

RESEARCH

JULY
2006

Brief

Linking research and practice to change lives, neighborhoods, and communities

The J. McDonald Williams Institute, research arm of the Foundation for Community Empowerment, is dedicated to conducting non-partisan outcomes research and public policy evaluation related to comprehensive community revitalization of low-income urban areas.

The Academic Achievement Gap

DANIELLE LAVIN-LOUCKS, PhD

Senior Fellow, The J. McDonald Williams Institute



THE J. MCDONALD WILLIAMS INSTITUTE

A Project of the J. McDonald Williams Institute and the Foundation for Community Empowerment

The J. McDonald Williams Institute
July 2006

Danielle Lavin-Loucks, PhD
Senior Fellow

The Academic Achievement Gap

Introduction

The term “achievement gap” denotes a somewhat kinder way of discussing pervasive racial and socioeconomic disparities in student achievement and what Kozol (1991) terms “savage inequalities” in America’s schools. Although students of color made significant gains in closing this gap during the early 1980s, it widened once again during the 1990s (Carnoy, 1994; Lee, 2002). Now, in the midst of another educational crisis and in an era of No Child Left Behind (NCLB), the United States faces a sense of urgency in addressing the academic achievement gap.

Predicated on race and class divisions, the achievement gap is part of a larger legacy that intertwines individual and family resources with school quality, social capital, and educational opportunity. While some researchers have blamed schools for disparities in educational outcomes, others have focused on the failure of families to adequately prepare youth for the educational challenges that lie ahead (Roscigno, 1999). Still others have faulted policymakers for ignoring the pervasive nature of school inequality, institutionalized racism, and segregation (Rumberger & Willms, 1992), especially in large urban centers. Regardless of where the blame is placed, research shows that schools and families can make a difference in closing the gap (McCombs, 2000; Kober, 2001).

Measuring the Extent of the Achievement Gap

According to the Education Commission of the States, “...the average black or Hispanic high school student achieves at about the same level as the average white student in the lowest quartile of white achievement” (Weiss, 2003, p. 1). Across a number of measures of educational success, African Americans and Hispanics consistently perform at a lower level than non-Hispanic Whites; disparities exist by socioeconomic status (SES) as well, with those below the poverty line falling behind those above the poverty line.

Early Childhood Education

The achievement gap is noticeable even before students enter formal schooling. Although early childhood education is promoted as one of the most effective means of eliminating or at least minimizing the achievement gap, enrollments suggest that with the exception of preschool programs designed for at-risk children, participation in preschool programs reinforces some of the familiar disparities in achievement. While Black children are more likely than their White counterparts to be enrolled in early childhood education programs, a significant part of their enrollment status can be attributed to participation in Head Start programs, which accounts for almost 20% of enrollments (Magnuson & Waldfogel, 2005). In addition, Hispanic children are less likely than White children to be enrolled in formal, center-based preschool programs (Magnuson & Waldfogel; Child Trends Databank, 2002).

Children living in poverty are also less likely to attend center-based early childhood education programs, with 47% attending such programs compared with 59% of those above the poverty line (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). Because African Americans and Hispanics are disproportionately represented among families living below the poverty line, the effect of poverty on preschool enrollment differentially impacts minority families. In addition to representation in preschool programs, the quality of early childhood education differs by race and ethnicity, such that African American and Hispanic children are more likely to attend lower quality preschool programs than White children (Magnuson & Waldfogel, 2005).

By the time children enter kindergarten and first grade, math and reading achievement gaps between low SES children and high SES children are already present (Entwisle, Alexander, & Olson, 2005). Thus, preschool and early schooling has been dubbed a “critical period.” As a fundamental determinant of school readiness, early childhood education increases achievement scores on standardized tests and is shown to increase IQ scores (Miller & Dyer, 1975; Bronson, Pierson, & Tivnan, 1985; Irvine, 1982), placing participating children at an advantage when they first enter formal schooling. Although some researchers note that these effects drop off once children reach third grade, especially among disadvantaged children, they also point to a lack of follow-through as the reason for this dropoff effect (Zigler, 1986). In addition to school readiness and higher achievement scores, children who have received early childhood education are better at task completion and generally more cooperative in interactions with other children; nonparticipating children or children who attend low quality programs miss out on these opportunities and the long-term positive benefits of participation (Bronson et al.).

