A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF A BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM VERSUS

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) PROGRAM:

A STUDY OF TWO PROGRAMS

A Doctoral Thesis Presented to the
Faculty of the College of Education
University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education
in Professional Leadership

by

Hedith Sauceda-Upshaw

December 2015

A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF A BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM VERSUS

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) PROGRAM:

A STUDY OF TWO PROGRAMS

A Doctoral Thesis for the Degree

Doctor of Education

by

Hedith Sauceda-Upshaw

Approved by Doctoral Thesis Committee:

_____
Dr. Angus MacNeil, Chairperson

_____
Dr. Robert Borneman, Co-Chairperson

_____
Dr. Wayne Emerson, Committee Member

_____
Dr. Don Stockton, Committee Member

                                  _____
                                  Dr. Robert McPherson, Dean
                                  College of Education

December 2015

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is an honor and great privilege to graduate from the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies. It has been a pleasure to study, work with, and learn alongside a great group of educational leaders. To the various professors within the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies, I thank you for delivering a quality curriculum and learning experience. It is through your hard work with us, as students, that we will have a better world of education tomorrow.

I would like to thank my committee for guiding me throughout this process, especially Dr. Angus MacNeil, Dr. Wayne Emerson, and Dr. Don Stockton. I would especially like to acknowledge my chairperson, Dr. Robert Borneman. Your encouragement and continuous assistance throughout this journey have made this lifetime opportunity possible. You kept me focused and gave me unconditional support when I needed it the most. Thank you for your leadership and contributions to the field of education. I am forever grateful to you.

Thank you to Conroe ISD for allowing me to complete my study and a special thanks to Dr. Chris Hines and Dr. Jean Stewart for guiding me through this process. To Dr. Don Stockton, a special thanks for serving on my committee. Thank you for believing in me and giving me the opportunity to work for our great school district. Your leadership is one to be admired. To my mentors Dr. Cathy Gibson, Dr. Curtis Null, Dr. Kathy Sharples, and Mrs. Gale Drummond, thank you for giving me the opportunity to serve in several capacities within our school district to assist in the education of our students as well as our district instructional leaders. I appreciate your patience, encouragement, and confidence in making this accomplishment possible.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this work to my parents, Olegario and Hermina Sauceda, who have given me life and instilled in me high ideals, values, and a respect for dedication and hard work ethic for whatever you choose to do in life. It is because of their sacrifices, that I have been given this opportunity to make this dream a reality. To my father, "Ole", who led a household silently behind the scenes, worked tirelessly to provide for his family, and taught his two daughters to create a life with meaning, thank you dad for making it a priority to ask me for the past two years about this journey and for encouraging me to keep working hard even when I felt that I could not get it done. To my mother, "Mina", thank you for keeping me grounded through this process and reminding me that with faith in our God, all things are possible.

To my husband, my love, Ethan Upshaw, I am who I am and where I am in my career because of your unconditional love and support. You have helped me grow up through the years and always offered a lending ear when I needed another perspective or an outlet. I am forever grateful for your encouragement and assurance. You are the best partner in life that I could ever wish for. Thank you for all those months and nights you led our household as a single parent while I was attending school and took countless weekends off from our family to research, study, and write. You are as deserving of this achievement as I am.

To the best accomplishment that I will ever have in my life, my twin boys, Jacob Brian and Joshua Clay, although you are too young to understand this journey, I am thankful to you for being my daily inspiration to make the world of education a better place for not only you but for others. Thank you for loving me and giving me the

greatest privilege in life of being your mother. May you dream big and do all things

through a life of service.

A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF A BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM VERSUS

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) PROGRAM:

A STUDY OF TWO PROGRAMS

An Abstract

of a Doctoral Thesis Presented to the

Faculty of the College of Education

University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

in Professional Leadership

by

Hedith Sauceda-Upshaw

December 2015

Sauceda-Upshaw, H. "A Longitudinal Study of a Bilingual Education Program Versus English as a Second Language (ESL) Education Program: A Study of Two Programs." Unpublished Doctoral Thesis, University of Houston, December 2015.

