

2010



**RESOURCE CARDS
ON CALIFORNIA EDUCATION**

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*EdSource thanks **The William and Flora Hewlett Foundation** and **The James Irvine Foundation** for their investment in our core work.*

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School Finance/Related Laws

School Finance

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EdSource's website, www.edsource.org, offers a wealth of information about school finance, including access to all of EdSource's publications, most of which can be downloaded for free.

For data about every school and district in California, see the Education Data Partnership (Ed-Data) website: www.ed-data.org



Related Laws

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Recent publications include:

- School Finance 2009–10: Budget Cataclysm and Its Aftermath* (1/10)
- School Finance Highlights 2009–10: The Impact of the Fiscal Crisis on California Public Schools* (1/10)
- The New Federal Education Policies: California's Challenge* (10/09)
- Local Revenues for Schools: Limits and Options in California* (9/09)
- How California Compares: Demographics, Resources, Student Achievement* (9/08)
- Keeping California School Districts Fiscally Healthy: Current Practices and Ongoing Challenges* (4/07)
- Trends and Comparisons in California School Finance* (1/07)
- Q&A: The Basics of California's School Finance System* (1/09) (also in Spanish)
- Q&A: The School District Budget Process* (11/06) (also in Spanish)

School District Dates

- January** District projects enrollments and staffing, begins developing budget for next fiscal year.
- March 15** Initial notice to lay off nonsupervisory certificated staff, such as teachers, librarians, and counselors, if necessary.
- May 15** Final notice to lay off teachers, et al., if necessary.
- * July 1** Deadline for district to hold public hearing, adopt budget, and file with county superintendent.
- * Within 45 days** of State Budget Act signing, district makes public any revisions to budget.
- August 15** Deadline for county superintendent to approve, conditionally approve, or reject district budget.

If Budget Disapproved:

- * September 8** District files revised budget with county superintendent's office.
- October 8** Budget Review Committee at the county office of education forms to make its recommendations.
- November 30** County superintendent develops and adopts fiscal plan/budget for district, using Budget Review Committee input.

* Districts may use a schedule with two sets of public hearings and budget adoptions. These budgets are also reviewed by the county superintendent.

Classified employees must be given 30 days notice if the local education agency does not intend to rehire them. Superintendents, assistant superintendents, and other senior management must be notified 45 days before their contract expires.

State Dates

- December 1** In even-numbered years, the first year of a two-year legislative session begins.
- January 2** The second year of a two-year legislative session begins.
- January 10** Governor submits proposed budget.
- February** Legislative Analyst releases analysis of the governor's budget.
- May** Governor issues "May Revision" to his/her proposed budget to reflect updated revenue and expenditure estimates.
- June 15** Legislature faces state constitutional deadline to pass Budget Bill (rarely met). Governor must respond to Budget Bill within 12 working days after legislative approval or it becomes law.
- End of August/
Mid-September** Legislative session typically ends.
- End of September/
Mid-October** Governor faces deadline to sign or veto bills, some of which may have a budgetary impact (30 days after Legislature adjourns).

The fiscal year for public agencies, including school districts and county offices of education, is July 1 to June 30. The timeline above reflects what is outlined in the state constitution and statutes. However, the exceptional declines in state revenues in recent years have prompted lawmakers to diverge from the conventional budget timeline. Lawmakers have made midyear changes and have crafted proposals and budgets at unusual times, creating cash flow and other budgetary challenges for local school districts.

See: Budget Calendar at www.edsource.org/iss_fin_bud_calendar.html for a more detailed calendar.

Categorical aid is money from the state and federal governments targeted to particular programs, such as K–3 Class Size Reduction, and to students with special needs, such as Special Education—the largest state categorical program and a significant federal categorical. Child Nutrition (school breakfast and lunch) is the largest ongoing federal program. (See Card 3.)

Funding

About one-third of total K–12 education funding comes from state and federal categorical programs. The money is granted according to formulas, incentives, and reimbursements, often tied to districts' student demographics. Sometimes programs require a local match, and some are competitively awarded. With differing student populations and abilities to compete for funds, districts vary substantially in the amount of categorical funding they receive.

Efforts Toward Flexibility and Simplification

From the mid-1980s to 2008, the number of categorical programs generally grew, though some efforts toward simplification were made. However, in February 2009, lawmakers made substantial changes to about half of the state's categorical programs, giving districts more flexibility. Senate Bill (SB) X3-4 (Ducheny) allows districts the flexibility through 2012–13 to use funds from about 40 state categorical programs for other purposes. These flexible programs, at times referred to as “Tier 3” categoricals, total about \$4.5 billion statewide in 2009–10 (nearly 20% lower than in 2008–09). Prior to implementing this new flexibility, a district or county office of education must discuss proposed changes at a public meeting.

In addition, lawmakers cut 11 relatively small state programs by nearly 20% while maintaining their requirements. These “Tier 2” programs total about \$300 million in 2009–10. Another 10 state categorical programs—most of them large—retained their requirements and were not cut substantially. Called “Tier 1” programs, they total about \$9.6 billion. Card 4 lists the 21 nonflexible state categorical programs of \$1 million or more. A handful of programs funded at less than \$1 million also retained their program requirements.

Loosened Restrictions for Class Size Reduction

Policymakers did not officially place K–3 Class Size Reduction (CSR) among the flexible programs, but they did substantially loosen its restrictions. Penalties for exceeding the 20-to-1 student/teacher ratio have been relaxed, allowing districts with class sizes larger than 25 to receive 70% of the funding they would have received with class sizes of 20. For districts that choose to implement larger classes, this new policy could be seen as freeing up CSR money. For more information, including the revised penalty schedule, see www.edsource.org/data_RevClassSizePenalties_08-10.html.

Lawmakers put the Class Size Reduction Program for 9th graders in the flexible category.

Consolidated Application and School Planning

The state allows districts to apply for about a dozen state and federal categorical programs with a consolidated application or “con app.” Most, if not all, districts use the con app to secure funding from at least some programs on the application. These programs tend to be on roughly the same timeline and are relatively straightforward to apply for, such as the federal Title I program.

In 2001, Senate Bill 374 (O'Connell) streamlined districts' planning requirements into a “Single Plan for Student Achievement.” Each school site council must develop this plan, which must describe how the school will spend the funds received through the con app to improve student achievement.

Categorical Monitoring

The California Department of Education (CDE) monitors the compliance of school districts and COEs with state and federal categorical program requirements—including fiscal—through the Categorical Program Monitoring (CPM) process. This process also considers academic performance. CDE monitors in four-year cycles, meaning that one-quarter of local education agencies are reviewed each year.

Federal funding—including more than \$6 billion in one-time stimulus money—makes up about 14% of California’s total K–12 education revenues in 2009–10. In addition to the stimulus money, the state is receiving more than \$7 billion in federal categorical funding. That funding level is largely consistent with amounts provided in the recent past, except that federal support for charter schools in this state more than doubled during the past three years. A large portion of this categorical funding comes from programs created by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, which has been regularly modified during reauthorizations. The most recent ESEA reauthorization, the No Child Left Behind Act, became law in 2002. NCLB emphasizes a standards-based reform agenda and increases the federal focus on educationally disadvantaged pupils, including English learners and students who live in poverty. The act was originally slated to be reauthorized in 2007, but Congress has not yet passed reauthorizing legislation. NCLB continues in its current form until Congress acts.

FEDERAL CATEGORICAL PROGRAM FUNDING 2009–10

This table lists ongoing and stimulus funding. Stimulus funding is one-time money, which may be spent in 2008–09 through 2010–11.

NCLB Programs (in Millions)	Ongoing (2009–10)	Total Stimulus	Other Federal Programs (in Millions)	Ongoing (2009–10)	Total Stimulus
ESEA Title I – For Students Who Live in Poverty	\$2,011	\$1,490	State Fiscal Stabilization Fund		\$3,243
Basic Grants	1,616	1,125	Child Nutrition	2,035	13
Reading First	27		Special Education	1,860	1,268
Migrant Education	138		Child Care and Development Programs (also CalWORKs)	551	220
School/LEA Improvement	204	352	Vocational Education	140	
Even Start	8		Adult Education	79	
Homeless Children Education	13	14	Charter School Grants	46	
Advanced Placement Fee Waiver	4		Robert C. Byrd Honors Scholarships	5	
Neglected and Delinquent Children	3		CalServe K–12 Service Learning Initiative	2	
ESEA Title II – Improving Teacher and Administrator Quality	374	72	Instructional Support (Rural and Low-Income Schools)	1	
Part A – Improving Teacher Quality	311				
Education Technology	29	72			
Math and Science Partnership Grants	28				
Subject Matter Projects	4				
Administrator (Principal) Training Program	2				
ESEA Title III – English Learners and Immigrant Students	172				
ESEA Title IV – 21st Century Schools	199				
After-School Programs	169				
Safe and Drug Free Schools and Communities	29				
ESEA Title VI* – Assessment Funding	24				

* The federal authorization for Title V (Innovative Programs) ended in 2009.

Note: The programs listed above under ESEA titles do not always add up to the total because of rounding.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), California Department of Finance (DOF), Legislative Analyst’s Office (LAO), Budget Acts and Other Legislation

State lawmakers made substantial changes to categorical programs in February 2009, including suspending program requirements through 2012–13 for about 40 programs. (See Card 2.)

STATE CATEGORICAL PROGRAM FUNDING 2009–10

(All of these programs retain program requirements.)

Programs for Which Funding Levels Were Not Cut Substantially

	Millions
Special Education	\$3,150
Child Care and Development (includes preschool)	1,827
Class Size Reduction (K–3)*	1,825
Economic Impact Aid	946
Proposition 49 After-School Programs **	550
Pupil Transportation (Home-to-School Transportation, Special Education Transportation, and Small School District and County Office School Bus Replacement)	496
Quality Education Investment Act (QEIA).....	375
Child Nutrition	146
Early Mental Health†	15
Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID).....	8

Programs that Were Cut Nearly 20% from Their 2008–09 Funding Amounts

	Millions
Student Assessment.....	\$69
English Learners	51
Year-Round Education Grant Program	47
Charter School Facility Grants	45
Partnership Academies	19
Apprenticeship Program	16
Foster Youth Services	15
Adult Education in Correctional Facilities	15
Fiscal Crisis & Management Assistance Team (FCMAT).....	9
K–12 High Speed Network	8
Agriculture-Vocational Education Incentive Grants	4

* Policymakers did not officially place K-3 Class Size Reduction (CSR) among the flexible programs, but they did substantially loosen its restrictions. (See Card 2.)

** This program is funded by a continuous appropriation and does not appear in the Budget Act.

† This program is run by the Department of Mental Health but provides funding to school agencies.

Note: These lists do not include the handful of programs funded at less than \$1 million.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), California Department of Finance (DOF), Budget Acts and other legislation

Flexible Funding Based on Former State Categorical Programs

State leaders continued allocations to districts based on their 2008–09 share of approximately 40 state categorical programs, but they removed all requirements related to how the funds can be used and the reporting of their use. (See Card 2.) Lawmakers also cut these programs by nearly 20% from their 2008–09 funding levels. For a list of these programs, which totaled \$4.5 billion in 2009–10, see: www.edsource.org/data_09-10_categoricals.html

Major Sources of Facility Funds

State Bonds Since 1998, voters have approved four large state bonds for new construction and modernization of K–12 schools: \$6.7 billion (1998), \$11.4 billion (2002), \$10 billion (2004), and \$7.3 billion (2006). Local districts typically provide matching funds.

Local General Obligation (G.O.) Bonds School districts may issue school construction bonds and levy property taxes to pay for them with voter approval. Since 2001, districts have had the choice of whether to seek two-thirds or 55% approval. (See cards 6 and 7 for further explanation and election data.)

Facility Districts Since 1998, school districts have been able to establish a School Facility Improvement District (SFID), which taxes just a portion of the district. Before July 2001, two-thirds voter approval was required. Since July 2001, districts have been able to seek either two-thirds or 55% approval. From 1998 through 2009, 43 SFID elections were held, based on the best available information. Of the 18 under the two-thirds requirement, four (22%) passed. Of the 25 under the 55% requirement, 21 (84%) passed.

Developer Fees School districts have the authority to levy developer fees on new construction or reconstruction. The money may be used only for facilities, including portable classrooms. The State Allocation Board adjusts the fees for inflation in even-numbered years. For 2010 and 2011, the maximum remained at 47 cents per square foot on commercial/industrial construction and \$2.97 per square foot on residential construction. School districts may levy higher fees if they apply to the SAB and meet certain conditions.

Projected Need

Enrollment Growth In the 2005–06 school year, K–12 enrollment in California began to drop slightly, the first decline since 1980–81, according to the California Department of Education (CDE). (See Card 18.) Some school districts, however, are still growing. Statewide, enrollment is expected to decline modestly until 2010–11, when

it is projected to begin increasing, according to the California Department of Finance.

New Classrooms and Modernization CDE has projected that from 2009 to 2014, the state will need to build almost 22,000 new classrooms and modernize more than 35,000 classrooms. Altogether, CDE has projected that almost 1.5 million students will need new and remodeled classrooms during the five-year period. CDE bases its estimates on 25 students per K–6 classroom and 27 students per 7–12 classroom.

Multitrack, Year-Round Schools Some schools—most of them elementary—operate on a multitrack, year-round calendar in order to maximize facility capacity. In 2001–02, 976 schools serving about 1 million students (17% of total enrollment) were multitrack. But as the table below shows, those numbers have been declining. The *Williams* lawsuit settlement (see Card 11) requires districts to phase out by 2012 “Concept 6” year-round programs, which provide 163 days of instruction instead of the standard 180 days. Only 42 schools in one district—Los Angeles Unified—were on this schedule in 2007–08. (Because of the fiscal crisis, under the July 2009 state budget package, districts may reduce the school year to 175 days through 2012–13.)

MULTITRACK, YEAR-ROUND EDUCATION

Year	Number of Schools	Number of Students
		(% of Statewide Enrollment)
2007–08*	446	442,201 (7%)
2006–07	578	569,969 (9%)
2005–06	690	700,141 (11%)

* Updated numbers were not available in February 2010, when this card was being prepared for publication.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 2/10
California Department of Finance (DOF)
State Allocation Board (SAB)
EdSource

School Services of California
League of Women Voters of
California-Smart Voter

Under current state law, school districts can augment the local funding of their schools in just a few ways. Two commonly used methods requiring voter approval are general obligation bonds for school facilities and parcel taxes, which typically support academic programs.

General Obligation (G.O.) Bonds

School districts may issue general obligation bonds to raise funds for facilities, either for new school construction or renovation. (See Card 5.) These bonds are repaid through property taxes. Since 2001, when voters passed Proposition 39, districts have had the choice of whether to seek two-thirds approval or 55% approval with some limitations. (See Card 7.)

Based on the best available information, from 2001 through 2009, districts sought 55% approval for 540 measures and 451 (84%) of those elections succeeded. From 1986 through 2008, 939 districts sought two-thirds voter approval and 514 (55%) were successful. Local bond elections generated a total of about \$73 billion from 1986 through 2009, and about \$62 billion (85%) of that was generated from 1998 through 2009.

In 2009, there were four G.O. bonds on the ballot (compared with 140 measures in 2008). Two seeking 55% approval passed, and two seeking two-thirds approval failed.

