Conditions of Education in California 1992-93

Policy Analysis For California Education (PACE)

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Foreword

This 1992-93 volume marks the eighth edition of PACE's *Conditions of Education in California.* The year 1993 also marks PACE's tenth anniversary. For a decade now, PACE has endeavored to compile a continuing picture of education in the state by analyzing data about enrollment trends, student achievement, fiscal conditions, human resources, education governance, and the politics of education. We have also offered continuing education commentary – reflections on the past and directions for the future.

This issue of *Conditions of Education* continues PACE's tradition of providing neutral, objective, analytic data regarding California's education system. Chapter One explores the condition of education reform in the state – what has been accomplished and what remains unfinished – and begins to suggest an agenda for the future. Chapter Two summarizes the results of a broadscale public opinion poll conducted by PACE in September 1993. This poll represents PACE's initial effort to ascertain Californians' perceptions of the state's education system.

The remaining chapters of this volume once again pinpoint critical data about enrollment and fiscal trends, student achievement, and school governance.

Throughout its decade of existence, PACE has endeavored consistently to illuminate, in an objective and nonpartisan fashion, important education policy issues in an effort to expand the discussion among policymakers, education professionals, and interested members of the California community. As we begin our second decade, we look forward to continuing to research, reflect on, and write about those issues which can be used in the service of an improved education system for California. As always, we welcome your comments and suggestions.

James W. Guthrie Gerald C. Hayward Michael W. Kirst Julia E. Koppich

Policy Analysis for California Education

Policy Analysis for California education, PACE, is a university-based research center focusing on issues of state educational policy and practice. PACE is located in the Schools of Education at the University of California at Berkeley and Stanford University. It is funded by the William and Flora Hewlett Foundation and directed by James W. Guthrie, Michael W. Kirst, Gerald C. Hayward (who maintains PACE's Sacramento office), and Julia E. Koppich (Deputy Director).

PACE efforts center on five tasks: (1) collecting and promulgating objective data about the conditions of education in California, (2) analyzing state educational policy issues and the policy environment, (3) evaluating school reforms and state educational practices, (4) providing technical support to policymakers, and (5) facilitating discussion of educational issues.

The PACE research agenda is developed in consultation with public officials and staff. In this way, PACE endeavors to address policy issues of immediate concern and to fill the short-term needs of decision-makers for information and analysis.

Chapter 1

A Decade of Reform

"Public education in the nation's largest state is facing its toughest multiple choice test in decades: grow, adapt, change or bust."[1]

Public education in California was once a magnet attracting millions of new state citizens. Good schools were synonymous with the Golden State. California was a place where the American dream was possible and public education was a major means for realizing it.

Today, almost everyone – public officials, parents, and professional educators – is anxious about California's public schools. On many important dimensions, schools are judged to be weak or failing to meet expectations held for them.[2]

Recent California Assessment Program (CAP) scores[3], for the eighth grade, show an achievement decline. The most recent round of National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) scores place California near the bottom of all states in reading achievement. Youth crime and gang violence have escalated. Enrollment growth, while slowing in 1992-93, still threatens to swamp a system which no longer has the capacity to construct new schools in a timely manner. The state's largest system, Los Angeles, continually lurches from one to yet another fiscal and governance crisis.

The state's economic woes and budgetary politics now seem to concentrate heavily around funding and governing education.[4] The superintendency seems to have become a revolving door in many local school districts, particularly big cities, and leadership is suffering as a consequence. The state Superintendent of Public Instruction was recently removed from office and the state legislature and governor have not been able to agree upon a replacement. Meanwhile, the state board of education has been granted extended governance authority by the judicial system, boding of yet more conflict with the chief state school officer, whenever a permanent one is selected.

"Schools Are Not as Good as They Used to be, and They Never Were"[5]

In fairness to the present, California schooling available in the past was not uniformly good and probably almost nowhere as effective as its supporters now remember it to be. Large numbers of youth did not graduate from high school, few services were provided for handicapped students, and except for selected big city and suburban academic high schools, scholarly performance standards were not particularly high.

Conversely, today's schooling picture in California is not uniformly dismal. There continue to be schools and communities where parents and professional educators care deeply about the education of youth, hold high academic expectations, and achieve remarkable results. This is often true despite present day obstacles that would have appeared virtually insurmountable in the past. After all, contemporary critics should keep in mind that the current system has been confronted with an average of 150,000 new students each year, a large percentage of whom do not have English as their native language. One out of five school-age youngsters lives in poverty, and brings to school all of the attendant problems. All of these challenges must be met within a per pupil budget, the purchasing power of which has not changed in a decade. Despite such conditions, the absolute numbers of California youth taking and passing the Advanced Placement component of the Scholastic Aptitude Test

(SAT) has increased from 7.2 percent in 1984 to almost twenty-two percent in 1993. Moreover, these refreshing results characterize students from every ethnic and racial subgroup.

What is the Problem?

California's public schools improved in the last decade. The principal problem is that the public's expectations for their performance changed even faster and, under prevailing organizational and regulatory arrangements, schools are badly handicapped in their ability to respond to these heightened standards.

In the last ten years, a set of crucial first steps has been taken in constructing a policy superstructure for improvement of the state's public schools. However, a badly needed set of next steps has *not* been taken, and the schools are unlikely to approach or satisfy heightened public expectations until the next steps are taken.

The purpose of this chapter is threefold:

- illustrate the productive components of the existing superstructure and explain their significance for further improving California's schools,
- describe the nature of the next organizational and policy steps necessary to carry California education reform further, and
- explain the impediments to change which must be overcome in order to take the next needed steps.

At a minimum, important existing changes should be preserved and strengthened. Ideally, they would be extended and serve as a base for yet more improvement.

What Exists That Is Good?

A decade ago, in 1983, the governor and legislator enacted Senate Bill 813 (SB 813). This was a remarkably expansive reform act containing eighty-three provisions for altering California's elementary and secondary schools. It offered financial inducements to local school districts to extend the number of minutes in the school day and the number of school days in an academic year, and provided added funding for counselors of tenth grade students, thought to be a crucial age group for planning a college going course of study in high school. In addition, it expanded the number of academic subjects required for graduation, and permitted local school districts to initiate their own teacher training programs, in response to severe shortages of qualified instructors. It elevated entry level salaries for California teachers and called upon instructors in college and university teacher preparation programs to regularly renew their K-12 teaching practice. Finally, it established "mentor teachers," a new professional category for California teachers.

Senate Bill 813 was so comprehensive that pundits labeled it the "omnibeast." It laid a substantial reform foundation upon which other badly needed changes could be constructed. Among these additional changes were important proposed alterations to the academic curriculum for California's schools, textbooks, testing, teacher inservice preparation, and administrator training.

In 1983, California also had a new Superintendent of Public Instruction, Bill Honig. He had previously served as President of the State Board of Education, and had been a classroom teacher and a

school district superintendent. He had a wide range of experience which, coupled with his exceptional intellectual ability and physical energy, placed him in an unusually auspicious position to lead a statewide school reform effort. Honig fully understood, indeed assisted in shaping, SB 813. He was also fully prepared to use its many provisions as a foundation for enhancing public education in California.

In addition to the mandate of a newly elected statewide official, and his personal energy and intellect, Honig had a comprehensive understanding of a broad range of the components necessary for improving the massive California system. He understood that mere "intensification," keeping the existing schooling model and simply tweaking it to render schooling more rigorous, would be insufficient. He also understood and repeatedly drew to the attention of others the comprehensive set of additional changes that would be necessary. The comprehensive changes encompassed the following components:

Curriculum Frameworks

In order for schools to be academically rigorous and to possess a sense of purpose, the teachers in them must have a clear understanding of what students are supposed to know and be able to do. Prior to 1983, California schools had lost a clear curriculum direction. Specifically, commercially published textbooks were the principal determinant of what was to be taught. Those texts were written toward the lowest common purchasing denominator. In order to spread product development costs over the widest possible markets and maximize profits, commercial publishers watered down texts, avoiding both rigor and controversy. The bland amalgam which resulted may have enhanced publisher profits but did little to stimulate student interest.

In order to gain a wider understanding about what was expected of students, the California Department of Education began a series of curriculum development projects in mathematics, sciences, literature, history, government and economics. These projects were staffed by California's, and often the nation's, most proficient academic experts in their respective subject matter fields. They brought to their assignment a level of expertise that commercial publishers could seldom afford to assemble. In addition, the curriculum development teams included teachers and others knowledgeable not only about subject matter content, but also about the developmental progression of children, and the dynamics of classroom instruction. The newly developed "curriculum frameworks," intended to guide teachers and serve as a basis for developing a comprehensive system of state academic tests, were the latest and the best in the nation. California led the way.

Assessment Procedures

Most tests used in school districts are designed, produced, and often corrected outside the school district. They are commercially prepared tests made available throughout the nation. Although often designed by experts, their questions may have little to do with the curriculum a student is expected to learn or what is taught by his or her classroom teacher. Moreover, these commercially prepared tests, whatever

their strengths, are usually unable to specify how much of a subject matter area a student knows. Rather, these test results specify how many more answers Susie had correct compared to Johnny. In other words, they provide a ranking of Susie's score relative to Johnny. We know, for example, that Susie scored at the 75th percentile and Johnny scored at the 45th. This lets us know that Susie answered more questions correctly, but it still does not tell us how much of the desired curriculum Susie knows.

The previously described curriculum frameworks permitted development of an entirely different, and far more useful statewide testing system. Once the curriculum frameworks existed, it was then possible to construct useful tests around them. These tests, known as criterion referenced tests, could tell us how Susie scored relative to Johnny. In addition, and crucially important, they could also tell us how much of the desired subject matter knowledge both Susie and Johnny had learned. These tests provided an opportunity to assess how well a student was learning and how well all the students in a classroom, grade level, school, school district, or state were performing. In short, these new tests offered a breakthrough in terms of both feedback about instruction and feedback for purposes of accountability.

Throughout the mid-1980's, these new tests were being developed by the California Department of Education. However, as the time came for their critical periods of pilot testing and implementation, state funds ran short, and the testing program was vastly curtailed. In fact, for two years, it was actually eliminated.

Test funds were restored, at least partially, beginning in 1990, and new test development efforts are currently underway. However, much momentum was lost during a crucial three year period from 1987 to 1990.

Textbook improvements

Someday, published textbooks may be replaced by notebook computers, laser-read CD Roms, or some other kind of technology. Meanwhile, textbooks constitute one of the principal avenues by which students receive information. This is true both for elementary and secondary students. Thus, it remains vitally important that textbooks are of high quality and are linked to the curricular expectations held for schools, teachers, and students.

Prior to 1986, few such assurances could be given. In order to reach the maximum possible national market, commercial textbook manufacturers often issued bland, lowest common denominator texts. In legislative testimony, commercial publishers admitted to the practice of "dummying down" their products in order to render them understandable to wide student audiences and, presumably, to attract a larger market of purchasers.

Superintendent Honig used his office and California's huge market to leverage change. California is one of several large states that have "state textbook adoptions." In practice, this means that various panels of state teachers, subject matter experts, and citizens select a few textbooks from among many submitted by commercial publishers. Once panels have made selections, and final approval is provided by the state board of education, the state then purchases the press plates from the publisher and prints and distributes the books itself. Publishers still make a substantial profit over their

development costs, though not on the textbook printing and distribution itself.

Honig arranged similar buying policies among several other large states, including Texas and Florida. These states, with their enormous combined textbook purchasing power, were now in a good position to demand of publishers that they improve the quality of their printed materials. The consortium issued subject matter and literary quality specifications and expected states to meet them in order to have their various texts eligible for review for possible state adoption and widespread purchase.

No one claims that the quality of available textbooks is now perfect. Controversy yet exists. Nevertheless, the quality and diversity of materials currently available to California students is vastly improved over what existed a decade ago and in many important subject fields textbook content is now aligned with the state curricular frameworks.

Inservice Preparation of Teachers

The overwhelming majority of California's present day teaching force was employed and trained two or three decades ago. The curriculum frameworks described above were developed since that time. Moreover, the curriculum frameworks are substantially different from those that were available when these teachers began their teaching careers. Thus, the only widespread means for teachers to remain professionally current is through regular inservice preparation.

Fortunately, California had pioneered a productive model for teacher inservice preparation, with the California Writing Project.[6] In this model, outstanding subject matter teachers are selected from schools and provided with intensive inservice preparation, both during the summer and on weekends during the academic year. They are paid an honorarium for their efforts. These teachers are themselves expected to assist in the inservice preparation of their colleagues at their respective schools.

The most promising teachers who have experienced the intensive inservice training are then selected to serve as trainers for a subsequent cohort of colleagues. In this manner, the number of able trainers and the number of teachers being trained expands exponentially. Of equal importance appears to be that teachers are training teachers. This feature adds credibility to the training efforts and contributes to the overall professionalization of teachers.

The California Writing Project training model served as a basis for expanding teacher inservice preparation to other subject matter areas, i.e., mathematics, history, and science. California Department of Education leadership efforts arranged for a California Writing Project-like operation in each of these fields. Unfortunately, as California began to encounter its late 1980s budget woes, these projects have had to subsist on vastly reduced revenues. As a consequence, the needed link between the new and more challenging curriculum and the inservice training of teachers has been substantially impeded.

Administrator Training

It is difficult to identify an effective school with a poor principal. Administrative leadership continues to be a crucial component of an effective school.

California has recognized this and established the California School Leadership Academy (CSLA) to assist in the inservice development of principals and other administrators. The curriculum required of these inservice courses attempts to "capture" major education trends and strategies. To be sure, CSLA is not perfect. Nevertheless, a structure now exists that can be improved. Importantly, the concept of leader preparation has been recognized and a set of operations initiated.

"Charter Schools"

A criticism is often leveled that public schools are stifled by regulation and bureaucratic reporting requirements. In addition, districtwide collective bargaining agreements may impede the ability of an individual school to tailor the kind of instructional program that its principal, teachers, and parents may want.

A process has existed for more than a quarter of a century by which a particular school, with the approval of its district governing board, could petition the state board of education for a waiver of some portion of the education code. All that was generally necessary was a logical argument for what was desired and an explanation of how existing code rules impeded it. However, existing rules often provide a convenient facade behind which risk aversive administrators and teachers can hide. It is always more comfortable to claim that the "Education Code," or district regulation "prevents me from doing what our school really needs."

In 1992, the legislature enacted, and the governor signed a "charter school" bill, SB 1448, that provides for as many as 100 such schools in California. These are schools which, after having obtained approval for their plans from their local school district governing board, may then tailor their school to their preferences. The design of a local charter school may be upon the initiative of teachers, the principal, parents, or a host of others. What is important is that school personnel have a sense of what they want to accomplish and how they wish to approach the task. Then, once having permission of their school board, they may break free of whatever education code provisions or local school board regulations impede them.

What is particularly important is that the precedent has been set for schools to take greater initiative in designing what they and their clients think would be a more effective set of organizational and instructional arrangements.

Teacher Professionalization

In 1986 the Carnegie Corporation issued a major report with a number of insightful recommendations regarding the professionalization of teachers.[7] This report called for establishment of a National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS). Such a board has now been established. It has been operating for five years and has undertaken an intense development effort. National certification examinations will be available throughout the United States in 1994. Examination procedures are voluntary. An individual must have been a practicing teacher for at least three years in order to be eligible for the examination. No training in a school of education is necessary. Importantly, the

examination procedures show promise of being extraordinarily rigorous in testing both subject matter knowledge and instructor skill.

The intent of national certification is to substantially upgrade the field of teaching, the preparation of teachers, the professional initiative expected of teachers, and the standards by which good teachers are judged. In time, when national certification procedures are honed, parents and the general public should be able to place as much confidence in a Board Certified teacher as in other nationally certified professionals such as accountants, engineers, architects, and physicians.

California became the first state to cooperate with the NBPTS on a state specific task force designed to explore the "fit" between Board Certification and California laws and policies regarding teacher preparation, credentialing, and inservice practices.

While too early to judge the consequences of these efforts, they are certainly aimed in a direction that would enable California school districts and teachers to cooperate more fully with the national effort and benefit accordingly.

School Finance Equalization

Many states continue to display substantial per pupil revenue disparities among their school districts. This is not true in California. Beginning with the original state supreme court decision in *Serrano v. Priest* (1976) and continuing through the present, California has made a diligent effort to equalize the revenues available per pupil in school districts. These equalization efforts, coupled with the property taxing consequences of Proposition 13 (enacted in 1978), have broken the conventional connection between local school district property wealth and the availability of education revenues. This distribution was retested in a subsequent trial (1984) and found to meet the court's rigorous test of equality.[8] Thus, California does not suffer from the debilitating revenue inequalities of the past that still characterize school spending in many other states.

To claim that California suffers little from financial distributional problems is not to claim that school financing is itself adequate. When adjustments are made for the erosion of purchasing power (inflation), California education revenues have been ratcheting down and the dismal nature of the state's economy, at least in the short term, suggests that there is little relief in sight. Moreover, Proposition 13 property taxing provisions greatly impede the ability of local communities to financially support their schools in keeping with their preferences. Moreover, provisions for funding special services for disabled students and the means for funding school construction have become overly complicated. Thus, the current finance system provides neither adequate funding, sufficient local citizen discretion, nor easy understanding.

Client Choice

Many education reform proponents contend that schools are overly bureaucratic and unresponsive to their clients because they hold a practical monopoly. Few parents have the financial wherewithal, or live in geographic circumstances, which permit them to choose their child's school.

Consequently, so the argument goes, public schools frequently have a guaranteed clientele and may operate insensitively as a result. Proponents of added school choice contend that only by expanding the range of schools from which parents can choose can public schools be made more responsive to the preferences of clients.

California has taken several steps to mitigate this problem. In 1992, Assemblywoman Doris Allen sponsored a bill permitting parents to choose to send their child either to a public school in the district in which they reside or in which one or the other parent is employed. Two more public school choice bills were enacted in 1993.[9] These statutes enable parents to choose their public school regardless of the district or geography involved. The availability of student space in a school district is a factor and a receiving district must give its approval. Nevertheless, however small the current use of this provision, a step has been taken to expand the availability of public schooling to households.

In November of 1993, Californians rejected a ballot measure which would have amended the state constitution to establish "scholarship schools," a sweeping statewide voucher plan. Will this plan's defeat result in a greater willingness to alter the existing public school system? Will voucher proponents return in a subsequent election with an amended, and perhaps more popular, plan? Will the education community come forward with a new reform plan? It is too early to offer a clear prediction about these or other alternatives.

Notes

[1] Wood, Daniel B. "Golden State Schools, Once Model for U.S., Lose Luster" *Christian Science Monitor*, April 16, 1993. Vol. 85, No. 98.

[2] Citizen opinion regarding the effectiveness of California's public schools has dropped substantially. In March of 1989 almost half those polled (49%) rated public schools "excellent to good." By August of 1991, this proportion had dropped to one third (35 percent). Correspondingly, those perceiving public schools as "fair to poor" had grown to more than half (53 %). *San Francisco Chronicle* sponsored poll published in the September 16, 1991 edition.

[3] Now known as California Learning Assessment System (CLAS).

[4] As we describe later in this report, California per pupil school spending has not exceeded the national average since 1972. In this two decade period, the state's school spending ranking has dropped from number nineteen in the nation to approximately number forty. This is despite the fact that citizens in overwhelming proportions view California public school spending as "Too little." (See the above-mentioned *San Francisco Chronicle* poll.)

[5] A paraphrase of a Will Rogers quote.

[6] The California Writing Project was itself an outgrowth of the Bay Area Writing Project, the inspiration of long time Director, Dr. James Gray of the University of California, Berkeley.

[7] *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century*, The report of the Task Force on Teaching as a Profession; The Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, Washington, DC, 1986.

[8] All property related per pupil revenue differences had to be reduced to a $100 band on either side of the state average revenue amount per pupil.

[9] Quackenbush, AB 19, 1993, and Alpert, AB 1114, 1993.

Notes

Chapter 2

Assessing Attitudes

Highlights:

- Californians care deeply about education and about schools.
- Californians believe public schools are due for a major overhaul.
- Californians want more choice in their school system and are supportive of the concept of vouchers, but they do not favor an unregulated voucher system.
- Californians hold general ideas about what they believe are important components of an education system.

How do Californians view the state of their public schools? Where does education rank as a public priority? How do Californians rate public, as against private, schools? What do Californians expect from their schools? Are citizens favorably disposed toward vouchers, or do they oppose such a system? What, if any, changes do Californians want to see in the state's education system?

PACE set out to find answers to these and other education-related questions via a broad-based statewide public opinion poll. The poll was conducted for PACE by Penn and Schoen Associates of Washington, D.C. and New York between September 4 and September 18, 1993. Nearly 1400 Californians, representative of the state's population, responded to almost 100 survey questions. In addition to the basic survey sample, PACE "oversampled" among African-Americans, Asians, and Hispanics so that the views of these segments of the population could be analyzed as well.

Polling questions were divided into three principal categories: perception of existing conditions, preferences for education, and perceptions of school choice and vouchers.

Under the category "perception of existing conditions," citizens were asked questions about matters such as how important an issue education is when set against other state policy challenges (such as health care, crime, and the economy), how they would rate California's public education system, what factors shape citizens' views of the education system (safety of schools, quality of teaching, level of parental involvement, etc.), how private schools measure up to public schools, and what shapes public perceptions of private education.

"Preferences for education" encompassed questions regarding the factors which influence, or potentially would influence, decisions to enroll a child in a particular public or private school (tuition, geographic proximity to home, school safety, nature of the curriculum, class size, diversity of the student population). In addition, respondents were queried about those dimensions of education for which they would, or would not, be willing to pay more.

Category three of the poll involved questions about perceptions of systems of school choice, including vouchers. In this set of questions, Californians were asked about the amount and nature of school choice they favor. Citizen support for and opposition to vouchers was tested as well. The poll also probed citizen views about the possible or likely effects of a voucher plan (would it make schools more effective, jeopardize the constitutional separation of church and state, expand educational opportunities for low income students, affect the overall costs of education?) and components of a voucher plan that might pass public muster.

Much can be learned from a poll of this magnitude, and even as this edition of *Conditions of Education* goes to press, PACE is conducting additional in-depth analyses of polling results. However, four overarching conclusions emerge from the data analysis thus far completed:

➠ Californians care deeply about education and about schools.

➠ Californians believe public schools are due for a major overhaul.

➠ Californians want more choice in their school system and are supportive of the concept of vouchers, but they do not favor an unregulated voucher system.

➠ Californians hold general ideas about what they believe are important compnents of an education system.

Each of these findings is detailed below.

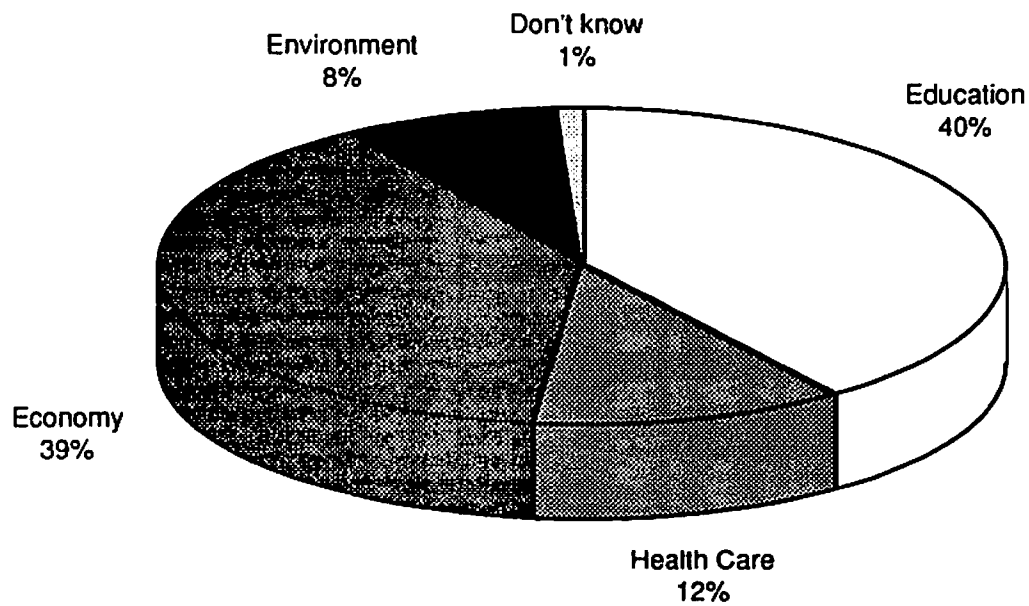
Californians Care Deeply About Education and About Schools

Education is a key concern of California's citizens. Californians view education as a crucial public policy challenge confronting the state, rivaling concern about crime and the economy. Often-discussed issues such as welfare, immigration, and the environment do not register with the same intensity for Californians as does education.

