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CALIFORNIA TURNAROUND SCHOOLS: AN ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT GRANT EFFECTIVENESS

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DISSERTATION

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in the College of Education
at the University of Kentucky

By

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Lexington, Kentucky

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ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

CALIFORNIA TURNAROUND SCHOOLS: AN ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT GRANT EFFECTIVENESS

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of School Improvement Grants (SIGs) in the state of California (CA) in increasing student achievement using the turnaround implementation model. The American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009 (ARRA) included educational priorities focused on fixing America's lowest achieving schools. SIGs (i.e., up to $2 million per school annually over 3 years) to the nation's persistently lowest achieving public schools required schools accepting these awards to implement a federally prescribed school-reform model. Of these models, the school turnaround model is the most aggressive and least used. Using data from CA, the researcher analyzed student achievement results in reading and mathematics at six high schools in CA over a three-year span between their pre- and post-SIG-award year.

Keywords: Turnaround, School, Reform, SIG

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Dedication

To those lives I hope to touch tomorrow, and to Sandra Joyce Graham

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

One of the most critical policy debates in the United States (U.S.) centers on how to improve low-performing schools. Approximately 5,000 schools, five percent of the nation's total, are characterized as being chronically low performing (Duncan, 2009). Many of these schools are found in urban areas, which have traditionally provided lackluster education to students from *economically disadvantaged* backgrounds (Noguera, 2003). Education in primary and secondary public schools (i.e., K-12) continues to be criticized by the public for failing to rectify a wide array of problems including: (a) inequality in student achievement, (b) the perceived ineptitude of teachers, (c) lack of vision among administrators, and (d) poor student achievement on tests used for international comparisons. Public concern about solving these problems has heightened since passage of the landmark No Child Left Behind (NCLB) legislation in 2002. With increased scrutiny and public pressure, innovative programs focusing on school improvement for students in K-12 were launched on the national and state levels. Scholars and policy makers concur that as long as K-12 student achievement does not meet public expectations, the educational community will be criticized, and a need will persist for identifying effective strategies that improve student achievement (Noguera, 2003).

Much of the discussion involving student achievement and accountability revolves around the *achievement gap*. Researchers have studied academic achievement gaps among groups of students for the past several decades. Although success in closing achievement gaps at some K-12 schools has been reported, the problem persists in

schools across the nation and research focused on identifying solutions has continued (Education Trust, 2001). As a response to this national dilemma, federal policies were enacted which allowed School Improvement Grants (SIGs) to be given to schools in states that were consistently failing to meet *adequate yearly progress* (AYP), a mandate in the No Child Left Behind legislation (2002). The focus of SIG-funded programs was to advance all students in public schools to proficiency in reading and mathematics, particularly those in the lowest achieving schools. The U.S. Department of Education (DOE) expressed confidence that this group of *turnaround schools* (Duncan, 2009) would serve as models for rectifying achievement gaps in schools across the country.

Before the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, the federal government favored a laissez-faire role in the governance of K-12 education, which allowed state and local governments to define the content and scope of educational policy with limited accountability (Wong, 2008). Over the last 50 years, federal involvement in education has significantly increased. The rationale connected to this shift has been attributed to the desire of the federal government to compete globally and address the education of disadvantaged children (Noguera, 2003).

Public school staff in K-12 schools in the U.S. has failed to adequately educate poor and minority children so that they can be successful in college and/or post-secondary school careers. National Commission and Task Force members have scrutinized the performance of public K-12 schools and noted a persistent inability to educate students in the lowest performing schools (Björk, 2001; Björk, Kowalski, & Young, 2005). For example in California (CA), more than 1,200 schools have been assigned a status characterized as program improvement. Schools are classified based on

AYP regulations, which stipulate those schools are in a state of program improvement if they fail to meet AYP for five or more years. In Los Angeles (LA) school districts alone, 397 program improvement schools enrolled more than 440,000 students (LA School District, 2011-2012). A report from The Brown Center on Education Policy (Loveless, 2011) included an analysis of the lowest performing schools in California. The authors reported that two thirds of schools in the lowest quartile in 1989 (63.4%) also scored in the bottom quartile in 2009, 20 years later. The probability of a bottom-quartile school moving to the top quartile during that 20-year period was extremely unlikely, about a 1 in 70 chance (1.4%). Furthermore, examples of large-scale, system-wide school district turnarounds have been virtually nonexistent in CA school systems.

The most discussed policy, regarding creating positive change in chronically low-performing schools, is the most recent iteration of the *Title I School Improvement Grant* (SIG). Title I was originally passed in the ESEA of 1965 and reauthorized in NCLB (2002). This section of the legislation contained specific information on school turnaround policies. Focusing on improvement in the nation's low-performing public schools is a top priority of President Obama's K-12 education-policy agenda. Initial attempts by policy makers to address the lowest performing K-12 schools called for an overhaul of Title I (SIG). In *Blueprint for Reform: The Reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (U.S. Department of Education, 2010a), the Obama administration proposed to revise the SIG program by earmarking Title I resources for competitive allocation. This signaled a significant change in federal education policy.

Previous Title I funds were distributed based upon a formula according to the number of economically disadvantaged students served by local education agencies (LEAs). The new provisions of Title I allowed a portion of categorical funds to be earmarked only for districts and schools that agreed to implement one of the Department of Education's (2010b) four prescribed strategies for school improvement: (a) restart, (b) turnaround, (c) transformation, and (d) school closure. The competitive aspect of Title I SIG funds and the narrow nature of the four-turnaround strategies signaled a significant expansion of federal involvement in K-12 education policy, which focused on revolutionizing low-performing schools (Carpenter, 2011; Dee, 2012).

A number of scholars noted that the landmark 1954 Supreme Court ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education* facilitated the national debate regarding the proper role of federal influence on education reform as well as more recent policy initiatives like Title I (Bell, 2004; Delgado & Stefanic, 1995). The *Brown v. Board of Education* decision touched on broader concerns about the educational opportunities being provided to children from economically disadvantaged populations and signaled the need to create opportunities for African American students. A little more than a decade later, President Lyndon B. Johnson capitalized on his election by publicizing findings that suggested that educational policy and financial aid for low-income schools could be combined with his broader domestic-policy agenda (Jennings, 2000).

The passage of ESEA in 1965 is considered a critical policy marker in the history of federal involvement in education. Gordon (2007) noted that federal funding of education was narrow and not explicitly redistributive before the implementation of this policy. ESEA Title I (1965) was a watershed in the level of federal government

involvement in education. The majority of funding approved in ESEA was appropriated to the Title I program, which set the amount of federal funds directed to states and local school districts. Title I provisions were unique in that federal funds would be earmarked for districts to address the needs of economically disadvantaged children.

Although Title I has been a heavily contested federal policy, it is considered the cornerstone of federal policy created to promote quality educational opportunities for disadvantaged students in K-12 schools. The Title I SIG program is a unique example of an educational policy aimed at improving achievement of disadvantaged students, particularly in urban areas (U.S. Department of Education, 2010b).

Arguments fueling the school improvement debate continue to involve a wide array of interest groups and coalitions that are seeking to shape educational policy. For example, some experts consider the Title I SIG program as another example of the market-based attack on public schools (Ravitch, 2010). Others applaud the program as an encouraging move away from bureaucratic efforts that have defined the educational system (Finn, 2008). Regardless of interpretation of the merits of these different arguments, the Title I SIG program is consistent with widespread support for enhancing school effectiveness particularly with regard to turning around consistently failing schools (Bass, 2011; Carpenter, 2011; U.S. Department of Education 2010b).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if SIG-turnaround funding was effective in increasing student achievement in mathematics and literacy for qualified California high school students in turnaround schools. A secondary data analysis will be used to compare these schools in California between 2009-2011 before and after their

enactment of the turnaround implementation model. Students were in grades 9-12. Scores from the Student Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR) and the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) were analyzed. Data were made available by the California Department of Education.

Significance of Study

An achievement gap exists when groups of students with relatively equal ability fail to achieve at the same levels in school (Noguera, 2003). In the U.S., it is evident that an achievement gap exists by comparing how various groups of students perform on state and national tests, dropout rates, graduation rates, and college-bound and college graduation rates. Common student gaps include: gender, economically disadvantaged and non-economically disadvantaged, ethnic groups, and students with and without disabilities. Across the U.S., gaps in academic achievement have persisted, which makes this is one of the most important educational challenges this country faces (Education Trust, 2001; Duncan, 2009; Noguera, 2003; U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

There is no one reason to why there are achievement gaps, although researchers have suggested a variety of explanations. Most agree that some students face challenges beyond the school that impact academic achievement, including: (a) cultural and family circumstances, (b) financial challenges, (c) quality academic assistance and necessary materials, and (d) access to adequate nutrition and health care (Coleman et al., 1966; Jencks et al., 1972; Noguera, 2003). These factors alone cannot explain gaps in academic achievement. Inequalities such as a lack of high expectations for poor and minority students, cultural stereotyping, inadequate approaches to involving families in their children's education, student tracking, employment of uncertified and unskilled teachers,

and lack of funding for necessary resources in the educational system have also contributed to disparities among groups of students (Barton, 2003; Brophy & Good, 1986; Carter, 2001; Parrett, 2005). Achievement gaps in elementary and middle schools are closing; however, in high school the gaps are wider than ever (Noguera, 2003).

Public school administrators are responsible for educating all students; historically, they have had greater success educating middle-to-upper income and White than poor and minority students. The worst performing schools across the nation are high-poverty schools. More importantly, there are also striking exceptions to the pattern of low-income areas and low-performing students. Enough schools defy this trend to prove that the background of the student body does not have to determine achievement results (Education Trust, 2002).

Since the signing of NCLB in January 2002 by President George W. Bush, researchers, district personnel, educators, corporations, school reformers, and parents have demanded higher levels of accountability for academic performance in schools. School administrators cannot hide behind the excuses of poverty, ethnicity, race, disability, and gender as reasons for the failure of public schools. All of the nation's school administrators have been charged with providing an educational program that ensures academic achievement to the level of proficiency for all children in public schools. The foundation for this national accountability movement was initiated by school reform movements preceding passage of NCLB (McGuinn, 2006).

In California, changes have occurred in academic standards, assessments, and strategic/school improvement planning. Additionally, subgroup performance and accountability has placed the burden on district administrators to examine the curricula

for alignment, effectiveness, depth, and equality for all students. Many academic programs' outcomes are being closely analyzed to determine why gaps persist in the achievement of subgroups of students, specifically among the poor and disadvantaged student populations. Districts have to examine student achievement and how low socio-economic students compare from district to district (LAUSD, 2011).

Turnaround schools are a national initiative by the Department of Education to close the achievement gap among groups of students (U.S. Department of Education, 10b). If successful, these schools will serve as models for other schools in regards to closing achievement gaps. This researcher has strived to determine the degree of success the turnaround schools have had on student achievement.

Importance of the Problem

Free education is a basic right to which all children are entitled in the U.S. For generations, education has been the most reliable path to a better life. A solid education is the key to a better quality of life, including good jobs that pay better wages and offer opportunities for advancement. The benefits of education are more important than ever for students to be successful in the future (Johnston, 2007).

The ability to achieve for all children is why education exists. The educational system in the U.S. has evolved so that opportunity for children to learn has to be provided without regard to economic status or social position. Education can be a powerful tool in the development and growth of a democracy. An educated and informed populace produces a successful society, government, and economy. However, a diversified student population has made the work of educators a grueling task. The melting pot of the American culture and inequitable school funding has led to achievement gaps among

socioeconomic, gender, and cultural subgroups. Federal legislation has evolved to pressure public educators to provide data-oriented results that demonstrate that achievement gaps are closing and all students are academically proficient Carpenter, 2011; Noguera, 2003).

ESEA was the main federal education law and was passed by Congress in 1965. ESEA has been revised every five to seven years. The purpose of the law was to improve education for economically disadvantaged children (Block, 1995). Funding through ESEA is channeled through state government and proportioned to LEAs based upon the proportion of impoverished children in the local area. Most U.S. public schools receive some form of federal financial aid under the law (U.S. Department of Education, 2007).

In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence in Education published *A Nation at Risk*. This commission was directed by the Secretary of the U.S. Department of Education to: (a) report on the status of public schools and (b) make recommendations for improvement. The Commission suggested a complete reform of public education to address improvement in student achievement. American schools were identified as falling behind schools in other countries. Recommendations from the study included: (a) higher professional standards for teachers, (b) rigorous graduation standards, (c) more instructional time for students, (d) implementation of educational-subject standards, and (e) increased fiscal support (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983).

The commission's report on 19 international academic comparisons of student achievement showed the U.S. was last seven times and was never first or second. The report also stated that 23 million adults were functionally illiterate based on everyday tests of reading, writing, and reading comprehension. In addition, 13% of all 17-year-

olds in the U.S. were functionally illiterate. Furthermore disheartening, high school student achievement on standardized tests was reported as lower than 26 years earlier. These trends certainly were not in the interests of education nor the country. As a result, the federal government required that primary- and secondary-school educators began to measure student achievement using standardized tests (McGuinn, 2006).

In the late 1980s, the focus of education changed from the quantity of time of student instruction to the quality of the curriculum and instruction being provided. In 1989, the President of the United States and National Governor's Association adopted National Education Goals. The intent of the goals initiative was for the U.S. to build a nation of learners. Congress declared that the National Education Goals should be accomplished by the year 2000 (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). The goals focused on the educational needs of children and governmental expectations. Overall, the commitment of the goals initiative was to increase academic achievement of all students. These national goals were highlighted again in the Goals 2000: Educate America Act, which passed Congress on March 31, 1994 (U.S. Department of Education, 2007). The Educate America legislation, along with state and local educational reform efforts focused on comprehensive school change, school improvement, and achievement for all children. Congress reauthorized the ESEA in the Improving America's Schools Act in October 1994. The fundamental principles of the law required that all students can learn through effective school leadership and locally developed reform strategies that involve the entire community. Goals 2000 became the first federal educational initiative to provide the necessary funding and support to improve educational planning at the state level (McGuinn, 2006).

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, signed into law on January 8, 2002, has taken accountability to the level of a national commitment to eliminate the achievement gaps, which have been demonstrated in prior research. This major federal educational reform amended and reauthorized ESEA, which provides most federal K-12 support and regulations, as well as accounting for about 40% of school technology resources (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

Under NCLB, school districts and each school within districts must use a federally approved assessment instrument to measure the achievement of all students in grades 3-8 and students in one grade level between grades 10-12. Districts must assess students in reading and mathematics and delineate the outcome data into subgroups based upon: ethnicity, minority status, economic background, gender, disability status, and English proficiency. In order to meet AYP, defined by NCLB, states established cut scores for mathematics and reading proficiency, which must be federally approved. All groups of students must achieve at a state determined and federally approved proficiency level in reading and mathematics by 2014 to meet NCLB requirements. The results of student assessments are disaggregated. Growth data are reported for subgroups including: ethnic, income, class, grade, school, and district. State growth data are also reported. Student achievement is expected to increase overall and within these subgroups (Calkins, Guenther, Belfiore, & Lash, 2007; Murphy & Meyers, 2008; McMillie, 2010).

NCLB provides for a series of remedies, penalties, and rewards for schools, districts, and states based on their ability to increase student achievement. For example, within a school, if any student subgroup persistently fails to meet performance targets,

the school district must provide public school choice and supplemental services to students or eventually restructure the operation of the school.

According to NCLB, states and districts are required to ensure federally funded programs to increase student achievement are based upon empirical research (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). According to NCLB, empirical research refers to research that involves the application of systematic and objective procedures to obtain reliable and valid knowledge relevant to educational activities and programs. Researchers must employ methodical and pragmatic methods that draw on observations or experiments. As with any research, data analysis that tests hypotheses and justifies conclusions is required of educational practices. Data provided by measurements of student achievement must also provide reliable and valid information across evaluators, observers, multiple measurements, and allow for replication.

The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) stores data, which when analyzed can give the public a comprehensive picture of student achievement in the U.S. According to the NCES (2007), this data comes primarily from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) and student participation in international assessments, such as the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and the Program for International Student Assessment (PISA). These assessments are intended to reflect best practices about knowledge and skills required in order for students to have an in-depth understanding of different subjects at different grade levels. The NAEP is the source for information on mathematics and science achievement at key educational stages based on national benchmarks of performance. TIMSS is the international comparative source for mathematics and science achievement at primary and middle grades. PISA is

the source for international comparisons of student mathematics and science literacy achievement for the high school level. The NAEP, TIMSS, and PISA are all sample-based assessments. Each of these assessments is administered to a subgroup of students in the U.S. and results are generalized to the larger U.S. student population (NCES, 2007).

Recent results of these three assessments do not positively assess American education. PISA is coordinated by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), which is an organization composed of industrialized countries (NCES, 2007). PISA focuses on testing students on skills in reading, mathematics, and science literacy. In the last decade, the average U.S. score in reading literacy did not significantly differ from the OCED average but the science literacy score was below the OCED average. In mathematics for the last decade, problem-solving scores were lower than most OCED countries.

Achievement scores on the NAEP also show a lack of success in U.S. schools. There were no significant changes in NAEP reading scores between 1992 and 2005 for fourth- or eighth-grade students. In addition, there was not a significant change in reading scores for fourth grade Free and Reduced Lunch Program (FRL) eligible students between 2003 and 2005. However, NAEP mathematics scores for fourth- and eighth-grade students were significantly higher in 2005 compared to 2003. Math scores for FRL-eligible students increased in 2005 but an achievement gap still existed with non-FRL-eligible students (NCES, 2007).

In September 2010, Davis Guggenheim, the respected filmmaker who previously captured America's attention about environmental policy with *An Inconvenient Truth,*

released the critically acclaimed movie *Waiting for Superman*. After grossing well over $7 million domestically (Subers, 2010), this film became a lightning rod for a debate as to how educational policy should be introduced to address low-performing schools. Financial and philosophically backed by the Broad Foundation, the Einhorn Family Charitable Trust, The Walton Family Foundation, The Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, and many other powerful interests, the filmmakers and educators involved with *Waiting for Superman* created a social action campaign to build public awareness and inspire social change (Waiting for Superman, 2010). This campaign is now encouraging parents, celebrities, and all interested parties to hold local, state, and federal policymakers accountable so that the following core initiatives can be realized: (a) setting academic standards on par with the world's best, (b) recruiting and rewarding great teachers, (c) creating and nurturing schools, and (d) increasing literacy rates (Waiting for Superman, 2010). The quality and condition of public schools deserves serious attention. However, the debate as to how the nation should improve low-performing schools is underpinned by a wide array of values and beliefs. President Obama has continued to attack the problem with *Race to the Top*; in the past few years since the enactment of the policy, states have taken productive steps toward implementing higher accountability for student outcomes because of this initiative.

The message from much of the public has become alarmingly familiar: American public education is a failed enterprise. The problem does not exist because of a lack of spending or resources, as millions of dollars have been aimed specifically at education reform. Test scores are low because of many issues, including lackluster teachers and administrators, many of whom whose jobs are protected by powerful unions. Over time,

students drop out because their schools fail them, and it is the duty of citizens to ensure that students have every opportunity to succeed. The only hope for the future of our society, especially concerning minority and students from disadvantaged backgrounds, is an escape from failing public schools and the ability to find the key to creating schools that close the achievement gap.

Immediately upon election to the U.S. presidency, President Barack Obama offered his response to this debate by revealing an educational policy agenda that aggressively targeted schools considered chronically low performing. The primary goal of this agenda was to facilitate school improvement within the 5,000 lowest-performing schools. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2010b), governmental support of this goal is significant, with $546 million appropriated through the 2009 Title I SIG and with an additional $3 billion provided through the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA). New federal guidelines subsequently outlined how states should identify their SIG-eligible schools and what would be required of schools accepting these awards. More specifically, using federal rules, states identified their *persistently lowest-achieving* (PLA) schools, which then had highly prioritized eligibility for SIGs (i.e., up to $2 million per school annually for each of three years). The PLA definition was largely restricted to schools: (a) receiving or eligible for Title I assistance, (b) whose baseline achievement placed them among the lowest five percent of schools in their state, and (c) who made low recent progress in increasing student achievement. Administrators at PLA schools that accepted a SIG were required to implement one of three federally prescribed, multi-faceted, reform models (i.e., transformation, turnaround, or restart) or close the school

(U.S. Department of Education, 2010c, 2010d).

Scholars concurred that it would be difficult to find an educator or parent who would not want to see 5,000 schools dramatically improve by 2014 (Calkins, Guenther, Belfiore, & Lash, 2007; Gamoran, 2007). However, the revision of the Title I SIG program has several rather serious implications for states and districts. First, the reshaping of SIG policy by the Obama Administration (U.S. Department of Education, 2010a) signaled a significant increase in educational involvement by the federal government. With a large portion of Title I monies being awarded on a competitive basis, states and local districts seeking SIG funds must agree to implement one of four prescribed strategies for school improvement outlined by the U.S. Department of Education (2010a):

- Turnaround means replacing the principal and rehiring no more than 50% of school staff, implementing a research-based instructional program, providing extended learning time, and implementing new governance structure.
- Restarting means converting or closing and reopening the school under the management of an effective charter operator, charter management organization, or education management organization.
- School closure means closing the school and enrolling students who attended in other, higher-performing schools in the district.
- Transformation means replacing the principal, strengthening staffing, implementing a research-based instructional program, providing extended learning time, and implementing new governance and flexibility.

The limiting of SIG-school-improvement activities to four choices greatly reduces the flexibility of local and state education agencies (i.e., LEAs and SEAs) to choose their own contextually specific methods for improving low-performing schools. Subsequently, the four-turnaround strategies serve as the root of the second set of rather serious implications. The four models listed in the SIG program raise a number of capacity issues, as districts are required to replace the principal, replace a significant portion of the teaching staff, turn management over to a private entity, or completely shut down low-performing schools. Administrators at both rural and urban school districts and schools choosing to accept the provisions of Title I SIG will undoubtedly face a range of challenges, including the capacity to address human resource issues, increased expenditures, and issues brought about by the political melee that often occurs when attempting to close neighborhood schools (Hulburt, LeFloch, Therriault, & Cole, 2011).

Certainly, as it relates to the well being of the children who attend public schools, the challenges previously listed should never deter the resolve to improve the quality of education provided. The purpose of this dissertation is not to provide a definitive declaration of whether or not the significant implications previously mentioned are unavoidable that must be faced to see dramatic improvement in those schools identified as chronically low-performing.

Problem Statement

Under NCLB, schools are considered successful only if they close the achievement gap. Accountability for student achievement in schools is a critical issue in education. Why gaps continue to exist is a major question scholars continue to research.

