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15 SUPERIOR COURT OF THE STATE OF CALIFORNIA  
16 CITY AND COUNTY OF SAN FRANCISCO  
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18 ELIEZER WILLIAMS, et al., ) Case No. 312 236  
19 )  
20 Plaintiffs, ) Hearing Date: Sept. 17, 2003  
21 )  
22 vs. ) Time: 3:30 P.M.  
23 )  
24 STATE OF CALIFORNIA, DELAINE ) Department: 20  
25 EASTIN, State Superintendent )  
26 Of Public Instruction, STATE ) Judge: Hon. Peter J. Busch  
27 DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, STATE)  
28 BOARD OF EDUCATION, )  
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30 Defendants. )  
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DECLARATION OF RICHARD A. BERK

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DECLARATION OF RICHARD A. BERK

I, Richard A. Berk, say:

1. I am Professor of Statistics and Sociology at the University of California, Los Angeles, and Director of the UCLA Statistical Consulting Center. I have done teaching and research in statistics and sociology since 1970, with a special focus on methodological issues -- that is, what research techniques produce valid and reliable results and what techniques do not. I was given the Paul S. Lazarsfeld Award by the American Sociological Association for methodological contributions to the literature. My curriculum vitae is attached as Exhibit A.

2. I have been retained by defendants in this action and asked to analyze the scientific and statistical reliability and validity of a survey conducted by the Louis Harris Organization entitled "A Survey of the Status of Equality in Public Education in California -- A Survey of a Cross-Section of Public School Teachers." It is my understanding that this survey was carried out at plaintiffs' behest for the purpose of supporting their claims in this action. A copy of the expert report I prepared with respect to the survey is Exhibit B. The report accurately sets forth my opinions concerning the validity and reliability of the survey.

3. As more fully set forth in my report, it is my professional opinion that the Harris survey was not conducted in

1 accordance with sound statistical or sociological methods, and  
2 that no reliance can be placed on the conclusions drawn in the  
3 study. In particular, I am advised that plaintiffs' Memorandum  
4 in Support of Motion for Summary Adjudication of State's Duty to  
5 Ensure Equal Access to Instructional Materials cites the Harris  
6 survey for the proposition that 11.7% of California teachers do  
7 not have enough textbooks for use in class and 32% do not have  
8 enough textbooks to send home. As set forth in more detail in my  
9 report, no such conclusion may be validly or reliably drawn from  
10 the Harris survey. Given the errors and fallacies of the Harris  
11 survey, there is no way to determine from Harris's data what  
12 percentage of classrooms lack textbooks.

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I declare under penalty of perjury that the foregoing  
is true and correct, and that this declaration was executed at  
Los Angeles, this 21st day of August, 2003.

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Richard A. Berk

**Exhibit A**

Richard A. Berk  
Department of Statistics  
University of California, Los Angeles  
Room 8130 Mathematical Sciences Building  
Los Angeles, California 90095-1584  
E-mail Address: berk@stat.ucla.edu  
Tel. (310) 206-8544  
Fax: (310) 206-8658

#### Education

1960-1964: Yale University, B.A. in Psychology  
1965-1969: The Johns Hopkins University, Department of Sociology Ph.D. 1970.

#### Honors and Awards

Elected to the Sociological Research Association  
Elected Fellow to the American Association for the Advancement of Science  
Paul S. Lazarfeld Award for methodological contributions from the American Sociological Association

#### Employment

1970-1973: Assistant Professor of Sociology and Urban Affairs Northwestern University  
1973-1976: Associate Professor, Department of Sociology and the Center for Urban Affairs Northwestern University  
1976-1987: Professor of Sociology, University of California, Santa Barbara  
1983-1987: Director, Social Process Research Institute, University of California, Santa Barbara  
1986-1987: Professor of Sociology and Statistics, University of California, Santa Barbara  
1988- : Professor of Sociology, University of California, Los Angeles  
1990-1997: Director, Center for the Study of the Environment and Society, University of California, Los Angeles  
1997- : Professor of Statistics and Sociology, University of California, Los Angeles  
1997- : Director, UCLA Statistical Consulting Center

#### Ongoing Professional Activities

1976-Present: Editor, Evaluation Review (formerly Evaluation Quarterly)  
1977-Present: American Statistical Association  
1977-Present: Editorial Board, Social Science Research  
1978-Present: Law and Society Association  
1978-Present: American Association for the Advancement of Science  
1986-Present: Institute of Mathematical Statistics  
1993-Present: Scientific Advisory Council for the Climate System Modeling Program at NCAR  
1995-Present: NRC Committee on Applied and Theoretical Statistics  
2000-Present: Advisory Board for Center for Spatially Integrated Social Sciences

2000-Present: Visiting Faculty Member at the Los Alamos National Laboratories, Statistics Group.

