
*Report from the
Professional
Review Panel to
the Illinois General
Assembly
Regarding Public
Act 101-0654*

DRAFT

Professional Review Panel Membership

Dr. Carmen I. Ayala
State Superintendent of Education

Dr. Marcus Belin
Principal, Huntley High School

Avery Bourne
State Representative, 95th District

Terri Bryant
State Senator, 58th District

Dr. Rebekah Buchanan
Western Illinois University

Tianna Cervantez
Galesburg CUSD 205 Board Member

Quennetta Chambers
*Asst. Director of Special Education, Cahokia Unit
School District 187*

Tim Custis
*School Board Member, Washington School District
52*

William Davis
State Representative, 30th District

Jessica Handy
*Government Affairs Director, Stand for Children
Illinois*

Susan Harkin
Chief School Business Official, CUSD 300

Rebecca Hinze-Pifer
University of Illinois Champaign

Kimberly A. Lightford
State Senator, 4th District

Ralph Martire
*Executive Director, Center for Tax and Budget
Accountability*

Cameron Mock
Office of the Governor

Unique Morris
Illinois Education Association

Gregg Murphy
*Regional Superintendent of Schools, I-KAN Regional
Office of Education*

David Negron, Ed.D.
*Superintendent, Maywood-Melrose Park-Broadview
SD 89*

Andrea Ortez
Partnership for Resilience

Monica Rojas
ACERO Marquez Charter School

Jane Russell
Secretary-Treasurer, Illinois Federation of Teachers

Robin Steans
President, Advance Illinois

Gary Tipsord
Superintendent, LeRoy CUSD #2

Gloria Trejo
*Principal, West Chicago Elementary School District
33*

Tom Tully
Secretary/Treasurer, Illinois Education Association

Heather Wendell
*Chief Budget and Grants Officer, Chicago Public
Schools 299*

Ann Williams
*Chief School Business Official, East Aurora School
District 131*

Julie Wollerman
Regional Superintendent of Schools, ROE # 3

On March 8, 2021, Governor JB Pritzker signed Public Act 101-0654 (Ammons/Lightford) into law, which is major education reform legislation designed to address systemic issues that cause deep inequities and opportunity gaps in education. This law takes powerful steps forward to ensure all our students have access to rigorous learning opportunities that will prepare them to succeed every step of the way after high school. A portion of the Act charges the Professional Review Panel with the following tasks:

To ensure that (i) the Adequacy Target calculation under subsection (b) accurately reflects the needs of students living in poverty or attending schools located in areas of high poverty, (ii) racial equity within the Evidence-Based Funding formula is explicitly explored and advanced, and (iii) the funding goals of the formula distribution system established under this Section are sufficient to provide adequate funding for every student and to fully fund every school in this State, the Panel shall review the Essential Elements under paragraph (2) of subsection (b). The Panel shall consider all of the following in its review:

(A) The financial ability of school districts to provide instruction in a foreign language to every student and whether an additional Essential Element should be added to the formula to ensure that every student has access to instruction in a foreign language.

(B) The adult-to-student ratio for each Essential Element in which a ratio is identified. The Panel shall consider whether the ratio accurately reflects the staffing needed to support students living in poverty or who have traumatic backgrounds.

(C) Changes to the Essential Elements that may be required to better promote racial equity and eliminate structural racism within schools.

(D) The impact of investing \$350,000,000 in additional funds each year under this Section and an estimate of when the school system will become fully funded under this level of appropriation.

(E) Provide an overview of alternative funding structures that would enable the State to become fully funded at an earlier date.

(F) The potential to increase efficiency and to find cost savings within the school system to expedite the journey to a fully funded system.

(G) The appropriate levels for reenrolling and graduating high-risk high school students who have been previously out of school. These outcomes shall include enrollment, attendance, skill gains, credit gains, graduation or promotion to the next grade level, and the transition to college, training, or employment, with an emphasis on progressively increasing the overall attendance.

(H) The evidence-based or research-based practices that are shown to reduce the gaps and disparities experienced by African American students in academic achievement and educational performance, including practices that have been shown to reduce disparities in disciplinary rates, drop-out rates, graduation rates, college matriculation rates, and college completion rates.

In order to understand the complexities of the tasks assigned, an overview of Evidence-Based Funding is required.

Evidence-Based Funding (EBF) Model Overview

The [Illinois Evidence-Based Funding Model](#)¹ (EBF) was created by many education groups in Illinois. They came together to address the inequality in school funding in Illinois. EBF includes 34 cost factors which are incorporated in a formula which considers each school district's unique student population. Governor Rauner signed Public Act 100-0465 (Manar/Davis) into law on August 31, 2017. In Public Act 100-0465 there are four major components of the funding model. First, the model calculates a unique adequacy target for each Organizational Unit in this State that considers the costs to implement research-based activities, the unit's student demographics, and regional wage difference. Second, the model calculates each Organizational Unit's local capacity, or the amount each Organizational Unit is assumed to contribute towards its adequacy target from local resources. Third, the model calculates how much funding the State currently contributes to the Organizational Unit and adds that to the unit's local capacity to determine the unit's overall current adequacy of funding. And finally, the model's distribution method allocates new State funding to those Organizational Units that are least well-funded, considering both local capacity and State funding, in relation to their adequacy target. (P.A. 100-0465, 2017). Additionally, the funding formula considers district inequalities in their funding in the overall EBF calculation. The ESSENTIAL elements of the EBF formula consist of Cost factors that are included in the calculations. The Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE) seeks through EBF to provide 'adequate' funding to all 851 districts in the state of Illinois, paying close attention to our most vulnerable students.

The EBF cost factors provide staff in ratios related to student populations and in dollar amounts per student provided for all enrolled students. Those factors address specific positions, like teachers and principals and specific education costs like assessments and professional development. The statutory language does not discuss the extent to which those cost factors may address structural racism. It may be appropriate to expect that those cost factors, if fully funded, would have an impact on structural racism, but currently, we cannot point to any specific cost factors and state those are provided exclusively to address those issues.

EBF's provision of stability and equity for state K-12 funding and site-based expenditure reporting's² resource allocations inspire this priority area of ISBE's strategic plan³. As districts receive new dollars or stretch existing dollars, they face the challenge of spending those dollars strategically and aligning fiscal solvency with student success priorities. School system leaders know their students best and are therefore best equipped to make these decisions within their district. At the same time, the state has a responsibility to support these decision-makers by providing user-friendly data and tools, encouraging collaboration between finance and program area leaders, educating practitioners on funding expectations and requirements, and maximizing the equity of resources available to districts. (ISBE strategic plan,2020)

¹ Additional background on EBF can be found at <https://www.isbe.net/ebfdist>

² Information on site-based expenditure reporting can be found at www.isbe.net/site-based

³ ISBE Strategic Plan can be found at <https://www.isbe.net/Pages/Strategic-Plan.aspx>

The Professional Review Panel created an Ad Hoc Committee to complete this review consisting of the following members:

Dr. Marcus Belin, Principal, Huntley High School
Tianna Cervantez, Galesburg CUSD 205 Board Member
Susan Harkin, Superintendent CUSD 300 (Chair of Ad Hoc Committee)
Dr. Rebecca Hinze-Pifer, University of Illinois Champaign
Ralph Martire, Executive Director, Center for Tax and Budget Accountability
Unique Morris, Illinois Education Association
Gregg Murphy, Regional Superintendent, I-KAN
Dr. David Negron, Superintendent, Maywood-Melrose Park – Broadview SD 89
Jane Russell, Secretary-Treasurer, Illinois Federation of Teachers
Robin Steans, President, Advance Illinois
Gary Tipsord, Superintendent, LeRoy CUSD 2
Heather Wendell, Chief Budget and Grants Officer, Chicago Public Schools 299
Dr. Ann Williams, Chief School Business Official, East Aurora School District 131

Members of the PRP ad-hoc committee and ISBE staff reviewed the ESSENTIAL Elements as part of our research and discussion process. This was an essential component in addressing the purpose of this PRP Ad-Hoc committee's purpose and recommendations.

The Committee met bi-weekly beginning in April 2021 in order to research the topics and compile the comprehensive report. The committee established the following guiding questions to be answered for each task when applicable:

- What is the research base/evidence for the impact of this intervention on student outcomes?
 - Included in this answer should be a description/definition of the group's shared understanding of the intervention, which should also detail the grade levels and student populations to which it applies, if relevant
 - Include criteria for evaluating sufficient impact to be considered "evidence-based" and whether this intervention meets that standard of evidence
- How do elements or mechanisms currently included in Illinois' Evidence-Based Funding formula work to address this item?
- What potential recommendations might the PRP make for adjustments to Illinois' EBF formula to ensure this item is addressed? If this is not an item that the committee concludes is most effectively addressed by the EBF formula, how might it otherwise be addressed outside of the EBF formula?

Task (A) The financial ability of school districts to provide instruction in a foreign language to every student and whether an additional Essential Element should be added to the formula to ensure that every student has access to instruction in a foreign language.

1. Relevant Research

What is the research base/evidence for the impact of this intervention on student outcomes?

“The Illinois State Board of Education supports biliteracy, not only to prepare students to thrive in an increasingly global society and economy, but also to build stronger and more connected communities here at home. Exploring and interacting with different cultures and perspectives strengthens students’ critical thinking and problem-solving skills.” Dr. Carmen I. Ayala, State Superintendent of Education

The adoption of the new learning standards for world languages ushered in a new age of accepting second Language acquisition as important for Illinois students to learn. World Languages can be useful in many ways. The US Bureau of Labor Statistics found that foreign-born workers made up 17.4% of the 2019 labor force (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). The concept of college and career readiness, now more than ever, must shift to include and produce high-quality education that will allow American students to be competitive in the global market. As more industries, both domestic and abroad, have begun to require that applicants have language proficiencies other than English (Commissions on Language Learning, 2017; Damari et al., 2017; O’Rourke et al., 2016), the value of multilingualism and bilingual proficiency in K-12 schools is relevant to this pursuit. Languages can help us communicate with people from other countries. Included in learning languages is learning about the language development in that country. Language development may help us understand idioms, sayings and popular language vernacular spoken in that country. Research overwhelmingly provides evidence of the impact of learning a second language on our student’s cognitive development.

Students taught world languages early in elementary school have shown the following: an increased cognitive ability, native like pronunciation, enhanced skills in English, and higher scores on standardized exams (Davis-Wiley & Miller, 2013; Gilzow & Rhodes, 2000; Marcos, 1997; Stewart 2005). Research shows dual-language programs improve students’ learning in English. Early indicators in North Carolina conducted between 2007-2010 found that low-income black students learning a foreign language in dual language programs surpassed similar students taught in one language. Additionally, as fifth graders, they were reading at a sixth-grade level according to a study conducted by George Mason University. Dual language programs help English learners (ELs) reach English language proficiency and eventually perform at or above grade level in core content areas (Collins, 2014; Lindholm-Leary, 2016; Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010; Lindholm-Leary et al., 2018). Students enrolled in dual language programs, regardless of native language, also see gains in reading/language arts and math scores on state assessments (Lindholm-Leary et al, 2018, Collier & Thomas, 2004; Utah State Department of Education, n.d.).