The Education Trust (2006) summarized NAEP data and indicated that the achievement gap continues in the U.S. For example, 30% of fourth-grade students are able to read at the proficiency level while 38% could not display basic reading skills. In addition, 29% of eighth-grade mathematics students in the U.S. have achieved proficiency level in mathematics, while 32% do not even have basic mathematics skills.

On a national level, there is a significant gap between the mathematics and reading achievement of white and minority students of the same grade level. Achievement gaps exist in reading proficiency at grade 4 and mathematics at grade 8 on the national level. White and Asian students graduate high school sooner than their African American, Latino, or Native American student counterparts. Thus, more opportunities exist for White and Asian students to further their education and careers. Poor and minority students often do not have the most experienced teachers. The least qualified teachers regularly teach minority and poor students. These identified subgroups are not receiving an equal education.

Many schools are struggling to meet achievement gap benchmarks and are searching for ways to reduce the achievement gap, especially among student subgroups. Turnaround schools have tried to address the problem. This researcher will assist in determining the effectiveness of SIGs in stimulating student achievement in California turnaround school students by using secondary data to compare turnaround schools in the year before and the year after they received turnaround funding.

Study Design

The purpose of this study is to determine if turnaround schools in California are significantly significant in increasing student achievement immediately after the

implementation of the turnaround model. Ninth- through twelfth-grade students will be used in the comparison. A secondary data analysis of student STAR and CAHSEE scores will be conducted. Access to the data will be made available by the California Department of Education. Student names and identification numbers will not be shared. Scores for subgroups of students will be analyzed to determine if there has been an achievement gap reduction in the areas of mathematics and reading proficiency.

This researcher sought to shed light on specific areas that may or may not be affected by the implementation of the turnaround school model. This dissertation addresses one main research question:

1. What factors within turnaround school education have an effect on student performance as measured by academic achievement?

And four guiding questions:

1a. Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different mathematics test scores after adjusting for gender and race?

1b. Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different literary test scores after adjusting for gender and race?

1c. Between baseline year in a non-turnaround education setting and first year in a turnaround education setting is there any significant difference in the student achievement between on the California High School Exit Exam? Do these results vary by gender, race and socioeconomic status (SES)?

1d. To what degree in the observed turnaround schools could STAR testing be used to predict CAHSEE test results?

Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions were made regarding this investigation:

1. The taught curriculum was aligned with California state standards for mathematics and reading in each school.
2. Teacher expectations of students' academic performance did not differ between the pre- and post-turnaround implementation at schools in the study.
3. In the turnaround model, high-quality strategies of teachers were designed to meet students' learning needs.
4. Student enrollment remained largely consistent between the pre- and post-turnaround implementation at schools.

Delimitations of Research Problem

This study was delimited to viewing students at six California public high schools, with grades 9 through 12, which implemented turnaround methods. Further, the researcher excluded elementary or middle schools that implemented turnaround implementation or any other SIG-intervention method. The high schools used in this investigation were selected because the researcher sought to evaluate the initial impact of turnaround school education using student achievement scores on the same state instrument (STAR & CAHSEE) for comparison.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to six turnaround high schools. All of the schools in this study are California schools and not reflective of the nation. The timeframe of the project

was from the 2009-2011 school years. Data from this timeframe may not provide evidence for sustained change in these schools but rather a snapshot of success or failure in reducing the achievement gap in the sample schools during that period. However, the two-year timeframe of this study is close to the three years that the U.S. Department of Education allows for SIG funding to determine if a school has successfully closed the achievement gap (U.S. Department of Education, 2010c).

The examined subgroups will be SES, race and gender. These subgroups will not necessarily be reflective of all other subgroups. However, all students are placed into the categories of economically disadvantaged or non-economically disadvantaged. These designations are determined by FRL percentages for the schools in this study. Although FRL guidelines are federally determined, participation of students who are FRL-eligible is optional and the FRL percentages indicated actual participation in the program. Therefore, students not participating but qualified as economically disadvantaged may have been counted as non-economically disadvantaged. On the other hand, federal and state governments use the percent of FRL-eligible students eligible to determine school funding and school eligibility to participate in restricted programs.

STAR and CAHSEE individual student achievement scores, student economic status, and STAR proficiency level were used as provided by California Department of Education. The assumption is made that the data provided by California Department of Education was accurate. Additionally, reports supplied by STAR and CAHSEE indicated that the tests are reliable and valid as to be discussed in Chapter 3.

Definitions of Terms

An achievement gap exists when groups of students with relatively equal ability fail to achieve at the same levels in school. One group will far exceed the achievement level of the other (Noguera, 2003).

Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) describes the measure used by each state to set and record student achievement at each public school and school district. NCLB of 2001 set a goal for all students to meet or exceed standards in reading and mathematics proficiency.

Economically disadvantaged students are defined by the U.S. Department of Education as those students qualifying for FRL. Annual family-income guidelines are set and used by both the federal and state government to determine eligibility for the program. Eligibility for FRL is determined by household income in relation to the federally established poverty level. This poverty level is set by the federal government and varies from year to year. Free-lunch qualification is set at 130% of the poverty level and reduced-price-lunch qualification is set at 130-185% of poverty level (U.S. Department of Education, 2004).

Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) was first enacted in 1965. It is the principal federal law affecting K-12 education. NCLB is the most recent reauthorization of the ESEA.

High school: For the purposes of this study, high school was defined as those schools with grades 9-12.

NCLB is an acronym used to describe the No Child Left Behind law. It is the latest revision of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA).

Student achievement: There are many definitions of achievement. The specific measurement of achievement used in this study was the percent of students scoring proficient or better on the STAR and CAHSEE.

Student Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR)/California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE): Both are California standards-based, criterion-referenced assessments used to measure a student's attainment of academic standards, while also determining the degree to which school programs enable students to attain proficiency standards. STAR and CAHSEE results are reported at student and school levels. Student scores, which are provided to respective schools, can be used diagnostically to identify students in need of additional educational opportunities (California Department of Education, 2012).

Title I is a term that refers to a set of programs designed to distribute funding to schools and districts with a high percentage of low-income families (U.S. Department of Education, 2010a).

Turnaround school was defined by Rivero (2009) as a dramatic and comprehensive intervention in a low-performing school that produces significant gains in student achievement within a short period. It is one of the options given to districts when schools have not met AYP under NCLB and district administrators decide to take school improvement grant funding.

Suburban refers to smaller residential communities lying immediately outside a city.

Rural school: The U.S. Department of Education (2010a) defines small rural schools as those schools located in counties with a population density of fewer than 10 persons per square mile.

Urban school: The U.S. Department of Education (2010a) defines urban schools as those schools located in a large central city.

Attendance: For the purposes of this study, attendance was defined as average daily attendance as identified on the California Annual School Report Card. Student attendance data is reported as percentages.

Discipline: For the purposes of this study, discipline will be assessed in terms of behaviors that resulted in out-of-school suspensions and expulsions that were identified on the CA Annual School Report Card. These scores are reported as percentages.

Organization of the Study

Chapter one has presented an introduction, statement of problem, research questions, significance and importance of the study, definitions of terms and concepts, limitations and delimitations of the study, and assumptions. Chapter two contains an extensive review of literature and research related to the research problem being investigated. Chapter three outlines the research methodology and procedures used to gather and analyze the data for the study. An analysis of the research findings will be reported in chapter four. Chapter five presents a summary of the study, as well as the findings. Conclusions were rendered from the findings and a discussion of these conclusions and recommendations for further investigation are provided.

Summary

Researchers support the contention that student achievement varies as identified by a variety of societal differences (Calkins et al., 2007; Orr, Berg, Shore, & Meier, 2008). However, there are several other factors that have a basis for influencing achievement, such as: curriculum; teacher quality; and factors that affect students from

outside of school, such as SES. The key to this or any other research on student achievement is to identify positive influences that increase student achievement. Consequently, these best practices may be used to help all students to achieve. It is anticipated that turnaround schools implement actual examples of best practices to significantly increase student results. The significance of this study may be to assess the impact of SIGs and to stimulate continued research and funding that may produce more definitive answers to how these schools implement changes to increase student achievement. The focus on achievement proves to be timely and student focused.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to determine if SIG-turnaround funding was effective in increasing student achievement in mathematics and literacy for economically disadvantaged students in qualified CA-turnaround schools. SIG grants are federally funded awards to schools that have consistently failed to meet AYP goals mandated by NCLB. The focus of SIG-funded programs is to advance all public-school students to proficiency, particularly those in the lowest achieving schools. Low-performing schools in which the turnaround implementation model is used, one of the four prescribed models required in order to obtain SIG funding, undergo the most radical change to school staffing and culture. These turnaround schools then serve as models for all other schools in regards to closing the achievement gap for all students.

In order to provide a foundation for the study of the SIG-turnaround-school effort, a review of literature is provided in this chapter. This review includes a history of educational reform in the U.S., a historical perspective of recent school improvement efforts (1954-2012), and a theoretical framework that provides a perspective that may prove useful in understanding the importance of this reform.

Theoretical Framework

The purpose of schooling is grounded in the belief that education contributes to the well being of both the individual and the nation. How a society views the education of children is directly related to building social and human capital as well as ensuring social justice to its citizens. A discussion of concepts of social and human capital as well as social and organizational justice will help to explain the

persistence of educational reform and heightened concern of nations to ensure that all children learn at high levels.

Social Capital

The first use of the term social capital was credited to Hanifan (1916), who defined it as the tangible substances (i.e., goodwill and fellowship, as well as mutual sympathy and social intercourse among a group of individuals and families who make up a social unit) that count most in the daily lives of people. While Hanifan used the term in the context of the importance of community involvement in rural school success, current researchers seek to keep the core of this definition while capturing its attributes.

The development of social capital theory was accredited to French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu (Dika & Singh, 2002; Ryan, 2004a). Bourdieu (1985) defined social capital as the collection of actual or potential resources, which are linked to possession of a durable network of institutionalized relationships of mutual acquaintance and recognition. Membership in the group provides members with access to the collectively owned capital of the group, which according to Bourdieu can be economic, cultural, and/or symbolic. His conceptualization revolved around the idea that the amount of social capital available to or possessed by the individual is dependent upon the individual's connection to the group, and the quantity and quality of the resources possessed by the group.

Coleman (1988) further developed the concept of social capital, by focusing on the role of social capital in the creation of human capital. Researchers (Fukuyama, 2001; Furstenberg & Hughes, 1995; Lin & Fu, 2003; Portes, 1998; Putnam, 1995, 2000; Teachman, Paasch, & Carver, 1996, 1997) cite Coleman's research as the foundation for

more recent work on the topic of social capital. He defined social capital as the value of those aspects of social structure to actors as resources that they can use to achieve their particular interests (Coleman, 1988).

Social capital facilitates productive activity. Putnam (2000) defined social capital as the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from connections among individual social networks. Putnam expanded on Coleman's (1988) conceptualization to emphasize social capital at the societal or macro-level. Putnam focused on social engagement and community involvement, two aspects of social capital that arise from participation in the activities and relationships that hold society together. The ultimate goal of researchers is to develop better tools and methods for identifying and qualifying social capital to provide policymakers and stakeholders with information that will enable them to improve the social and economic status of impoverished communities. An important distinction relative to social capital is the difference between bonding and bridging social capital (Putnam, 2000, 2004).

Putnam (2000) defined bridging social capital as the bringing together of groups who previously did not know each other. Granovetter (1973) considered these weak ties to be more valuable than the strong ties (i.e., bonding social capital) that link the individual to relatives and intimate friends. Bonding social capital refers to the strength of relationships within the group and refers to the links between members of the group to people or organizations outside of the group (Putnam, 2000). Some researchers (Burt, 2000; Portes, 1998) noted that if bonding social capital is too strong, bridging social capital tends to be weak. A healthy group will have an optimal balance of bonding and bridging social capital, enabling members to maintain healthy internal relationships while

developing relationships outside the group that provides group access to external resources. A universally accepted definition of social capital does not exist, although similarities exist among the many definitions.

Education and Social Capital

Studies on social capital and education have focused on external influences (i.e., outside of the school) on student achievement. Some of these factors include: (a) parental influence (Coleman, 1988; Muller & Ellison, 2001), (b) parent and community (Coleman & Hoffer, 1987), (c) family structure (Teachman et al., 1996), (d) parent and peer (Dika & Singh, 2002), (e) religious involvement (Muller & Ellison, 2001), and (f) ethnic community (Bankston, Caldas, & Zhou 1997; Stanton-Salazar & Dornbusch, 1995). Tennent, Farrell, and Tayler (2005) discussed positive correlations among the social capital of children, sense of community, and self-reported well being. These examples are illustrative of much of the research on social capital and education, which has stressed the implications of social capital that students bring into the school from their external social networks. Researchers have shown children are more likely to attain higher achievement on tests and stay in school if they have a strong sense of connection with their communities and have a variety of empathetic social networks that allow them to feel safe and trust those around them (Helliwell & Putnam, 2001).

Ryan (2004a) proposed that schools are deliberately designed to construct human capital. Extensive research has been conducted to determine the best method to make the process more effective. There is little research on the role of schools as sources of social capital. However, researchers believe that schools have an important role to play. Coleman (1988) called for institutions, such as schools, to nurture social capital among

young people. Among the researchers that tackled the notion of social capital within schools, the bulk were concerned with the student-teacher connection with social capital that contributes to student achievement in school. Student achievement mostly takes the form of student engagement and achievement on state and national tests, while also associated with lower dropout rates for students.

Human Capital

Human capital was described as the resources, qualifications, skills, and knowledge that are available to and acquired by individuals to maximize their own employability (Caspi, Entner-Wright, Moffitt, & Silva, 1998). The theory of human capital definition explores the concept that investment in human capital has positive effects on the earning and employment of individuals. Education and training are viewed as society's way to invest in human capital (Becker, 1993). Economists and social scientists concur that investing in human capital has a measurable outcome in that more educated and skilled persons usually earn more than less educated and less skilled ones (Becker, 1970). Becker (1970) also claimed that the cause of the earning gap among workers is due to differences in investment in themselves. Education, simply as a means of investing human capital, does not imply only formal education but also includes non-formal settings, such as on-the-job training and previous life/work experience (Caspi et al., 1998; Davidsson & Honig, 2003).

Schultz's (1970, 1994) human capital theory assumes education, in a broad sense, can develop both generic and specific competencies, and that these are directly relevant for productivity in the labor market (Becker, 1993; Semeijn, 2003). Thus, education is seen as being beneficial for economic growth because it provides skills and the ability to

modify routine practices in response to changing opportunities in a dynamic environment (Schultz, 1994). That is how individuals increase productivity as labor and why nations invest in education (Sluis, Praag, & Vijverberg, 2005). Economists persuasively argued that an increase in human capital tends to bring about more economic growth. As more human capital is obtained at the secondary and higher levels of formal education, the capacity of a nation to absorb superior technology increases and overall economic growth accelerates (Barro, 2001; Brown, 2001).

Social Justice

Young (1990) noted that social justice involves an overall elimination of institutionalized domination and oppression in any aspect of social organization. Social justice revolves around the concepts of inclusion, equity, and fairness. Fairness is demonstrated in the distribution of resources and opportunities for realizing one's fullest potential as a human being. Social justice conceptually is aimed at widespread change, not only for individuals but also for society as a whole. Examples of factors involved with social justice research include structural poverty, institutional racism, and structural privilege afforded by race, gender, sexual orientation, and class (Young, 1990). Furthermore, advocates for social justice pursue ways to analyze power for its manipulative potential. This kind of social critique can be traced to the work of Karl Marx and critical social theory (Marx, Engels, Moore, & McLellan, 1992). Activists have characterized social justice as steps that eliminate the social causes of human suffering (Simmer-Brown, 1996) and move humanity towards support for: (a) diversity, (b) equality, (c) participatory democracy, and (d) universal human rights (Furman & Gruenewald, 2004).

Social Justice and Education

The pursuit of social justice through education is subjected to debate and conceptual shifts. Many subsets of the topic have been studied including adult and higher education (Adams, Bell, Griffin, 1997; Bowen, Kurzweil, Tobin, & Pichler, 2005), teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 2002), educational leadership (Cambron-McCabe & McCarthy, 2005; Foster, 1986), and K-12 schools (Kailin, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 2001). Kozol has written extensively on the subject, with issues including: (a) closing the school funding gap in K-12 education (2005); (b) correlation linking robust school funding with high student achievement (2005); (c) wide funding gaps between schools in primarily affluent neighborhoods and those in underprivileged neighborhoods (1991); and research showing inadequate service to large numbers of children, particularly poor, disabled, and of color (2005).

Modern schools have a role in the maintenance of the cultural status quo; scholars have asked whether education could ever realize the aims of social justice (Connell, 1993). Education directed at progressive and radical social change faces numerous pressures within education and larger society, which make it difficult to promote teaching using the goals of social justice. Some of these pressures include: (a) the lack of consideration of social justice issues in educator-preparation programs (Hoff, Yoder, & Hoff, 2006; Theoharis, 2004), (b) the increasing income gap between rich and poor (Johnston, 2007), (c) the frequency of institutional racism and unexamined White privilege in many educational settings (Kailin, 1999), and (d) the simultaneous rise in high-stakes testing and standardized-teaching practices (Weiler & Maher, 2002). In summary, education is viewed as a means through which societies can achieve social

justice.

Organizational Justice

Greenberg (1990) defined organizational justice as an individual's perceptions of fairness within an organization. This definition attempts to explain the role fairness has on the functioning of an organization. Greenberg (1987, 1990) reported that individual perceptions of justice within an organization were crucial to the effectiveness of an organization. Greenberg stated that perceptions of fairness also have an impact on an individual's personal satisfaction in the organization. Greenberg and Colquitt (2005) chronicled the evolution of organizational justice literature to encompass more influential components of an organization, such as: (a) the perceived fairness of organizational outcomes (i.e., distributive justice); (b) the perceived fairness of policies and procedures (i.e., procedural justice); and (c) the individual's perceived fairness based upon interpersonal communications with the organization (i.e., the interactional justice theory).

The importance of fairness in an organization and its application to output production and employee satisfaction were key parts of the research by Greenberg (1987, 1990). The purpose of Greenberg's taxonomy was to consolidate prior concepts of organizational justice and highlight their importance to the organizational justice literature. The two dimensions of the taxonomy illustrate a reactive-proactive and process-content approach to organizational justice. The reactive-proactive dimension describes the individuals' attempt to attain justice or status (i.e., proactive) while others attempt to avoid unfair injustices (i.e., reactive). The process-content dimension separates organizations by their approach to assessing outcomes. For example, process approaches focus on the fairness of procedures used in the decision-making process;

content approaches focus on the distribution of outcomes. Greenberg then applied the existing organizational justice theories to these dimensions resulting in four component theories: (a) reactive content, (b) proactive content, (c) reactive process, and (d) proactive process.

There is little question that the topic of justice has become a hallmark in contemporary American society. Students, faculty, and administrators in educational organizations have seized upon the notion of organizational justice as a topic for discussion when deciding how to ensure that their respective organizations are fair to needs at the micro level. The focus of organizational justice is not on the grand scheme of social justice in American society, but rather on the system of justice in schools that educational leaders are responsible for creating. Questions of justice and fairness are fundamental whenever resources are distributed. It is critical to ensure all members are treated fairly in an organization as important as a school. Matters of justice and fairness in the school workplace should not be taken lightly. Schools serve the fundamental mission to ensure all kids receive a quality education in order to produce citizens to carry on with a democratic society. In this regard, the actions of school leaders to ensure organizational justice for all children so that they receive an education enact the broader principles and goals of social justice in society.

Historical Background

Education in the U.S. is the responsibility of each state as determined by the 10th amendment of the U.S. Constitution: the reserve clause. This amendment states that all rights not outlined in the Constitution as given to the federal government are automatically given to state government. Education was not mentioned in the

Constitution; consequently, it has historically been a primary responsibility of states. Although all state constitutions provide for public education, educational systems may differ in accordance to the respective laws, customs, and educational importance to the people of that state (Levine & Orstein, 2006). With the diversity among state educational systems, researchers acknowledge that inequality of educational opportunities for children is likely (Barton, 2003).

In the past, educational systems in many states had differences on gender and racial issues. The most notable example was that the majority of schools in the country were racially segregated. In the late 19th century, the Supreme Court ruled on the constitutionality of segregation in public transportation in *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896). A direct consequence of this decision gave states the right to segregate schools under the "separate but equal" provision (Bell, 2004).

By the 1950s, many minority communities in the country had begun to express their displeasure with the segregation system in place and were acting to redeem injustices in society. African Americans were particularly discouraged by their treatment, as they were living in a societal structure that limited their ability to advance their social, economic, and political interests because of unjust laws and segregated facilities. Education was viewed as a key for change in America society. The Supreme Court decision in *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* (1954) overturned *Plessy v. Ferguson* and is considered the tipping point for the Civil Rights Movement (Murray, 1993).

This decision represented the first major involvement of the federal government into the states' prerogative for providing education. The *Brown v. Board of Education of*

Topeka, Kansas's decision redressed the segregation of African American and White students into separate schools. However, it left up to state officials the contentious decision of how and when to integrate. The federal government, which was responsible for upholding the Supreme Court decision from *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas* (1954), threatened to withhold federal funding as a way to leverage change. Many states found ways to avoid the process of desegregating, such as redrawing school attendance boundaries. The importance of the Brown (1954) decision stemmed from it being viewed by scholars as the beginning of federal activism to ensure the equality of education accountability and progressive era in public education (Peterson & West, 2003). The involvement of the federal government in education was grounded in its capacity to ensure the general welfare of the nation. This is reflected in the *general welfare clause* in the U.S. Constitution, in the section on taxation and spending (Killian, Costello, & Thomas, 2004). The purpose of this clause was to outline powers to lay and collect taxes and duties for the nation, which had to be collected to secure the general welfare of the U.S. Concerning education, this clause enabled the federal government to provide support for education when it affected the overall welfare of the nation. Although Congress was authorized to be involved in education, it also required that actions be related to specific educational issues that consequently affected the nation. General support for education by the federal government was not permitted (Killian, Costello, & Thomas, 2004).

ESEA of 1965 was the result of an initiative launched by President Lyndon B. Johnson that focused on providing aid to increase the capacity of state educational systems. The focus of ESEA was improving education for disadvantaged students

(McGuinn, 2006). Included in ESEA was Title I, which provided funding and federal guidelines for providing resources for disadvantaged children. If schools meet those guidelines, students that qualify for FRL and other special qualifiers receive substantial financial support aimed at improving education for disadvantaged children. Additional funding is also provided for: library necessities and audio/visual equipment; programs outside of school (e.g., counseling, community centers, and radio and television programming); and research at colleges and universities (McGuinn, 2006).