Fourth and Eighth Grade Standardized Test Scores

The most recent National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) data for mathematics and reading assessments indicate marked achievement gaps at both the fourth and eighth grade levels across racial and ethnic groups. Throughout the United States, as in Texas (Figures 1 and 2), African Americans and Hispanics score lower on standardized assessments than White and Asian students.

Figure 1

Texas 2005 NAEP Mathematics Scores by Race/Ethnicity

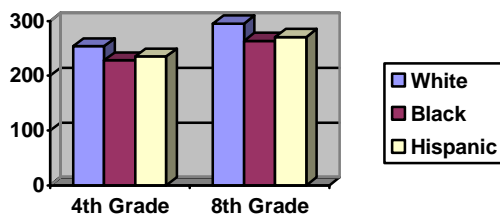
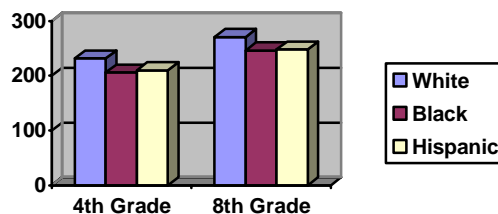


Figure 2

Texas 2005 NAEP Reading Scores by Race/Ethnicity



However, the minority achievement gap is not present only in underfunded urban schools. Rather, minorities in suburban schools, which are presumably well funded, perform at lower levels than nonminorities in reading proficiency exams taken by 13-year-olds (Levine &

Eubanks, 1990). The gap was even present when parents' college attendance was held constant, which suggests a more multifaceted relationship.

SAT Scores

SAT scores mirror the obvious disparities in other standardized assessments. The demographic composition of those individuals who take the SAT reveals that minorities are taking the SAT in increasing numbers; specifically, 37% of test takers classified themselves as minorities (College Board, 2004). However, according to the College Entrance Examination Board (2004), minority groups often continue to lag behind their White counterparts (Table 1), despite the increasing numbers of test takers and rising test scores.

Table 1. A Comparison of Test Scores for 2004 Test Takers

Self Identification:	Verbal	Math
American Indian or Alaskan Native	483	488
Asian, Asian-American, or Pacific Islander	507	577
Black or African-American	430	427
Mexican or Mexican-American	451	458
Puerto Rican	457	452
Latin American, South/Central American, or Other Hispanic or Latino	461	465
White	528	531
Other	494	508
No Response	522	535

Source: College Entrance Examination Board, 2004, College-Bound Seniors.

High SAT scores are one of the most important factors influencing college admissions and are consequently a consistent indicator of college success. Scores for African American test takers are nearly 100 points lower than those of White students; Hispanics and Latinos fare only slightly better. Hispanics and African Americans are at a distinct disadvantage in securing admission to and succeeding in college given that their SAT scores fall consistently below those of Whites and Asians. According to *The Journal of Blacks in Higher Education* (2005), the racial scoring gap is wider now than it has been for two decades—a disheartening indication that efforts to equalize educational opportunity are not working.

High School Graduation

Many students never take the SAT, nor do they graduate from high school. The frequency with which youth leave high school without completing graduation requirements signals a disturbing trend in the United States. Demographically, African Americans and Hispanics abandon high school at an even more alarming rate than other groups. In the past three decades, the distribution of high school dropouts suggests that the dropout rate for African Americans is 1.5 to 2 times the dropout rate for Whites (Kaufman, Kwon, Klein, & Chapman, 2000; Lee, 2002). Only slightly over half of Black and Hispanic students graduate from high school (Greene & Forster, 2003). The dropout rate for students with a family income below \$20,000 is over 3 times that of students with a family income over \$50,000 (Shin, 2005). Of those who do graduate, fewer than 20% of Black students and 16% of Hispanic students can be characterized as prepared for the challenges of college.