ABSTRACT

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) holds every state, district, and school accountable for students' academic progress. It has also revealed the extent to which schools have failed non-English-speaking students by requiring states and districts for the first time to disaggregate their reading and math scores on annual assessments. The large achievement gap has moved educators, scholars, and policymakers to try urgently to reverse decades of neglect, and the scale of the challenge is growing exponentially (Russakoff, 2011). According to Russakoff (2011), "How to teach academic English is a growing focus of research, but there is insufficient evidence to determine which approach best raises student achievement" (p. 3).

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a bilingual program versus an English as a Second Language (ESL) program as measured by the State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR). This study examined the academic achievement of 86 non-mobile, economically disadvantaged Hispanic students who were currently or previously identified as limited English proficient and were enrolled in either the content-based English as a Second language program or the English Language Acquisition Model of bilingual education. A paired samples *t*-test was conducted for each year of data to compare the two groups' raw scores on the STAAR in the area of reading. Additionally, Pearson chi-square procedures were conducted to determine whether a statistically

significant difference was present in the percentage of students who met the Satisfactory, Commended, or Advanced Performance standard by the type of ELL program in which they were enrolled.

The findings revealed the academic outcomes of the students enrolled in the content-based English as a Second Language program and the English Language Acquisition Model of bilingual education and served as information for the district as to which program model was more beneficial for the instruction of English language learners. A statistically significant difference was present in the STAAR Reading scores between students enrolled in the Bilingual program and students enrolled in an ESL program for the three years in which the measure was applied. Students in the ESL program outperformed students in the Bilingual program. In addition, though not statistically significantly different, more students in the ESL program met the Satisfactory, Commended, and Advanced Performance standard than did students in the Bilingual Education Program for the three years evaluated.

A second purpose was to survey campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to examine the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program as well as to examine the teacher beliefs of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field. The data collected for campus administrators indicated a value of native language instruction support, however, a more favorable support for English language. Teacher survey responses indicated a favorable response for the bilingual program's use to assist in the transitioning of the native language knowledge to the secondary language of English and a support for the ESL

program's ability to provide necessary support in the process of learning the English

language.

Furthermore, the study found that the majority of teachers did find the staff

developing favorably and believed there was benefit to the staff development offerings in

the district; however, not all teachers felt that it assisted them in the classroom with their

ELL students. The data collected in this study for parents of the student participants,

indicated that the program was beneficial, Spanish spoken in the home was supported,

and native language was not lost.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter I

Introduction

The presence of English language learners (ELLs) in American public schools has been an important diversity challenge (Verdugo & Flores, 2007). Batalova, Flores, and Fix (2012) stated that about 5.3 million English language learners, students whose primary language is not English and whose English language skills are not sufficient to keep up with classes conducted only in English, are enrolled in PK–12 public schools across the United States. While ELL students around the nation speak more than 150 languages, Spanish is by far the most common home or first language, according to analysis of the Census Bureau's 2009 American Community Survey (Batalova & McHugh, 2010). As this population continues to swell, the achievement gap between ELLs and their non-ELL peers continues to widen (Herbert, 2012).

Lopez (2010) stated that one in nine of today's public school students faces the task of learning English. The educational success for ELL students can either transform ELLs into a more productive, multilingual workforce or higher levels of academic failure and dropouts. As the number of ELL students has grown over time, so have public awareness and policymakers' attention to their educational outcomes, increasing debate over the most effective methods of language instruction for ELLs. While Hispanic youths are among the most at-risk for academic failure with 22% dropping out of school, Hispanic ELLs are even more at-risk with 59% dropping out of school (Lopez, 2010). While research and national reports in the United States confirmed that Latino students, whether native English or Spanish speaking, were at risk of underachievement and school dropout, there was little information about various subgroups of Latinos to determine

who were not successful and why (Lindholm-Leary & Hernández, 2011). This concentration of students places a substantial responsibility on the nation's major urban school districts to ensure that these students succeed and their special needs are met because their skills and knowledge will form the backbone of much of America's future (Casserly et al., 2011).