When asked to select the issue that should be California's highest policy priority from among education, health care, the economy, and the environment, forty percent of the state's citizens select education as the top priority. The economy ranks a close second at thirty-nine percent, trailed by health care (12%) and the environment (8%) (Figure 2.1).

Californians' concern about education as a state policy priority is reflected in their views about the challenges facing schools, as well as in their belief that schools are in need of substantial reform.

Figure 2.1: Which of the Following Issues Should be the Highest Priority in California?



Source: PACE Poll: Californians' Attitudes Toward Education and School Vouchers

Californians Believe Public Schools are Due for a Major Overhaul

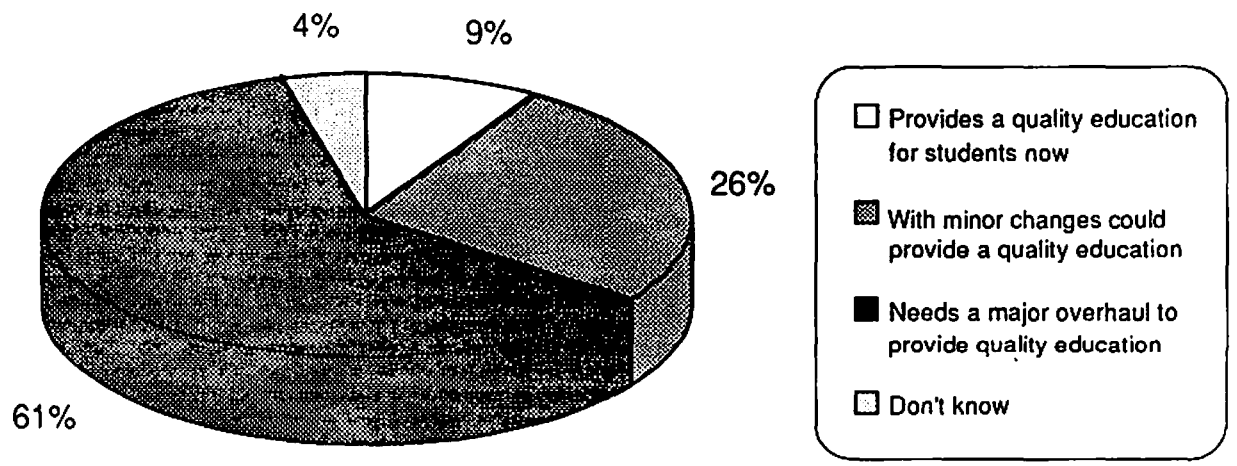
Californians express substantial dissatisfaction with the state's public schools. The vast majority of the state's citizenry (87%) say that schools must be changed. Significantly, more than six-in-ten Californians (61%) believe that schools require not just minor changes, but a major overhaul. Among ethnic groups, African-Americans express the greatest dissatisfaction with the current state of California's schools. Nearly three-quarters of African-Americans (72%) say schools need a major overhaul, compared to sixty-three percent of whites, fifty-eight percent of Hispanics, and slightly more than half (51%) of Asians who express the same sentiment.

Nearly three-quarters of Californians (71%) believe that the state's students achieve in the middle or bottom of the nation's states. Only thirteen percent believe California students perform among the top achievers in the nation. (The rest—fifteen percent—simply have no opinion about this matter.)

Californians have a more favorable view of private schools than of public schools. More than seven-in-ten Californians (71%) believe private schools provide a better education than do their public school counterparts.

Moreover, Californians, on balance, tend to be somewhat harsher critics of their public schools than do their fellow citizens throughout the nation. In the most recent Gallup poll of Americans' attitudes toward schools, nearly half of all Americans (47%), when asked to give their schools a grade, rated public schools as "A" or "B."[1] When the same question was posed to Californians on the PACE poll, only slightly more than a third of Californians (34%) gave their public schools a grade of "A" or "B" (Figure 2.3). As a point of comparison, sixty-three percent of Californians rated private and parochial schools "A" or "B."

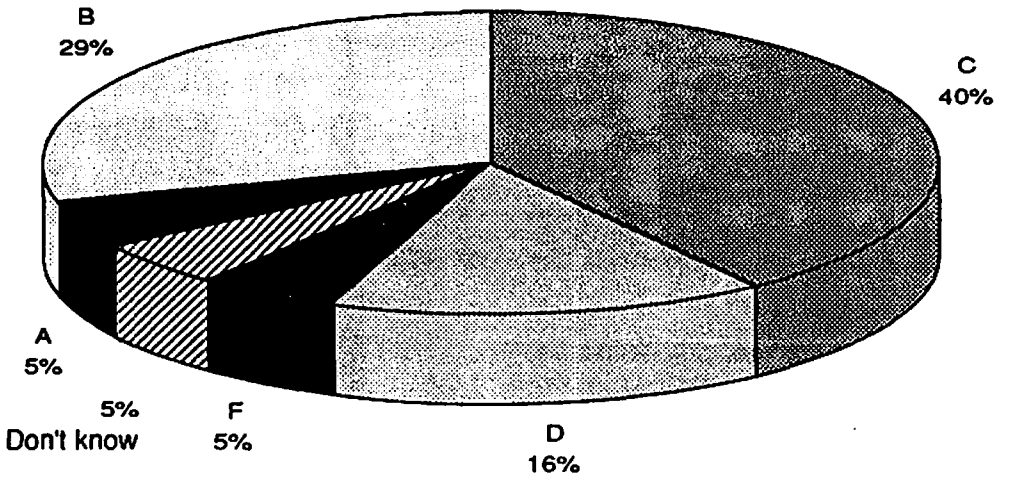
Figure 2.2: Which Comes Closer to Your View? The Current System of Public Education in California:



Source: PACE Poll: Californian's Attitudes Toward Education and School Vouchers

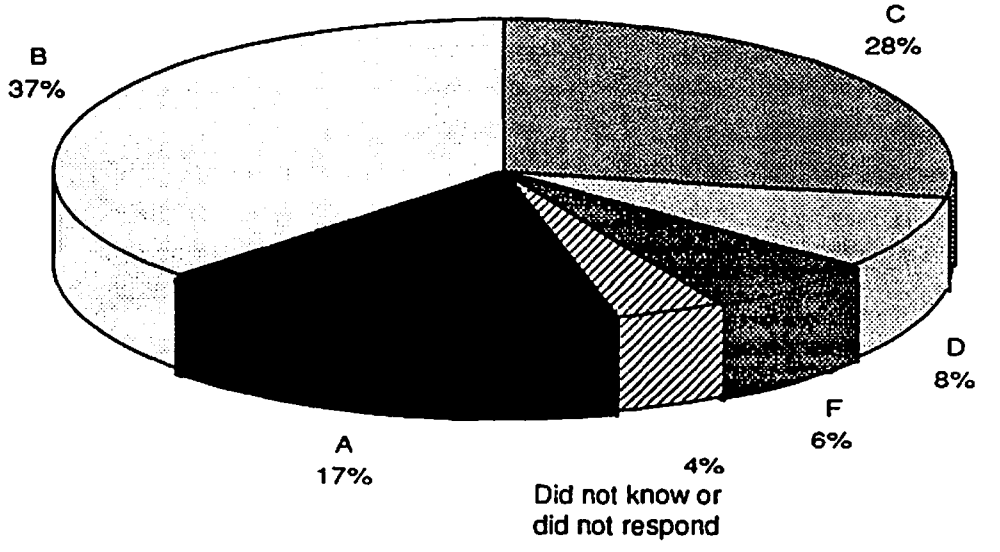
Figure 2.3: Children are Often Given the Grades A, B, C, D, and F for Fail to Denote the Quality of Their Work. What Grade Would you Give the Public Schools in the Community Where you Live – A, B, C, D, or F for Fail?

PACE Poll:



Source: PACE Poll: Californians' Attitudes Toward Education and School Vouchers

Gallup Poll:



Source: *Americans Elect for Parental Choice* – An Analysis of Gallup Survey Findings by the National Catholic Educational Association

Californians Want More Choice in Their School System and are Supportive of the Concept of Vouchers, but They do not Favor an Unregulated Voucher System

Californians favor expanded choice in their system of schooling, more options available to more individuals. Moreover, when offered the option of a system of choice encompassing only public schools or including both public and independent private and religious schools, three-quarters of Californians (75%) prefer a system of choice which includes private and religiously-affiliated schools.

Californians are able to articulate the bases on which they would select a particular school. When asked what factors most keenly would influence selection of a school, Californians responded, "the quality of the curriculum, the competence of the teaching staff, and the safety of the school."

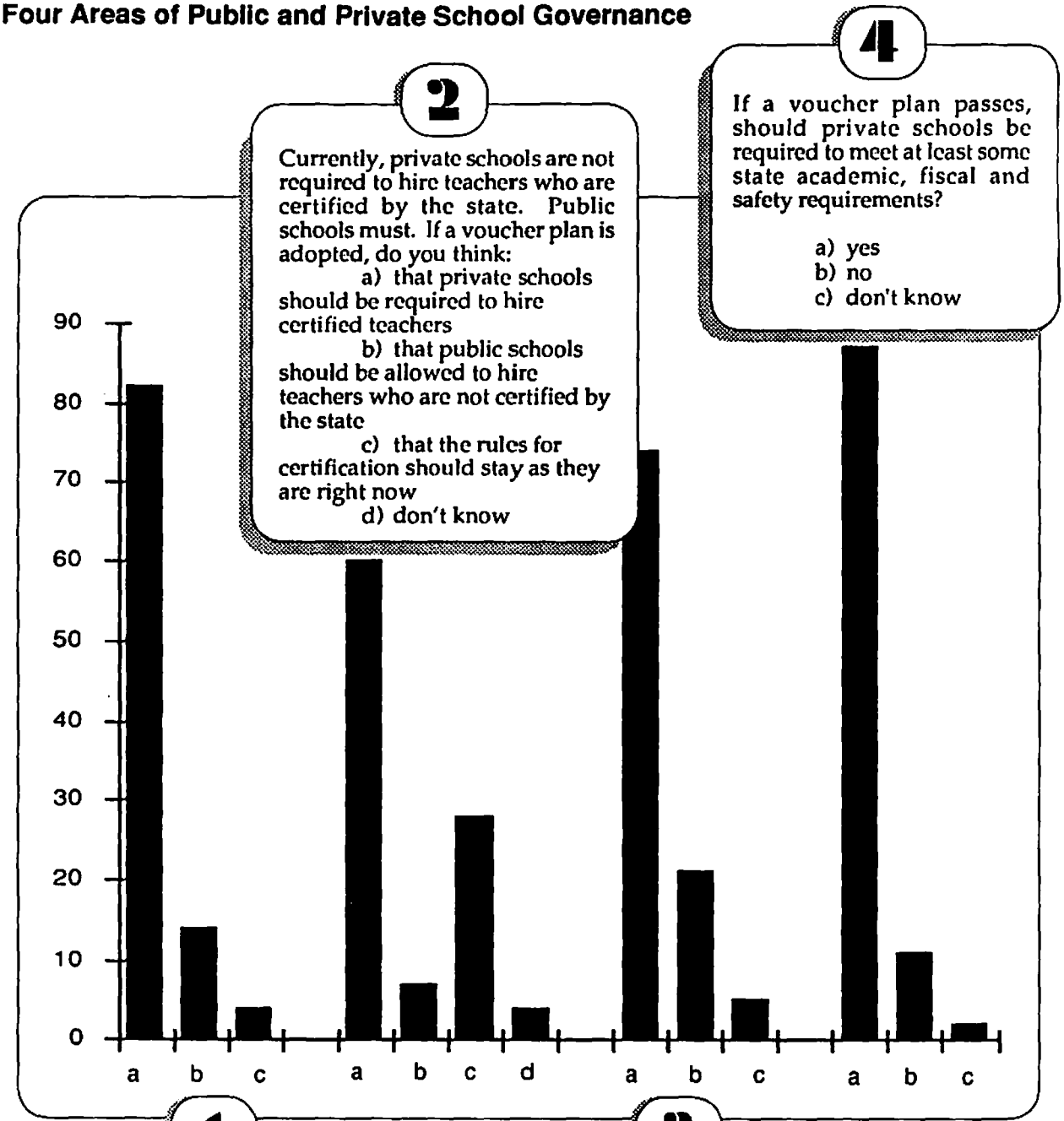
What about a system of school vouchers? Would the state's citizens embrace a system in which public dollars might flow to private and parochial schools? The answer is a qualified "yes." By a two-to-one margin (63% to 33%), the state's citizens support the concept of school vouchers. Support for the voucher concept cuts across demographic, ideological, and political lines. When asked why they would support a system of vouchers, more than half of Californians (59%) say that such a system would expand options for children. (Interestingly, however, Californians do not believe that a voucher system would create a level playing field for the most disadvantaged. Nearly forty-two percent of those polled said the the underprivileged are likely to benefit *least* from a voucher plan.)

However, while Californians seem disposed to accept a voucher system, they are also clear that they do not favor an unregulated voucher system. They want safeguards, a system of public checks and balances. For example, Californians believe that schools which redeem vouchers, and therefore which accept public money, should be required to: 1) meet state-established academic, fiscal, and safety requirements (87%); 2) publish test scores of student achievement (74%); 3) hire credentialed teachers (60%); and 4) provide additional support for students with special needs, such as those who are handicapped or limited- or non-English speaking (82%)(Figure 2.4).

When presented with the possibility that, at least in the short run, there might be limited school spaces for students with vouchers, Californians were asked how students should be selected to fill the available classroom slots. Somewhat more than a third of the state's citizens (35%) say that schools should be free to determine which voucher-carrying students to admit; slightly more than one-quarter of the state's citizens (28%) favor a lottery system as an admission procedure; and just above one-fifth of Californians (21%) say admission should be on a first-come-first-served basis.

Californians are also cautious about proceeding too far too fast. They believe that if the state does enact a voucher plan, that plan should be tested in a few school districts before it is implemented statewide. In addition, Californians do not want to see public school funding decreased if a voucher system is adopted. More than half of Californians (56%) say they would oppose a voucher system if that system would result in reduced funds for public schools.

Figure 2.4: Californians' Opinions About State Regulation in Four Areas of Public and Private School Governance



Source: PACE Poll: Californian's Attitudes Toward Education and School Vouchers

Californians Hold General Ideas About What They Believe are Important Components of an Education System

Californians express reasonably clear expectations for schools. They say they want schools that are, above all, safe, where the quality of teaching is high and the curriculum is good, class sizes are low and values are taught. In addition, Californians are willing to pay more for specific aspects of the education program. More than half of the state's citizens (56%) say they would be willing to pay more than they currently are for improved teacher preparation; nearly half (43%) would pay more for lower class sizes.

Conclusion

PACE's poll of Californians' attitudes and perceptions about schooling is a preliminary effort to gather crucial data which can help shape the debate about the nature, scope, and intensity of education reform. Clearly, more must be learned about what specific kinds of reforms the public favors, which they might oppose, and how California's education system can more nearly approach the expectations the public holds for it.

Notes

[1] Poll responses are accurate to within ± three percentage points.

A copy of the complete polling results can be obtained from PACE, School of Education, 3659 Tolman Hall, University of California, Berkeley, 94720.

Chapter 3

Enrollment

Highlights:

- California's K-12 enrollment continued to grow in 1991-92, though at a somewhat slower rate than in recent years.
- The number of K-12 students in California's public schools was more than five million in 1991-92 and is projected to near seven million by the year 2001.
- California's student population continues to reflect increasing racial and ethnic diversity. Latinos now compose more than a third of the state's students.
- More than one-in-five California students is limited-English-proficient.

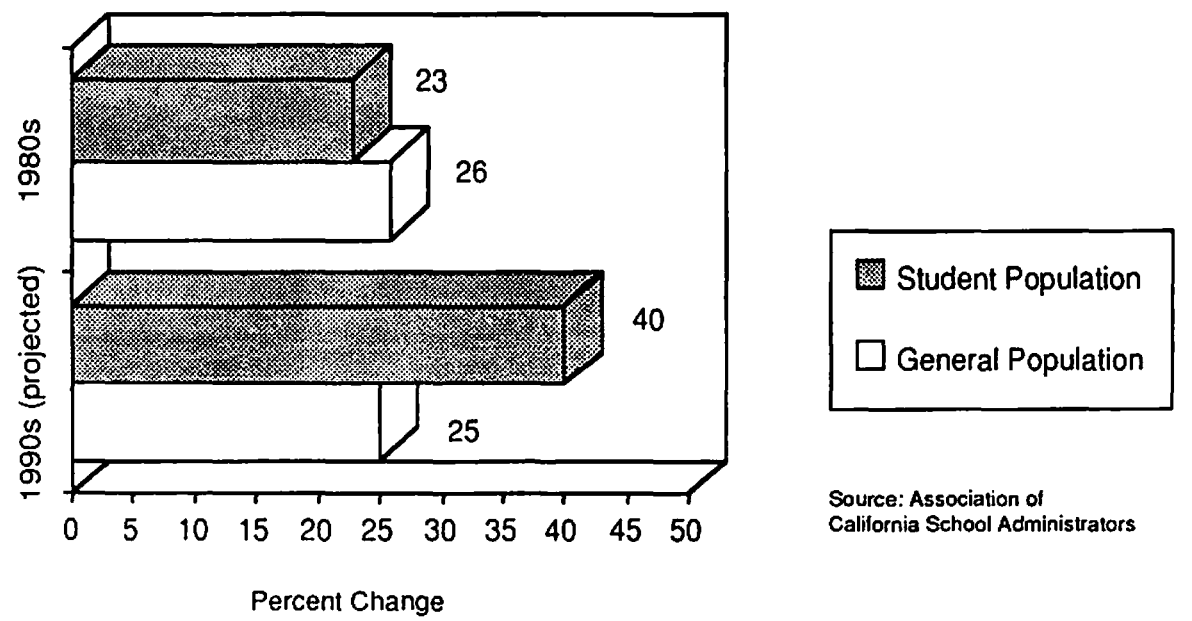
More than five million students were enrolled in California's public schools in 1991-92. Stated another way, California's enrollment totaled one million more students than the combined enrollments of Florida (1,861,592), Colorado (574,213), Minnesota (756,374), and Maryland (715,176). Enrollments grew at every grade level, kindergarten through grade twelve. Total enrollment growth was 3.2 percent, compared to a national average student enrollment growth of 1.8 percent.

However, for the first time since 1987-88, California's rate of enrollment growth declined slightly in 1991-92, from 3.7 percent to 3.2 percent. This growth rate dip prompted the Department of Finance to reduce its projections of future enrollment growth over the next decade. Projections for 1992-93 and 1993-94 were reduced to 1.6 percent. However, this period of slow growth should be followed by accelerated growth in the mid- and late- 1990s. All told, enrollment is expected to grow by thirty-seven percent to nearly seven million students by the year 2001.

Actual Enrollment

The decade of the 1990s appears to reflect a shift in the balance between general and student populations. In the 1980s, the general population grew by twenty-six percent, while the school population increased by twenty-three percent. In the 1990s, however, the school population is expected to increase by forty percent while the growth rate of the general population remains fairly steady at twenty-five percent (Figure 3.1).

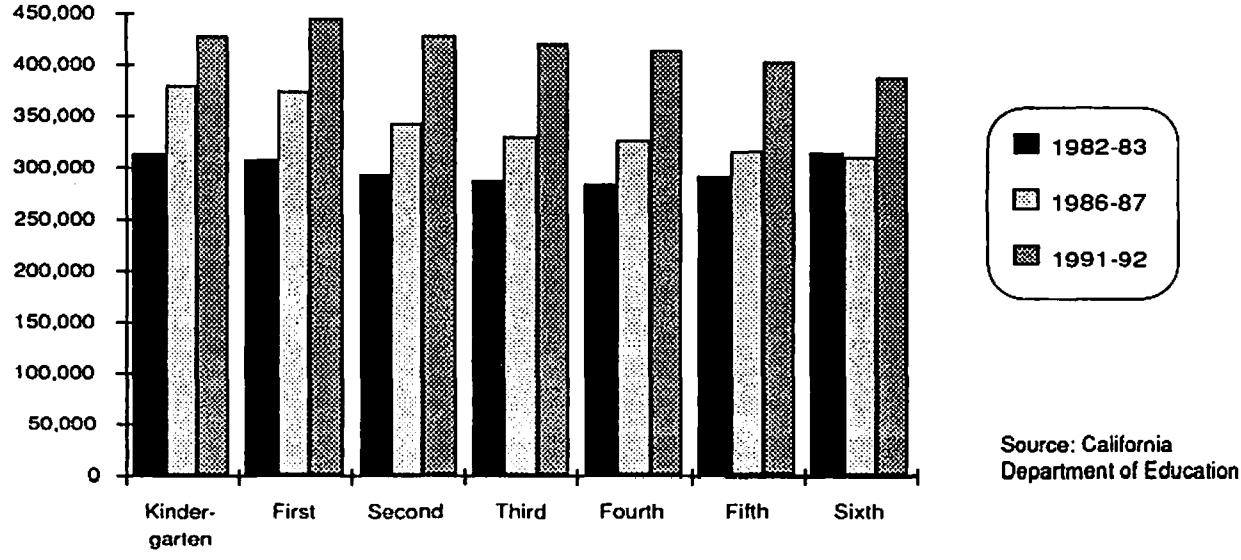
Figure 3.1: Growth of General and Student Populations in California



Source: Association of California School Administrators

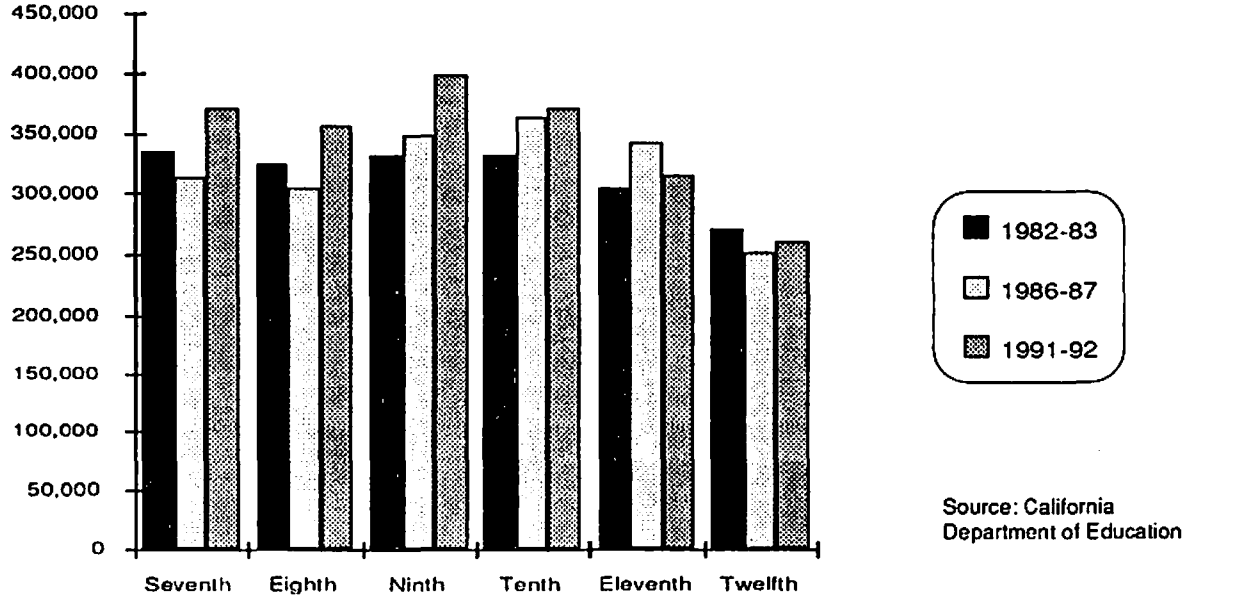
While the rate of student enrollment growth decreased slightly in 1991-92, from 3.7 percent to 3.2 percent, every grade level, kindergarten through grade twelve, experienced an enrollment increase (Figures 3.2 and 3.3). Elementary enrollments particularly continue to increase at a startling rate. In 1991-92 there were 2,921,081 K-6 students. California has more students in K-6 than New York has in its entire K-12 system (2,598,337).