College Attendance and Graduation

Without a high school diploma, many students from disadvantaged backgrounds will never achieve a college education. Nationwide, 30.6% of non-Hispanic Whites possess at least a baccalaureate degree; in contrast, only 12.1% of Hispanics and 17.6% of African Americans possess a baccalaureate degree (Census, 2004). However, parity in college attendance among various demographic groups is not impossible, as illustrated by the equal college enrollment rates for Whites, Hispanics, and African Americans in the mid to late 1970s (Carnoy, 1994). Carnoy proposes that many Blacks are not attending college because of recent reductions in student financial aid—coupled with pessimism about integration into the university environment and the payoff of postsecondary education. Nevertheless, rates of college attendance for African Americans and Hispanics have increased as a whole; an analysis of college composition revealed that in 1983, 4% of students were Hispanic and 10% were Black, but by 2003, 10% of students were Hispanic and 13% were Black (Shin, 2005). However, college graduation rates have not increased at the same rate as enrollment, suggesting that college retention for minorities remains a significant concern.

What Produces the Achievement Gap?

Undoubtedly, a host of interrelated factors combine to produce the achievement gap, such that isolating one factor overlooks the complexity of the issue (Lee, 2004). However, education research has traditionally focused on the family and school factors as the primary sources of the achievement gap.

Family

Outside of demographic characteristics such as race and ethnicity, familial characteristics shape educational outcomes and are correlated with standardized test scores. For example, evidence of a correlation between parents' educational achievement and their children's low educational attainment is consistent (Boocock, 1972). This may also reflect the amount of emphasis parents place on education. Likewise, there is a strong and consistent direct correlation between family income and SAT scores, though income differences alone cannot adequately explain the gap. That is, even among the lowest income group (less than \$10,000), Whites score 129 points higher than the national mean for African Americans and almost 61 points higher than African Americans whose families earn between \$80,000 and \$100,000 annually (The Journal of Blacks in Higher Education, 2005).

Regardless of SES, parental participation and social support is fundamental to educational success. Parenting styles and the degree of parental involvement in children's education can account for some of the disparities in educational achievement (Dauber, 1993; Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987). The Harvard Family Research Project (2006) emphasizes that African Americans from low-income families whose parents participate in their elementary school education are far more likely to have successful high school careers and reach graduation. High-achieving Latino youth report high levels of parental encouragement and familial values that stress education as a means to breaking the cycle of poverty (Harvard Family Research Project, 2006). Additionally, the ability of parents to reinforce skills obtained in formal education and promote learning outside of school is critical to school success.

School Quality

As previously discussed, minorities are more likely than their White counterparts to attend early childhood education programs of poor quality. This holds true for elementary and secondary schools as well. School quality is inextricably linked to school resources (McPartland & Sprehe, 1973). Unequal funding limits the number of teachers schools can hire (Hoerandner & Lemke, 2006). Other school-related factors, such as larger class size (Krueger & Whitmore, 2001) also contribute to gaps in student achievement scores. However, according to Bali and Alvarez (2004), the widening gap between African American and Hispanic students later in their school careers is not a direct result of low-quality schooling, given that this gap develops much later.

The quality of elementary and secondary schools, however, can influence the extent to which students are motivated and engaged. A widespread failure by teachers and administrators to engage not only students, but also parents and families in the education of youth stifles educational aspirations. Unfortunately, teacher quality is persistently lower in schools with students who enter formal education already behind their advantaged peers than in more affluent school districts. In low-income school districts with high rates of minority students, more classes are taught by new, unskilled, unqualified, or out-of-field teachers, shortchanging students and preventing them from accessing the benefits of seasoned teachers (Peske & Haycock, 2006). Compounding the disadvantages experienced by many minority and low-income students, low teacher expectations and poor tracking and misclassification of minority or low-income students are common in many low-income schools (Ogbu, 1994). Even when new, well-intentioned teachers enter inner-city schools, they confront individual and structural impediments to effectiveness (Rice, 2003).

Neighborhood Factors

Although research has traditionally focused on school and family effects on the achievement gap, neighborhood characteristics sufficiently predict educational achievement to the same degree as school and family variables (Ainsworth, 2002). A number of researchers have pointed to the absence of social capital¹ in disadvantaged communities as a determinant of educational outcomes and have described how high school students with higher levels of social capital have better overall educational outcomes (Stanton-Salazar & Dornbusch, 1995). Fischer and Kmec (2004) note that parental ability to pass on resources to boost educational outcomes for children is more developed in high SES neighborhoods; in a sense, the community socioeconomic conditions in which children reside act as moderators to individual and family resources.