However, many policy contributors expressed concern that ESEA (1965) was becoming too invasive in educational systems and was not accompanied by adequate accountability for school quality or increased student performance. President Ronald Reagan addressed those concerns with the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act (ECIA) of 1981, which drastically reformed ESEA by simplifying eligibility requirements for federal funds. The ECIA increased flexibility for states in the use of the federal funds, and cut overall federal education spending by 20%.

The Secretary of Education at the time, Terrell Bell, convened the Nation Commission on Excellence in Education to study and report on the state of education in the U.S. (Björk, 1996; Björk et al., 2005; National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). While political leaders expected to see American education receive a glowing report to validate the changes in federal policy, the information that was reported was alarming. Writers of the report entitled *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) indicated that four major aspects of the educational process were in need of change. Curriculum in schools was said to be lacking, students were restrained by low expectations, overall time

in school and its particular uses were both said to be less than optimum, and teacher quality were said to be below acceptable standards. The report had the ability to gather the collective attention of the country and influence public opinion on federal educational policy. Although the ESEA was reauthorized in 1988, it was widely recognized by scholars that it had been seriously weakened during the Reagan administration; consequently, it did not produce results in increasing student achievement (McGuinn, 2006).

During the 1980s and 1990s, many citizens became aware of the importance of educational issues to the nation's future and increased pressure on political leaders to supply educational improvement initiatives (McGuinn, 2006). ESEA was reauthorized again in 1994 under President Clinton. With new requirements for accountability in this reauthorization, the law increased the influence of the federal government in education by insisting that in return for financial support the DOE would have more influence on defining and enforcing educational quality. Accountability for student achievement and the creation of high standards for all students became lynchpins of the educational agenda during the Clinton administration (Peterson & West, 2003).

The 21st century began with heightened public concern for the condition of public schools. Many students and their families experienced substandard conditions and low academic achievement. Shortly after his election, President George W. Bush supported the landmark educational legislation, No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 (NCLB). NCLB established new authority in the Department of Education to provide national oversight in K-12 education and support school improvement. NCLB stated that all classrooms were to have a highly qualified teacher by 2005-2006. It insisted that poor or minority students

were not to be disproportionately taught by unqualified, novice, or out-of-subject teachers (Gamoran, 2007). The law also required drafting of academic content standards for all core subjects and required testing students to ensure proficiency in accordance with established standards in English, mathematics, and science in grades three through eight and once in high school. It also allowed for the disaggregation of statewide test data, AYP standards for low-performing schools, and annual school district report cards (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).

Policy analysts and scholars noted that NCLB challenged educational systems as the federal government enforced this results-oriented law (Björk et al., 2005). Schools that did not meet AYP standards were quickly identified as Program Improvement schools and penalized. After year two of failing to meet AYP, schools are labeled as in need of improvement and required to develop improvement plans for those subjects in which students were failing. After three consecutive years of failing to meet AYP, NCLB mandated that schools offer free tutoring and supplemental education services. After the fourth year of failure to make AYP, deficient schools were labeled in need of *corrective action*. This classification involved extensive replacement of staff or the introduction of new curriculum. The fifth year of failure to meet AYP resulted in restructuring of the school (NCLB, 2001). Shortly after NCLB was implemented, many schools in the nation were labeled as failing and were required to make substantial changes. School districts across the nation were forced to fulfill NCLB mandates (Finn, 2008).

After years of debate about the implementation of NCLB (Ryan, 2004b), in 2010 President Barack Obama added a new provision, Race to the Top, to the American

Reinvestment and Recovery Act of 2009. Race to the Top was a $4.35-billion-dollar program designed to induce reform in K-12 education. This would occur through the promotion of statewide reform in school accountability systems, data tracking, and other aspects of education that promote student growth by tying federal funding to state proposals and current reform implementations (U.S. Department of Education, 2009a).

Urban Education Reform in the U.S.

In the past, consequences for a school failing to meet public expectations usually were expressed as complaints by parents, stakeholders, and politicians, and accompanied by calls to return to previous reforms (Schlecty, 1997). Although there are interesting exceptions, inner city schools in the U.S. consistently failed to meet standards of increasing student academic achievement (Sailor, 2009). President Barack Obama described shortly after his election for his first term as president that while America has resources that are unmatched anywhere in the world, the education system put in place currently has not been effective in serving the countries youth (Blume & Mehta, 2009). As Swanson (2010) observed, 3 out of 10 students, or approximately 1.3 million students in 2010 will not earn a high school diploma.

These distressing statistics reflect the circumstance of many students attending large urban schools. Students in these schools have been historically underserved. They have been characterized as being low-achieving and many times are members of minority groups who disproportionately experience chronic problems that leave generations of students with few skills and little hope for their future (Noguera, 2003). For example, California has several large school districts in big cities that fit this description, including those in San Francisco, LA, and Sacramento. When locating the top five "epicenters of

the dropout crisis" (Swanson, 2010, p. 22-23), the following locations were identified: (a) New York City public school system, (b) LA Unified, (c) Clark County/Las Vegas, (d) Chicago, and (e) Miami-Dade County (Swanson, 2010).

While urban centers account for a large number of students, an urban-suburban graduation rate gap has also been observed in major cities across the nation (Dillon, 2009). Leaders in local, state, and federal government have expressed a sense of urgency to reform urban public schools, specifically in order to improve graduation rates and academic achievement. These two performance goals are part of much of the political legislation that focuses intently on public accountability in American schools (Finn, 2008).

The History of California Educational Reform

Before the year 2000, the California Department of Education described their educational system as failing to help student's progress at a satisfactory rate (California Department of Education, 1999). In an attempt to change those circumstances and support student achievement, California implemented a comprehensive system to hold schools accountable for pupil progress and academic achievement (U.S. Department of Education, 2004). In 1999, Governor Gray Davis spearheaded an effort to create the Public School Accountability Act (PSAA) and subsequently signed it into law. The PSAA mandated that schools improve student achievement and show substantial academic growth. Schools that failed to demonstrate significant growth would be sanctioned by having restrictions imposed that were explicated in the California Education Code. Sanctions included: (a) principal reassignments, (b) reconstitution of school sites, (c) charter school designation, (d) transferring students to other schools, and

(e) the possible closing of the school sites (Bass, 2011).

Researchers noted that schools districts that have a larger population of lower-SES students do not attain comparative achievement gain as other districts in the state (Finn, Gerber, &Wang, 2002). Finn et al. concluded that there was a disparity in academic achievement between students from low- and high-SES backgrounds in California. They indicated that California students who participated in the FRL program accrued fewer mathematics units and did not reach as high a level on state testing, and had a lower advanced-to-basic ratio of mathematics courses compared with students not receiving FRL. Only about three percent of FRL students took Advanced Placement (AP) courses, and almost one-half (49%) of FRL students took a curriculum classified as remedial or slow starter, compared with 28% of non-FRL students (Finn et al., 2002).

Public schools in California with more than 40% of students living in poverty are categorized as Title I, which entitles them to additional funds with the expectation of improved performance. In 2005, State Superintendent of Public Instruction Jack O'Connell announced that of the more than 5,000 CA schools that received Title I funds, only 283 schools met the Title I Academic Achievement Award criteria (EdSource Online, 2005).

Using a standards-based approach to educational reform is an attempt to address PSAA with measurable achievement targets. PSAA mandated that public schools in California meet a statewide performance target of 800 on the annual Standardized Testing and Reporting (STAR). Schools not meeting the performance target of 800 are required to demonstrate five percent growth from the previous year toward the desired score of 800. Schools failing to meet the performance growth target for two consecutive years are

designated as a Program Improvement school (California Department of Education, 2005).

The Education Data Partnership indicated that a majority of schools in California have not come close to accomplishing the performance target of 800. In the 2001-2002 school year, 24% of primary schools met or exceeded the target Academic Performance Index (API) score of 800, but 60% had achieved the five percent growth target toward the API score of 800. In the 2002-2003 school year, only 20% of elementary schools reached or exceeded the API score of 800. However, 82% of California elementary schools made five percent gains toward the statewide growth target of 800 (U.S. Department of Education, 2005). Although the majority of schools did not attain the statewide target of 800 during the 2001-2002 or 2002-2003 school years, many demonstrated five percent growth toward the statewide performance target. Although many California schools are making increases toward the expected score of 800, certain economically disadvantaged target groups are not showing substantial growth toward achieving this score and have not been for some time (California Department of Education, 2005).

A report produced by the Southern California Consortium on Research in Education (SCCORE) indicated that schools with higher proportions of students who are economically disadvantaged tend to have lower API (SCCORE, 2005). These finding were based on scores from LA, Orange, Riverside, San Bernardino, and Ventura counties. The SCCORE report further indicated that schools with less than 39% of students participating in the FRL program had median API scores of 750 or higher. In contrast, schools with more than 70% of students enrolled in the subsidized lunch

program had median API scores below 575.

In April 2004, a report released by the California Department of Education (2005) identified approximately 5,000 elementary schools that received Title I funds. Of those 5,000 schools, 214 were Title I schools that also were identified as achieving schools based on their respective API target growth scores for two consecutive school years. The effort to improve student achievement has intensified. As Learning Point Associates (2004) noted, many schools throughout California have developed comprehensive, standards-based, reform programs to incorporate principles that promise student academic success. Pressure to raise student academic performance has encouraged educators and policymakers to identify and select packaged, standards-based, reform models.

School Improvement and Turnaround Schools

History of School Improvement Programs

Interest in school improvement programs has been around long before the current trend towards implementation of standards-based reform. Some of the particular components of these programs were reviewed even before *A Nation at Risk*. Implementation of school improvement programs have been identified as early as the late 1960s and were recognized for their core beliefs and research-based initiatives. The core of these efforts concentrated on reforming and restructuring the curriculum, teaching, and testing in public schools (Thompson, 1967). They believed that: (a) all students could learn, (b) all schools had the capacity to educate students, and (c) that the use of research by school practitioners supported the validity of the efforts (Block, Efthim, & Burns, 1989). Scholars reported that these programs demonstrated a decade or more of success

and continued to further elaborate and develop each of the program's central beliefs and techniques (Thompson, 1967).

After the release of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983, educational reform was vitally important and had a number of characteristics. Four basic characteristics of school improvement programs emerged as a response to historical factors (Block, 1995): (a) problems at the core of public schools, (b) attempts by policymakers to tamper with the core, (c) professionals' reactions to this tampering, and (d) possibility for professionals to act as policymakers themselves. These core technical problems shook the foundation of public schools in the U.S. State policymakers, along with business and the federal, state, and local legislative branches began to question the legitimacy and overall effectiveness of public schools.

Educational specialists were also accused of participating and the efforts of these specialists helped to shape federal educational policy and encouraged a standardized solution to these core problems (Haverman, 1987). These specialists held the belief that schooling was subject to local control, yet needed to be rooted in large-scale ideas of school standards and student outcomes. With specialists having a profound impact on policymakers, the federal government became stricter about the core of schooling, particularly in the areas of curriculum, teaching, and student learning. States also became more prescriptive in their approaches to deal with the many core problems in education. These attempts at reform occurred in the 1980s through the early 1990s and showed that the answer to these issues would not be universal (Block, 1995).

School improvement programs were part of the many innovations that have resulted from standards-based reform (i.e., reform based on the goal of preparing students

for life and work in the 21st century). Outcome-based education, which was a precursor to standards-based reform, took a more bottom line approach to student achievement (Block, 1995). By focusing on all aspects of student learning with the establishment of clear ideas of what students should be able to know, outcomes-based education transitioned from the industrial model of education that existed since the late 1800s to a more contemporary model of education seen in the 21st century that would become known as standards-based (Finn, 2008).

Implementation of outcomes-based education followed three major premises: (a) all students can learn and succeed, (b) success breeds success, and (c) schools control the conditions of success. The first premise was based on the notion that all students can learn but not necessarily on the same day in the same way. This differed from the principles of conventional schooling that placed a premium on when student learning occurred (Spady, 1995). The second premise captures the idea that success in prior learning influences future success because student outcomes often became a self-fulfilling prophecy. The final premise focused on the importance of schools and school staff, how schools are defined, and what organized learning opportunities for students.

Spady (1995) described examples of successful implementation of outcome-based education in high schools. High schools in his study used key principles of outcomes-based education to improve student achievement. In these cases, students in the lowest SES group outperformed students in other SES groups. In a mastery learning system, which was associated with outcomes-based learning, instructional strategies have administrative, sociological, economic, and policy implications (Block, 1974). To be effective, mastery learning must be implemented on a district level. These original ideas

on school improvement programs were among the driving forces behind instructional reform that eventually emerged as standards-based reform in the early 1980s.

Title I School Improvement Grants (SIGs) and Turnaround Schools

As previously noted, NCLB (2002) signaled one of the most comprehensive expansions of federal educational policy in the history of the U.S. One of the key components of this expansion was Section 1003(g) of Title I, labeled as the School Improvement Grant (SIG). This authorization of the SIG program was intended to provide a separate Title I program that allowed states to apply for resources for specific improvement activities earmarked and distributed to low-performing districts and schools. The law ensured SIGs would fund grants between $50,000 and $500,000 when it was created. However, because the federal government failed to authorize SIG funds and bureaucratic delays, SEAs were forced to supplement SIG resources with funds from the Title I basic grant (Sunderman & Orfield, 2006).

The SIG program was based on offering assistance to qualifying schools that failed for two consecutive years to make AYP toward achievement targets required by NCLB (Hurlburt et al., 2011). Expectations for the SIG program were that the money provided would facilitate: (a) the improvement of student academic proficiency, (b) growth in the number of schools meeting AYP, and (c) the creation of a comprehensive data set that could be used to shape the continuous improvement of low-performing schools (NCLB, 2002). NCLB was introduced during the Bush administration and provided state and local school districts with a significant amount of decision-making authority; districts were allowed to spend SIG funds on research-based strategies deemed appropriate for low-performing schools.

The NCLB SIG-grant program was reformed in August 2009 when Congress appropriated almost $550 million to the Title I SIG and provided an additional $3 billion to this program through the ARRA (2009). It is the largest source of federal funds ever aimed at improving a discrete set of the lowest performing schools. The Obama administration changed regulatory requirements that previously restricted the distribution of SIGs. The decision-making ability of SEAs and LEAs was significantly diminished through decisive action. Schools seeking SIGs would be required to choose from a list of four prescribed school-improvement strategies (Obama, 2009). The implementation methods chosen included the following:

- The Turnaround model included the replacement of the school principal and at least 50% of the school's staff, and the adoption of a new governance structure, while implementing a reshaped instructional program.
- The Restart model provided a mandate to close failing schools and reopen them under the management of a charter school operator.
- The School closure model requires the closure of failing schools and sending all students to high-achieving campuses in the district.
- The Transformation model includes a massive professional development effort that addresses: (a) teacher and leader effectiveness, (b) comprehensive instructional reform strategies, (c) extended learning, (d) teacher planning time, and (e) operating flexibility.

This coincided with SEAs being required by the federal government to develop a formula separating low-performing schools into three separate tiers. This tiered framework of low-performing schools was created to guarantee SIG funds reached

those schools with the greatest need and ensured some schools that were formerly qualified for the grant would be ineligible. During the first half of 2010, the U.S. Department of Education issued detailed guidance on how states should distribute the redesigned SIG grants and what actually would be required of schools receiving them (U.S. Department of Education, 2010c, 2010d). The first round of SIGs awarded under these criteria were in the 2010-11 school year. More specifically, these federal eligibility rules required SEAs to identify *persistently lowest achieving* (PLA) schools and to give these schools the highest priority for SIG funding.

The pool of schools eligible for PLA status largely consisted of those receiving Title I aid and in improvement, corrective action, or restructuring under NCLB (i.e., *Tier 1 schools*) and secondary schools eligible for but not receiving Title I aid (i.e., *Tier 2 schools*). SEAs identified PLA schools from this pool using two key conditions. One was whether the baseline achievement in English-language arts (ELA) and mathematics in a school placed it among the lowest five percent of schools in this pool. A second key condition was whether the ELA and mathematics achievement in a school met a *lack of progress* standard (U. S. Department of Education, 2009b). Similarly, new federal regulations also defined a lower-priority *Tier 3* of schools that could receive SIG funding, but were not required to implement a school-improvement model. The final change was an attempt to steer schools away from less rigorous strategies for school improvement, as the DOE created the *Rule of 9*, which stated that any district with nine or more Tier I and II schools could not implement the transformational model in more than 50% of its schools (U.S. Department of Education, 2009b). There were other mechanisms by which a school could either be labeled PLA or receive SIG

funding. However, in general these criteria had limited empirical relevance (U.S. Department of Education, 2009b).

SIG Funding in California

This study focused on schools in California, which had the largest number of SIG-eligible schools and made more SIG awards than any other state, 92 out of the 826 Tier 1 or 2 SIG awards nationwide (Hulbert, Le Floch, Therriault, & Cole, 2011). The California Department of Education identified PLA schools out of more than 9,000 public schools using these federally mandated assignment rules. More specifically, from a pool of 3,652 schools eligible for PLA status (e.g., schools eligible for or receiving Title I aid), roughly five percent (i.e., 183 of 3,652 schools) were identified as PLA. These 183 PLA schools were eligible for a SIG and roughly half received one.

The California Department of Education based the lack of progress definition on school-level, test-based API. Specifically, for each of the 3,652 PLA-eligible schools, California Department of Education summed the annual API growth from five baseline years (i.e., AY 2004-05 through AY 2008-09). Schools for which this summed growth measure was below 50 or was missing were labeled as lack of progress schools. About 40% of schools in the PLA-eligible pool met this definition. Federal guidance required that states use the combined reading and mathematics performance at each school based on the *All Students* category to identify the lowest achieving schools. Most states, including California, used three prior years of achievement data to form this baseline measure. More specifically, the California Department of Education identified the lowest achieving schools from the pool of

PLA-eligible schools (n = 3,652) using the average mathematics /ELA proficiency rate at each school over the three prior years (i.e., 2007 to 2009).

In an effort to ensure that schools of different types were eligible for SIG awards, the California Department of Education initially planned to balance the five percent of schools within strata defined by tier (i.e., Tier 1 or 2) and school level (i.e., elementary, middle, or high school). However, the State Board of Education (SBE) subsequently submitted a waiver to the U.S. Department of Education that redefined the Tier 2 pool. Specifically, Tier 1 schools that would not have been initially deemed SIG-eligible under the distribution of the eligibility slots across these strata were re-designated to Tier 2, which was then re-sorted in order to identify and implement the cut score (Dee, 2012).

Goals of the SIG

The stated goal of the SIG program centered around the ability to turn around (i.e., turn low-performing schools into high-performing schools) the 5,000 lowest-performing schools in the U.S. between 2009 and 2014 school years (Obama, 2009). Data from the SIG division helped to label over 13,000 schools with the need of improvement AYP marker. Additionally, the data provided a bleak picture for the immediate future, as schools entered the restructuring stages of improvement at much higher rates than they were exiting (Calkins et al., 2007).

Brady (2003) claimed the turnaround-based solutions of the SIG program were founded upon four general assumptions about the nature of failing schools and the strategies necessary to facilitate school-wide transformation, which were closely related to the history in outcomes-based education and standards-based reform:

- Turnaround policies assume that, regardless of the sociocultural challenges of a community, all students are able to succeed on standardized-test measures.
- These policies assume that tangible deficits exist within the teachers and leaders of chronically low-performing public schools.
- Transformation of failing schools is assumed to be supported by current research.
- Turnaround policies assume that current school leaders and teachers within poorly performing schools lack the proper will or motivation to do what is necessary (Brady, 2003).

Foundational assumptions, which guided the strategies presented in the 2009 SIG program, were combined with increased discussion surrounding the perverse problem of chronically low-performing schools (Hassel & Steiner, 2003). This discussion helped create a powerful narrative that diversified the range of policy solutions from which policy makers were able to choose. The turnaround solution was similar to other reform efforts promoting decentralization, as it promised to provide local communities with an increased level of autonomy over educational decision-making and allowed the community to pick the reform effort for their community.

Turnaround Research

Turnaround is a relatively new and ambiguous term within educational research. Information supporting the account of America's educational crisis has greatly contributed to the expansion of comprehensive school reform efforts being labeled as turnaround (Murphy & Meyers, 2008). Even with this dramatic increase,

there is a lack of empirically based turnaround studies. Social scientists have attempted to address this research gap by detailing the challenges and strategies of turning around schools (Brady, 2003; Duke, 2006; Herman et al., 2008; Leithwood & Strauss, 2008; Murphy & Meyers, 2008). However, the majority of turnaround research is based upon small-scale, case-study projects, in which researchers have examined the experience of school leaders and turnaround specialists (Bass, 2011; Hickey, 2010; Landesfeind, 2007; McMillie, 2010). Consequently, researchers who have guided the field of turnaround studies often attempted to segregate causal factors, which have allowed schools with high percentages of low-SES and minority students to outperform their peers (Orr, Berg, Shore, & Meier, 2008). In a recent Institute of Educational Sciences report, these studies were said to be weak in their ability to demonstrate cause for several reasons, including there is no way to be confident that features common to successful turnaround schools are not also common to failing schools (Herman et al., 2008).

The educational profession has grown in its ability to locate and name key components of the school improvement process but great gaps remain in the turnaround research (Duke, 2006). Some potential areas of study examining turnaround schools cited by Duke (2006) included:

- Understanding school decline, as little is known about how schools decline; examining teamwork, as collaboration amongst staff and teachers must be in place for school improvement to begin;
- Assessing interventions, as high-poverty schools typically offer a variety of interventions targeted at low-performing students;

- Detecting midcourse corrections, as post-hoc interviews and surveys display a gap in knowledge concerning corrections made in the midst of improvement;
- Identifying unintended consequences, as all reform efforts have the potential to encounter unexpected happenings that could serve to hinder or help; and
- Pinpointing personnel problems, as little is known about personnel issues in low- performing schools or how principals in turnaround schools deal with personnel issues (Duke, 2006).

Turnaround researchers frequently failed to consider the correlative relationship among external factors and how those factors contribute to low performance in a particular school. These factors include: (a) urban settings, (b) minority populations, and (c) SES status (Murphy & Meyers, 2008).

Murphy and Meyers (2008) suggested that impoverished communities in which youngsters at failing schools often live do not assist students in achieving academic success.