#### Past Professional Activities of Special Note

1975-1977: Editorial Board, *American Sociological Review*  
1977: Program Committee, Pacific Sociological Association  
1977-1980: Executive Council, Criminology Section of the American Sociological Association  
1979-1982: Executive Council, Methodology of the American Sociological Association  
1979-1983: SERC Committee on Social Indicators  
1980-1982: NAS Committee on Sentencing Research  
1982-1985: Board of Trustees, Law and Society Association  
1982-1983: Review Panel Member, National Science Foundation, Sociology Program  
1984-1985: Visiting Scholar, General Accounting Office, Program in Evaluation and Methodology  
1985-1986: California Attorney General's Commission on Drug and Alcohol Abuse  
1987: Board of Overseers, General Social Survey  
1984-1987: American Sociological Association representative to Section U (Statistics) of the American Association for the Advancement of Science  
1986-1987: NAS Working Group on Experimentation in Criminal Justice  
1986-1987: Chair, Methodology Section of the American Sociological Association  
1983-1991: California Attorney General's Advisory Committee on Data Use and Publications  
1985-1991: Board of Directors (85-91), Vice Chairman (89-91), Social Science Research Council  
1989-1991: NAS Committee on the Social Consequences of AIDS  
1989-1991: NAS Working Group on Global Environmental Change  
1991: NSF Task Force on Reorganization of the Biological, Behavioral and Social Sciences Directorate

#### List of Books

1. *Between White and Black: The Faces of American Institutions in the Ghettos*, in Supplemental Studies for the National Advisory Commission on Civil Disorders (with P. H. Rossi, D. F. Bossel, B. K. Edison and E. Groves). Washington D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1968.
2. *Collective Behavior*. Dubuque, Iowa: W. C. Brown, 1974.
3. *The Roots of Urban Discontent* (with P. H. Rossi and B. K. Edison). New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1974.
4. *A Measure of Justice: An Empirical Study. Changes in the California Penal Code, 1955-1971* (with S. Lesser and H. Brickman). New York: Academic Press, 1977.
5. *Corrections Reform and State Elites* (with P. H. Rossi). Boston: Ballinger Press, 1977.

6. *Crime as Play: Delinquency in a Middle Class Suburb* (with P. Richards). Boston: Ballinger Press, 1979.
7. *Labor and Leisure at Home: The Organization of the Household Day* (with S. F. Berk). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1979.
8. *Money, Work and Crime: Experimental Evidence* (with P. H. Rossi and K. Lashan). New York: Academic Press, 1980.
9. *Water Shortage: Lessons in Water Conservation Learned From the Great California Drought, 1976-1977* (with T. Cooley, C.J. LaCivita and K. Smed). Cambridge, MA: Abt Books, 1981.
10. *The Social Impact of AIDS in the U.S.* Cambridge, MA: Abt Books, 1988.
11. *Thinking About Program Evaluation* (with Peter H. Rossi). Newbury Park: Sage Publications, 1990 (Second Edition, 1999).
12. *Just Punishment: An Empirical Study of the Federal Sentencing Guidelines* (with Peter H. Rossi). New York: Aldine de Gruyter, 1997.

#### Contributions to Professional Journals

1. "White Institutions and Black Rage" (with P. H. Rossi, D.P. Boosal, B. K. Edson and W. H. Groves). *Trans-Action*, March 1969, pp. 24-31.
2. "Establishing Rapport with Deviant Groups" (with J. Adams), *Social Problems*, Fall 1970.
3. "Local Political Leadership and Popular Discontent in the Ghetto" (with P. H. Rossi), *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, September 1970.
4. "The Status of Women in Modern Language Departments: A Report" (with F. Howe and L. Morlock), *Proceedings of the Modern Language Association*, May 1971.
5. "Race and Class Differences in Per Pupil Staffing Schools, 1970-1971" (with A. Hartman), *Integrated Education*, January 1972.
6. "Patterns of Vandalism During Civil Disorders as an Indicator of Selection of Targets" (with K. Aldrich), *American Sociological Review* 37(3): 533-546, 1972.
7. "The Structuring of Normative Judgements Concerning the Seriousness of Crimes" (with P. H. Rossi, E. Watts and C. Rose), *American Sociological Review* 39 (2): 224-237, 1974.

8. "A Gaining Approach to Crowd Behavior," *American Sociological Review*, 39(3): 355-375, 1974.
9. "Champagne's Assessment of Legal Services Programs: An Evaluation of an Evaluation," *Urban Affairs Quarterly*, Spring 1974.
10. "Generalized Performance Measures for Urban Political Systems" (with F. H. Rossi), *Social Science Quarterly*, Spring 1974.
11. "Performance Measures: Half Full or Half Empty?" in *Social Science Quarterly*, Spring 1974.
12. "Determinants of White Collar Income: An Evaluation of Equal Pay for Equal Work" (with W. Bridges), *Social Science Research*, Fall 1974.
13. "Doing Good or Worse: Evaluation Research Politically Re-Examined" (With F. H. Rossi), *Social Problems*, February 1975.
14. "Descriptive Distortions in Covariance Based Statistics" (with M. Hennessy and R. McCleary), *Social Science Research* 5(2): 107-126, 1976.
15. "Household Work in the Suburbs: The Job and its Participants" (with C. Bertucci and S. F. Berk), *Pacific Sociological Review*, October 1976.
16. "Broken Homes and Middle Class Delinquency: A Re-Evaluation" (with M. Hennessy and P. Richards), *Criminology*, February 1977.
17. "The Vagaries and Vulgarities of Scientific Jury Selection" (with M. Hennessy and J. Swas), *Evaluation Quarterly* 1(2):143-158, 1977.
18. "Discretionary Methodological Decisions in Applied Research," *Sociological Methods and Research* 5(3):317-334, 1977.
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**Exhibit B**