Despite desegregation efforts, many minorities attend schools that are made up predominately of minority students. Resegregation, as it is termed, manifests itself in many inner-city neighborhoods; almost 75% of African American and Latino students attend schools that are composed principally of minority students, whereas White students are more likely to attend chiefly White schools (80% or more) (Orfield & Yun, 1999). However, this segregation also points to a strong class dimension. Predominantly White schools are more likely to have high levels of middle class students, whereas those with a high concentration of minority students are more likely to be represented by high levels of concentrated poverty (Lee, 2002; Orfield & Yun).

¹ Coleman (1988) defines social capital as a property of social relationships, whereby the accompanying levels of trust and normative expectations within social networks provide individuals with invaluable resources.

However, Lee proposes that “segregation was not associated with the Hispanic achievement gap to the extent that it was associated with the Black achievement gap” (p.10). Still, Rumberger and Willms (1992) report that although segregation can be associated with lower academic achievement, it does not always promote an achievement gap between ethnic groups.

Student Factors

As a result of low teacher expectations, peer pressure, familial support, or dissatisfaction with the quality of the educational experience, many minority students go through a process of academic disengagement (Ogbu, 1994). Peer culture among African American youth may oppose academic achievement and instead reward nonconformity (Ferguson, 2001). Moreover, the development of an oppositional culture within the Black community can cast the academic environment as a form of “White learning,” promoting distrust and the assumption that education brings few rewards (Ogbu, 1994). Likewise, when students perceive substantial cultural or economic barriers to college, they are less likely to be motivated, take college preparatory courses, and excel in secondary schooling, thus limiting their educational opportunities (Carnoy, 1994).

Consequences of the Achievement Gap

The sheer presence of an achievement gap based on race, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status implies an unequal educational system. But the long-term implications are far more consequential than only an unfair system of education. Rather, the effects have profound consequences for life outcomes ranging from employment to welfare dependency to health.

One of the main direct effects of the academic achievement gap is the disproportional high school dropout rate; minority and low-income students are more likely to drop out of high school. In turn, dropping out of high school is related to a number of negative social outcomes, including a higher likelihood of unemployment (Caspi, Wright, Moffit, & Silva, 1998; Hepburn & White, 1990), low wages, and diminished earning power (Census, 2004). Nationally, individuals who do not possess a high school diploma earn an average of \$18,734 annually, compared with \$27,915 for those with a high school diploma, and \$51,206 for those with a baccalaureate degree. High school dropouts are also more likely to be welfare dependent and utilize other social services (Rumberger, 1987).

Although some researchers have reported that higher intelligence and standardized test scores may predict drug use (Fleming, Kellam, & Brown, 1982), poor school performance is also related to drug use. In other words, low levels of commitment to education and poor educational achievement bear a direct relationship with drug abuse, as does failure in school (Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992). High-risk activities, such as drug and alcohol abuse, can also be seen as a precursor to school failure, such that engaging in the risk behaviors can lower commitment to education. These high-risk activities have health consequences as well, suggesting that educational outcomes, high-risk behaviors, and health outcomes are interrelated. Research demonstrates that SES, which is measured by income and education levels as well as other indicators, is a consistent predictor of health outcomes, including mortality rates and rates of disease; this implies the achievement gap also produces a gap in health (Cross, Bazron, Dennis, Isaacs, 1989).

Thus, the achievement gap is not simply a gap in achievement, but a larger gap in access to positive life outcomes across multiple dimensions. Eradicating the achievement gap not only means equalizing access to educational opportunity, but also ensuring positive life outcomes for traditionally disadvantaged groups. Economic, social, and health consequences result from the achievement gap, testifying to the gravity of its persistence.

Conclusion

In 1966, the Coleman Report revealed inequality in educational outcomes between White and minority students; they persist today. Although progress has been made, much of this progress has been reversed in the past decade, and lower standardized test scores as well as low rates of high school graduation and college attendance for minority and low-income children point to the tenacity of the achievement gap.