Figure 3.2: Actual K-6 Enrollments by Grade Level



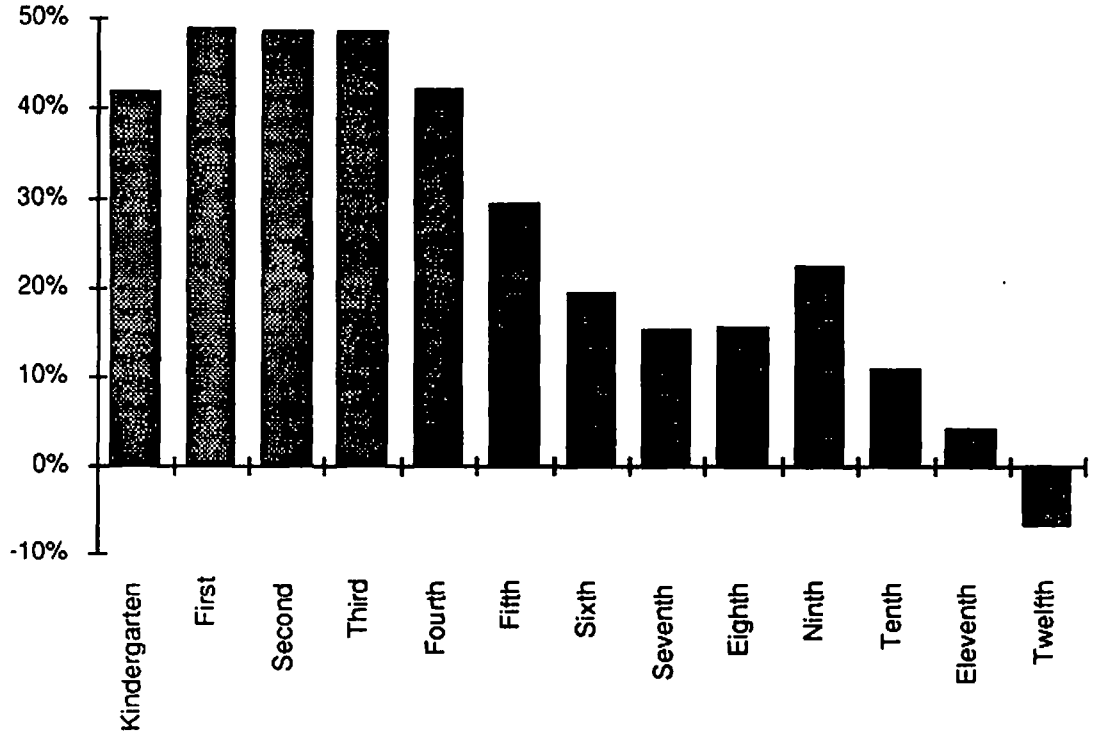
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 3.3: Actual 7-12 Enrollments by Grade Level



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 3.4: Actual Percentage of Growth from 1982 to 1992



Source: California Department of Education

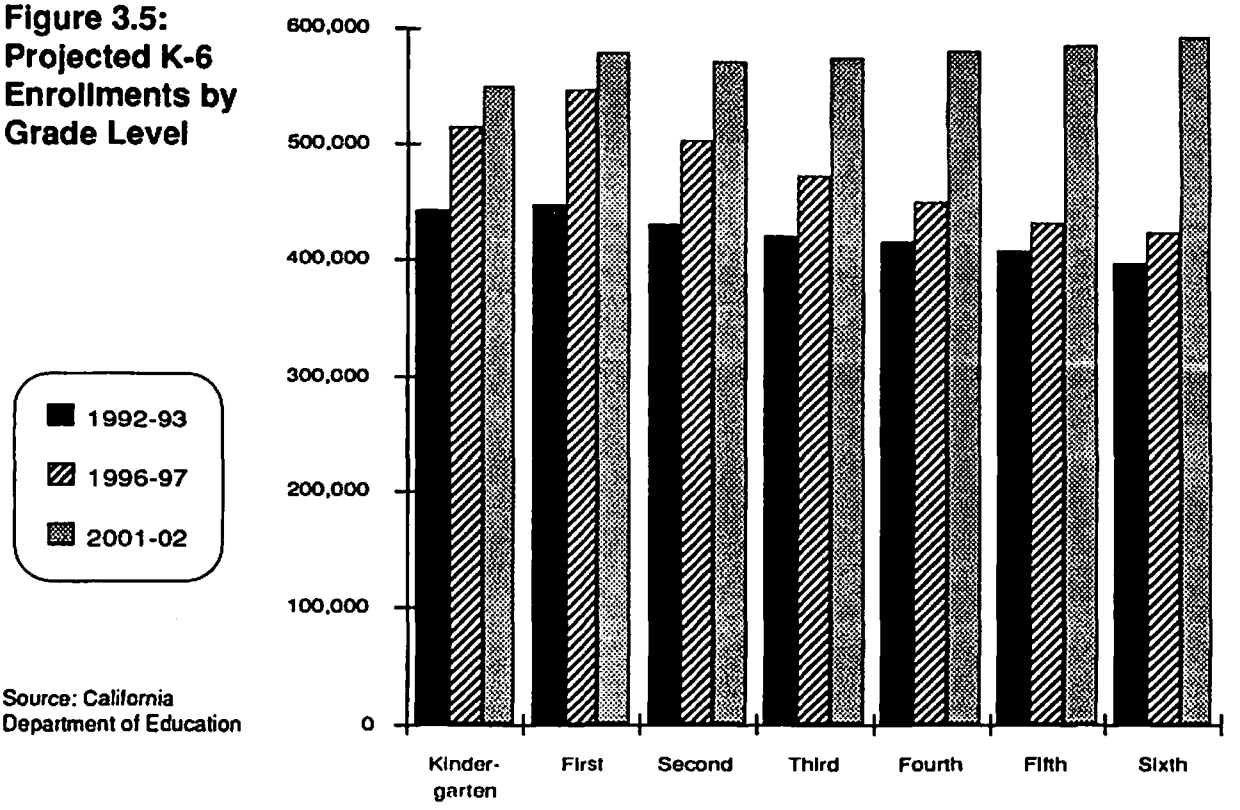
Between 1982 and 1992, elementary enrollment (K-6) increased forty percent, or by 830,988 students. Secondary enrollment (7-12) increased just twelve percent, or by 185,944 students (Figure 3.4). These figures portend an enrollment "bulge" at the secondary level for much of the remaining 1990s.

Projected Enrollment

Between 1992 and the year 2002, elementary enrollment (K-6) is projected to grow thirty-seven percent, or by 170,396 students each year. Secondary enrollment (7-12) is projected to grow thirty-six percent, or by 71,260 students per year during this same period (Figures 3.5, 3.6, 3.7, and 3.8). By 2002, California public schools will enroll nearly seven million students.

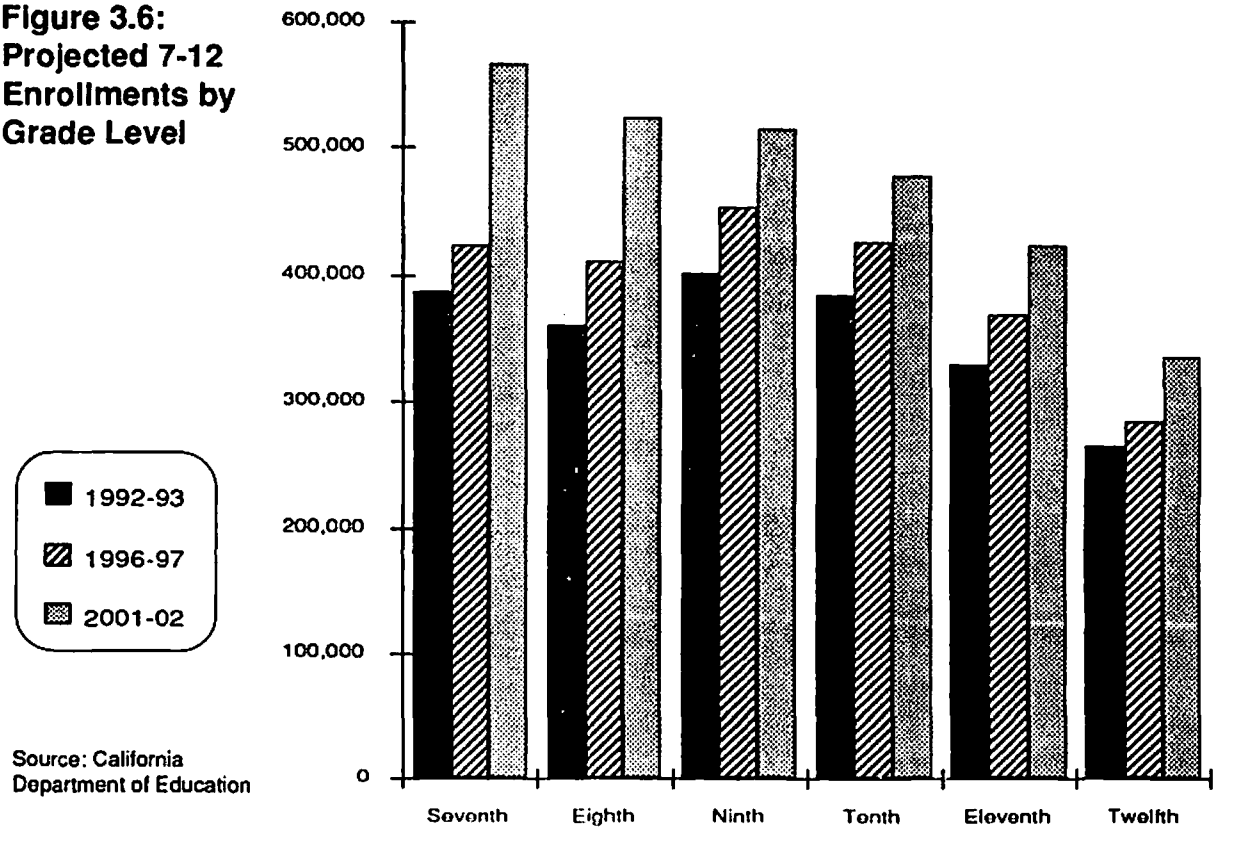
California's enrollment growth pattern continues to be regionally uneven. Central and coastal counties experienced the greatest growth in enrollment (37.2%) in the 1980s. In the 1990s, counties in the southern part of the state will experience the greatest enrollment increases (42.7%), while Bay Area counties will grow at a slower-than-state-average rate. However, virtually all California counties are expected to increase in K-12 enrollments over the next ten years (Figures 3.9 and 3.10).

Figure 3.5: Projected K-6 Enrollments by Grade Level



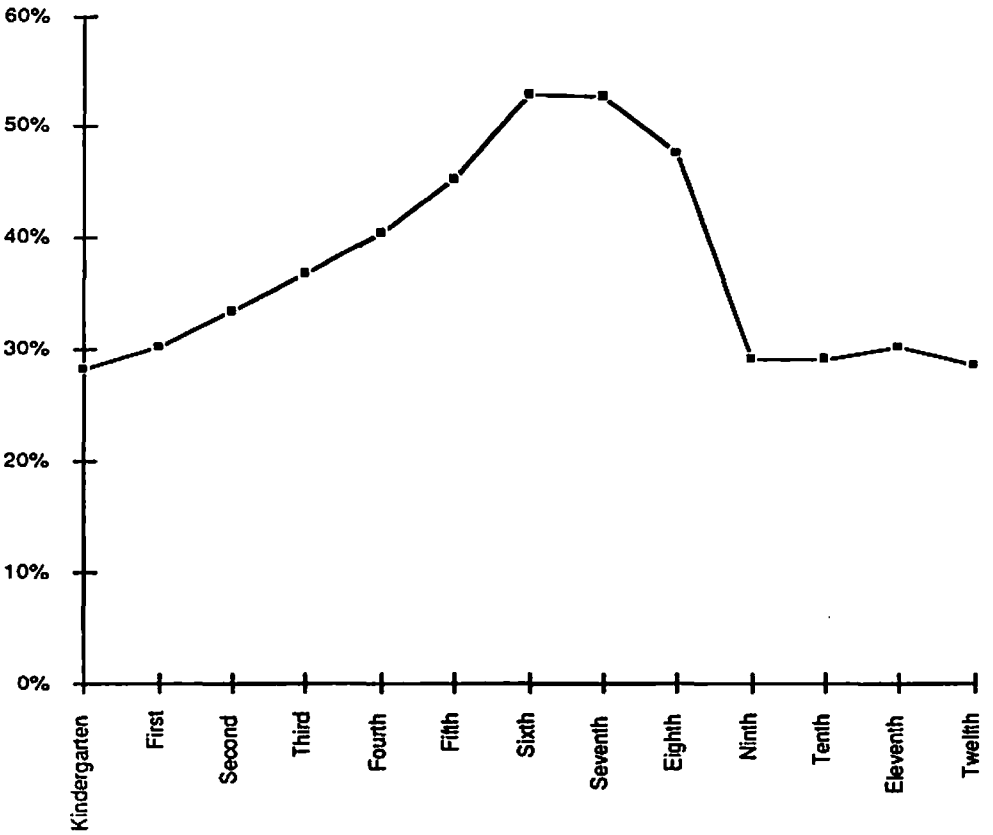
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 3.6: Projected 7-12 Enrollments by Grade Level



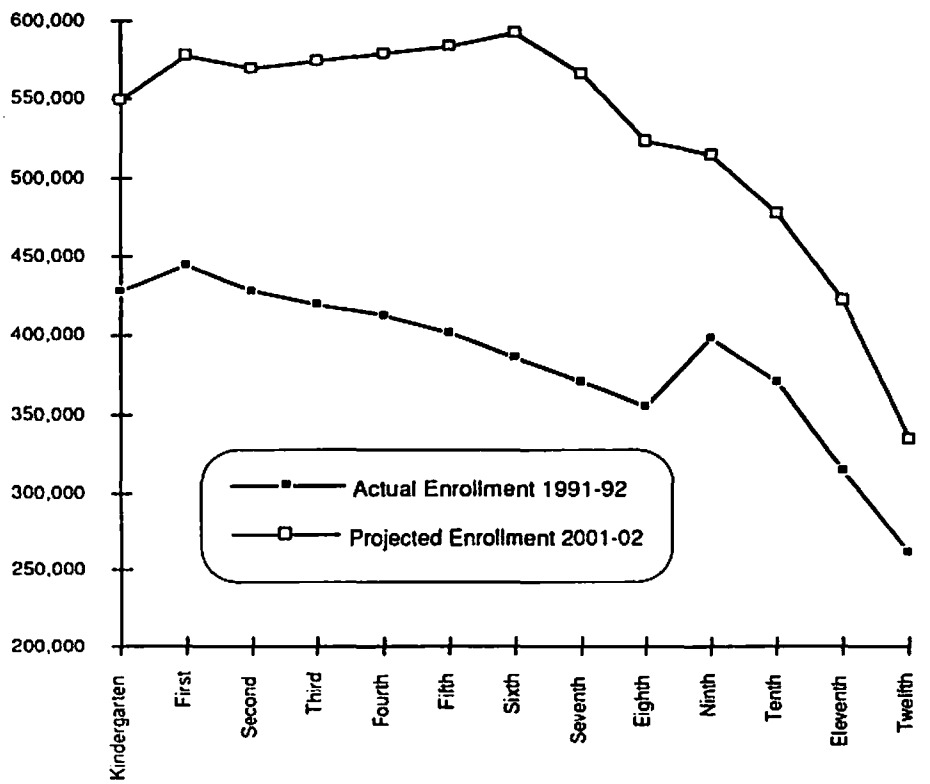
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 3.7: Percentage of Projected Growth from 1992 to 2002



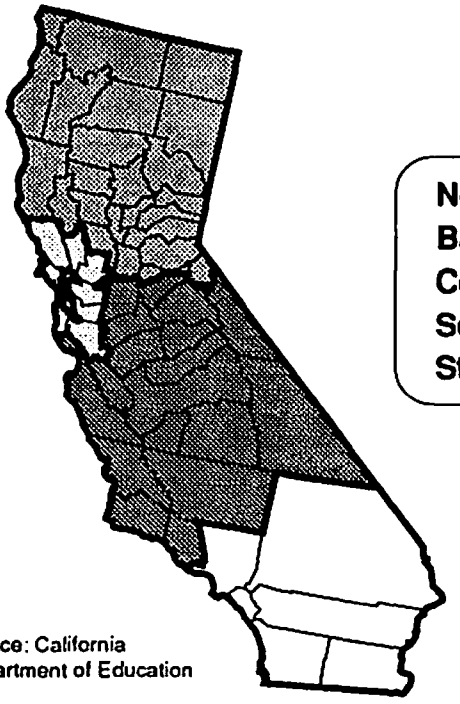
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 3.8: Actual and Projected Enrollment



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 3.9: Average Percent Change in Enrollment By Area – 1981-91

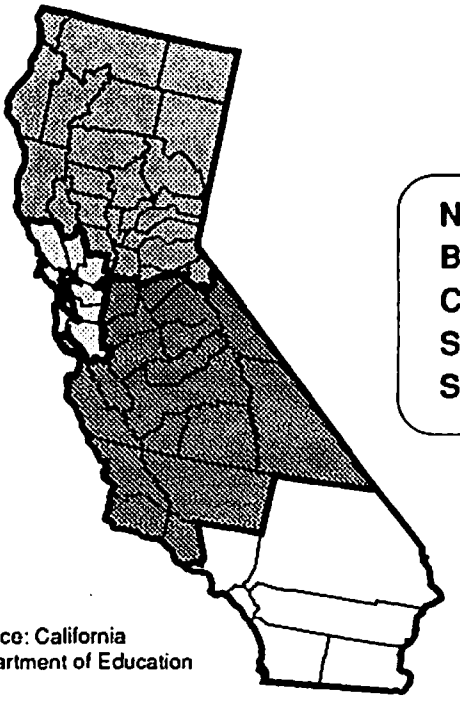


Source: California Department of Education

North	31.9%
Bay Area	8.6%
Central/Coastal	37.2%
South	27.4%
Statewide	25.8%

Los Angeles County continues to enroll by far the most students, with more than 1.4 million kindergarten through twelfth graders. In second place is San Diego County with nearly 500,000 students. The fastest growing counties, in terms of student enrollment, in the next decade will be San Bernardino, Riverside, Calaveras, El Dorado, and Stanislaus; the slowest growing will be Alpine, Modoc, Plumas, San Francisco, Sierra and Trinity.

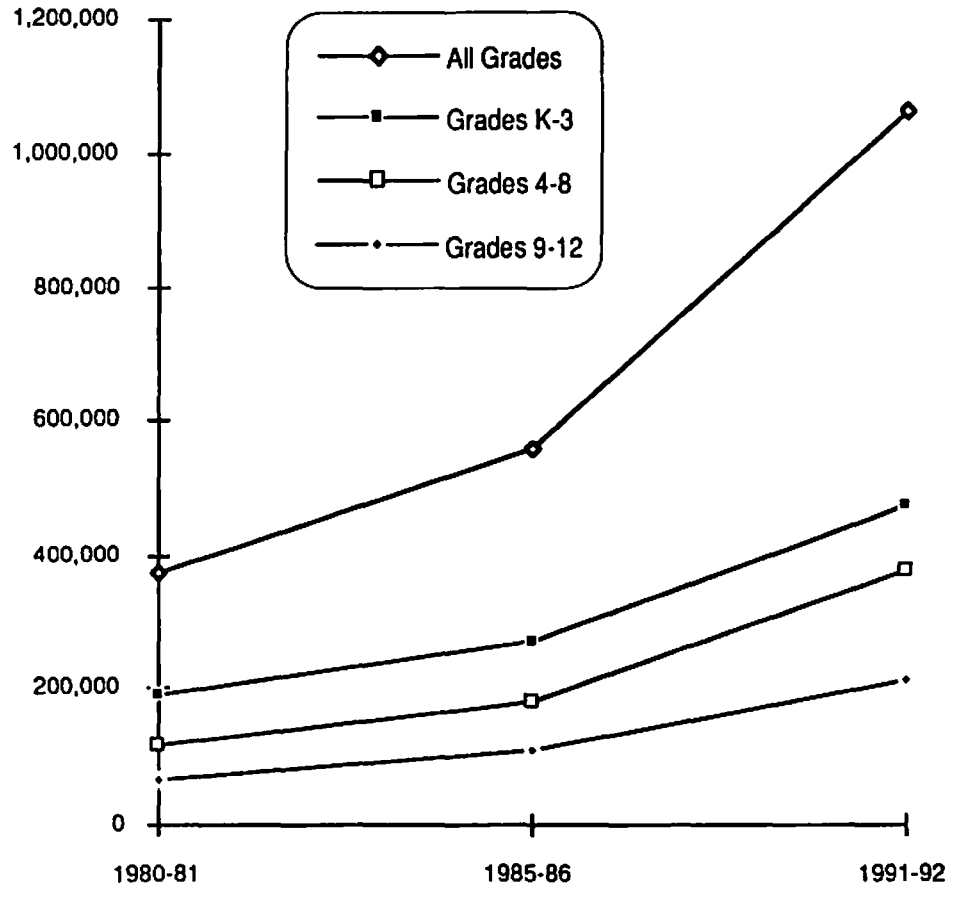
Figure 3.10: Projected Percent Change in Enrollment By Area – 1991-2001



Source: California Department of Education

North	33.0%
Bay Area	23.7%
Central/Coastal	35.4%
South	42.7%
Statewide	37.2%

Figure 3.11: Limited-English-Proficient Enrollments from 1980 to 1992



Source: California Department of Education

Limited-English-Proficient Enrollment

The number of limited-English-proficient (LEP) students has increased nearly six times as fast as the general student population in the last decade. Currently, more than one out of five students (21.3%), or more than one million kindergarten through twelfth graders, is limited-English-proficient. In comparison, in 1980-81, LEP students composed less than ten percent of California's total school population (Figure 3.11).