Report on "A Survey of the Status of Equality in Public Education in California --- A  
Survey of a Cross-Section of Public School Teachers"

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I. Introduction

I was asked by the attorneys for the defendants to review for scientific and statistical credibility the study conducted by Louis Harris Organization, "A Survey of the Status of Equality in Public Education in California --- A Survey of a Cross-Section of Public School Teachers." I was also asked to review claims made by plaintiffs' experts based on the Harris study. To undertake this task, I examined the following materials.

1. "A Survey of the Status of Equality in Public Education in California --- A Survey of a Cross-Section of Public School Teachers" (March, 2002)
2. The "Final Version" of the questionnaire on which the Harris study was based, dated January 2002.
3. The data from the Harris study.
4. The First Amended Claim for Injunctive and Declaratory Relief.
5. Plaintiffs' Liability Disclosure Statement.
6. Expert Report from Robert Corley
7. Expert Report from Glen I Earthman

8. Expert Report from Ross Mitchell
9. Expert Report from Michelle Fine
10. "Access to Textbooks, Instructional Materials, Equipment and Technology: Inadequacy and Inequality in California's Public Schools." Jeannie Oakes.
11. "Education Inadequacy, Inequality, and Failed State Policy: A Synthesis of Expert Reports Prepared for Williams v. State of California, Jeannie Oakes.
12. Untitled document from Jeannie Oakes.
13. *Survey Costs and Survey Errors*, Robert M. Groves, John Wiley, 1989.
14. *Sampling* (second edition), Steven K. Thompson, John Wiley, 2002.

## II. Purpose of the Harris Study

The purpose of the Harris study is clear. At the top of the first page of the Executive Summary we are told that the goal of the study is to "find out what the public school system is providing" to its students. These students attend public schools in California, and in the first summary table we find projections to all "California public school students." Just below the table we are told that table's figures are "results of a sample of overall state-wide results." The text that follows in the Executive Summary and in the body of report further underscores that the findings are meant to apply to all students and all schools in California at the time the study was conducted. In more formal language, the population would seem to be all students in all schools in California in 2002. Then, the report is essentially a needs assessment of what the Harris study calls "key ingredients essential for children to learn ...".

### III. Achieving the Harris Study Goals

A useful way to begin an evaluation of the statistical and scientific credibility of a study is to describe what an ideal study might entail. The ideal serves as an important benchmark. In this case, an ideal study to achieve the goals of the Harris report would be to collect data from the full set of schools in California. With respect to the schools being studied, there would be no sampling, and no risk of sampling error; both systematic and random sampling error would be eliminated.

Then, to each one would send "auditors," who had the expertise to document the "key ingredients" of concern. Auditors could actually examine the plumbing in the bathrooms, the performance of the air conditioners, the availability of textbooks, and other features of the educational infrastructure. They could also examine school records to document teacher turnover, the credentials and experience of teachers, and reports of rodents, leaks, broken pipes and the like. While no system of measurement could ever be perfect, one would have access to primary data with two powerful assets: proximity to the features of interest and transparency of the measurement process. For example, to see if the air conditioning works, one could try to turn it on. This measurement is proximate because it addresses directly what is of interest, and it is transparent because it comports with common sense. A similar logic would apply a wide variety of the "key ingredients" that the Harris report discusses.

Finally, a study of all California schools conducted by knowledgeable auditors would have the additional asset of being easily understood. Because there would be no sampling

(and therefore no random sampling error), there would be no need to talk about confidence intervals and statistical tests. Because the measurement process would be proximate and transparent, the tabulations reported could, at least in principle, be taken at face value. A reader of the report could easily understand a statement like "on the day auditors visited each school, X% of the toilets did not flush," or that "Y% of the students did not have textbooks."

It is important to stress that for the ideal study one requires both on-site, systematic auditing and data collection from the population of schools in California. Auditing a convenience sample of schools on a hit and miss basis will not do. Thus, Robert Corley's observations do not qualify.

#### IV. What the Harris Study Actually Did

It is clear that the Harris study is a very long way from this ideal. First, the data do not come from auditors who systematically assessed each school's educational "ingredients," but from teachers asked to provide broad, subjective generalizations about various features of their school's infrastructure and learning environment. At the very least, proximity and transparency are sacrificed. Second, the manner in which these data are analyzed and reported is highly misleading and contradicts sound statistical practice. The study's conclusions do not follow from the data. Third, the data come from a subset of teachers in California for a subset schools. Thus, there is substantial sampling error to deal with. And the manner in which the sampling was done leads to both random

sampling error and systematic sampling error. Then, efforts after the fact to remove the bias produced by the systematic sampling error are inadequate. Now the details.

### Measurement of Teacher, School and Classroom Attributes

Surveys commonly try to elicit three kinds of information.