This may mean that the cognitive benefits of being bilingual can help students have a learning advantage as their educational career continues. The benefits of speaking two languages are well documented.

Being Bilingual has been linked to health benefits. Research recently found that there is [growing evidence](#) to suggest that bilingualism can delay the onset of Dementia and Alzheimer's disease for example. Other benefits of being bilingual include recovering faster from a stroke, lower stress levels, and delaying many effects of aging. Second Language learning benefit includes English Language Learners who are educated in their own language. Studies suggest that former ELs outperform monolingual students as they continue to develop second language skills. Therefore, we might make the case that second language skills as a cognitive development strategy may help us reduce the achievement gap like it does with English Language Learners.

2. EBF at Present

How do elements or mechanisms currently included in Illinois' Evidence-Based Funding formula work to address this item?

The Illinois Evidence-Based Funding formula (EBF) includes a definition of core teaching subjects including "World Languages", a phrase that appears in the Odden & Picus research. "Core teacher" is defined in the EBF statute as "a regular classroom teacher in elementary schools and a teacher of a core subject in middle and high schools". The term "Core subject" implies that it is a needed or important topic/subject to be learned. Courses that are considered "core subjects" according to EBF statute, include the following: Science; Reading, English, Writing, Language Arts, History and Social Studies; **World Languages**; and additional subjects taught such as Advanced Placement. Additionally, the term "core teacher" is used in the fifth cost factor provided for English Language Learner supports. The current staffing ratios in the cost factors for English Learner students are the following:

- Intervention Teacher 125:1
- Pupil Support 125:1
- Extended Day Teacher 120:1
- Summer School Teacher 120:1
- English Learner Core Teacher 100:1

The implication of this section of existing EBF statute is that all districts currently have included in their Adequacy Targets the cost of providing "core teachers", including world language teachers, for all grade levels at the class size ratios included in the Core Investments section of the EBF formula (15:1 student to teacher ratio in grades K-3 for students from low-income households and 20:1 for students not from low-income households, and at 20:1 in grades 4-12 for low-income students and 25:1 for grades 4-12 for students not from low-income households). Whether, at full funding, this would allow for a district to both be at the recommended class sizes and provide World language instruction to all students *in all grades* may be a topic worth further exploration/analysis by the Illinois State Board of Education, but at present, the Adequacy Target calculation meets the condition presented in Charge A of reflecting the cost of providing "instruction in a foreign language to every student".

In the definition of "Core Teacher" there is a cost factor for English Language supports via the English Learner Core Teacher.

Recommendation

What potential recommendations might the PRP make for adjustments to Illinois' EBF formula to ensure this item is addressed? If this is not an item that the committee concludes is most effectively addressed by the EBF formula, how might it otherwise be addressed outside of the EBF formula?

Because the cost of providing World Language instruction is captured in the core teacher section of the Core Investments calculation within districts' Adequacy Targets, the Professional Review Panel's preliminary recommendation is that EBF be funded to its full level as soon as possible. This will help districts hire additional Foreign Language and or Bilingual teachers that will be needed to implement the teaching of Foreign Languages with fidelity in Rural, Suburban and Urban districts. However, for future considerations, two years is not enough time for a student to become fluent. If the goal of establishing a two-year Foreign Language requirement is for students in Illinois to be able to speak in that language, two years are not enough. European students are introduced to a second language as early as 6 years of age. In more than 20 European countries studying a second language for at least a year is compulsory (Kat Devlin, August 6, 2018).

Task (B) The adult-to-student ratio for each Essential Element in which a ratio is identified. The Panel shall consider whether the ratio accurately reflects the staffing needed to support students living in poverty or who have traumatic backgrounds.

1. RELEVANT RESEARCH

What is the research base/evidence for the impact of this intervention on student outcomes?

Concentrated Poverty

Impact on student opportunity/outcomes

Poverty has been demonstrated by research to have a significant negative impact on children's academic opportunities and outcomes. From an early age, low levels of household financial resources are associated with [inadequacies in both physical and cognitive development](#), as children living in low-income households and their families face barriers to accessing basic resources needed for both types of growth, from nutrition and housing to high-quality early childhood education and care. These gaps in resources as well as access to high quality early educational opportunities often manifest themselves once children reach school-age in the form of [academic proficiency gaps](#).

Two aspects of poverty can be considered when working to understand whether some students from low-income households may benefit from additional or different supports for learning – the depth of poverty, or how far below the national poverty level a family's household income is, and the concentration of poverty within a school district, or how many students within a given area or school community are living

in low-income households. The U.S. Census Bureau defines “[deep poverty](#)” as living in a household with a total income of less than 50% of the poverty threshold. Illinois presently lacks the data to accurately characterize varying or average depth of poverty at the school or district level, although neighborhood levels of depth of poverty already collected as part of federal census data could provide a possible avenue for understanding districts’ depth of poverty in the future.

Data on the second aspect – that of poverty concentration, or the percent of a district’s student body living in low-income households – is currently available, and indeed, counts of students from low-income households are already used in the EBF calculation of adequacy (more detail on this is included in the next section). Some studies suggest that the greater the proportion of a school or district’s students that are living in poverty, the more supports those students, and indeed all students in the school or district, will need to achieve and thrive academically and social-emotionally. A number of studies suggest there may be a [threshold or “tipping point”](#) of the percent of a district’s students living in poverty, such as those with greater than 50-60% of students in low-income households, above which student learning needs increase dramatically.

Evidence-based interventions

A number of supports and interventions have been tied to demonstrable positive impacts for students from low-income households. Those with the largest effect sizes include [one-on-one tutoring](#), extending [instructional time](#) by lengthening the school day, and providing instruction and targeted supports over the [summer](#). Supports aimed at social-emotional development and mental health are also associated with positive outcomes and narrowed outcome gaps for students from low-income households and living in concentrated poverty, in large part as a result of the fact that students living in poverty and especially concentrated poverty experience trauma at disproportionate rates compared to their non-low-income peers. More information about research on interventions associated with exposure to trauma are included in the next section.

The research does suggest that students in areas with high rates of concentrated poverty likely benefit from more complex, higher dosage, and comprehensive combinations of interventions than those living in low-poverty areas. More [extensive district-wide services](#) and resources are needed to provide an adequate education in districts serving higher concentrations of students in poverty, including wraparound services for social services, healthcare, and nutrition. Designing and implementing a set of comprehensive supports aimed at meeting the needs of a student population with a high concentration of poverty carries a greater cost than providing targeted supports for a small proportion of a student population from low-income households. It is for this reason that in some states, additional grant dollars are driven to districts with high levels of concentrated poverty.

Trauma

Impact on student opportunity/outcomes

A traumatic event is defined by the [American Psychological Association](#) as “a frightening, dangerous, or violent event that poses bodily or psychological harm or is a threat to a student’s life or a loved one”. According to the National Survey of Children’s Exposure to Violence, over 60% of surveyed children experienced a form of trauma in the prior year, with some experiencing multiple traumas. Traumatic experiences cause a constant heightened state of stress known as “[toxic stress](#)”, and have been found to disrupt children’s brain development, affect their behavior and emotional responses, and have

pronounced negative effects on a child's ability to [learn](#). Trauma can be experienced at the individual level, and research suggests there are also environmental sources of trauma, like community violence, crime, and police violence, as well as historical trauma, like that caused by the experience of racism.

Children exposed to such experiences often withdraw from social situations, have difficulty responding to social cues, and may be distrustful of adults and authority figures, including educators. When these reactions to traumatic experiences are punished by institutions like schools, a cycle of trauma is created as the child's stress is compounded, worsening the problem through the introduction of consequences rather than supporting the child in the process of healing and adjustment. Studies have shown that traumatic experiences in childhood can negatively impact a student's success at school. This can lead to poor academic performance, inappropriate behavior in the classroom and difficulty forming relationships.

Evidence-based interventions

Schools, where children spend the bulk of their time and where children develop socially and emotionally as well as academically, have a significant role to play in working break rather than reinforce the cycle of trauma. Research shows that they can do so, and can help bring about positive outcomes for students and families by providing children with a safe, stable, and supportive environment. Although there are a number of models for creating trauma-responsive or [trauma-sensitive schools](#), all containing the same or similar elements. These include leadership that is actively working to address trauma in practices and protocols, professional development aimed at creating trauma-responsive school environments, working to create a supportive school climate and culture, an emphasis on family engagement. In terms of staffing, having [professionals](#) who are trained to address students' mental health needs, such as psychologists, social workers, and guidance counselors, are an important structural component of supporting students who have been exposed to trauma. More information about specific components of trauma-responsive frameworks and school level approaches can be found in Research Appendix B.

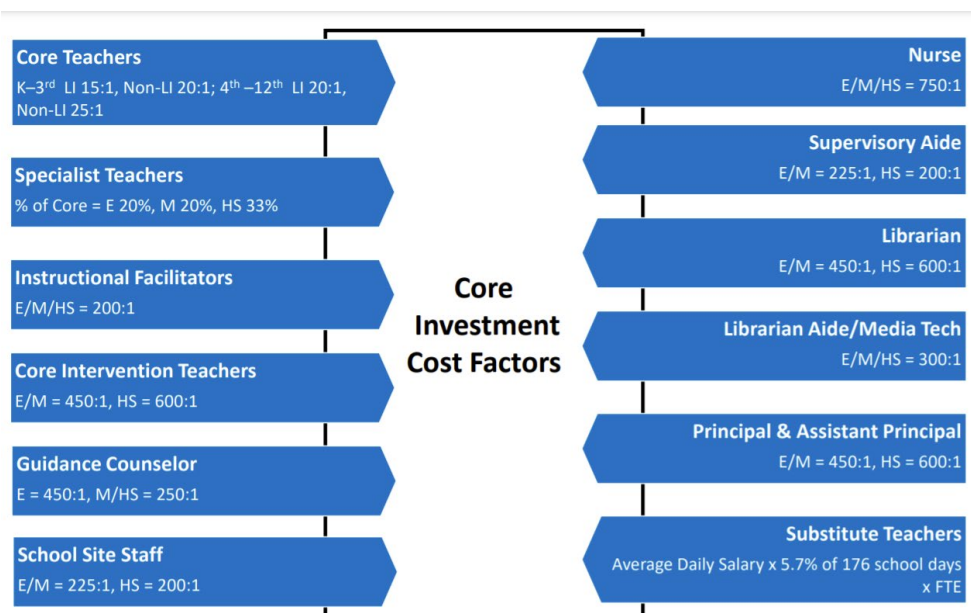
2. EBF AT PRESENT

How do elements or mechanisms currently included in Illinois' Evidence-Based Funding formula work to address this item?