Bridging the achievement gap is more complicated than simply increasing funding or developing intervention programs. As such, researchers have questioned the degree to which NCLB can remedy the achievement gaps exposed by standardized testing (Hoerandner & Lemke, 2006). Rather, it requires a more comprehensive approach that takes individual students into account, as well as the social context in which they live (Chubb & Loveless, 2002; McCombs, 2000). Although research demonstrates an achievement gap in high poverty schools and those that serve predominantly minority students, some schools in disadvantaged neighborhoods perform above expectations (The Education Trust, 1999; Kannapel, Clements, Taylor, & Hibpshman, 2005). Isolating what distinguishes high performing schools that are operating in the midst of severely distressed communities and replicating these programs and attributes is at the heart of bridging the gap in achievement and educational outcomes.

Works Cited

- Ainsworth, J. W. (2002). Why does it take a village? The mediation of neighborhood effects on educational achievement. *Social Forces*, 81(1), 117-152.
- Bali, V. A., & Alvarez, M. (2004). The race gap in student achievement scores: Longitudinal evidence from a racially diverse school district. *Policy Studies Journal*, 32(3), 393-415.
- Boocock, S.S. (1972). An introduction to the sociology of learning. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Co.
- Bronson, M.B., Pierson, D.E., & Tivnan, T. (1985). The effects of early education on children's competence in elementary school. In L. H. Aiken and B. H. Kehrer (Eds.), *Evaluation Studies Review Annual*, 10. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications, 243-256.
- Carnoy, M. (1994). Why aren't more African Americans going to college? *The Journal of Blacks in Higher Education*, 6, 66-69.
- Caspi, A., Wright, B.E., Moffit, T.E., & Silva, P.A. (1998). Childhood predictors of unemployment in early adulthood. *American Sociological Review*, 63(3), 424-451.
- Child Trends Databank. (2002). Early Childhood Program Enrollment. http://www.childtrends.databank.org/pdf/8_PDF.pdf
- Chubb, J. E., & Loveless, T. (Eds.). (2002). Bridging the Achievement Gap. Brookings Institution Press.
- Coleman, James S. (1988). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology* 94 Supplement, S95-S120.
- Coleman, J.S., Campbell, E.Q., Hobson, C.J., McPartland, J., Mood, A.M., Weinfeld, F.D., & York, R.L. (1966). *On Equality of Educational Opportunity*. Washington, D.C.: National Center for Educational Statistics.
- College Board. (2004, August 31). SAT scores hold steady for college-bound seniors. <http://www.collegeboard.com/press/releases/37478.html>
- College Entrance Examination Board. (2004). College-Bound Seniors.
- Cross, T., Bazron, B.J., Dennis, K.W., & Isaacs, M.R. (1989) Towards a culturally competent system of care. Washington, D.C.: National Technical Assistance Center for Children's Mental Health, Georgetown University Child Development Center. <http://www.apa.org/ppo/issues/phealthdis.html>
- Dauber, S., & Epstein, J. (1993). Parent attitudes and practices of involvement in inner-city elementary and middle schools. In Nancy Feyl (Ed.), *Families and Schools in a Pluralistic Society*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press. Chap. 2, 53-71. ED 307 332.
- Dornbusch, S. M., Ritter, P. L., Leiderman, P. H., Roberts, D. F., & Fraleigh, M. J. (1987, October). The relation of parenting style to adolescent school performance. *Child Development*, 58(5), 1244-1257.
- Education Trust. (2003). U.S. Department of Education Graduation Rate Survey Data. Adapted from http://www2.edtrust.org/NR/rdonlyres/B43D90B7-2264-4060-9F8E-FA7B9566A538/0/college_results_online.pdf
- Entwisle, D. R., Alexander, K. L., & Olson, L. S. (2005). First grade and educational attainment by age 22: A new story. *American Journal of Sociology*, 110(5), 1458-1502.
- Ferguson, R. F. (2001). A diagnostic analysis of black-white GPA disparities in Shaker Heights, Ohio. In D. Ravitch (Ed.), *Brookings papers on education policy 2001*, 347-396. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Works Cited, cont.