1. Surveys can elicit respondents' opinions and/or attitudes. There are no facts external to the responses that are of interest. A public opinion poll taken to determine, for instance, whether respondents favor or oppose affirmative action is an illustration. A given respondent can be for affirmative action, against affirmative action, or perhaps be unsure one way or the other. There is no right or wrong answer.
2. Surveys can elicit from respondents facts about themselves. For example, it is common in marketing surveys to ask about respondents' "demographics." The assumption is that there are correct and incorrect answers and that respondents are willing and able to provide the correct ones. Household income is one illustration.
3. Surveys can elicit from respondents facts about other people (e.g., their bosses), collections of people (e.g., their families), or institutions of various kinds (e.g., their places of work). As such, respondents are being used as *informants*. The purpose of the survey is to use respondents to collect facts not otherwise more easily and/or accurately obtained. Once again, the assumption is that there are correct and incorrect answers and that respondents are willing and able to provide



the correct ones. One implication is that if one has access to several informants, each knowledgeable about the same fact, there should be virtual unanimity in the information elicited. For example, if one informant says it is raining and another says it is not, and if there is no other information, the fact of the matter remains unknown.

The key questions in the Harris survey were an effort to elicit facts. Sometimes, the facts were about the respondent (e.g., "What subjects do you teach?"). Sometimes the facts were about the respondent's classroom (e.g., "... During the past year was your classroom uncomfortably hot or cold, or not?"). And sometimes the facts were about the school as a whole (e.g., "Are the student bathrooms in your school clean and open for student use throughout the day, or not?").

For each of kind of question, one must be convinced that every respondent knows the correct answer and is able to provide it. And in the first place, that depends on asking clear questions able to call forth accurate information. In fact, many of the questions in the Harris study are vaguely worded so that it is not apparent what fact is being sought. Consider first questions about the school as a whole.

What does it mean to ask if a classroom is "uncomfortably" hot or cold during the past year? For whom? When? How often? What is the fact that is being sought? What does it mean to ask "Are the student bathrooms in your school clean and open for student use throughout the day, or not." Who defines clean? Which day? All the time? And what does it mean to ask "Have you seen evidence that cockroaches, rats, and mice have been

a problem in your school over the past year, or not." What does either a "yes" or "no" convey about whether at any time there really was a problem in the school with cockroaches, rats, or mice? Questions such as these at best elicit a teacher's subjective assessment. The relationship between that assessment and the facts is unknown.

But the problem goes deeper. For questions such as these, well-meaning respondents will often disagree. Then what? What can be learned about the facts when the individuals polled say different things?

For the Harris study, it is possible to gain some insight about how common the disagreements were. By happenstance, teachers were selected so that for about 100 schools, there were two or more respondents for each. For questions about the school as a whole, Figures 1 and 2 show the percentage of time there was disagreements between the teachers at the same school. For Figure 1, the questions have five response categories: "Excellent," "Good," "Only fair," "Poor," "Not sure." The analysis was conducted excluding all "Not sure" responses. This lowers the estimated amount of disagreement, but the disagreement reported reflects firmly held positions. For Figure 2, the questions have three response categories (e.g., "Are clean And open," "Are not," and "Not sure"), and again, the "Not sure" response is excluded from the analysis.

In Figure 1, we see that about two-thirds of the time when it is possible to check, teachers disagree about the facts for their school. For example, about 63% of the time there was disagreement between teachers about the "The adequacy of physical facilities in your school." Of course, this is not surprising given that the responses are each teacher's

subjective assessment. In Figure 2, about one-third of the time there is disagreement. For example, about 28% of the time teachers disagree about whether there is evidence of cockroaches, rats, or mice. Because this too is a subjective assessment, disagreements are to be expected.

What is one to make of disagreements? Suppose that in a given school one teacher says that the bathrooms "are clean and open" and another says they "Are not." To simply state that in this particular school 50% of the teachers say the bathrooms are not clean fosters a very misleading inference. First, the sample of two respondents is so small that conventional confidence intervals based on simple random sampling cover the entire range from 0% to 100%. The story for samples fewer than six are all about the same and in this study, no school has more than five respondents.

Second, common sense indicates that if one teacher says one thing and another teacher says the opposite, no credible conclusions can be drawn about the bathrooms. Whatever the facts happen to be, there is no agreement about them. And the problem generalizes. Suppose there are four respondents for a given school, and the split is three saying the bathrooms are clean and open and one saying they are not. It would be misleading to simply say that 25% of the teachers in that school said the bathroom were not clean and open without also saying 1) that under simple random sampling the confidence interval covers most of the range between 0% and 100% and 2) the strong majority of teachers in that school actually said the bathrooms were clean and open.

Three conclusions follow. If samples of appropriate size had been collected from each school included in the study, there would have to be overwhelming evidence of substantial differences on the facts. Second, given the small sample actually collected school-by-school, the results from each school are far too unreliable to be taken seriously. Third, when there is disagreement, it is necessarily very unclear what conclusions to draw about the facts. What does it mean if half the teachers in a school say one thing and half say another? Or what does it mean if a third of the teachers in a school say one thing and two-thirds say another? Any attempt to arrive at the facts from an opinion poll of teachers requires a measurement model linking the facts to the teachers' responses. Not only is there no measurement model in the Harris analysis, the entire problem of disagreements within schools is swept under the rug. This violates sound statistical practice and the scientific requirement of honest reporting.