Cost Factors

For "core investments" and "additional investments" within the EBF formula, a staffing ratio is identified as a component of calculating the cost of providing these elements within each school district's adequacy target. A list of staffing ratios for "core investments" is included below.

Figure 1



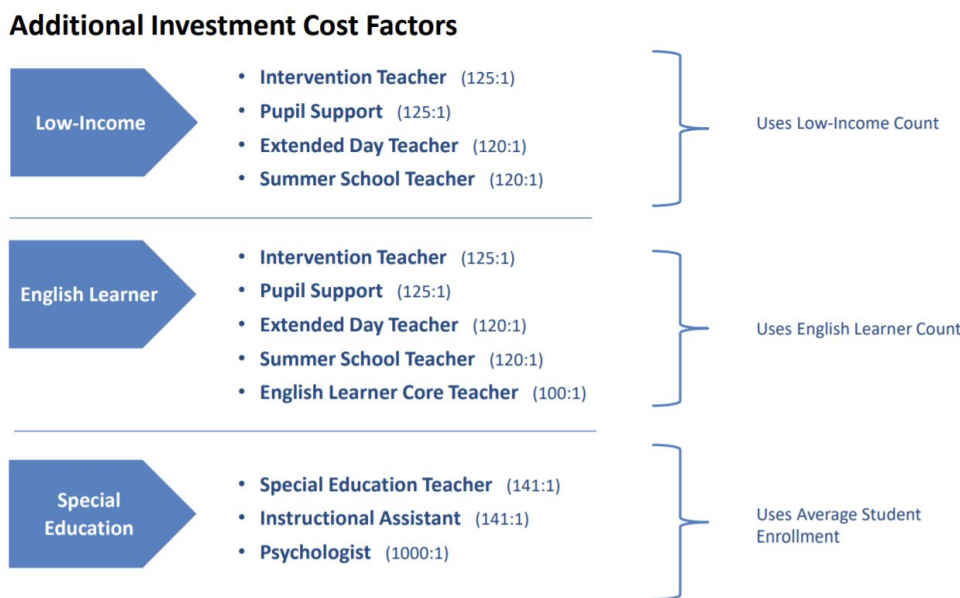
For core investments, staffing ratios are based on overall district enrollment, rather than differentiated based on student demographic characteristics, with the exception of the class size ratio that is used to determine the number of core teachers needed within each district. The class size ratio is differentiated to reflect evidence that students from low-income households benefit most from smaller class sizes (as evidenced by larger effect sizes for this student population in relevant research). As such, class size within the Adequacy Target calculation is set at a 15:1 student to teacher ratio in grades K-3 for students from low-income households and 20:1 for students not from low-income households, and at 20:1 in grades 4-12 for students from low-income households and at 25:1 in grades 4-12 for students not from low-income households.

The “additional investments” in the formula also include staffing ratios, which are based on the number of students in specific demographic categories within each district. These investments include staffing ratios related to the number of students from low-income households within a district. The formula uses data from the Department of Human Services on eligibility for and participation in several means-tested programs to secure district low-income student counts, including students who “are eligible for at least one of the following low-income programs: Medicaid, the Children’s Health Insurance Program, Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), or the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program, excluding pupils who are eligible for services provided by the Department of Children and Family Services” ([Illinois School Code, Article 18](#)).

The EBF Adequacy Target calculation also includes staffing ratios related to the number of students designated as English Learners that a district serves. Finally, three staffing ratios are related to providing supports to students with Individualized Education Plans. These cost factors are tied not to the count of students with IEPs in a district, but instead allocated based on overall district enrollment (like the core

investments. For all three of these categories, EBF legislation requires that new Tier Funding dollars attributable to each of these student groups in a given year must be spent on services for these specific groups. In the annual spending plans that districts submit to ISBE at the beginning of each school year, they must articulate how they intend to spend new tier funding in keeping with this requirement.

Figure 2



The “additional investments” associated with district low-income student counts are all based in evidence of the positive impact of these supports for students from low-income households. Several of the existing cost factors, namely the psychologist factor and the “pupil support factor” which refers to “a nurse, psychologist, social worker, family liaison personnel, or other staff member who provides support to at-risk or struggling students,” have been shown to benefit students exposed to trauma.

Although the current cost factors associated with students from low-income households result in higher Adequacy Targets for districts associated with the more students from low-income households they serve, the current cost factors do not reflect the even higher costs that research suggests may be appropriate for providing a high-quality education to students living in districts with especially high concentrations of poverty, nor does it tie any cost factors specifically to the number of students who have experienced trauma.

Additional EBF Mechanisms Related to Poverty Concentration

The Evidence-Based Funding formula’s calculation of each district’s existing resources also includes an adjustment relevant to poverty concentration in school districts. Prior to the enactment of the formula, districts received a portion of state funding through a “poverty supplemental grant”. Districts with higher concentrations of poverty received more funds per pupil from this grant. Districts receive the same amount of funding from this grant that they received in FY17 But in order to “avoid penalizing low-income districts when the system is not adequately funded, the poverty supplemental [is discounted](#) by the degree to which the district is fully funded” in the calculation of districts’ percent of adequacy for the sake of placement in the EBF tiers and distribution of new tier funding through EBF in a given year. This reduces

the amount of state funding recognized by the formula for districts serving the most low-income students in the state that are also furthest from full funding.

Recommendation

What potential recommendations might the PRP make for adjustments to Illinois' EBF formula to ensure this item is addressed? If this is not an item that the committee concludes is most effectively addressed by the EBF formula, how might it otherwise be addressed outside of the EBF formula?

Recommendation 1

Differentiate existing low-income cost factors/staffing ratios to capture cost of providing additional supports to districts serving over 60% students (evidence/research-based threshold) in low-income households. This could entail adding a differentiation to the existing four low-income cost factors such that the associated staffing ratios remain the same for districts serving a student population with below 60% of students from low-income households, but create smaller staffing ratios for districts with over 60% of students from low-income households. For example, the staffing ratio for Pupil Support staff might be 1:125 low-income students in districts with less than 60% students from low-income households but might be 1:100 or even 1:75 in districts with over 60% of students from low-income households.

If possible, this adjustment could alternatively be designed in a more graduated fashion, rather than creating a sharp cut-off, or discontinuity at the 60% threshold. In such an event, the ratio of Pupil Support Staff to low-income students might be 1:125 in districts below 40% students from low-income households, 1:100 in districts between 40-70% students from low-income households, and 1:75 in districts with greater than 70% students from low-income households.

In either event, adding more nuance to the staffing ratios associated with the count of students from low-income households in a district to reflect increased costs associated with the concentration of low-income students in a district would enable district adequacy targets to better capture the cost of providing an equitable education based on student needs.

Recommendation 2

The Whole Child Task Force should research and make recommendations related to state data collection on student exposure to trauma, which the PRP can in turn consider the appropriateness of tailoring cost factors to at a later point in time.

At present, the state of Illinois does not have state-level data that is comparable across school districts that captures students' exposure to trauma. To some extent, because of the interplay of trauma and poverty, addressing poverty and concentrated poverty within the formula and including staffing ratios for positions like psychologists, social workers, and guidance counselors will also begin to address the needs of students who are likely to have experienced trauma. Ideally however, more detailed information specifically about student exposure to trauma at the school or district level would help better tailor Adequacy Targets based on student need.

The creation of such a measure or index could possibly entail the combination of data from multiple existing sources relating to things like levels of community violence, connectivity with DHS, and levels of student mobility, or might involve introduction of tools or protocols for collecting new information. The design of a metric to capture student exposure to trauma that could be applied at the school district level to help ensure EBF Adequacy Targets capture costs related to preventing and addressing trauma as well as preventing re-traumatization will require careful research and engagement with experts and practitioners. It is the PRP Ad-Hoc Committee's belief that the state's Whole Child Task Force, which is charged with making recommendations to the state concerning "the key data to be collected and reported to ensure that this State has a full and accurate understanding of the progress toward ensuring that all schools, including programs and providers of care to pre-kindergarten children, employ restorative, anti-racist, and trauma-responsive strategies and practices," is best positioned to undertake the work of considering and making recommendations on how the state could measure student needs related to experiences of trauma ([P.A. 101-0654](#)). The state's REACH pilot will likely also yield information about promising practices for measuring student needs related to trauma in the coming years.

Based on information provided by the Whole Child Task Force and REACH pilots, the state and PRP should revisit whether and how the formula can more accurately reflect costs related to trauma at a future point in time, knowing that there are cost factors currently included in the formula that begin to address this need in relation to poverty, but more data is needed to create cost factors related to trauma.

Recommendation 3

Explore ways the state can measure depth of poverty (potentially using Census block-level data) in future to provide an additional data point that can be used in the calculation of districts' Adequacy Targets related to poverty concentration.

Information on depth of poverty within school districts could potentially allow Adequacy Targets to be even more specifically tailored to districts' unique student populations. In order not to create additional administrative burden by creating new avenues for data collection, it is worth exploring whether statewide, comparable data on depth of poverty able to be applied at the school district level could possibly be gathered from federal products like the American Community Survey's measures.

Task (C) Changes to the Essential Elements that may be required to better promote racial equity and eliminate structural racism within schools.

It is important to note that there is significant overlap in the content of this charge (Charge B), which is aimed at interrogating how EBF might better promote racial equity and eliminate structural racism within schools, and Charge H, which focuses on exploring evidence-based practices that reduce opportunity and outcome gaps for African American students specifically. The Ad-Hoc Committee acknowledged and

discussed this overlap, noting that structural racism and the inequitable opportunities it creates and perpetuates are the cause, whether directly or indirectly, of many of the gaps in opportunities and outcomes experienced by students of color.

While acknowledging this overlap, in working to identify evidence-based interventions in keeping with the spirit and intent of the Evidence-Based Funding formula relevant to each charge, the group drew some conceptual distinction between charges C and H for the sake of organizing research and making recommendations. Charge C was construed as relating to creating school environments with healthy school climate and culture that prioritize diversity, equity and inclusion, and working to make sure mindsets and practices within schools promote racial equity rather than perpetuating structural racism.

1. RELEVANT RESEARCH

What is the research base/evidence for the impact of this intervention on student outcomes?

Impact on student opportunity/outcomes

Students of color tend to live in racially and socio-economically segregated urban areas (Saporito & Sohoni, 2007) where they may attend underfunded schools and receive inferior types of education (Hegedus, 2018; Noguera, 2011; Silva-Laya et al., 2020). It has been amply documented that teachers in urban schools, where there is a vast concentration of students of color, are often inexperienced, ill-prepared, poorly paid, and often lack the supports needed to effectively teach students (Johnson et al., 2004; Maring & Koblinsky, 2013; Sass et al., 2012; Zimmerman & Astor, 2021). Despite multiple attempts to redress the achievement gap, often with race-neutral or colorblind strategies, educational inequities persist along racial-ethnic lines (Flores & Gunzenhauser, 2019).