Parcel Taxes

Proposition 13 (see Card 12) allows school districts to assess parcel taxes on local property owners if they can secure a two-thirds approval from voters. (See Card 7.) Some are permanent, while others expire after a certain number of years (often between three and ten). Some include an inflation adjustment. A criticism of most parcel taxes is that they are regressive because property owners typically pay the same amount regardless of the value of their property. In response, some school districts have passed parcel tax measures that have established separate rates based on square footage or other property improvements. Others have passed measures with separate rates for residential and commercial property.

The ballot proposal prepared by the school district governing board describes how the money will be used, such as maintaining small class sizes, supporting academic programs and libraries, providing competitive teacher salaries, and offsetting state budget cuts. State law requires the district's chief financial officer to report annually to its school board on the amount of funds collected and spent as well as the status of any project called for in the measure.

Based on the best available information, from 1983 through 2009, voters approved 273 parcel taxes (54%) in 503 elections. An additional 166 measures (33%) would have met a 55% threshold.

In 2009, districts sought approval for 31 measures and voters approved 21 (68%). An additional seven measures (23%) would have met a 55% threshold.

Continuations of Gann Limit Appropriation Increases

Some districts with permanent or long-term parcel taxes periodically seek to renew permission to spend revenue from a previously enacted parcel tax through continuations of Gann limit appropriation increases. (See Card 12.) There are conflicting legal opinions about whether districts must enact an override of their Gann limit in order to spend parcel tax revenue. Gann limit appropriation increases can be enacted for a maximum term of four years and require only a simple majority vote. Gann-limit-increase elections are not included in the passage rate totals for parcel tax elections described above.

For More Information

- For a list of successful 2009 G.O. bond and parcel tax elections, go to: www.edsource.org/data_elections2009.html
- To see a list of the 83 districts that passed parcel taxes between 2001 and June 2009, go to: www.edsource.org/data_83DistPassParcelTaxBet01-09.html
- To see a particular district's election history, go to: www.ed-data.org

Data: EdSource, 1/10
School Services of California, Inc.
League of Women Voters of California-Smart Voter

School districts receive a portion of local property taxes plus funds from the state and federal governments. They also have a limited ability to raise additional revenues. Some of these locally generated revenues can be used as operating funds, but others must be spent on capital projects. For example, districts can raise money by selling or leasing unused school buildings or school sites, but the law usually requires that the funds be used for capital projects.

Operating Funds

Sources for operating funds include parcel taxes, community contributions, food service sales, and interest on investments.

Parcel Taxes

Although state law limits districts' ability to ask voters to increase tax rates on property, it does allow the collection of special taxes not related to property value (*non-ad valorem*) if two-thirds of the electorate in the district approves. (See Card 6 regarding parcel tax elections. See Card 12 for limits imposed by Proposition 13.)

Sales Taxes

State law also allows communities to supplement school revenues by increasing their local sales tax. This requires a two-thirds vote and can be done only at the county level. All school districts in the county and the county government need to cooperate and agree on the allocation of revenues before a sales tax can be put before voters. This has only been done successfully in San Francisco.

School Foundations and Private Contributions

Some districts receive significant income from contributions or grants from individuals and local businesses. Based on reports to the California Consortium of Education Foundations (CCEF), more than 675 foundations have formed to support local schools in California. Found in most counties, these foundations can be county-wide, districtwide, or in a single school. In 2007, foundations raised more than \$200 million, according to a fall 2008 CCEF survey.

Capital Funds

State law allows districts to raise capital funds from general obligation bonds, school facility improvement districts, and developer fees. These revenues must be used to build or improve facilities.

General Obligation (G.O.) Bonds

As a result of the approval of Proposition 39 in November 2000 and related legislation, either 55% or two-thirds of local voters may authorize general obligation (G.O.) bonds. If districts choose to seek 55% voter approval, they face added requirements involving financial and performance accountability as well as limits on the amount of property tax increase they can request to repay the bonds. In addition, they must place the bond on a regularly scheduled ballot. Prior to 2001, the approval threshold for all G.O. bonds was two-thirds. (See cards 5 and 6.)

School Facility Improvement Districts

School districts are also able to tax just a portion of their districts—often new housing developments—by establishing a School Facility Improvement District (SFID). SFIDs issue general obligation bonds based on the value of the property. A law passed in July 2001 allowed the voter-approval threshold for SFIDs to be either two-thirds or 55% (with added accountability provisions and financial limits). Prior to July 2001, a two-thirds vote was required. (See Card 5 for historical data.)

Developer Fees

Developer fees authorized by the school district governing board may be levied on new construction within a district. (See Card 5.)

See: *Proposition 39: Relying on a Super-Majority To Approve Local Bond Measures*, EdSource (9/00), www.edsource.org/pub_prop39.html

Data: California Consortium of Education Foundations (CCEF)

Total District Income

General Purpose (Per-pupil Revenue Limit	ADA)
+ Special Purpose (Categorical Aid)	
+ Miscellaneous Local & Other	
+ Lottery	
<hr/>	
= Total District Income	

Average Daily Attendance (ADA)

ADA is the average number of students present each day of the school year. Since 1998–99, students with excused absences have not been included in ADA. Only students attending school are counted.

Revenue Limits

Established by law in 1972, the revenue limit is the basic general purpose money allocated to districts based on ADA and is calculated separately for each district. The range of per-pupil amount varies by type of district (elementary, unified, high school). Extra funding is given to districts defined as “small,” creating a total of six revenue limit categories. Small is up to 100 pupils (elementary), 300 students (high school), or 1,500 students (unified). (See Card 14, *Serrano v. Priest.*)

STATEWIDE AVERAGE PER-PUPIL REVENUE LIMITS			
District Type	2007–08 (Actual)	2008–09 (Estimated)	2009–10 (Estimated)*
Elementary	\$5,568	\$5,422	\$5,007
Unified	\$5,821	\$5,668	\$5,235
High School	\$6,690	\$6,514	\$6,016

* These numbers do not include a \$253 per student (ADA) one-time reduction in state aid to districts. Most districts will experience this cut in their revenue limits, though some will receive the cut in their categorical aid instead.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 12/09
EdSource

Revenue limit income is a combination of local property taxes and state money and in normal years accounts for about two-thirds of a typical district’s revenues. Any increase in property taxes is offset by a reduction of state funds. Revenue limits were adjusted in 1998–99 to account for the new definition of ADA (see column 1).

Cost-of-Living Adjustment (COLA)

The state usually grants a cost-of-living adjustment (COLA) to school districts for revenue limits and most categorical programs. The law ties the COLA to the current inflation rate, but the amount actually paid depends upon the legislative appropriation. Although the index used to measure inflation called for a 5.66% COLA in 2008–09, policymakers provided only 0.68% in the September 2008 budget and decided in February 2009 not to provide any COLA for the year.

For 2009–10, the index indicated that a 4.25% COLA was appropriate. However, policymakers again provided no COLA, reducing the state allocation to schools by about \$1.6 billion. Beyond eliminating the statutory COLA, the state actually reduced revenue limit funding.

Property Taxes and Basic Aid

In some districts, the amount of property taxes exceeds their revenue limit. In the past, they kept all of it and still received state “basic aid” of \$120 per student (based on ADA)—or a minimum of \$2,400 per district—according to the California Constitution. Because of budget constraints in 2002–03, lawmakers eliminated the \$120, saying that the state met its constitutional obligation to these districts with other state funding from categorical (special purpose) programs. Generally, fewer than 10% of districts are “basic aid” (or “excess revenue”) districts.

In addressing the state's fiscal crisis in 2009, state leaders repeatedly made changes to the budget. The table below compares the 2009–10 K–12 budget with the updated estimates for the 2007–08 budget, the most recent year with stable funding amounts.

TOTAL REVENUES FOR K–12 EDUCATION

	2007–08		2009–10	
	(BILLIONS)		(BILLIONS)	
State Proposition 98 Funds	\$37.8	53.1%	\$31.2	46.8%
Local Prop. 98 Property Taxes	12.6	17.7%	13.4	20.1%
Federal Government (Ongoing)	6.4	9.0%	7.1	10.6%
Federal Government (One-Time Stimulus)			2.3*	3.4%
Local Miscellaneous	5.2	7.3%	5.2	7.8%
Lottery	0.9	1.2%	0.8	1.2%
Subtotal	\$62.9		\$60.0	
State Non-Prop. 98 Funds†	5.6	7.9%	4.0	6.0%
Local Non-Prop. 98 Property Taxes†	2.7	3.8%	2.7	4.0%
Total	\$71.1		\$66.7	

* Portion allocated for 2009–10 only. In 2008–09, \$3.8 billion was allocated.

† The state counts non-Proposition 98 state and local funds as part of total education funding. The local portion is mostly debt service (\$2.3 billion in 2009–10), and the state portion includes bond repayments and spending for state education agencies and programs. The amounts above also include more than \$2 billion each year for services to school-age children outside regular K–12 school agencies (such as child care programs) and to individuals not part of the K–12 population but served by school agencies (such as adult education students).

Note: Due to rounding, the dollars from each source may not add to the total and percentages may not equal 100% and may not match calculations based on unrounded numbers.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 12/09

State aid comes mostly from California sales and income taxes.

Property taxes are allocated to schools by the state. (Cities, counties, and other agencies also receive some local property tax revenues.)

Federal aid is earmarked for special purposes. However, federal stimulus aid through the State Fiscal Stabilization Fund is discretionary. (See Card 3.)

Local miscellaneous includes such sources as community contributions, interest income, developer fees, and revenues from local parcel tax elections. Districts have very limited ways to supplement their revenue. (See Card 7.)

Proposition 98

This proposition guarantees a minimum level of state aid and property tax funding for K–12 education and community colleges each year. (See Card 13.) On average, about two-thirds of K–12 education funding from Proposition 98 is for revenue limits (see Card 8), and one-third is for categorical aid, though the proportion can vary dramatically from district to district. (See cards 2 and 4.)

California State Lottery

In November 1984, voters approved the California State Lottery. A minimum of 34% of total lottery receipts must be distributed to public schools, colleges, and universities for the instruction of students, with no funds spent for noninstructional purposes. Since 1996–97, the lottery has provided less than 2% of K–12 education revenues. If education's share of the lottery revenue in a given year is higher than the amount provided in 1998–99, half of the increase is to be used only for instructional materials.

LOTTERY FUNDS PER PUPIL (ADA*)

Year	Unrestricted Revenue	Instructional Materials	Total Allocation
2008–09	\$109.75	\$13.52	\$123.27
2007–08	114.80	16.39	131.19
2006–07	121.88	22.75	144.63
2005–06	126.66	28.96	155.62
2004–05	119.94	22.47	142.41

*ADA stands for average daily attendance.

Data: CDE, State Controller's Office, 12/09

	California's Rank in U.S.	California Average	U.S. Average	Highest	Lowest
Teachers' Salaries (2007-08)	1	\$65,808	\$52,800	\$65,808/California	\$36,674/South Dakota
Expenditures per Pupil (2007-08)	41	\$8,586	\$9,934	\$17,109/District of Columbia	\$5,685/Arizona
Public School Revenue (2006-07) per \$1,000 Personal Income in 2007	22	\$47	\$46	\$60/Vermont	\$24/District of Columbia
Per Capita Personal Income (2007)	9	\$43,221	\$39,430	\$63,881/District of Columbia	\$29,549/Mississippi
Percentage of Children in Households in Which the Household Head Has Not Completed High School (2008)*	1	26%	16%	26%/California	5%/Maine
Percentage of Children Who Speak a Language Other Than English at Home (2008)*	1	44%	21%	44%/California	3%/Mississippi and West Virginia

* The District of Columbia is not included in these categories.

Note: The numbers in this table are based on fall enrollment data.

Data: National Education Association's *Rankings and Estimates, 2009-10*

The Annie E. Casey Foundation, KIDS COUNT Data Center, based on data from the 2008 American Community Survey.

Teachers' Salaries The relatively high cost of living in California is a contributing factor to the state's No. 1 ranking. In comparisons of average teachers' salaries among states, the seniority of the workforce also plays a role because teachers' salaries generally increase with experience.

Expenditures per Pupil California's below average per-pupil expenditures combined with higher-than-average teachers' salaries translates into much higher-than-average pupil-teacher ratios. California's students also have significantly fewer district officials and administrators than the average district in the United States. For a comparative table of staff-to-pupil ratios, see Card 26.

Public School Revenue/Personal Income Public school revenue per \$1,000 personal income is used to measure a state's effort to support education. Per capita personal income is used to measure the capacity of residents to support education. California ranked 9th in personal income (capacity), yet only 22nd in public school revenue per \$1,000 in personal income (effort).

Parent Education Level This is a powerful predictor of academic achievement and also of family income.

- 1972 Senate Bill (SB) 90** Established revenue limits—a ceiling on the amount of general purpose money each school district can receive per pupil. (The amount of property taxes in some districts exceeds their revenue limits. See Card 8: “Property Taxes and Basic Aid.”)
- 1976 Serrano v. Priest** California Supreme Court ruling on a 1968 lawsuit alleging that the system of school finance was inequitable. (See Card 14.) The state Legislature responded with Assembly Bill (AB) 65 in 1977 and made other changes with AB 8 in 1979.
- 1978 Proposition 13** Constitutional amendment limiting property tax rates and increases. (See Card 12.)
- 1979 Assembly Bill (AB) 8** Funding structure for schools after Proposition 13, with a revised formula for dividing property taxes. Created the “Serrano squeeze” by restricting the revenue-limit growth rate of high-revenue districts. (See Card 14.)
- 1979 Gann Limit** Constitutional limit on spending at every level of government, including school districts. It also prohibited the state from imposing unfunded mandates on local governments. (See Card 12.)
- 1981 AB 777** Included revisions to school finance formulas, procedures for requesting waivers from portions of the Education Code, and consolidation of some categorical programs at the local level.
- 1983 SB 813** Major reform law to improve California schools through such programs as mentor teachers, longer school day/year, higher beginning teachers’ salaries, more rigorous graduation requirements, and statewide curriculum standards.
- 1984 Lottery** Constitutional amendment creating the California State Lottery, with a percentage of revenues for public education. (See Card 9.)
- 1988 Proposition 98** Constitutional amendment guaranteeing a minimum funding level for schools. (See Card 13.)
- 1990 Proposition 111** Altered Gann limits to allow government spending to keep pace with growth in per capita income. It also amended Proposition 98. (See Card 12.)
- 1991 AB 1200** Put county offices of education in charge of reviewing districts’ financial statements and certifying their financial viability. (See Card 1.) It also created the state Fiscal Crisis & Management Assistance Team (FCMAT). AB 2756 (2004) required the state to update oversight standards and strengthen the district budget review process.
- 1996 SB 1777** Instituted incentive payments to reduce class size in grades kindergarten through third. (See Card 2.)
- 2000 Proposition 39** Reduced approval threshold for local school district general obligation bonds to 55% “yes” vote, with some additional regulations. (See Card 7.)
- 2001 SB 982** Response to a court ruling that California should pay for extra Special Education mandates. (See Card 23.)
- 2004 Williams v. California** Lawsuit, originally filed in 2000, charged that the state had failed to give thousands of children the basic tools necessary for their education. The 2004 settlement included accountability measures, extra financial support, and other help for low-performing schools. It also required all schools to report the condition of their facilities, teacher misassignments and vacancies, and textbook availability.