These difficulties are carried along when conclusions are drawn about all California schools, and new problems result. Suppose there actually was a rule allowing one to make inferences about the facts from a vote of observers. For simplicity, assume that there are two response categories, and we adopt the voting rule that the response with the greatest number of votes (i.e., the mode) is taken as the best estimate of the truth. While this is certainly not the only voting rule possible, it has some justification as the "best bet" if teachers are able to convey the true situation, except for some random noise. More complicated voting rules can be formulated using a different response model if there is good reason to adopt it. Suppose, for example, teachers see the survey as a way to lobby for more resources; that is, teachers are inclined to emphasize problems with the schools.

In this case, the votes implying problems within schools might be discounted substantially.

Now, assume for simplicity there are only three schools in California with three respondents in each. Also assume that the Harris survey shows that in each of the schools, two of the three respondents say the bathrooms in their school are clean and open. By our simple voting rule, the best guess for each school is that the bathrooms are clean and open; that is what the majority says.

The Harris analysis would produce a different conclusion. Averaging over all teachers *without respect to school*, 33% say that the bathrooms are not clean and open. But it does *not* logically follow that one school in three has bathrooms that are not clean and open. Nor does it logically follow that 33% of the students in those three schools have bathrooms that are not clean an open. These conclusions, derived from averaging over all teachers without respect to their school, represent fundamental and misleading errors, and just the kinds of errors that follow for the way the analysis was conducted in the Harris study. Moreover, a general outcome of these errors is to overestimate problems in the public schools.

Consider as examples three questions from the Harris study. One asked about instructional materials, a second asked about available technology, and a third asked about the bathrooms. Consistent with the Harris analysis strategy, the responses to the first two questions were collapsed so that "Excellent" and "good" were considered

"satisfactory" with "Only fair," and "Poor" considered "unsatisfactory." For Ninety-nine schools there was more than one respondent, for a total of 214 respondents overall.

The answers to these three questions can be analyzed in two ways: 1) as in the Harris study averaging over teachers or b) first characterizing a school by majority vote and then averaging over schools. For the instructional materials question, about 18% of the teachers felt the materials were unsatisfactory while only about 2% of the schools had unsatisfactory materials. For available technology, about 37% of the teachers felt that the availability technology was unsatisfactory while only about 21% of the schools had unsatisfactory available technology. For the school bathrooms, about 16% of the teachers said the bathrooms were unsatisfactory while about 7% of the schools had unsatisfactory bathrooms.<sup>1</sup>

It is clear from these three questions how the incorrect form of analysis used in the Harris study can overestimate problems in the schools. And the overestimates are substantial. Here, the overestimates range from 180% to 900%.

In short, one cannot try to establish facts from an opinion poll without having a rule by which a credible estimate of the facts is determined. And then once that rule is determined, it cannot be ignored when aggregate statistics are computed. In the Harris study, no voting rule was employed. There is no logical way, therefore, to get from teachers' subjective opinions to the truth of the matter. However, using a reasonable

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<sup>1</sup> When at the school level there was a tie, that school was treated as being satisfactory for purposes of this analysis. The analysis averaging over teachers was about the same whether or no the "Not sure" responses were included in the denominator. At the level of the school, the majority vote rule was applied including "Not sure" as a response.

voting rule, the Harris analysis can lead to substantial overestimates of the problems reported in schools.

Even when there is no disagreement within schools, the Harris style of analysis can be terribly misleading. Again suppose that there are 3 schools in the State. The survey data by school are as follows.

1. School A: 1 respondent who says the bathrooms are fine.
2. School B: 1 respondent who says that the bathrooms are fine.
3. School C: 3 respondents who say that the bathrooms are not fine.

In 67% (two-thirds) of the schools, the teachers say that the bathrooms are fine. But 60% (three-fifths) of the teachers say the bathrooms are not fine. If one were to take the survey data seriously, the truth is that the majority of schools in the state are not having problems with their bathrooms. Yet, under the Harris reporting system, one is given the impression that the majority of schools are in fact having problems with their bathrooms. The apparent contradiction could be resolved by proper weighting of the teachers, but there is no evidence that the weights used actually did this.

The errors just discussed affect as well teachers' assessments of their own classrooms and teaching materials. There are, for example, several questions about the quality and physical condition of textbooks. Thus, one question is "How would you rate your textbooks on giving students up-to-date information?" The response choices are

"Excellent", "Good", "Only Fair", "Poor", and "Not sure." Might it not have been more direct for an auditor to determine the publication date of the book?

But if one is to rely on teachers' subjective ratings, what can one to make of what the teachers say? At the college level, I have routinely been part of conversations with faculty evaluating introductory statistics textbooks, all of which are adequate. Yet, one faculty member will judge a given book as "poor" while another faculty member will judge that same book as "excellent."