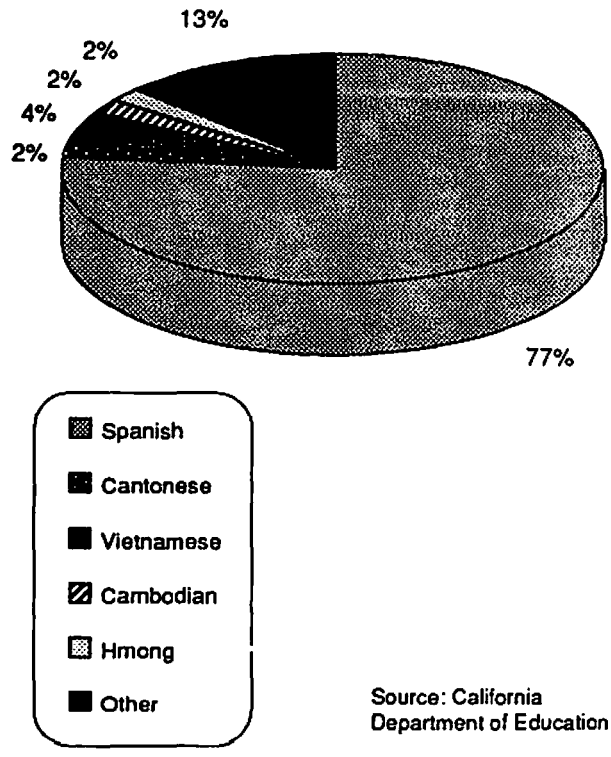
Spanish continues to be by far the dominant primary language of LEP students (Figure 3.12). For more than three-quarters of LEP students, Spanish is the primary language. However, in 1992, an increase was also seen in the numbers of LEP students whose primary language is Vietnamese.

The growth in the variety of LEP students creates complications in delivering instruction at the school site level. In the inner city of San Diego, for example, more than twenty different languages may be spoken in one school. Instruction and materials must be adaptable to various LEP students, large numbers of whom speak a growing variety of languages.

Enrollment By Ethnicity

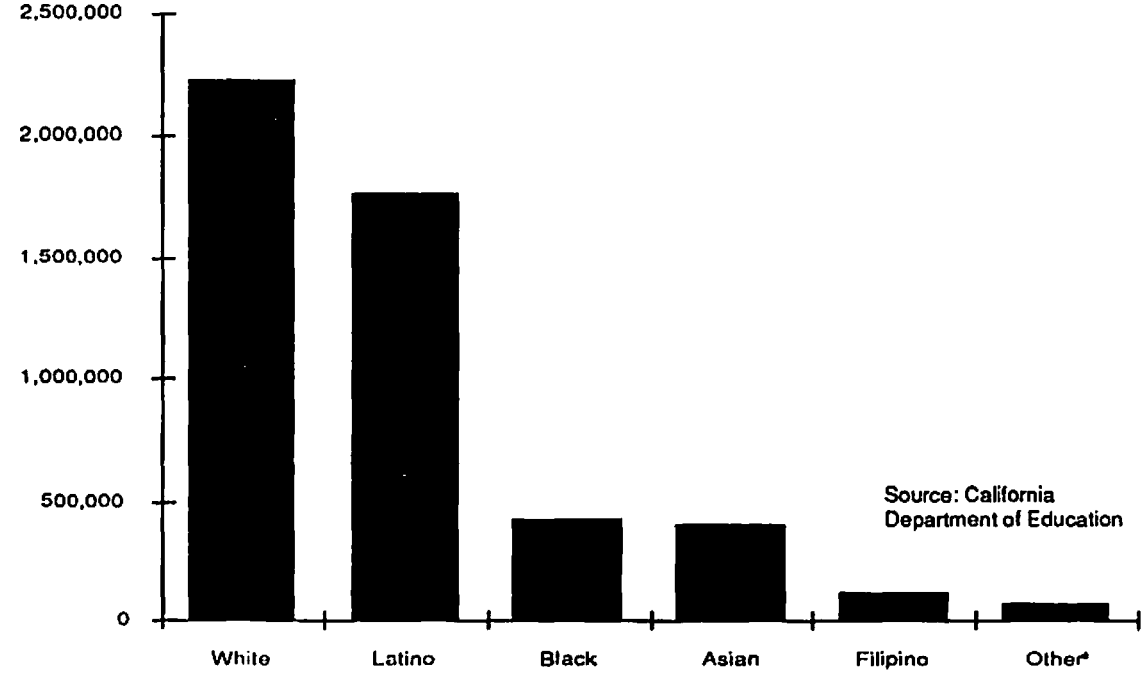
California's students continue to reflect the state's increasing racial and ethnic diversity. While the state's student population has been a "majority minority" for several years, Latino students are now projected to become a plurality by 1995-96. White students compose less than half the enrollment in California schools (44.5%), Latino students account for more than a third (35.3%), black and Asian students somewhat more than eight percent each (8.5% and 8.1% respectively), and Native American, Filipino, and Pacific Islander students 3.7 percent (Figures 3.13 and 3.14). By the year 2003, the state's student population is projected to be 46.9 percent Latino, 32.2 percent white, 9.5 percent percent Asian, 7.2 percent black, and 4.2 percent Native American, Filipino, and Pacific Islander.

Figure 3.12: Distribution of Limited-English-Proficient Students by by Primary Language in 1991-92



Source: California Department of Education

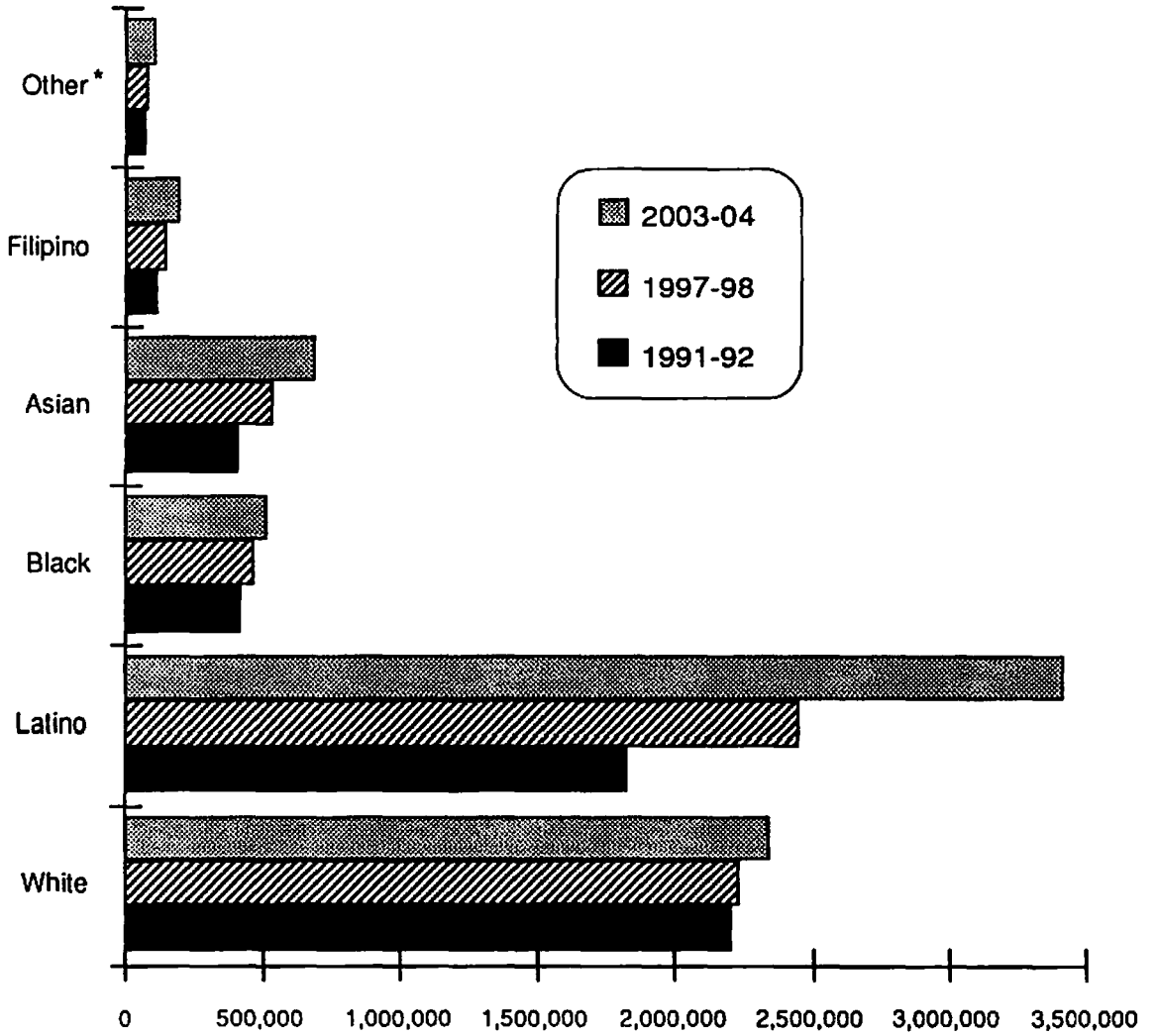
Figure 3.13: Distribution of Actual Enrollments by Ethnicity in 1991-92



Source: California Department of Education

*Other = Native American 40,391 and Pacific Islander 27,648

Figure 3.14: Distribution of Projected Enrollments by Ethnicity – 1991-92 to 2003-04



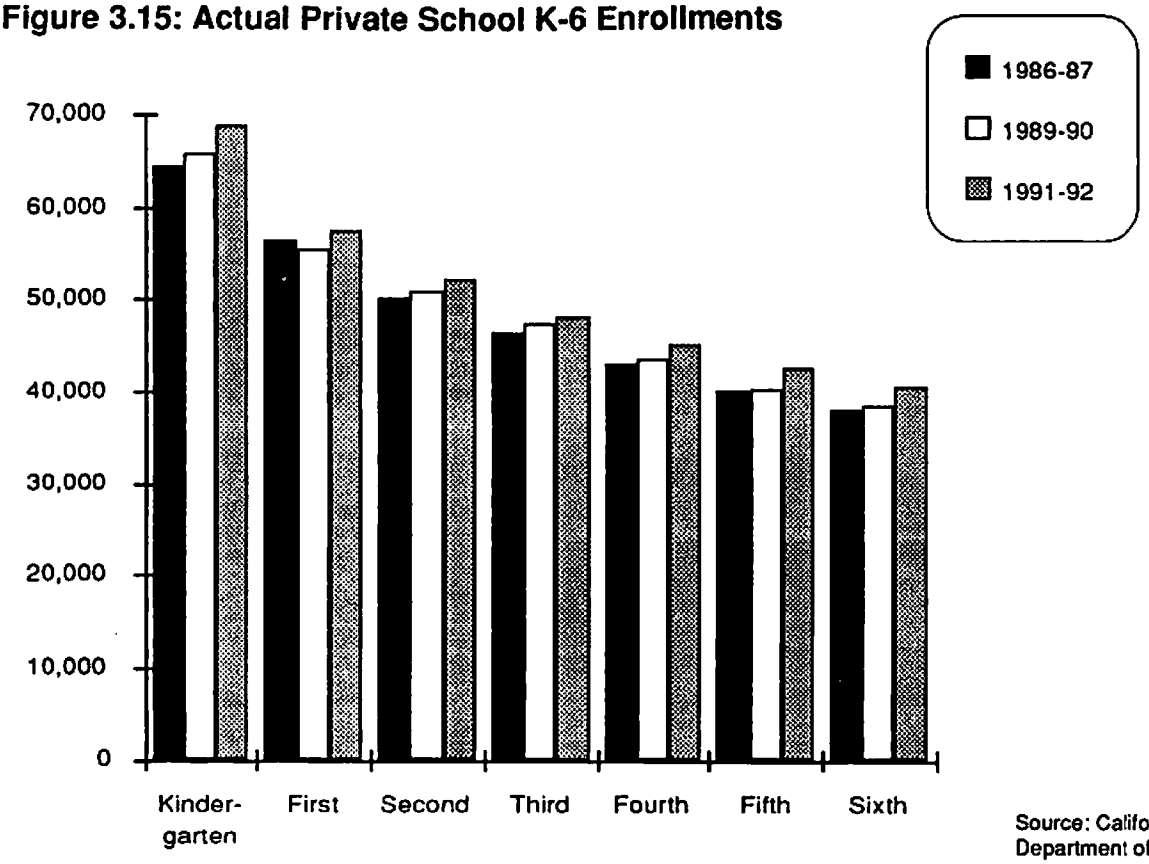
*Other = Native American Indian and Pacific Islander

Source: California Department of Education

Private School Enrollment

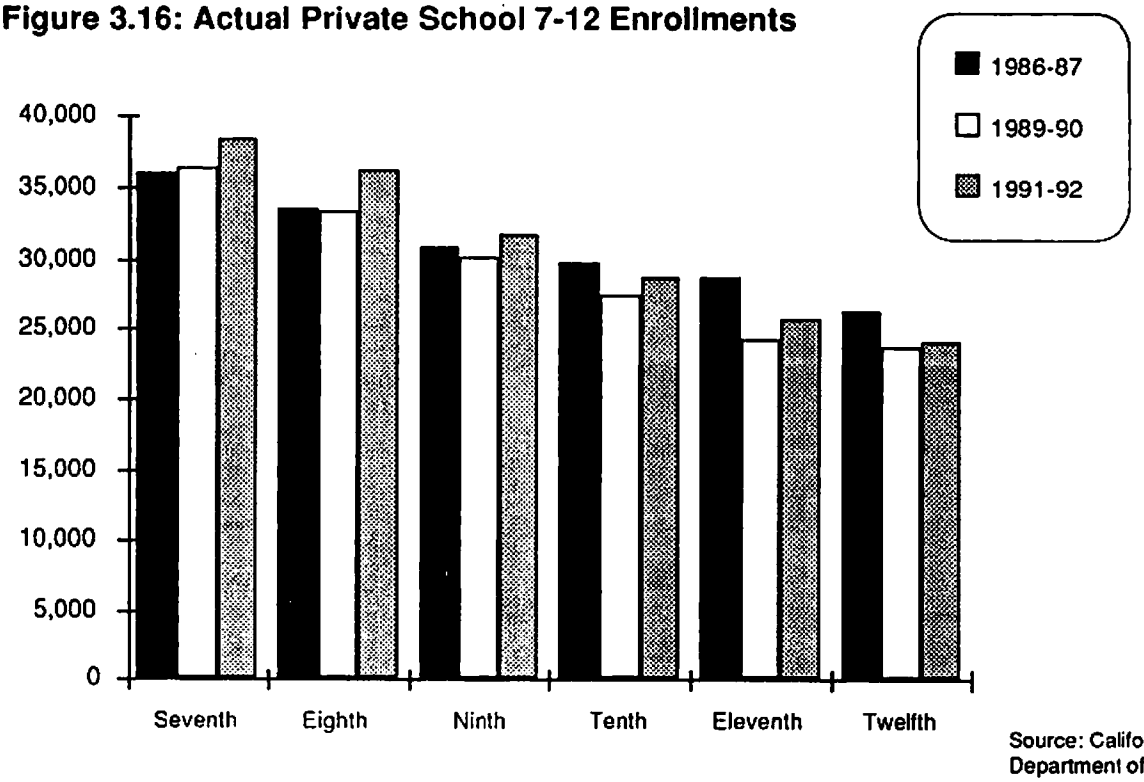
Private schools educated nearly ten percent (9.6%) of the state's school age children in 1991-92 (Figures 3.15 and 3.16). Private school enrollments are projected to grow at a rate of two percent a year for the next decade (Figure 3.17). However, since public school enrollments are expected to increase by four percent, private school enrollments will decline as a percentage of total school enrollment in California.

Figure 3.15: Actual Private School K-6 Enrollments



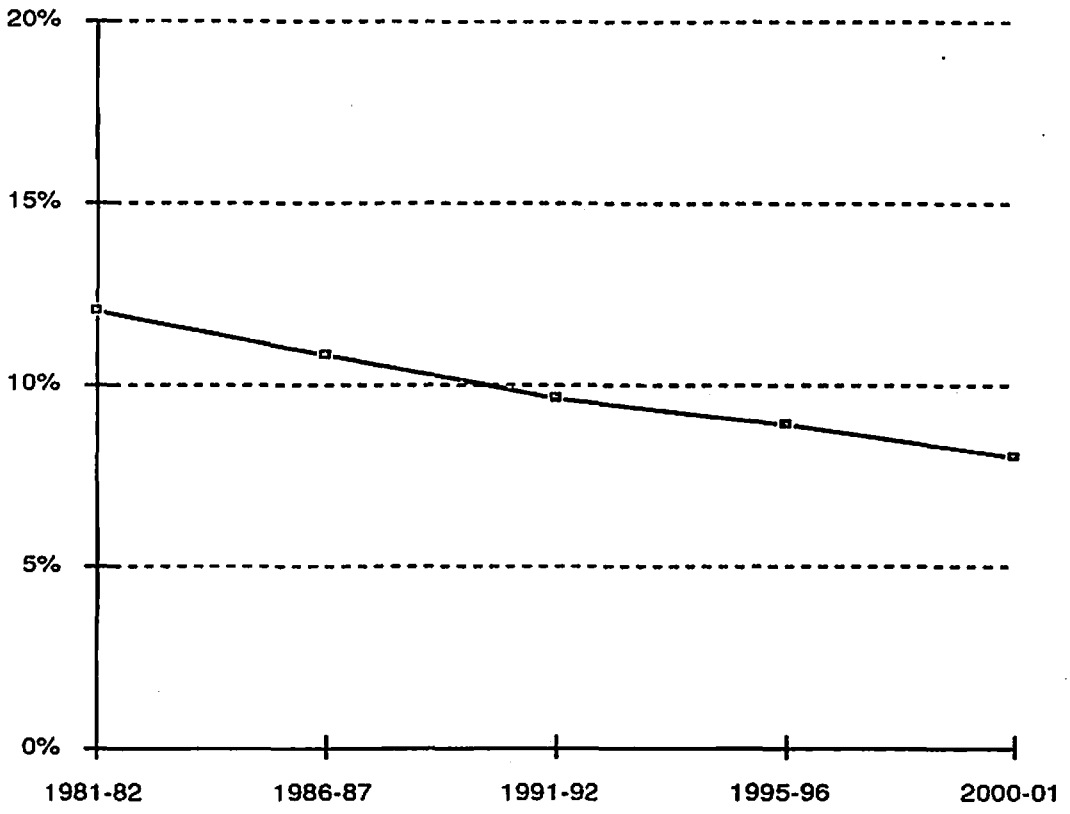
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 3.16: Actual Private School 7-12 Enrollments



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 3.17: Actual and Projected Private School Enrollment as Percent of Total School Enrollment



Source: California Department of Education

Conclusion

California schools will continue to experience enormous bursts of enrollment growth. Secondary schools particularly will feel the enrollment growth as the state nears the century mark. Moreover, for the foreseeable future, California will face the challenge not only of more students, but of a more racially and ethnically diverse student body and a population that is likely to include large percentages of students who speak little or no English.

Chapter 4

Achievement

Highlights:

- Since 1990, when eighth grade students last took the California Assessment Program (CAP) test, average combined scores on the reading, writing, math, and history-social science portions have dropped four points.
- In reading, Latino and black students scored substantially lower than white and Asian students in all CAP content areas.
- Forty-one percent of California high-school seniors took the SAT in 1992. More than half (52%) of California students who took the SAT in 1992 were minorities.
- Thirty-one percent of all California high school graduates completed the University of California "A-F" requirements in 1990.
- California's average dropout rate dipped slightly in 1991-92, but continued to hover at approximately seventeen percent.

The academic year 1992-93 marks the transition to a new assessment system for California students. The new program, California Learning Assessment System (CLAS), will continue statewide, school-level testing; pilot individual student-level assessment; and move ahead with administration and development of the Golden State Examination, Career-Technical Assessment, and Health Related Fitness programs (Figure 4.1).

New components will be added in specific grades and content areas after sufficient research and development has been conducted to ensure that the results are valid, reliable, fair, and comparable. School districts will participate in three aspects of the program in 1992-93, the first on a mandatory basis and the second and third on a voluntary basis:

- On a mandatory basis, the initial statewide administration of the school-level components of California's new Elementary (grade four), Middle (grade eight), and High School (grade ten) Performance Assessments in reading, writing, and mathematics;
- On a voluntary basis, a set of pilot studies focused on different methods of producing individual student results;
- On a voluntary basis, the 1993 spring field testing of new assessment exercises.

Dramatic changes are thus taking place in California's system of student assessment. However, during this period of change, in which old assessments are being phased out and new assessments phased in, student achievement data are limited. For the school year 1991-92, student achievement can be measured using eighth grade CAP scores, Golden State Exams, Advanced Placement Examinations, Scholastic Aptitude Tests, rates of high school graduation and college-course taking, and graduate grade point average.

California Assessment Program (CAP)

Budget cuts forced the state to test only eighth graders, although previously students were tested in grades three, six, eight, and twelve (Figure 4.2). CAP tests were cancelled in 1990-91 because funds were eliminated. As a result, current eighth grade scores are compared with 1990 figures.

Statewide, students' average overall score dropped four points to 259, on a 100-400 point scale. The average reading score fell eight points, from 255 to 247 (Figures 4.3 and 4.4). Math scores remained stable, dropping one point to 270. Writing scores dropped two points to 257, science scores dropped four points to 265, and history-social science scores fell five points to 255.

Figure 4.1: CLAS – California Learning Assessment System

School-Level Elementary, Middle, and High School Performance Assessments:

The most visible and universal component of the assessment system in 1992-93 will be the administration of a short, but upgraded, set of assessments at grades four, eight, and ten in reading, writing and mathematics. These mandatory assessments will yield reliable average scores for all schools and serve as a transitional step toward individual student scores.

English-Language Arts:

A three-section task—Reading, Group Work, Writing—that may be administered either on three consecutive days or on two consecutive days with the group work and writing sections combined in a two-period block of time on the second day.

Student-Level Pilots:

A research and development effort focused specifically on the best methods of producing reliable individual scores which are useful to students and teachers. This effort will have a double focus. The first is on the research needed to determine the minimal amount of testing time required to provide reliable individual scores. The second focus concerns the role of classroom teachers in officially judging the quality of the students' work as well as on their traditional role of administering the assessment.

California Health-Related Fitness Test:

Districts continue to be required to administer the California Health-Related Fitness Test to all students in grades five, seven, and nine and report the results to their boards. Results from a representative sample of districts will produce a profile for the state.

Source: California Department of Education

Mathematics:

A one-class period test consisting of enhanced multiple-choice questions and a variety of open-ended tasks (illustrated in the booklet, *A Sampler of Mathematics Assessment*).

Field Testing:

As funds permit, California will field test new assessment tasks in order to fill out the wide array of methods needed to adequately assess the variety of students and the range of instructional programs in California schools. The two-period extended tasks in mathematics known as investigations are apart of this plan as well as the preparation of statewide pilots on history-social science and science to be administered in 1993-94.

Golden State Examination (GSE)

The administration of the GSE will be more "user friendly" by administering the exams within regular fifty-minute class periods. Plans for 1992-93 include a pilot program to develop portfolio components for the GSEs in biology and chemistry; field testing of a separate end-of-course assessment for the new coordinated science courses; and pilot administration of open-ended components for the first-year algebra and geometry exams.

