634	13	649	636	13	664	646	18
Gain (1998-2002)			-2			-2			-2

Grade 6	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	652	635	17	653	634	19	664	638	26
1999	656	641	15	660	641	20	669	645	25
2000	658	644	14	662	644	18	672	648	24
2001	662	649	13	665	648	17	675	651	23
2002	667	652	15	668	652	17	677	654	23
Gain (1998-2002)			-2			-2			-3

Grade 7	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	667	648	19	664	646	18	673	652	21
1999	671	652	18	668	650	18	677	656	21
2000	673	654	19	670	653	18	679	658	21
2001	673	655	18	672	655	17	681	661	20
2002	674	659	15	673	658	15	682	663	20
Gain (1998-2002)			-3			-3			-2

Grade 8	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	673	657	15	673	655	18	682	662	21
1999	678	661	17	677	659	18	686	665	21
2000	682	664	19	679	662	17	688	666	21
2001	682	664	18	680	664	16	689	668	20
2002	682	665	16	681	665	16	689	670	19
Gain (1998-2002)			1			-2			-2

**EO = English Only students, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs, Gap (EO – EL/RFEP) = Performance gap between English Only students and English learners and former English learners who had been redesignated.

[†]Results based on 25 percent or more cut-point.

Exhibit 24. Instructional Model Analyses Using 25 Percent Cut-Point: Language Arts Performance, Gains and Gap for EOs and EL/RFEPs for 1998 and 2002, Grade 2 – 6**

Grade 2	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	577	553	23	578	556	22	594	568	27
1999	582	558	23	582	558	23	600	573	27
2000	585	562	23	585	562	23	604	577	27
2001	587	564	23	589	572	17	605	579	25
2002	585	567	18	590	576	14	603	581	22
Gain (1998-2002)			-5			-8			-4

Grade 3	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	591	569	22	591	570	21	610	584	27
1999	597	575	22	600	578	22	617	591	26
2000	602	580	22	605	584	20	621	595	26
2001	605	583	22	608	590	18	625	599	26
2002	607	586	21	610	595	16	626	602	23
Gain (1998-2002)			-1			-5			-3

Grade 4	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	615	595	20	616	596	20	633	609	24
1999	618	599	19	619	599	20	636	613	23
2000	621	603	18	622	605	18	638	616	22
2001	624	607	17	626	610	16	641	620	21
2002	626	610	16	629	615	14	643	623	19
Gain (1998-2002)			-4			-6			-4

Grade 5	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	629	609	20	629	611	18	646	622	24
1999	632	613	18	633	614	19	649	626	23
2000	632	616	17	634	617	16	650	628	22
2001	635	619	16	637	621	15	652	631	21
2002	638	623	15	639	625	14	654	634	20
Gain (1998-2002)			-5			-5			-4

Grade 6	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	640	623	17	642	622	19	651	626	25
1999	643	627	16	646	627	19	654	631	24
2000	643	628	15	646	629	18	655	633	22
2001	645	631	14	648	632	16	657	635	21
2002	649	634	15	650	635	16	658	638	20
Gain (1998-2002)			-2			-4			-4

Grade 7	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	658	632	25	655	631	24	663	636	27
1999	660	636	25	658	635	23	666	640	27
2000	662	637	25	660	638	22	667	642	26
2001	662	637	25	662	640	22	669	644	25
2002	663	640	23	662	642	20	669	646	23
Gain (1998-2002)			-3			-4			-4

Grade 8	Continuing-Bilingual			Transitioning-from-Bilingual			Never-Bilingual		
	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)	EO	EL/RFEP	Gap (EO – EL/RFEP)
1998	663	639	24	662	637	25	670	642	28
1999	668	643	25	665	641	25	673	646	27
2000	668	643	25	667	644	23	674	647	27
2001	668	643	25	668	645	23	675	649	26
2002	668	644	23	668	645	23	675	650	25
Gain (1998-2002)			-1			-2			-3

**EO = English Only students, RFEP = former English learners who had been redesignated, EL = English learners, EL/RFEP = combined sample of ELs and RFEPs, Gap (EO – EL/RFEP) = Performance gap between English Only students and English learners and former English learners who had been redesignated.

†Results based on 25 percent or more cut-point.

Exhibit 25: EL/RFEPs Reading Performance Gain across 1998 – 2002 by School Type, Using 25 Percent Cut-Point, Grade 2 – 8.
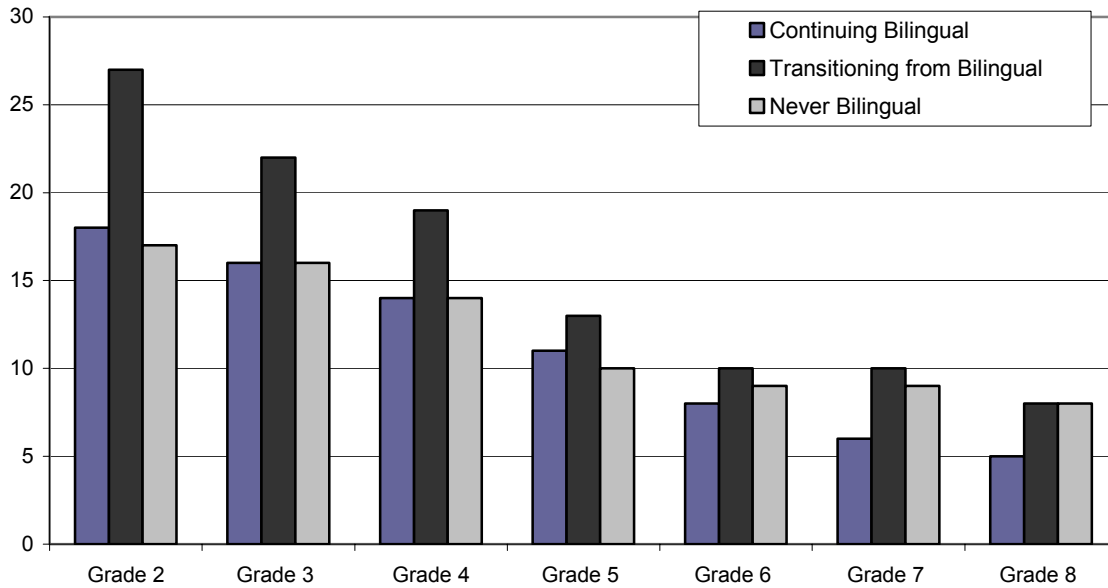

Exhibit 26: Change in the Reading Performance Gap Between EOs and EL/RFEPs across 1998 – 2002, Using 25 Percent Cut-Point, Grade 2 – 8
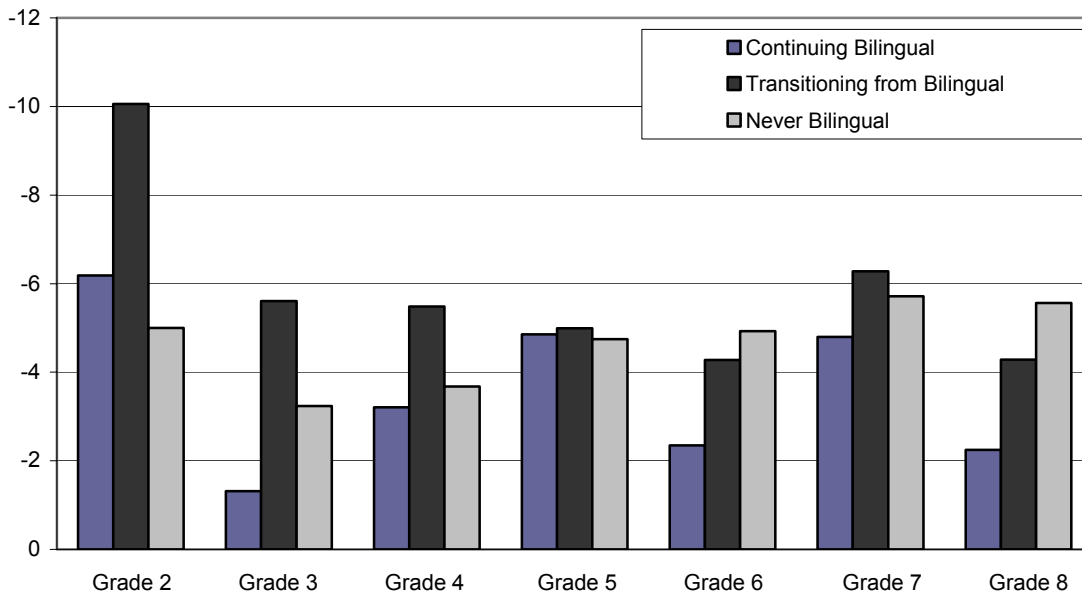
Exhibit 27: EL/RFEPs Math Performance Gain across 1998 – 2002 by School Type, Using 25 Percent Cut-Point, Grade 2 – 8.
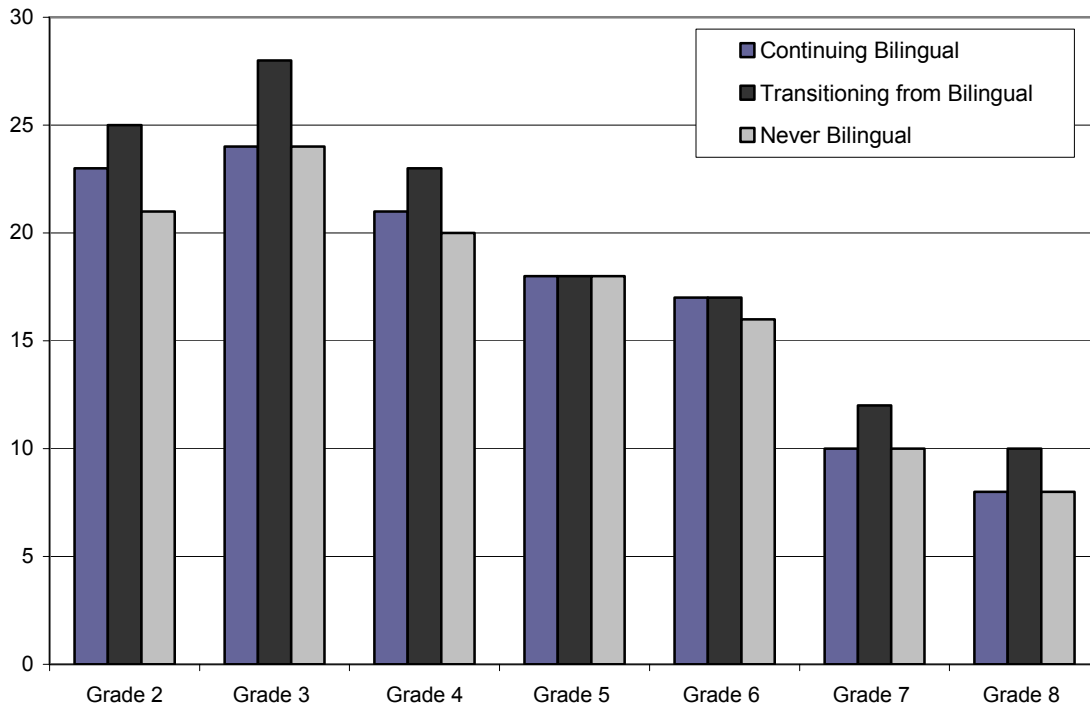