The point is that for these kinds of subjective judgments, disagreements are to be expected. And then, it is not clear what to do with the results. Unfortunately, one cannot tell from the Harris data which teachers are rating the same textbooks, so there seems to be no way to document disagreement. This is a pity because disagreements would almost certainly surface about textbooks and any number of others. And the real question, never addressed, is how the ratings of textbooks given by teachers translate into how well students learn. In short, while there would be significant disagreements between teachers about the facts for their own classrooms, there is no way explore that with the Harris data.

To summarize, the survey questions used in the Harris study are meant to elicit teachers' subjective generalizations about their teaching environment. While this might make some sense for a study of, say, teacher morale, it makes little sense if the goal is to learn about the quality of key educational ingredients. Likewise, while the statistical analysis of those questions might appear to have clear meaning, that meaning disappears upon close inspection.



## Sampling

If the goal is to project from the sample of teachers to all schools in California, and by implication, all students in California, one requires a probability sampling of teachers from that population.

Probability sampling is desirable for three reasons. First, it provides a formal and scientifically valid vehicle for projections from a sample to the population from which it was selected. Second, it provides a formal and scientifically valid way to estimate the uncertainty in such projections. Third, probability samples pass the "sniff test" in that the selection is undertaken with procedures that are absolutely neutral with respect to the issues at hand. That is, there are no grounds for suspicion that the sample was chosen in a manner that favors any particular set of facts. Without probability sampling, all three desirable attributes are lost. And they can be lost because of an inappropriate study design or because a design is poorly implemented.

The data come from three samples purchased from Market Data Retrieval Inc. (MDR). The Harris report describes the samples as follows.

"**Calhome.** A random sample of names and home phone numbers of teachers in MDR's database for California public school teachers..."

"**Caltech.** A random sample of names and school phone number of teachers in MDR's database for California public school teachers.

"**Calholo.** "A random sample of names and school number of teachers in MDR's database for California public school teachers residing in the lower income census tracks" [sic].

The sampling procedures described in the Harris study raise a number of important issues. First, how are the MDR lists constructed? Who is on and who is not? Without such information it is impossible to know what biases may have been introduced by the sampling frame, even before sampling was initiated.

Second, cooperation rates, not response rates, are reported. By common statistical practice, the cooperation rate is "the ratio of completed interviews to all contacted cases capable of being interviewed" (Groves (1989: 141). This seems to be consistent with the calculations in the Harris report, which are presumably meant to convey that no significant biases were introduced because only a subset of people contacted completed interviews. From the appendix of the report, we learn that the cooperation rate for the Calhome sample is 61%, the cooperation rate for the Calholo sample is 72%, and the cooperation rate for the Caltech sample is 84%. These figures are taken to be acceptable by the Harris analysts.

But according to conventional standards "the most universally endorsed" calculation of the possible biases from non-response is the response rate Groves (1989: 141), which

adds to the denominator of the cooperation rate the number of no-contacts, and other potential contacts not made. When this definition is applied to Harris survey, the response rate for the Calhome sample seems to be about 18%, the response rate for the Calholo sample seems to be about 25%, and the response rate for the Caltech sample seems to be about 18%. For high quality survey research with a great deal riding on the outcome, these response rates are disappointing. They are a clear signal that serious biases could well be present in the study regardless of the quality of the MDR sampling frames.

Even if there are no problems with the MDR sampling frames, the low response rates also undermine any attempts to construct meaningful confidence intervals and tests. The low response rates likely degrade the probability sample beyond recognition and likely invalidate all statistical inference.

Is there a way to fix the problems with the sample after the fact? The Harris study proceeds as if it can be done. Comparisons are made between 1) distributions for some key characteristics of the three samples and 2) distributions for these same characteristics in the population of teachers, as reported in statewide figures apparently available from the California Department of Education. The reported figures from the two sources are much alike, which is taken as evidence that the sample is representative. Nevertheless, before the reported analyses were undertaken, the data were weighted to still better match up to available statewide figures (See the Harris report technical appendix).

However, weighting of this sort will at best achieve comparability only on the variables used in the weighting. According to the Harris report technical appendix, these variables are gender, ethnicity (i.e. Latino v. Anglo), kind of school (i.e. elementary school, middle school, and high schools), and poverty (i.e., the proportion of LEP students in each school, and the proportion of children eligible for free/reduced meals in each school).

Clearly, there are a host of variables for which weighting was not undertaken, and these could severely bias the results: teacher seniority, teacher ethnicity, size of the school, ethnicity of the students beyond Latino v. Anglo, school drop out rates, crime rates in the surrounding neighborhoods, and so on. For example, even after the weighting, we do not know if teachers in smaller schools from rural areas are underrepresented or if teachers near retirement are overrepresented. But perhaps more important than the variables for which in principle weighting could be done, are any number of variables representing a teacher's views on the issues for which weighting is effectively impossible. In particular, when there are low response rates, survey researchers rightly worry that the mix of completed interviews will substantially over represent respondents who have a particular axe to grind. These are the respondents who will be more inclined to agree to be interviewed and then more likely to complete the interview. In the Harris study, one obvious risk is that the completed interview will over represent the teachers who are highly motivated to lobby for more resources, who are strongly critical of the education infrastructure in their classrooms and schools, or who have grievances against their local schools.