Turnaround Schools in Detail

While the drafters of NCLB (2001) relied entirely on absolute measures of proficiency to measure school performance, SIG allows states to select the most troubled schools based on a local formula that combines absolute proficiency with measures of student learning growth over time (, Hurlburt et al., 2011; Jambulapati, 2011). School districts then compete for SIG funds, unlike the more typical formula-based distribution of dollars under Title I of ESEA (1965). SIG grantees are eligible for up to $6 million

dollars per school over a three-year period and these monies are used to implement one of four prescribed models: school closure, restart, turnaround, or transformation. Over 900 schools from 49 states and the District of Columbia have been selected as SIG grantees and the grants are expected to serve over half a million students (Hurlburt et al., 2011; Jambulapati, 2011).

In their applications to the federal Department of Education, SEAs compile a list of the lowest performing schools based upon state-selected definitions approved by the U.S. DOE that combined growth and achievement. Priority is given to schools needing significant growth and they are sorted into three different tiers (Dee, 2012). Tier I represents the lowest achieving five percent of Title I schools or the five lowest performing Title I schools in some stage of improvement or restructuring under NCLB, whichever number is higher. Schools that are Title I-eligible, but do not receive funds are classified as Tier II. This category purposefully includes high schools and middle schools that often do not receive funds in district distribution, but are technically eligible. Tier III includes the remaining Title I schools that were in improvement or restructuring but were not identified as Tier I and Tier II schools (U.S. Department of Education, 2009). The SIG funding requires states and districts to fund Tier I and Tier II schools first, in order to ensure that the lowest performing schools receive funds first.

SIG schools are similar to schools that typically receive the majority of federal dollars; large, low-performing, traditional public schools that are highly segregated, low-income, and in urban areas (Jambulapati, 2011). Jambulapati (2011) stated that of SIG schools across the country, more than half have African American/Latino populations

that are 86% or higher, about 58% of the schools are located in urban areas, and the median FRL rate is 78%. Larger schools are associated with poorer student performance, but the distribution of school enrollment varied among the grantees (Hurlburt et al., 2011). Average student enrollment for a SIG grantee is 704 students. Almost half (49%) of the SIG recipients are high schools (Jambulapati, 2011). Both traditional public schools as well as charter schools are eligible for SIGs.

Summary

Throughout the history of the nation, researchers have attempted to analyze, synthesize, and interpret research to determine how effectively the American education institution is performing. Many students, especially children of poverty, fail to demonstrate academic proficiency in our educational system.

Turnaround schools are an effort to close the achievement gap within particular subgroups resulting in the improvement of all students. If successful, the turnaround school prototype has the potential to be a model of success for all schools.

Administrators at SIG-funded schools persist in the effort to examine the effectiveness of instructional and curricular programs and adjust according to the needs of students and district. These actions should influence society for many years to come.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

The methodology in this study was quantitative research, which can be used to attempt to determine the relationship between multiple factors, in this case (a) student subgroups, (b) turnaround schools, and (c) academic achievement in California high schools (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). The researcher utilized a non-experimental study design. This chapter consists of an overview of the research design and a description of the population, sampling method, instrumentation, and procedures used in collecting and interpreting the data.

The purpose of this study was to determine if turnaround schools in California were significantly effective in increasing student achievement. The researcher examined the statistical significance of academic achievement in the areas of reading and mathematics on state sponsored tests. Achievement data for mathematics and reading scores were disaggregated by gender, race, and SES. This research consisted of a secondary data analysis of selected data retrieved from archived sources. Quantitative analysis of archival data was conducted in an effort to explore differences in student achievement because of the acceptance of SIG funding and the creation of turnaround schools.

This researcher sought to shed light on specific areas that may have been affected by the turnaround school model. This dissertation addresses one main research question:

1. What factors within turnaround school education have an effect on student performance as measured by academic achievement?

And four guiding questions:

1a. Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different mathematics test scores after adjusting for gender and race?

1b. Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different literary test scores after adjusting for gender and race?

1c. Between baseline year in a non-turnaround education setting and first year in a turnaround education setting is there any significant difference in the student achievement between on the California High School Exit Exam? Do these results vary by gender, race and socioeconomic status (SES)?

1d. To what degree in the observed turnaround schools could STAR testing be used to predict CAHSEE test results?

For this study, student achievement data from all California public high schools using SIG funding for the turnaround-implementation model were used. Six schools fit that criterion. Information was obtained on FRL percentages, school-grade-level structure, and school populations. These variables are from the school year that began the first year of the turnaround effort and are publicly available on the California Department of Education website: http://www.cde.ca.gov.

Population

The student sample for this study was from six public California high schools, grades 9-12 that received three-year-SIG funding to implement a turnaround school model in either 2009 or 2010. The turnaround model requires, among other actions (a)

replacing the principal and rehiring no more than 50% of staff; (b) adopting a new governance structure; (c) increasing learning time; and (d) implementing an instructional program that is research-based and vertically aligned from one grade to the next, and aligned with state adopted-content standards (California Department of Education, 2012). Because 2008 was the last year that California did not offer LEAs the opportunity to apply for the SIG funding, this researcher will compare STAR and CAHSEE scores from either the 2009/2010 school year or the 2010/2011 school year, depending upon the first year that the school was awarded the grant.

Geographically, the schools used in this study were in the upper (two schools), lower (three schools) and middle (one school) regions of the state. The sample of high schools was retrieved from the California Department of Education SIG-funding results.

The ESEA (1965), through use of section 1003(g) funding, authorized the U.S. Department of Education to issue school-improvement funds to states. The California Department of Education has the ability to award school-improvement sub-grants to LEAs with persistently lowest achieving Title I schools and to LEAs with persistently lowest achieving secondary schools that are eligible for, but do not receive, Title I funds (California Department of Education, 2012).

Eligible LEAs are those with one or more schools identified as persistently lowest achieving and that demonstrate the greatest need for funds and the strongest commitment to substantially raise student achievement (California Department of Education, 2012). The purpose of a SIG is to enable eligible LEAs to implement selected intervention models in identified persistently lowest achieving schools to raise academic achievement levels of enrolled students. Beginning in 2009, the California Department of Education

provided an annual list of schools that were accepted for SIG funding. Although 35 schools were accepted for SIG funding in 2009 and 2010, only the accepted high schools were included in this study.

Data Source

CAHSEE

In California, all high school students must pass CAHSEE to earn a high school diploma. Students with documented severe disabilities do not necessarily have to take the test. The test was created to improve student achievement in high schools and to ensure that students graduate from high school with grade-level skills in reading, writing, and mathematics (California Department of Education, 2012). The CAHSEE helps identify students who are not developing skills essential for life after high school and supplies districts with data to give these students the attention and resources needed to help them achieve these skills during their high school years. Students take this test in Grade 10. If they do not pass the test in Grade 10, they have up to four additional chances to take the test in Grades 11 and 12 (California Department of Education, 2012).

The CAHSEE has two parts (a) English-language arts (ELA) and (b) mathematics. The ELA part addresses state-content standards through Grade 10. State-content standards in reading include: (a) vocabulary, (b) decoding, (c) comprehension, and (d) analysis of information and literary texts. State-content standards in writing include: (a) writing strategies, (b) applications, and (c) the conventions of English. The mathematics part of the CAHSEE addresses state standards in Grades 6 and 7 in Algebra I. The exam includes: (a) statistics, (b) data analysis and probability, (c) number sense, (d) measurement and geometry, (e) mathematics reasoning, and (f) algebra. Students are

also asked to demonstrate a strong foundation in computation and arithmetic, including working with decimals, fractions, and percentages (California Department of Education, 2012).

STAR

The California state legislature established the STAR Program in 1997 to measure how well California-public-school students in Grades 2 through 11 are learning knowledge and skills identified in state-content standards. Content standards were designed to encourage the highest achievement of every student by defining the knowledge, concepts, and skills that students should acquire at each grade level. The California Department of Education (2012) stated the purposes of the STAR tests are to (a) provide individual student results to students, parents/guardians, and teachers; (b) produce school, district, and county results that allow the state to monitor, by means of the API, school progress toward meeting state performance targets; and (c) produce results that allow the federal government to monitor the AYP of schools and progress of LEAs in meeting the accountability targets of the ESEA (1965). The STAR Program was reauthorized in 2004, and in January 2010, Senate Bill 1 extended the authorization of the STAR Program until July 1, 2013.

The State Board of Education (SBE) approved five performance levels for reporting STAR results: (1) *advanced*, (2) *proficient*, (3) *basic*, (4) *below basic*, and (5) *far below basic*. Performance levels describe pupil achievement on the California content standards. Individual pupil and group results are reported using scaled scores and performance levels (California Department of Education, 2012).

Study Data

Quantitative data were retrieved from the STAR and CAHSEE tests for ELA and mathematics. Achievement in this study was measured by percentage of students scoring proficient or greater (i.e., level one or level two) in mathematics and ELA. NCLB regulations established proficient as the benchmark of achievement.

Validity

The CAHSEE and STAR are aligned with California's content-standards-based curriculum principles and are considered an effective measure of student achievement in the disciplines of ELA, mathematics, social studies, and science (Becker, Wise, Hardoin, & Watters, 2011; California Standardized Testing and Reporting, 2011). The STAR test is the primary means of evaluating students and validating an accountability system. Test development and specification for the STAR have been developed for consistency in measurement of student progress over time. Using STAR data to conduct a comparative analysis of distinct groups within an educational environment is an effective means of evaluating whether there is a relationship between the implementation of the turnaround school model and academic achievement. Additionally, the source and presumed accuracy of the data should minimize the possibility of external validity concerns.

Validity Threats

Many threats can jeopardize the validity of a study. Answering the question of what changes occurred during the course of the study address the historical view of internal validity (Wortman, 1983). For the purposes of this study, the dramatic systemic change within the schools studied, along with faculty and staff moving around the school district throughout the school year affected change.

Testing validity deals with students becoming familiar with the test over time (Wortman, 1983). All students are exposed to the same testing materials generated by the STAR tests. Testing validity could have been more of a factor for success for 11th graders since they would have had more familiarity with the testing instrument itself. The 12th-grade students take the CAHSEE test only if they are new to the district or they did not pass the test as a junior because the test is required for graduation purposes. Instruments used during the testing process can change the experiment; as participants become more familiar with an instrument, validity threats arise (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). Test scores could regress toward the mean, or become normally distributed, upon repeated administrations, which has a statistical effect on validity. The STAR test is a standards-based or criterion-referenced test. This means that the instrument was not designed to produce normally distributed scores. For a criterion-referenced test, students are evaluated as to progress in learning a set of standards, not compared to a national or international sample.

Mortality refers to participants dropping out of the study. The use of individual student data minimizes this threat: Only students who attended the school both years for which the data were obtained were used.

One could argue that the results of this particular study can only be generalized to other populations of students of the same age, with similar demographic characteristics in California turnaround schools. In order to compensate for the threat imposed by the design of this study, this research needs to be repeated in other states with similar demographic data and that use SIG funding for turnaround model implementations.

Reliability

According to the California Department of Education, reliability of the STAR and CAHSEE tests exceed the .85 alpha level that is expected on state testing. While the testing contractor and the DOE bring technical expertise to the development of the STAR and CAHSEE tests, the reliability statistics from the administration of the tests have been reviewed by outside testing experts and found to be moderate to high for such tests (Becker, Wise, Hardoin, & Watters, 2011).

Ethical Considerations

This study made use of data already collected by the district and state before the formulation of this research. Accordingly, there are no ethical concerns associated with the collection of these data. Permission to access the data was obtained from the California Department of Education data request form and from the director of academic accountability. Since the researcher has the ability to obtain all summative data from the California Department of Education web site, there were no ethical considerations related to data tampering or data reporting. No one had the ability to alter the data reporting in an effort to make the performance of one group look better than that of another.

Student security and privacy were maintained. After initial downloading and cross-referencing, were deleted from all data analysis files before delivery from California Department of Education. The researcher was not provided with a data file that contained personally identifiable information. School data were not linked to school names in this study; instead, school names were replaced and alphabetical codes were assigned to each school. Coding was used as a way to establish and protect

anonymity. For the purposes of this study, school names were referred to as School A through School F.

Sample Size

It was important to establish the sample size necessary to use for the statistical analysis. One must also consider the power, population effect size, and level of significance. As Cohen (1998) stated, statistical power exploits the relationships among the four variables involved in statistical inference: (a) sample size (*N*), (b) significance criterion (ft), (c) population effect size (ES), and (d) statistical power. For any statistical model, the relationships are such that each is a function of the other three.

The six high schools involved in the study have the following total enrollments at the beginning of the study: School A (*n* = 3,458), School B (*n* = 848), School C (*n* = 2,350), School D (*n* = 382), School E (*n* = 1,022), and School F (*n* = 805). This provided a dataset of approximately 8,865 students. Freshman (*n* = 2,406) comprised the most students in the study, followed by sophomores (*n* = 2,302), seniors (*n* = 2,109), and juniors (*n* = 2,048).

Since sample size requirements for a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with two groups in each independent variable category are higher than that of a one-way ANOVA with one independent variable with two groups, the minimum sample size will be determined for two-way ANOVA. It was also necessary to establish an acceptable significance level for determining when to reject the null hypothesis (i.e., the probability of committing a Type I error). The standard values for significance level are set at alpha (a) = .10, .05, and .01 as a matter of convention (Aczel, 2005). This means that

alpha = 0.05 corresponds to (1-alpha) = 0.95 probability of a correct statistical conclusion when the null hypothesis is true (Lipsey, 1990). Furthermore, a 0.95 probability is equivalent to a 95% confidence level to reject the null hypothesis (Aczel, 2005). For the purposes of this research, the alpha level chosen for the analysis (0.05) is the most commonly designated value in social science research for this parameter (Lipsey, 1990).

Statistical power is also an important priority. Power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis if the null hypothesis is false. An acceptable level of power for this study is 0.08, making Type II error four times as likely as Type I error. Since it is typically more serious to make a false positive claim than it is to make a false negative one, this is an acceptable level and will be considered when determining the sample size (Cohen, 1998).

Data Analysis

Data was quantitatively analyzed in terms of student performance (i.e., student achievement, student attendance, and student discipline). All data for this investigation were retrieved from the California Department of Education. Data on pre-turnaround high school environments (2009-2010) and the first year of a turnaround high school educational environment (2010-2011) were analyzed to test the hypotheses posed by the research questions. A Microsoft Excel spreadsheet was used to compile data from the 2009, 2010, and 2011 school years for each high school and will be imported into SPSS for data analysis. Data was analyzed to depict student outcome patterns by grade level, gender, and SES.

Descriptive statistics were used to describe, analyze, and illustrate the student sample in both pre- and post-turnaround implementation environments. After calculating an average percent for the sample in both pre- and post-turnaround implementation environments, inferential statistics were used to evaluate the differences between mean scores in each subject area and to analyze achievement data by gender, SES, and race. OLS regression will be used to analyze data concerning subgroups tested with both CAHSEE and STAR testing.

Summary

A non-experimental, quantitative, secondary-data-analysis research study was conducted to investigate the impact of the turnaround school implementation model in six public high schools with grades nine through 12 in California. A comparison of student performance (i.e., achievement in mathematics and reading) was made to determine significant difference after turnaround school implementation. Annual school survey data and individual student test data were used.

Chapter 3 presented a design of the study, a description of the sample, a description of the implementation, a description of the projected methodology, and a description of the projected analysis of data. Inferential statistics will be used to assess whether the post-turnaround model implementation mean was significantly different from the pre-turnaround model mean. Descriptive statistics will be used to describe, analyze, and illustrate the student sample in both pre- and post-turnaround implementation environments.

Chapter 4

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the demographic information about the study sample, a summary of the findings, and a description of the data analysis. California has a series of standardized test scores designed to track student achievement. Turnaround schools have made some gains, but this study adds to the knowledge base by examining differences in California turnaround schools and what characteristics were important to how students perform on standardize tests.

Understanding the effect of these tests can help schools better close the achievement gap among students. School leaders make decisions about how to allocate funds based on organizational needs and effective products and services. Many school districts place a high emphasis on assessment scores and school improvement plans. An investigation of common reform techniques provides more insight about the effectiveness of various strategies.

This section presents the findings of the analysis, including appropriate and significant output from the analysis and data interpretation. The analysis for this study included three primary methodologies: Chi-square, One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and bivariate regression analysis. The analysis enabled the researcher to address the main research questions in this study. These tests were appropriate for answering multiple questions related to the differences in ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status areas tested. In preparing the data several recoding processes had to occur. This study investigates the research questions and hypotheses. Multiple test were not run to control for compounding error so some results may be indicators of "false-

positives." Unless otherwise stated, a *p* value of $p < .05$ was used for all significant findings.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This dissertation addresses one main research question:

1. What factors within turnaround school education have an effect on student performance as measured by academic achievement?

And four guiding questions:

1a. Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different mathematics test scores after adjusting for gender and race?

1b. Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different literary test scores after adjusting for gender and race?

1c. Between baseline year in a non-turnaround education setting and first year in a turnaround education setting is there any significant difference in the student achievement between on the California High School Exit Exam? Do these results vary by gender, race and socioeconomic status (SES)?

1d. To what degree in the observed turnaround schools could STAR testing be used to predict CAHSEE test results?

Description of the Sample

This section discusses the sample in demographics terms (i.e., gender, ethnicity, SES) as measured by eligibility for the federal free or reduced lunch program. The original size of the same was n = 13,775, but 2,969 cases were dropped due to the fact

that there were duplicates. Many students took tests multiple times in one year, and their scores for each test were included in the original dataset. These cases were dropped, keeping only their first set of tests as the study case. The final sample frame consisted of 10,806 students. There were 49% female in the sample and 51% male (Figure 1). This gender distribution is slightly different from men and women across the nation and in California (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). In terms of ethnicity, the original data set included 22 different categories of ethnicity. This was recoded down to six groups: (a) Asian, (b) Pacific Islander, (c) Hispanic/Latino, (d) Black/African American, (e) (d) 2 or More Races. Asian, specifically included multiple Asian ethnic groups, but in order to have enough data for analysis, Asian ethnic groups were recoded as "Asian." Pacific Islanders were placed in their own category because they were ethnically different from Asians.

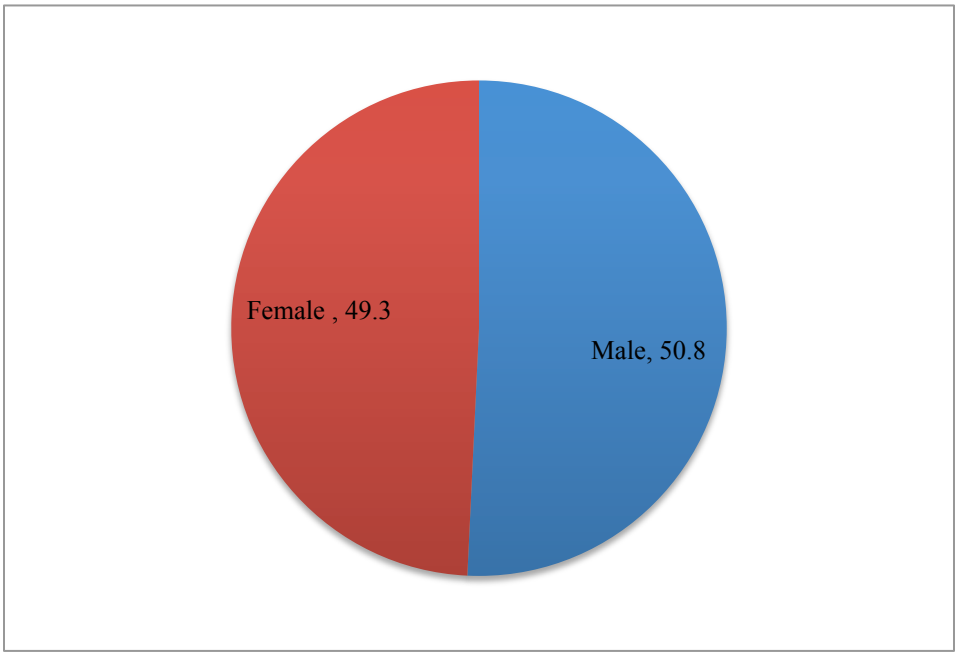

Figure 1: Gender breakdown of sample

As Figure 2 details, Asians made 4% of the sample, Pacific Islanders 3.5%, Blacks just over 8%, Whites 11%, and multi-racial individuals 1.5%. Hispanics/Latinos make up the largest percentage of the sample with 71.5%. The breakdown in percentage does not reflect the demographic population in California. For example, Hispanics/Latinos in California is closer to 40% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011), but considerably higher in the sample. The high percentage of Hispanics/Latinos in the sample, however, is reflective of the state and the ethnic makeup of many of the schools that had been historically struggling in California.

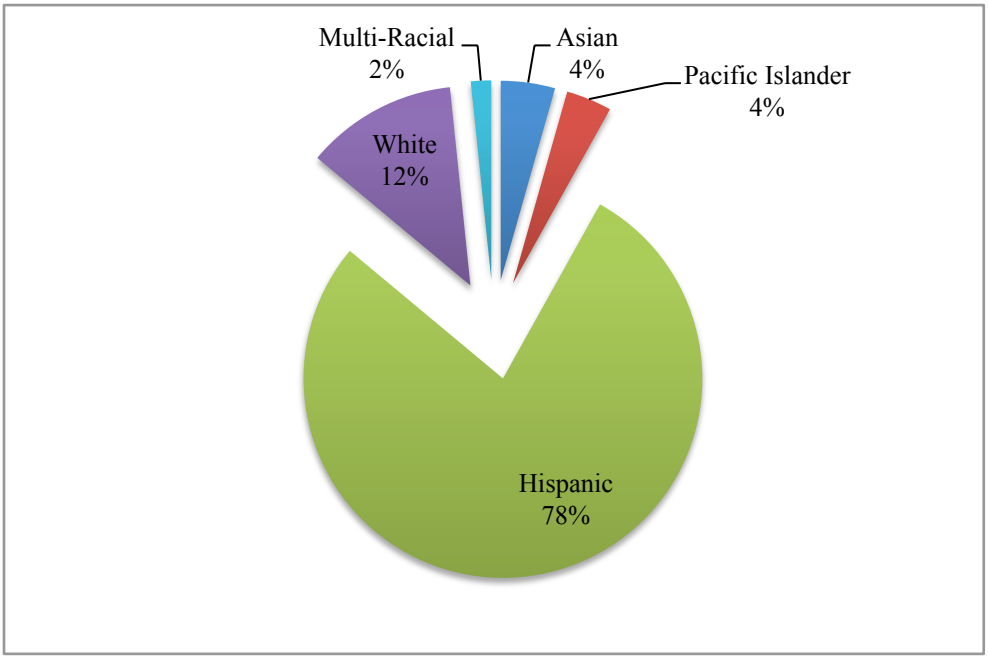

Figure 2: Ethnic breakdown of study sample

Figure 3 gives the percentages of those students who received free lunch and those who did not. In this study, free lunch is used as a proxy for socio-economic status. Using this assumption is that if the family qualifies for free lunch, they would most likely be in a lower socio-economic range. Recognizing that these assumptions have problems, using receipt of free lunch is an often-used proxy for income and

economic status (Harwell & LeBeau, 2010). In the sample, the majority of students did not receive free lunch (68%), while the reminding 32% had some kind of free or reduced-price meals.