Gann Limit on Spending Tax Revenues (1980)

Proposition 13: Definition

This initiative, passed by voters in June 1978, amended the California Constitution so that property tax rates throughout the state are set at 1% of assessed value. Annual increases in assessed value are capped at 2% or the percentage growth in the state's Consumer Price Index (CPI), whichever is less. It has been less than 2% only a few times since 1977. In 2010–11, an unprecedented negative CPI is expected to reduce assessed values.

When property owners sell or remodel their individual properties, the assessed value is typically raised. Thus, property owners who keep their property as is for many years pay much less property tax.

Impact

Until 1978, property taxes furnished about two-thirds of education's revenues, with state funds providing much of the rest. Proposition 13 drastically reduced property taxes, which prompted the Legislature to backfill with state funds. The net result was a near reversal in the ratio of state to local funds. The governor and Legislature also began determining how local property taxes would be distributed to schools, cities, counties, and special districts.

Any annual increases or decreases in property tax revenues do not change the total amount of funding for most school districts because their state aid is adjusted to keep general purpose income within their revenue limits. (See Card 8.) In less than 10% of districts, however, property taxes exceed their revenue limits. These districts are allowed to keep this additional revenue.

Local voters can levy a tax on residential or commercial properties (called a parcel tax), but they cannot increase property taxes based on value. With voter approval, school districts can also levy taxes for general obligation (G.O.) bonds for school construction or renovation. Parcel taxes need a two-thirds majority to pass. But with the passage of Proposition 39 in 2000, G.O. bonds can be passed with a 55% majority. (See cards 5 and 7.)

Proposition 4: Gann Limit

This constitutional amendment, passed by voters in November 1979, is named after its sponsor, the late Paul Gann. It limits the amount of tax revenues that state and local governments, including school districts, can spend. The amount is adjusted annually for changes in per capita personal income and population, including enrollment in schools and community colleges. The amount can also be adjusted for transfers of responsibility between governmental units, and local voters can increase Gann limits. Certain expenditures—such as debt service, meeting federal or court mandates, qualified capital outlay, and addressing emergencies such as natural disasters—are exempted.

Only once, in 1986–87, did the state collect revenue exceeding its Gann limit and refund \$1.1 billion to taxpayers. As subsequently amended by Proposition 111 in 1990, if state tax revenues exceed the Gann spending limit for two consecutive years, half of the excess must be returned to taxpayers and the other half goes to K–14 education.

Senate Bill 1342, the implementing legislation, defined school district Gann limits in a way that has thus far minimized their impact.

Mandated Programs or Services

The Gann limit requires the state to reimburse local government agencies, including school districts, for the cost of implementing new mandated programs or services. In recent years, the state has deferred this reimbursement, providing instead a token minimum amount—\$1,000 per K–12 education mandate for the entire state. In November 2007, a lawsuit was filed to compel the state to pay districts and county offices of education for the costs of meeting state mandates. In December 2008, a San Diego Superior Court judge ruled that the state's deferral of reimbursements is unconstitutional. The state has appealed. A decision is expected in mid-2010.

Provisions

This constitutional amendment, approved by voters in November 1988, took effect in the 1988–89 school year. As amended by Proposition 111 in 1990, it has four general provisions:

- Minimum funding guarantee for K–12 schools and community colleges based on three tests (see right column);
- Payment to K–14 education of 50% of the excess when state tax revenues exceed the Gann spending limit for two consecutive years (see Card 12), with the remaining 50% rebated to taxpayers;
- Annual School Accountability Report Cards (SARCs) to promote accountability for the dollars spent by local school boards; and
- “Prudent” state budget reserve.

The state must meet the minimum funding guarantee each year unless Proposition 98 is suspended. Proposition 111 (1990) effectively raised the Gann limit, making it unlikely that the second provision will come into effect.

Impact

The calculation of the guaranteed amount is largely based on the condition of the state’s economy:

- In years of “normal” state revenue growth, K–14 education receives at least the same amount as the previous year, adjusted for changes in average daily attendance (ADA) and per capita (or per resident) personal income.
- When revenue growth from one year to the next is particularly low, K–14 education participates in the state’s losses according to specified “fair share” formulas.
- Following a “fair share” reduction that causes the Proposition 98 funding guarantee to lag normal growth, the state is obligated to eventually get K–14 funding back to the level it would have been if no reduction had occurred.

In practice, Proposition 98 has meant that education is entitled to the same amount that was allocated the previous year, plus adjustments for changes in statewide attendance and per capita personal income. This is generally referred to as Test 2 (see below). In difficult economic years, the state can provide a lesser amount as specified in Test 3. The shortfall must begin to be restored in a future year when state tax revenues grow faster than personal income.

The Tests, Suspension, and Maintenance Factor

Test 1—Currently about 40% of state General Fund revenues.

Test 2—Same amount as previous year, plus adjustments for changes in statewide attendance and per capita personal income. (This test has been used most often.)

Test 3—Used in difficult economic years. Same as Test 2 except the adjustment is the annual change (increase or decrease) in per capita General Fund revenues plus one-half percent of the prior year’s Proposition 98 spending amount.

Suspension—Requirements of Proposition 98 can be suspended for a year with a two-thirds vote of the Legislature and concurrence of the governor. If they suspend Proposition 98, policymakers have great discretion as to the level of funding they provide.

Maintenance Factor—If Test 3 is used, or if Proposition 98 is suspended, total funding for schools and community colleges must eventually be reset as if Test 2 had been in effect. The additional funding must begin in the next year in which the percentage growth in per capita General Fund revenues exceeds the percentage growth in per capita personal income.

Before California's current school finance system solidified in the late 1970s, school districts received the bulk of their funding through local property taxes. Districts could set their own property tax rates within broad limitations. Majority votes of the local electorate were required for property tax increases above certain, state-specified levels. Districts with similar tax rates could have very different revenues per pupil because of differences in the assessed value of property in those areas or in the number of students they served. These differences became the subject of the *Serrano v. Priest* court case, which began in 1968.

The Court Case

Serrano v. Priest was one of the first lawsuits to challenge the U.S. tradition of using property taxes as the principal source of revenue for public schools. Lawyers for the plaintiffs maintained that wealth-related revenue disparities among school districts violated the "equal protection" clause of the state constitution. In this case, wealth was defined as the assessed value of district properties divided by the number of students in the district.

In 1971, the California Supreme Court ruled in *Serrano* that education was a "fundamental interest" of the state and remanded the case back to lower courts to determine whether the discrepancies described by the plaintiffs existed. Anticipating an outcome that would demand that funding be equalized among districts, state leaders passed Senate Bill (SB) 90 in 1972, creating the "revenue limit" system that put a ceiling on the amount of general purpose money each district could raise. (See Card 8.) State and federal categorical funding was not included in this equalization effort. To achieve equalization, the Legislature then implemented a sliding scale of increases to revenue limits designed to bring lower-spending districts up to the level of higher-spending ones over time (labeled "leveling up").

A second case, referred to at the time as *Serrano II*, was settled in 1976. The court ruled that the changes made with SB 90 were not enough and gave the state until 1980 to come up with a better system. In 1977, the state passed Assembly Bill (AB) 65, which made further changes in the system using a "power equalization" plan

that would redistribute state aid based on differences in district property tax revenues per pupil.

Voters passed Proposition 13 nine months later, in June 1978. The measure had the effect of shifting primary responsibility for funding public education from local sources to the state. (See Card 12.) Proposition 13's provisions wiped out more than half of local property tax revenues and therefore invalidated much of AB 65's financial reform, including power equalization. The Legislature's "bailout" bill, SB 154 in 1978, retained the revenue limits but replaced most of the lost property tax dollars with money from the state budget to substantially mitigate districts' revenue losses. In the process, the state also took control of the distribution of property tax revenues among local governments. High-revenue districts received smaller revenue limit increases than low-revenue districts on a sliding scale. This "squeezing" minimized the sudden drain on the state's budget. AB 8, passed in the summer of 1979, continued the revenue limit system, including the squeeze mechanism for granting differential increases to districts based on their revenue limits.

Resolution and Impact

By 1983, the Los Angeles County Superior Court found that revenue limits were sufficiently equitable to satisfy the court order that called for the vast majority of students to attend school in districts with revenue limits within \$100 of one another. The Los Angeles court also said that, if the \$100 band were used, it needed to be adjusted for inflation. The allowable difference in revenue limits in 2009–10 is estimated to be about \$450.

The plaintiffs disagreed with the 1983 ruling, which was upheld by the appellate court. After several more years of appeals, the plaintiffs signed a settlement agreement in 1989, formally resolving the case.

The combination of the *Serrano* ruling and Proposition 13 suppressed school district revenue growth and virtually eliminated local control over most school funding. Since then, school districts have depended heavily on the state's budget for their funding and California's investment in education has declined. (See Card 10.)

K-12 General Background/Staffing



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EdSource's website, www.edsource.org, offers a wealth of information about K-12 education policy and staffing issues, including access to all of EdSource's publications, most of which can be downloaded for free.

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Recent publications include:

- Multiple Pathways in California: An Emerging Option for High School Reform (11/09)*
- The New Federal Education Policies: California's Challenge (10/09)*
- California's Charter Schools: 2009 Update on Issues and Performance (6/09)*
- Making California's New Data System Work: Quality Is Key (2/09)*
- California's Emerging Education Data System: A Status Report (10/08)*
- How California Compares: Demographics, Resources, Student Achievement (9/08)*
- English Learners in California: What the Numbers Say (3/08)*
- Math and Science Teachers: Recruiting and Retaining California's Workforce (1/08)*
- Superintendents and Principals: Charting the Paths to School Improvement (11/07)*
- Levers for Change: Opportunities to Strengthen California's High School Curriculum (5/07) (An executive summary by the same title is also available.)*

Definition

A charter school is a public school governed by a contract (“charter”) between the school’s operators and a chartering authority (typically a school district but possibly a county office of education or the State Board of Education). The charter describes such things as the school’s instructional approach, employer/employee relations, and the student outcomes for which it will be held accountable.

Charter schools may be newly established or converted from an existing school. They are usually created and run by teachers, parents, a community-based group, or a charter management organization (CMO). CMOs typically provide a unifying vision and some degree of operational coordination for multiple charter schools. According to EdSource research from 2007 through 2009, charters run by CMOs tend to serve greater percentages of disadvantaged students than other charters and regular public schools. Some CMO-run charters achieve substantially higher student test scores than other charters, after adjusting for student demographics.

Charter schools typically are more independent of their chartering authorities than regular public schools are of their districts, and charters are exempt from most of the state’s regulations. However, charter schools must be nondiscriminatory, participate in state testing, and comply with the federal No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). Charters must be renewed at least every five years. They can be revoked if the school fails to comply with the contract terms or meet academic objectives.

Funding

Charters receive general purpose and categorical funding through their chartering agency or directly from the state. State loans and federal grants are available for start-up costs.

The amount of general purpose funding a charter school receives is based on average revenue limit funding, but depends on the grades served. In 2009–10, the per-pupil amounts were about 14% lower than 2007–08 because of state budget troubles. They ranged from an estimated \$4,778 per pupil for grades K–3 to \$5,845 for 9–12, based on the state’s July 2009 budget package. Additional funding comes in three forms:

- 1) A discretionary block grant that consolidates funding from about 45 categorical programs;
- 2) Discretionary funds for educationally disadvantaged students (English learners and low-income students, with double funding for students who are both); and
- 3) Individual programs not included in either of the above block grants, with the same requirements that apply to districts.

Charter schools can also secure support for facilities. Proposition 39 (2000) requires school districts to provide charter schools that serve 80 or more in-district students with “sufficient” facilities that are “furnished and equipped” and reasonably close to where the charter school wishes to locate. State bond funds can be used for construction of charter schools, and the state provides charters serving large percentages of poor students up to \$750 per pupil for rent or lease costs.

Major Laws

1992—Charter Schools Act or Senate Bill (SB) 1448 (Hart): Initiated charter schools in California, limiting the number to 100.

1998—Assembly Bill (AB) 544 (Lempert): Made several policy changes, such as greatly expanding the cap on the number of charter schools and allowing that cap to increase annually, specifying conditions under which a charter petition could be denied and a charter could be revoked, and requiring charter teachers to hold the same credentialing documentation required of teachers in other public schools.

2003—AB 1137 (Reyes): Created new performance requirements for charter renewal and required more oversight by chartering authorities.

2005—AB 740 (Huff): Intended to make the categorical block grant more predictable and gradually raise it from about \$287 per pupil in 2005–06 to \$500 in 2007–08, with annual cost-of-living adjustments. However, due to funding constraints, the state provided \$460 in 2007–08 and \$401 per pupil in 2009–10.

CALIFORNIA CHARTER SCHOOLS

Year	Number of Schools	Enrollment (% of State Enrollment)
2008–09	750	284,977 (4.6%)
2003–04	454	167,422 (2.7%)
1998–99	159	67,924 (1.2%)
1993–94	31	10,761 (0.2%)

Note: Data are not available for a few schools each year.
Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 1/10
California Charter Schools Association



National Data Sources

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)

www.nces.ed.gov

NCES is the primary federal entity that collects and analyzes education data from the United States and other nations on demographics, finance, staffing, and student performance.

National Education Association (NEA) www.nea.org

An organization of teachers and other education professionals, NEA collects and reports enrollment, expenditure, teacher salary, and other data at the state and national level.

Center on Education Policy (CEP) www.cep-dc.org

A national public education advocacy organization, CEP makes test data from all 50 states available in the State Testing Data section of its website.

California Data Sources

Ed-Data www.ed-data.org

The Ed-Data Partnership website provides comprehensive education data on California schools, districts, counties, and the state. The site contains performance, staffing, teacher salary, and demographic data, as well as financial reports, and includes comparison and filtering tools.

DataQuest <http://data1.cde.ca.gov/dataquest/>

The California Department of Education's (CDE) DataQuest service provides prepared reports on demographics, staffing, testing, and accountability at the school, district, county, and state levels based on user queries. Other reports and downloadable data files are available from CDE at: www.cde.ca.gov/ds/

California School Finder www.schoolfinder.ca.gov

The California School Finder website helps parents locate schools and find basic information about demographics, performance, and course offerings.

California's Longitudinal Data System

California is building a data system that will maintain extensive information on individual students and educators over time. This will make it possible to learn more about the characteristics of students who are succeeding, the effectiveness of the educational programs they participate in, and the qualifications of their teachers. Legislation signed in 2010 formally established the Legislature's intent to create a preschool through higher education (P–20) statewide longitudinal educational data system.

Students (CALPADS)

The state's student data system, known as the California Longitudinal Pupil Achievement Data System (CALPADS), became operational in October 2009. The state first assigned nonpersonally identifiable numbers, known as statewide student identifiers (SSIDs), to all K–12 students in 2005 and spent the subsequent years developing and piloting the system.

By July 2010, CDE is expected to establish a process for handling requests for access to CALPADS data that show individual student growth. By January 2011, CDE is expected to establish a process for local education agencies to create unique pupil identifiers for students in publicly funded child care and development programs.