- Fischer, M. J., & Kmec, J. A. (2004). Neighborhood socioeconomic conditions as moderators of family resource transmission: High school completion among at-risk youth. *Sociological Perspectives*, 47(4), 507-527.
- Fleming, J. P., Kellam, S. G., & Brown, C. H. (1982). Early predictors of age at first use of alcohol, marijuana and cigarettes. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence*, 9, 285-303.
- Greene, J. P., & Foster, G. (2003). Public high school graduation and college readiness rates in the United States. Education Working Paper, 3, September, 2003.
- Haberman, M. (1991). The pedagogy of poverty versus good teaching. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 290-94. Retrieved from <http://www.wmich.edu/tll/urban/Haberman.pdf>
- Harvard Family Research Project. (2006). Family involvement makes a difference in school success. Research Brief. Harvard Graduate School of Education. This Research Brief is produced for release at the Raising Student Achievement, 2006 National PTA Legislative Conference.
- Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R. E., & Miller, J. Y. (1992). Risk and protective factors for alcohol and other drug problems in adolescence and early adulthood: Implications for substance abuse prevention. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(1), 64-105.
- Haycock, K. (2001). Closing the achievement gap [Electronic Version]. *Educational Leadership*, 58(6), 6-11.
- Hepburn, L.R., & White, R.A. (1990). School dropouts: A two-generation problem. Athens, GA: University of Georgia. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. EX328 631).
- Hoerandner, C. M., & Lemke, R. J. (2006). Can No Child Left Behind close the gaps in pass rates on standardized tests? *Contemporary Economic Policy* 2006, 24(1), 1-17.
- Hughes, S. A. (2003). An early gap in black-white mathematics achievement: Holding school and home accountable in an affluent city school district. *The Urban Review*, 35(4), 297-322.
- Hunter, R. C., & Bartee, R. (2003). The Achievement Gap. Issues of Competition, Class, and Race. *Education and Urban Society*, 35(2), 151-160.
- Irvine, D. J. (1982). Evaluation of the New York State experimental prekindergarten program. Albany, NY: New York State Department of Education.
- Kannapel, P. J., Clements, S. K., Taylor, D., & Hibpshman, T. (2005). Inside the black box of high-performing high-poverty schools. The Prichard Committee for Academic Excellence, February 2005.
- Kaufman, P., Kwon, J. Y., Klein, S., & Chapman, C. D. (2000). Dropout rates in the United States: 1999 (NCES Publication No. 2001-022). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Kober, N. (2001). It takes more than testing: Closing the achievement gap. Center on Education Policy. Retrieved June 12, 2006, from <http://www.ctredpol.org/improvingpublicschools/closingachievementgap.pdf>
- Kozol, J. (1991). Savage inequalities. New York: Crown Publishers.
- Krueger, A., & Whitmore, D. (2001). The effect of attending a small class in the early grades on college-test taking and middle school test results: Evidence from Project STAR. *Economic Journal*, 111, 1-28.
- Lee, J. (2002). Racial and ethnic achievement gap trends: Reversing the progress toward equity? *Educational Researcher*, 31(1), 3-12.

Works Cited, cont.