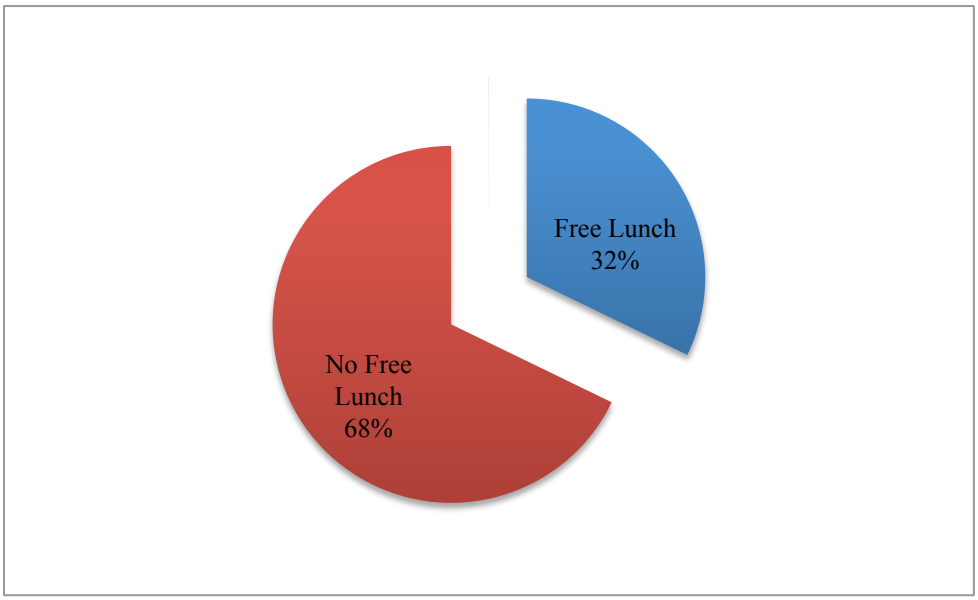

Figure 3: Percentages of students receiving free lunch

Gender, ethnicity, and SES differences were used throughout this study to address the research questions and hypotheses. The issue of differences in gender was explored in all three-time periods and on scaled score and performance levels in mathematics and literacy. Ethnicity and SES were also examined sing those same results from the states of the turnaround schools.

Summary of Chi-square Results

The findings in this section were organized by research questions. The results stem from the use of chi-square analysis, ANOVA, and OLS regression analysis. In order to prepare the dataset, several variables, including nominal variables, had to be recoded in order to fit the analysis and allow for interpretation. The gender category was recoded to reflect female as 0 and male as 1, and where appropriate grades scores were recoded to reflect whether the student passed or failed examinations. Not only were these procedures necessary for analysis, but also follow the standard approach to data preparation and cleaning (Babbie, 2009). When comparison between tests years were necessary, only students who had at least one STAR test in each year were included in the analysis. Further, when attempting to predict CAHSEE scores from STAR tests, then only students who completed both tests were included in the analysis.

Figures 1-8 shows the differences in gender, free lunch, as SES proxy, and ethnicity for 2010, 2011, and 2012. Figures 4-6 show the significance in the gender mathematics scaled score, performance level and CAHSEE for 2010, 2011, and 2011. Only significant relationships at $p < .05$ were shown. In looking at the figures, males tended to score higher than females, but girls did slightly better on the scaled score 2010 tests. Math scores in 2010 reflect the general pattern of the data in all categories, but there were some exceptions for other categories across all categories. CAHSEE followed the general category of the STAR tests.

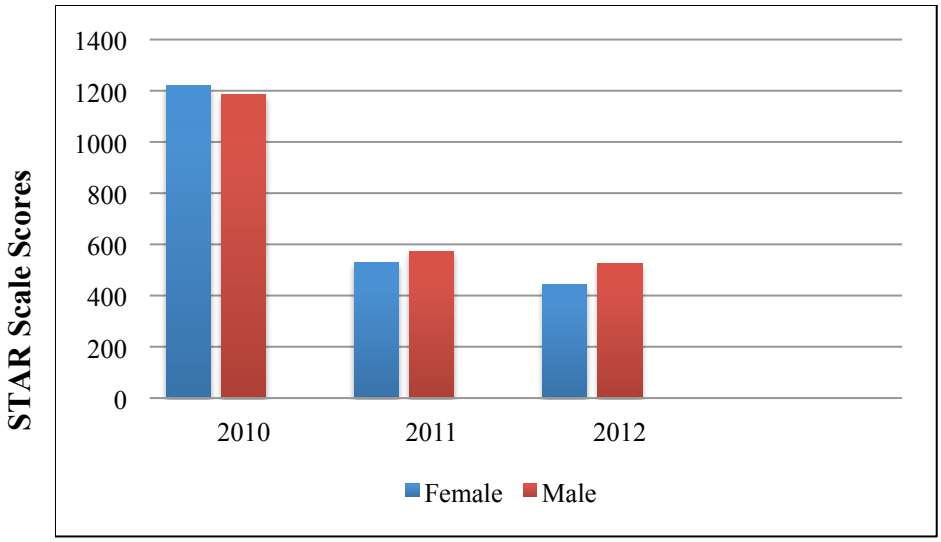

Figure 4: Differences in Male and Females STAR Scale Score

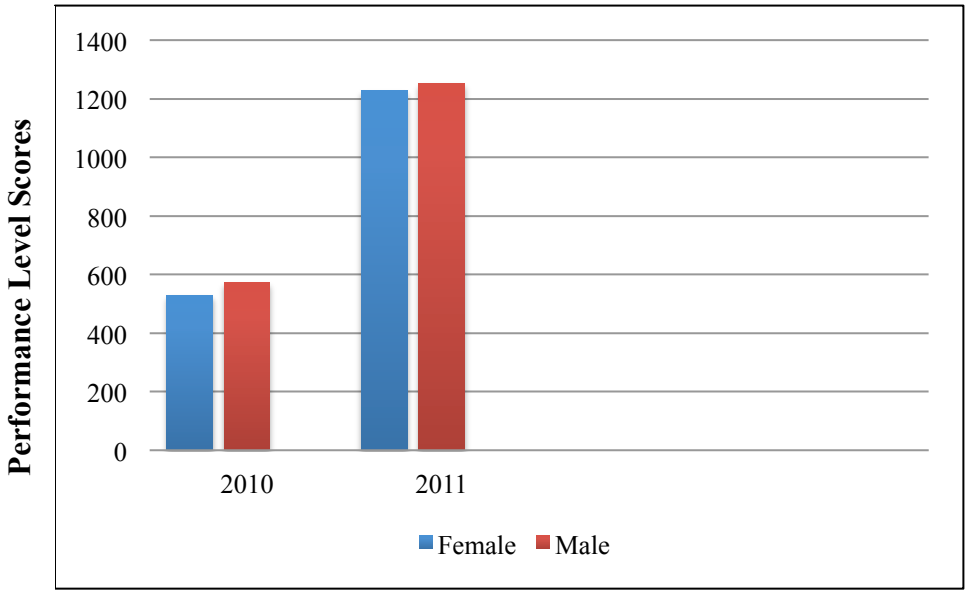

Figure 5: Differences in Male and Females Performance Level Score

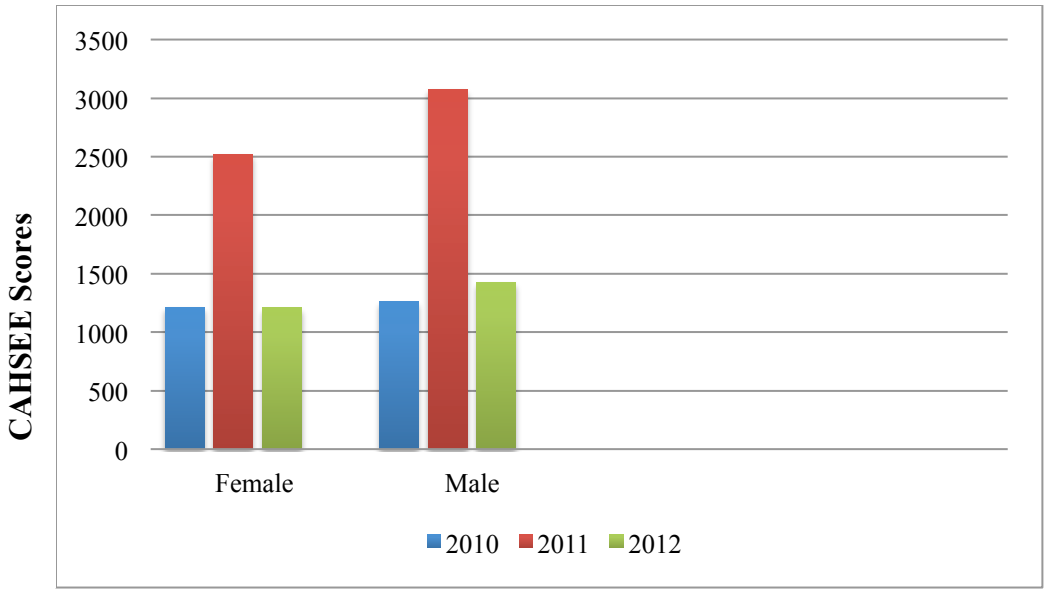

Figure 6: CAHSEE results for gender

There were important differences in ethnicity found in this study as well. In Figures 7 and 8, the difference in mathematics scaled scores and performance levels were featured for years 2010, 2011, and 2012 for Asians, Pacific Islanders, Hispanics, Blacks, Whites, and people who were multi-racial. There were statistically significance differences in the STAR tests as well as the CAHSEE tests, although for neither tests was there significance in 2011, which was not reported. Because Hispanics held the largest numbers in the population, they took both tests in greatest numbers. Still, in examining *p*-values, there is an indication that these differences were strong with values that were consistently $p < .001$.

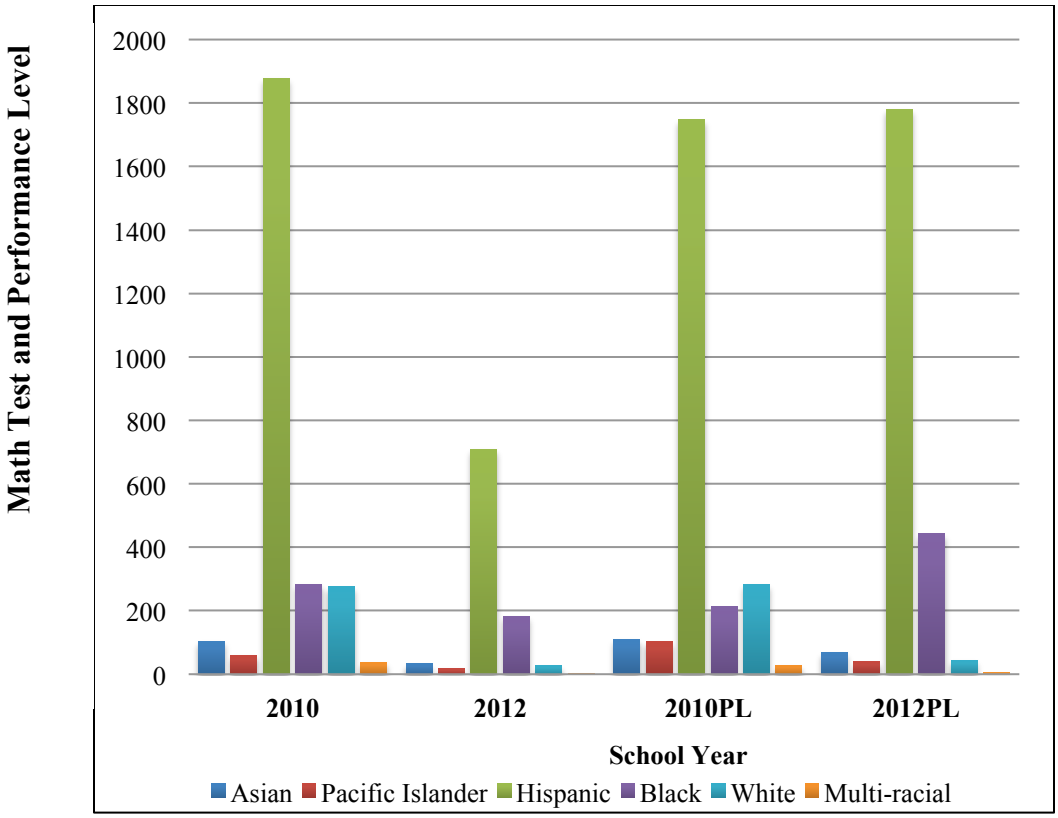

Figure 7: Ethnic breakdown of Math Tests Passed and Performance Level

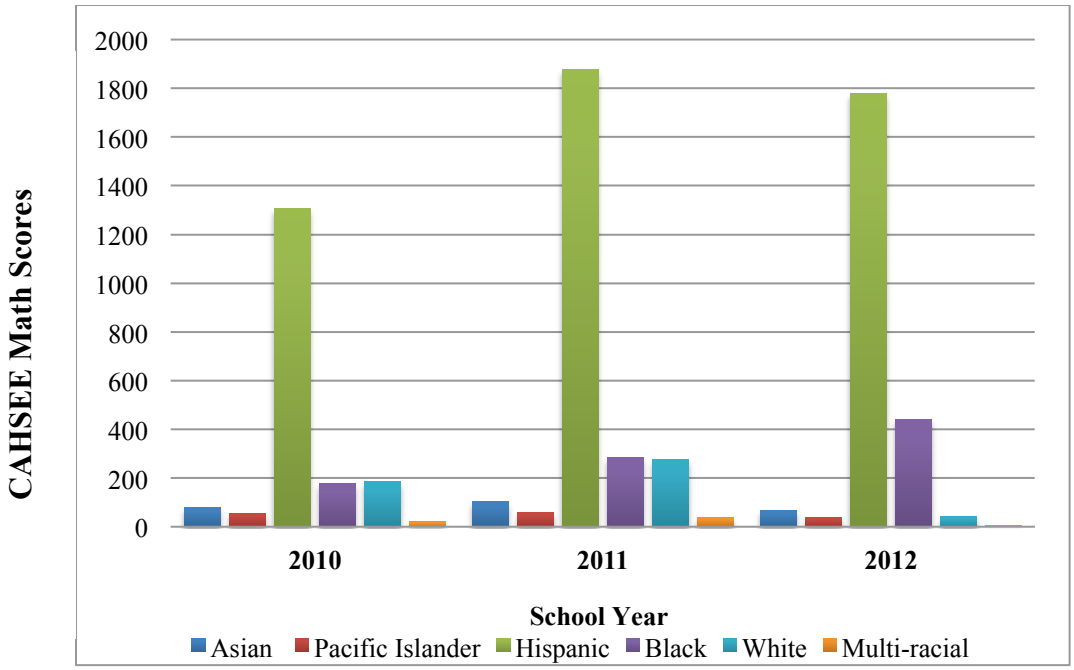

Figure 8: Ethnic breakdown of CAHSEE Math Scores

Free lunch was used as a proxy for socio-economic status. The breakdown in who in the sample receives free lunch was included in Figure 4. In the Chi-square analysis, SES was consistently significant in 2010 for mathematics scaled scores and performance level, as shown in Figure 9. No significance was shown in 2011 and so not included in the figure. In 2012, only the performance level tests were significant. Chi-squares were also conducted to test the differences in significant outcomes for students taking the CAHSEE tests in all three years. As Figure 10 shows, only mathematics scaled score and performance levels were significant in 2010, as oppose to in other years.

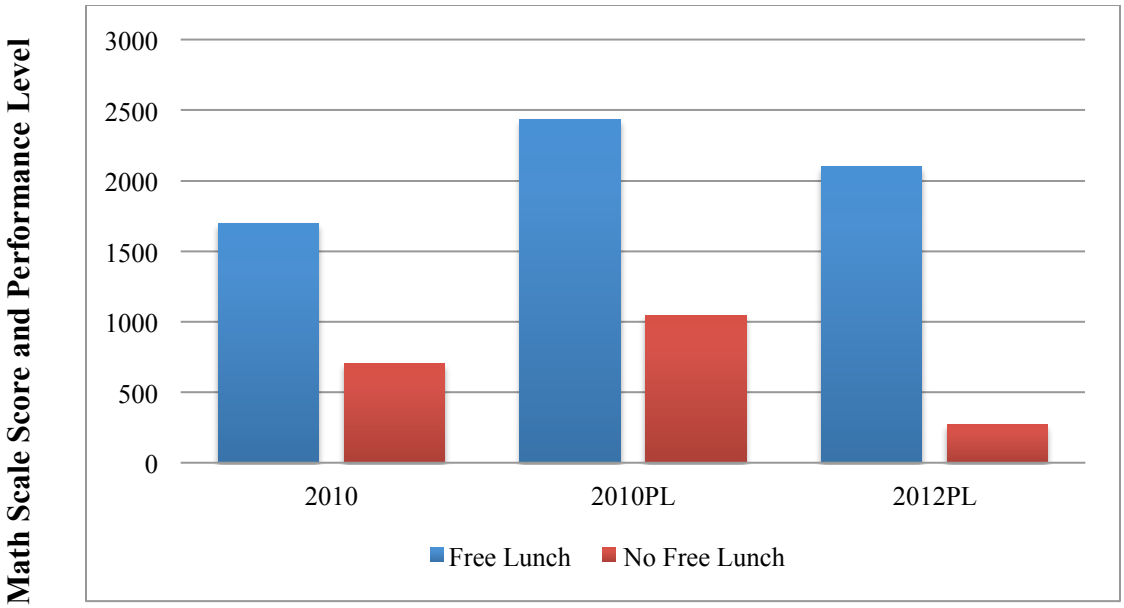

Figure 9: SES as measured by free lunch, Math Scale Score and Performance Level

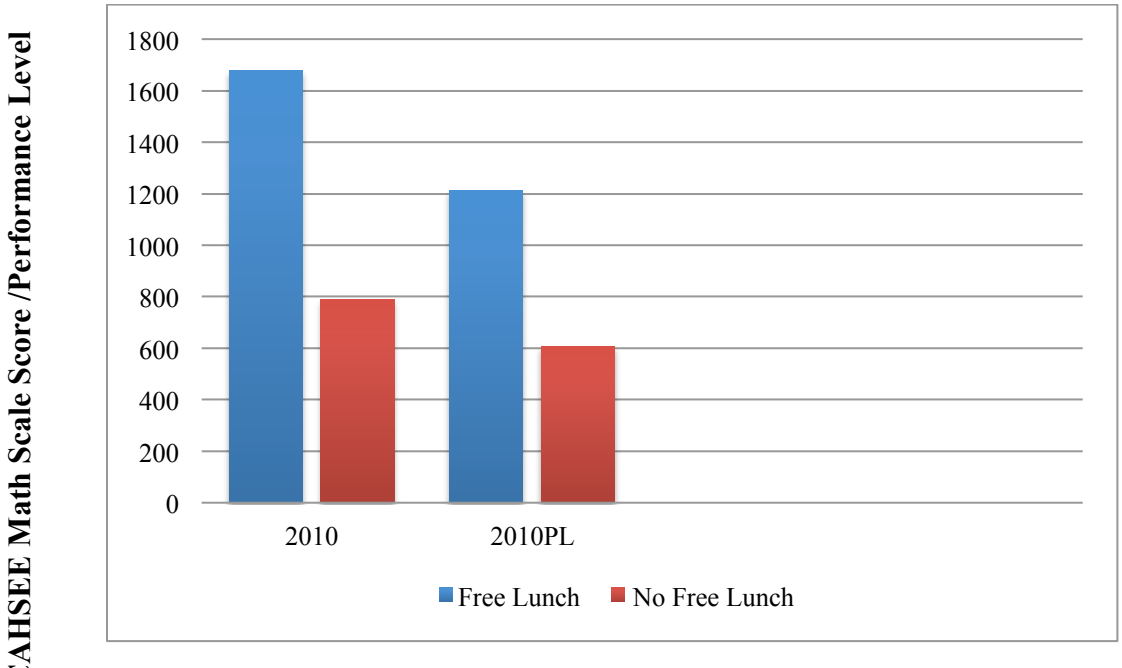

Figure 10: SES as measured by free lunch, CAHSEE Math Scale Score and Performance Level

Detailed Analysis

Chi-square findings started to address the first part of the research question, showing that there were significant differences in mathematics scores related to gender, ethnicity, and SES. However, because Chi-square analysis was limited, a fuller analysis was necessary to better answer the research questions in detail. As such, ANOVA and OLS regression analysis were conducted to address the research questions:

a.) Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different mathematics test scores after adjusting for gender and race?

b.) Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different literary test scores after adjusting for gender and race?

Tables 1 shows the results for each of the various ethnic groups in the model as well as their descriptives and variance in mathematics scores. The STAR mathematics test and free lunch were used as covariates to examine whether students performed at a similar level based on the results of the STAR mathematics tests. Further, the same covariates were used to determine differences in CAHSEE results. Additional descriptives and variances in mathematics scores were reported in the appendix.

In the STAR 2010 mathematics score, most of the groups displayed significant differences: male/female, poor/not poor, Asian/not Asian, Hispanic/not Hispanic, and White/not White. The group with the biggest *F* scores, White/not White was larger than the others, but again, not as large as the previous scores of over 2.00.

The results show that in 2010 the differences in means for gender, free lunch, and certain ethnicities were statistically significant. The analysis for gender was $F(136, 2269) = 1.500$, $p < .001$ and free lunch $F(136, 2269) = 1.235$, $p < .05$. The means for Asians and

Whites were significant with Asians at $F(136, 2269) = .044$, $p < .01$ and Whites at $F(136, 1689) = .217$, $p < .01$. Other ethnicities did not show significant differences in 2010.

Tables 2 shows that there were significant mean differences in CAHSEE test scores between free lunch recipients (N.S.L.P) and ethnicity, but not gender. Free lunch shows significant as well, $F(129, 1689) = .217$, $p < .001$. Significant ethnic differences were Asian, $F(129, 1693) = 1.867$, $p < .001$, Hispanics, $F(129, 1693) = 1.551$, $p < .001$, Blacks, $F(129, 1693) = 1.475$, $p < .001$, and Whites, $F(129, 1693) = 1.642$, $p < .001$.