### Data Analysis

The tabulations reported are relatively straightforward, even with the weighting. But how to combine data from the three samples in those tabulations is not straightforward, nor is how to calculate confidence intervals and tests of statistical significance.

Even if one ignores the serious problem with low response rates, the study *by design* over samples for teachers living in low-income census tracts. Recall that the Calhoun sample is designed to reach teachers residing in low-income census tracts. When analyses are undertaken with the full set of data, all of the observations must be properly weighted to represent the true mix of teachers. In effect, the responses of teachers living in low-income census tracts need to be given relatively less weight than the responses of teachers living elsewhere. But how much less? The poverty measures used in the weighting are the proportion of LEP students and the proportion of students eligible for free or reduce price meals. For the weighting to work, these two variables must be very closely related to the income levels in census tracts where teachers reside. A key assumption is that teachers, by and large, live very close to where they work. In fact, one learns from the Harris report that in previous research using a similar design, a substantial fraction of the teachers living in low-income census tracts did not teach in schools serving low-income students (Technical Appendix). Moreover, by over sampling teachers living in low-income census tracts, the study is also over sampling for variety of other attributes common among such teachers. These might include being in a single earner household, having a lower income (because of less seniority) and various ideological predispositions. In short, the weights used to compensate for the overrepresentation of teachers living in low-income census tracts are almost certainly not getting the job done.

The result is bias in the findings reported; the views of teachers living in low-income census tracts are likely to be overrepresented.

More subtle are the potential biases introduced by combining the Calhome samples and Caltech samples without explicit weights to accurately represent the population of teachers in California. One would need to know the probability that each teacher in California would appear on either (or both) of the MDR lists. Without this information, proper weights cannot be constructed. And without proper weights for these two samples, generalizations from the data to all teachers in the State risk serious biases

As noted above, at least as problematic are the confidence intervals (and margins of error) reported in the Harris study. These depend on proper calculations of the standard errors (Thompson, 2002). The Harris report does not explain how the standard errors were computed, but it is likely that they are substantially wrong.

1. Given the disagreements between teachers in the same school, there is within school variance that must be taken into account. Alternatively, the within school variance may be viewed as random measurement error. In either case, this additional source of uncertainty was ignored and the reported margins of error are too small. There is less precision in the estimates than is reported.
2. When analyses are undertaken for subsets of respondents (e.g., when the "Not sure" response is dropped from the analysis), the sample size for that analysis becomes a random variable and another source of uncertainty. Conventional

expressions for the standard errors, based on a fixed sample size, are incorrect.

Again, false precision results.

3. The low response rate leads to substantial violation of the assumption of random sampling. As a result, the computed standard errors, and everything that uses them, are essentially nonsense.

#### V. Comparisons between Different Kinds of Schools

The Harris report makes a great deal out of comparisons between schools characterized by students' income levels and ethnicities, operationalized as an "Index of Risk." Estimates are provided, for example, about how much worse off across California the students in the highest risk schools are compared to students in the lowest risk schools. While one can certainly quarrel with the way "risk" is measured, the litany of problems already discussed make the risk index moot. If it is impossible to place any credence in the estimates for all schools, it is ridiculous to make something out of comparisons across different kinds of schools.

#### VI. Reliance upon the Harris Study by the Plaintiffs' Experts

It is clear that several of the Plaintiffs' key experts rely on the Harris study. In particular, Professor Oakes in her synthesis of the Plaintiffs' expert reports frequently and at length cites the Harris findings (e.g., on page 19, 21, 22, 22, 24, and 25). Professor Oakes relies on these findings uncritically when in fact the study is badly flawed. Moreover, it is clear from Professor Oakes's deposition that while she had little grasp of the technical aspects

of the Harris report, she makes pronouncements from it nevertheless (See, for example, pages 751-779).

## VII. Conclusions

There are surely schools in California whose educational infrastructure is unsatisfactory. And just as surely, many of those schools are in low-income areas. But, the Harris study adds nothing credible to these observations. Indeed, the systematic provision of misinformation is a disservice. If the goal is to estimate the number of California students statewide who are being served inadequately by the public schools, the study fails. If the goal is to single out particular features of schools across the State that are in particular need of improvement, the study fails. And if the goal is to estimate with any real precision disparities in the distribution of education resources, the study fails.

There remain several issues about the Harris study that are still being explored, in part because some depositions from the Plaintiffs' experts have yet to be taken. When this additional information becomes available, the views expressed above may change.