Teachers and Other Staff (CALTIDES)

The state is also building an integrated teacher data system called the California Longitudinal Teacher Integrated Data Education System (CALTIDES). The state is in the process of assigning nonpersonally identifiable numbers, known as statewide educator identifiers (SEIDs), to all teachers, school administrators, counselors, librarians, nurses, and speech therapists.

The system aims to integrate existing databases to meet federal and state reporting requirements, to facilitate assignment monitoring, and to conduct program evaluations. CALTIDES is expected to be completed in 2011 and will be developed by the Commission on Teacher Credentialing and CDE.

CALIFORNIA'S ENGLISH LEARNERS 2008–09

Primary Language	Number of ELs	% of All ELs
Spanish	1,285,545	84.9%
Vietnamese	35,614	2.4%
Filipino (Pilipino or Tagalog)	22,569	1.5%
Cantonese	21,320	1.4%
Hmong	17,619	1.2%
Korean	15,694	1.0%
Others (more than 50 languages)	116,713	7.7%
Total	1,515,074	

In 2008–09, 24.2% of California's students were classified as English learners. An additional 19.4% came from families in which English was not the primary language, but the students were initially classified or reclassified as fluent English proficient (FEP).

Note: Totals do not add to 100% due to rounding.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 11/6/09

Chronology

- 1974** U.S. Supreme Court *Lau v. Nichols* decision ruled that districts must address linguistic deficiencies of language minorities.
- 1976** Assembly Bill 1329, Bilingual/Bicultural Education Act, required schools with 10 or more children in the same grade with the same foreign language to offer bilingual instruction. Subsequently amended and revised.
- 1987** Bilingual education laws were allowed to expire, but districts must comply with the intent of the federal *Lau* decision.
- 1998** Proposition 227, approved by California voters, limited non-English instruction. However, parents may petition a school for instruction in a student's native language.
- 2006** California established a pilot research program to identify best practices in instruction for English learners (ELs). The program runs through 2010.

Funding

Both the state and federal governments provide extra funding to school districts based on the number of ELs they serve. These funds come principally from Title III of the federal No Child Left Behind

Act (NCLB) and state Economic Impact Aid. Districts develop their own programs and instruction within the constraints of state and federal law.

English Language Development

Assessment: English learners are students whose primary language—as reported by their parents—is not English and whose district has not reclassified them as “fluent English proficient.” They take the California English Language Development Test (CELDT) upon initial enrollment and annually thereafter until they are reclassified fluent English proficient (RFEP). The CELDT evaluates skills in listening and speaking (grades K–12) and reading and writing (grades 2–12). In 2008–09, 344,571 students took the CELDT for initial identification.* Another 1,333,117 students previously identified as English learners took the CELDT for annual assessment of their progress toward fluency.

NCLB Requirements: California has set benchmarks—called annual measurable achievement objectives (AMAOs)—for ELs in three areas. The first two pertain to progressing toward and attaining English proficiency. Beginning in 2009–10, districts were expected to have 53.1% of their ELs make specified gains toward proficiency and 32.2% actually attain English proficiency as measured by their CELDT results. By 2013–14, 59% of each district's ELs should make their annual target, and 39% should attain proficiency. The third area is the annual measurable objective (AMO) used to determine adequate yearly progress (AYP). (See Card 30.) NCLB also requires states to develop standards-based tests in students' native languages to the extent practicable.

Standards: In 1999, the state adopted English language development (ELD) standards in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Instructional Materials: In order for their K–8 reading/language arts textbooks to be considered for state adoption, textbook publishers must include a daily instructional component designed for ELs.

* Includes 67,739 students (19.7%) who tested proficient and were classified as initially fluent English proficient (IFEP).

K-12 ENROLLMENT

	2005-06	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09
Public Schools	6,312,436	6,286,943	6,275,469	6,252,031
Grades K-8	4,337,791	4,289,762	4,259,749	4,234,395
Grades 9-12	1,974,645	1,997,181	2,015,720	2,017,636
Private Schools*	594,597	584,983	564,734	536,393
Total	6,907,033	6,871,926	6,840,203	6,788,424

* Includes schools with six or more students.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE) DataQuest, Elementary Education Office, 11/1/09

TYPES OF DISTRICTS 2008-09

	Number
Elementary Districts (K-8)	550
High School Districts (9-12)	84
Unified Districts (K-12)	333
Total	967

Data: Education Data Partnership (Ed-Data), 11/1/09

SIZE OF DISTRICTS 2008-09

	% of Districts*	% of Students
Fewer than 500 Students	30% (mostly elementary)	1%
500 to 999	11%	1%
1,000 to 14,999	49%	37%
15,000 to 49,999	10% (mostly unified)	39%
50,000 and more	1% (10 unified)	21%

* Does not include county offices of education, state special school districts, and State Board of Education-authorized charter schools. Percentages do not add to 100% due to rounding.

Data: CDE DataQuest, 11/1/09

Official enrollment counts are based on the number of students registered in each school and district on a given day in October. Enrollments are usually larger than average daily attendance (ADA), because some students are absent on an average school day. Enrollment and ADA are both used for funding purposes, depending on the program.

As the table shows, statewide enrollment is declining modestly, with decreases in enrollment in grades K-8 and slight increases in high school grades. But beginning in 2010-11, the reverse will occur, according to projections by the state Department of Finance. Statewide enrollment will begin increasing again because the number of K-8 students will grow, while high school enrollment will decline through 2016-17.

In 2008-09, 60% of all counties experienced declining enrollments, and for 31% this decline had been ongoing since 2005-06. Only 12 counties (21%) experienced positive growth year-to-year during those four years—including about half of the counties in the San Francisco Bay Area and a few in the Central Valley and in the northern part of Gold Country.

The number and percentage of students in private schools has declined slightly during the past few years, with 7.9% attending private schools in 2008-09.

California has three types of public school districts: elementary (usually kindergarten through grade 8), high school (typically grades 9 to 12), and unified (kindergarten through grade 12). The number of districts changes a little most years, often because of consolidations or mergers.

Federal

The federal government influences the governance of public schools primarily through requirements that the state must meet in order to receive funding for special purposes. The most notable of these are Special Education and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), known as No Child Left Behind (NCLB). (See cards 23, 30, and 33.) Some federal laws—such as anti-discrimination statutes and accessibility requirements for students with disabilities—also affect schools.

State

Funding for public education in California is almost entirely controlled by the state government. In addition:

- **The governor and Legislature** can make laws that influence every facet of school operations.
- **California's secretary of education** is appointed by the governor to advise the governor on education matters.
- **The superintendent of public instruction (SPI)**, elected by the voters, administers the day-to-day operations of the California Department of Education under the policies of the State Board of Education. The SPI also advocates for the public K–12 school system and drafts regulations to implement new laws. The State Board of Education must approve these regulations.

- **The State Board of Education (SBE)** is appointed by the governor with the approval of the state Senate. It is the governing body for the California Department of Education. The SBE is responsible for approving curriculum frameworks, textbooks, statewide assessments, and standards for student performance. It acts as a court of appeals for local decisions (e.g., school district reorganization).

- **The California Department of Education (CDE)** administers and enforces state education laws; advises school districts on legal, financial, and program matters; and collects, analyzes, and disseminates financial, demographic, performance, and other data about public education, including data necessary to satisfy the requirements of NCLB.

Local

Every school district has a publicly elected board, which is responsible for governing and managing local schools within the limits of state and federal law. Together with school district administration, the **School Board** is responsible for many fiscal, personnel, and instructional policies, such as adopting the budget, hiring or firing the superintendent, and negotiating with **employee unions**. (See Card 25.)

Typically a **principal** is the head of the school and often works as both a manager and a leader. The principal is responsible for helping teachers improve student academic achievement, developing a positive school culture, and managing personnel and operations effectively.

The role of the **School Site Council** and other parent groups varies based on district practice and programs at the school. Site councils in schools with selected state and federal categorical programs develop the Single Plan for Student Achievement for their schools. The plan addresses how the categorical funds will be used to improve academic performance.

County

All 58 county offices of education (COEs) in California are operated by a superintendent and board, but the methods for selecting the members of the governance team vary. In general, county offices provide business, administrative, and curriculum services to school districts; financial oversight of districts and charter schools; and support for and oversight of low-performing schools.

COEs also provide educational programs for certain students, such as classes for homeless students and pregnant minors. By law, some statewide programs, such as Juvenile Court schools, are operated only by county offices. In other cases, both county offices and school districts provide similar services, such as career technical education and Special Education for students with disabilities.

COE services are affected by the type of districts within the county, the location and size of the county, and the special needs of students that are not met by districts within the county. Generally, county offices provide more services to smaller districts.

College Preparatory

High schools must offer the sequence of classes—called “a–g” courses—that are part of the admissions requirements to California’s four-year public universities. (See Card 36.)

Advanced Placement (AP) Courses: These courses offer college-level material to high school students. Students who score a 3 (of 5) or higher on AP exams at the end of the course may receive college credit. Based on College Board data, statewide about 18% of 11th and 12th graders took at least one AP exam in 2008–09. A few high schools offer International Baccalaureate (IB) courses with exams that can also qualify for college credit. Students who earn a “C” or above in AP or IB courses can often receive additional points on their grade-point averages.

California State University’s Expository Reading and Writing Course (ERWC): This full-year English course for high school juniors and seniors helps prepare them for college. In 2009–10, about 245 high schools have adopted the program, and many others have integrated parts of it within existing courses, according to CSU.

Career Technical Education (CTE)

CTE typically involves a series of courses that integrate academics with technical and occupational knowledge. Adopted in January 2007, the state CTE curriculum framework is based on state-adopted standards for grades 7–12 and is grouped into six general career areas: agriculture; business and marketing; health and human services; home economics and technology; industrial and technology education; and arts, media, and entertainment technology.

Regional Occupational Centers and Programs (ROCPs): Created in 1967, the state’s 74 ROCPs serve students on a regional basis and offer courses in more than 100 career areas aligned with regional needs, providing access to industry partnerships and technical equipment. ROCP students frequently spend part of the school day in a traditional academic program and the other part in an ROCP. ROCPs are governed by county offices of education (COEs), joint powers agreements among districts, or individual school districts.

The ROCP program was one of many programs for which policymakers have given districts flexibility through 2012–13 to use the funds for other purposes. (See Card 2.)

Tech Prep Programs: Typically run by community college districts, these programs combine two or more years of high school with two years of postsecondary education. California has 80 Local Tech Prep Consortia that include all 110 community colleges and about 1,200 high schools, COEs, and ROCPs. In 2009–10, the federal Perkins Act provided almost \$11.3 million for curricula and professional development.

Career Tech and College Prep

The University of California began in the mid-1980s to approve CTE programs and courses that also met the “a–g” course criteria. In 2009–10, about 32% of CTE courses qualified as an “a–g” college-prep course for these purposes, according to the California Department of Education.

Linked Learning: Formerly known as multiple pathways, this approach combines academics, career-tech, work experience, and support services. Its purpose is to engage students and prepare them for college and career by offering challenging courses and real-world experiences in a field that interests them. There are many models for implementing the pathways approach, including small high schools organized around a career theme and career-oriented programs within a larger high school (“schools-within-a-school”). Hundreds of these programs are in operation in California, but they currently serve only a fraction of the state’s high school students.

Career or Partnership Academies: Career academies are long-standing models consistent with the linked learning approach. They are schools-within-a-school, have a college-prep curriculum with a career theme, and partner with local employers. In 2009–10, the state provided \$31.3 million to support 463 Partnership Academies in 33 counties. They served about 56,300 grade 10–12 students, of whom at least half were at risk of dropping out of school.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 1/10

Definition and Sufficiency Requirement

Instructional materials include textbooks, technology-based materials (e.g., software), workbooks, science kits, and tests. Senate Bill (SB) 550 (Vasconcellos, 2004), passed to implement part of the settlement of the *Williams* class action lawsuit (see Card 11), requires every school to provide sufficient instructional materials so that all pupils, including English learners, have materials they can use in class and at home. The bill also established a complaint process if instructional materials are insufficient.

Adoption of K–8 Instructional Materials

The State Board of Education (SBE) adopts instructional materials in most subjects with advice from an 18-member Curriculum Commission. The commission evaluates and recommends materials based on criteria described in curriculum frameworks that the SBE adopts every six to eight years. The materials adoption process is as follows:

- Publishers submit materials for consideration to the SBE.
- The Curriculum Commission oversees an evaluation process with three concurrent steps:
 - 1) Materials undergo “social content review” to ensure that they accurately portray the cultural and racial diversity of American society and do not contain inappropriate company logos or references to commercial products.
 - 2) Doctorate-level experts, educators, parents, and others review materials for usability, accuracy, and alignment to SBE-adopted academic content standards, which specify what students in each grade should know.
 - 3) The public comments on submitted materials.
- The SBE holds a “primary” materials adoption.
- In two to four years, the SBE holds a “follow-up” adoption to broaden the selection of materials and allow publishers to modify unaccepted materials so they meet the evaluation criteria.

The SBE adopts standards-based instructional materials for English language arts, mathematics, science, history/social science, health, and visual and performing arts. It also adopts materials for some foreign languages. (Foreign language currently does not have state content standards, though the state has adopted a curriculum framework.) For a list of these instructional materials, go to: www.cde.ca.gov/ci/cr/cf

Grades 9–12

The SBE does not adopt instructional materials for grades 9 to 12. Instead, districts select their own, using SBE-adopted curriculum frameworks and “standards maps” for guidance. (Standards maps show how materials align with the state’s standards.)

Funding for Instructional Materials

In 2002–03, the state created the Instructional Materials Funding Realignment Program (IMFRP), which received \$418 million in the 2008–09 Budget Act passed in September 2008. The IMFRP requires districts to provide standards-based materials for pupils by the start of the school year that begins within two years of adoption of materials by the state for K–8 and by the district for 9–12. But because of budget concerns, in 2009 legislators passed Assembly Bill (AB) X4-2 (Evans), which exempted districts from this requirement through 2012–13.

AB X4-2 also prohibited the SBE from adopting, until 2013–14, additional instructional materials or updating the curriculum frameworks that guide publishers’ development of them, effectively putting the state’s entire curriculum adoption process on hold for several years. In addition, through 2012–13, districts are allowed to spend the IMFRP funds for any educational purpose. However, the state lottery provides a small amount of funding that is earmarked for instructional materials. (See Card 9.)

CALIFORNIA STUDENTS RACIAL AND ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION

	2005-06		2006-07		2007-08		2008-09	
African American	495,017	7.8%	477,776	7.6%	466,141	7.4%	454,781	7.3%
Asian/Pacific Islander	557,558	8.8%	549,232	8.7%	555,946	8.9%	565,913	9.1%
Filipino	165,572	2.6%	165,480	2.6%	167,385	2.7%	168,112	2.7%
Hispanic/Latino	3,003,716	47.6%	3,026,956	48.1%	3,056,616	48.7%	3,064,614	49.0%
Native American/Alaskan Native	50,758	0.8%	48,383	0.8%	47,543	0.8%	46,446	0.7%
White	1,915,491	30.3%	1,849,078	29.4%	1,790,513	28.5%	1,741,664	27.9%
Multiple/No Response	124,324	2.0%	170,038	2.7%	191,325	3.0%	210,501	3.4%
Total Enrollment	6,312,436		6,286,943		6,275,469		6,252,031	

SPECIAL PROGRAMS

English Learners (ELs)	1,570,424	24.9%	1,568,738	25.0%	1,553,091	24.7%	1,515,074	24.2%
Special Education (Age 0-22)	683,178	10.8%	679,648	10.8%	677,875	10.8%	678,105	10.8%
Gifted & Talented (GATE)	501,230	7.9%	512,698	8.2%	527,020	8.4%	533,614	8.5%
Free/Reduced-price Meals*	3,164,384	51.1%	3,149,361	50.8%	3,152,330	51.2%	3,284,120	53.7%

* Students enrolled in this federal program are included even if they attend nonpublic schools. The state also uses a different total enrollment figure (6,112,362 in 2008-09) to determine the percentage of students participating in this program.