At the national level, Black (80%), Latinx (82%), and American Indian/Alaska Native (74%) students continue to graduate at lower rates compared to their Asian/Pacific Islander (93%) and White (89%) counterparts (Irwin et al., 2021). Moreover, Black students (57%) are less likely to immediately enroll in college after high school, compared to Asian (82%), White (69%) and Latinx students (64%; Irwin et al., 2021). In fact, Black students in 2019 enrolled into college at lower rates than in 2010 (66% in 2010 compared to 57% in 2021; Irwin et al., 2021). Studies have also found that Black students are overrepresented in punitive disciplinary actions compared to their White counterparts (Barrett et al., 2017; Marchbanks et al., 2018; Ramey, 2015). These findings show that there is an overwhelming need to address racial inequities and structural racism in schools.

Evidence-based interventions

Notably, peer-reviewed evaluative studies describing the impact of equity-explicit interventions on student outcomes are newly emerging. Nonetheless, there are current approaches that target educators, curriculum, and school climate in addressing systemic racism. More specifically, contemporary methods of reducing teacher bias and improving student performance focus on student-teacher relationships (Gaias, Cook, et al., 2020; Gregory et al., 2017) and the power of student-teacher racial-ethnic and cultural match (Gershenson et al., 2021). A related body of literature has examined how race-conscious curriculum impacts student learning (Duncan-Andrade, 2005; Tintiangco-Cubales et al., 2015). Other approaches to redressing racial inequities include reforming punitive disciplinary actions in schools (Jain et al., 2014) and integrating a whole systems approach (Priest et al., 2021).

Studies have examined the effectiveness of programs that target the teacher-student relationship as a viable pathway to reducing and eliminating structural racism in schools. These programs are aimed at improving student outcomes via teacher perceptions and practices, given that teachers' perceptions of students impact their academic expectations and interactions with their students (Gentrup et al., 2020). suggest a need for interventions to have a more explicit focus on racial dynamics, including equity direct approaches that offer concrete strategies for teachers' behavioral changes in the classroom and increased bias awareness (Gregory et al., 2019).

While it is critical that all pre-service and in-service teachers be trained to engage diverse students, it is also imperative that efforts be implemented to properly prepare, hire, and retain teachers of color. A host of studies have found that racial-ethnic teacher-student match results in better teacher-reported outcomes for children, including engagement, motivation, social skills, and school attendance (Rasheed et al., 2020; Redding, 2019). Furthermore, research also suggests that diversifying the teacher workforce benefits White students as much as students of color (Cherng & Halpin, 2016), suggesting that teachers of color are needed in all areas of the state. Non-White teachers are still grossly underrepresented in the teacher workforce in Illinois. In 2020, teachers in Illinois were predominantly White (82.3%), whereas the state's student population was more ethnically diverse (47.5% White, 26.6% Latinx, 16.6% Black, 5.2% Asian, 4.1% Other: Illinois Report Card, n.d.).

2. EBF AT PRESENT

How do elements or mechanisms currently included in Illinois' Evidence-Based Funding formula work to address this item?

Cost Factors

At present, EBF does not include any cost factors within its calculation of adequacy, nor components of the formula's distribution mechanism, that are explicitly tied to the race/ethnicity of students within a district, or that are specifically tailored to address systemic racism. Nonetheless, many of the evidence-based cost factors already included in EBF are elements of staffing and programming (like smaller class sizes and extended learning time) that are designed to improve student outcomes in general, and have been proven to have a disproportionately positive and significant impact for historically disadvantaged students, including students from low-income households and students of color.

Additionally, as a result of housing discrimination and segregation policies and practices, students of color are disproportionately concentrated in school districts that also serve a majority of students from low-income households. This overlap means that students of color are more likely to attend schools in the state's most underfunded school districts (those with the lowest percent of Adequacy). As the formula distributes the most new state funding in a given year to those districts that are furthest from Adequacy, this dynamic also means that districts serving both high proportions of students from low-income households and students of color should receive the most new funding from EBF tier funding. Analysis from the first several years of the formula suggest this to be the case. However, it is also worth noting that some of the inequity in educational opportunity experienced by students of color results from this relationship between race and residential segregation resulting in concentration of students of color in high-poverty and low-property wealth school districts, poverty is not, and should not be considered to be, a proxy for race. Research has shown that students of color, regardless of their socioeconomic status, face systemic inequities as a result of racism.

Especially relevant for the purposes of this charge for example is the existing Professional Development cost factor. Currently set at \$125 per pupil, this cost factor reflects expenses related to providing “training programs for licensed staff in schools, including, but not limited to, programs that assist in implementing new curriculum programs, provide data focused or academic assessment data training to help staff identify a student's weaknesses and strengths, target interventions, improve instruction, **encompass instructional strategies for English learner, gifted, or at-risk students, address inclusivity, cultural sensitivity, or implicit bias, or otherwise provide professional support for licensed staff.**” This cost factor is not, however differentiated based on any measure of student need or district demographic characteristics.

Recommendation(s)

What potential recommendations might the PRP make for adjustments to Illinois’ EBF formula to ensure this item is addressed? If this is not an item that the committee concludes is most effectively addressed by the EBF formula, how might it otherwise be addressed outside of the EBF formula?

Recommendation 1

Add a specific Professional Development cost for PD related to implicit bias and antiracism at a fixed per pupil cost based on overall enrollment, with additional per pupil dollar amount for all students where a district serves over 50% non-white students. Professional development and dedicated organizational time and capacity at the school and district levels focused on developing a healthy school culture, reducing implicit bias and eliminating structural racism is important for all students and schools, but especially important for schools and school districts serving students of color.

At present, the EBF includes cost factors associated with providing supports based on student needs for students from low-income households and English Learners but does not capture the cost of reversing or reducing the negative impacts of systemic disadvantage or inequity faced by students of color. This proposed additional PD cost factor would recognize that students of color do not inherently need additional supports by nature of their race/ethnicity, but that these students do face inequities because of historical and existing structures, and there is a cost attendant with working to dismantle those inequities through training on antiracism and eliminating implicit bias within schools and districts.

Like the suggested cost factor for poverty concentration, application of this proposed cost factor could also be applied in a graduated fashion rather than tied to a strict threshold at 50%. Also, given that this proposed factor would be tied to counts of students by race/ethnicity within a district, it would be important to consider the legality of using a race-conscious metric in estimating costs for the purpose of calculating district Adequacy and distributing state funds.

Recommendation 2

Add a cost factor for recruitment and retention of diverse educators and leaders, which should reflect costs including making systemic changes in hiring practices, loan repayments and scholarships, mentorship, and induction, etc., with allocation/ratio based on count of non-white students.

This approach would be a step toward combatting the state’s shortage of diverse educators while simultaneously reflecting the value of enabling districts, especially those serving large proportions of

students of color, to recruit and retain educators and leaders who reflect the diversity of their student populations.

Task (D) The impact of investing \$350,000,000 in additional funds each year under this Section and an estimate of when the school system will become fully funded under this level of appropriation.

I. Response to Part 1 of the Inquiry. This question has two parts. The first determination requested is identifying the impact of increasing EBF funding on a year-to-year basis by \$350 million. Making that determination requires a little statutory language clarification before it can be answered accurately.

While it is true that Section (g) of the EBF sets a target of increasing state funding for K-12 education by at least \$350 million on a year-to-year basis, the actual minimum funding increase for formula funding is \$300 million (the “**Minimum Funding Level**”), not the \$350 million amount actually specified in statute. The reason for this is the Property Tax Relief Grant or “**PTRG**” established in paragraph 9.5 of Section (g) of the legislation.

Under that section of the statute, the dollar amount of any year-to-year increase in funding the state appropriates for the EBF in a given fiscal year that is in excess of \$300 million, up to and including \$350 million, is dedicated to the PTRG – not to formula funding. When appropriated, this creates up to \$50 million for property tax relief under the EBF for the fiscal year in question. The statute further provides, however, that if any of the funding so dedicated to the PTRG is not actually used for property tax relief in a given year, then such unused PTRG revenue will be distributed to school districts as additional formula funding.ⁱ

This effectively reduces the state’s Minimum Funding Level for increased, year-to-year formula funding from the \$350 million specified in the statute to \$300 million each fiscal year – and is precisely how the EBF has been interpreted by the Illinois State Board of Education (“**ISBE**”) since the EBF was first implemented in FY 2018.

The three main impacts of making that—or any greater increase in annual formula funding under the EBF—are easy to summarize:

First, per pupil education funding gaps by income, race and ethnicity will continue to decline. This is because the procedure for distributing new formula funding under the EBF has proven to be highly equitable. Under the EBF, a calculation is made of how close or far a school district is from its Adequacy Target. This is determined by adding the dollar values of a district’s Base Funding Minimum in a year to its Local Capacity Target and Personal Property Replacement Tax revenue for that year. Next, this sum is divided by that district’s Adequacy Target for the year in question, which produces its “**Percent of Adequacy**.” Once each school district’s Percent of Adequacy is computed, all districts statewide are broken into four tiers – Tier I being comprised of the least adequately funded districts, and Tier IV of the best funded districts. The cutoff percentage for Tier I, and the entry percentage for Tier II, will vary each

year based on a number of factors, like changes in enrollment and how new funding was distributed the prior year.

For example, in FY2018, Tier I districts had resources sufficient to cover only 65 percent or less of their Adequacy. In FY2022 calculations, the Tier 1 group includes districts with less than 68.48 percent of adequate resources. Under the EBF, Tier I district initially receive 50 percent of all new funding the state allocates to K-12 education in a fiscal year.

Tier II includes those districts which have resources sufficient to cover between the cutoff for Tier I and 90 percent of their respective Adequacy Targets. Under the EBF, Tier II districts share 49 percent of the new state funding devoted to K-12 in a year with Tier I districts.

Tier III includes those districts that have resources which cover between 90 and 100 percent of their respective Adequacy Targets. Tier III districts receive just 0.9 percent of the new funding the state allocates to K-12 under the EBF in a year.

Tier IV includes the best funded school districts in the state, all of which have resources from their LCTs, Personal Property Replacement Taxes, and BFM's which already cover at least 100 of their respective Adequacy Targets. These districts receive just 0.1 percent of all new state-level education funding under the EBF in a fiscal year.

Figure 1 shows how all new K-12 funding from the state has been distributed since the EBF was first implemented in FY 2018.

Figure 1
Allocation by Tier of New State-Level Funding under the EBF Since FY 2018
(no new funding in FY 2021)

New Tier Funding	FY 2018	FY 2019	FY 2020	FY 2021	FY 2022	Total	% of New Money
Tier I	\$326,630,217	\$267,425,205	\$279,548,555	\$0	\$260,762,838	\$1,134,366,815	88.68%
Tier II	\$36,313,680	\$29,596,928	\$29,818,112	\$0	\$36,237,158	\$131,965,879	10.32%
Tier III	\$3,299,490	\$2,700,201	\$2,812,424	\$0	\$2,700,000	\$11,512,114	0.90%
Tier IV	\$366,609	\$300,022	\$312,491	\$0	\$299,999	\$1,279,121	0.10%
Total	\$366,609,996	\$300,022,356	\$312,491,581	\$0	\$299,999,996	\$1,279,123,929	100.00%

Source: CTBA analysis of ISBE EBF calculations

Note how powerful this distribution mechanism is from an equity standpoint, allocating over 89 percent of the new funding for education to those districts that are least adequately funded.