Exhibit 28: Change in the Math Performance Gap Between EOs and EL/RFEPs across 1998 – 2002, Using 25 Percent Cut-Point, Grade 2 – 8.

Exhibit 29. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1998-2001, Grade 3-6. *Continuing-Bilingual Schools*

Exhibit 30. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1998-2001, Grade 3-6. *Transitioning-from-Bilingual Schools*

Exhibit 31. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1998-2001, Grade 3-6. *Never-Bilingual Schools*

Exhibit 32. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1998-2002, Grade 2-6. *Continuing-Bilingual Schools*

Exhibit 33. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1998-2002, Grade 2-6. *Transitioning-from-Bilingual Schools*

Exhibit 34. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1998-2002, Grade 2-6. *Never-Bilingual Schools*
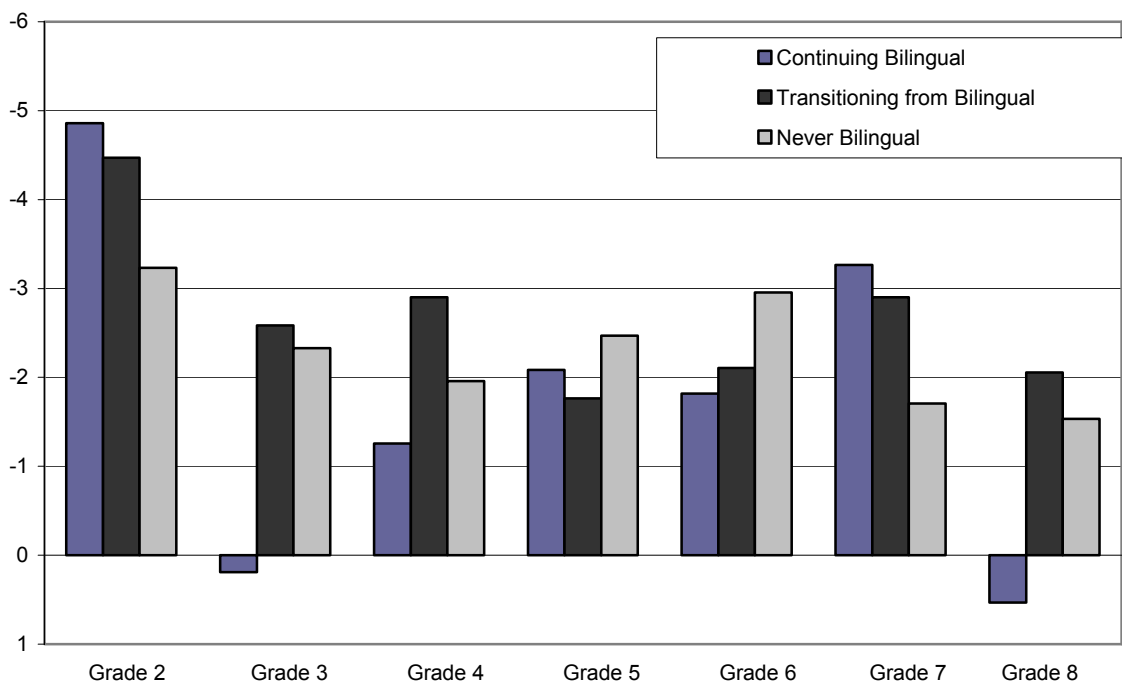
Exhibit 35. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1999-2002, Grade 2-5. *Continuing-Bilingual Schools*
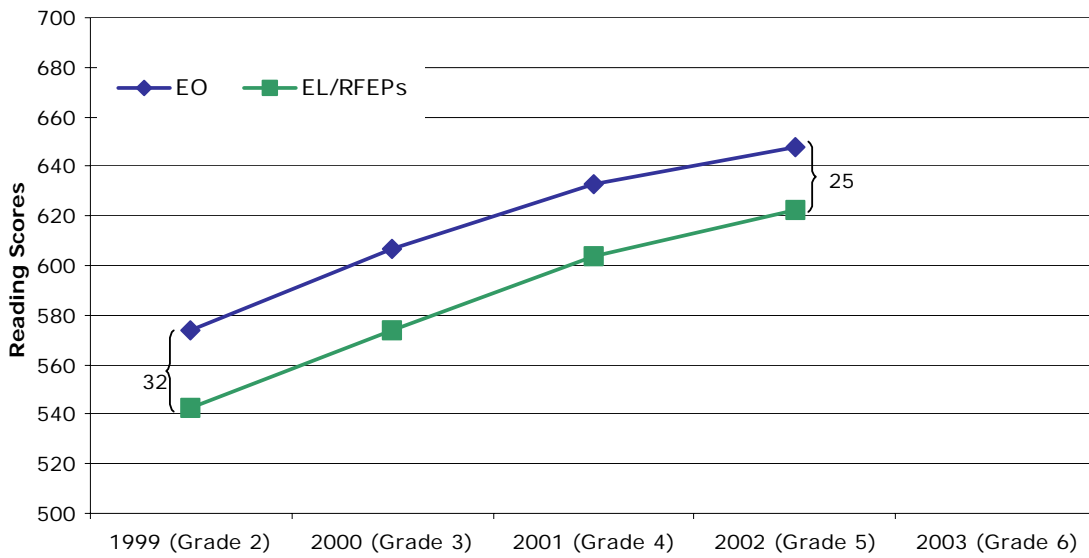
Exhibit 36. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1999-2002, Grade 2-5. *Transitioning-from-Bilingual Schools*
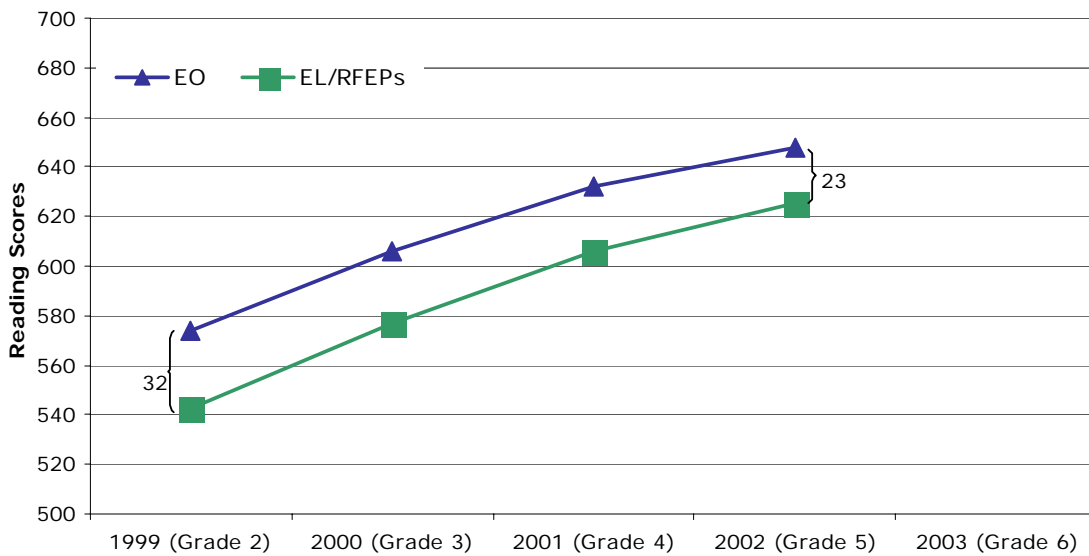
Exhibit 37. Cohort Analyses: Reading, Cohort 1999-2002, Grade 2-5. *Never-Bilingual Schools*
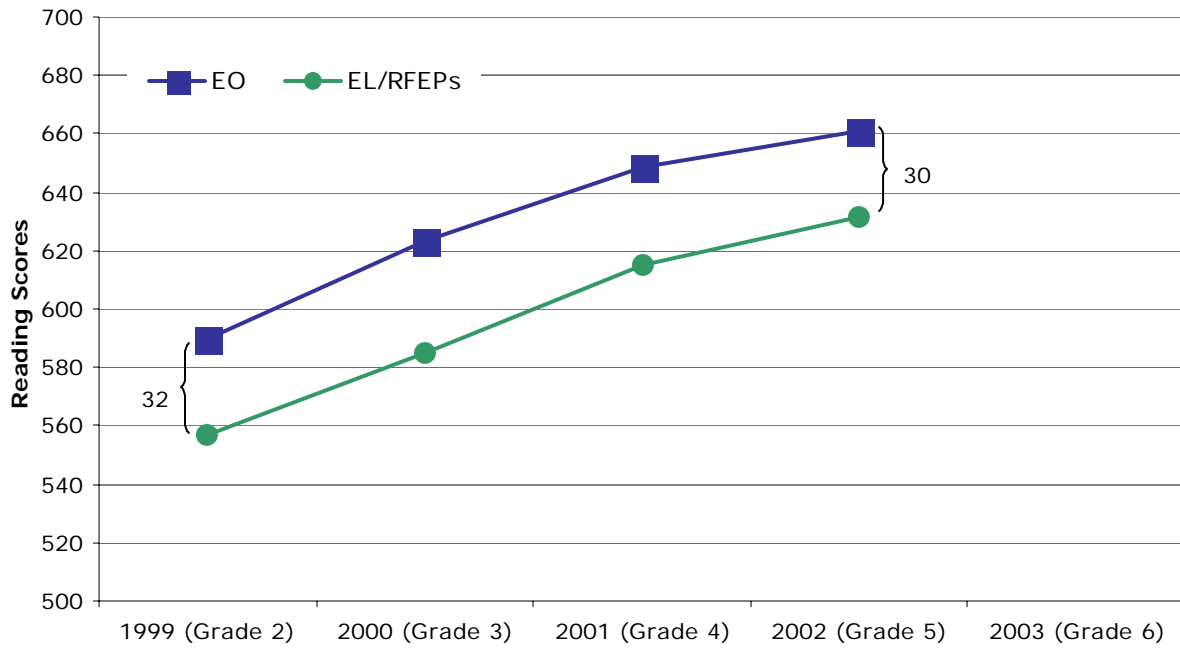
Exhibit 38. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1998-2001, Grade 3-6. *Continuing-Bilingual Schools*
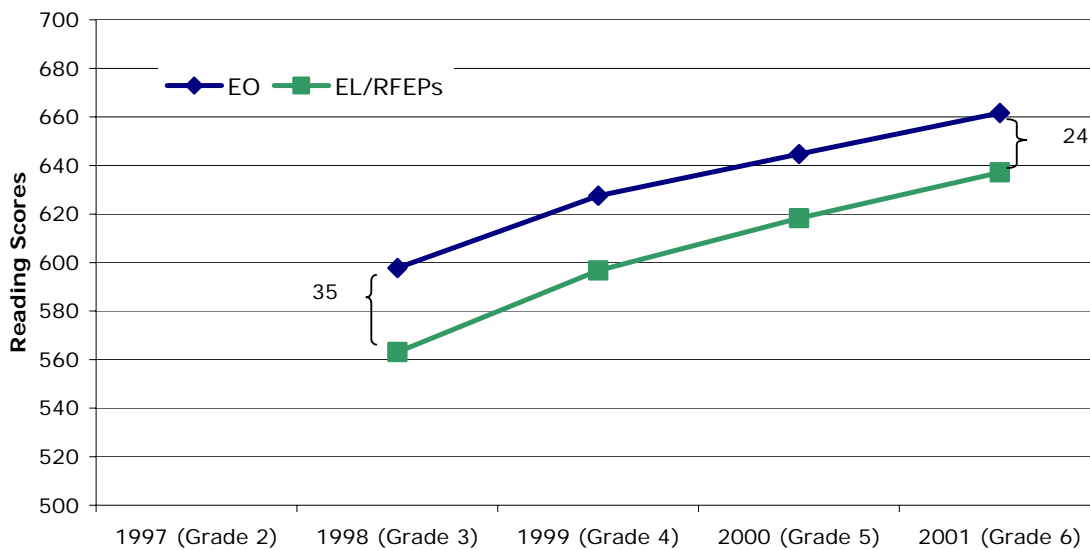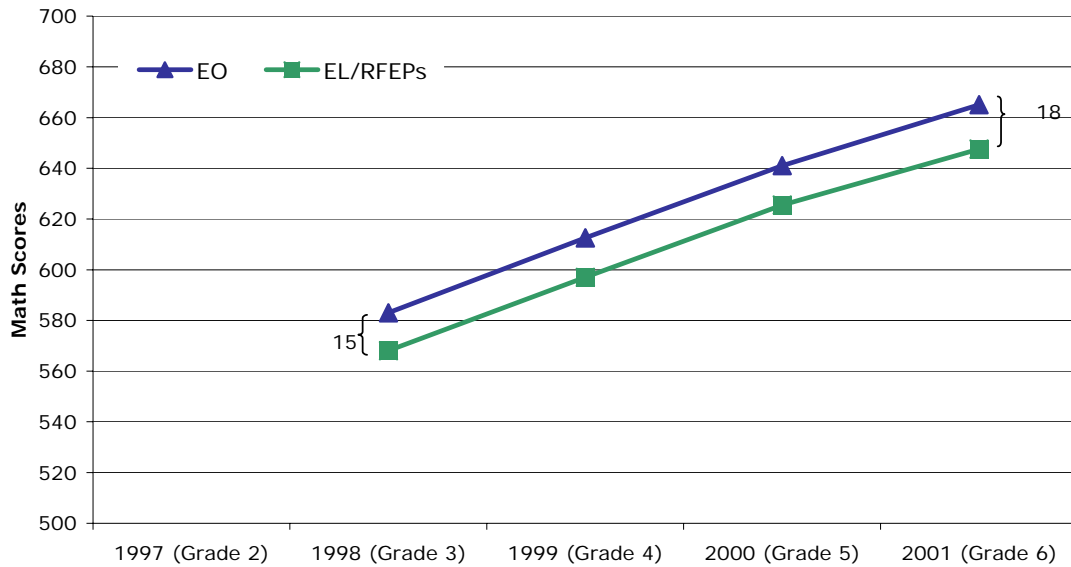