Note: In the first table, the percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE) DataQuest, 1/22/10

Special Programs

For information on English learners and Special Education, see cards 17 and 23, respectively.

Gifted and Talented Education (GATE) programs provide a challenging curriculum to students deemed by districts to be intellectually gifted or especially talented in leadership or the arts. In 2008-09, the state funded GATE programs for 791 districts, but only 773 districts reported enrollment. (Districts are not required to report enrollment.) GATE was one of many programs

for which policymakers have given districts flexibility through 2012-13 to use the funds for other purposes. (See Card 2.)

More than half of California's student population in 2008-09 qualified for the **National School Lunch Program**, a federal program that provides free and reduced-priced meals based on parent or guardian income. In 2007, the governor approved a law requiring schools receiving state meal reimbursement funding to eliminate fried foods and artificial trans fats. According to the California Department of Education (CDE), the new standards align with the 2005 Dietary Guidelines for Americans.

Almost 11% of students in California receive Special Education services each year. In 2008–09, schools served 678,105 special-needs students. Of those, about:

- 43% had a specific learning disability;
- 25% had a speech or language impairment;
- 8% had autism.

The remaining 24% had a disability from one of 10 less common categories: orthopedic, visual, or other health impairment; mental retardation; emotional disturbance; hard of hearing; deaf; multiple disability; traumatic brain injury; and deaf-blindness.

Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1975)

Public Law 94-142 required states to provide special services to children with exceptional needs. This federal law also established procedural rights for parents and children. Congressional reauthorization and some changes to the renamed federal Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) were last enacted in 2004.

California's Master Plan for Special Education (1980)

Senate Bill 1870 says that each district must provide free, appropriate education to all qualifying individuals, ages infancy through 21, who live within its boundaries. In addition, an assessment (with parental permission) and a program plan (IEP or Individualized Education Program) are required for each special-needs child. The goal is to place students in the “least restrictive environment” in regular classrooms as much as possible (called “mainstreaming” or “inclusion” if for a full day).

Funding in California

About \$3.2 billion of state funds and \$1.9 billion of ongoing federal funds were allocated for Special Education in the 2009–10 budget. The economic stimulus plan passed by Congress in mid-February 2009 resulted in an additional \$1.3 billion in one-time federal dollars for Special Education through 2010–11.

Since 1998–99, Special Education funding has been based on the total number of students in K–12 public schools rather than on the number of Special Education students each district serves and the services they receive. Money is allocated by regional SELPAs (Special Education Local Plan Areas) to districts and programs serving qualified students. In 2008–09, SELPAs received an average of \$665.38 for every K–12 student based on average daily attendance (ADA), though a few received more than \$900 per ADA. Members of the SELPA agree on how much each district will receive according to the programs it operates and the students it serves. School districts are also expected to provide a share of funding, typically making up the difference between the SELPA-distributed funds and the actual cost of services. Stimulus funds are also being distributed to districts through SELPAs.

In 2001–02, the state settled a 1980 lawsuit brought by the Riverside County Office of Education, approving a \$100 million permanent increase in Proposition 98 base funding (see Card 13), a one-time allocation of \$270 million, and annual payments of \$25 million from 2001–02 through 2010–11.

Despite the increases, the state's share of Special Education funding has been declining compared with the federal contribution. In 1996–97, California contributed 88% of Special Education funds (not counting district monies). Ten years later, the state's share had dropped to 73%. This is partly due to a change in policy. The state used to give a cost-of-living adjustment (COLA) based on both the state and federal contributions to Special Education. Beginning in 2005–06, the state only pays a COLA for its share of the funds. In 2006–07, that meant that Special Education's COLA was about 70% of what it would have been if the state had included federal funds in determining the allocation.

In 2004–05, the state changed its approach to funding Special Education students who are placed in public or private group homes, licensed children's institutions, or other residential facilities by establishing a set amount based on the level of care required and expanding eligibility for these funds to public agencies.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 12/09

TOTAL ADMINISTRATORS 2008–09

59.3% Female; 40.3% Male*	27,950
Average Years of Education Service	19.0
Average Years in District	13.3

ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION 2008–09

African American	8.3%
Asian/Pacific Islander	3.9%
Filipino	0.9%
Hispanic/Latino	17.9%
Native American/Alaskan Native	0.6%
White	67.0%
Multiple/No Response	1.4%

* None reported: 0.4%

Data: California Department of Education (CDE) DataQuest, 11/5/09

Administrator Preparation

Currently, California offers two credentials for administrators—the Preliminary Administrative Services Credential and the Professional Clear Administrative Services Credential. In 2002, lawmakers passed Senate Bill 1655 (Scott), which streamlined the credentialing process.

Preliminary Credential Requirements

To obtain a preliminary administrative credential, candidates must pass the California Basic Educational Skills Test (CBEST); possess a valid credential as a teacher, specialist (such as in reading or math), or pupil services provider (such as a counselor, social worker, or psychologist) and have completed three successful, full-time years in that role. In addition, they must do one of the following:

- 1) Complete a program in administrative services accredited by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC).
- 2) Complete a CCTC-accredited, one-year internship offered by a college or university.

- 3) Pass the School Leaders Licensure Assessment (SLLA). CCTC is developing a new test, specifically for California, to replace the SLLA.

When candidates complete the preliminary credential program, they receive a certificate of eligibility. Once they find employment as an administrator, they exchange the certificate for the preliminary credential, which is valid for five years.

Fully Credentialed Administrator

An administrator who has a preliminary credential and has completed two years as a successful full-time administrator must do one of the following to earn a professional clear credential:

- 1) Complete a CCTC-accredited college- or university-based program.
- 2) Complete the Administrator Training Program (ATP). In 2002, Assembly Bill (AB) 75 (Steinberg) created the Principal Training Program, renamed the Administrator Training Program under AB 430 in 2005.
- 3) Meet Master of Fieldwork Performance Standards through a CCTC-accredited program. This requires candidates to show that they have reached a level of administrative competence that merits recommendation for the credential.
- 4) Complete an alternative program approved by the CCTC.

Valid for five years, this credential can be renewed by paying a fee.

Administrators from Outside California

Administrators who have completed an out-of-state administrator program and have met the basic credential and service requirements referenced above qualify for a preliminary credential. If, in addition, they have been an administrator for three or more years, they qualify for a professional clear credential.

Training Program for Chief Business Officers (CBOs)

In 2005–06, lawmakers established the CBO Training Program in school finance, school operations, and leadership for chief business officers. The CBO Training Program was one of many programs for which policymakers have given districts flexibility through 2012–13 to use the funds for other purposes. (See Card 2.)

Collective bargaining is a procedure, regulated by law, for negotiating an employment contract between a school district and employee representatives. Depending on the relationship between the district and its unions, the process can be cooperative or adversarial but is typically somewhere in between.

Success with collective bargaining in the private sector led to passage of the 1965 Winton Act, which required districts and teachers to “meet and confer” on subjects of mutual interest. Ultimate authority, however, still rested with the local school board.

Senate Bill 160 (Rodda)

This law established collective bargaining for K–16 (kindergarten through university) employees in 1975, replacing the Winton Act. The law gave employees the right to unionize, and it required school districts to recognize the duly elected unions as the sole bargaining agents and to negotiate only with them. Assembly Bill 631, which took effect on Jan. 1, 2000, allows for the provisions of the Rodda Act to be applied to charter school employees.

Employees in a bargaining unit (usually a school district) select one organization as exclusive representative. The largest unions for certificated employees are California Teachers Association (CTA), California Federation of Teachers (CFT), and United Teachers of Los Angeles (UTLA). For classified employees, the largest are California School Employees Association (CSEA), American Federation of School, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME), and Service Employees International Union (SEIU). Negotiations in private between representatives of the union and the governing board result in a binding contract (for a maximum of three years). Some districts use alternatives to the traditional collective bargaining process, such as trust agreements.

Scope

The topics for negotiations (“scope of bargaining”) include “matters relating to wages, hours of employment, and other terms and conditions of employment,” such as benefits, leave and transfer policies, safety conditions, class size, evaluation procedures, and

grievance procedures. Additional items have been added through court cases, PERB (Public Employment Relations Board) decisions, and the law (e.g., length of school day/year).

The “sunshine clause” of Senate Bill 160 requires that initial proposals be presented for public comment before negotiations begin and that financial consequences be made public before the school board signs a contract.

Effective Jan. 1, 2001, all employees must join the selected union or pay a service fee. Previously, this so-called “organizational security” was subject to negotiation.

In addition, a government code section added in 2004 requires that the superintendent and chief business official of a school district certify in writing that the costs incurred by the district under the proposed collective bargaining agreement can be met during the term of the agreement. This certification, which is submitted to the county superintendent, must also itemize any budget revisions necessary to meet the costs of the agreement.

PERB (Public Employment Relations Board)

Established by Senate Bill 160, this board consists of five members appointed by the governor. They decide matters in dispute, especially about the scope of collective bargaining. PERB also establishes rules regarding various types of disputes, including:

- Unfair labor practices;
- Impasse, mediation, and fact-finding processes if negotiations break down; and
- Strike actions by employee groups and “work to rule” (a situation in which union members adhere strictly to the minimum work required by the collective bargaining agreement).

Court Ruling on Strikes

In May 1985, the California Supreme Court ruled that strikes by public employees are legal unless the public safety is threatened (*County Sanitation District No. 2 v. Los Angeles County Employees Association*).

Ratio of Staff to 1,000 Pupils by Position, Fall 2007–08	California Rank in U.S.	U.S. Ratio	California Ratio	Percent of U.S. Ratio
Total staff to students	49	128.1	93.2	73%
All professional (certified) staff to students	50	72.1	52.3	73%
Total district staff (including classified staff)	37	6.4	5.3	83%
District officials/administrators only	47	1.2	0.5	40%
Total school staff (including classified staff)	50	96.5	71.0	74%
Certified school staff only	50	70.9	51.9	73%
Principals/assistant principals	48	3.2	2.3	72%
Guidance counselors	50	2.1	1.2	58%
Librarians	51	1.1	0.2	18%
All teachers	50	64.5*	48.1*	75%
Elementary teachers (grades 1–8)	33	49.8	48.4	97%
Secondary teachers (grades 9–12)	51	83.9	42.8	51%

*These numbers translate into a student/teacher ratio of 20.8 students to 1 teacher for California and 15.5 to 1 for the entire United States. Only Utah has a higher student/teacher ratio than California.

Notes: The numbers in this table are based on fall enrollment data and include pre-K public school students and their teachers. NCES estimated that there were 68,002 pre-K students and 4,110 pre-K teachers in California in 2007–08. If the pre-K students and teachers are not included, California's student/teacher ratio is still 20.8.

The District of Columbia is included among the states.

The "Total staff" row includes all district and school staff plus those who fall under the NCES category "All Other Support Staff."

Data: National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) Common Core of Data, 2007–08; accessed 12/1/09.

Teaching Credentials

Types of teaching credentials include:

- Multiple-subject—for elementary or middle school.
- Single-subject—for middle or high school.
- Specialist—for reading, Special Education, or instruction of English learners.

Fully Credentialed Teacher

To receive a preliminary credential in California, which is valid for five years, individuals must:

- Earn at least a bachelor's degree.
- Pass an approved basic skills test.
- Demonstrate subject-matter knowledge through exams or coursework in the subject(s) the individual plans to teach.
- Participate in a state-approved, teacher-preparation program and pass a teaching performance assessment.

To receive a “clear” credential—which can be renewed every five years—a teacher must complete a beginning teacher induction program. The California Beginning Teacher Support and Assessment (BTSA) Induction Program supports 169 locally developed, two-year induction programs that meet state standards.

Alternative Pathways

Internships, pre-internships, and CalStateTEACH programs (www.calstateteach.net) allow individuals—including professionals changing careers—to hold paid teaching positions while completing credentialing requirements. University- and district-based programs must offer an Early Completion Option, which allows participants to demonstrate pedagogical skills through examination. By June 2010, the state must also establish a process for authorizing alternative teacher preparation programs in science, technology, engineering, math, and career technical education. Community-based organizations will be able to offer such programs.

The Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC) also waives certain requirements for private school, out-of-state, and out-of-country teachers based on their training and years in the profession.

Highly Qualified Teachers

Under federal law, all teachers in core academic areas—English, math, science, social science, arts, and foreign languages—must hold a bachelor's degree and *either* have a credential in the subject they teach *or* be enrolled in an alternative credentialing program (such as an internship) for up to three years. Teachers hired before July 1, 2002, were able to certify their subject-matter competency by having a supervisor evaluate them based on a state-adopted rubric.

If a district is unable to recruit suitable credentialed staff, special permits may be issued to teachers who are not yet fully credentialed:

- The Short-Term Staff Permit (STSP) fills acute staffing needs. The holder must have earned a bachelor's degree, passed a basic skills test, and acquired a specified level of subject-matter knowledge. Issued only once, the permit is good for up to one year.
- The Provisional Internship Permit (PIP) has the same prerequisites as the STSP but employers must verify that they have conducted a diligent search for a credentialed teacher or intern and must help the PIP holder enter an internship program. The PIP may be renewed once if the holder has taken all appropriate subject-matter exams and not passed.
- A Credential Waiver is for individuals who have not demonstrated subject-matter competency and waives one or more requirements for a full teaching credential. Holders must demonstrate progress toward a full credential. Valid for one year, the waiver is renewable on a case-by-case basis for up to two more times.

Instructional Aides

Paraprofessionals whose positions are supported by federal Title I funds must have *either* completed two years of college *or* passed a district test unless they act primarily as translators.

Qualified Teachers and Budget Uncertainties

In 2008–09, California schools had 3,474 fewer teachers than in 2007–08, reversing a four-year upward trend. In 2008–09, 296,027 teachers—96.5%—were fully certified. Another 4,372 (1.4%) were in classrooms under special permits. In addition, 8,772 (2.9%) were preinterns or interns in university or district-sponsored programs. The state also issued 1,125 waivers (0.4% of teachers) to districts for a variety of reasons, allowing them to staff specific classrooms with less than fully credentialed teachers or those teaching “out of field”—meaning they have a credential in a subject different from the one they are teaching.*

Under the federal No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), all teachers in core academic areas—English, math, science, social sciences, arts, and foreign languages—were supposed to have met NCLB’s minimum definition of “highly qualified” by June 2006. (See Card 27.) However, not one state made this deadline. In California, in 2008–09, 6.4% of all NCLB core academic classes were taught by teachers who did not meet this criteria.