Career-Technical Assessment:

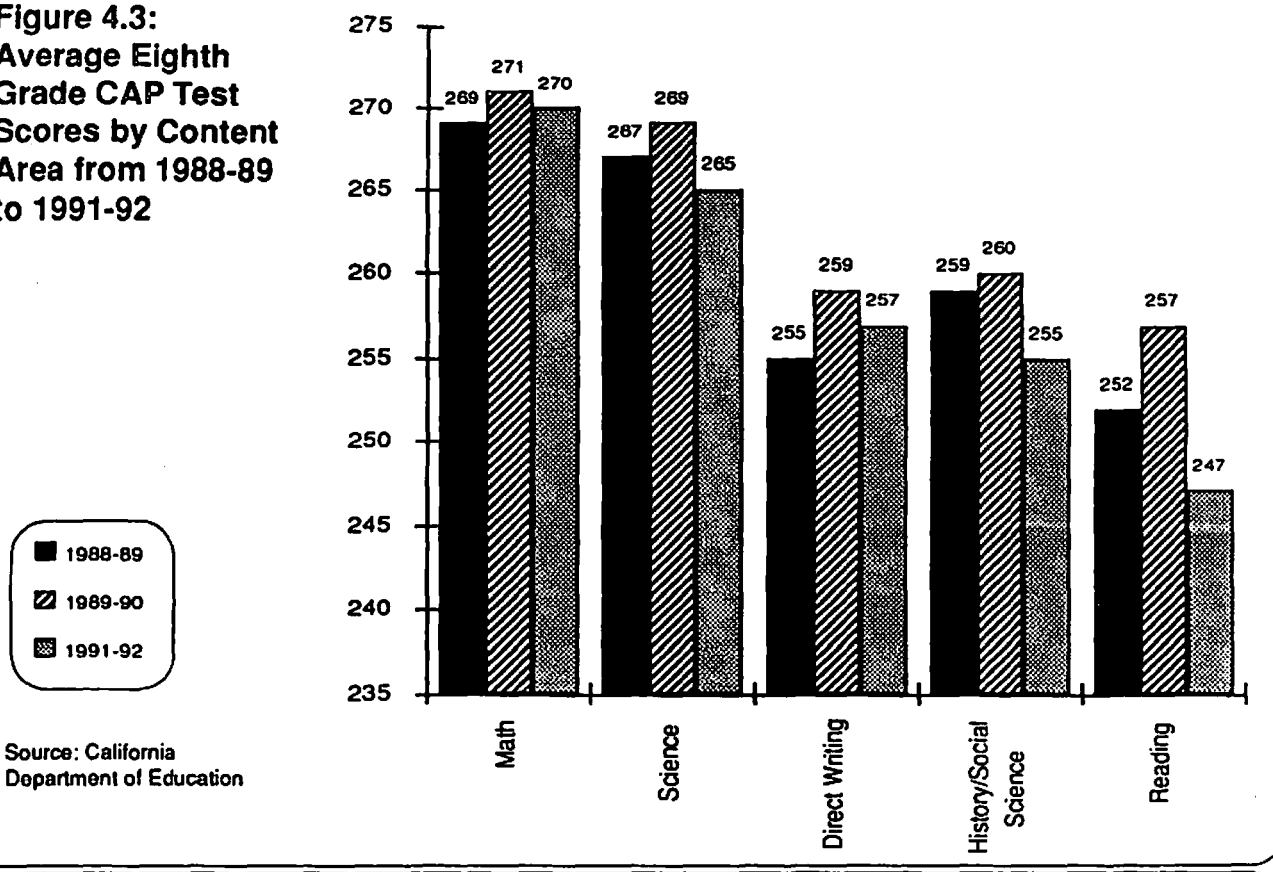
This new component of secondary assessment is under development in support of the reforms recommended in Second to None, the report of the High School Task Force. The new career-technical student assessments will assess the knowledge and abilities developed by students in program majors within specific career fields through research projects, portfolios, student presentations, and on-demand tasks. Development of the initial assessments with pilot and field tests is scheduled for 1992-93.

Figure 4.2: Differences in Test Scores by Year – 1979-80 Through 1991-92 California Assessment Program (CAP)

	79-80 to 80-81	80-81 to 81-82	81-82 to 82-83	82-83 to 83-84	83-84 to 84-85	84-85 to 85-86	85-86 to 86-87	86-87 to 87-88	87-88 to 88-89	88-89 to 89-90	89-90 to 90-91	90-91 to 91-92
Grade 3												
Reading	4	4	5	5	6	6	2	0	-6	-2	—	—
Written Lang.	5	5	6	6	7	6	2	-3	-6	-1	—	—
Mathematics	4	7	6	7	4	5	2	-4	-3	5	—	—
Grade 6												
Reading	2	2	-1	-4	4	7	0	5	-3	-1	—	—
Written Lang.	3	4	2	1	5	6	0	2	-4	-1	—	—
Mathematics	3	5	2	1	3	4	0	2	-3	3	—	—
Grade 8												
Reading	—	—	—	—	-10	3	4	5	4	1	—	-10
Mathematics	—	—	—	—	1	2	6	5	5	2	—	-1
History-S.S.	—	—	—	—	—	-7	4	6	6	1	—	-5
Science	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	7	4	2	—	-4
Direct Writing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	-1	4	—	—
Grade 12												
Reading	3	-2	-1	-6	5	-1	6	4	-2	3	—	—
Written Lang.	7	-2	0	-2	6	2	8	0	6	4	—	—
Mathematics	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—

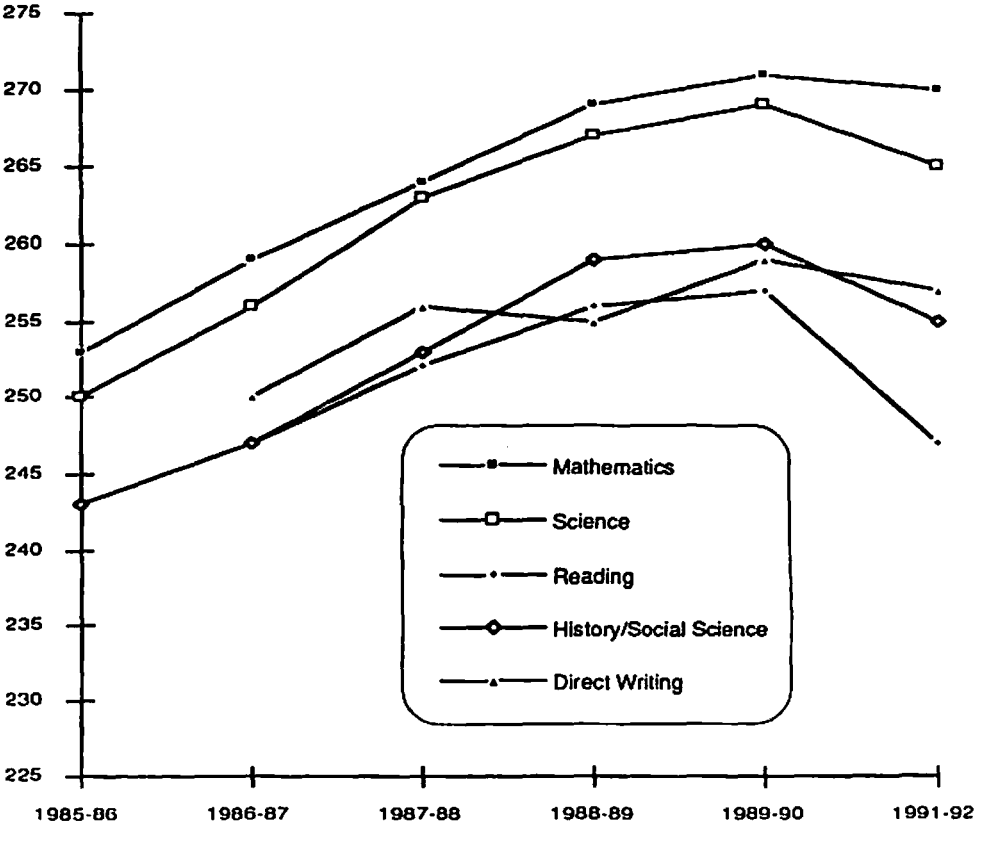
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.3: Average Eighth Grade CAP Test Scores by Content Area from 1988-89 to 1991-92



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.4: Average Eighth Grade CAP Test Scores by Content Area from 1985-86 to 1991-92*

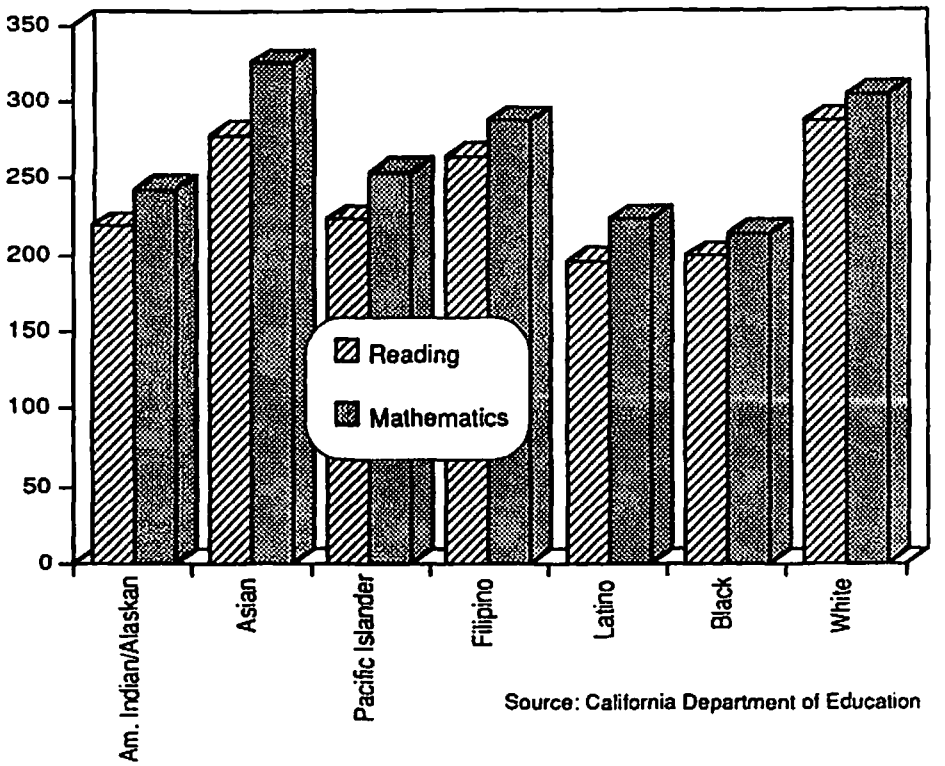


*No data available for 1990-91

Source: California Department of Education

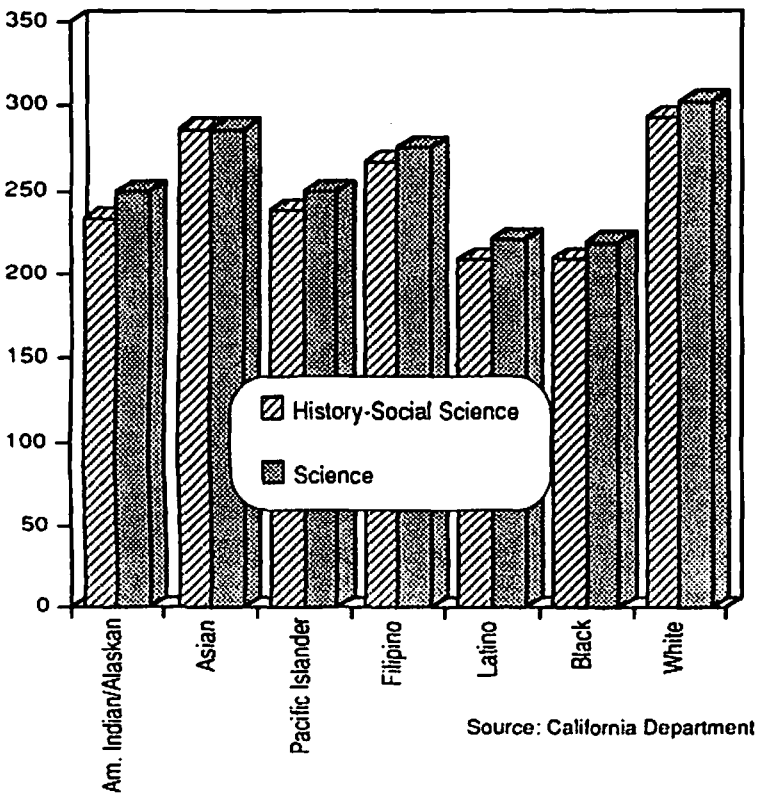
Figure 4.5: Eighth Grade Average CAP Scores by Ethnicity for Spring,1992 – Reading and Mathematics

Latino and black students scored substantially lower than other ethnicities in all CAP content areas (Figures 4.5 and 4.6). In reading, Latino and black students' average CAP scores were at least eighty-eight points below the average score for white students.



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.6: Eighth Grade Average CAP Scores by Ethnicity for Spring, 1992 – History-Social Science and Science

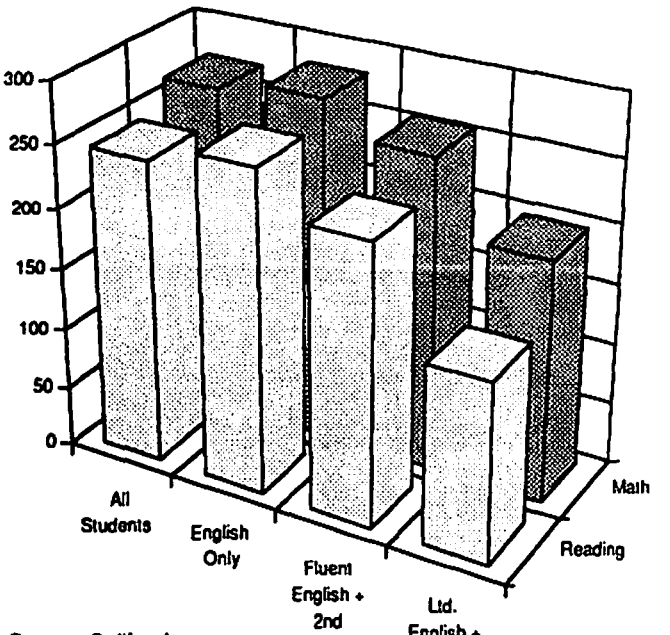


Source: California Department of Education

In mathematics, the average score for white students was 304 compared to 223 for Latinos and 214 for black students. The average score in mathematics was highest for Asians at 325. In history-social science, the average score for both Latino and black students was 208 compared to an average score of 293 for white students. In science, the average score for Latino students was 221 and 219 for black students compared to 302 for white students.

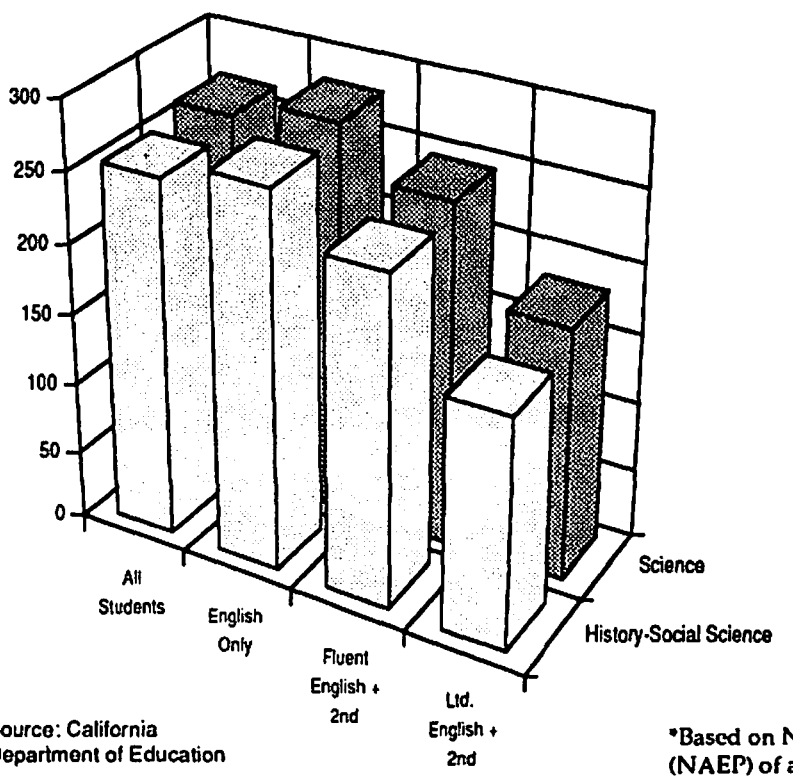
Figure 4.7: Eighth Grade Average Math and Reading CAP Scores by Language Fluency – Spring, 1992

Language is a major factor in students' performance on CAP (Figures 4.7 and 4.8). The average CAP score for students who speak only English was much higher in all content areas than the average score of all students, *including those who speak English fluently and a second language, and limited English students with a second language.* In reading, where knowledge of English is most crucial, the average score for students who speak only English was 262, compared to an average score for all students of 247.



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.8: Eighth Grade Average History-Social Science and Science CAP Scores by Language Fluency – Spring, 1992



Source: California Department of Education

The California Department of Education uses the terms "adequate" or "not adequate"* to describe students' performance on CAP. These ratings are meant to convey the range of students who have a firm understanding of a subject, based on test scores. Fewer than half (46.5%) of California students performed "adequately" on the test. Figure 4.9 displays the performance for each county.

*Based on National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) of an adequate level of performance.

Figure 4.9: Eighth Grade Average CAP Scores by County

	PERCENT ADEQUATE	1992 SCORES	CHANGE FROM 1990	CHANGE FROM 1986
State Average	46.5	259	-4	11
Alameda	49.6	271	-1	18
Alpine	50.6	271	32	-20
Amador	59.0	298	5	23
Butte	52.5	276	0	11
Culaveras	54.4	284	-2	15
Colusa	37.9	230	-23	-26
Contra Costa	55.2	289	-4	17
Del Norte	45.8	253	-6	-4
El Dorado	55.9	290	-6	13
Fresno	44.4	251	-5	8
Glenn	55.9	287	15	30
Humbolt	57.6	293	-7	23
Imperial	33.5	218	-1	5
Inyo	54.1	283	18	16
Kern	41.3	243	-6	13
Kings	43.5	251	-4	4
Lake	44.4	256	-3	2
Lassen	54.3	281	-7	-1
Los Angeles	39.3	236	-5	8
Los Angeles w/out LAUSD	44.1	252	-5	11
Madera	43.0	247	-12	13
Marin	66.0	323	-3	1
Mariposa	54.4	280	-19	17
Mendocino	55.6	289	10	21
Merced	42.6	247	0	18
Mondoc	47.2	268	-3	2
Mono	61.6	305	2	29
Monterey	43.0	248	-8	0
Napa	53.8	284	-9	12
Nevada	58.3	295	-13	6
Orange	53.8	282	-6	11
Placer	58.8	298	7	22
Plumas	51.4	276	4	10
Riverside	43.1	247	-4	16
Sacramento	48.6	266	-5	9
San Benito	40.8	240	-25	10
San Bernardino	43.4	249	-6	10
San Diego	51.2	274	-7	12
San Francisco	40.7	239	-5	9
San Joaquine	43.5	248	-10	18
San Luis Obispo	57.9	294	6	24
San Mateo	53.8	283	1	8
Santa Barbara	50.1	272	-10	5
Santa Clara	54.4	286	-3	15
Santa Cruz	50.0	272	-6	16
Shasta	53.8	282	-2	8
Siskiyou	53.3	279	-11	2
Solano	51.2	273	-2	20
Sonoma	56.6	290	-2	17
Stanislaus	46.7	260	-1	14
Sutter	44.7	253	2	3
Tehama	44.2	254	-7	-2
Trinity	55.6	285	9	-5
Tulare	40.7	242	-2	8
Tuolumne	53.7	285	-13	-2
Ventura	51.5	275	-5	20
Yolo	48.8	267	-1	9
Yuba	49.9	269	6	37

Source: California Department of Education

Golden State Examination (GSE)

The Golden State Examination (GSE) was established by the Education Reform Act of 1983 (SB813). The program's mandate was reaffirmed in 1991 by Senate Bill 662. The goal of the GSE is to provide individual students with the incentive to exert extra effort in key academic subjects and to publicly recognize outstanding student achievements. Participation in the GSE program is voluntary for school districts. The students who participate must be currently enrolled in courses covered by the GSE —first-year algebra, geometry, U.S. history, economics, biology, and chemistry.

More than 223,000 California students completed the GSE in 1992. Better than 85,000 students achieved High Honors, Honors, or School Recognition and were acknowledged as Golden State Scholars (Figure 4.10).

Figure 4.10: 1992 Golden State Examinations Statewide Levels of Achievement

	# of Students at High Honors	%	# of Students at Honors	%	# of Students at School Recognition	%	# of Students Completing Exam
First Year Algebra	5,659	7.0	8,010	9.9	14,895	18.5	80,524
Geometry	4,393	8.9	7,999	16.3	8,499	17.3	49,198
History	1,702	5.5	4,160	13.4	7,678	24.7	31,067
Economics	872	5.3	1,985	12.1	4,164	25.3	16,438
Biology	1,150	4.3	2,268	8.4	5,796	21.5	27,020
Chemistry	551	2.9	1,482	7.7	3,906	20.4	19,171

Source: California Department of Education

High School Graduates

California high schools graduated a total of 272,428 students in 1992 — 249,355 from public schools and 23,073 from private schools (Figure 4.11). The number of public school graduates is expected to increase to 356,247 by the year 2000.

More than half (55%) of the 1990 graduates were white, nearly a quarter (23%) were Latino, fourteen percent were Asian, seven percent were black, and one percent were Native American (Figure 4.12). In the year 2000, white students will compose forty-one percent of the graduating class, Latinos thirty-six percent, and Asians seventeen percent. The black student population is expected to decrease from seven to six percent, and the Native American student population is projected to remain constant (Figure 4.13).

Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT)

Unlike CAP and AP tests, which measure academic achievement, the SAT is an "aptitude" test. SAT questions are not particularly based on high school subject matter, but are used to predict a student's degree of success during the first year of college. SAT test taker scores are displayed across a normal bell-shaped curve.

In 1992, 116,806 California students, or forty-one percent of high school seniors, took the SAT. Minorities now account for fifty-one percent of California test takers, compared to thirty-six percent in 1985.

Since 1985, Asian students' average scores have increased by thirty points, black students' scores by nine points, and white students' scores by eight points. Latino students' average scores have decreased by twenty-four points (Figure 4.14).

From 1991 to 1992, the average verbal score increased one point to 416, reversing a three-year downward trend, and the average math score increased two points to 484, the average score from 1988 through 1990 (Figure 4.15).