Exhibit 39. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1998-2001, Grade 3-6. *Transitioning-from-Bilingual Schools*
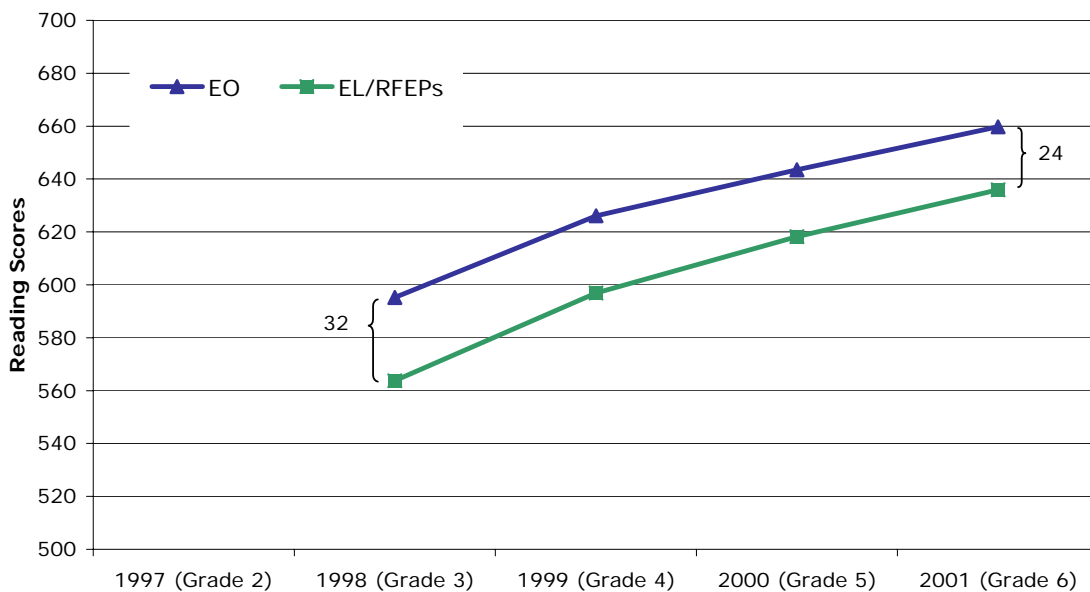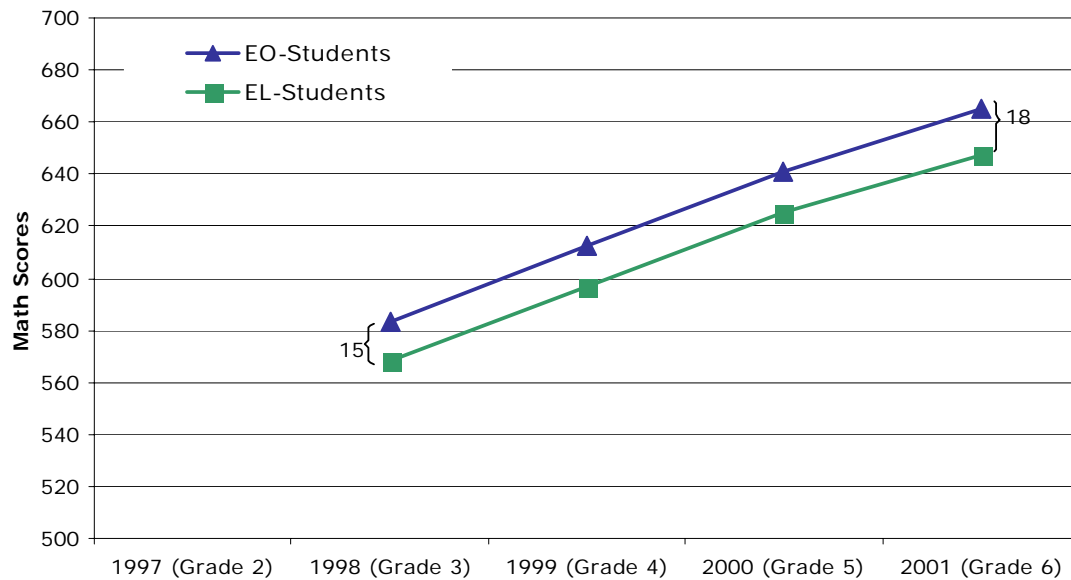
Exhibit 40. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1998-2001, Grade 3-6. *Never-Bilingual Schools*
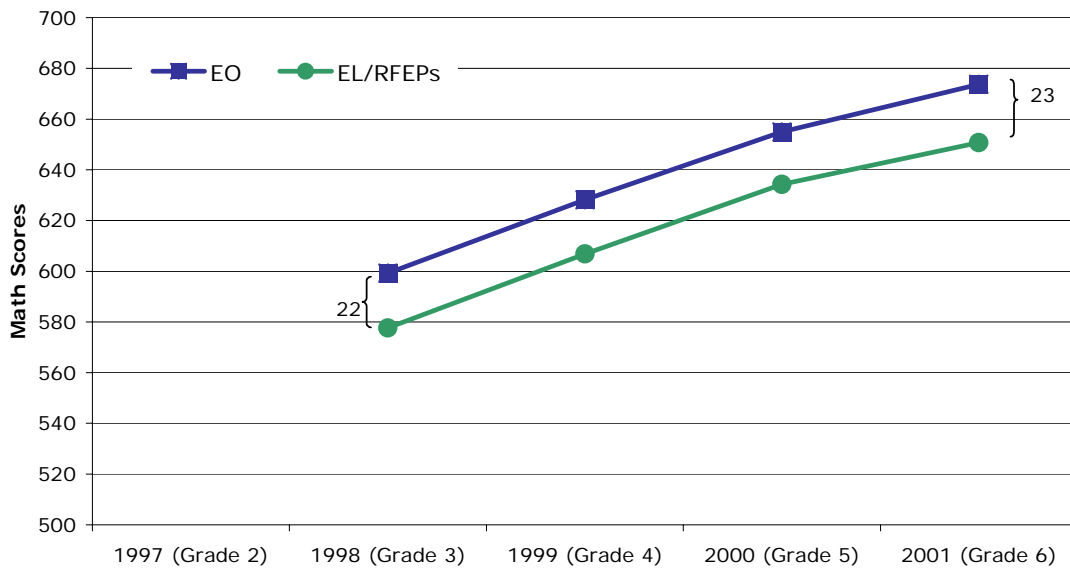
Exhibit 41. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1998-2002, Grade 2-6. *Continuing-Bilingual Schools*
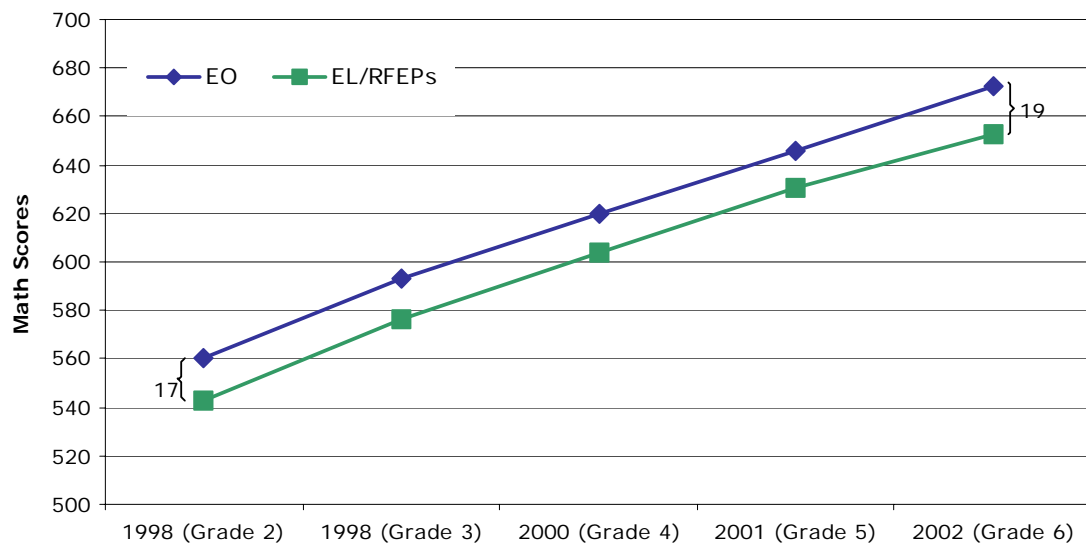