Many of the teachers certified as highly qualified are preinterns or district/university interns who are not fully credentialed. In June 2008, the U.S. District Court in San Francisco upheld this approach despite a lawsuit arguing that teachers-in-training should not be considered highly qualified. The decision has been appealed.

Teacher Demand

In 2009–10, an estimated 17,077 new teachers were hired, down about 2,500 from the year before. In some areas, because of state budget cuts and/or declining enrollment, school districts laid off teachers. Other districts rescinded layoff notices after receiving federal stimulus funds. However, nearly 100,000 teachers are older than 50, with many eligible for retirement, and fewer teachers are joining the ranks. And California still faces shortages of qualified teachers, particularly in low-performing schools.

*Because some teachers hold more than one type of credential, the total number of credentials is higher than the number of teachers.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 2/10
The Status of the Teaching Profession 2009, Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning (CFTL)

TOTAL TEACHERS 2008–09	
72.4% Female; 27.5% Male*	306,887
Average Years of Teaching	13.1
Average Years in District	10.9
* Not reported: 0.1%	

ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION 2008–09		
	Teachers	
African American	13,115	4.3%
American Indian/Alaskan Native	1,681	0.5%
Asian/Pacific Islander	17,003	5.5%
Filipino	4,501	1.5%
Hispanic/Latino	50,871	16.6%
White	215,080	70.1%
Multiple/Not Reported	4,636	1.5%

TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS 2008–09			
	FTE* Teachers		Average Class Size
Self-Contained (usually elementary)	131,472	46.5%	22.4
Middle & High School Courses	106,425	37.7%	29.1
Career Technical Education	4,862	1.7%	24.8
Special Education	25,891	9.2%	8.4
Advanced Placement	3,476	1.2%	27.2
International Baccalaureate	346	0.1%	26.4
Other Instruction-Related	10,060	3.6%	16.7
* Full-time equivalent. FTE does not necessarily equal the total number of teachers because more than one teacher’s time may be counted toward the hours equivalent to full time. For example, two half-time teachers equal one FTE.			

Data: CDE, 11/09



K-12 Student Performance



<u>TOPIC</u>	<u>CARD</u>
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EdSource's website, www.edsource.org, offers a wealth of information on student performance, including access to all of EdSource's publications, most of which can be downloaded for free.

Recent publications include:

- Gaining Ground in the Middle Grades: Why Some Schools Do Better (2/10)*
 - Charter Schools in California: 2009 Update on Issues and Performance (6/09)*
 - Algebra Policy in California: Great Expectations and Serious Challenges (5/09)**
 - High School to Community College: New Efforts to Build Shared Expectations (11/08)**
 - Raising African American Student Achievement: California Goals, Local Outcomes (5/08)**
 - English Learners in California: What the Numbers Say (3/08)*
 - Math and Science Education for the California Workforce: It Starts with K-12 (1/08)**
 - Similar English Learner Students, Different Results: Why Do Some Schools Do Better? (9/07)*
 - Worthy Goals, Limited Success: Intervention Programs in California (2/07)*
 - Similar Students, Different Results: Why Do Some Schools Do Better? (6/06)*
- *An executive summary by the same title is also available.*

The API is a single-number indicator of the performance of a school's students on state Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR) program tests administered each spring. (See cards 34 and 35.) All scores for high schools also include results of the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE), which is taken throughout the year. (See Card 31.)

Each year schools receive a "Base API" between 200 and 1,000 and a growth target. Based on California Department of Education data, the Median Base API in 2008 was 776 for elementary schools, 752 for middle schools, and 719 for high schools. API scores are in two-year cycles, with Base API scores based on the first year's test scores and Growth API scores based on the second year's.

800 are expected to progress each year. If they are within four points of 800, they are expected to reach 800; between 691 and 795, increase by five points; and if 690 or less, improve by 5% of the difference between their Base API score and 800.

Components of the API

Scores from several tests are used to compute schools' and subgroups' API scores. Different tests have different weights, and these weights are altered when the tests included in the index change. The weights are theoretically the same for the Base and Growth scores within one API cycle, but they can vary somewhat from school to school within the same level and API cycle, depending on which tests are taken and the percentage of students taking each test. The table below shows the weight of each component for "typical" elementary, middle, and high schools.

Based on API scores, schools of the same type—elementary, middle, and high—are first ranked against all their counterparts in the state, and then ranked against the 100 most similar schools, based largely on student demographics. The rankings are 10 performance levels (deciles) that range from 1 (lowest) to 10 (highest).

API RESULTS

% of Schools Meeting All API Growth Targets

	Elementary	Middle	High	Overall
2009	65%	48%	34%	58%
2008	59%	46%	37%	53%
2007	51%	35%	27%	45%

% of Schools at or Above 800 on Growth API

	Elementary	Middle	High	Overall
2009	48%	36%	21%	42%
2008	41%	30%	17%	36%
2007	36%	25%	15%	31%

Note: These tables (and the data on this card about Median Base API scores) exclude schools in the Alternate Schools Accountability Model (ASAM), Special Education schools, small schools (fewer than 100 scores), and schools missing API scores.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE) press releases and data files, 9/09

SAMPLE API CYCLE CALENDAR

Spring 2009	Students take STAR tests and the CAHSEE.*
Spring 2010	2009 Base API scores, based on spring 2009 tests, come out.
Spring 2010	Students take STAR tests and the CAHSEE.*
Aug./Sept. 2010	2010 Growth API scores, based on spring 2010 tests, are released.

* The CAHSEE is administered several times a year.

APIs are calculated for the entire school and for "numerically significant subgroups" of students based on ethnicity, economic status, and whether they are English learners or require Special Education services. Schools and subgroups with API scores below the state's performance target of

API COMPONENT WEIGHTS IN "TYPICAL" SCHOOLS FOR 2008/2009 API CYCLE

	K-5	6-8	9-12
California Standards Tests (CSTs)			
English Language Arts	56%	52%	27%
Math	38%	34%	18%
Science	6%	7%	23%
Social Science	N/A	7%	14%

California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE)*

English Language Arts	N/A	N/A	9%
Math	N/A	N/A	9%

* Test results from several administrations of the CAHSEE throughout the school year are included in a high school's API score.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 12/08

School District API

In 2003–04, the state began compiling API scores for local education agencies (districts and county offices of education). These scores are used to meet federal accountability requirements. (See Card 30.)

Under the federal No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), which was signed into law in January 2002, all students are expected to be proficient in reading and math by 2013–14. “Proficient” in California means: 1) elementary and middle school students scoring proficient or advanced on California Standards Tests (CSTs) in English language arts and math; 2) for high schools, 10th graders scoring the equivalent of roughly 75% in English and 70% in math on the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE)—a higher score than is needed to pass.

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP)

The state has set benchmarks (called annual measurable objectives, or AMOs) for the percentage of students who should be proficient in English and math in order for schools, districts, and the state to make adequate yearly progress (AYP) toward the 100% proficiency goal. The targets (AMOs) for 2008–09 include:

- Elementary/middle schools and elementary districts: 46.0% proficient in English, 47.5% in math.
- High schools and high school districts (9–12): 44.5% proficient in English, 43.5% in math.
- Unified districts (K–12), county offices of education, and high school districts that include pupils from lower grades: 45.0% proficient in English, 45.5% in math.

In 2007–08, the state’s performance targets began to rise sharply, and under current law they will continue to do so until 2013–14. All

“significant subgroups” of students based on ethnicity, poverty, disabilities, and status as English learners must achieve these targets. For the 2008–09 school year, to have made AYP schools must also have: 1) tested 95% of students in each significant subgroup; 2) had an Academic Performance Index (API) score of at least 650 or increased it by one point; 3) for high schools, achieved a graduation rate of at least 83.1% or shown improvement under one of two formulas. In 2008–09, California as a state did not make AYP because it missed 11 of the 46 AYP criteria, including not meeting the graduation rate target. (See Card 32.) Subgroups’ results are in the right column.

District AYP

To make AYP, districts must: 1) meet their AMOs districtwide for all significant subgroups; 2) reach a districtwide minimum API score, which was 650 in 2008–09, or have at least one point growth in their API; 3) have a 95% test participation rate districtwide and for all significant subgroups; and 4) meet the graduation rate criterion districtwide if they have high schools.

AYP RESULTS BY DISTRICT TYPE

Percent of Districts that Met All AYP Targets

	Elementary	High (9-12)	Unified*	All Districts
2008–09	52.3%	29.7%	15.0%	36.0%
2007–08	55.9%	38.7%	20.7%	40.9%

* Also includes high school districts with lower grades (such as 7–12) and county offices of education.

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 2/10

AYP RESULTS BY SCHOOL TYPE

Percent of Schools that Made AMOs

	Elementary	Middle	High	All
2008–09	61.3%	29.1%	58.4%	55.8%
2007–08	59.4%	34.2%	73.6%	59.1%

Percent of Schools that Met All AYP Targets

2008–09	60.3%	26.9%	37.5%	49.7%
2007–08	58.2%	33.2%	49.4%	52.3%

Note: Includes alternative schools, direct-funded charter schools, and small schools (fewer than 100 scores).

Data: CDE, 2/10

SUBGROUPS’ RESULTS ON TESTS USED FOR AYP 2008–09

Groups	% Proficient in English (met criteria of 45.0%)	% Proficient in Math (met criteria of 45.5%)
All Students	52.0 (yes)	54.2 (yes)
African American	39.7 (no)	37.6 (no)
Asian	74.6 (yes)	81.0 (yes)
Filipino	69.0 (yes)	70.4 (yes)
Hispanic/Latino	38.9 (no)	43.8 (no)
Native American/Alaskan Native	45.4 (yes)	45.6 (yes)
Pacific Islander	49.8 (yes)	51.9 (yes)
White	69.9 (yes)	67.4 (yes)
Socioeconomically Disadvantaged	38.4 (no)	43.6 (no)
English Learners	33.2 (no)	42.8 (no)
Students with Disabilities	30.0 (no)	31.6 (no)

Note: Students who because of their disability are unable to take the CSTs or CAHSEE take alternative examinations—either the California Alternative Performance Assessment (CAPA) or the California Modified Assessment.

Data: CDE, 2/10

Public high school students must pass the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) in order to graduate. The test is based on California's academic content standards. The English language arts section tests state standards for grades 9 and 10 and includes one writing exercise. The math section covers standards for grades 6 and 7 and Algebra I. Students first take the exit exam in the spring of their sophomore year. Students have multiple chances to pass the test before graduation. A student who passes one section of the test does not take that section again. The 10th grade results are used to help determine whether high schools have made adequate yearly progress (AYP) under the federal No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). (See Card 30.) Test scores from 10th through 12th grades are used as part of the calculation for high schools' Academic Performance Index (API) scores. (See Card 29.)

By the time they were due to graduate (May 2009), an estimated 432,989 students or 90.6% of the class of 2009 had passed the exit exam, according to HumRRO, independent evaluators of the CAHSEE.

Students with Disabilities

Beginning in 2009–10, the state is exempting students with individualized education programs (IEPs) or Section 504 plans from having to pass the CAHSEE to graduate. In addition, no funding was allocated to support their testing. The exemption will last until the State Board of Education either implements an alternative means for students to demonstrate achievement or determines that an alternative is not feasible.

CALIFORNIA HIGH SCHOOL EXIT EXAM PASSING RATES

	All Students	Female	Male	African American	Asian	Hispanic/Latino	Native American/Alaskan	White	Economically Disadvantaged	English Learners	Special Education*
Class of 2009											
Percent Passing by Grade 12	91%	92%	89%	81%	95%	87%	92%	96%	86%	74%	57%
Percent Passing by Grade 11	82%	84%	80%	68%	92%	74%	79%	92%	73%	52%	39%
Percent Passing by Grade 10	65%	68%	63%	48%	83%	53%	62%	81%	51%	26%	21%
Percent Who Had Passed One Year After Scheduled Graduation											
Class of 2008	91%	93%	90%	82%	96%	88%	92%	96%	87%	76%	57%
Class of 2007	94%	95%	94%	90%	97%	90%	N/A	99%	90%	80%	50%
Class of 2006†	92%	93%	92%	85%	96%	87%	N/A	98%	87%	78%	49%

* In response to a lawsuit and changes in state policy, California has set up alternative criteria to passing the CAHSEE that Special Education students in the classes of 2006 through 2009 can meet so they can receive a diploma. However, some students, because of age or other issues, may not be able to meet the criteria.

† Students in the class of 2006 were the first to have to pass the CAHSEE to graduate.

Data: California High School Exit Examination (CAHSEE) Summary of 2008–09 Results, California Department of Education (CDE), 9/2/09, and Independent Evaluation of the CAHSEE: 2008 and 2009 Evaluation Reports, Human Resources Research Organization (HumRRO). Results are estimates.

Graduation Course Requirements

California students must pass a set of courses to graduate. School districts, however, can require more. State-required courses include:

- Three years of English;
- Two years of math (including Algebra I);
- Three years of social studies (including U.S. history and geography; world history, culture, and geography; a semester in American government and civics; and a semester in economics);
- Two years of science (including biological and physical science);
- One year of visual or performing arts or a foreign language;
- Two years of physical education unless exempted.

Graduation and Dropout Rates

The California Department of Education (CDE) defines dropouts as grade 7–12 students from the previous year who are not enrolled in school on Information Day (the day in October when schools report data to the state). High school graduates are students who received a high school diploma by meeting all state and local graduation requirements and by passing the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE). (See Card 31.) Students who withdraw (e.g., transfer to a private school) or complete high school but do not graduate (e.g., receive a GED) are not counted as graduates or dropouts.

Graduate and dropout counts are inherently estimates because it is difficult to follow every student who leaves a school. For the past two years, California has been able to count graduates and dropouts more precisely using statewide student identifiers (SSIDs) instead of aggregate counts. (See Card 16.)

California reports several different calculations of high school completion for different purposes:

- The one-year dropout rate tracks how many students in a given year have left school. The statewide one-year dropout rate was 4.9% in 2007–08, down from 5.5% in 2006–07.
- The state estimates a four-year dropout rate using one year’s data and creating an adjusted four-year derived rate. In 2007–08, this adjusted rate was 18.9%, slightly lower than in 2006–07 (21.1%).

graduate from high school in four years. Under the federal No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), the graduation rate is determined by dividing the number of graduates by the number of graduates plus dropouts from the previous four years. California’s graduation rate using this method was 80.2% in 2007–08. High schools must have a graduation rate of 83.1% or improve based on one of two formulas to meet federal NCLB requirements for adequate yearly progress. (See Card 30.)

California traditionally calculates graduation rates differently—by dividing the number of graduates by the 9th grade enrollment four years prior (“9th grade to graduate rate”). Using this formula, the 2007–08 graduation rate was 68.5%, slightly higher than 67.7% in 2006–07. In addition, the state estimated that another 11.8% of the class of 2007–08 withdrew or completed high school but did not drop out or graduate.