This is crucial for Illinois, given the state's former formula was one of the least equitable in America, and created much greater funding gaps per student for Black and Brown children, than for white children.

Fortunately, the EBF is not only reducing the gap in funding for all students regardless of race or ethnicity but is also helping reduce the gap by race and ethnicity. As shown in **Figure 2**.

Figure 1
Average Per Pupil Adequacy Gap by Race, FY 2018 and FY 2022
(Excluding Tier IV Districts and ROEs)

Avg Adequacy Gap Per Pupil by Race/Ethnicity	Per Pupil Adequacy Gap, (weighted) 2018	Per Pupil Adequacy Gap, (weighted) 2022	\$ Change	% Change
White	\$ 3,620	\$3,572	(\$48)	-1%
Black	\$5,001	\$4,803	(\$198)	-4%
Latino	\$5,096	\$4,879	(\$217)	-4%
Total	\$ 4,370	\$4,256	(\$114)	-3%

Source: CTBA analysis of ISBE EBF Full Calculations FY 2018-FY 2022; excludes ROEs due to unavailable data

Second, every region of the state will receive enhanced funding for its schools and hence see a reduction in its per pupil funding shortfall, as has been the case since the EBF was first implemented in FY 2018. **Figure 3** shows how the new EBF funding has been distributed across the state.

Figure 3
Geographic Allocation of New Funding Under the EBF

Region	Total New Funding
Cook	\$268,494,750
Collar	\$219,832,546
CPS	\$346,770,006
Downstate	\$444,026,628
Statewide	\$1,279,123,929

Source: CTBA analysis of ISBE EBF Full Calculations FY 2018-FY 2022; includes ROEs

Third, if the districts receiving portions of said new, annual state-level increases in K-12 funding under the EBF utilize said new funding to increase spending in fidelity with the educational elements identified in the statute as evidence-based practices that have been shown to enhance student achievement, those districts should ultimately realize better educational outcomes for students.

Attaining better student outcomes in districts that use new funding in fidelity with the EBF is the reasonably anticipated result of enhancing annual formula funding under the EBF, because the legislation ties the dollar amount taxpayers invest in schools to paying for those educational practices which research shows actually enhance student achievement over time.

Hence, after the model becomes fully funded, stakeholders can expect to see, for example: growth in student test scores; improved school climates with reduced disciplinary problems; reduced drop-out rates

with corresponding increases in high school graduation and college enrollment rates; and a K-12 system that appropriately serves the social/emotional needs of students from diverse backgrounds.

Ultimately, the EBF—again, when fully funded—will create a K-12 system with the capacity to provide an education of sufficient quality for all students to graduate high school college and career ready, irrespective of income, race, ethnicity, or geography.

With that in mind, the state is still \$4.6 billion short of funding the EBF fully.

II. Response to Part 2 of the Inquiry. The second part of the question involves identifying how long it will take to fund the EBF fully if the state continues to increase year-to-year formula funding by the statutory Minimum Funding Level of \$300 million.

The Ad Hoc Committee and ISBE collaborated with the Center for Tax and Budget Accountability (CTBA) to determine the appropriate methodology to use when projecting how long it will take to achieve full funding at the current pace. For purposes of making that projection, the Ad Hoc Committee, ISBE and CTBA made the following determinations:

(i) the appropriate target for aggregate, state level funding under the EBF should be predicated on that amount which equates to 90 percent of the sum of all Adequacy Targets for all school districts, given that federal support generally covers anywhere from eight percent to 10 percent of all K-12 funding in the state. The designs of the EBF Distribution in statute defines adequacy as 90%.

(ii) the funding target should be adjusted for changes in inflation, based on historical data from the past two decades, to ensure the final targeted amount of funding is actually adequate in real terms. Under that methodology, there is an assumed rate of inflation of 2.96% for every school year after 2021-2022. Additionally, for ease of calculation, the Ad Hoc Committee, ISBE and CTBA assumed no changes to student enrollment or local capacity targets from current levels.

Utilizing the aforesaid methodology, if the state were to continue satisfying the Minimum Funding Level of increasing K-12 formula funding under the EBF by \$300 million per year, the EBF will not be fully funded on an inflation adjusted basis until 2042, as shown in **Figure 4**.

FIGURE 4

EBF FUNDING IF \$300M MINIMUM FUNDING LEVEL IS NOT ADJUSTED FOR INFLATION (\$ MILLIONS)

	FY2021	FY 2022	FY2028	FY2034	FY2037	FY2042
Aggregate Funding Gap Before Annual Distribution (infl. adj.)	\$4,528	\$4,624	\$3,514	\$2,191	\$1,437	\$24
New Annual Tier Funding Amount	\$0	\$300	\$300	\$300	\$300	\$24
Remaining Aggregate Funding Gap after	(\$4,528)	(\$4,324)	(\$3,214)	(\$1,891)	(\$1,137)	(\$0)

Distribution of New Tier Funding

Total Nominal Dollars Put into EBF since FY 2018	\$979	\$1,279	\$3,079	\$4,879	\$5,779	\$7,003
---	--------------	----------------	----------------	----------------	----------------	----------------

Source: CTBA analysis of ISBE FY2018, 2019, 2020 & 2021 EBF Calculation using Bureau of Labor Statistics ECI historical data.

That is problematic, because in addition to creating the aforesaid Minimum Funding Level for increasing K-12 funding on a year-to-year basis, the EBF also committed the state to funding the formula fully within 10 years of its initial implementation, which would be June 30, 2027.ⁱⁱ According to ISBE, as of FY 2021, the EBF was underfunded state-wide by some \$4.6 billion,ⁱⁱⁱ an amount that is projected grow to over \$4.6 billion by the end of FY 2022.^{iv} The one inescapable conclusion is that at its current rate of increasing EBF funding, the state is not close to being on track for satisfying the obligation to fund the EBF fully by FY 2027.

To meet the statutory deadline, the Minimum Funding Level of year-to-year increases in EBF formula funding will have to increase from its current amount of \$300 million to \$983 million, in nominal, non-inflation-adjusted dollars, starting in the 2022-2023 school year, as shown in **Figure 5**.

FIGURE 5

FULLY FUNDING THE EBF ON AN INFLATION-ADJUSTED BASIS IN 10 YEARS FROM EBF ENACTMENT (\$ MILLIONS)

	FY2022	FY2025	FY2027
Aggregate Funding Gap Before Annual Distribution (infl. adj.)	\$4,805	\$2,864	\$983
New Annual Tier Funding Amount	\$300	\$983	\$983
Remaining Aggregate Funding Gap after Distribution of New Tier Funding	(\$4,505)	(\$1,881)	\$0
Total Nominal Dollars Put into EBF since FY 2018	\$1,279	\$4,227	\$6,192

Source: CTBA analysis of ISBE FY2018-FY2022 EBF Calculation using Bureau of Labor Statistics ECI historical data.

The Professional Review Panel believes the key objections are as follows:

- The large majority of new funding is allocated to Tier I district that are furthest from adequacy
- The model results in a reduced reliance on local property taxes as evidenced by the Property tax relief grant in the EBF statute
- The model will move districts to adequacy by 2027
- Ensuring that annual appropriations ensure that all schools districts receive allocations no less than what was received the prior year

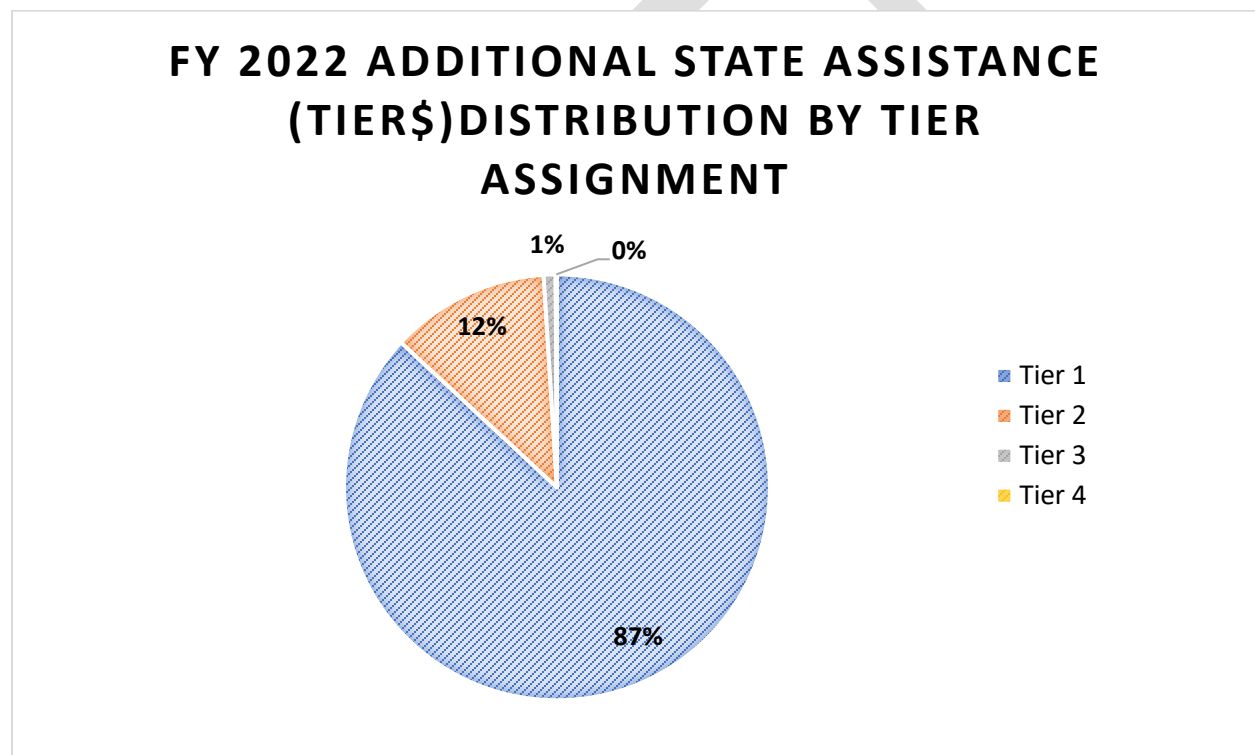
At the current rate of investment, it will not be possible to satisfy every key objective of the legislation. One key objective that is being satisfied is the goal of ensuring the majority of new, year-to-year Tier formula funding from the state be allocated to Tier I district. This was a key objective because those districts are furthest from their respective Adequacy Targets and hence have the greatest needs. Given that, as cited above, to date 89 percent of all new year-to-year formula funding has gone to Tier I district, this objective has been met.