Exhibit 42. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1998-2002, Grade 2-6. *Transitioning-from-Bilingual Schools*
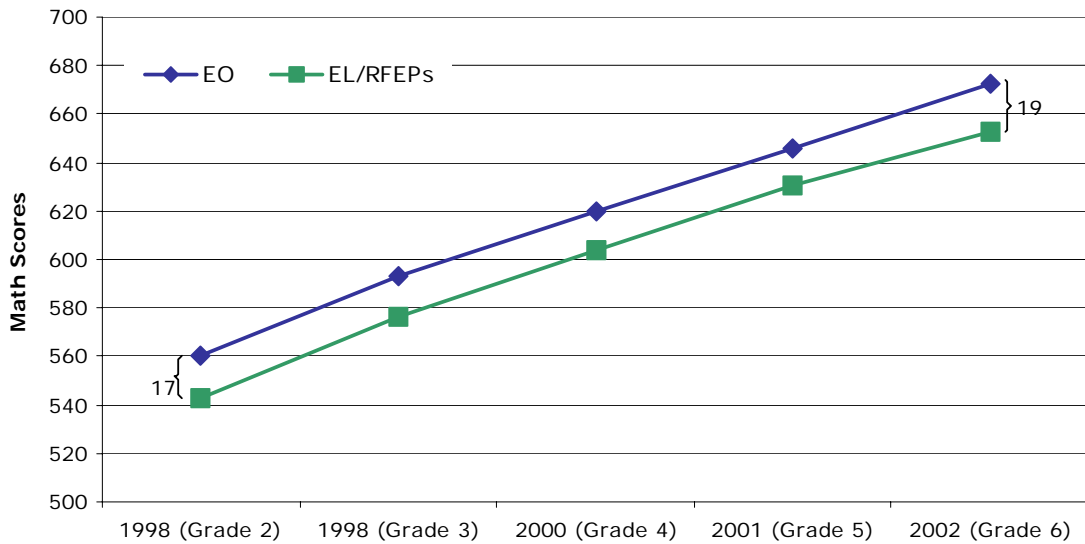
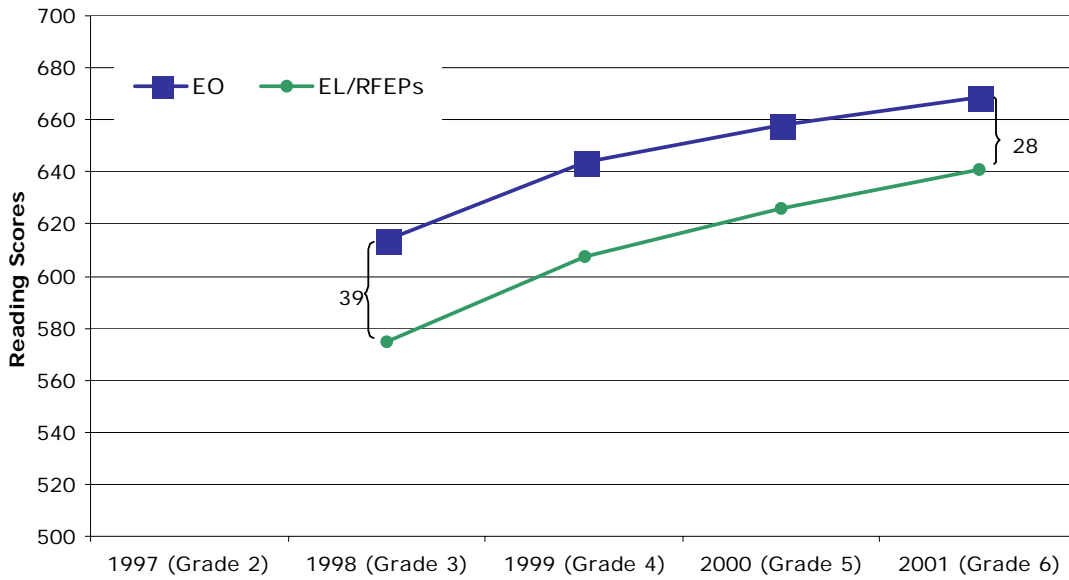**Exhibit 43. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1998-2002, Grade 2-6.** *Never-Bilingual Schools*
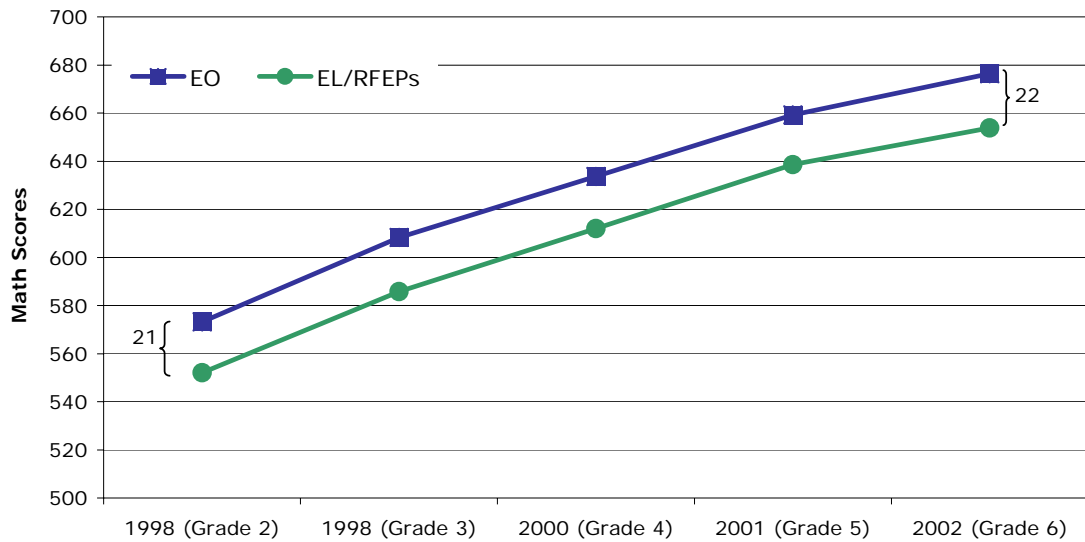
Exhibit 44. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1999-2002, Grade 2-5. *Continuing-Bilingual Schools*
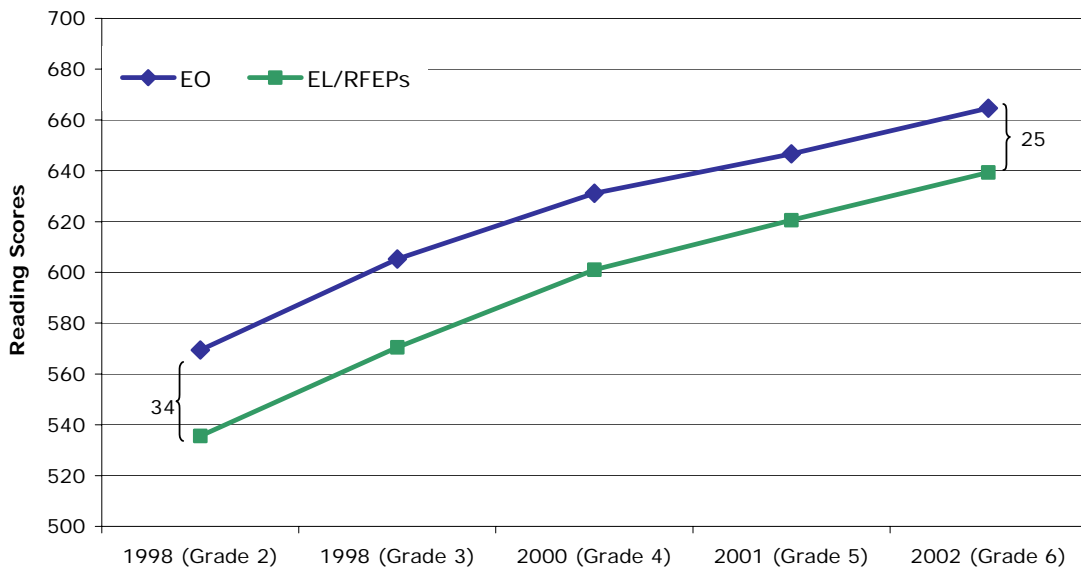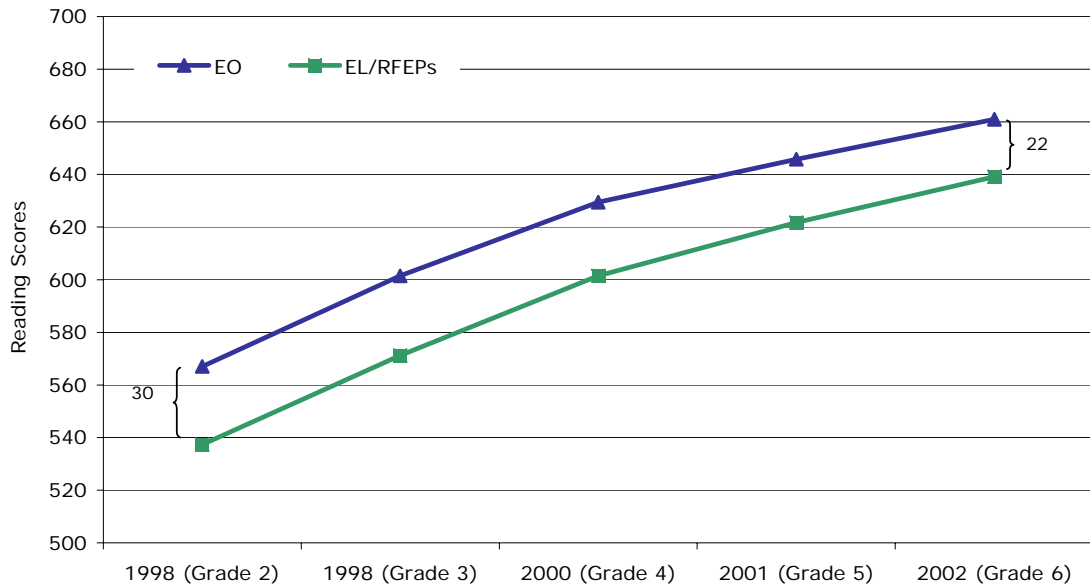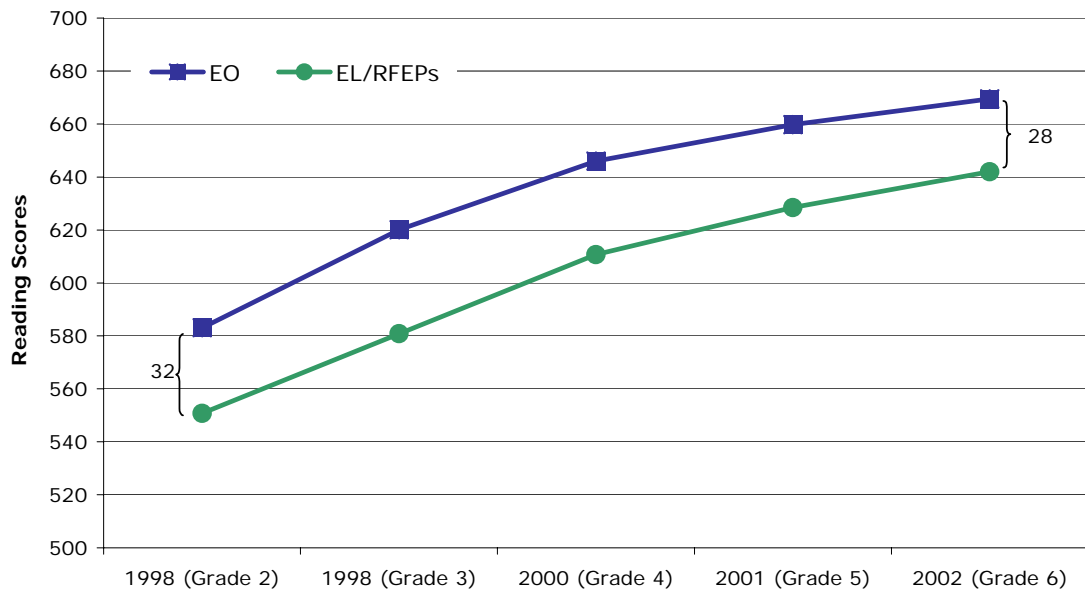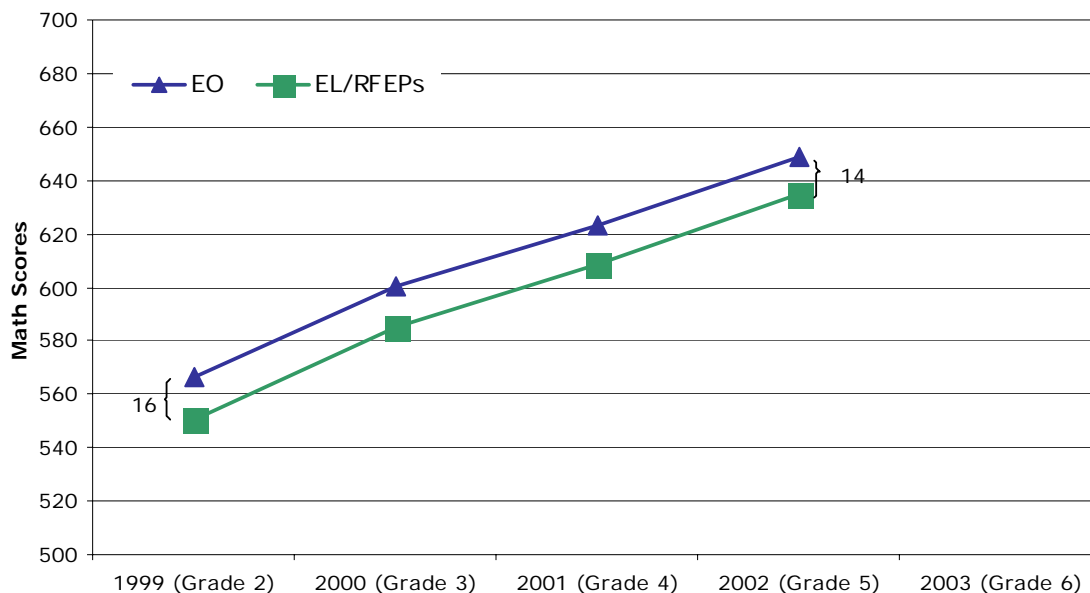