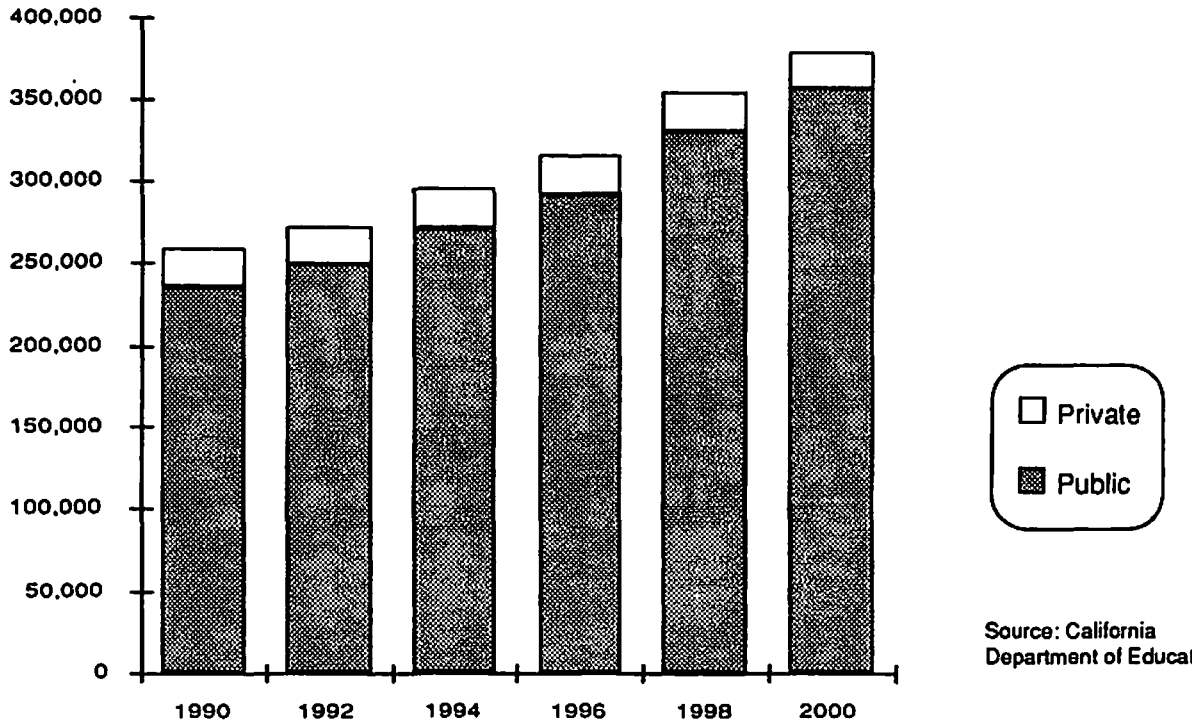
Since 1984, the percent of seniors that took the SAT with "good scores" (above 500) in math has increased 35.3 percent, from 13.6 percent to 18.4 percent. Excellent scores (above 600) increased forty percent, from 5.5 to 7.7 percent. The percent of seniors with good scores (above 450) in verbal rose from 13.9 percent to 17.4 percent, and with excellent verbal scores (above 600) increased from 2.4 percent to 3.1 percent.

Advanced Placement Examinations

Nearly a quarter (22%) of all seniors in California receive college credit through an advanced placement examination. The Advanced Placement (AP) program, sponsored by the College Board, consists of twenty-nine college-level courses and examinations in sixteen subjects. In 1992, students in forty-six percent of the nation's high schools took AP examinations.

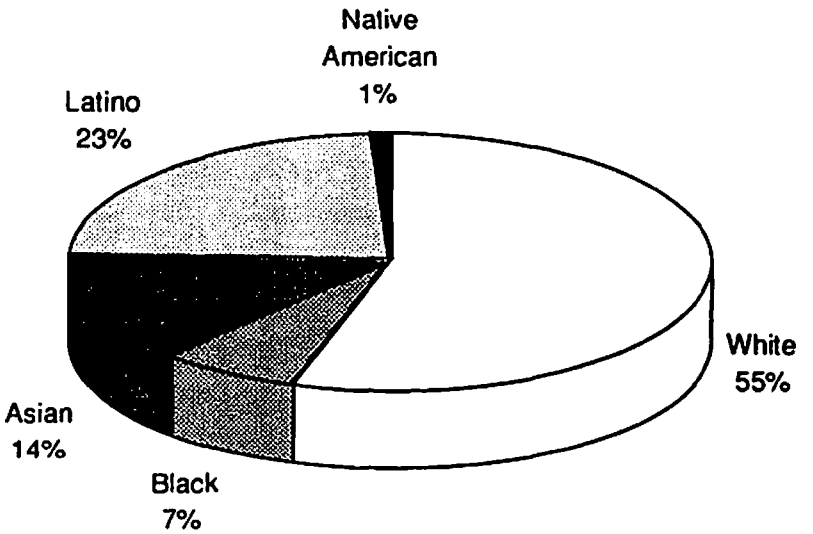
In California, 53,963 out of 260,693 students passed the AP exam compared to 49,073 out of 244,142 last year (Figure 4.16). The College Board calculates an "AP rate," based on the number of qualifying AP exams per 100 high school seniors. The rate of AP exams for California students was 20.7 in 1992. Each ethnic group's qualifying rate has improved since 1984 (Figure 4.17). Asians have by far the highest AP rate. The achievement gap between whites and other ethnic groups is shrinking.

Figure 4.11: California Public and Private High School Graduates – Projected from 1990 to 2000



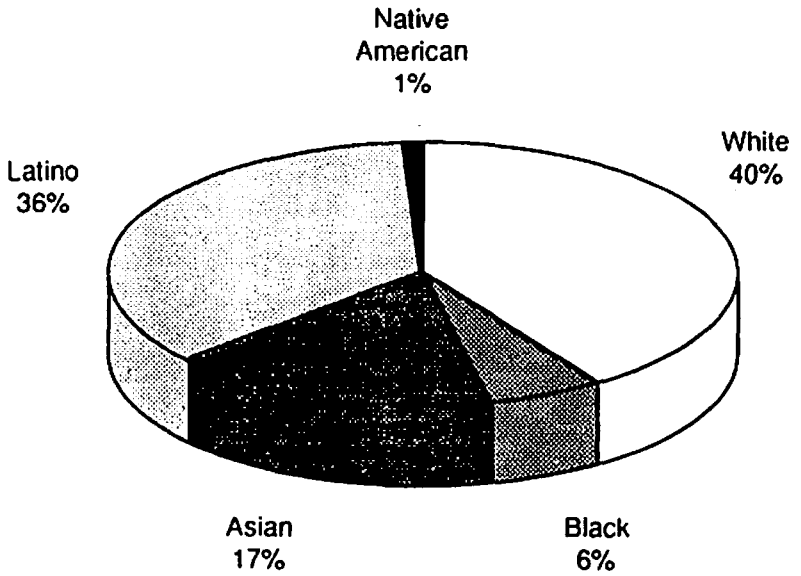
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.12: Racial/Ethnic Composition of California's Public High School Graduates in 1990



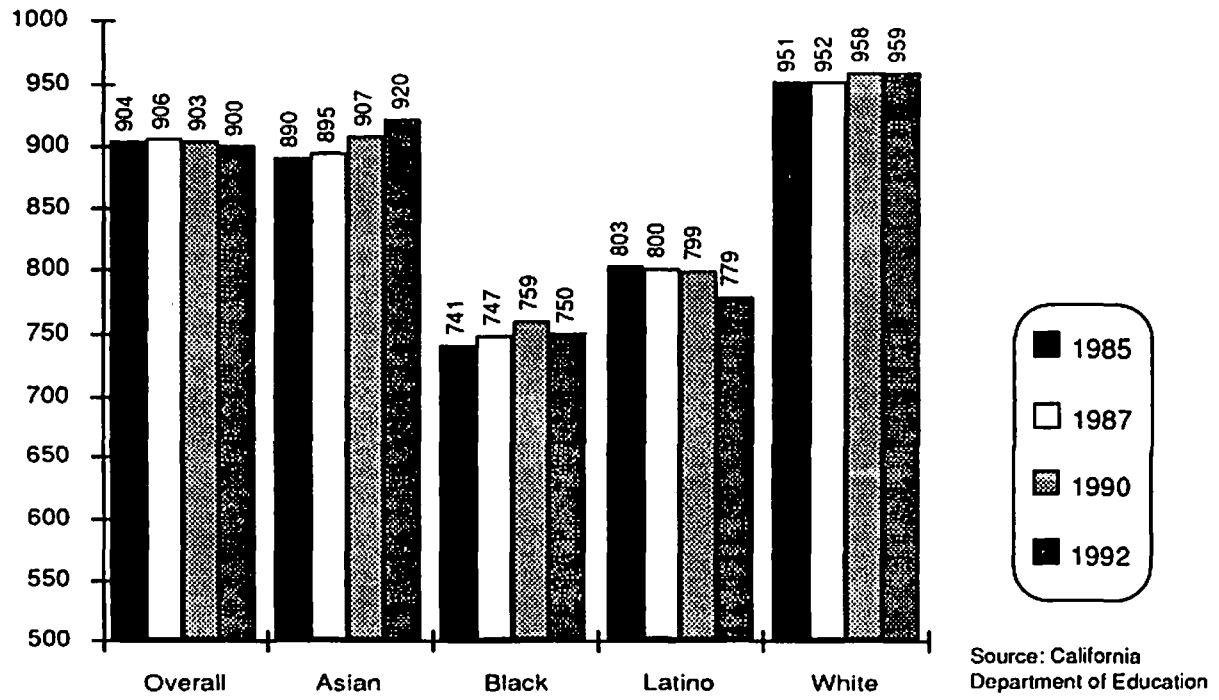
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.13: Racial/Ethnic Composition of California's Public High School Graduates in 2000 (projected)



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.14: Total Mean Scores on SAT in California for 1985, 1987, 1990, and 1992



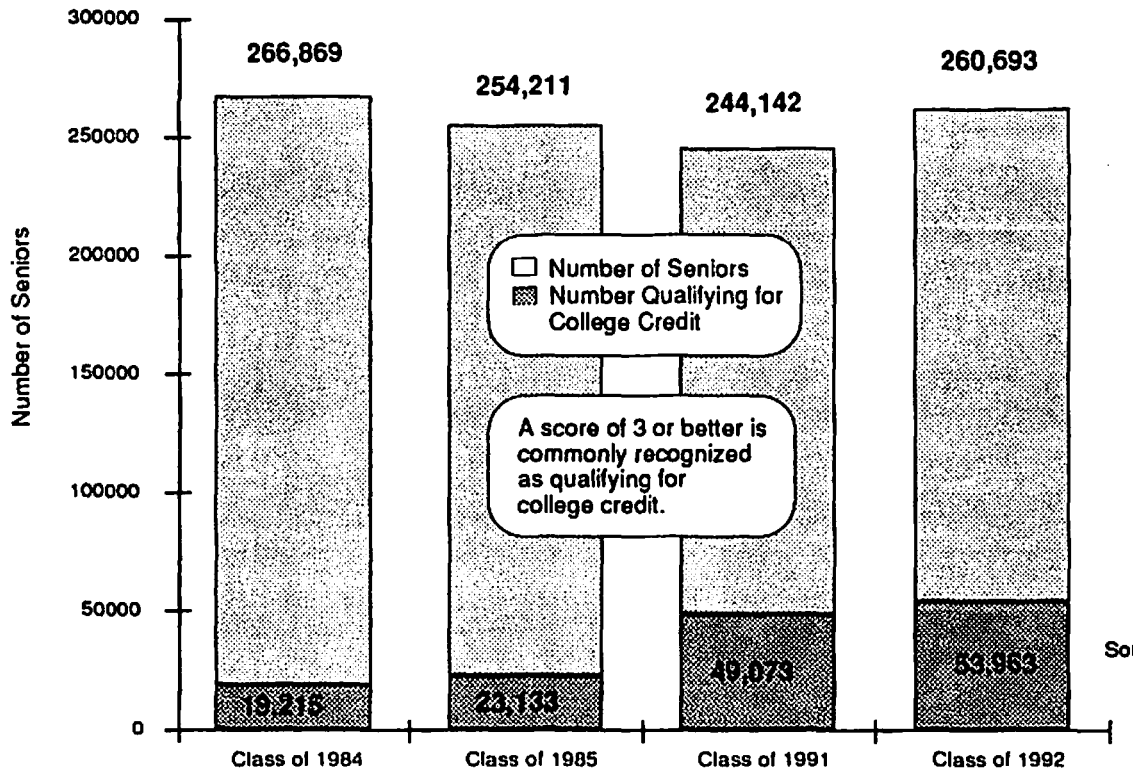
Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.15: Scholastic Aptitude Test Scores – California and the Nation from 1972-73 to 1991-92

NATIONAL			CALIFORNIA			
Verbal	Math	Year	Verbal	Math	Number Taking	% Seniors Tested
452	484	1971–72	464	493	91,595	30
445	481	1972–73	452	485	95,206	31
444	480	1973–74	450	484	98,149	32
434	472	1974–75	435	473	106,786	32
431	472	1975–76	430	470	108,644	35
429	470	1976–77	427	470	107,586	35
429	468	1977–78	427	466	111,524	36
427	467	1978–79	428	473	102,595	34
424	466	1979–80	424	472	102,723	34
424	466	1980–81	426	475	100,131	34
426	467	1981–82	425	474	102,261	33
425	468	1982–83	421	474	100,495	33
426	471	1983-84	421	476	102,358	35
431	475	1984–85	424	480	104,585	37
431	475	1985-86	423	481	108,287	38
430	476	1986-87	424	482	117,198	38
428	476	1987-88	424	484	119,784	41
427	476	1988-89	422	484	115,552	41
424	476	1989-90	419	484	112,577	42
422	474	1990-91	415	482	114,716	43
423	476	1991-92	416	484	116,806	41

Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.16: Advanced Placement – Total Number of Seniors and Number of Those Qualifying for College Credit



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 4.17: Advanced Placement Performance in California – 1991-92

	Class of 1985	*Class of 1991*	*Class of 1992*
Number of Seniors:	254,211	244,142	260,693
*AP Rate:	9.1	20.1	20.7
**Qualifying rate by ethnicity:			
Native American	3.4%	9.3	12.3
Asian	19.2	44.4	45.8
Black	1.1	3.2	3.6
Latino	2.7	11.1	11.1
White	8.6	17.2	17.7

Source: California Department of Education

* A score of 3 or better is commonly recognized as qualifying for college credit. The reported value is the number of AP exams, per 100 seniors, with a score of 3 or better. The national numbers are estimates.

** California AP data by ethnicity not available until 1985. National data by ethnicity for 1992 not yet available.

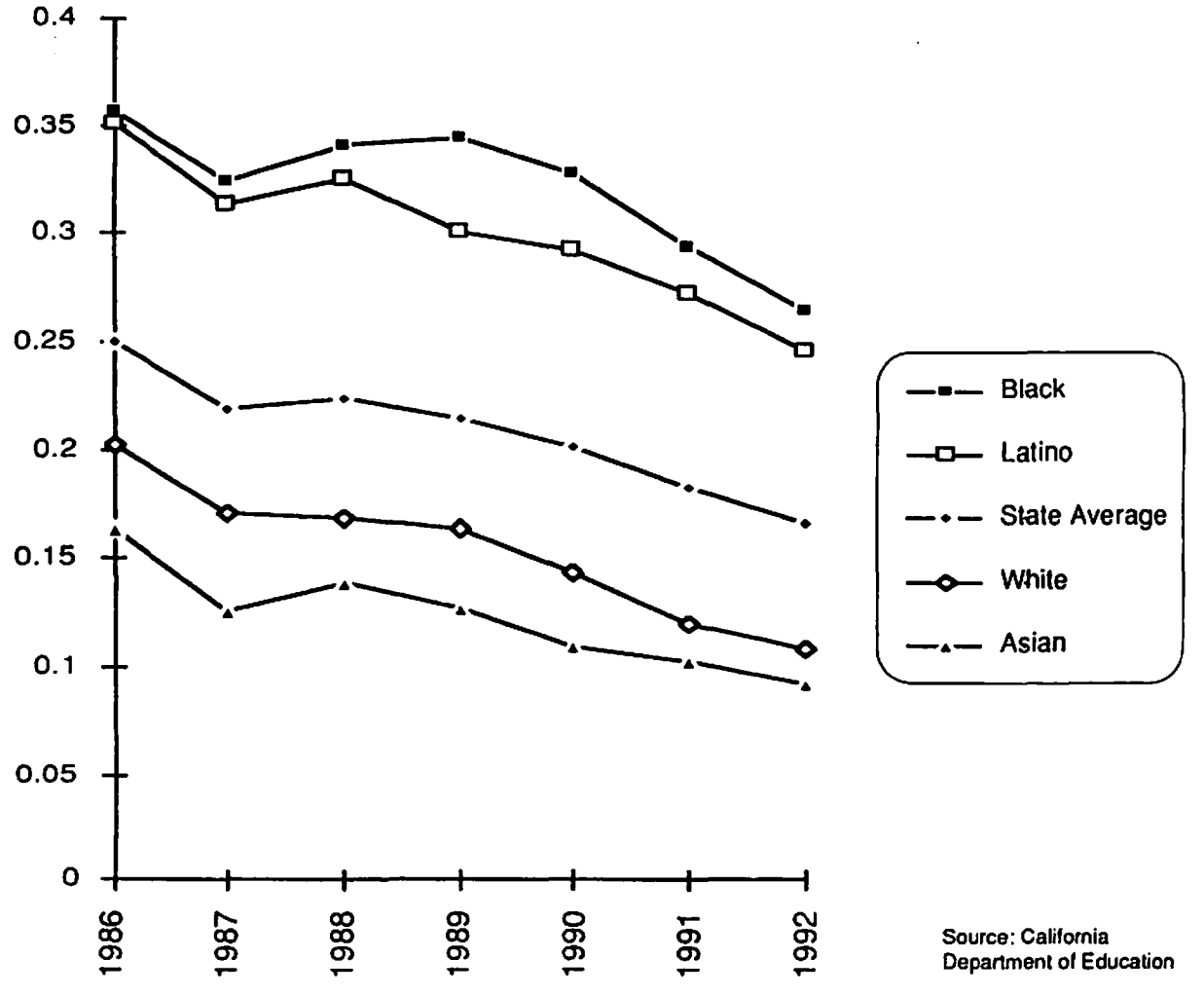
Dropout Rate

The statewide average dropout rate fell almost two percentage points, from 18.2 percent in 1991 to 16.6 percent in 1992 (Figure 4.18). Dropout figures statewide declined by more than thirty percent (33.6%) between 1986 and 1992. Dropout rates for each ethnic group decreased as well. However, there remains a large gap between current dropout rates for whites (10.8%) and Asians (9.2%) and those for blacks (26.4%) and Latinos (24.5%).

College Course Taking and Grade Point Average

Both the University of California (UC) and the California State University (CSU) Systems require a specific sequence of academic high school courses for eligibility for admission. The UC admission sequence is called the "A-F" requirements. Less than one-third (31%) of all California high school graduates completed the "A-F" requirements in 1990 (Figure 4.19). Nearly half (48%) of all Asian graduates completed "A-F" require-

Figure 4.18: Dropout Rate By Ethnicity and State Average – 1986 to 1992



Source: California Department of Education

ments compared with 33.2 percent of white graduates, 25.4 percent of black graduates, and 19.5 percent of Latino graduates. Taking into account general UC admission requirements (for example A-F and SAT scores), 18 percent of all California graduates were eligible for admission in 1990 (Figure 4.20). One-third of graduates (34%) were eligible for California State University admissions (Figure 4.21).

The high school graduate grade point average for California seniors in 1990 was 2.68 on a 4.0 scale. Grade point averages (GPAs) increased from 1986-1990 for Asians to 3.11, whites to 2.74, Latinos to 2.44, and blacks to 2.33. Latinos' GPA remained constant at 2.44 (Figure 4.22).

Figure 4.19: Percent of California Public High School Graduates Completing "A-F" Course Sequence by Racial/ Ethnic Group – 1986 and 1990

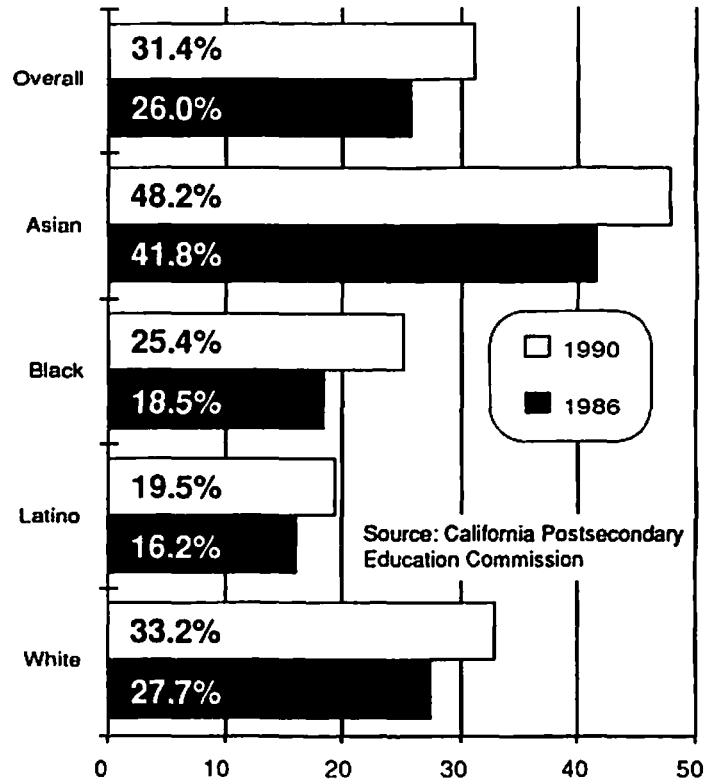
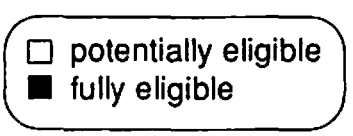
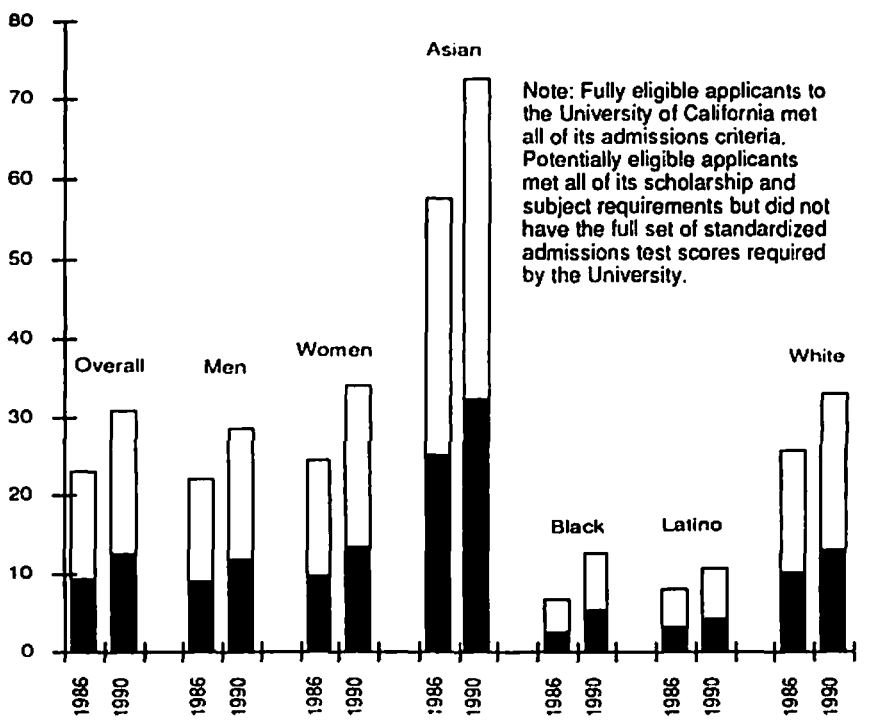


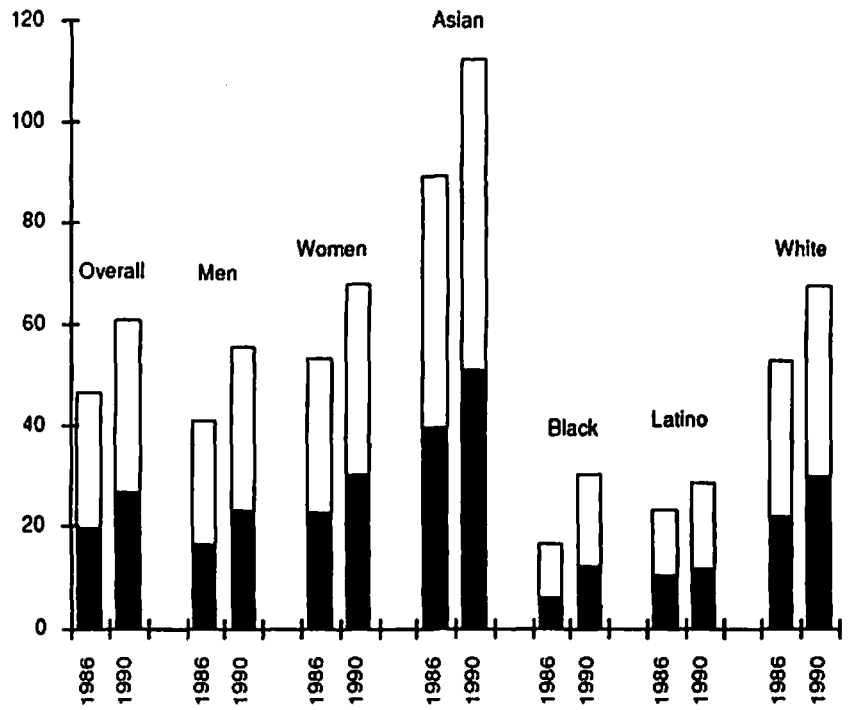
Figure 4.20: Percent of California Public High School Graduates Eligible for Admission to University of California by Category of Eligibility, Gender, and Major Racial/ Ethnic Group – 1986 and 1990





Source: California Postsecondary Education Commission

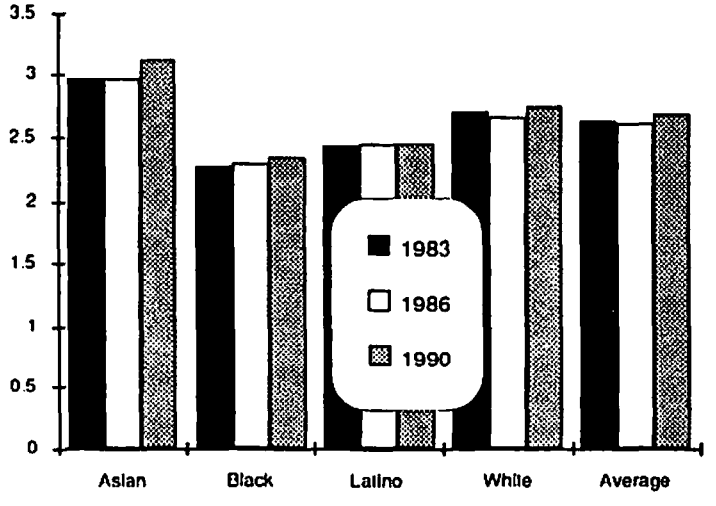
Figure 4.21: Percent of California Public High School Graduates Eligible for Admission to California State University by Category of Eligibility, Gender, and Major Racial/Ethnic Group – 1986 and 1990



Note: Students may gain admission to the State University by making a high enough grade-point average in required high school courses but may also be admitted under the State University's "Eligibility Index" if they have a somewhat lower grade-point average but score high enough on admission tests.