However, another key goal of the legislation is to shift responsibility for funding K-12 education to rely on more state-based resources and away from being over-reliant on local property taxes. Indeed, this was

such an important goal that the EBF even includes the PTRG-- a specific provision for property tax relief. If the state continues to increase year-to-year formula funding by a flat, \$300 million in nominal, non-inflation adjusted dollars, however, it is highly unlikely that such a shift will occur, given that annually the amount of property taxes used to fund K-12 education tends to grow by inflation.

The impact of the continued overreliance on property taxes to fund education will be felt most acutely in Tier II districts, because they have less than 90 percent of their respective Adequacy Targets in resources, and by design receive a significantly lesser distribution of new state-level formula funding, as indicated in Figure 6. Hence after accounting for the impact of inflation, the state's 362 Tier II districts will have to continue to over-rely on increasing their annual property tax levies, if they hope to develop the capacity to fund the evidence based educational practices identified in the EBF. Depending on local capacity and tax tolerance, this may ultimately result in a number of Tier II districts transitioning to Tier I over time.

Figure 6



Tier	Tier Distribution (in millions)	Number of Org. Units	Average Tier \$ per Pupil
1	\$260.8	320	\$354.41
2	\$36.2	362	\$61.95
3	\$2.7	65	\$25.39
4	\$0.3	175	\$1.02

Source: Illinois State Board of Education

Recommendation

(E) Provide an overview of alternative funding structures that would enable the State to become fully funded at an earlier date.

It is outside the purview of the Professional Review Panel to identify alternative funding structures that would enable the state to fund the EBF fully by FY 2027, as provided in statute. It is up to the General Assembly and Governor to identify such additional revenue sources and/or fiscal reforms as could be implemented by the state to fund the EBF model fully by its statutorily created deadline.

Elements or mechanisms to create alternative funding structures which would enable the state to fully fund the EBF at a faster pace than the current, \$300 million in new funding per year, do not exist within the EBF formula itself. With that in mind, the Ad Hoc Committee with the support of ISBE will conduct financial analysis and project outcomes as requested based on the EBF model.

(F) The potential to increase efficiency and to find cost savings within the school system to expedite the journey to a fully funded system.

Evidence-Based Funding (EBF) Spending Plans that are required to be submitted by all organizational units receiving EBF funds are designed to support districts in strategic decision making in investments for student needs, with a particular emphasis on students from low-income backgrounds, students with IEPs, and English Learners. Without these data points, districts and communities are limited in their opportunities to understand and influence resource allocation in the service of students. The EBF Spending Plan represents an opportunity to connect these dots for district and community decision making. This plan is best completed with collaboration between the finance and program departments within a district. The FY22 EBF Spending Plan represents an opportunity for district leaders to develop and refine the story behind their allocation decision-making processes to yield more meaningful and, eventually, public data. Future iterations of the EBF Spending Plan will be integrated into another existing collection. ISBE will continue to engage with the field as the EBF Spending Plan evolves iteratively.

In an effort to determine efficiencies within the model, the conclusion that we've come to is that the model should exist to identify evidence based best practice that leads to the increased potential of positive student outcomes. We believe that the model is to be modified and changed according to current research and the analysis of how it is performing specifically for the students of Illinois. The artificial manipulation of the elements to create efficiencies would only happen at the expense of the elements of best practice. Where we found a fair analysis and use of the model to find efficiencies was to look at the redundancy of resourcing. Consider where we fund for particular expectations both within the model and

outside or independent of the model. The most obvious of these examples is in the area of assessment. It is recognized that a common standardized assessment makes good sense in assessing student growth and outcomes. Therefore, it is appropriate to be funded as an element within the model. As a result, most school districts are using MAP, COGNIA, STAR or other examples of assessments, but the State is then also paying for the IAR to be delivered on a statewide basis. Efficiency can be found by funding the strategy that most significantly aids schools in being responsive to their learners rather than funding both.

Finally, the ability of a district to utilize EBF to implement evidence-based practices identified in the model may be compromised due to the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. The significant, on-time federal assistance tied to the pandemic makes it challenging to determine how much deficit spending is actually occurring in districts today. Depending on how much a district receives, how quickly it spends the assistance, and what it spends the assistance on skews the picture of district fiscal capacity across the State.

Recommendation

Task (G) The appropriate levels for reenrolling and graduating high-risk high school students who have been previously out of school. These outcomes shall include enrollment, attendance, skill gains, credit gains, graduation or promotion to the next grade level, and the transition to college, training, or employment, with an emphasis on progressively increasing the overall attendance.

As defined by EBF statute, "at-risk students" are students who are at risk of not meeting the Illinois Learning Standards or not graduating from elementary or high school and who demonstrate a need for vocational support or social services beyond that provided by the regular school program. This definition includes those identified as low income, disabled or as an English language learner.

The State Task Force on Re-Enrolling Students who dropped Out of School produced a report in 2008. It is the recommendation of this committee that this report is updated to consider the Evidence Based Funding Model as well as new academic requirements for students. The updated report should include the following components:

- Research based best practices for re-enrolling students who dropped out of school
- Research based best practices for supporting at risk students before they drop out of school
- Recommendations for programs targeting at risk students that may be implemented through the Regional Offices of Education (or at the County level?) and,
- A measure of accountability that ties directly to the additional investments for low income, English language and special education students within the Evidence Based Funding model.

Recommended programs should consider the use of non-traditional instructors as well as non-traditional programming to better prepare students that are not college bound for the workforce. This programming should also consider hybrid and fully remote options for students.

Once the report has been updated and programs have been implemented, an analysis of the appropriate levels for reenrolling and graduating high risk students should be conducted.

We are currently working to complete this G section.

105 ILCS 5/, Evidence-Based Funding for Student Success Act, (2017).

105 ILCS 5/, Evidence-Based Funding for Student Success Act, (2017).

CTBA analysis of ISBE Evidence-Based Funding Formula Distribution Full Calculations Fiscal Year 2020

CTBA analysis of ISBE Evidence-Based Funding Formula Distribution Full Calculations Fiscal Year 2020; ISBE FY 2021 EBF Base Funding Minimum Calculations.

Task (H) The evidence-based or research-based practices that are shown to reduce the gaps and disparities experienced by African American students in academic achievement and educational performance, including practices that have been shown to reduce disparities in disciplinary rates, drop-out rates, graduation rates, college matriculation rates, and college completion rates.

1. RELEVANT RESEARCH

What is the research base/evidence for the impact of this intervention on student outcomes?

Impact on student opportunity/outcomes

[For next round of report draft, would input brief summary/highlights of relevant research on existing gaps in opportunities/outcomes for African American students. Can also point to relevant research in section for Charge C.]

Evidence-based interventions

[For next round of report draft, would input relevant research from ISBE memo on access to high quality Early Childhood Education and Care, and other strategies or reducing or eliminating equity gaps in educational opportunities and outcomes for African American students]

2. EBF AT PRESENT

How do elements or mechanisms currently included in Illinois' Evidence-Based Funding formula work to address this item?

As stated for Charge C, EBF does not include any cost factors within its calculation of adequacy, nor components of the formula's distribution mechanism, that are explicitly tied to the race/ethnicity of students within a district, or that are specifically tailored to address systemic racism. Nonetheless, many of the evidence-based cost factors already included in EBF are elements of staffing and programming (like smaller class sizes and extended learning time) that are designed to improve student outcomes in general, and have been proven to have a disproportionately positive and significant impact for historically disadvantaged students, including students from low-income households and students of color.

Recommendations

What potential recommendations might the PRP make for adjustments to Illinois' EBF formula to ensure this item is addressed? If this is not an item that the committee concludes is most effectively addressed by the EBF formula, how might it otherwise be addressed outside of the EBF formula?

Recommendation 1

Early Childhood Education is pivotal in closing racial opportunity and outcome gaps – though outside the purview of this committee since the EBF and PRP deal with K-12 funding, one key way to close these gaps will be to equitably and adequately fund ECEC. Look to ECEC commission recommendations for next steps there.

Recommendation 2

Recruiting and retaining leaders and educators of color and supporting PD and school climate/culture work that is aimed at reducing implicit bias and antiracism are both strategies for closing gaps supported by research. Formula related recommendations related to both are included in the recommendations related to Charge C.

Recommendation 3

Supporting students of color in college and career readiness and in enrolling in and passing advanced coursework is another evidence-based strategy for closing gaps in HS attainment and college enrollment. The EBF could be used to help capture/reflect the costs of doing so for students of color within districts' Adequacy Targets.

Research Appendix: A

1. Research Memo: Dual Language Education in Public Schools: Equity Issues and Outcomes

DRAFT

Research Appendix: B

2. Research Memo: Trauma, Poverty, and Student Learning

DRAFT

Research Appendix: C

3. Approaches to Eliminating Structural Racism in Schools

DRAFT

References

Adapted and reprinted from [Know Your Price: Valuing Black Lives and Property in America's Black Cities](#) by Andre Perry, with permission from Brookings Institution Press, © 2020 by Brookings Institution.

- A national security crisis: Foreign language capabilities in the federal government: Hearing before the Oversight of Government Management, the Federal Workforce, and the District of Columbia Subcommittee of the U.S. Senate Committee on Homeland Security and Governmental Affairs*, 112th Cong. (2012). <https://www.govinfo.gov/content/pkg/CHRG-112shrg75214/pdf/CHRG-112shrg75214.pdf>
- Abel, L. K. (2013). Language access in the federal courts. *Drake Law Review*, 61, 593-638. <https://ssrn.com/abstract=2235313>
- Arete Musica Academy. "Statistical benefits of music in education." Arete Music Academy. Accessed July 17, 2014
- Associated Press. (2020, August 16). Language barriers, fear hinder immigrant contact tracing in Chicago, elsewhere. *The Chicago Sun-Times*. <https://chicago.suntimes.com/2020/8/16/21370871/language-barriers-fear-hinders-immigrant-contact-tracing>
- Barnum, M. (2019, August 13). 4 new Studies bolster the case: More money for schools helps students. Chalkbeat. Retrieved September 21, 2021, from <https://www.chalkbeat.org/2019/8/13/21055545/4-new-studies-bolster-the-case-more-money-for-schools-helps-low-income-students>.
- Bohra, N. (2021, March 19). Language barriers, technology hurdles and limited transportation hurt Asian American Texans' access to vaccines. *The Texas Tribune*. <https://www.texastribune.org/2021/03/19/asian-americans-texas-language-vaccine/>
- Collier, V. P., & Thomas, W. P. (2004). The astounding effectiveness of dual language education for all. *NABE Journal of Research and Practice*, 2(1), 1-20. https://www.mville.edu/sites/default/files/Dept-School%20of%20Education/Collier_Thomas_-_Effectiveness_of_Dual_Language.pdf
- Collier, V. P., & Thomas, W. P. (2019). Validating the power of bilingual schooling: Thirty-two years of large-scale, longitudinal research. In A. Mackey (Ed.), *Annual review of applied linguistics* (Vol. 37, pp. 203-217). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190517000034>