Exhibit 45. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1999-2002, Grade 2-5. *Transitioning-from-Bilingual Schools*
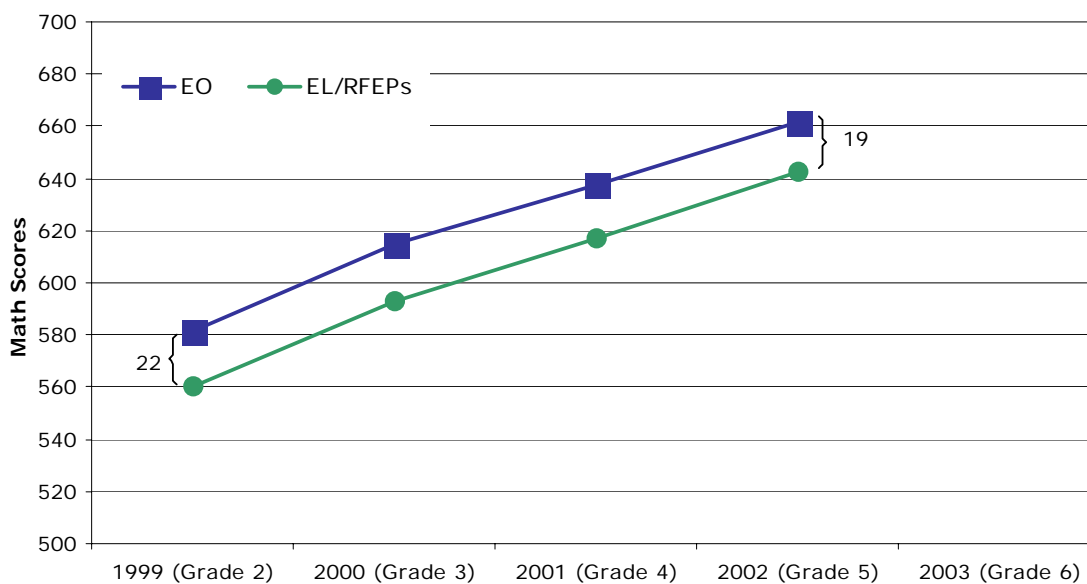
Exhibit 46. Cohort Analyses: Math, Cohort 1999-2002, Grade 2-5. *Never-Bilingual Schools*
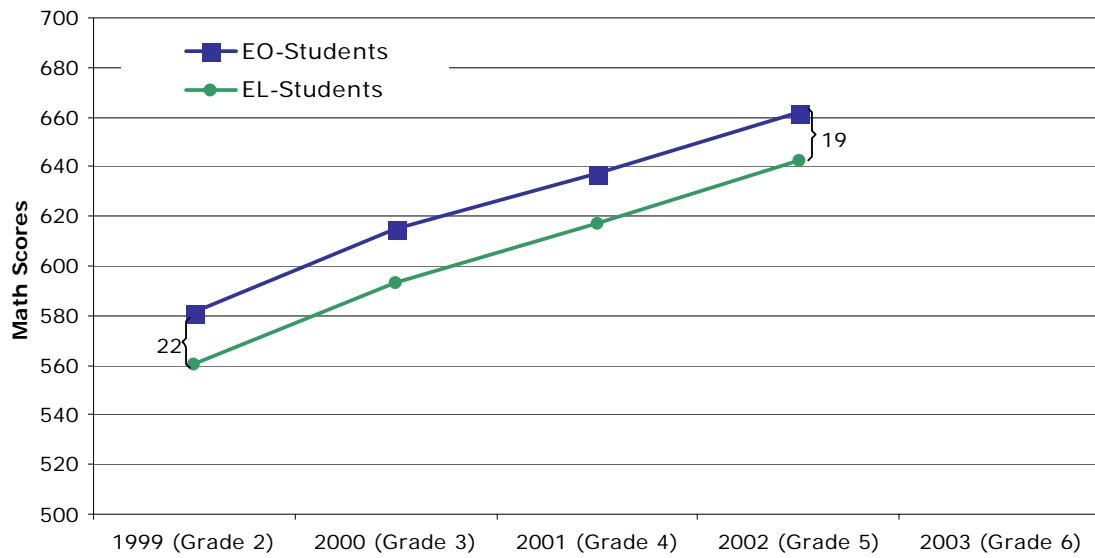
Exhibit 47. 2001 Initial CELDT: Percentage of Students, by Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Level	"Substantial" L_1		"Not Substantial" L_1	
	Number of students	Percentage of students	Number of students	Percentage of students
Beginning	37,299	40.7%	117,857	28.3%
Early Intermediate	22,782	24.8%	88,788	21.3%
Intermediate	20,289	22.1%	109,355	26.3%
Early Advanced	8,979	9.8%	72,540	17.4%
Advanced	2,370	2.6%	28,042	6.7%
Total	91,719		416,582	