- Lee, J. (2004). Multiple facets of inequity in racial and ethnic achievement gaps. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 79(2), 51-73.
- Levine, D. U., & Eubanks, E. E. (1990). Achievement disparities between minority and nonminority students in suburban schools. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 59(2), 186-194.
- Magnuson, K. A., & Waldfogel, J. (2005). Early childhood care and education: Effects on ethnic and racial gaps in school readiness. *The Future of Children*, 15(1), 169-196. Princeton-Brookings.
- McCombs, B. L. (2000). Reducing the achievement gap. *Society*, 37(5(247)), 29-36.
- McPartland, J., & Sprehe, J. T. (1973). Racial and regional inequalities in school resources relative to their educational outcomes. *Social science research*, 2(4), 321-332.
- Miller, L.B., & Dyer, J.L. (1975). Four preschool programs: Their dimensions and effects. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development*, Serial No. 162, Vol. 40, Nos. 5-6.
- Ogbu, J. U. (1994). Racial stratification and education in the United States: Why inequality persists. *Teachers College Record*, 96, 264-298.
- Orfield, G., & Yun, J. T. (1999). Resegregation in American Schools. A special report from the Harvard Project on School Desegregation. Cambridge, MA: The Civil Rights Project, Harvard University.
- Orr, A. J. (2003). Black-white differences in achievement: The importance of wealth. *Sociology of Education*, 76(4), 281-304.
- Peske, H. G., & Haycock, K. (2006, June). Teaching inequality: How poor and minority students are shortchanged on teacher quality. Education Trust.
- Pino, N. W., & Smith, W. L. (2004). African American students, the academic ethic, and GPA. *Journal of Black Studies*, 35(1), 113-131.
- Rice, J.K. (2003). Teacher quality: Understanding the effectiveness of teacher attributes. Economic Policy Institute.
- Roscigno, V. J. (1999). The black-white achievement gap, family-school links, and the importance of place. *Sociological Inquiry*, 69(2), 159-186.
- Rumberger, R.W. (1987). High school dropouts: A review of issues and evidence. *Review of Educational Research*, 57, 101-121.
- Rumberger, R. W., & Willms, J. D. (1992). The impact of racial and ethnic segregation on the achievement gap in California high schools. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 14(4), 377-396.
- Shin, H. B. (2005, May). School enrollment—Social and economic characteristics of students: October 2003. *Current Population Survey*.
- Stanton-Salazar, R. D., & Dornbusch, S. M. (1995). Social capital and the reproduction of inequality: Information networks among Mexican-origin high school students. *Sociology of Education*, 68, 116-135.
- Strother, D. (1986). Dropping out. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 68, 325-328.
- The Education Trust. (1999). Dispelling the myth: High poverty schools exceeding expectations. Retrieved from the Education Trust Web site June 12, 2006, <http://www.edtrust.org/main/documents/dispell.pdf>

Works Cited, cont.

- The Journal of Blacks in Higher Education. (2005). The widening racial scoring gap on the SAT college admissions test. Retrieved June 12, 2006, from http://www.jbhe.com/features/49_college_admissions-test.html
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2004). Educational attainment in the United States: 2004.
- U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2002). The condition of education: 2002 , NCES 2002-025, Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. Table 1-1.
- Van Hook, J. (2002). Immigration and African American educational opportunity: The transformation of minority schools. *Sociology of Education*, 75(2), 169-189.
- Weiss, S. (2003). The progress of education reform 2003: Closing the achievement gap. Education Commission of the States, 4(1), 1-4.
- Zigler, E.F. (1986). Should four-year-olds be in school? *Principal*, 65, 10-13.

For more information about

The J. McDonald Williams

Institute, FCE, or Analyze

Dallas, contact Marcus

Martin, PhD, MPH, MA, or

Timothy Bray, PhD, at:

Foundation for Community

Empowerment

2001 Ross Avenue

Suite 3350

Dallas, Texas 75201

469.221.0700 phone

469.221.0701 fax

mmartin@fcdallas.org

tbray@fcdallas.org

THE J. MCDONALD WILLIAMS INSTITUTE

The J. McDonald Williams Institute, the research arm of the Foundation for Community Empowerment, is dedicated to conducting non-partisan outcomes research and public policy evaluation related to comprehensive community revitalization of low-income urban areas.

FCE, a 501(c)3 non-profit organization, was founded in 1995 by J. McDonald "Don" Williams, Chairman Emeritus of the Trammell Crow Company. FCE is a catalyst for the revitalization of low-income neighborhoods in Dallas through the empowerment of individuals, community- and faith-based organizations, and entire communities. FCE seeks to build bridges of opportunity, and to foster relationships where investments of money, time, people, and resources should be made.



EMPOWERING

INDIVIDUALS • ORGANIZATIONS • COMMUNITIES

2001 Ross Avenue, Suite 3350 • Dallas, Texas 75201

www.fcdallas.org • phone 469.221.0700 • fax 469.221.0701

Analyze Dallas seeks to become a catalyst toward real progress and change in the city of Dallas and is based on the philosophy that measurement is followed by impact.



Detailed sub-city level data is presented for Dallas across eight categories:

Civic Health, Crime, Economy,
Education, Environment,
Health, Housing, and
Transportation.

www.analyzedallas.org

Analyze Dallas seeks to democratize information by making it widely available to all citizens and making it understandable to non-researchers and non-statisticians.