- Collier, V. P., & Thomas, W. P. (2019). *The role of bilingualism in improving literacy achievement* [Policy brief]. International Literacy Association. https://literacyworldwide.org/docs/default-source/where-we-stand/ila-role-bilingualism-improving-literacy-achievement.pdf?sfvrsn=3e68bf8e_4
- Collins, B. A. (2014). Dual language development of Latino children: effect of instructional program type and home and school language environment. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 29(3), 389-397. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2014.04.009>
- Commission on Language Learning. (2017). *America's languages: Investing in language education for the 21st century*. American Academy of Arts and Sciences. https://www.amacad.org/sites/default/files/publication/downloads/Commission-on-Language-Learning_Americas-Languages.pdf
- Cummins, J. (1979, October). *Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimum age question and some other matters* (Working Papers on Bilingualism, No. 19). Bilingual Education Project, Ontario Institute for Studies in Education. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED184334.pdf>
- Cummins, J. (2008). BICS and CALP: Empirical and theoretical status of the distinction. In B. Street & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (2nd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 71-83). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3_36
- Curtain, H., Donato R., & Gilbert V. (2016). Elementary school foreign language programs in the United States. In S. Berbeco (Ed.), *Foreign language education in America* (pp. 19-41). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137528506_2
- Cyranoski, D. (2004.) Bird flu data languish in Chinese journals. *Nature*, 430, 955. <https://doi.org/10.1038/430955a>
- Daniel, S. J., Xie, F., & Kedia, B. L. (2014, April 11–14). *2014 U.S. business needs for employees with international expertise* [Paper presentation]. Internationalization of U.S. Education in the 21st Century: The Future of International and Foreign Language Studies, Williamsburg, VA, United States. <https://www.wm.edu/offices/revescenter/globalengagement/internationalization/papers%20and%20presentations/danielkediafull.pdf>
- EPPI Review Group for English. (2004, June). *The effect of grammar teaching (syntax) in English on 5 to 16 year olds' accuracy and quality in written composition*. EPPI Centre.

http://eppi.ioe.ac.uk/cms/Portals/0/PDF%20reviews%20and%20summaries/eng_rv6.pdf?ver=2006-03-02-124846-983

- Fogel, H., & Ehri, L. C. (2000). Teaching elementary students who speak Black English vernacular to write in standard English: Effects of dialect transformation practice. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(2), 212-235. <https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1002>
- Galvin, G. (2020, April 16). *Language access issues a barrier during COVID-19*. U.S. News & World Report. <https://www.usnews.com/news/healthiest-communities/articles/2020-04-16/language-access-problems-a-barrier-during-covid-19-pandemic>
- Garcia, A., & Garza, R. (2019). *Chicago's bilingual teacher residency: A partnership to strengthen the teacher pipeline*. New America. Retrieved June 23, 2021, from <https://www.newamerica.org/education-policy/reports/chicagos-bilingual-teacher-residency-a-partnership-to-strengthen-the-teacher-pipeline/>
- Gómez, L., Freeman, D., Freeman, Y. (2005). Dual language education: a promising 50:50 model. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 29(1), 145-164. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2005.10162828>
- Goodman, B. (2021, April 23). *Lost in translation: Language barriers hinder vaccine access*. WebMD. <https://www.webmd.com/vaccines/covid-19-vaccine/news/20210426/lost-in-translation-language-barriers-hinder-vaccine-access>
- Hakuta, K., Butler, Y. G., & Witt, D. (2000, January). *How long does it take English learners to attain proficiency?* University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute. [https://web.stanford.edu/~hakuta/Publications/\(2000\)%20-%20HOW%20LONG%20DOES%20IT%20TAKE%20ENGLISH%20LEARNERS%20TO%20ATTAIN%20PROFICIENCY.pdf](https://web.stanford.edu/~hakuta/Publications/(2000)%20-%20HOW%20LONG%20DOES%20IT%20TAKE%20ENGLISH%20LEARNERS%20TO%20ATTAIN%20PROFICIENCY.pdf)
- Ill. Admin. Code tit. 23 § 1.781. (2021). *Requirements for bilingual education teachers in prekindergarten, kindergarten and any of grades 1-12*. Retrieved July 15, 2021, from <https://www.ilga.gov/commission/Jcar/admincode/023/023000010G07810R.html>
- Ill. Admin. Code tit. 23 § 228. (2017). *Transitional bilingual education*. Retrieved June 23, 2021, from <https://www.isbe.net/documents/228ark.pdf>
- Illinois State Board of Education. (n.d.). *Self-identified districts offering dual language programs*. <https://www.isbe.net/Pages/Dual-Language-Programs.aspx>

- Illinois State Board of Education. (2018). *English as a second language, bilingual education, English as a new language, transitional bilingual and visiting international teachers* [PowerPoint slides].
<https://www.isbe.net/Documents/Eng-SecLang-Biling-Ed.pdf#search=bilingual%20education>
- Illinois State Board of Education. (2020a). *2020 educator supply and demand report*.
<https://www.isbe.net/Documents/ed-supply-demand-2020.pdf>
- Illinois State Board of Education. (2020b). *2020 – 2023 strategic plan*.
<https://www.isbe.net/Documents/ISBE-Strategic-Plan.pdf>
- Illinois State Board of Education. (2020c, November). *English learners in Illinois SY 2019-20: Statistical report*. <https://www.isbe.net/Documents/el-program-stat-rpt20.pdf>
- Lavadenz, M., Armas, E. G., & Barajas, R. (2012). Preventing long-term English learners: Results from a project-based differentiated ELD intervention program [Conference edition]. *The Multilingual Educator 2012*, 24-29. <https://www.gocabe.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/03/ME2012.pdf>
- Lindholm-Leary, K. J. (2016). Students' perceptions of bilingualism in Spanish and Mandarin dual language programs. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, 10(1), 59-70.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2016.1118671>
- Lindholm-Leary, K. J., & Block, N. (2010). Achievement in predominately low SES/Hispanic dual language schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 13(1), 43-60.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050902777546>
- Lindholm-Leary, K. J., Martinez, M. I., & Molina, R. G. (2018). Dual language education as a state equity strategy. In N. Avineri, L. R. Graham, E J. Johnson, R. C. Riner, & J. Rosa (Eds.), *Language and social justice in practice* (pp. 80-87). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315115702-11>
- Mason, G. (2021, April 22). Language barrier may be higher indicator of COVID-19 mortality than race: Brigham and Women's Hospital. *Becker's Hospital Review*.
https://www.beckershospitalreview.com/public-health/language-barrier-may-be-higher-indicator-of-covid-19-mortality-than-race-brigham-and-women-s-hospital.html?utm_source=dlvr.it&utm_medium=twitter
- Moreno, J. E., & Bernal, R. (2020, March 22). *Language barriers hamper coronavirus response*. The Hill.
<https://thehill.com/latino/488834-language-barriers-hamper-coronavirus-response>
- Muro, A. (2012). Pedagogies of change: From theory to practice. *International Journal of Critical Pedagogy*, 4(1), 2-17.

- Myhill, D. (2018). Supporting less proficient writers through linguistically aware teaching. *Language and Education*, 32(4), 333-349. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2018.1438468>
- Nagy, W., & Townsend, D. (2012). Words as tools: Learning academic vocabulary as language acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 47(1), 91-108. <https://doi.org/10.1002/RRQ.011>
- New American Economy. (2017, March). Not lost in translation: The growing importance of foreign language skills in the U.S. job market. http://www.newamericaneconomy.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/03/NAE_Bilingual_V9.pdf
- Padilla, A. M., Fan, L., Xu, X., & Silva, D. (2013). A Mandarin/English two-way immersion program: Language proficiency and academic achievement. *Foreign Language Annals*, 46(4), 661-679. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12060>
- Reed, B. (2021, February 19). *COVID-19 in Pittsburgh: Asian community meets harassment and language barrier in getting vaccine*. CBS Pittsburgh. <https://pittsburgh.cbslocal.com/2021/02/19/asian-community-faces-harassment-and-language-barrier-coronavirus-vaccine/>
- Rickford, J. R. (n.d.). *What is Ebonics? (African American Vernacular English)*. Linguistic Society of America. <https://www.linguisticsociety.org/sites/default/files/Ebonics.pdf>
- Rizzuto, K. C. (2017). Teachers' perceptions of ELL students: Do their attitudes shape their instruction? *The Teacher Educator*, 52(3), 182-202. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08878730.2017.1296912>
- Rubio, F. (2018). Language education in elementary schools: Meeting the needs of the nation. *Foreign Language Annals*, 51, 90-103. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12313>
- School District U-46. (n.d.). *80:20 dual language*. Retrieved June 21, 2021, from <https://www.u-46.org/domain/5417>
- Seal of Biliteracy. (2020). *Frequently asked questions*. Retrieved April 28, 2020, from <https://sealofbiliteracy.org/faq/>
- Stewart, J. H. (2005). Foreign language study in elementary schools: Benefits and implications for achievement in reading and math. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 33(1), 11-16. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-005-0015-5>
- Sugarman, J. (2012). *Fostering linguistic and cultural equity in dual language programs [PowerPoint presentation]*. The 35th Annual New York State Association for Bilingual Education Conference, Melville, NY, United States. <https://www.cal.org/twi/PDF-Fostering%20Equity.pdf>

Office of English Language Acquisition. (2015). *Dual language education programs: Current state policies and practices*. U.S. Department of Education.

https://ncela.ed.gov/files/rcd/TO20_DualLanguageRpt_508.pdf

Utah Dual Language Immersion. (n.d.a). *Why immersion?* Retrieved June 21, 2021, from

<http://utahdli.org/whyimmersion.html>

Utah Dual Language Immersion. (n.d.b). *Instructional model*. Retrieved June 23, 2021, from

<http://www.utahdli.org/instructional-model/>

Utah State Board of Education. (n.d.). *Welcome to dual language immersion*. Retrieved June 23, 2021,

from <https://www.schools.utah.gov/curr/dualimmersion>

Vander Ark, T. (2016, July). *Dual language education for equity & economic development*. Getting Smart.

<https://www.gettingsmart.com/2016/07/dual-language-education-for-equity-economic-development/>

Wiemelt, J. (n.d.). *Dual language programs: Transforming bilingual education in USD116* [PowerPoint

Adair, J.K. 2015. *The Impact of Discrimination on the Early Schooling Experiences of Children from Immigrant Families*. Report. Migration Policy Institute. www.migrationpolicy.org/research/impact-discrimination-early-schooling-e....

Alter, C. 2015. "Black Children Still Most Likely to Live in Poverty, Study Says." *Time*. <http://time.com/3955671/black-children-poverty-study>.

Calarco, J.M. 2014. "Coached for the Classroom: Parents' Cultural Transmission and Children's Reproduction of Educational Inequalities." *American Sociological Review* 79 (5): 1015–37.