Exhibit 48: Percentage of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000–01 and 2001–02) in "Substantial" L$_1$ Schools

| Grade | 2000-01 | | | | | 2001-02 | | | | | Change in Gap |
	EO	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	
2	25.5%	25.1%	6.1%	6.4%	19.1	24.4%	38.0%	6.9%	7.5%	16.9	-2.2
3	24.1%	30.0%	5.3%	6.5%	17.6	27.5%	43.4%	7.4%	8.8%	18.8	1.2
4	24.8%	34.9%	4.4%	7.4%	17.4	26.8%	41.1%	6.3%	9.5%	17.3	-0.1
5	22.4%	26.8%	3.0%	6.5%	15.9	24.3%	32.7%	3.8%	8.2%	16.1	0.2
6	26.4%	33.2%	3.1%	8.1%	18.4	26.4%	32.1%	3.3%	8.6%	17.9	-0.5
7	33.7%	27.4%	2.0%	7.6%	26.0	32.0%	32.0%	3.1%	9.3%	22.7	-3.3
8	35.7%	27.9%	3.2%	9.3%	26.4	34.4%	26.1%	2.2%	8.7%	25.7	-0.7
9	31.1%	29.9%	1.8%	6.9%	24.2	31.4%	25.5%	3.6%	6.3%	25.1	0.9
10	33.5%	24.0%	1.3%	6.9%	26.6	29.5%	19.0%	2.6%	5.5%	23.9	-2.7
11	27.7%	20.6%	1.1%	6.6%	21.1	25.1%	14.6%	0.9%	4.0%	21.0	-0.1