Source: California Postsecondary Education Commission

Figure 4.22: Estimated Grade-Point Average of California High School Graduates Based on 10th, 11th, and 12th Year Grades of Studies' Samples – 1983, 1986, and 1990



Source: California Postsecondary Education Commission

Conclusion

Gauging California student achievement is somewhat handicapped, temporarily, by the phased-in-implementation of the new California Learning Assessment System (CLAS). However, once in place, CLAS is anticipated to be a state-of-the-art performance-based assessment tool.

An examination of student assessment data currently available - 8th grade California Assessment Program (CAP) scores, as well as SAT and AP results, reveals a trend of performance disparity along racial and ethnic lines. A continuing challenge to California educators will be to undertake efforts to close these gaps.

Notes

Chapter 5

Finance

Highlights:

- California spent $27.5 billion on K-12 education in 1992-93.
- Actual per-pupil K-12 spending in inflation-adjusted dollars increased just 6.2 percent from 1984-85 to 1992-93.
- California continues to spend less per pupil than other industrialized states and less than the national average.
- The percentage of revenues for K-12 education contributed by local sources increased slightly in 1992-93. However, the state continues to contribute the largest share of dollars for education.
- More than eighty-five percent of school district general fund expenditures are encompassed by employee salaries and benefits.
- The average cost of a California school was approximately $3 million in 1990-91.

Funding K-12 education is California's single largest fiscal undertaking. The Legislative Analyst estimates that, for the 1992-93 school year, total public school funding will be $27.54 billion (Figure 5.1). Since 1984, total education funding has risen from $15.3 billion to $27.5 billion, an increase of nearly eighty percent. Funding per pupil has increased over the same period by a total of $1,517.

However, when adjusted for inflation, the increases per student appear much less significant. Figure 5.2 shows that per pupil funding for the period 1984-85 through 1993-94 will increase only $216, or 6.2 percent. In addition, decreases in per pupil inflation-adjusted dollars occurred in 1990-91 and 1991-92, and a decrease is projected for 1993-94 (Figure 5.3). Moreover, California's annual per pupil expenditure of $4,627 places the state well behind other larger industrial states and, indeed, well below the national average (Figure 5.4).

Figure 5.1: Total K-12 Education Revenues, Nominal and Real – 1982-83 to 1993-94

TOTAL FUNDING IN CURRENT DOLLARS

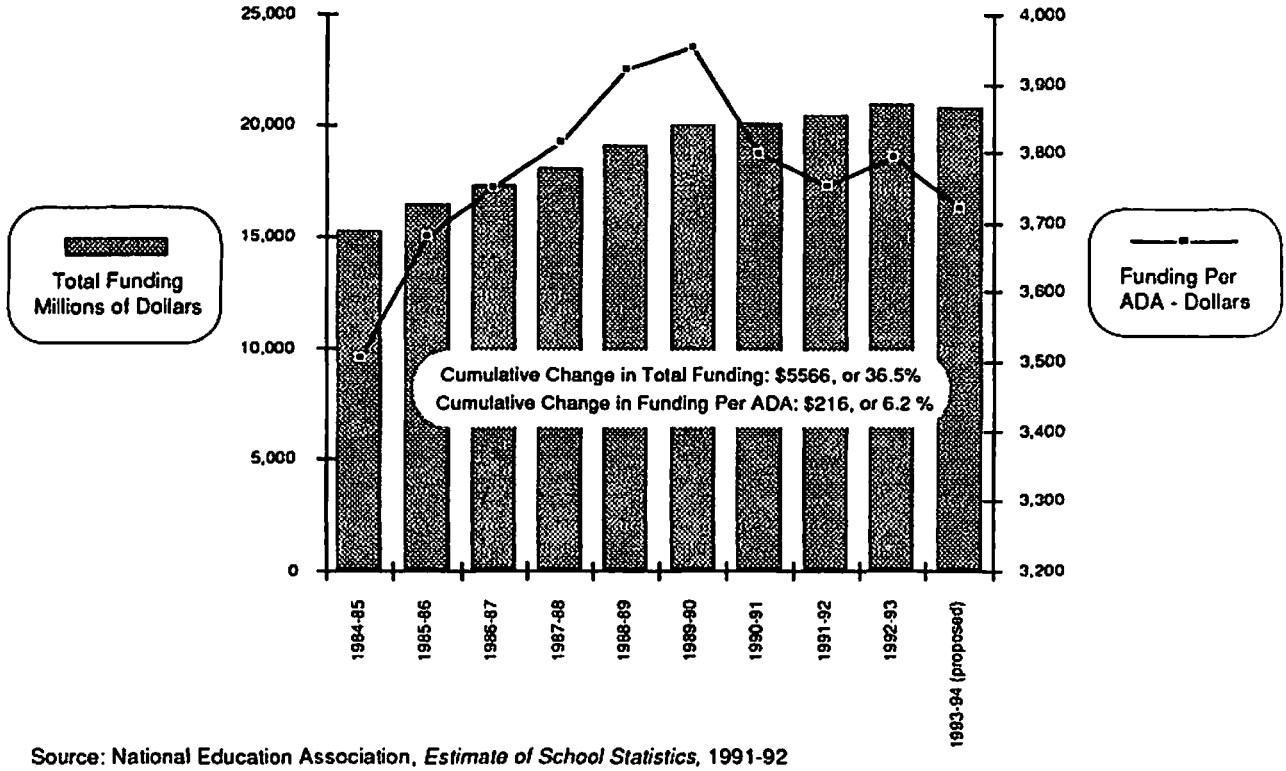
Year	Total Funding (millions)	ADA (thousands)	Per ADA	% Change Nominal
1984-85	15,251	4,353	3,504	10.0
1985-86	17,085	4,470	3,822	9.1
1986-87	18,535	4,612	4,019	5.2
1987-88	20,121	4,723	4,260	6.6
1988-89	22,229	4,872	4,563	6.5
1989-90	24,168	5,060	4,777	4.3
1990-91	25,164	5,273	4,773	1.5
1991-92	26,161	5,438	4,881	2.2
1992-93	27,538	5,521	4,988	1.0
1993-94	28,096	5,595	5,021	0.7

CUMULATIVE CHANGE

Amount	14,272.4	1,222,584	1,946	***
Percent	112.7%	28.9%	65.0%	***

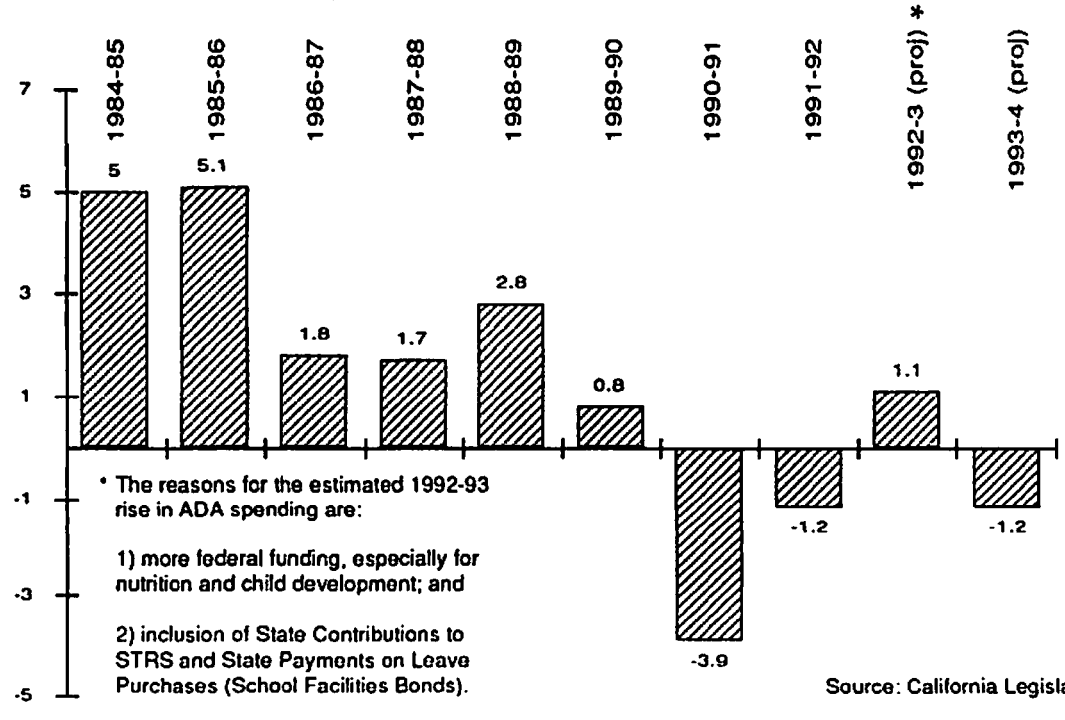
Source: California Legislative Analyst

Figure 5.2: Constant (1984) Dollar Funding Per ADA from 1984-85 to 1993-94



Source: National Education Association, *Estimate of School Statistics*, 1991-92

Figure 5.3: Percent Change in California's Educational Revenue Per ADA 1984-94 – Constant (1984) Dollars



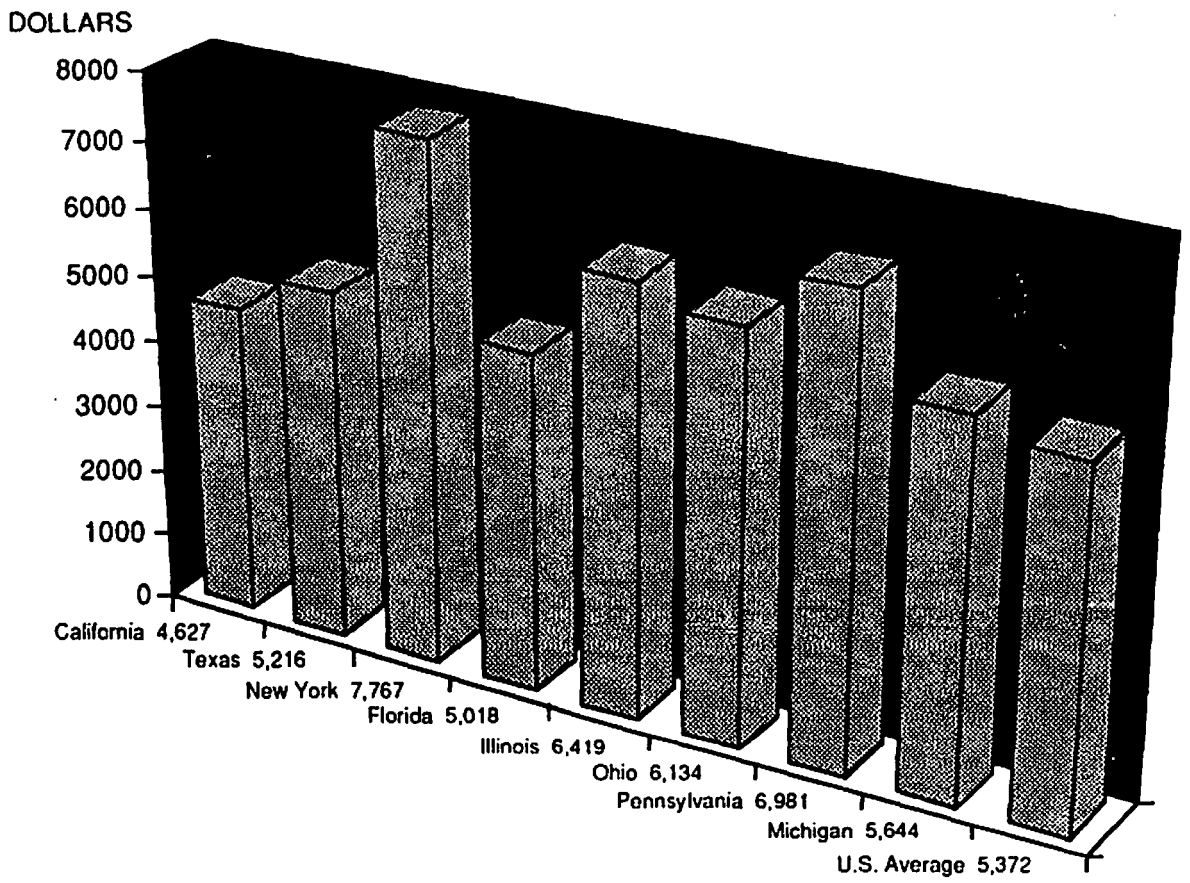
Source: California Legislative Analyst

Sources of Dollars

California public school revenues are derived from federal, state, and local sources (Figure 5.5). State funds continue to provide the bulk of money for K-12 education, though in 1992-93 the percentage contributed by the state in comparison to other sources declined slightly (from 61.3% to 58%), while local revenue contributions increased (from 21.2% to 26%). Funding from all sources has increased by a total of 80.6 percent since 1984-85. As Figure 5.6 demonstrates, state general funds is the category which has increased least, while local property tax levies have increased the most. Lottery funds contributed only two cents on every education dollar in 1992-93.

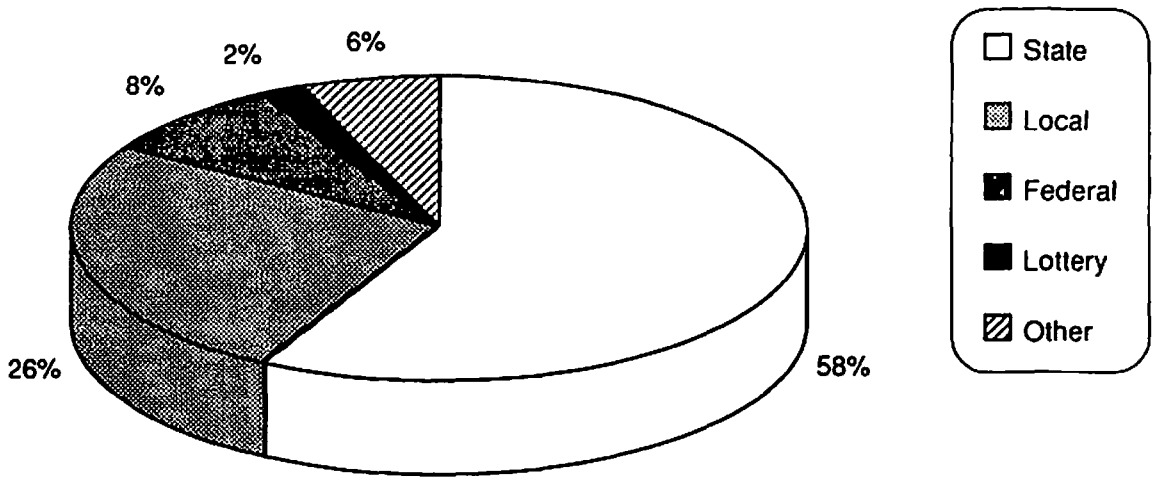
Figure 5.7 displays the distribution of state funds spent on categorical programs. As can be seen, special education funding consumes the lion's share, at more than $1.5 billion.

Figure 5.4: Estimated Current Expenditures Per Pupil in ADA by State – 1992-93



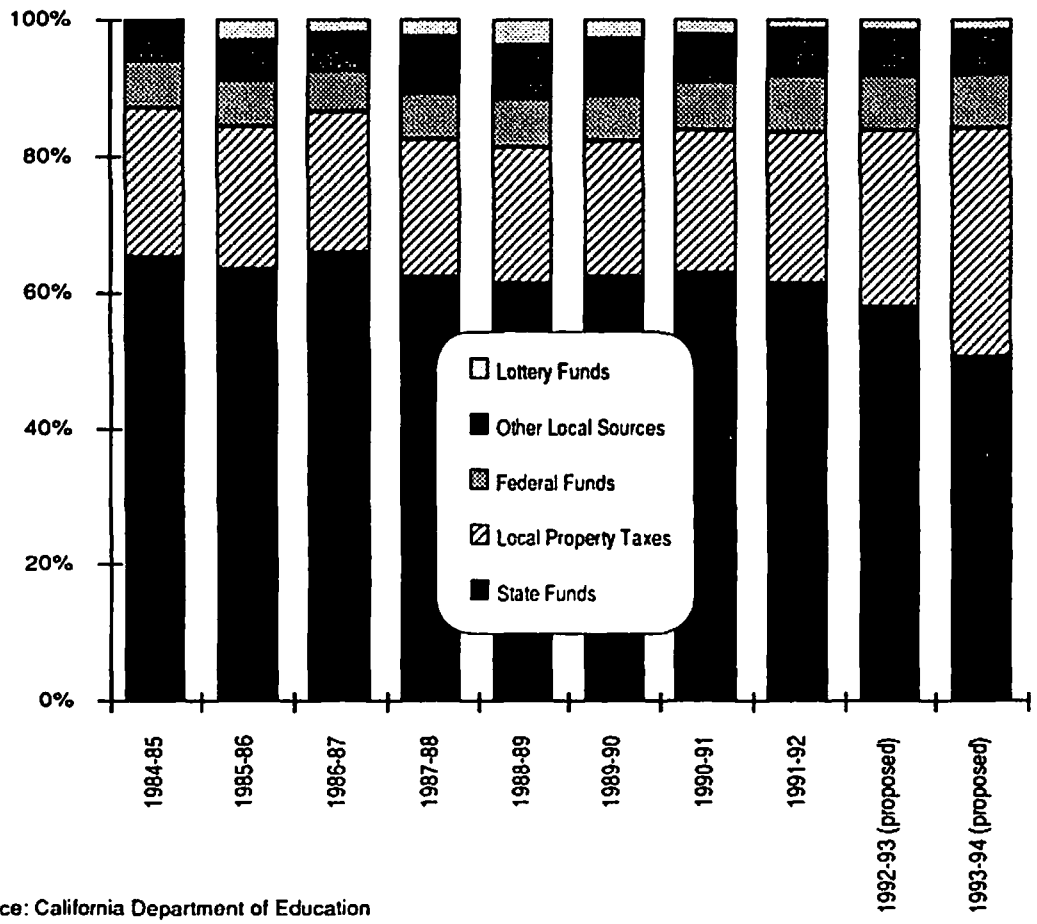
Source: National Education Association *Estimate of School Statistics*, 1991

Figure 5.5: California Percent Revenues for K-12 Education by Source – 1992-93



Source: California Legislative Analyst

Figure 5.6: K-12 Education Funding By Funding Source – 1984-85 to 1993-94



Source: California Department of Education

Figure 5.7: State Categorical Programs

Program	1991-92 Millions	1992-93 Millions
Special Education	$1,532.195	$1,532.880
Desegregation (Court Ordered $420.339 Voluntary $80.631)	513.631	500.970
Child Development, Preschool	415.150	409.216
Transportation (including Special Education)	340.282	332.773
SIP (School Improvement Program)	328.490	321.241
EIA (Economic Impact Aid)	304.571	297.850
Adult Education	302.094	294.658
ROC/P (Regional Occupational Centers/Programs)	248.496	244.173
Supplemental Grants	185.400	181.309
Instructional Materials	131.174	131.213
Mentor Teachers	71.454	68.877
Child Nutrition	64.891	61.503
Year-Round School Incentives	58.211	58.883
GATE (Gifted and Talented Education)	32.632	31.912
Staff Development	27.445	31.741
Class Size Reduction	32.604	30.316
Tobacco Use Prevention Programs	21.274	24.416
Deferred Maintenance	23.000	22.492
Miller-Unruh Reading	22.409	21.915
Healthy Start	20.000	14.728
Educational Technology	13.977	13.581
Dropout/High Risk Youth Programs	12.089	11.822
Restructuring Grants		13.000
Pupil Testing		11.760
Vocational Education	7.479	8.912
Tenth Grade Counseling	8.298	8.115
Administrator Training/Evaluation	5.592	5.469
Beginning Teacher	1.000	4.898
Demonstration Programs Reading/Math	4.707	4.603
Specialized Secondary School Programs	2.264	3.714
Partnership Academies	.516	3.327
Small District Bus Replacement	3.400	3.325
Agriculture Vocational Education Incentive	3.233	3.162
Indian Education Programs/Centers	2.306	2.264

Plus other programs under $2 million

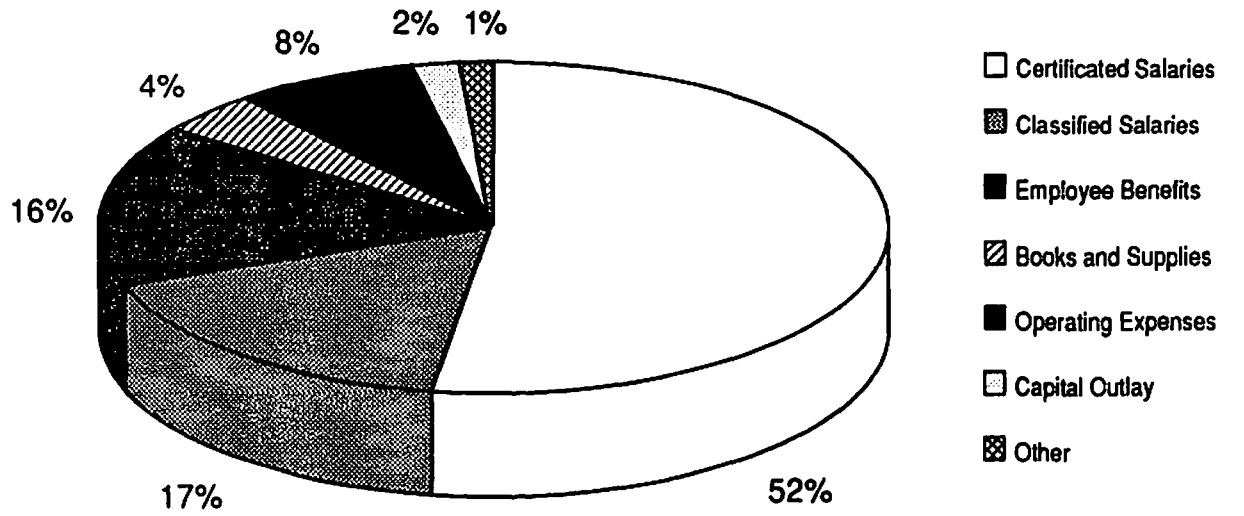
Source: *EdSource*

Figure 5.8: The Average Costs of a California School – 1990-91

COST CATEGORY	DOLLARS IN THOUSANDS	PERCENT OF TOTAL
CLASSROOM COSTS	**$1,935**	**64%**
Teachers	1,538	51%
26 regular teachers		
3 special education teachers		
Instructional Aides	139	5%
4 regular aides		
3 special education aides		
Pupil Support	89	3%
1.7 counselors, psychologists, nurses		
Books, Supplies, Equipment	169	5%
$2,500 per classroom for books and supplies		
$3,700 per classroom for instructional equipment and other costs		
SCHOOL SITE COSTS	**$910**	**29.7%**
Buildings	330	10.9%
6 custodians, painters, gardeners; utilities, maintenance, supplies		
Food	115	3.8%
2 cafeteria workers; food, supplies		
Transportation	103	3%
2 bus drivers; buses, fuel, supplies		
Instructional Support	140	5%
0.8 curriculum specialists, curriculum supervisors, librarians		
1.4 library aides, media technicians		
School Site Leadership and Support	222	7%
1.3 school principals, vice principals		
2.9 secretaries, clerical support		
DISTRICT/COUNTY COSTS	**178**	**5.9 %**
District Administration	161	5.3%
0.9 district administrators		
1.6 secretaries, clerical support; supplies equipment, and other costs, such as insurance, legal, and auditing services		
County Oversight	17	0.6%
0.3 county office level staff members; equipment, office supplies		
CALIFORNIA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION	**11**	**0.4%**
0.16 state level administrators and instructional support staff per school; office supplies equipment, personal service contracts and travel		
TOTAL COSTS	**$3,035**	**100%**

Source: California Department of Education

Figure 5.9: California School District General Fund Expenditures by Category – 1992-93



Source: California Department of Education

The Cost of A California School

Figure 5.8 presents 1990-91 average K-12 expenditures on a per school basis. The numbers represent a statewide average for all schools, thus merging data for elementary, middle, and high schools. The figure shows that California spends nearly two-thirds of its education dollars on classroom costs. More than half of school costs (51%) are spent on regular and specialized teachers. Instructional aides and pupil support personnel constitute eight percent of other school costs, while five percent is spent on books and supplies. The costs of a California school, in percentage terms, have remained virtually unchanged since 1985-86.