The graduation rate attempts to measure what percentage of a group of 9th graders

SSID GRADUATION AND DROPOUT RATES BY ETHNICITY 2007–08

	African American	Asian	Filipino	Hispanic/Latino	Native American/Alaskan	Pacific Islander	White	Multiple/No Response	Overall
9th Grade to Graduate Rate	54.6%	92.0%	89.0%	58.0%	62.3%	71.4%	79.1%	78.4%	68.5%
Adjusted Four-Year Derived Dropout Rate	32.9%	7.9%	8.6%	23.8%	24.1%	21.3%	11.7%	23.3%	18.9%

Note: For more details on how the rates are calculated, see: www.cde.ca.gov/ds/sd/cb/ssidguide08.asp

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 2/1/10



Program Improvement for Schools

Only schools that receive federal Title 1 funds under the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) are placed in Program Improvement (PI). (See Card 30.) Schools enter Year 1 of PI if they do not make adequate yearly progress (AYP) for two years in a row:

- in the same content area (English or math—schoolwide or for any numerically significant subgroup); or
- on the same indicator (Academic Performance Index or high school graduation rate) schoolwide.

Consequences become more severe with each year that a school does not make AYP. They begin with actions such as notifying parents of the school’s status, allowing students to transfer to a school not in PI, and providing tutoring and teacher professional development. By Year 4, the district and school must develop a plan to restructure the school that will be implemented in Year 5. In 2009–10, 28% of all California schools were in PI, and 62% of those were facing corrective action (Year 3) or restructuring (years 4–5). Effective January 2010, new state regulations call for the bottom 5% of schools among those in PI to also face one of four specific interventions. These were instituted in response to the federal Race to the Top program. (See SBX5-4 at: www.leginfo.ca.gov)

If a school in PI makes its AYP goals, it retains its current PI status—Year 1, 2, 3, or 4. If it makes AYP for two years in a row, it is released

from PI. In fall 2009, 77 schools left PI while 685 entered the program. Schools that were in PI the longest were the least likely to leave. Only 10 out of 903 schools in Year 5 in 2008–09 left PI in 2009–10.

SCHOOLS IN PI				
2009–10	Elementary	Middle	High	Total
Number of Schools*	5,998	1,466	2,453	9,917
Number of Title I Schools**	4,139	859	1,067	6,065
Title I Schools in Program Improvement				
Year 1	493	88	167	748
Year 2	186	50	73	309
Year 3	227	39	57	323
Year 4	208	60	60	328
Year 5†	601	371	103	1,075
Total	1,715	608	460	2,783

* Includes all schools that get an AYP report.
 ** Includes alternative schools and small schools.
 † Some schools have been in Year 5 restructuring for more than one year.
 Note: In 2009–10, 69% of elementary, 59% of middle, and 43% of high schools received Title I funding.
 Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 1/10

Program Improvement for Districts

A district (or county office of education) receiving Title I funding enters PI by failing for two years in a row to meet the same AYP targets that schools have. However, districts are exempt from PI if they can show that students in any of three specific grade spans (3–5, 6–8, or 10) have in either year met the AYP indicator that the district as a whole failed.

During the first year of PI, districts are expected to notify parents and revise their existing plan for Title I dollars. In addition, the California Department of Education (CDE) must provide or arrange for technical assistance, often through a county office of education. If the district again fails to make AYP, it must implement its revised Title I plan and continue to receive technical assistance. If a district does not improve after two years in PI, it enters the “corrective action” phase in Year 3. Although CDE can then impose serious sanctions, such as replacing staff or abolishing the district, it generally requires districts to implement a new curriculum and work with a local external team (see below). In order to exit PI, a district must make AYP for two consecutive years.

California introduced PI for districts and county offices in August 2004. By fall 2009, the state had identified 299 districts and county offices (out of 936 receiving Title I funds) for PI, including 174 that were in Year 3.

District Assistance Intervention Team

Many districts that have reached Year 3 of PI work with a state-sponsored District Assistance Intervention Team (DAIT). A DAIT is a team of county office of education or other education professionals who provide targeted technical assistance and support to help districts exit PI status. The DAIT works with the district to examine current practices, evaluate the effectiveness of those practices, conduct needs assessments, and implement actions to address those needs.

Statewide Testing Program

California students in grades 2–11 participate in the Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR) program each spring. Parents and schools receive individual student scores. Results for schools, districts, counties, and the state are posted on the Internet each summer. Based on their student test results, schools are given an Academic Performance Index (API) score and are ranked. (See Card 29.) The results are also used to determine whether schools have made adequate yearly progress (AYP) under the federal law.* (See cards 30 and 33.)

California Standards Tests (CSTs)

CSTs are based on the state's academic content standards—what students are supposed to learn. The state has set performance levels for student results on the CSTs. Test scores are described as: far below basic, below basic, basic, proficient, and advanced. (For test results, see Card 35.)

- **English Language Arts:** Tests reading, vocabulary, and other language arts for grades 2–11. Grade 7 students also take a writing test.
- **Mathematics:** Grades 2–11. In grades 2–7, grade-level tests are given. For grades 8–11 (and more advanced 7th graders), the test depends on which math course, such as Algebra I, the student is taking. Students who have previously completed Algebra II take the High School Summative Math CST.

* For high schools, API scores reflect STAR and California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) scores. AYP results are based primarily on CAHSEE scores for 10th graders.

- **History/Social Science:** Grades 8 and 11. The grade 8 test assesses cumulative social science knowledge from grades 6–8; the grade 11 test focuses on U.S. History. There is also a CST in World History for those who have taken the course.
- **Science:** A comprehensive test for grades 5 and 8; a life science CST for grade 10. High school students also take CSTs for specific subjects, such as chemistry.

English Learners

Students who are receiving instruction in Spanish or who have been enrolled in a U.S. school for less than 12 months when testing begins take an additional test in their primary language:

- **Standards-based Tests in Spanish (STS)** covers reading-language arts and math for grades 2–11.

Special Education Students

Most students with disabilities participate in STAR according to requirements in their Individualized Education Program (IEP). The IEP may call for accommodations, such as a large-print version of an exam, which do not change the test. Or it may require modifications, such as allowing the use of a calculator, which do alter the test. The state also has alternative assessments for students with disabilities who cannot take the CSTs even with testing accommodations/modifications:

- **California Alternate Performance Assessment (CAPA)** includes tests based

on the building blocks of California's academic content standards for students in grades 2–11 who have significant cognitive disabilities.

- **California Modified Assessment (CMA)** includes tests based on modified achievement standards for students with disabilities in grades 3–8 whose IEP team has determined that neither the CAPA nor the CST is the appropriate assessment.

Early Assessment Program (EAP)

High school juniors whose schools participate in EAP can choose to take expanded versions of CSTs in English (including an essay) and math (Algebra II or Summative High School Mathematics) to determine college readiness. The results (see Card 35) are used by the California State University system to exempt students from college placement tests or let students know that they need additional preparation.

Senate Bill 946 (Scott), passed and signed into law in 2008, also allows—but does not require—community colleges to use EAP tests to exempt students from placement testing beginning in 2009–10.

Each spring, California students in grades 2–11, including English learners, participate in the Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR) program. The major component of STAR is the California Standards Tests (CSTs), which are aligned to the state’s academic content standards. (See Card 34.)

California Standards Tests Performance Levels in 2009

The state’s goal is for all students to score at the “proficient” or “advanced” level.

PERCENT SCORING PROFICIENT OR ADVANCED										
Grades	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
English Language Arts										
English Language Arts	53	44	61	54	52	54	48	50	44	40
(percent taking test)	(99)	(96)	(95)	(94)	(95)	(96)	(96)	(97)	(97)	(96)
History/Social Science <i>Grade 8 is a cumulative test, and grade 11 covers U.S. History. Students in grades 9–11 who are in World History classes take that test.</i>										
History/Social Science							42			44
(percent taking test)							(98)			(94)
World History								41	38	11
(percent taking test)								(7)	(87)	(5)
Science* <i>Grades 5 and 8 are cumulative tests. High school students take a life science CST in grade 10 and subject-based CSTs at the end of their courses. State standards do not delineate a specific course order.</i>										
Science				49			56		44	
(percent taking test)				(95)			(95)		(94)	
Biology								51	34	41
(percent taking test)								(37)	(50)	(20)
Chemistry								44	44	27
(percent taking test)								(1)	(22)	(28)
Earth Science								29	23	26
(percent taking test)								(29)	(7)	(9)
Physics								35	40	50
(percent taking test)								(2)	(2)	(10)

* Some students take Integrated Math and Integrated Science. To find those test results and more detailed information about STAR, go to: <http://star.cde.ca.gov>

Grades	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Mathematics* <i>After students reach 8th grade, their CSTs are based on the courses they take. The shaded boxes indicate the course-taking guidelines recommended by the state standards.</i>										
Mathematics	63	64	66	57	49	43				
(percent taking test)	(99)	(96)	(95)	(95)	(95)	(89)				
General Math							30	17		
(percent taking test)							(39)	(13)		
Algebra I							81	44	21	11
(percent taking test)							(6)	(54)	(53)	(26)
Geometry							87	47	14	7
(percent taking test)							(4)	(25)	(34)	(18)
Algebra II							79	65	37	12
(percent taking test)							(<1)	(4)	(23)	(25)
High School Summative								80	71	47
(percent taking test)								(<1)	(4)	(23)

Data: California Department of Education (CDE), 1/10

EARLY ASSESSMENT PROGRAM 2009 (EAP)

Through the EAP, high school juniors can take expanded CSTs to determine college readiness for the California State University (CSU) system. (See Card 34.) Altogether, 366,949 juniors participated in the EAP English language arts test in 2009, and 169,478 juniors took the EAP math test.

	English Language Arts	Mathematics
Ready for College	16%	13%
Ready for College (Conditional)*	N/A	44%
Not College Ready	83%	43%
Participation Rate of Eligible Students†	82%	77%

* Conditional means that students need to take an additional math course during their senior year to be considered college-ready by CSU.

† Juniors are eligible for the English language arts EAP test if they took the English CST. They are eligible for the math if they took either the Algebra II or Summative High School Mathematics CST.

Note: Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding.

Data: Early Assessment Program (EAP), 1/10

Eligibility for Admissions to State Universities

High school students' eligibility to California State University (CSU) and University of California (UC) is based on successfully completing 15 one-year college preparatory (referred to as "a-g") courses, high school grades, and performance on college admissions exams. Further considerations for admission can include advanced coursework (see Card 20) and personal attributes.

Periodically, CSU and UC change their eligibility requirements and their admissions review process and criteria. For example, UC raised its minimum grade point average (GPA) from 2.8 to 3.0 for California residents beginning with the class entering in fall 2007. The GPA is based on all "a-g" courses taken in 10th and 11th grades.

Required College Prep Courses ("a-g")

- (a) Two history/social science (World and U.S.);
- (b) Four English language arts;
- (c) Three math (through Algebra II or Integrated Math III);
- (d) Two laboratory science (two different disciplines);
- (e) Two foreign language (same language);
- (f) One visual/performing arts;
- (g) One elective from the above subjects.

Eligibility in the Local Context (ELC)

Under ELC, the top 4% of each California high school's graduating senior class—based on their grades in college prep classes—are granted admission to UC. The program, which began in fall 2001, is designed to attract students from schools that historically have sent few graduates to UC. Typically, more than one in five public high school graduates who enroll in UC do so through this program. In 2009, 23.1% of these graduates did.

College Admissions Tests

UC requires *either* the SAT Reasoning Test (critical reading, mathematics, and writing) *or* the ACT Assessment (English, math, reading, and science) plus the ACT Writing Test taken in one sitting. UC also requires SAT II Subject Tests in two different subject areas (foreign language, higher math, history/social science, English, or science).

The SAT II tests will no longer be required beginning in fall 2012, but they may be considered in the evaluation of an application.

CSU requires either the SAT Reasoning Test (SAT-R) or the ACT Assessment. It does not require the ACT Writing Test and does not use scores from the writing section of the SAT Reasoning Test in its admissions process.

In 2009, 49% of California's graduating seniors took the SAT compared with the U.S. rate of 46%, according to the College Board.

AVERAGE SAT SCORES 2009			
	Critical Reading	Math	Writing
California	500	513	498
U.S.	501	515	493

Data: College Board, 11/6/09

In 2009, 19% of California's graduating seniors took the ACT (U.S. rate: 45%), according to ACT. The average composite score for California was 22.2 compared with the U.S. average of 21.1.

CSU/UC ELIGIBILITY RATES BY ETHNIC GROUP		
(based on successful completion of "a-g" courses)		
	2002-03	2007-08
African American	24.3%	23.3%
Asian	56.1%	59.2%
Filipino	43.7%	44.8%
Hispanic/Latino	21.5%	22.5%
Native American/Alaskan Native	23.0%	25.7%
Pacific Islander	25.4%	27.4%
White	39.2%	39.8%
Multiple/No Response	24.3%	32.4%
Total Eligible	33.6%	33.9%

Note: These data rely on self-reporting by districts.
Data: California Department of Education (CDE) DataQuest, 11/9/09



Postsecondary Education

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EdSource's website, www.edsource.org, offers a wealth of information about postsecondary education issues, including access to all of EdSource's publications, most of which can be downloaded for free.



Recent publications include:

*High School to Community College: New Efforts to Build Shared Expectations (11/08)**

*Quality, Access, Low Cost. Can California's Community Colleges Do It All? (3/05)**

**An executive summary by the same title is also available.*

The following publications are available in English and Spanish:

A Guide to California's Community Colleges (12/08)

Community College: A first step to a bachelor's degree (12/08)

A Guide to CSU Admissions Policies (4/05)

A Guide to UC Admissions Policies (4/05)

CALIFORNIA'S PUBLIC COLLEGE SYSTEMS

	Number of Campuses, 2008-09	Undergraduate Enrollment Fall 2007	Undergraduate Enrollment Fall 2008
Community Colleges (CCC)	110	1,696,489	1,794,904
Calif. State Univ. (CSU)	23	380,469	382,939
Univ. of Calif. (UC)	10	167,693*	173,078*

* These totals include health science majors (374 students in 2007 and 479 students in 2008), who are often excluded in UC enrollment figures.

Data: California Community Colleges, CSU, UC, 1/14/10

FALL 2008 COLLEGE-GOING RATES OF CALIFORNIA PRIVATE HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES (Class of 2008)

Number of Graduates	UC	CSU	CCC	Total
33,749	10.9%	17.6%	15.6%	44.2%

Data: California Postsecondary Education Commission, 3/2/10

FALL 2008 COLLEGE-GOING RATES OF CALIFORNIA PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES BY ETHNICITY (Class of 2008)

Number of Graduates	UC	CSU	CCC	Total†	
African American	25,947	4.4%	12.4%	32.5%	49.2%
Asian/Pacific Islander	41,894	23.2%	14.2%	27.5%	64.8%
Filipino	12,468	10.1%	19.4%	34.5%	64.0%
Hispanic/Latino	143,383	4.0%	9.9%	31.8%	45.7%
Native American	3,071	4.4%	10.1%	33.6%	48.1%
White	141,128	5.7%	10.5%	25.7%	41.9%
Total*	375,973	7.4%	11.9%	31.0%	50.3%

* The total includes the "multiple" and "no response" categories.

† Percentages may not add to the total due to rounding.

Data: California Postsecondary Education Commission, 3/2/10

Postsecondary Public Education in California

California operates three separate public systems for postsecondary education: two-year community colleges (see cards 38–41), the four-year California State University (CSU) system, and the more selective four-year University of California (UC) system. (Also see Card 42 for information about university enrollments.)