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, the most recent comprehensive federal education policy, requires states to assess English language proficiency and holds them accountable for ensuring that ELLs both learn English and acquire academic knowledge as their English-speaking peers (Batalova et al., 2012). Although the challenges posed by ELL students are significant, it is less clear what strategies and programs educators can use to improve the educational experiences of this population. Much of the ambiguity is due to the lack of research and information, inappropriate educational policies, and the inability of educators to understand ELL students and their background (Verdugo & Flores, 2007). Among the reasons for the dire predictions is Texas' continuing failure to effectively educate its minority students, including the state's large and expanding English language learner population (Cortez & Villarreal, 2009).

Throughout the course of this study, the two programs that served the English language learners in a large suburban Texas school district were examined over a seven-year span. The information collected from the research will assist the school district in (a) determining each program's effectiveness, (b) identifying areas of professional development for teachers who teach ELLs, and (c) providing evidence of which second language program benefits our ELLs the most.

Background of the Study

In 1974, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in *Lau v. Nichols* that 1,800 Chinese-speaking children in the San Francisco public schools were entitled to English-language instruction or other support to help them understand what was happening in their classroom. Thirty-six years later, state and local responsibilities to public school children who do not speak proficient English fill an entire section of the federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act [ESEA] (Title III). However, it is a matter of serious national debate whether the vast apparatus born of *Lau* provides a "meaningful education" to the nation's now five million ELLs (Russakoff, 2011). The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) holds every state, district, and school accountable for students' academic progress. It has also revealed the extent to which schools have failed non-English-speaking students by requiring states and districts, for the first time, to disaggregate their reading and math scores on annual assessments. The large achievement gap has moved educators, scholars, and policymakers to try urgently to reverse decades of neglect, and the scale of the challenge is growing exponentially (Russakoff, 2011). Data from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) showed that Hispanic fourth graders read and do math at substantially lower levels than students who are not economically disadvantaged and students who speak English (Casserly et al., 2011).

In 2011, Texas had about 832,000 ELL students, second only to California, which had 1.1 million ELLs. Seventeen percent of all students in the state's PK–12 system were ELLs: more than twice their share in 1979 and 70% higher than the national share of ELL students in the K–12 student population (11%). In Texas, 85% of ELLs in grades K–5 and 59% of ELLs in grades 6 through 12 were born in the United States (Batalova et

al., 2012). Texas has a track record of responding to the educational needs of English

language learners that dates back five decades. Over the timespan, Texas has had some

mixed success in serving English language learners, which is not unique especially in its

elementary level programs. Much can be learned from the Texas ELL experience (Cortez

& Villarreal, 2009).

There are two broad program models for ELLs: (a) bilingual education or (b)

English as a Second Language (ESL). Within these categories, a variety of approaches

are used to teach English language skills and standards based-content. Bilingual

education programs utilize varying degrees of native-language instruction while the

student develops English-language proficiency. ESL Programs provide instruction using

English as a medium (Batalova, Fix, & Murray, 2007). Texas is a state in the midst of a

substantial demographic shift. The number of ELL students in Texas schools continues

to increase, and as such, is presenting a challenge to Texas educators (Golsan, 2013).

The district used throughout this study is currently the 14th largest in the state of

Texas and the 71st largest in the nation. Presently, the district serves approximately

55,000 students in grades Pre-K through 12, of which 6,933 are identified as limited

English proficient (LEP), which constitutes 12.6% of the current student enrollment.

According to the school district's Public Education Information Management System

(PEIMS), 75 languages are identified on the students' individual home language surveys

as the language spoken in the home. The district is required to provide a Spanish

bilingual education program, grades Pre-K through 6, of which 4,211 (7.7% of the

district's enrollment) participates. The remaining identified LEP students in grades Pre-

K through 12, 2,411 (4.4% of the district's enrollment) are served through a content-based ESL instructional program.