Where the Money Goes

The majority of California school expenditures are contributed to teachers' salaries. In total, salaries and benefits for teachers, administrators, support personnel, and other certificated and classified staff account for more than eighty-five percent of school district general fund expenditures (Figure 5.9). The relative amounts spent by California school districts on instructional, support, and noninstructional services have remained constant over the past seven years.

Conclusion

California's financial investment in its system of public education continues to be, at best, modest. The state spends less per pupil than other large industrialized states, such as New York, Texas, and Pennsylvania, and spends more than $700 per pupil less than the national average. Given California's current economic projections, and the continuing reliance on *state* sources of revenue to fund schools, this picture may not change anytime soon.

Chapter 6

System Characteristics

Highlights:

- Nearly half of California school districts (46.9 %) have 1000 or fewer students.
- The median enrollment in California's ten largest public school districts is 57,000 students; in the ten smallest, median enrollment is sixteen.
- The number of candidates recommended for multiple and single subject teaching credentials continued to rise between 1990-91 and 1991-92.
- California's new teachers are increasingly white and non-minority.
- California's class sizes continue to be the second highest in the nation.

The environment in which California students work and learn is both diverse and complex. Nearly 500,000 education professionals and support personnel were employed by California school districts in 1990-91 (Figure 6.1). The number of classified employees rose by a total of 5,914 persons between 1990-91 and 1991-92, with part-time employment showing the greatest increase, while the number of full-time employees declined. Current year (1991-92) certificated staff numbers are not available since, as a result of budget cuts, the State Education Department did not collect these data.

Figure 6.1: California School District Employees – 1990-1991

Certificated:	1990-91	1991-92
Administrators	18,543	*
Classroom Teachers	219,353	*
"Other" Certificated	15,903	*
Total Certificated	**253,799**	

Classified:	1990-91	1991-92
Full-time	121,238	120,886
Part-time	112,135	118,401
Total Classified	**233,873**	**239,287**
Total Education Employees	**487,672**	*

* Due to budget cuts, the California State Department of Education was not able to collect information pertaining to administrators, teachers, or "other" certificated personnel in 1991-92.

Source: California Department of Education

New Teachers

The number of multiple and single subject teaching credentials issued in 1991-92 to first time credential holders showed a dramatic increase over the previous year (Figure 6.2). The multiple subject credential authorizes the holder to teach self-contained classes in grades kindergarten through twelve, and is most often sought by elementary teachers; the single subject credential is generally sought by secondary educators.

Figure 6.2: Where California's New Teachers* are Educated

SYSTEM	YEAR	
	1990-91	1991-92
CSU		
Multiple Subject	2,594	3,237
Single Subject	1,430	1,544
CSU Total	4,024	4,781
UC		
Multiple Subject	309	382
Single Subject	259	276
UC Total	568	658
INDEPENDENT		
Multiple Subject	1,357	1,800
Single Subject	630	758
IND Total	1,987	2,558
GRAND TOTALS:	6,579	7,997

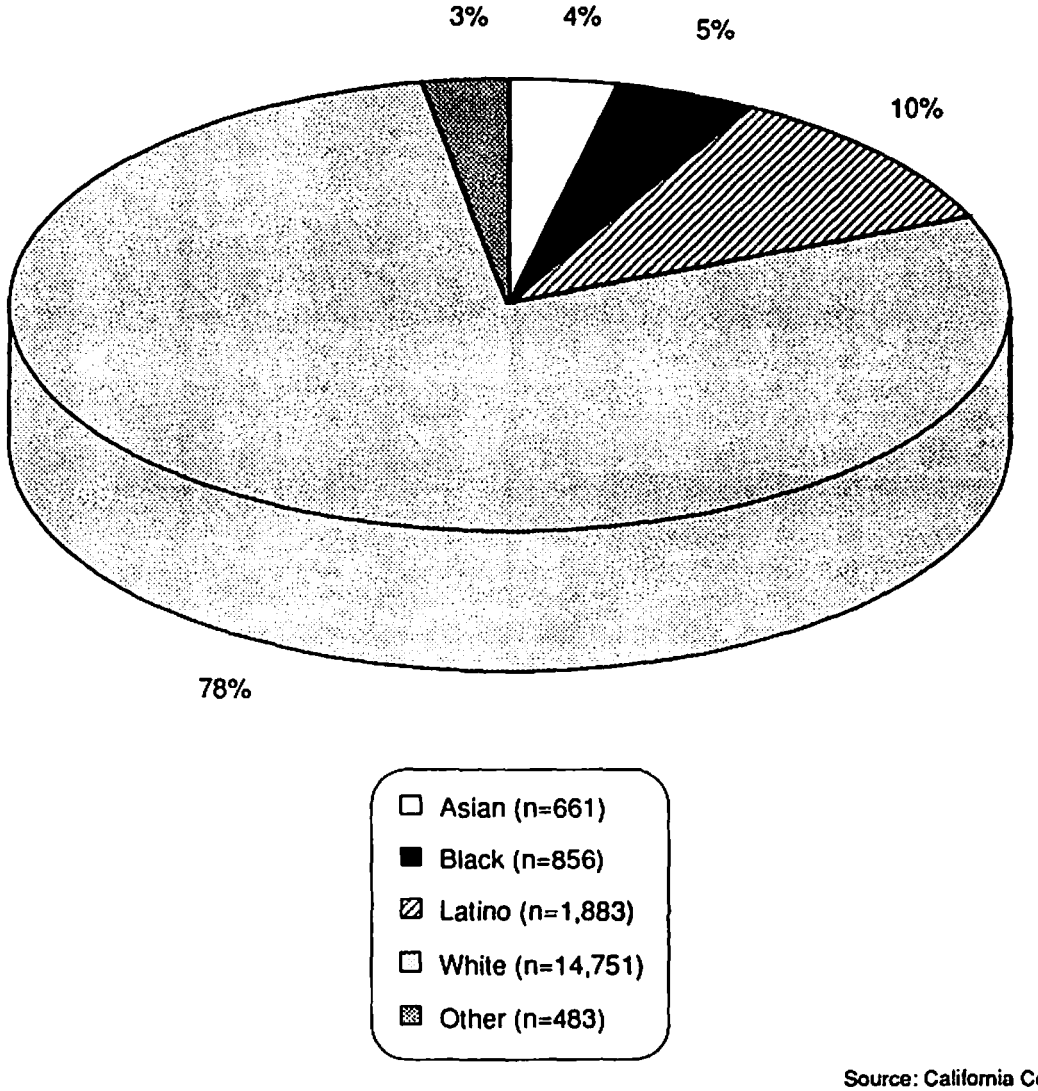
Source: California Department of Education

* First-time credential-holder

The vast majority of first-time applicants for single and multiple subject credentials—more than sixty percent—were graduates of the California State University System. Independent schools and colleges trained nearly a third (32%) of California's new teachers. The University of California system prepared just eight percent.

Despite the increasing racial and ethnic diversity of California's student population, the racial and ethnic composition of the state's teacher credential candidates continues to be overwhelmingly white (Figure 6.3). The largest percentage of 1991-92 non-white credential candidates were Latinos (at 10%), followed by blacks (5%), Asian (4%), and then other minority group members.

Figure 6.3: Ethnic/Racial Distribution of New Teacher Credential Candidates – Fall, 1991



Source: California Commission on Teacher Credentialing

Curriculum

Figures 6.4 through 6.7 display information about California's curriculum frameworks and college admission requirements, high school graduation requirements, and course requirements for admission to the University of California and California State University systems.

California's curriculum frameworks continue to serve as national models. The state has developed comprehensive curriculum frameworks in seven basic subject areas. In 1991-92, the State Board of Education published an updated schedule for adopting the statewide curriculum frameworks and instructional materials through the year 2000 (Figure 6.4). With the implementation of the Mathematics Curriculum Framework in 1991-92, the revised schedule for framework completion now includes Health (1992, 1999), English-Language Arts (1993), Visual and Performing Arts (1994), History-Social Science (1995), Foreign Language (1996), Science (1997), and Mathematics (1998).

High School graduation requirements, which serve as minimums to local school districts, were developed in 1983 and have remained unchanged since that time.

Figure 6.4: State Curriculum Frameworks Implementation Schedule

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
English-Language Arts/ESL				3	2		1		2		2
Visual and Performing Arts					3	2		1		2	
History-Social Science	1			2		3 2		2	1		2
Foreign Language		1				2	3	2		1	
Science			1		2		2	3	2		1
Health			3			1		2		3 2	
Mathematics		3			1		2		3 2		2

1 - Primary Adoption; 2 - Follow-up Adoption; 3 - Year of Framework Completion

Source: California Department of Education

Figure 6.5: State of California Minimum Requirements for High School Graduation

- 3 years of English
- 2 years of mathematics
- 2 years of science (includes both biological and physical sciences)
- 3 years of social studies (includes U.S. history and geography and World history, culture, and geography)
- 1 semester of American government and civics
- 1 semester of economics
- 1 year in either foreign language or the visual and performing arts
- 2 years of physical education
- Other course work as specified by local governing board

Source: California Department of Education

Figure 6.6: Course Requirements for Admission to the University of California – 1992–93

- 4 years of English
- 3 years of mathematics (4 years recommended)
- 1 year of U.S. history (1/2 year may be civics or American government)
- 1 year of laboratory science (3 years recommended)
- 2 years of one foreign language (3 years recommended)
- 4 years of college preparatory elective courses chosen from at least two of the following areas: history, English, advanced mathematics, laboratory science, foreign language, social science, and the visual and performing arts.

Source: University of California, Office of the President

Figure 6.7: Course Requirements for Admission to the California State University System – 1992–93

- 4 years of English
- 3 years of mathematics
- 1 year of U.S. history and government
- 1 year of laboratory science
- 2 years of foreign language
- 1 year of visual and performing arts
- 3 years of elective courses, selected from English, advanced mathematics, social studies, history, laboratory science, agriculture, foreign language, and the visual and performing arts.

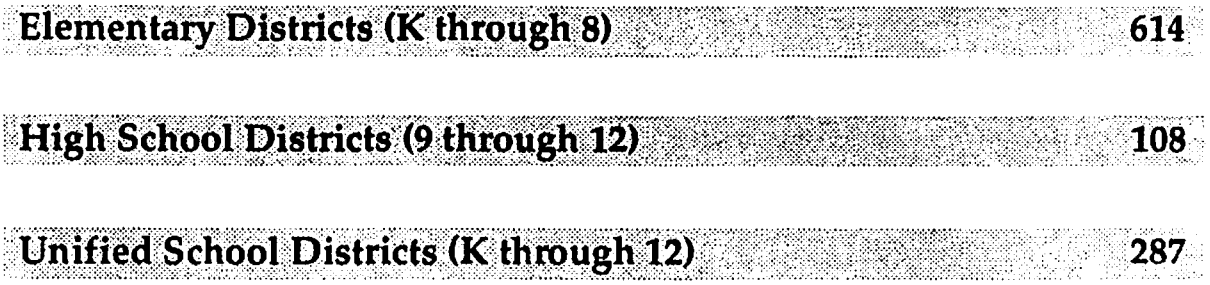
Source: California State University, Office of the Chancellor

District Size

The total number of California public school districts remained the same in 1991-92. Most districts—614, or sixty-one percent—were elementary (K-8) districts (Figure 6.8). Nearly half of California school districts (46.9%) now enroll fewer than 1000 students (Figure 6.9).

Nine out of ten of the largest California school districts increased in size in 1991-92. Los Angeles Unified School District, the largest district in the state, enrolled more than half a million more students than its nearest counterpart. The ten smallest public school districts in the state, by comparison, enrolled a total of 153 students (Figure 6.10).

Figure 6.8: Types of Districts – 1991-92



Total: 1,009

Source: California Department of Education

Figure 6.9: Size of Districts – 1991-92

	Number of Districts	Percent of Districts	Number of Students (ADA)
Under 500 Students	355	33.36%	67,556
500 to 1,000	144	13.53%	90,825
1,001 to 15,000	488	45.86%	2,200,573
15,001 to 50,000	70	6.57%	1,628,937
Over 50,000 Students	7	.66%	1,073,487
Total:	1,064		5,061,378

Source: California Department of Education

Education Governance

Figure 6.11 displays a "map" of California's state level system of education governance. As can be seen, both the executive and legislative branches play significant roles.

At the executive branch level, the governor's office, the state superintendent of public instruction (an elected constitutional officer), and the state board of education (an appointed body with new powers as a result of a 1993 state Supreme Court decision) play key roles in the development of education policy. The independent Commission on Teacher Credentialing oversees the licensure of teachers, administrators, and other education personnel.

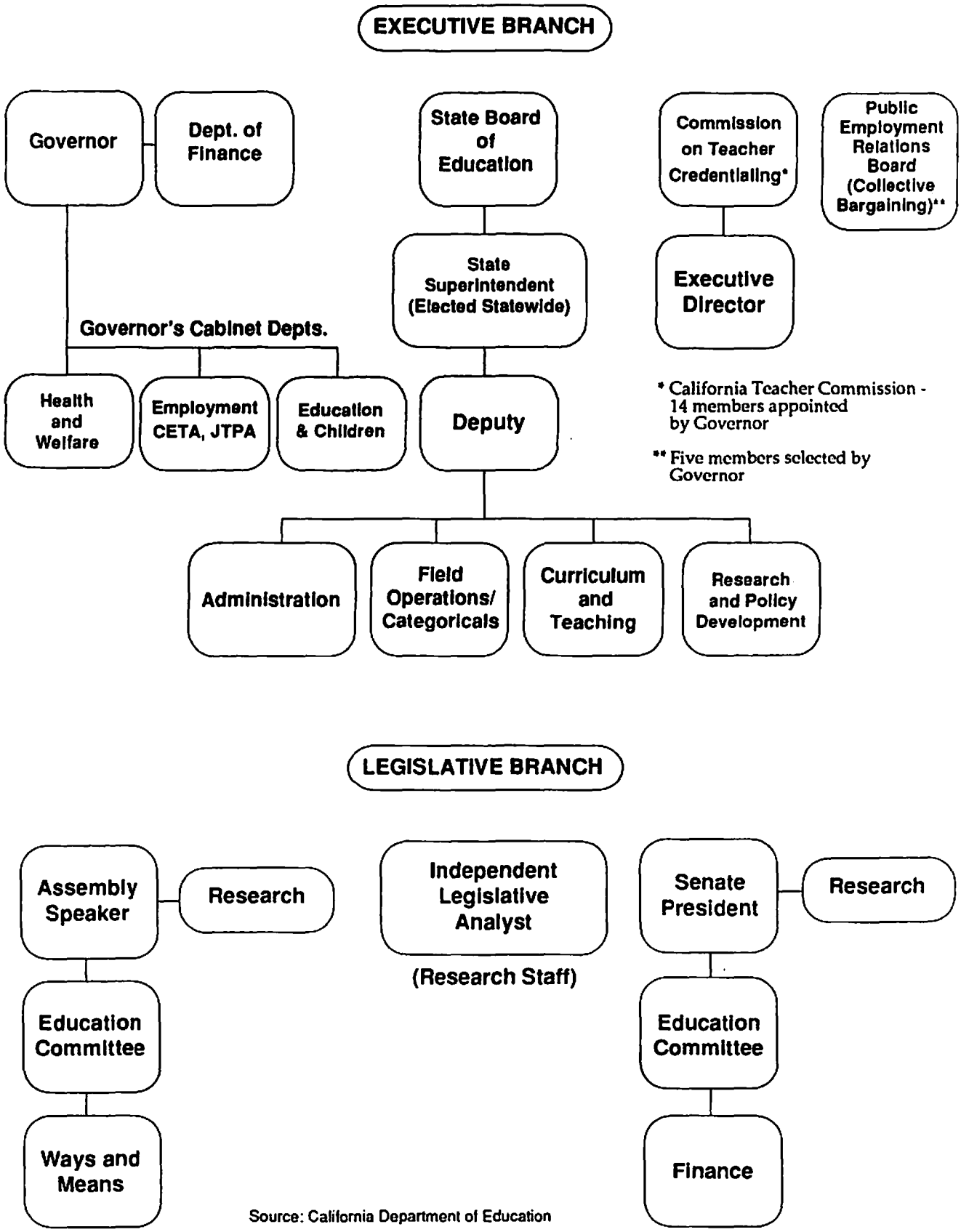
In the legislature, the Assembly and Senate Education Committees and the fiscal committees - Assembly Ways and Means and Senate Finance - hold sway over education policy.

Figure 6.10: California's Ten Largest and Ten Smallest Public School Districts – 1991–92

Rank	County	District	Enrollment
1	Los Angeles	Los Angeles Unified	636,964
2	San Diego	San Diego City Unified	123,591
3	Fresno	Fresno Unified	74,693
4	Los Angeles	Long Beach Unified	74,048
5	San Francisco	San Francisco Unified	61,689
6	Alameda	Oakland Unified	51,698
7	Sacramento	Sacramento City Unified	50,804
8	Sacramento	San Juan Unified	47,700
9	Orange	Santa Ana Unified	47,548
10	San Bernadino	San Bernadino City Unified	43,016
⬇			
1000	Siskiyou	Sawyers Bar Elementary	19
1001	Marin	Lincoln Elementary	18
1002	Tehama	Flournoy Union Elementary	18
1003	Siskiyou	Little Shasta Elementary	17
1004	Humboldt	Maple Creek Elementary	16
1005	San Benito	Jefferson Elementary	16
1006	Sonoma	Reservation Elementary	16
1007	San Benito	Panoche Elementary	15
1008	Stanislaus	La Grange Elementary	13
1009	Kern	Blake Elementary	5

Source: California Department of Education

Figure 6.11: Map of the California State Education Governance System



Source: California Department of Education

Where California Stands

California continues to maintain the second highest class sizes in the nation (Figure 6.12). Only Utah's classes are larger. Average pupil-teacher ratios, of course, are misleading as they do not take into account necessarily small classes, such as special education and Advanced Placement. Average class sizes in core academic subjects - English, mathematics, science and social science - remain high (Figure 6.13)

Figure 6.14 displays California compared with the rest of the nation on a number of dimensions. As can be seen, for example, California ranks fairly high in terms of teachers' salaries and per capita income, but quite low - 36th - in per pupil expenditures.

Figure 6.12: Average Pupil-Teacher Ratio in California Public Schools – 1985-92

	85-86	86-87	87-88	88-89	89-90	90-91	91-92
Elementary Schools	24.3	24.3	24.2	24.4	24.2	24.2	*
Secondary Schools	23.9	23.5	23.4	23.5	23.1	23.4	*

Source: California Department of Education

Figure 6.13: Average Class Size in Selected Secondary Courses in California Public Schools – 1985-92

	85-86	86-87	87-88	88-89	89-90	90-91	91-92
English	27.3	26.9	26.6	26.9	26.9	27.2	*
Mathematics	29.0	28.8	28.4	28.6	28.9	29.1	*
Science	28.9	28.9	28.1	28.1	28.2	28.4	*
Social Science	29.9	29.4	29.1	29.1	29.1	29.3	*

Source: California Department of Education

*Due to budget cuts, the California State Department of Education was not able to collect information pertaining to teachers or teacher-related characteristics in 1991-92.

Figure 6.14: Rankings for California – 1991-92

	Rank in US	California Average	US Average
Teachers' Salaries	7	$40,192	$34,413
Number of pupils enrolled per teacher	48	23.1	17.3
Expenditures per K-12 pupil (ADA)	36	$4,686	$5,452
Public school revenue (1989-90) per $1,000 personal income	44	$39	$45
Per capita personal income (1990)	9	$20,677	$18,691
Per capita expenditures:			
State & local government (89-90)	11	$3,721	$3,343
Public welfare (89-90)	10	501	431
Health & Hospitals (89-90)	15	336	300
Police protection (89-90)	4	165	123
Fire Protection (89-90)	6	81	53
Highways (89-90)	49	169	246
Public Schools (89-90)	22	812	812

Source: National Education Association's *Rankings of the States*, 1991

Conclusion

California's education system is large, diverse and complex. Half a million education professionals are employed in the state's more than 1,000 school districts. Thousands of new teachers each year join the education ranks in the state. However, unlike the state's student population, novice teachers continue to be overwhelmingly white. Moreover, while the system becomes larger and more complex, the state's fiscal investment in schools remains, in comparative terms, at best, modest.