Table 1: *Means and Standard Deviations for Math STAR 2010*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
STAR2010Male	323.65	45.307
STAR2010Female	315.96	40.002
STAR2010N.S.L.P.	326.14	46.820
STAR2010Asian	335.41	48.574
STAR2010Hispanic	364.84	32.755
STAR2010Black	312.98	40.507
STAR2010White	339.72	51.040
STAR2010multi	321.24	45.981

Table 2: *Means and Standard Deviations for Math CAHSEE 2010*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAHSEE2010Male	359.64	37.643
CAHSEE2010 Female	362.01	34.606
N.S.L.P C.AHSEE2010	360.09	34.551
CAHSEE2010Asian	391.04	38.829
CAHSEE2010Hispanic	357.73	33.950
CAHSEE2010Black	351.43	31.586
CAHSEE2010White	377.70	37.716
CAHSEE2010multi	369.76	35.709

In examining the literary portion of the STAR tests the ANOVA found that there were statistically significant mean differences in gender, receipt of free lunch, being Black and multi-racial. Means and standard deviations were reported in Tables 3. Additional computational statistics in literary STAR scores were reported in the Appendix. Specifically, the following groups showed significant differences between them: males and females, Hispanic and not Hispanic, Black and not Black, White and not White, multi-racial and not multi-racial. Therefore, it was likely that the means do not differ by chance and these were between group differences. Interestingly, children of varying economic status, which were measured via proxy of free lunch receipt, did not differ significantly, nor did Asian and not Asian. Assessing the *F* statistic themselves, the group with the largest differentiation was White and not White, followed closely by multi-racial and not multi-racial. Black and not Black also had a larger *F* statistic, while Hispanic and not Hispanic had a score that puts them roughly in the middle, while still maintaining a significant difference. The group with the smallest score differentiation was gender (male and female). For gender the ANOVA showed a statistically significant difference of $F(52, 973) = 1.417$, $p < .05$. Free lunch was $F(52, 973) = 1.362$, $p < .05$. Being Black was significant at $F(52, 973) = 1.691$, $p < .05$ while multi-racial showed significant with $F(52, 973) = 1.374$, $p < .05$. Likewise, for the 2010 CAHSEE tests as displayed in Tables 4, gender was statistically significant, $F(138, 1718) = 1.288$, $p < .05$. In that year, ethnic identifies were significant. Hispanic was significant at $F(138, 1718) = 1.441$, $p < .001$. Blacks' test scores were significant as well, $F(138, 1718) = 1.719$, $p < .001$, as were Whites $F(138, 1718) = 1.868$, $p < .001$ and multi-racial $F(138, 1718) = 1.798$, $p < .001$.

Table 3: *Means and Standard Deviations for the Literary STAR 2010*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
STAR2010Male	320.78	71.101
STAR2010Female	303.43	56.521
STAR2010N.S.L.P.	322.39	71.790
STAR2010Asian	336.12	76.291
STAR2010Hispanic	307.81	61.574
STAR2010Black	286.35	64.036
STAR2010White	324.92	70.218
STAR2010multi	307.89	68.444

Table 4: *Means and Standard Deviations for the Literary CAHSEE 2010*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAHSEE2010Male	351.34	37.620
CAHSEE2010Female	364.19	38.010
CAHSEE2010N.S.L.P.	356.69	36.622
CAHSEE2010Asian	371.75	44.550
CAHSEE2010Hispanic	355.08	36.263
CAHSEE2010Black	354.50	39.034
CAHSEE2010White	377.46	38.193
CAHSEE2010multi	363.69	35.709

ANOVA was also used to test the statistical significance of differences in means in gender, SES, and ethnicity in 2011. Data from the 2011 ANOVAs for mathematics scores appear in Table 5. In 2011, only gender and being ethnically Asian showed statistically different means. Gender $F(52, 1049) = 1.768$, $p < .001$ and Asian ethnically $F(52, 1049) = 1.609$, $p < .005$ had statistically different means. In the mathematics CAHSEE tests results shown in Table 11 and 12 more comparisons were statistically different. Gender, free lunch, Asian, Hispanic, White, and multi-racial all showed statistically significant differences. Gender was significant at the $p < .01$, $F(143, 4073) = 1.301$ and free lunch at $F(143, 4073) = 1.352$, $p < .01$. Meanwhile, being ethnically Asian $F(143, 4073) = 1.678$, $p < .001$, Hispanic $F(143, 4073) = 1.271$, $p = .05$, being White $F(143, 4073) = 1.384$, $p < .01$, and being multi-racial $F(143, 4073) = 2.681$, $p < .001$.

Table 5: *Means and Standard Deviations for Math STAR 2011*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
STAR2011Male	293.00	72.706
STAR2011Female	277.14	57.227
STAR2011N.S.L.P.	284.88	64.954
STAR2011Asian	290.56	60.084
STAR2011Hispanic	295.03	53.013
STAR2011Black	274.73	78.458
STAR2011White	281.29	60.366
STAR2011multi	n/a	n/a

Table 6: *Means and Standard Deviations Math CAHSEE 2011*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAHSEE2011Male	356.61	36.798.
CAHSEE2011Female	357.67	33.917
CAHSEE2011N.S.L.P.	363.09	39.330
CAHSEE2011Asian	382.85	38.551
CAHSEE2011Hispanic	340.01	19.754
CAHSEE2011Black	351.61	38.429
CAHSEE2011White	370.70	35.828
CAHSEE2011multi	366.94	36.719

Results show very little significance in the STAR literary tests in 2011. Only being ethically Asian showed statistical significance, $F(75, 938) = 1.346$, $p < .05$ (Table 7). The CAHSEE literary tests, however, show numerous comparisons to be significant (Table 8). There were some of the same between group significant differences (males and females, Asian and not Asian, Hispanic and not Hispanic, Black and not Black and White and non-White) as in 2010, however there were also some groups that differ in this sample that did not differ in the last sample, such as free lunch (or not free lunch) and some that did differ in 2010 that do not differ in 2011, such as multi-racial

The F statistics were also smaller in this CAHSEE group than in the 2010 group, except for the male/female differentiation, which was larger. For example, gender was significant at the $p < .001$ level, $F(147, 3953) = 1.412$. Free lunch was significant as well, $F(147, 3937) = 1.649$, $p < .001$. Most of the ethnic identities were significant, with the exception of being a Pacific Islander and multi-racial. Being Asian was significant, $F(147, 3953) = 1.25$, $p < .001$, as was Hispanic, $F(147, 3953) = 1.472$, $p < .001$, Black, $F(147, 3953) = 1.696$, $p = .001$, and being White, $F(147, 3953) = 1.497$, $p < .001$.

Table 7: *Means and Standard Deviations for Literary STAR 2011*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
STAR2011Male	292.90	59.535
STAR2011Female	272.36	53.265
STAR2011N.S.L.P.	282.40	56.695
STAR2011Asian	275.11	52.326
STAR2011Hispanic	279.06	54.834
STAR2011Black	271.33	53.785
STAR2011White	269.27	49.904
STAR2011multi	n/a	n/a

Table 8: *Means and Standard Deviations for Literary CAHSEE 2011*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAHSEE2011Male	349.79	36.798
CAHSEE2011Female	359.24	36.439
CAHSEE2011N.S.L.P.	361.33	41.460
CAHSEE2011Asian	372.23	36.493
CAHSEE2011Hispanic	333.07	23.789
CAHSEE2011Black	338.20	25.266
CAHSEE2011White	331.78	27.674
CAHSEE2011multi	341.40	41.283

The final ANOVA included a comparison of gender, SES, and ethnicity in 2012. The findings show that the different means of gender and free lunch were statistically significant as well as being Asian, Hispanic, and Black. For the STAR mathematics tests (Table 9). Gender was significant, $F(53, 913) = 1.606$, $p < .01$, as was free lunch, $F(53, 913) = 1.362$, $p < .05$. Also, being Asian $F(53, 916) = 2.523$, $p < .001$, Hispanic $F(53, 916) = 1.761$, $p < .001$, and Black $F(53, 916) = 1.448$, $p < .05$ were all statistically significant in the ANOVA. The ANOVA on the CAHSEE mathematics tests in Table 10 showed several variables to be significant within the model. Free lunch was significant, $F(121, 1718) = 1.245$, $p < .05$ as well as being Hispanic, $F(121, 1718) = 1.426$, $p < .01$, Black, $F(121, 1718) = 1.586$, $p < .001$, and White, $F(121, 1718) = 1.365$, $p < .01$.

Table 9: *Means and Standard Deviations Math STAR 2012*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
STAR2012Male	275.83	64.513
STAR2012Female	252.85	45.022
STAR2012N.S.L.P.	225.00	17.455
STAR2012Asian	267.74	58.008
STAR2012Hispanic	272.48	57.375
STAR2012Black	271.78	66.541
STAR2012White	206.00	28.284
STAR2012multi	n/a	n/a

Table 10: *Mean and Standard Deviations for Math CAHSEE 2012*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAHSEE2012Male	363.95.	35.844
CAHSEE2012Female	363.89	34.340
CAHSEE2012N.S.L.P.	372.53	36.897
CAHSEE2012Asian	369.44	38.003
CAHSEE2012Hispanic	363.46	34.404
CAHSEE2012Black	348.89	30.901
CAHSEE2012White	374.94	38.082
CAHSEE2012multi	353.67	30.311

The differences in literary tests scores in 2012 showed that only ethnicity was significant in the STAR tests. Asian was significant, $F(50, 676) = 2.394$, $p < .001$, Hispanic, $F(50, 576) = 1.767$, $p < .001$, and White, $F(50, 676) = 1.371$, $p < .05$. These findings were presented in Table 11. For the CAHSEE Tests, which were presented in Table 12, receiving free lunches as well as certain ethnic identities were significant. Free lunch was significant at $p < .001$ $F(134, 1786)$. Asian was significant at $F(134, 1804) = 1.562$, $p < .001$, Hispanic was significant at $F(134, 1804) = 1.504$, $p < .001$, Black, $F(134, 1804) = 1.666$, $p < .001$, and multi-racial, $F(134, 1804) = 1.303$, $p < .05$.

Table 11: *Means and Standard Deviations for Literary STAR 2012*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
STAR2012Male	248.67	56.113
STAR2012Female	257.77	49.228
STAR2012N.S.L.P.	221.50	45.096
STAR2012Asian	251.66	52.571
STAR2012Hispanic	263.24	56.508
STAR2012Black	221.00	37.447
STAR2012White	232.00	25.456
STAR2012multi	n/a	n/a

Table 12: *Mean and Standard Deviations for Literary CAHSEE 2012*

	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAHSEE2012Male	354.10	36.715
CAHSEE2012Female	362.10	38.568
CAHSEE2012N.S.L.P.	369.31	40.157
CAHSEE2012Asian	369.44	38.003
CAHSEE2012Hispanic	356.73	36.675
CAHSEE2012Black	347.19	35.080
CAHSEE2012White	369.66	40.623
CAHSEE2012multi	345.05	33.577

Results of Regression Analysis

A simple OLS regression analysis was conducted to address the question: "To what degree in the observed turnaround schools could STAR testing be used to predict CAHSEE test results?" Tables 13 through 16 summarize the significant results of the regression analysis. In order to address this research question, the researcher regressed CAHSEE in all three years on earlier mathematics and literary. The results of the regression indicated that STAR2010 literary and STAR Math were strong predictors of CAHSEE mathematics tests in 2010 ($R^2 = .496$, $p < .001$). The STAR tests examine about 50% of the variance in the model. Likewise, these same variables were also predictive of CAHSEE literary tests outcome as well ($R^2 = .518$, $p < .001$), explaining nearly 52% of the model's variance.

The later years, not both tests where predictive. In 2011, only the STAR Literary test predicted the Math score for CAHSEE ($R^2 = .558$, $p < .01$), with 56% of the variance explained. In addition, STAR Literary in 2011 predicted ELA Scales Score in that same year ($R^2 = .787$, $p < .001$), explaining the greatest amount of variance at 79%.

Table 13: Predictors of CAHSEE 2010 Math Score

				Math Scaled Score CAHSEE 2010		
					95% CI	
Variable	R^2	SE	Beta	t	Lower	Upper
Constant	.496	6.489		33.502	204.672	230.148
STAR		.018	.442	13.037***	.199	.269
Literary2010						
STARMath2010		.027	.326	9.625	.207	.314

Table 14: Predictors of CAHSEE 2010 Literary Score

				ELA Scaled Score CAHSEE 2010		
					95% CI	
Variable	R^2	SE	Beta	t	Lower	Upper
Constant	.518	6.293		34.778***	206.511	231.217
STAR		.017	.449	15.072***	.228	.296
Literary2010						
STARMath2010		.026	.283	8.541***	.172	.275

Table 15: *Predictors of CAHSEE 2011 Math Score*

				Math Scaled Score CAHSEE 2011		
					95% CI	
Variable	R^2	SE	Beta	t	Lower	Upper
Constant	.558	30.671		6.595***	137.553	266.973
STAR		.350	.534	2.866**	.092	.608
Literary2011						

Table 16: *Predictors of CAHSEE 2011 Literary Score*

				ELA Scaled Score CAHSEE 2011		
					95% CI	
Variable	R^2	SE	Beta	t	Lower	Upper
Constant	.787	26.521		6.509***	114.261	231.007
STAR Literary2011		.128	.658	3.407**	.155	.718

NOTE: SE=Standard error; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Summary

This secondary data analysis investigated the effect of one or more variables on one or more of the outcome variables. Student performance with and without the use of SIG funding was the focus of the research questions. Data analysis confirmed that there was a gap in research regarding the relationship between district actions for school improvement and student achievement (Nettles & Herrington, 2007). In chapter 5, the researcher will provide a discussion on how study results relate to current trends, future practices, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

Ever since the release of *A Nation at Risk* (1983), heightened concerns about the deficiencies of public education motivated policymakers to launch and sustain one of the most comprehensive efforts to improve student learning in recent history (Bjork, Kowalski, & Young, 2005). They not only raised expectations for student learning, but also held schools accountable by measuring academic performance (Hodge, 2007). Over the past three decades (1983-2013) findings from research studies reported that some specific aspects of school reform may have a positive influence on student achievement including school attendance, graduation rates, and the retention of knowledgeable and skilled classroom teachers (Hart, 2005). In addition, Marzano et al. (2005) identified school and district leadership as a key to educational reform and improving student achievement.

Scholars concur that school and district leadership is an important element of successful school reform in that they guide the learning and teaching process, influence curriculum decisions, underscore the importance of student learning outcomes, and advocate closing the achievement gap for students from disadvantaged backgrounds (Cambron-McCabe & McCarthy, 2005, Darling-Hammond, 2002). In sum, leadership is key to engage classroom teachers in creating organizations that serve the needs of all students (Hickey, 2010, Leithwood & Strauss).

These reports also reflect a shared sense of urgency among parents, practitioners and policy makers that schools meet student needs. Several promising building-level school reform models have captured widespread interest. Many regard the turnaround

concept as being a revolutionary idea in that it offers local schools a "blank slate" to use its resources quickly to turn around struggling schools (Hulburt et al., 2011). The term turnaround itself is purposeful in its use, as it suggests that an entire community-its schools, students, teachers, and administrators must be turned into something that is nourishing and beneficial. As the debate on educational reform increased in intensity, the lack of clarity of the term "turnaround" contributed to its meaning being contested. These circumstances added a measure of uncertainty with regard to how it may be used to describe and guide school improvement initiatives. When Secretary of Education Duncan joined the Obama administration, he acted quickly to address this issue and developed a consensual understanding as to what was most relevant to turning around low-performing schools, defined operational terms and built a coalition to support the administration's school improvement agenda.

Federally funded School Improvement (SIG) Grants have offered states and local education agencies (LEAs) an opportunity to address problems faced by persistently low achieving schools (PLAS) and to meet or exceed national, state, and local expectations for student learning. Research findings shed light on the attributes of effective school reform models that may influence student achievement. Reports suggest that an important factor in the success of implementing a school turnaround model is changing the school leadership as well as redefining what those new leaders do. For example, the SIG program requires that new school leaders not only accept responsibility for being stewards of the vision of the schools future but also provide concrete evidence that the school is meeting their goals. These goals include being accountable for student achievement, attendance rates, graduation rates, and retention

of knowledgeable and skilled classroom teachers (Hart, 2005). It is evident that schools and districts look at the SIG program as a vehicle through which they may support their efforts in improving student achievement.

This study focused on examining student achievement in chronically low performing California high schools using the turnaround model of reform in. Findings suggest that schools receiving SIG funding for implementation of the turnaround model appear to have a negative influence on student achievement. It is hoped that these findings and possible explanations offered in this chapter may contribute to filling a gap in our knowledge base about the initial stages of the turnaround model of school reform and student achievement (Nettles & Herrington, 2007).

Purpose of the Chapter

The primary objective of this study was to provide a better understanding of how implementation of Title I SIG (the turnaround model) during its early stages may have effected student achievement in California's chronically low-performing urban schools. To address this objective, an analysis of student achievement at six urban high schools in California that choose to implement the turnaround model was conducted. Secondary data analysis examined the student achievement as measured by student test scores on state assessments. This study used reading and math scores from the year prior to implementation of the SIG funded turnaround model to establish a baseline (2009-2010) of student performance. Student scores were then compared to the scores during the first year of turnaround model implementation.

This chapter will provide a discussion of elements regarded as central to the school turnaround model including leadership, culture, and community engagement to

frame discussions of findings, recommendations for practice, and future research. A brief recap of statistical methods regarding how data were analyzed will be presented as well as a brief statement of results reported in chapter 4. A recap of theoretical concepts and relevant literature will be discussed to explain results as well as identify how they may affirm or add to the knowledge base in the field of educational administration. This format will be used in answering each question and subparts. In addition, findings from the study and literature will inform recommendations for implementing turnaround schools as well as enhancing future research on turnaround school models of educational reform.

Summary of Key Elements of the Turnaround School Model

Scholars note that NCLB relegated data collection and making data informed decisions to local schools and districts. Many of these decisions required that assessment be compared for their statistical usefulness in evaluating and predicting student achievement. Regression type analysis of properly aligned state testing will play a bigger part in the evolution of school reform, as the global society requires schools give students tests that properly set them up for success in higher education and beyond. Wayman (2005) noted that NCLB's accountability mandates have drawn increasing attention to the practical use of student data. With STAR testing being the major high stakes test given by the state of California, it is important it aligns vertically with both itself and with the CAHSEE. Proper examination of data gathered from these tests can help improve the chances that the STAR test can be a continually strong predictor of the CAHSEE. Data-informed decision making in the field of education was defined by Means, Gallagher, and Padilla (2007) as expectations and practices focused on the examination of student data,

especially to determine the value of those programs to allow modifications to improve student outcomes. Bernhardt (2009) offers a similar a definition, describing data-driven decision making as a process of using data to inform decisions focused on creating better learning environments. Extensive research indicate that data-informed decisions may result in improving student academic achievement scores Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) reported in 2003 that continuous improvement efforts tend to be tied to meaningful student learning data collection and analysis. In sum, data may help teachers and administrators identify areas that need improvement, as well as allocate resources and connect with community stakeholders concerning school needs. Although data collection is a crucial step towards achieving school improvement goals, Downey, Steffy, Poston, and English (2008) stressed school goals need to be specified before data collection. Tests such as CAHSEE and STAR have clear agendas centered on evaluating student learning through a highly critical data driven analysis.

The school turnaround model is viewed as one of the most radical strategies for school improvement in existent repertoire of reforms, which are focused on improving test scores of students attending low performing school. Several elements of the turnaround model are presented to properly situate findings of the study. These elements include: establishing genuine community partnerships; school culture emphasis; and creating safe environments for teacher growth.

Establishing genuine community partnerships

Schools are central entities in communities. Consequently, school leaders who use committees to improving learning and teaching may be more successful when citizens, parents and teachers have a stake in successful schools. When schools and students are successful, the effect diffuses among the whole community over time thus reinforcing the correctness of their decision to support local education reform. In the case of SIG funded schools, a fundamental requirement is to involve the broad community. The intent is to establish a mechanism through which to involve the community; literature on how to enhance their sense of ownership of local schools and nurture widespread belief in the efficacy of identify the types of school-community relations and partnerships that are most efficacious and fit various community contexts. These models also discuss inclusion of local stakeholders such as colleges and community organizations and outline how they may become involved and enhance the success of local schools. An extensive overview of community resources indicates how they may be aligned with the needs of the school and in the long-term sustainability of improvement efforts. This is an essential element of the turnaround school model. Research findings also indicate that school collaboration with families and communities is vital to student success. For example, The Council of Chief State School Officers (2008) reported that educational leaders who build positive relationships with families and stakeholders make an investment in the success of their students. Consequently, CCSSO advises school leaders to create relationships with the community at large. In addition, Leithwood et al. (2004) report that leaders who understand that schools and parents are closely intertwined homes play a key role in student success. They indirectly

influence student achievement by establishing school-sponsored practices as school-community collaborations, parent education programs, and social services (Leithwood et al., 2004). Furthermore, Cotton (2003) also notes that effective school leaders are efficient communicators and regularly distribute information throughout the school and community. This builds positive relationships with stakeholders that enhance all school functions. Marzano's et al. (2005) suggests that administrators who provide outreach and serve as both advocates and spokespersons for their schools to all stakeholders enhance school-community relations. School-community partnerships are a key element of SIG funded schools and suggests a promising direction for persistently low performing schools.

School culture emphasis

The most complex and seeming intractable dilemmas facing public educational today is educating all students well. Extant literature on successful educational reform initiatives note that positive school culture matters with regard to enhancing the academic performance of students, particularly in persistently low performing and underperforming schools. This conclusion emerged from tireless efforts by researchers and practitioners to identify the key elements for school improvement that is associated with enhancing student academic achievement. They concur in the limitations of previous strategies characterized as one size fits all to improve chronically underperforming schools. Recognition that schools are unique in time and place and have their own distinctive challenges that must be addressed as they strive to be successful shifted attention away from uniform nostrums to singular, school-focused strategies. In this regard, SIG

program requirements are focused on ensuring that every school develops its own unique culture.

This body of literature is cautionary in the sense that school and district leaders should be careful in assuming that all underperforming schools have the same circumstances and cultures and consequently would benefit equally well if they were given the same remedy. Each school has an established culture that was created by its members. Whether good or ill it provides a point of departure for understanding the organization and the community as well as starting point for change. Working with and through existing school and community cultures is challenging it holds considerable promise as a lever for turning around underperforming schools. Recognizing the collective experiences, knowledge, and skills of a school's stakeholders and working with and through them to craft contextually relevant and effective remedies is a widely held axiom in the lexicon of change strategies (Bass, 2011).