In accordance with the No Child Left Behind law, states are required to establish English language proficiency standards aligned to state academic content standards and to assess a report the English language proficiency of all ELLs on an annual basis. There are three measures, referred to as Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives (AMAOs). The first AMAO measures the annual increase in the number or percentage of students making progress in learning English. The second AMAO reports the annual increase in the number or percentage of students attaining English language proficiency by the end of the school year, and the third AMAO shows adequate yearly progress for the ELL subgroup in meeting grade-level academic achievement standards in English language arts and mathematics (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). In both the 2012–2013 and 2013–2014 school years, the district had not met AMAO indicator three of showing adequate yearly progress. During the 2012–2013 school year, the school district did not meet the safeguard measure of 75% on the STAAR assessment in the areas of writing, science, and social studies for students identified as English language learners. In addition, during the school year of 2013–2014, the district improved in the areas missed the year before; however, they did not meet the 79% safeguard measure for current and monitored ELLs in the areas of reading and math.

Due to the previous unsuccessful results in the bilingual education program in the district, a one-way dual language bilingual program model of instruction called the English Language Acquisition Model (ELA Model) was implemented during the 2007–

2008 school year to improve the overall performance of ELLs being served in the

district's bilingual education program. The implemented plan is illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1

English Language Acquisition Model (ELA Model)

Grade Level	Percentage of Spanish Instruction	Percentage of English Instruction	Year of Implementation
PK & K	50%	50%	2007–2008
1st & 2nd	50%	50%	2008–2009
2nd	40%	60%	2009–2010
3rd	40%	60%	2009–2010 (fall)
3rd	30%	70%	2009–2010 (spring)
4th	20%	80%	2010–2011
5th & 6th	10%	90%	2011–2012

The research in this study looked at the longitudinal achievement scores in

reading on the STAAR and how they differ among the students who participated in the

district's bilingual education program model compared to students who participated in

the ESL program. Student participants were identified as LEP, non-mobile, Hispanic,

and having Spanish identified as their native language on the district's home language

survey (HLS). In addition, the students examined in this study were students who

remained enrolled in the district and were currently enrolled in seventh grade for the

2013–2014 school year and members of the first cohort of the ELA Model or participated

in the district ESL program during 2007–2008. The results in this study will assist in the

analysis of inquiry to improved both the AMAO measures and adequate yearly progress

measure for the identified ELL population of the district.

Statement of the Problem

According to Russakoff (2011), "How to teach academic English is a growing focus of research, but there is insufficient evidence to determine which approach best raises student achievement" (p. 3). Meanwhile, the percentage of what educators call English language learners–the most expensive child to teach–has grown from 13% in 2001 to 16.2% in 2012, numbering about 838,000 according to the Texas Education Agency (TEA) (Golsan, 2013). In addition, Russakoff (2011) stated that, "National standards do not exist for identifying and placing ELLs in appropriate learning settings" (p. 6). Inconsistent placement practices pose serious consequences for young children who do not receive the needed support to acquire essential foundations in reading and math. Under the current system, a child receiving services in one state could be deemed proficient and ineligible for services in another, depending on which test, criteria, or cutoff score the state uses. There are also variations with some states and even within districts in the state (Russakoff, 2011).

Urban school districts educate a considerable percentage of both Hispanic students and ELLs. We realize that the future of our cities largely depends on how well we succeed in educating this burgeoning demographic group. The initiatives, policies, and programs implemented over the past few decades have been, for the most part, reactive, fragmented, and without strategic direction. It is imperative that Hispanic youth participate in rigorous instructional programs and have greater access to educational opportunities resulting in successful educational outcomes (Casserly et al., 2011). To begin with, there is no agreement about the best instructional programs for ELL students. In fact, there is considerable debate about whether language instruction should be English

based or provided in a student's native language (Verdugo & Flores, 2007). Research shows that native language instruction along with English in early grades significantly enhances reading achievement in English (Espinosa, 2008).