Duncan, G.J., J. Brooks-Gunn, & P.K. Klebanov. 1994. "Economic Deprivation and Early Childhood Development." *Child Development* 65 (2): 296–318.

Gershenson, S., & T.S. Dee. 2017. "The Insidiousness of Unconscious Bias in Schools." *Brown Center Chalkboard* (blog). Brookings. www.brookings.edu/blog/brown-center-chalkboard/2017/03/20/the-insidiousn...

Gilliam, W.S. 2014. "What Could Make Less Sense than Expelling a Preschooler?" *Psychology Benefits Society* (blog). American Psychological Association. <https://psychologybenefits.org/2014/12/13/preschool-expulsions>.

Grusky, D., C. Varner, & M. Mattingly, eds. 2015. "State of the States: The Poverty and Inequality Report." *Pathways: A Magazine on Poverty, Inequality, and Social Policy*. Special issue. The Stanford Center on Poverty and Inequality. http://inequality.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/SOTU_2015.pdf.

Hart, B., & T.R. Risley. 1995. *Meaningful Differences in the Everyday Experience of Young American Children*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

Labov, W. 1972. *Language in the Inner City: Studies in Black English Vernacular*. Conduct and Communication series. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Matthew, D.B., E. Rodrigue, & R.V. Reeves. 2016. *Time for Justice: Tackling Race Inequalities in Health and Housing*. Report. Washington, DC: Brookings. www.Brookings.edu/research/time-for-justice-tackling-race-inequalities-i...

McKinsey & Company. 2009. *The Economic Impact of the Achievement Gap in America's Schools: Summary of Findings*. http://dropoutprevention.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/ACHIEVEMENT_GAP_REPORT_20090512.pdf.

Pager, D., & H. Shepherd. 2008. "The Sociology of Discrimination: Racial Discrimination in Employment, Housing, Credit, and Consumer Markets." *Annual Review of Sociology* 34: 181–209. www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2915460/.

Reardon, S.F. 2015. "School Segregation and Racial Academic Achievement Gaps." CEPA (Stanford Center for Education Policy Analysis) Working Paper No. 15-12. <https://cepa.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/wp15-12v201510.pdf>.

Snapshot Series. www.rwjf.org/en/library/research/2016/03/can-early-childhood-interventio...

Sanders-Phillips, K., B. Settles-Reaves, D. Walker, & J. Brownlow. 2009. "Social Inequality and Racial Discrimination: Risk Factors for Health Disparities in Children of Color." *Pediatrics* 124 (Supplement 3): S176–86. http://pediatrics.aappublications.org/content/124/Supplement_3/S176.

Shonkoff, J.P., A.S. Garner, American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) Committee on Psychosocial Aspects of Child and Family Health, AAP Committee on Early Childhood, Adoption, and Dependent Care, AAP Section on Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, B.S. Siegel, M.I. Dobbins, M.F. Earls, A.S. Garner, L. McGuinn, J. Pascoe, & D.L. Wood. 2012. "The Lifelong Effects of Early Childhood Adversity and Toxic Stress." Technical report. *Pediatrics* 129 (1): e232–46.

Stanford CEPA, n.d. "Racial and Ethnic Achievement Gaps." The Educational Opportunity Monitoring Project. <http://cepa.stanford.edu/educational-opportunity-monitoring-project/achi...>

Takanishi, R. 2016. *First Things First! Creating the New American Primary School*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Valant, J., & D. Newark. 2017. "Race, Class, and Americans' Perspectives of Achievement Gaps." *Brown Center Chalkboard* (blog). Brookings. www.brookings.edu/blog/brown-center-chalkboard/2017/01/16/race-class-and...

USDA (US Department of Agriculture). 2017. "Poverty Demographics." Rural Poverty and Well-Being. www.ers.usda.gov/topics/rural-economy-population/rural-poverty-well-bein...

W.K. Kellogg Foundation. 2014. "New Poll Reveals Challenges and Opportunities Facing African American Families." News and Media. <http://www.wkkf.org/news-and-media/article/2014/04/new-poll-reveals-chal...>

References

105 ILCS 5/27-20.4. (2005). Illinois General Assembly. Retrieved August 17, 2021, from

<https://www.ilga.gov/legislation/ilcs/fulltext.asp?DocName=010500050K27-20.4#:~:text=Sec.,of%20slavery%20in%20this%20country>

Achinstein, B., Ogawa, R. T., Sexton, D., & Freitas, C. (2010). Retaining teachers of color: A pressing problem and a potential strategy for "hard-to-staff" schools. *Review of Educational Research*, 80(1), 71-107. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654309355994>

Ahmad, F. Z., & Boser, U. (2014, May). *America's leaky pipeline for teachers of color*. Center for American Progress. Retrieved August 17, 2021, from

<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED561065.pdf>.

Allen, J. P., Pianta, R. C., Gregory, A., Mikami, A. Y., & Lun, J. (2011). An interaction-based approach to enhancing secondary school instruction and student achievement. *Science*, 333(6045), 1034-1037. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1207998>

Allen, M., Wilhelm, A., Ortega, L. E., Pergament, S., Bates, N., & Cunningham, B. (2021). Applying a race (ism)-conscious adaptation of the CFIR framework to understand implementation of a school-based equity-oriented intervention. *Ethnicity & Disease*, 31(Suppl 1), 375-388.

<https://doi.org/10.18865/ed.31.S1.375>

Anyon, Y., Gregory, A., Stone, S., Farrar, J., Jenson, J. M., McQueen, J., Downing, B., Greer, E., & Simmons, J. (2016). Restorative interventions and school discipline sanctions in a large urban school district. *American Educational Research Journal*, 53(6), 1663-1697.

<https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831216675719>

Amos, Y. T. (2010). "They don't want to get it!" Interaction between minority and white pre-service teachers in a multicultural education class. *Multicultural Education*, 17(4), 31-37.

<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ915269.pdf>

- Barrett, N., McEachin, A., Mills, J. N., & Valant, J. (2017, November 20). *What are the sources of school discipline disparities by student race and family income?* [Policy brief]. Education Research Alliance for New Orleans. <https://educationresearchalliancenola.org/files/publications/111417-Barrett-McEachin-Mills-Valant-What-Are-the-Sources-of-School-Discipline-Disparities-by-Student-Race-and-Family-Income.pdf>
- Barrett, N., McEachin, A., Mills, J. N., & Valant, J. (2021). Disparities and discrimination in student discipline by race and family income. *Journal of Human Resources*, 56(3), 711-748. <https://doi.org/10.3368/jhr.56.3.0118-9267R2>
- Beelmann, A., & Heinemann, K. S. (2014). Preventing prejudice and improving intergroup attitudes: A meta-analysis of child and adolescent training programs. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 35(1), 10-24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appdev.2013.11.002>
- Bell, L., Funk, M., Joshi, K., & Valdivia, M. (2016). Racism and white privilege. In M. Adams, L. Bell, D. Goodman, & K. Joshi (Eds.), *Teachings for diversity and social justice* (3rd ed., pp. 133-182). Routledge.
- Blake, J. J., Gregory, A., James, M., & Hasan, G. W. (2016). Early warning signs: Identifying opportunities to disrupt racial inequities in school discipline through data-based decision making. *School Psychology Forum: Research in Practice*, 10(3), 289-306. <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1148995>
- Blake, J. J., Smith, D. M., Marchbanks, M. P., Seibert, A. L., Wood, S. M., & Kim, E. S. (2016). Does student–teacher racial/ethnic match impact Black students’ discipline risk? A test of the cultural synchrony hypothesis. In: R. Skiba, K. Mediratta, & M. Rausch (Eds.) *Inequality in school discipline* (pp. 79-98). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/978-1-137-51257-4_5
- Booker, K. C. (2006). School belonging and the African American adolescent: What do we know and where should we go? *The High School Journal*, 89(4), 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1353/hsj.2006.0005>
- Bonilla-Silva, E. (2006). *Racism without racists: Color-blind racism and the persistence of racial inequality in the United States* (2nd ed.). Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.
- Bonilla-Silva, E. (2015). More than prejudice: Restatement, reflections, and new directions in critical race theory. *Sociology of Race and Ethnicity*, 1(1), 73-87. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2332649214557042>

- Bottiani, J. H., Bradshaw, C. P., & Mendelson, T. (2014). Promoting an equitable and supportive school climate in high schools: The role of school organizational health and staff burnout. *Journal of School Psychology, 52*(6), 567-582. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2014.09.003>
- Bristol, T. J., Wallace, D. J., Manchanda, S., & Rodriguez, A. (2020). Supporting Black male preservice teachers: Evidence from an alternative teacher certification program. *Peabody Journal of Education, 95*(5), 484-497. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0161956X.2020.1828690>
- Cabrera, N. L., Milem, J. F., Jaquette, O., & Marx, R. W. (2014). Missing the (student achievement) forest for all the (political) trees: Empiricism and the Mexican American studies controversy in Tucson. *American Educational Research Journal, 51*(6), 1084-1118. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831214553705>
- Cammarota, J. (2007). A social justice approach to achievement: Guiding Latina/o students toward educational attainment with a challenging, socially relevant curriculum. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 40*(1), 87-96. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10665680601015153>
- Cammarota, J., & Romero, A. F. (2008). The Social Justice Education Project: A critically compassionate intellectualism for Chicana/o students. In A. Williams, T. M. Quinn, & S. David (Eds.), *Handbook of social justice in education* (1st ed., pp. 483-494). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203887745-45>
- Carter, P. L., Skiba, R., Arredondo, M. I., & Pollock, M. (2017). You can't fix what you don't look at: Acknowledging race in addressing racial discipline disparities. *Urban Education, 52*(2), 207-235. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085916660350>
- Cerna-Prado, V., Ojeda-Jimenez, E., Rabin E., Rembert, K., Washington, D., & Winchester, C. (2019, Spring). *Equity and diversity by design: Recommendations on recruiting and retaining teachers of color in Illinois*. Teach Plus. https://teachplus.org/sites/default/files/publication/pdf/teach_plus_diversity_and_equity_by_design_final.pdf
- Cherng, H. Y. S., & Halpin, P. F. (2016). The importance of minority teachers: Student perceptions of minority versus White teachers. *Educational Re*

ⁱ 105 ILCS 5/, Evidence-Based Funding for Student Success Act, (2017).

ⁱⁱ 105 ILCS 5/, Evidence-Based Funding for Student Success Act, (2017).

ⁱⁱⁱ CTBA analysis of ISBE Evidence-Based Funding Formula Distribution Full Calculations Fiscal Year 2020

^{iv} CTBA analysis of ISBE Evidence-Based Funding Formula Distribution Full Calculations Fiscal Year 2020; ISBE FY 2021 EBF Base Funding Minimum Calculations.

(G) The appropriate levels for reenrolling and graduating high-risk high school students who have been previously out of school. These outcomes shall include enrollment, attendance, skill gains, credit gains, graduation or promotion to the next grade level, and the transition to college, training, or employment, with an emphasis on progressively increasing the overall attendance.

DRAFT