# Percentage of Time Respondents Disagreed about Conditions at the Same School

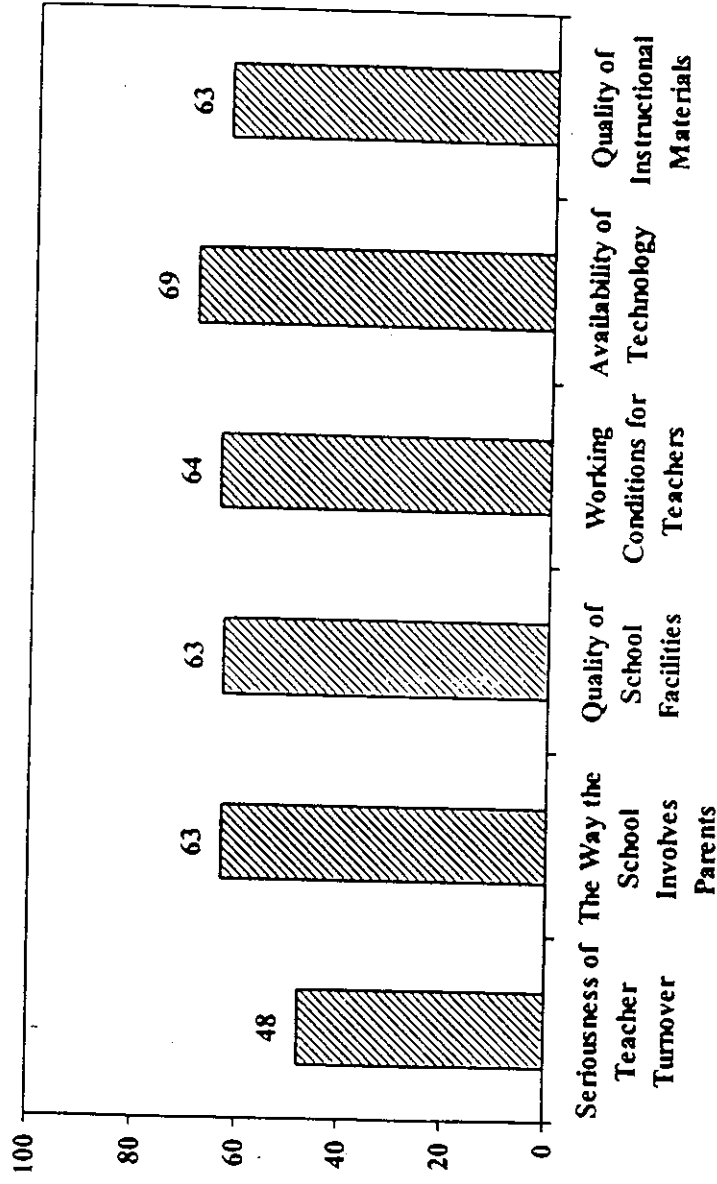


Figure 1

# Percentage of Time Respondents Disagreed about Conditions at the Same School

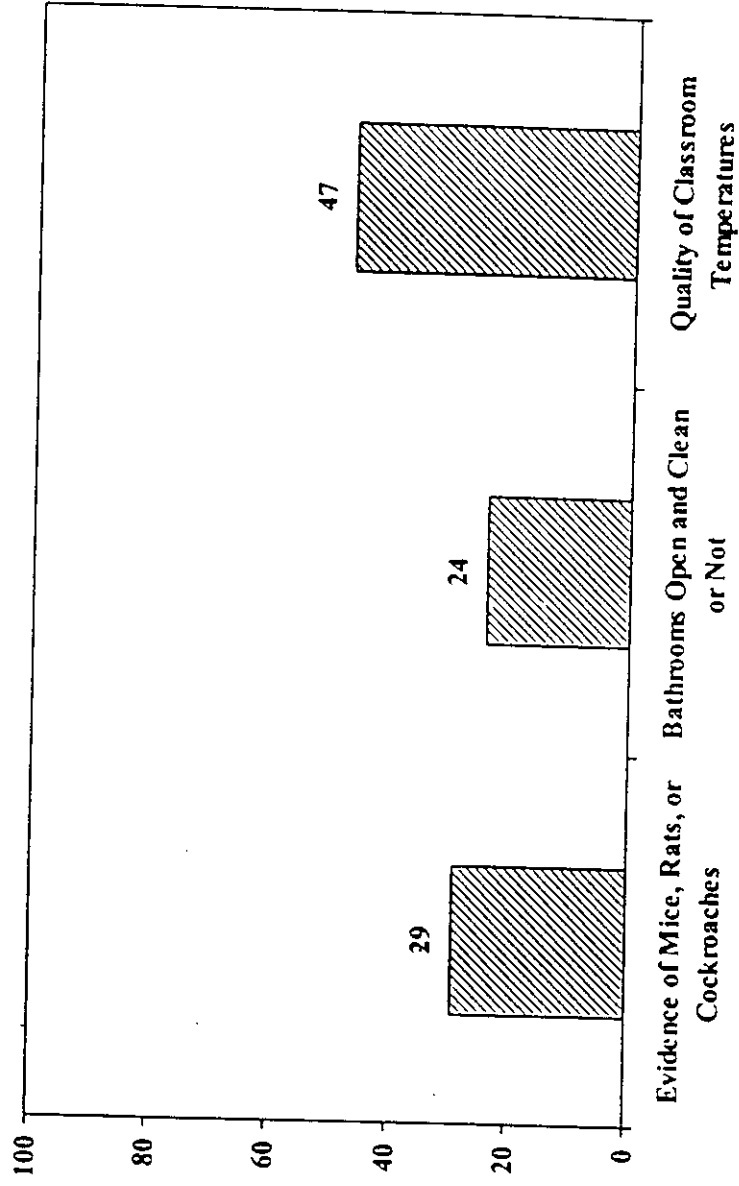


Figure 2