Texas bilingual programs, in which content subjects are taught in the student's native language, usually by a native speaker of that language, include transitional and dual immersion programs; ESL programs, which generally include some support to students in their native language while instruction is conducted in English, include content-based and pull-out programs (Batalova et al., 2012). In terms of Texas students' postsecondary trajectories, we find that Hispanic students whose parents opted to remove them from ELL classes were significantly less likely to go to college than their White counterparts, holding other factors constant (Batalova et al., 2012). In this study, a survey of parents of students who participated in a second language acquisition program, school administrators, and teachers was conducted to question their beliefs about which instructional programs they saw as most beneficial for the district's Hispanic ELL population.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists longitudinally, grades kindergarten through seventh grades between the reading achievements of students who participated in a bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR. This study examined the academic achievement of 86 non-mobile, economically disadvantaged, Hispanic students who were currently or previously identified as LEP and were enrolled in either the content-based English as a Second Language program or the English Language Acquisition Model of bilingual

education. A paired two-tailed *t*-test was used to compare the two groups' raw scores on the STAAR for each year administered from 2008–2014 in the area of reading.

Additionally, Pearson chi-square procedures were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference was present in the percentage of students who met the Satisfactory, Commended or Advanced Performance standard by the type of ELL program in which they were enrolled. The findings revealed the academic outcomes of the students enrolled in the content-based English as a Second Language program and the English Language Acquisition Model of bilingual education and will serve as information for the district as to which program model is more beneficial for the instruction of English language learners. A second purpose was to examine the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program by surveying campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students, as well as to examine the teacher beliefs of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.

This study will add to the literature on the challenges of the education of ELLs at state and national levels. Both the bilingual and ESL instructional programs were examined for their results in reading performance of students who participated or currently participate in each of the programs. It took into consideration the length of time the students spent in both programs and additionally the longitudinal benefits of offering native language support through the bilingual education program for students.

Significance of the Study

Generally, ELL students do not have access to the courses as mainstream students, and they tend to be taught by teachers who are not adequately trained and who

also tend to be less effective (Verdugo & Flores, 2007). It is almost inevitable that every

teacher across the nation will encounter an ELL student during his or her career if it has

not happened already (Herbert, 2012). However, only 35% of teachers of elementary-

school ELLs nationally participated in even one hour of related professional development

in the last year (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). According to the Government

Accountability Office (2009), states and teacher-preparation programs should require

prospective teachers to learn how to teach ELLs. The federal government should define

what constitutes a "highly qualified" teacher of ELLs, and only one in five teacher-

preparation programs in the U.S. includes a full course on teaching ELLs, while a

majority of programs include at least one course on teaching students with disabilities

(Government Accountability Office, 2009). Thirty-three states set standards for teachers

of ELLs, but only Arizona, California, Florida, and New York require all new teachers to

demonstrate competence in ELL instruction (Russakoff, 2011). According to Verdugo

and Flores (2007), there are not enough qualified teachers to teach ELL students. There

is a great need for certified language teachers who not only speak more than one

language but also are of the same race and ethnicity as the students they teach (Verdugo

& Flores, 2007).

This study is substantial for many reasons, specifically considering the amount of

ELLs in the nation and the State of Texas who are in the most need of quality instruction

and receive the least qualified teachers. ELLs will soon outnumber students with

disabilities nationally (Russakoff, 2011). In addition, Rance-Roney (2009) stated that,

"In many schools, the ELL specialist or ESL teacher goes at it alone" (p. 36). The ELL

classroom is viewed as the one-stop shop for all the needs of English language learners—

testing, translating, counseling, editing college applications, and even health care. Mainstream school personnel may abdicate responsibility for the needs of ELLs because they believe that the specialist understands these students better (Rance-Roney, 2011). Through this study, teachers in the district who teach students in both the bilingual education and ESL programs will participate in a survey that will evaluate their overall observations on the effectiveness of the district's programs for ELLs as well as provide feedback on the quality of the professional development offered by the district.

Research Questions

The central research questions posed by the researcher are as follow:

1. How do the reading achievement scores of students identified as Spanish speaking, non-mobile, Hispanic, and LEP differ between those who participate in a bilingual education program and those who participate in an ESL program as measured by STAAR?