Exhibit 49: Percentage of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000–01 and 2001–02) in "Not Substantial" L$_1$ Schools

| Grade | 2000-01 | | | | | 2001-02 | | | | | Change in Gap |
	EO	RFEP	EL	EL/ RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	
2	41.1%	37.2%	13.0%	14.1%	27.1	39.6%	40.0%	14.8%	15.8%	23.9	-3.2
3	40.4%	39.0%	9.6%	13.0%	27.5	42.5%	45.5%	13.3%	16.3%	26.2	-1.3
4	40.4%	39.9%	7.3%	13.4%	27.0	42.0%	43.3%	9.2%	15.9%	26.1	-0.9
5	37.0%	31.8%	4.4%	11.0%	26.0	38.3%	35.3%	5.4%	13.0%	25.3	-0.7
6	38.3%	29.1%	3.8%	11.2%	27.1	36.8%	29.4%	3.9%	11.7%	25.2	-1.9
7	36.2%	28.5%	3.4%	11.2%	25.0	36.3%	31.5%	4.3%	12.9%	23.4	-1.6
8	39.0%	26.3%	3.1%	11.2%	27.8	38.3%	28.7%	3.5%	12.3%	26.0	-1.8
9	34.0%	22.0%	2.3%	9.0%	25.0	36.4%	27.9%	3.2%	11.7%	24.7	-0.3
10	35.9%	24.2%	2.5%	10.5%	25.4	36.1%	26.7%	2.9%	11.8%	24.3	-1.1
11	32.2%	21.6%	2.4%	10.2%	22.0	32.5%	24.6%	2.5%	11.7%	20.8	-1.2

Exhibit 50: Percentage of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of Mathematics (2001–02)

	"Substantial" L_1 Instruction					"Not Substantial" L_1 Instruction				
Grade	EO	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap	EO	RFEP	EL	EL/RFEP	EO-EL/RFEP Gap
2	35.4%	52.8%	20.2%	20.8%	14.6	50.9%	53.2%	28.1%	29.0%	21.9
3	30.4%	53.0%	16.3%	17.7%	12.7	44.8%	54.0%	22.7%	25.6%	19.2
4	27.9%	49.9%	13.8%	17.2%	10.8	42.6%	51.8%	17.9%	24.6%	17.9
5	21.8%	35.1%	7.6%	11.8%	10.0	35.2%	39.8%	11.0%	18.3%	16.8
6	27.8%	42.4%	9.6%	15.6%	12.2	37.5%	37.4%	10.4%	18.6%	18.9
7	26.9%	33.2%	5.6%	11.6%	15.4	32.0%	32.5%	8.1%	15.8%	16.1

"Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2001-02
"Not Substantial" L_1: Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02

Exhibit 51: Numbers of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000-01 and 2001-02)

Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
				2000-01				
2	266,923	105,319	6,335	2,273	165,359	18,512	171,694	20,785
3	269,525	104,347	16,040	6,065	148,841	12,519	164,881	18,584
4	292,603	113,429	28,416	11,119	145,173	9,415	173,589	20,534
5	286,288	101,752	35,066	10,835	124,799	4,973	159,865	15,808
6	276,153	104,275	40,270	11,832	103,437	3,787	143,707	15,619
7	285,899	103,316	44,211	12,572	98,595	3,278	142,806	15,850
8	263,542	102,650	44,732	11,804	84,777	2,637	129,509	14,441
9	276,168	93,791	42,275	9,338	82,521	1,847	124,796	11,185
10	258,712	92,728	37,967	9,188	65,932	1,651	103,899	10,839
11	224,778	72,029	33,445	7,217	49,807	1,198	83,252	8,415

Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
				2001-02				
2	271,475	103,479	6,007	2,385	175,114	22,522	181,121	24,907
3	273,366	112,281	14,525	6,576	164,690	19,378	179,215	25,954
4	282,546	114,756	30,501	13,125	145,594	12,231	176,095	25,356
5	284,492	105,365	39,745	13,884	132,660	6,579	172,405	20,463
6	292,214	106,237	47,575	14,086	115,818	4,407	163,393	18,493
7	291,857	105,743	46,633	14,679	101,980	4,285	148,613	18,964
8	278,984	106,518	48,775	13,957	92,378	3,180	141,153	17,137
9	295,215	107,009	48,163	13,434	94,308	3,043	142,471	16,477
10	274,553	98,570	43,204	11,490	73,327	2,097	116,531	13,587
11	247,794	79,998	38,613	9,460	55,919	1,384	94,532	10,844

Exhibit 52: Numbers of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of Mathematics (2001-02)

Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
				2001-02				
2	271,475	134,146	6,007	3,194	175,114	45,782	181,121	48,976
3	273,366	118,778	14,525	7,829	164,690	34,660	179,215	42,489
4	282,546	116,461	30,501	15,734	145,594	24,481	176,095	40,215
5	284,492	96,671	39,745	15,516	132,660	13,482	172,405	28,998
6	292,214	108,410	47,575	17,973	115,818	11,878	163,393	29,851
7	291,857	92,869	46,633	15,158	101,980	8,127	148,613	23,285

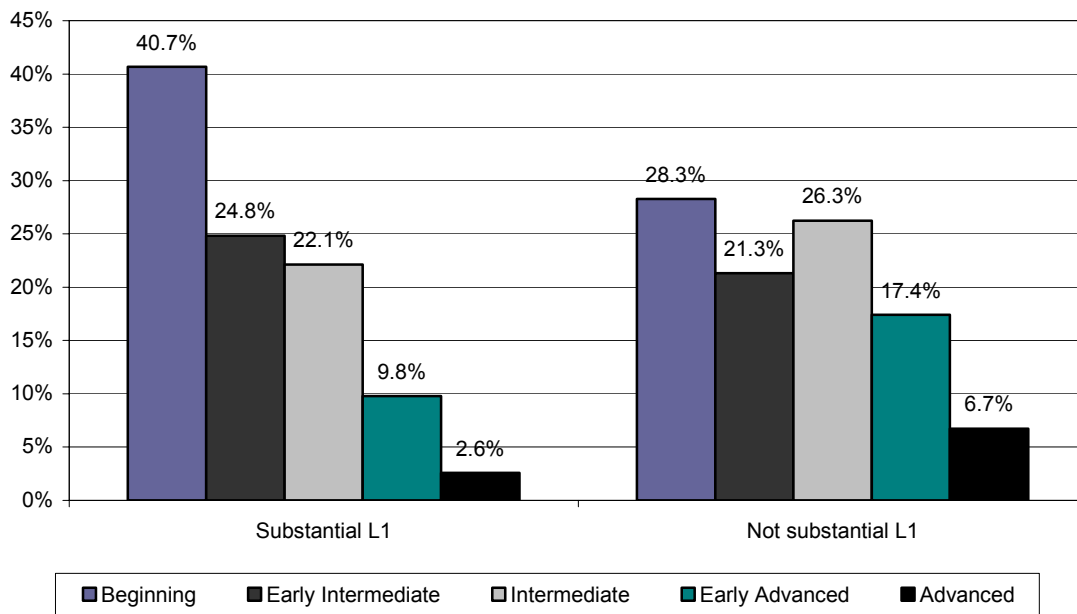**Exhibit 53: Numbers of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000-01 and 2001-02) in "Substantial" L$_1$ Schools**

"Substantial" L$_1$: Primary language instruction offered to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02

2000-01

Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	14,936	3,919	405	86	21,546	1,115	21,951	1,201
3	14,418	3,605	1,009	265	20,826	1,020	21,835	1,285
4	14,824	3,874	1,980	645	20,409	923	22,389	1,568
5	13,480	3,248	2,741	726	16,565	531	19,306	1,257
6	6,064	1,714	1,413	453	6,656	209	8,069	662
7	2,278	833	603	187	1,469	32	2,072	219
8	2,270	970	618	206	1,218	21	1,836	227
9	2,914	942	316	123	677	10	993	133
10	2,981	970	326	124	459	7	785	131
11	2,869	731	295	90	470	9	765	99