Policy makers should also be cautioned against clustering notions of income, poverty, race, gender, or even similar community dynamics as explaining why some schools work and other don't. The paucity of empirical research that either implicitly or explicitly identifies the same prescriptive remedy for improving all schools regardless of community context has long been abandoned as a fruitless avenue for substantive corrective action (i.e.) improving student's academic performance. The preponderance of literature in the field support the notion that each school needs to be viewed as unique and that reformers need to systematically ascertain its culture using a wide array of data including its history as well as values, beliefs and attitudes of teachers and principals as well as how they do work. Thus, describing the school culture is a preliminary step in

addressing the fundamental question of its efficacy in educating it children. In this regard, data analysis is crucial to ensuring understanding the current status of each school's culture As well as employing the notion of contextual reasoning (Datnow, 2002) for establishing critical priorities for its transformation. A strategy closely associated with creating positive school cultures is the notion of effective decision-making. It is described as a collaborative process that engages individuals and groups within an organization to agree on working toward a common vision and how to conduct work. This notion of professional engagement is an inherent part of the change process embedded in SIG regulations. Administrators are encouraged to display, articulate, and reify the shared vision to all school stakeholders to enhance the success of long-term change efforts (Calabrese, 2002). This notion of authentic engagement extends to the nature of relationships with students who constitute an important yet oft forgotten stakeholder group.

As noted previously, SIG schools are required to engage the community and parents to play an active role in the education process. In a similar sense, all students attending the school regardless of ethnic and racial backgrounds are expected to express their views in curriculum decisions and other aspects that strengthen the school culture. For example, leaders of PLAS not only are expected to focus on student achievement but also embrace the challenge of shaping school culture through to fostering collaboration, promoting shared values, and support the fundamental purpose of schooling-learning (DuFour et al., 2006). In this regard, the principal and school staff must examine, nurture, and strengthen the school's culture to ensure it is conducive to student learning. Scholars and practitioners concur that this shared responsibility constitutes the most

critical school improvement goals advanced by the school turnaround model as well as other strategies addressing persistently low performing schools (Marzano, McNutty, & Waters, 2005; DuFour et al., 2006).

Creating safe environments for teacher growth

On a daily basis, classroom teachers in persistently low performing schools are made aware of the see the nature of the problems facing schools and students and recognize their role in finding solutions. Although many teachers and school administrators may become disheartened over the increasing number of children who fall through the cracks and don't receive an adequate education (Glasser, 1968) others engage in building the bonds and teach with pedagogical knowledge and conviction essential to ending students struggle with learning and lay the foundation for their academic success and indeed their life chances. Freire (1970) observes that teaching requires ethics, the capacity to be critical, the recognition of prior conditioning as well as being unpretentiousness and reflective. When schools have a high percentage exceptional teachers who have these critical characteristics schools may be well equipped to engage in implement school turnaround that positively influence students' academic success.

An important aspect of safe environments for teacher growth and building a culture of learning is distributive or shared leadership among key stakeholders in the transformative process. Principals play a key role in this process. They not only are responsible for coherent plans for identifying, recruiting, and developing teachers as leaders but also ensuring that they have voice in making decisions about learning and In this regard, the principal is also central to identifying their unique talents as well as building their capacity to enact their roles as teacher leaders and thus leverage change.

Comer (1996) observes that success at transforming schools is achieved because of people are satisfied with their jobs, have a sense of ownership of the school and feel that they are part of the solution. This is particularly evident in efforts directed towards emancipating communities that have generationally suffered from the effects of low achievement. Taken together, principals, teacher leaders, parents and community citizens are essential to transforming low performing schools and creating an efficacious learning environment.

Distributed leadership is also central concept in professional learning communities (PLCs). Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Wallace, & Robert (2006) discusses the positive aspects of engaging teachers in school decision making with regard to building their confidence as professionals by ensuring that their views will be used to improve programs, curricula, and instructional processes that directly influence improving student academic achievement. Professional learning communities that promote teacher growth in PLAS offer a powerful alternative to traditional models of staff development. Successful PLCs include supportive leadership, promote shared values, and school-wide focus on improving student learning (DuFour et al., 2006; Hord, 2004). In addition, PLCs are grounded in principles long-regarded as important intervention tools particularly with regard to their focus on improving instructional practices to enhance student academic success (DuFour et al., 2006; Roberts & Pruitt, 2003). Importantly, learning communities not only empower teachers and school leaders alike but also offer them an opportunity to reconfigure how work is done and share knowledge about what really matters-student learning (DuFour et al., 2006;

Roberts & Pruitt, 2003). PLCs are viewed as job-embedded professional development that can be sustained over time (DuFour et al., 2006; Roberts & Pruitt, 2003).

Creating safe environments for collaborative cultures, distributed decision making and professional learning communities exemplify teacher growth. All of these key elements are incorporated into the SIG program and consequently may contribute to redefining the nature and direction of leadership, develop a sense of shared ownership of the school that may in turn improve student academic achievement.

Summary of Data Analysis Methods

The analysis of this study was conducted using the SPSS statistical software to examine differences in gender, SES, and ethnicity on tests outcomes for students over a three-year time period (2009-2010, 2010-2011, 2011-2012). Data analysis included chi-squares, ANOVA, and regression analysis. Each statistical method was used to compare both different and similar elements of the study. Chi-square was used in comparing statistical differences in test outcomes; ANOVA was useful in comparing the differences among demographics groups, especially gender, those with low-incomes, and different ethnic groups. Regression analysis showed the correlations and relationship between earlier tests and later outcomes. All statistical methods are appropriate for use in comparing certain elements of a large dataset or for exploratory analysis (Babbie, 2009).

Summary of Study Findings

Each study question and subpart will be examined separately. Findings reported in chapter 4 will be presented and followed by a "recap" of relevant literature that will be used to both explain findings and situate them in the literate at the knowledge base in the field of educational administration.

To answer the first research question: "What factors within turnaround school education have an effect on student performance as measured by academic achievement?" The researcher used chi-square analysis. Chi-squares were conducted to assess the differences between gender and ethnicity in STAR math and CAHSEE tests. The analysis included subsets of the data that focused on two distinct populations. The chi-square test enabled the researcher to test the significance of differences between boys and girls as well as differences in ethnicity and SES. The chi-square measures the degree of deviation between the observed and the expected results if the populations are assumed statistically equivalent. Consequentially, chi-squares provide a way to assess whether or not results there are, in fact, differences across gender, ethnicity, and SES. Chi-square findings did show significant results, particularly in the math tests with regard to gender, ethnicity, and SES. Descriptive statistics indicate that student test scores declined during the first year when the school turnaround model was implemented regardless of gender, ethnicity, and SES. This question had several subparts that will be answered in the following sections.

There are three subparts to the first research question. Sub question part A of question 1, **"**Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different math test scores after adjusting for gender and race?" was initially addressed using chi-square analysis. The researcher examined whether there were true differences in male and female test outcomes, ethnicity, and SES. Findings show that some areas varied by years, but gender, SES, and ethnicity all show statistical differences. The research question was also partially answered using ANOVA analysis. These findings varied by years, gender and socio-economic status (SES), as well as by race and ethnicity including students

identified as Asian, Hispanic, White, or Black. These students consistently showed significant negative differences in most STAR mathematics tests. However, those students identified as being Pacific Islander were not recorded as having statistically significant test scores. In sum, data indicate that boys and girls regardless of receiving free lunch and being Asian, Hispanic, White, and Black scored less well on mathematics tests. Student test averages across the board went down over the 3 years of the study.

Over the past three decades, national and state education reform policies have emphasized the importance of raising mathematics scores of all students. Balfanz, McPartland, & Shaw (2002) report that many students who complete middle school lack skills in mathematics essential to succeeding in rigorous, high school sequence college-preparatory mathematics courses. National and international comparisons of student achievement indicate that it is between shortly before high school when U.S. students in general, and minority and low SES students in particular, rapidly fall behind their peers on mathematic achievement tests (Beaton et al., 1996; Schmidt et al., 1999). It is alarming to note that many states reported a 30 to 50 percentage-point difference between White students and the minority students in the percentage of students scoring at the basic level on the eighth-grade National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) exam (Blank & Langesen, 1999). In addition, students in PLAS, as well as for the country as a whole, scored low in mathematical proficiency as they enter and matriculate through high school. Furthermore, Pelavin & Kane (1990) note that the ability to achieve in high school, college-preparatory mathematics courses has been linked to future success in both postsecondary schooling and future life opportunities.

Growth in math subject matter continues to be important; as the demographics of our country change it becomes crucial to enhance the capacity of low SES and minority students to succeed in mathematics. Balfanz & Legters (2001) observe that without adequate mathematics instruction, students in large cities will continue struggle in high school mathematics courses, be at risk of dropping out of school and limit future opportunities and limited upward economic and social mobility.

The statistical significant results of this study suggest that student achievement is not being positively affected within schools that are implementing the turnaround model. It is important to note that no previous research has done an extensive analysis examining the effectiveness of learning under this model. In the STAR 2010 math score, most of the groups displayed significant differences: male/female, poor/not poor, Asian/not Asian, Hispanic/not Hispanic, and White/not White. The group with the biggest *F* scores, White/not White was larger than the others, but not as large as the previous scores of over 2.00. The results show that in 2010 there were significant mean differences for gender, free lunch, and certain ethnic groups. Other ethnicities did not show significant differences in 2010. Students in these schools, especially within the variables tested, have test results that fit the profile of being statistically relevant. The analyses reported in chapter 4 do not indicate that math scores were improved over the test years of the study.

Subpart B of the research question: "Do turnaround school students of varied SES status have different literacy test scores after adjusting for gender and race?" was addressed using Chi-square analysis. The researcher examined whether there were true differences in male and female test outcomes, ethnicity, and socio-economic status (SES).

Findings show that some areas had small differences and varied by years, but gender, SES, and ethnicity all showed actual statistical differences. The research question was also partially answered using ANOVA analysis. These findings especially varied by years, but gender, SES, and being Asian, Hispanic, White, or Black consistently showed significant differences in the STAR math tests, although not in every example. Being multi-racial was sometimes played a role, but less often than in the other categories. Being Pacific Islander was never statistically significant in the model. The findings indicate that boys and girls, receiving free lunch or not, being Asian, Hispanic, White, and Black can affect your score on tests.

Literature on educational reform and student achievement argue persuasively that literacy is a central component in the students' growth in PLAS. Although there is growing consensus about fundamental elements of reading instruction (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998), Rosenshine (1997) underscores the importance of continuing literacy instruction through high school. Research indicates positive correlations between literacy development and the deliberate and frequent use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. The literacy achievement gap refers to the disparity in academic performance between different groups, with special regard to SES, gender, and ethnicity. This has become a social justice issue in the United Sates as children from poverty backgrounds consistently score lower in reading and writing than children from middle and high-income backgrounds (Teale, Paciga, & Hoffman, 2007). They also note a similar gap exists between African American and Latino students and their higher scoring Caucasian peers. Despite these and other findings that support policies that reading instruction and raise reading achievement for all students NCLB legislation (2002) endorsement was not

followed by significant levels of federal funding.

In examining the literacy portion of the STAR tests using an ANOVA, we found that there were statistically significant mean differences in gender, receipt of free lunch, and being Black and multi-racial. Specifically, the following groups showed significant differences between them: males and females, Hispanic and not Hispanic, Black and not Black, White and not White, multi-racial and not multi-racial. Therefore, it was likely that the means do not differ by chance and these were between group differences. The analysis showed both significant results and results suggesting that student achievement in English Language Arts (ELA) is not being positively affected within schools implementing the turnaround implementation model. No previous research has done extensive analysis on the effectiveness of literacy learning under the turnaround school reform model.

Two additional subparts of the research question include: "Is there any significant difference in the student achievement between on the California High School Exit Exam? Do these results vary by gender, race and socioeconomic status (SES)?" These subparts were answered using ANOVA. Analysis of data provided a partial answer to question subpart c. These findings varied by school years, gender, SES, and ethnicity (Asian, Hispanic, White, or Black). Findings imply that there are statistically significant differences in both CAHSEE tests for all school years. Being multi-racial sometimes played a role, but less often than in the other categories. CAHSEE tests seemed to show the statistical differences. Descriptive statistics show students not achieving as high on later versions of CAHSEE after 2010. Being Pacific Islander was never statistically significant in the model. The findings show that boys and girls, receiving free lunch or

not, being Asian, Hispanic, White, and Black can positively or negatively affect your score on tests. The tests that were the least affected were the most recent CAHSEE tests in 2012. There were significant mean differences in CAHSEE test scores between free lunch recipients (N.S.L.P) and ethnicity, but not gender.

Student achievement continues indicated by performance on standardized state and national assessments. For example, Wilen-Daugenti & McKee (2008) report that globalization in education creates an environment for students to think about the larger society and analyze how skills can become transferable. This concept suggests that assessments that gauge student readiness for higher education valuable, especially in PLAS environments. NCLB (2002) requirements hold schools accountable for improvement in student performance, AYP is an integral part of the calculus of accountability may cause the school to lose a portion of its funding (Brimley & Garfield, 2008). Assessments such as CAHSEE and STAR are viewed as useful tools for assessing school performance on national accountability standards. NCLB regulations and implementation guidelines did not indicate how schools would achieve these goals, leaving many districts struggling to improve instruction (Heilig & Darling- Hammond, 2008).

Another subpart to the research question: "To what degree in the observed turnaround schools could STAR testing be used to predict CAHSEE test results?" was analyzed using regression analysis. Data was analyzed from STAR and CAHSEE testing over at 3-year span (2010-2012). When regression outcomes are viewed in terms of the null hypothesis, neither the STAR 2010 ELA nor STAR 2010 math score were useful predictors of CAHSEE 2010 ELA score. Null hypothesis must be rejected and reported

that both STAR 2010 ELA and STAR 2010 math are useful predictors of CAHSEE 2010 ELA (or literary) score. In 2011, the null hypothesis assumed that neither STAR 2011 ELA nor STAR 2011 math scores are good predictors of CAHSEE 2011 math scores. The null can be partially rejected and concluded that STAR 2011 ELA scores are predictive of CAHSEE 2011 math scores, while STAR 201 Math scores are not. It is also the case that the null hypothesis assumes that neither STAR 2011 ELA nor STAR 2011 math scores are good predictors of CAHSEE 2011 ELA scores. Analysis allows the researcher to partially reject the null and conclude that STAR2011 ELA scores are predictive of CAHSEE 2011 ELA scores, while STAR 2011 Math scores are not.

In later years, not both tests where predictive. In 2011, only the STAR Literary test predicted the Math score for CAHSEE. In addition, STAR Literary in 2011 predicted ELA Scales Score in that same year.

Recommendations for Practice

As noted previously, the SIG program is based in the concept that the solutions to school improvement reside at the schools. Schools that set a turnaround goal may also benefit from having a strong leader who will listen to stakeholders who acknowledges that school instructional practices need to be improved to enhance student academic achievement; as well as working with and through teachers in the transformative process using principles of distributed leadership (Bass, 2011). Extant literature on effective school reform suggests that the relationship between parents and the schools that their children attend is also a critical element in successful change. Thus, the school leader may find it highly beneficial to empower parents with knowledge and skills in order to assist with their child's education. Thus, school administrators in high performing and

turnaround schools may find it useful to be cognizant of the need to strengthen school-community engagement as a way to instill a sense of optimism among children and families about their future and consequently sustain school change over time.

Recommendations to Inform Future Turnaround Projects

Data reported in chapter 4 indicate that persistently failing and low performing high schools may benefit from adopting the turnaround model. Schools using this model appear to have not made progress in achieving their turnaround goals particularly as measured by student's academic tests scores, even though student scores are seen as statistically significant. Study findings indicate that they were statistically significant when compared over a two-year implementation period. The data also suggests that the turnaround implementation model may need further evaluation in consideration of a wide array of student variables, including SES, ethnicity, and gender that are consistently reported in the literature as inhibiting student academic achievement.

Research from this study showed that students did not produce significant learning gains in either reading or math on the state test scores that were analyzed. The concept of performance dip as an inherent part of the change process may offer an explanation for this phenomenon. As Louis and Gordon (2005) explained, leaders involved with large-scale organizational change must anticipate the effect of the change process itself on organizational and individual performance. In other words, its change may initially interrupt the smooth functioning of the way things were and appear counterproductive in the short term. Eastwood (1993) established this theory years earlier in a educational environment. He states performance in schools may suffer as individuals adjust to new systems, regulations, and ways of doing work. This concept

suggests that as districts implement the turnaround model, they should anticipate an initial decline in student test scores as leaders develop new strategies for teaching and leadership. The performance dip (Louis & Gordon, 2005) concept also posits that as new ways of working are perfected, student test scores will improve and exceed previous baseline levels. Consequently, an endorsement of the turnaround model on student test scores should be longitudinal in nature.

This study raised a number of research questions that were beyond the scope of the study, however they may be posed to guide further study. Pursuit of these questions may contribute to developing a better understanding of how to improve implementation of school-based reform models in persistently low achieving schools. Four recommendations for further research are presented below.

1. A study on the correlation between SIG funding implementation models overtime and student performance. Findings from a study of this nature may provide additional information on the comparative effectiveness of school based improvement strategies that are supported by the federal government.
2. The study that served as the basis of this dissertation may be replicated in other school districts that use SIG funding located in other states and regions of the nation and focus on different grade levels. A study of this nature would enhance understanding of the effectiveness of the school turnaround implementation model.
3. A study of SIG- funded implementation model may be conducted using the phenomenological paradigm and qualitative research techniques including conducting observations, interviews of students, teachers, and administrators to

better understand the transformative process from the perspective of those experiencing events. Gathering in depth information may help generate additional insights into the influence of its performance dip that is an inherent aspect of the change process.

4. Examining how external resources (i.e. SIG funding) may affect change processes in persistently low achieving schools, particularly with regard to the efficient use of scarce resources. A study of this nature may be helpful for informing future turnaround implementation model initiatives.

Additional research on the performance dip (Eastwood, 1993; Louis & Gordon, 2005) and the duration of time needed to effect school turnaround reform strategies may enable policy makers to gain a useful perspective on the change process in persistently low performing and underperforming schools. Turning around persistently low performing schools will never be easy. As thousands of school districts and school reformers across the country work to meliorate seeming intractable problems, conducting research to enhance their effectiveness is essential. Thus, conducting research studies to better understand the nature and direction of school leadership, the most efficacious ways to engage students, parents and community citizens, and how schools may be re-cultured not only are central to the transformative process but also may enhance our understanding how these elements may influence student learning. Consequently, it is essential to craft and support further research on school change processes in general and on SIG funded studies in particular.

Conclusion

Educational politics have surfaced as a major dimension in the national debate on school reform (Cooper, Cibulka, & Fusarelli, 2008; Glass, 2008). Many stakeholders have focused their energies on influencing debates surrounding improving the country's worst schools (Kaestle & Lodewick, 2007) and implementing promising school-turnaround models (Murphy & Meyers, 2008). The Title I SIG program under section 1003(g) of the ESEA has captured their attention and consequently is an integral part of the conversation. The Title I SIG program was originally issued by the federal government as a competitive monetary grant to support school turnaround of "persistently low-performing" public schools. The program was charged to stimulate meaningful changes in the operation, governance, staffing, or instructional program of a school (U.S. Department of Education, 2010a,). States and local school districts receiving Title I SIG funding are required to implement one of the four reform strategies sanctioned by this federal framework.

As noted, the Title I SIG program has emerged a prominent, federally funded model of school improvement and components are empowered in literature. However, the turnaround school model has been criticized because of the absence of empirical research on the efficacy of each of the four-turnaround strategies (Ravitch & Mathis, 2010). A central point raised by critics is the question as to whether any of these turnaround strategies had a positive effect on students, teachers, school leaders, parent leaders and community citizens involved in the implementation process. Part of the problem is that these programs have only recently been funded, thus researchers have had

limited time and opportunity to study these changed models, particularly how they may or may not influence student academic achievement.

This study adds to the knowledge base on the implementation of SIG program's turnaround model. Findings indicate that while the literature may be hopeful in the impact of the turnaround model, empirical evidence suggests that during early stages of implementation, student test scores may decline. This may be explained by a performance dip (Eastland, 1993, Louis & Gordon, 2005). This also may suggest how school reform programs are designed and funded. Although policy makers want to accomplish widespread change in PLAS similar to the schools included in this study, they often make a fundamental mistake in coming up with all of the implementation strategies first, then telling stakeholders what to do and finally studying the model to see if it actually works. In many respects, this type of policy making may be characterized as ready, fire, aim!

Aside from being erroneous in their assumptions about the realty of effective change processes, policy makers exhibit a profound disrespect for underperforming schools and their communities. Outsiders coming in to a community to transform an underperforming school may be advised acknowledge the present culture and work within and through as well as engaging local stakeholders to accomplish their goals. Schools and communities have their own unique identity and cultures, and consequently it is perilous for reformers to ignore the rich traditions, strong values, cultures, and history its members. Rather, in order for turnaround schools to achieve their goals, authentic relationships with all stakeholders must be developed and reciprocity of care and support should be nurtured, with trusting relationships forged over time (Bryk &

Schnieder, 2002). From this critical perspective, turnaround school programs offer a promising venue for transforming persistently low achieving schools into those that uplift students, teachers, parents and citizens.

Findings from this study suggest that the change process in persistently low performing schools is complex, not well understood, and takes time. To be successful, those who lead reform must invest wisely in knowing about how and why change is important.