College-Going Rates

In fall 2008, 50% of California's public high school graduates and 44% of private high school graduates went to UC, CSU, or a California community college. This compares with 52% in fall 2007 for public school and 46% for private school students. The California Master Plan for Higher Education specifies that UC accept the top eighth and CSU accept the top third of state high school graduates (including those who are also UC-eligible) who apply on time.

University of California (UC)

The overwhelming majority (91%) of UC undergraduates are from California, according to UC's 2009 *Accountability Report*. And approximately 90% of transfer students come to UC from the California Community Colleges.

California Community Colleges are open to all adult and some high school students in the state who want to attend. Through the full 2008–09 school year, the system served nearly 2.9 million students, of whom more than half (1.5 million) were 24 years old or younger. The colleges provide students with:

- Courses leading to associate degrees in academic and technical fields, and/or transfer to a four-year university;
- Training or certificate programs in health, high technology, and other occupational fields;
- Basic skills courses for students who need additional academic preparation before taking college-level courses; and
- Continuing education for the general community.

Configuration

California’s 110 community colleges are organized into 72 districts. District sizes vary—in fall 2008, from nine colleges and 160,053 students in Los Angeles Community College District to one college and 1,873 students in Lassen Community College District.

Each district has a locally elected board with members who serve four-year terms. Local community colleges have autonomy to make decisions about administration, curriculum, and site issues within the constraints established by state law and system regulations. For instance, colleges currently choose which placement exams are used to advise local students about course-taking, contingent on approval from the system office.

The California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office and the 17-member Board of Governors (BOG) in Sacramento govern the system within the context of this local flexibility. They manage disbursement of funds, ensure state mandates are met, and serve as liaisons among campuses.

The BOG and the chancellor receive feedback on major decisions from the Consultation Council. This 18-member council—which includes representatives from various community college constituencies and organizations—is the formal means through

which local districts provide input and advice on the formation of system policy.

Student Enrollment Fees

For fall 2009 through spring 2010, fees are \$26 per semester unit. Set by the state, fees have fluctuated:

- spring 2007–spring 2008: \$20
- fall 2004–fall 2006: \$26
- fall 2003–spring 2004: \$18
- spring 2000–spring 2003: \$11

Fees are proportionally adjusted for schools on the quarter system, summer sessions, and short-term courses.

APPROPRIATIONS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

A state formula determines how much funding community college districts receive. Revenues generated from student fees currently account for about 4% of total revenues for the system. Those fees are used to offset state aid to community college districts and do not directly improve funding for individual campuses. The numbers below are those reported by the California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office and differ from state Department of Finance accounts. (See the note below.)

	2008–09		2009–10	
	(MILLIONS)		(MILLIONS)	
State Funds	\$4,237	60%	\$3,828	58%
Local Property Taxes	2,054	29%	1,947	30%
Federal Government	258	4%	291*	4%
Student Fees	299	4%	346	5%
Lottery	167	2%	149	2%
Total	\$7,014†		\$6,563†	

* This amount includes \$35 million in one-time funds from the federal stimulus.

† Due to rounding, categories of funds do not add to the total and percentages do not add to 100%.

Note: In its accounting of community college funds, the state Department of Finance includes more sources—such as \$1.9 billion in local monies and \$415 million in state funds—as part of total community college revenue.

Data: California Community Colleges Chancellor’s Office (CCCCO), 1/10



Educational Administrators and Faculty

In fall 2008, the California Community Colleges (CCC) employed 93,762 individual staff members, including many part-time employees. Of these, about 70% were educational administrators, tenured or tenure-track faculty, or temporary academic staff.

Minimum Qualifications

The statewide Board of Governors has adopted minimum qualifications—including degrees and experience—that all faculty hired by community college districts in California must meet. Local districts may establish additional requirements. (Some community college faculty may also hold a lifetime credential, issued prior to July 1990, in a particular subject area.)

For instructors of credit courses, tenured/tenure-track or temporary:

- Some disciplines, such as in the humanities and natural sciences, require a master's degree in the discipline, or a bachelor's degree in the discipline plus a reasonably related master's degree.
- Some technical disciplines, such as fire technology and administration of justice, require any bachelor's degree plus two years of full-time, directly related occupational experience, or any associate degree plus six years of such experience.
- A third category, which currently includes only biotechnology, requires that instructors hold a directly related bachelor's degree plus two years of full-time, directly related occupational experience, or a directly related associate degree plus six years of such experience.

For instructors of noncredit courses, a relevant bachelor's degree or a bachelor's degree plus experience or certification—or equivalent—is typically required.

Counselors and librarians are expected to hold relevant master's degrees. Educational administrators must hold a master's degree and have one year of relevant formal training, internship, or leadership experience.

CCC EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS AND FACULTY, FALL 2008

	Statewide FTE Staff
Educational Administrator*	2,066
Tenured/Tenure-Track Faculty†	20,771
Academic Temporary	17,110 (45,156 individuals)

GENDER AND ETHNIC DISTRIBUTION, FALL 2008

	Educational Administrator	Tenured/Tenure-Track Faculty	Academic Temporary
Female	50.8%	52.9%	51.5%
Male	49.2%	47.1%	48.5%
African American	10.0%	6.1%	5.0%
Asian/Pacific Islander	6.6%	7.8%	7.8%
Filipino	1.8%	1.1%	1.2%
Hispanic/Latino	15.1%	12.5%	10.5%
Native American	0.9%	1.1%	0.8%
White	60.3%	67.8%	68.5%
Other/Unknown	5.3%	3.7%	6.3%

* Educational administrators include chancellors, presidents, and other employees with direct responsibility for supervising and formulating policy for instructional or student services programs.

† Faculty are staff employed in academic positions not designated as supervisory or management. They include instructors plus librarians, counselors, and professionals who work in health-services, disabled-student, and extended-opportunity programs.

Notes: Palo Verde and Solano districts did not report their data. Percentages may not add to 100% due to rounding.

Data: California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office, *Report on Staffing for Fall 2008*, Employee Category Full-time Equivalency (FTE) Distribution by District and Employee Category Ethnicity/Gender Headcount Distribution by District

Eligibility/Academic Standards

Students must be at least 18 years old for regular enrollment in a California community college. A high school diploma is not required. Although the vast majority of students are California residents, each district has its own policy as to whether out-of-state residents can pay additional fees and attend.

The community colleges are open-access institutions. However, the colleges expect students to be prepared academically if they want to undertake college-level courses. Policies for determining whether students need further academic preparation in reading, writing, and/or mathematics vary among local community college districts. The colleges frequently use placement tests and other measures to advise students about placement.

If a student is assessed as unprepared for college-level study in English or mathematics, the student may be advised to enroll in one or more basic skills courses. Basic skills credits do not apply toward a college degree, and they cannot be transferred to University of California (UC) or California State University (CSU).

Since fall 2009, incoming students who want to earn an associate degree have been required to pass both Intermediate Algebra and transfer-level Freshman Composition or their equivalents. Students may also fulfill these requirements through assessment.

Enrollment/Demographics

In fall 2008, about 34% of the student body was white, 30% Hispanic/Latino, 12% Asian/Pacific Islander, 7% African American, 3% Filipino, and 1% Native American/Alaskan Native. The rest were of other or unknown ethnicities.

According to the California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office (CCCCO), about 19% of all community college students in fall 2008 were 19 years old or younger *and* held a high school diploma (but not a college degree), meaning they probably entered community college directly out of high school.

Most California high school graduates who go on to public higher education enroll at a community college. In fall 2008, 61% of first-time freshmen (age 19 or younger) who enrolled in public postsecondary institutions statewide—including 65% of African Americans and 69% of Latinos—did so at a community college.

Altogether, 55% of bachelor's degree graduates from CSU in 2007–08 had attended a California Community College (CCC), according to CCCCCO. At UC, former CCC students made up 29% of all bachelor's degree graduates.

Dual Enrollment/Middle College High School

Dual enrollment programs enable high school students to take courses for college credit and are intended to increase student participation and success in postsecondary education. In fall 2008, about 65,000 community college students were special admit students who were also enrolled in high schools.

One example of dual enrollment is the Middle College High School (MCHS). MCHS allows students—particularly “at-risk students” with high potential—to attend a high school located on a community college campus, take college courses, and receive extra counseling.

STUDENT AGE AND COURSE LOADS, FALL 2008

Student Enrollment	1.82 million
19 Years and Younger	25%
20-24	27%
25-39	26%
40 and Older	21%
Full-Time (12 units or more)	27%
Part-Time	60%
Noncredit Only	13%

Note: The percentages that are broken down based on age do not add to 100% due to rounding and a small number of students whose ages are not known.

Data: California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office (CCCCO), 12/09

Community College Awards and Transfers

California Community Colleges (CCC) grant a range of awards, such as associate degrees, credit certificates for degree-applicable coursework that develops students' career or education capacities, and noncredit certificates for noncredit programs and sequences. The colleges also qualify students to transfer to four-year universities for further education. Measuring the rates at which community college students succeed in reaching their goals is difficult, however, because those goals are so varied and students differ in how quickly they progress. The data below show completions for a given year but not what percentage of students reached their goals.

CCC AWARDS GRANTED IN 2007-08

Type of Award	Number (% of Total Awards)
Associate of Arts (A.A.)	61,166 (48%)
Associate of Science (A.S.)	21,906 (17%)
Credit Certificate (6 or more semester units)	36,752 (29%)
Noncredit Award (of any type)	1,664 (1%)
Other credit award (fewer than 6 semester units)	4,910 (4%)
Total	126,398

Notes: The vocational programs that produced the most credit awards (which includes associate degrees and credit certificates) were Nursing (8,262), Child Development/Early Care & Education (7,090), Administration of Justice (6,414), Fire Technology (3,073), and Business Administration (2,652). Percentages do not add to 100% due to rounding.

CCC STUDENTS TRANSFERRING TO FOUR-YEAR INSTITUTIONS IN 2007-08

Receiving Institutions	Transfers
California State University (CSU)	54,971
University of California (UC)	13,909
In-State Private Institutions	23,322
Out-of-State Four-Year Institutions	13,755
Total	105,957

Data: California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office, MIS Data Mart, 11/24/09
California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office, *Accountability Reporting for the California Community Colleges (ARCC) 2009*, Tables 4-5 and 11.

Basic Skills/English as a Second Language (ESL)

Providing adult students with the basic reading, writing, mathematics, and English language skills needed for further education or work is an important responsibility of the community colleges.

Credit basic skills and ESL courses are intended to prepare students for further postsecondary study at the college level. Noncredit basic skills and ESL courses provide adults with skills and knowledge for a high school diploma or GED, success in the workforce, parenting, and as an entry point to further postsecondary study.

CCC STUDENTS ENROLLED IN CREDIT BASIC SKILLS COURSES IN 2007-08

Student Age	Number of Students (% of Total Enrolled in These Courses)
19 or Younger	128,763 (38%)
20-24	89,033 (26%)
25-49	106,331 (31%)
Older Than 49	15,104 (5%)
Total	339,231

Note: These numbers exclude 47 students of unknown age.

Data: California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office, *Basic Skills Accountability Report 2009*, Table A2.

Assessment of College Readiness

The colleges frequently use placement tests and other assessment measures to advise students about their academic readiness and to recommend course placements. Among students assessed for fall 2007 (credit and noncredit), according to the CCC Chancellor's Office, 16% assessed in Math were ready for transferable courses; 28% assessed in English (excluding Reading) were ready; and 38% assessed in Reading were ready. Only 8% of students assessed in ESL Reading and ESL Writing were ready to take transferable courses. Beginning in fall 2009, incoming students who hope to receive an associate degree must complete Intermediate Algebra (one level below the transferable level) and Freshman Composition (transferable level), or their equivalents.

Together, the University of California (UC) and California State University (CSU) are expected to accept the top third of California high school graduates each year. (See Card 37.)

At UC, which accepts the top eighth of freshmen, 91% of undergraduates are from California and more than 25% of them have parents with annual incomes below \$46,000, according to the *University of California 2009 Accountability Report*.

In 2008, UC offered a space to every California resident freshman applicant who was UC-eligible, according to its preliminary report, *2008 Freshman Admissions to the University of California*. However, some students were not admitted for the fall semester or were not given their campus of choice. Nearly 3,000 freshmen were admitted for the winter or spring term at Berkeley and San Diego, and about 8,450 students were referred to Merced and Riverside.

California State University (CSU) accepts all students who have a grade point average (GPA) of 3.0 and above in a specified set of college prep classes, though not necessarily at their campus of choice. (See Card 36.) CSU is the nation's largest university system, and fall 2008 enrollment levels represented the highest level in the university's history, according to *2009 Facts About the CSU*. More than 97% of all enrolled CSU students come from California.

Admission and Enrollment Rates

Admission rates are the number of first-time freshmen admitted divided by the number who applied. About half of those admitted to UC or CSU actually enroll.

At UC, the universitywide admission rate masks the differences among the campuses. For example, in fall 2008, Berkeley (22%) and Los Angeles (22%) had the lowest acceptance rates, and Merced (91%) and Riverside (85%) the highest. UC's overall admission rate of 87% occurs because most applicants apply to more than one campus.

CSUs also have a wide range, with San Jose (20%) and San Bernardino (24%) having the lowest rates and Sonoma (81%) and Chico (80%) the highest.

ADMISSIONS AND ENROLLMENT, FALL 2008

California Residents Who Applied, Were Admitted, and Enrolled as First-Time Freshmen

	Applied	Admitted	Admission Rates	Enrolled
UC	80,029	69,251	86.5%	34,481
CSU	161,856	111,398	68.8%	53,944*

* The CSU enrollment number includes 2,153 out-of-state students and international students.

Note: The data in the table above include high school seniors from public and private schools.

Data: UC Office of the President and CSU (Statistical Reports), 2/2/10

In November 1996, voters passed Proposition 209, which forbade state agencies and educational institutions from granting preferential treatment to anyone on the basis of race, sex, color, ethnicity, or national origin. It first affected the fall 1998 freshman class when African American, Latino/Chicano, and Native American student admission rates at UC fell substantially. UC established a program in 2001, Eligibility in the Local Context, to address the issue of underrepresented students. (See Card 36.) In fall 2008, admission rates for African American, Latino/Chicano, and Native American groups decreased from 2007, when they approached 1997 levels.

UC ADMISSIONS RATES BY ETHNICITY (Fall Enrollment)

	African American	Asian/ East Indian/ Pakistani	Filipino	Latino/ Chicano	Native American	White	Other/ Unknown
2008	67.5%	90.3%	87.1%	80.6%	81.1%	89.9%	88.9%
2007	71.3%	90.8%	87.1%	81.2%	85.4%	90.2%	89.1%
2006	70.3%	90.8%	86.7%	82.0%	83.0%	90.2%	89.8%
1997	72.7%	85.2%	79.2%	82.8%	86.3%	81.8%	83.1%
CHANGE 2008-1997	-5.2%	+5.1%	+7.9%	-2.2%	-5.2%	+8.1%	+5.8%

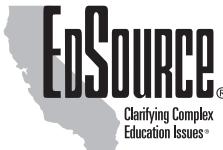
Data: UC Office of the President, 1/28/09



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