2001-02

Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	13,176	3,296	304	132	20,761	1,104	21,065	1,236
3	12,539	3,587	614	263	19,785	1,263	20,399	1,526
4	12,528	3,516	1,666	665	18,149	1,088	19,815	1,753
5	11,515	2,899	2,508	751	15,175	533	17,683	1,284
6	5,242	1,557	1,142	382	5,797	197	6,939	579
7	2,413	720	284	73	924	23	1,208	96
8	2,301	743	269	59	698	19	967	78
9	1,202	197	79	3	331	4	410	7
10	1,350	168	96	5	225	0	321	5
11	1,523	159	56	0	289	1	345	1

Exhibit 54: Numbers of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000-01 and 2001-02) in "Not Substantial" L$_1$ Schools

"Not Substantial" L$_1$: Primary language instruction offered to 50 percent or less of EL students in the school in 2001-02

	2000-01							
Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	251,987	101,400	5,930	2,187	143,813	17,397	149,743	19,584
3	255,107	100,742	15,031	5,800	128,015	11,499	143,046	17,299
4	277,779	109,555	26,436	10,474	124,764	8,492	151,200	18,966
5	272,808	98,504	32,325	10,109	108,234	4,442	140,559	14,551
6	270,089	102,561	38,857	11,379	96,781	3,578	135,638	14,957
7	283,621	102,483	43,608	12,385	97,126	3,246	140,734	15,631
8	261,272	101,680	44,114	11,598	83,559	2,616	127,673	14,214
9	273,254	92,849	41,959	9,215	81,844	1,837	123,803	11,052
10	255,731	91,758	37,641	9,064	65,473	1,644	103,114	10,708
11	221,909	71,298	33,150	7,127	49,337	1,189	82,487	8,316

	2001-02							
Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	258,299	100,183	5,703	2,253	154,353	21,418	160,056	23,671
3	260,827	108,694	13,911	6,313	144,905	18,115	158,816	24,428
4	270,018	111,240	28,835	12,460	127,445	11,143	156,280	23,603
5	272,977	102,466	37,237	13,133	117,485	6,046	154,722	19,179
6	286,972	104,680	46,433	13,704	110,021	4,210	156,454	17,914
7	289,444	105,023	46,349	14,606	101,056	4,262	147,405	18,868
8	276,683	105,775	48,506	13,898	91,680	3,161	140,186	17,059
9	294,013	106,812	48,084	13,431	93,977	3,039	142,061	16,470
10	273,203	98,402	43,108	11,485	73,102	2,097	116,210	13,582
11	246,271	79,839	38,557	9,460	55,630	1,383	94,187	10,843

Exhibit 55: Numbers of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of Mathematics (2001-02) in "Substantial" L_1 and "Not Substantial" L_1 Schools

"Substantial" L_1 : Primary language instruction offered to more than 50 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02
"Not Substantial" L_1 : Primary language instruction offered to 50 percent or less of EL students in the school in 2001-02

	"Substantial" L_1							
Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	13,176	4,848	304	180	20,761	3,959	21,065	4,139
3	12,539	3,978	614	318	19,785	3,017	20,399	3,335
4	12,528	3,648	1,666	818	18,149	2,399	19,815	3,217
5	11,515	2,590	2,508	798	15,175	1,085	17,683	1,883
6	5,242	1,617	1,142	503	5,797	540	6,939	1,043
7	2,413	621	284	90	924	43	1,208	133
	"Not Substantial" L_1							
Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	258,299	129,298	5,703	3,014	154,353	41,823	160,056	44,837
3	260,827	114,800	13,911	7,511	144,905	31,643	158,816	39,154
4	270,018	112,813	28,835	14,916	127,445	22,082	156,280	36,998
5	272,977	94,081	37,237	14,718	117,485	12,397	154,722	27,115
6	286,972	106,793	46,433	17,470	110,021	11,338	156,454	28,808
7	289,444	92,248	46,349	15,068	101,056	8,084	147,405	23,152

Exhibit 56: Numbers of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000-01 and 2001-02) in "Substantial" L$_1$ Schools

"Substantial" L$_1$: Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2001-02

2000-01								
Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	28,932	7,391	701	176	43,496	2,661	44,197	2,837
3	28,626	6,912	2,105	632	41,649	2,211	43,754	2,843
4	30,085	7,471	4,417	1,542	40,916	1,813	45,333	3,355
5	28,520	6,397	6,020	1,611	34,689	1,047	40,709	2,658
6	13,543	3,577	2,826	937	14,319	445	17,145	1,382
7	7,846	2,641	1,297	355	4,565	92	5,862	447
8	6,966	2,489	1,398	390	4,259	136	5,657	526
9	6,797	2,112	505	151	2,301	42	2,806	193
10	6,628	2,218	653	157	1,996	26	2,649	183
11	6,035	1,670	626	129	1,597	18	2,223	147

2001-02								
Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	26,847	6,552	827	314	43,146	2,968	43,973	3,282
3	25,987	7,158	1,647	715	41,876	3,096	43,523	3,811
4	26,366	7,078	3,962	1,629	38,583	2,433	42,545	4,062
5	25,354	6,164	6,127	2,001	33,930	1,274	40,057	3,275
6	13,111	3,467	3,295	1,058	14,689	482	17,984	1,540
7	7,676	2,454	1,320	422	4,835	150	6,155	572
8	7,406	2,550	1,539	401	4,045	87	5,584	488
9	6,849	2,153	439	112	3,122	113	3,561	225
10	6,717	1,979	500	95	2,322	61	2,822	156
11	6,375	1,597	520	76	1,747	15	2,267	91

Exhibit 57: Numbers of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of English Language Arts (2000-01 and 2001-02) in "Not Substantial" L₁ Schools

"Not Substantial" L₁ : Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02

2000-01

Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	237,991	97,928	5,634	2,097	121,863	15,851	127,497	17,948
3	240,899	97,435	13,935	5,433	107,192	10,308	121,127	15,741
4	262,518	105,958	23,999	9,577	104,257	7,602	128,256	17,179
5	257,768	95,355	29,046	9,224	90,110	3,926	119,156	13,150
6	262,610	100,698	37,444	10,895	89,118	3,342	126,562	14,237
7	278,053	100,675	42,914	12,217	94,030	3,186	136,944	15,403
8	256,576	100,161	43,334	11,414	80,518	2,501	123,852	13,915
9	269,371	91,679	41,770	9,187	80,220	1,805	121,990	10,992
10	252,084	90,510	37,314	9,031	63,936	1,625	101,250	10,656
11	218,743	70,359	32,819	7,088	48,210	1,180	81,029	8,268

2001-02

Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	244,628	96,927	5,180	2,071	131,968	19,554	137,148	21,625
3	247,379	105,123	12,878	5,861	122,814	16,282	135,692	22,143
4	256,180	107,678	26,539	11,496	107,011	9,798	133,550	21,294
5	259,138	99,201	33,618	11,883	98,730	5,305	132,348	17,188
6	279,103	102,770	44,280	13,028	101,129	3,925	145,409	16,953
7	284,181	103,289	45,313	14,257	97,145	4,135	142,458	18,392
8	271,578	103,968	47,236	13,556	88,333	3,093	135,569	16,649
9	288,366	104,856	47,724	13,322	91,186	2,930	138,910	16,252
10	267,836	96,591	42,704	11,395	71,005	2,036	113,709	13,431
11	241,419	78,401	38,093	9,384	54,172	1,369	92,265	10,753

Exhibit 58: Numbers of Students Scoring Proficient or Above in California Standards Test of Mathematics (2001-02) in "Substantial" L_1 and "Not Substantial" L_1 Schools

"Substantial" L_1 : Primary language instruction offered to 25 percent or more of EL students in the school in 2001-02
"Not Substantial" L_1 : Primary language instruction offered to less than 25 percent of EL students in the school in 2001-02

	"Substantial" L_1							
Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	26,847	9,511	827	437	43,146	8,724	43,973	9,161
3	25,987	7,895	1,647	873	41,876	6,839	43,523	7,712
4	26,366	7,363	3,962	1,978	38,583	5,323	42,545	7,301
5	25,354	5,529	6,127	2,152	33,930	2,586	40,057	4,738
6	13,111	3,642	3,295	1,396	14,689	1,409	17,984	2,805
7	7,676	2,067	1,320	438	4,835	273	6,155	711
	"Not Substantial" L_1							
Grade	Total EO	Proficient EO	Total RFEP	Proficient RFEP	Total EL	Proficient EL	Total EL/RFEP	Proficient EL/RFEP
2	244,628	124,635	5,180	2,757	131,968	37,058	137,148	39,815
3	247,379	110,883	12,878	6,956	122,814	27,821	135,692	34,777
4	256,180	109,098	26,539	13,756	107,011	19,158	133,550	32,914
5	259,138	91,142	33,618	13,364	98,730	10,896	132,348	24,260
6	279,103	104,768	44,280	16,577	101,129	10,469	145,409	27,046
7	284,181	90,802	45,313	14,720	97,145	7,854	142,458	22,574