APPENDIX

Additional Descriptive Statistics

Math STAR 2010 Descriptive Statistics

		95% confidence interval		
	SE	Lower	Upper	Between-Component Variance
GenderSTAR2010a	.010	.47	.51	
	.014	.46	.52	.007
N.S.L. PSTAR2010	.009	.69	.72	
	.011	.68	.73	.003
STAR2010Asian	.00428	.0386	.0554	
	.00547	.0362	.0578	.00079
STAR2010Hispanic	.00917	.6927	.7287	
	.01169	.6876	.7338	.00358
STAR2010Black	.00524	.0600	.0805	
	.00524[a]	.0599[a]	.0806[a]	-.00066
STAR2010White	.00598	.0893	.1127	
	.01032	.0806	.1214	.00481
STAR2010multi	.00350	.0231	.0368	-.00049
	.00350			
	.010	.0230	.0369	

Math STAR 2010 ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderSTAR2010a	Between Groups	49.620	136	.365	1.500	.000
	Within Groups	551.759	2269	.243		
	Total	601.380	2405			
N.S.L.PSTAR2010	Between Groups	34.404	136	.253	1.235	.038
	Within Groups	464.845	2269	.205		
	Total	499.249	2405			
STAR2010Asian	Between Groups	7.854	136	.058	1.312	.011
	Within Groups	99.839	2269	.044		
	Total	107.693	2405			
STAR2010PI	Between Groups	.000	60	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	52	.000		
	Total	.000	112			
STAR2010Hispanic	Between Groups	35.983	136	.265	1.309	.011
	Within Groups	458.680	2269	.202		
	Total	494.663	2405			
STAR2010Black	Between Groups	7.411	136	.054	.826	.927
	Within Groups	149.718	2269	.066		
	Total	157.129	2405			
STAR2010white	Between Groups	23.101	136	.170	1.973	.000
	Within Groups	195.357	2269	.086		
	Total	218.458	2405			
STAR2010multi	Between Groups	2.864	136	.021	.713	.994
	Within Groups	66.981	2269	.030		
	Total	69.845	2405			

Math CAHSEE 2010 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderCAHSEE2010	.51	.498	.012	.46	.51	
			.013	.46	.51	.002
N.S.L. PCAHSEE2010	.68	.466	.011	.65	.69	
			.014	.64	.69	.005
CAHSEE2010Asian	.0415	.19888	.00466	.0347	.0530	
			.00753	.0290	.0588	.00246
CAHSEE2010Hispanic	.7291	.44232	.01036	.6961	.7367	
			.01474	.6872	.7456	.00774
CAHSEE2010Black	.0896	.29131	.00682	.0837	.1105	
			.00936	.0786	.1156	.00289
CAHSEE2010White	.0973	.29470	.00690	.0874	.1145	
			.01022	.0807	.1212	.00400
CAHSEE2010multi	.0105	.10553	.00247	.0061	.0158	
			.00247[a]	.0061[a]	.0159[a]	-.00028

Math CAHSEE 2010 ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GendCAHSEE2010	Between Groups	35.849	129	.278	1.121	.174
	Within Groups	419.572	1693	.248		
	Total	455.421	1822			
NSLPCAHSEE2010	Between Groups	36.859	129	.286	1.314	.013
	Within Groups	367.253	1689	.217		
	Total	404.111	1818			
CAH2010Asian	Between Groups	9.526	129	.074	1.867	.000
	Within Groups	66.963	1693	.040		
	Total	76.489	1822			
CAH2010PI	Between Groups	.000	47	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	32	.000		
	Total	.000	79			
CAH2010Hispanic	Between Groups	39.154	129	.304	1.551	.000
	Within Groups	331.225	1693	.196		
	Total	370.380	1822			
CAH2010Black	Between Groups	16.143	129	.125	1.475	.001
	Within Groups	143.671	1693	.085		
	Total	159.815	1822			
CAH2010White	Between Groups	18.398	129	.143	1.642	.000
	Within Groups	147.030	1693	.087		
	Total	165.428	1822			
CAH2010multi	Between Groups	.928	129	.007	.646	.999
	Within Groups	18.853	1693	.011	1.121	
	Total	19.781	1822			

Literary STAR 2010 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderSTAR2010a	.51	.494	.015	.44	.50	
			.019	.43	.51	.005
N.S.L.PSTAR2010	.70	.456	.014	.67	.72	
			.017	.66	.73	.004
STAR2010Asian	.0425	.19789	.00618	.0288	.0531	
			.00645	.0280	.0539	.00014
STAR2010Hispanic	.7019	.45435	.01418	.6827	.7384	
			.01418[a]	.6821[a]	.7390[a]	-.00056
STAR2010Black	.0712	.24126	.00753	.0495	.0791	
			.01039	.0435	.0852	.00209
STAR2010White	.1153	.31585	.00986	.0937	.1324	
			.01061	.0918	.1344	.00063
STAR2010multi	.0349	.18479	.00577	.0247	.0474	
				.0219	.0502	.00066

Literacy STAR 2010 ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderSTAR2010a	Between Groups	18.008	52	.346	1.417	.030
	Within Groups	237.728	973	.244		
	Total	255.736	1025			
N.S.L.PSTAR2010	Between Groups	14.757	52	.284	1.362	.048
	Within Groups	202.756	973	.208		
	Total	217.514	1025			
STAR2010Asian	Between Groups	2.178	52	.042	1.070	.345
	Within Groups	38.103	973	.039		
	Total	40.281	1025			
STAR2010PI	Between Groups	.000	28	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	13	.000		
	Total	.000	41			
STAR2010Hispanic	Between Groups	10.170	52	.196	.947	.581
	Within Groups	200.856	973	.206		
	Total	211.026	1025			
STAR2010Black	Between Groups	5.118	52	.098	1.691	.002
	Within Groups	56.637	973	.058		
	Total	61.754	1025			
STAR2010White	Between Groups	5.816	52	.112	1.121	.262
	Within Groups	97.069	973	.100		
	Total	102.885	1025			
STAR2010multi	Between Groups	2.439	52	.047	1.374	.043
	Within Groups	33.227	973	.034		
	Total	35.666	1025			

Literary CAHSEE 2010 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderCAHSEE2010	.51	.494	.011	.50	.54	
			.014	.49	.55	.005
N.S.L.PCAHSEE2010	.70	.458	.011	.68	.72	
			.011	.67	.72	.001
CAHSEE2010Asian	.0425	.21739	.00504	.0402	.0600	
			.00548	.0392	.0609	.00035
CAHSEE2010Hispanic	.7019	.44272	.01027	.6982	.7385	
			.01388	.6909	.7458	.00651
CAHSEE2010Black	.0712	.27805	.00645	.0767	.1020	
			.00988	.0698	.1089	.00418
CAHSEE2010White	.1153	.29036	.00674	.0864	.1128	
			.01092	.0780	.1212	.00551
CAHSEE2010multi	.0349	.09780	.00227	.0058	.0147	

Literary CAHSEE 2010 ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderCAH2010	Between Groups	43.434	138	.315	1.288	.017
	Within Groups	419.976	1718	.244		
	Total	463.410	1856			
NSLPCAH2010	Between Groups	31.504	138	.228	1.086	.241
	Within Groups	359.862	1712	.210		
	Total	391.366	1850			
CAH2010asian	Between Groups	7.155	138	.052	1.097	.216
	Within Groups	81.187	1718	.047		
	Total	88.342	1856			
CAH2010PI	Between Groups	.000	56	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	36	.000		
	Total	.000	92			
CAH2010Hispanic	Between Groups	38.975	138	.282	1.441	.001
	Within Groups	336.729	1718	.196		
	Total	375.704	1856			
CAH2010Black	Between Groups	18.336	138	.133	1.719	.000
	Within Groups	132.825	1718	.077		
	Total	151.161	1856			
CAH2010White	Between Groups	21.732	138	.157	1.868	.000
	Within Groups	144.838	1718	.084		
	Total	166.570	1856			
CAH2010multi	Between Groups	2.373	138	.017	1.798	.000
	Within Groups	16.432	1718	.010		
	Total	18.806	1856			

Math STAR 2011 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderSTAR2011	.55	.497	.017	.53	.59	
			.017	.53[a]	.60	.000
N.S.L. PSTAR2011	.85	.339	.011	.84	.89	
			.013	.84	.89	.002
STAR2011Asian	.0403	.17795	.00601	.0213	.0449	
			.00680	.0194	.0468	.00039
STAR2011Hispanic	.7146	.43387	.01466	.7178	.7753	
			.01569	.7150	.7781	.00120
STAR2011Black	.0835	.37930	.01282	.1495	.1998	
			.01327	.1480	.2013	.00046
STAR2011White	.1127	.13701	.00463	.0103	.0285	
			.00537	.0086	.0302	.00029
		.06684	.00226	.0001	.0090	
STAR2011multi	.0151		.00270	-.0009	.0100	.00008

Math STAR 2011 Descriptives, ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderSTAR2011	Between Groups	.22.162	52	.426	1.768	.001
	Within Groups	252.668	1048	.241		
	Total	.000	1101			
NSLPSTAR2011	Between Groups	.000	52	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	1049	.000		
	Total	274.830	1100			
STAR2011Asian	Between Groups	3.323	52	.064	1.609	.005
	Within Groups	41.673	1049	.040		
	Total	44.995	1101			
STAR2011PI	Between Groups	.000	28	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	18	.000		
	Total	.000	46			
STAR2011Hispanic	Between Groups	10.156	52	.195	.986	.503
	Within Groups	207.718	1049	.198		
	Total	217.874	1101			
STAR2011Black	Between Groups	4.029	52	.077	1.002	.472
	Within Groups	81.123	1049	.077		
	Total	85.152	1101			
STAR2011White	Between Groups	5.891	52	.113	1.310	.072
	Within Groups	90.720	1049	.086		
	Total	96.611	1101			
STAR2011multi	Between Groups	.613	52	.012	.936	.605
	Within Groups	13.209	1049	.013		
	Total	13.822	1101			

Math CAHSEE 2011 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderCAHSEE2011	.55	.497	.008	.52	.55	
			.009	.51	.55	.003
N.S.L.PCAHSEE2011	.70	.400	.006	.78	.81	
			.008	.78	.81	.002
CAHSEE2011Asian	.0302	.16375	.00252	.0233	.0332	
			.00371	.0209	.0355	.00062
CAHSEE2011Hispanic	.7320	.44784	.00690	.7048	.7318	
			.00834	.7018	.7348	.00186
CAHSEE2011Black	.1610	.37139	.00572	.1640	.1865	
			.01059	.1543	.1962	.00671
CAHSEE2011White	.1044	.22049	.00340	.0453	.0586	
			.00437	.0433	.0606	.00064
CAHSEE2011multi	.0054	.07615	.00117	.0039	.0085	

Math CAHSEE 2011 ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GendCAHSEE2011	Between Groups	45.883	143	.321	1.301	.010
	Within Groups	1004.512	4073	.247		
	Total	1050.395	4216			
NSLPCAHSEE2011	Between Groups	30.947	143	.216	1.352	.004
	Within Groups	649.530	4059	.160		
	Total	680.477	4202			
CAH2011Asian	Between Groups	6.433	143	.045	1.678	.000
	Within Groups	109.209	4073	.027		
	Total	115.642	4216			
CAH2011PI	Between Groups	.000	73	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	45	.000		
	Total	.000	118			
CAH2011Hispanic	Between Groups	36.444	143	.255	1.271	.018
	Within Groups	816.876	4073	.201		
	Total	853.320	4216			
CAH2011Black	Between Groups	47.701	143	.334	2.418	.000
	Within Groups	561.794	4073	.138		
	Total	609.495	4216			
CAH2011White	Between Groups	9.620	143	.067	1.384	.002
	Within Groups	198.007	4073	.049		
	Total	207.627	4216			
CAH2011multi	Between Groups	2.223	143	.016	2.681	.000
	Within Groups	23.616	4073	.006		
	Total	25.840	4216			

Literary STAR 2011 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		
				Lower	Upper	Between-Component Variance
GenderSTAR2011	.51	.497	.015	.52	.58	
			.016	.51	.58	.001
N.S.L. PSTAR2011	.0000	.361	.011	.82	.87	
			.012	.82	.87	.001
STAR2011Asian	.0403	.15531	.00479	.0162	.0350	
			.00686	.0119	.0394	.00091
STAR2011Hispanic	.7146	.43474	.01340	.7230	.7756	
			.01340[a]	.7224[a]	.7762[a]	-.00099
STAR2011Black	.1840	.39123	.01206	.1663	.2136	
			.01308	.1637	.2162	.00097
STAR2011White	.1127	.11777	.00363	.0071	.0214	
			.00427	.0057	.0228	.00019
		.08237	.00254	.0017	.0116	
STAR2011multi	.0151		.00254[a]	.0016[a]	.0117[a]	-.00018

Literary STAR 2011 Descriptives, ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderSTAR2011	Between Groups	.000	75	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	938	.000		
	Total	.000	1013			
NSLPSTAR2011	Between Groups	22.023	75	.294	1.194	.132
	Within Groups	230.481	937	.246		
	Total	252.503	1012			
STAR2011Asian	Between Groups	4.090	75	.055	1.346	.030
	Within Groups	38.000	938	.041		
	Total	42.091	1013			
STAR2011PI	Between Groups	.000	24	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	19	.000		
	Total	.000	43			
STAR2011Hispanic	Between Groups	16.020	75	.214	.998	.485
	Within Groups	200.745	938	.214		
	Total	216.765	1013			
STAR2011Black	Between Groups	4.722	75	.063	.781	.913
	Within Groups	75.641	938	.081		
	Total	80.363	1013			
STAR2011White	Between Groups	10.428	75	.139	1.241	.087
	Within Groups	105.127	938	.112		
	Total	115.555	1013			
STAR2011multi	Between Groups	.515	75	.007	.568	.999
	Within Groups	11.343	938	.012		
	Total	11.858	1013			

Literary CAHSEE 2011 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderCAHSEE2010	.55	.493	.008	.54	.57	
			.010	.54	.58	.004
N.S.L.PCAHSEE2010	.70	.391	.006	.79	.82	
			.009	.79	.82	.004
CAHSEE2010Asian	.0302	.18360	.00287	.0300	.0412	
			.00384	.0280	.0432	.00064
CAHSEE2010Hispanic	.7320	.43837	.00685	.7203	.7471	
			.00897	.7160	.7514	.00329
CAHSEE2010Black	.1610	.35668	.00557	.1432	.1650	
			.00799	.1383	.1699	.00321
CAHSEE2010White	.1044	.21453	.00335	.0427	.0558	
			.00444	.0405	.0580	.00083
CAHSEE2010multi	.0054	.07474	.00117	.0033	.0079	

Literary CAHSEE 2011 ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderCAH2011	Between Groups	50.509	147	.344	1.412	.001
	Within Groups	961.898	3953	.243		
	Total	1012.407	4100			
NSLPCAH2011	Between Groups	37.092	147	.252	1.649	.000
	Within Groups	602.579	3937	.153		
	Total	639.671	4084			
CAH2011Asian	Between Groups	7.557	147	.051	1.525	.000
	Within Groups	133.245	3953	.034		
	Total	140.802	4100			
CAH2010PI	Between Groups	.000	81	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	64	.000		
	Total	.000	145			
CAH2011Hispanic	Between Groups	41.584	147	.283	1.472	.000
	Within Groups	759.642	3953	.192		
	Total	801.226	4100			
CAH2011Black	Between Groups	31.711	147	.216	1.696	.000
	Within Groups	502.892	3953	.127		
	Total	534.603	4100			
CAH2011White	Between Groups	10.126	147	.069	1.497	.000
	Within Groups	181.924	3953	.046		
	Total	192.050	4100			
CAH2011multi	Between Groups	.787	147	.005	.958	.626
	Within Groups	22.084	3953	.006		
	Total	22.871	4100			

Math STAR 2012 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		
				Lower	Upper	Between-Component Variance
GenderSTAR2012	.54	.490	.016	.51	.57	
			.021	.50	.58	.008
N.S.L. PSTAR2012	.86	.345	.011	.84	.88	
			.014	.83	.89	.002
STAR2012Asian	.0331	.17431	.00560	.0230	.0450	
			.00974	.0145	.0535	.00258
STAR2012Hispanic	.7302	.43528	.01398	.7025	.7573	
			.01986	.6901	.7697	.00807
STAR2012Black	.1854	.38673	.01242	.1643	.2130	
			.01571	.1572	.2202	.00375
STAR2012White	.0258	.16413	.00527	.0175	.0382	
			.00562	.0166	.0391	.00015
		.03228	.00104	-.0010	.0031	
STAR2012multi	.0062		.00104[a]	-.0010[a]	.0031[a]	-.00001

Math STAR 2012 Descriptives, ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderSTAR2012	Between Groups	20.476	53	.386	1.606	.005
	Within Groups	220.291	916	.240		
	Total	240.767	969			
NSLPSTAR2012	Between Groups	8.613	53	.163	1.362	.047
	Within Groups	108.977	913	.119		
	Total	117.590	966			
STAR2012Asian	Between Groups	4.047	53	.076	2.513	.000
	Within Groups	27.830	916	.030		
	Total	31.877	969			
STAR2012PI	Between Groups	.000	23	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	9	.000		
	Total	.000	32			
STAR2012Hispanic	Between Groups	17.680	53	.334	1.761	.001
	Within Groups	173.553	916	.189		
	Total	191.233	969			
STAR2012Black	Between Groups	11.478	53	.217	1.448	.022
	Within Groups	136.997	916	.150		
	Total	148.475	969			
STAR2012White	Between Groups	1.574	53	.030	1.102	.290
	Within Groups	24.675	916	.027		
	Total	26.248	969			
STAR2012multi	Between Groups	.044	53	.001	.804	.840
	Within Groups	.955	916	.001		
	Total	.999	969			

Math CAHSEE 2012 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderCAHSEE2012	.54	.497	.012	.49	.54	
			.013	.49	.54	.003
N.S.L. PCAHSEE2012	.86	.410	.010	.76	.80	
			.011	.76	.80	.003
CAHSEE2012Asian	.0391	.19035	.00444	.0293	.0467	
			.00500	.0281	.0479	.00039
CAHSEE2012Hispanic	.7127	.45091	.01051	.6821	.7233	
			.01375	.6755	.7299	.00577
CAHSEE2012Black	.1074	.30948	.00721	.0978	.1261	
			.01015	.0919	.1321	.00374
CAHSEE2012White	.1044	.30426	.00709	.0921	.1199	
			.00900	.0882	.1238	.00225
CAHSEE2012multi	.0140	.12191	.00284	.0096	.0208	
			.00314	.0090	.0214	.00013

Math CAHSEE 2012 ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GendCAHSEE2012	Between Groups	34.926	121	.289	1.168	.109
	Within Groups	424.707	1718	.247		
	Total	459.633	1839			
NSLPCAHSEE2012	Between Groups	25.309	121	.209	1.245	.041
	Within Groups	285.846	1702	.168		
	Total	311.156	1823			
CAH2012Asian	Between Groups	5.089	121	.042	1.161	.118
	Within Groups	62.248	1718	.036		
	Total	67.337	1839			
CAH2012PI	Between Groups	.000	43	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	26	.000		
	Total	.000	69			
CAH2012Hispanic	Between Groups	35.077	121	.290	1.426	.002
	Within Groups	349.310	1718	.203		
	Total	384.386	1839			
CAH2012Black	Between Groups	18.386	121	.152	1.586	.000
	Within Groups	164.551	1718	.096		
	Total	182.937	1839			
CAH2012White	Between Groups	15.292	121	.126	1.365	.006
	Within Groups	159.042	1718	.093		
	Total	174.334	1839			
CAH2012multi	Between Groups	2.040	121	.017	1.134	.158
	Within Groups	25.534	1718	.015		
	Total	27.574	1839			

Literary STAR 2012 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderSTAR2012	.54	.490	.016	.51	.57	
			.021	.50	.58	.008
N.S.L.PSTAR2012	.86	.345	.011	.84	.88	
			.014	.83	.89	.002
STAR2012Asian	.0331	.17431	.00560	.0230	.0450	
			.00974	.0145	.0535	.00258
STAR2012Hispanic	.7302	.43528	.01398	.7025	.7573	
			.01986	.6901	.7697	.00807
STAR2012Black	.1854	.38673	.01242	.1643	.2130	
			.01571	.1572	.2202	.00375
STAR2012White	.0258	.16413	.00527	.0175	.0382	
			.00562	.0166	.0391	.00015
STAR2012multi	.0062	.03228	.00104	-.0010	.0031	

Literary STAR 2012 ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderSTAR2012	Between Groups	12.348	50	.247	1.002	.473
	Within Groups	166.678	676	.247		
	Total	179.026	726			
NSLPSTAR2012	Between Groups	8.277	50	.166	1.329	.068
	Within Groups	83.568	671	.125		
	Total	91.845	721			
STAR2012Asian	Between Groups	3.772	50	.075	2.394	.000
	Within Groups	21.298	676	.032		
	Total	25.070	726			
STAR2012PI	Between Groups	.000	20	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	5	.000		
	Total	.000	25			
STAR2012Hispanic	Between Groups	16.331	50	.327	1.767	.001
	Within Groups	124.962	676	.185		
	Total	141.293	726			
STAR2012Black	Between Groups	7.944	50	.159	1.066	.355
	Within Groups	100.725	676	.149		
	Total	108.669	726			
STAR2012White	Between Groups	1.441	50	.029	1.371	.049
	Within Groups	14.207	676	.021		
	Total	15.648	726			
STAR2012multi	Between Groups	.162	50	.003	.773	.872
	Within Groups	2.826	676	.004		
	Total	2.988	726			

Literary CAHSEE 2012 Descriptive Statistics, ANOVA

	Mean	Std. Deviation	SE	95% confidence interval		Between-Component Variance
				Lower	Upper	
GenderCAHSEE2012	.54	.496	.011	.53	.57	
			.012	.52	.57	.002
N.S.L.PCAHSEE2012	.86	.394	.009	.78	.82	
			.012	.78	.82	.005
CAHSEE2012Asian	.0391	.20864	.00474	.0382	.0567	
			.00665	.0343	.0606	.00171
CAHSEE2012Hispanic	.7127	.44025	.01000	.7029	.7421	
			.01369	.6955	.7496	.00684
CAHSEE2012Black	.1074	.27386	.00622	.0729	.0973	
			.00872	.0678	.1023	.00293
CAHSEE2012White	.1044	.29812	.00677	.0904	.1169	
			.00993	.0840	.1233	.00414
CAHSEE2012multi	.0140	.11600	.00263	.0088	.0191	

Literary CAHSEE 2012, ANOVA Results

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GenderCAH2012	Between Groups	36.654	134	.274	1.113	.186
	Within Groups	443.393	1804	.246		
	Total	480.046	1938			
NSLPCAH2012	Between Groups	30.110	134	.225	1.445	.001
	Within Groups	277.730	1786	.156		
	Total	307.840	1920			
CAH2012Asian	Between Groups	9.108	134	.068	1.562	.000
	Within Groups	78.526	1804	.044		
	Total	87.635	1938			
CAH2012PI	Between Groups	.000	62	.000	.	.
	Within Groups	.000	29	.000		
	Total	.000	91			
CAH2012Hispanic	Between Groups	39.074	134	.292	1.504	.000
	Within Groups	349.651	1804	.194		
	Total	388.725	1938			
CAH2012Black	Between Groups	15.657	134	.117	1.558	.000
	Within Groups	135.302	1804	.075		
	Total	150.959	1938			
CAH2012White	Between Groups	19.835	134	.148	1.666	.000
	Within Groups	160.329	1804	.089		
	Total	180.164	1938			
CAH2012multi	Between Groups	2.350	134	.018	1.303	.014
	Within Groups	24.274	1804	.013		
	Total	26.624	1938			

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StudentsFirst National Headquarters (Sacramento, CA)
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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENTS

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