2. What are the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program of parents of students identified as LEP who are currently served or have been served in a second language acquisition program?

3. What do campus principals believe are the benefits of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program?

4. What do district teachers who currently teach within these programs believe are the benefits of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program?

5. What do district teachers believe regarding the professional development offered by the district, specific to second language learners, among the district's teachers who teach ELL students?

Research Design

This study examined the reading performance of students who participated in or were participating in a bilingual education program or ESL program, were non-mobile Hispanic students currently or previously identified as LEP, and who were currently enrolled in seventh grade during the 2013–2014 academic school year. The performances of the students studied were narrowed down to the sampling size of 86 students within the district in the State of Texas located in the north area of Houston. Of the 86 students, 43 participated or currently participated in a bilingual education program and 43 participated or currently participated in an ESL education program. Students were matched on a one-to-one correspondence in accordance to the criteria outline in this study. The criteria included students enrolled in kindergarten during the 2007–2008 school year, identified as LEP, identified as participating in a bilingual or ESL program, identified as Hispanic, enrolled in the school district in seventh grade during the 2013–2014 school year, identified as non-mobile, SES or non-SES, retained or not retained, and identified as Special Education or non-Special Education. The purpose of the data was to compare the effectiveness of the schools district's bilingual education program versus the English as a Second Language (ESL) program. The data sources used for the purpose of this study included the STAAR and the results from the survey participants that included campus administrators, teachers, and parents of the LEP students identified in the study.

Assumption, Limitations, and Scope

Due to the use of the data gathered from a portion of the identified LEP student population within the school district and not the entire school district LEP population, this research may not be generalizable and therefore may not be considered by the school

district leadership stakeholders as a significant cause to implement the changes

recommended by the findings. Additionally, the lack of the evaluation of the fidelity of

the implementation of both the district's bilingual and ESL programs recommended best

practices and the lack of honesty of the subjects participating in the surveys were

considered as assumptions and limitations to this study.

According to Center for Health and Safety Culture (2011), questioning the

validity of survey data is often one of the first reactions when survey results are shared.

It is important first to recognize this response for what it may be: an immediate reaction

to information challenging someone's existing beliefs. In addition, the Center for Health

and Safety Culture (2011) stated that one way to avoid accepting the new information is

to simply choose to consider it as invalid. Nonetheless, it is important to be able to

understand and convey that the science behind collecting data through self-reporting

methods is valid and reliable.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, terminology and abbreviations utilized throughout

this study are identified and defined below.

Annual measure achievement objectives (AMAOs) – Under the Elementary

and Secondary Education Act, as reauthorized under the No Child Left Behind Act of

2001, local education agencies (LEAs) that receive Title III, Part A, funding for English

language acquisition programs are held accountable for their English language learners'

achievement in learning the English language (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2013a).

In the state of Texas, the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System

(TELPAS) is used to measure against the AMAOs. The achievement of each Title III-

funded LEA's ELL student population is measured against the state's achievement standards known as the Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives (AMAOs). According to the TEA (2013a), AMAO's Guide (TEA, 2013a), the Title III, Part A, accountability system includes three AMAOs for measuring student achievement as follows:

- AMAO 1, Progress – Measures how many of the LEA's ELLs have made progress in learning English; an ELL's progress is demonstrated with an increase of at least one overall proficiency level, when his/her current year's TELPAS Composite Rating is compared to that of the most recent prior year.

- AMAO 2, Attainment – Measures how many of the LEA's ELLs have become proficient in English; an ELL's attainment is demonstrated when the student receives a TELPAS Composite Rating of Advanced High.

- AMAO 3, ELL Accountability (System Safeguards) – Measures how many of the LEA's ELLs have met the performance and participation targets in Reading/English Language Arts and Mathematics as part of the state's student academic achievement standards.

Each LEA is required to meet all the AMAOs to receive an overall "met" standard.

Basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) – Simple communication and language skills needed to interact in social situations. BICS refers primarily to context-bound, face-to-face communication, like the language first learned by toddlers and preschoolers, which is used in everyday social interaction ("Psychology," n.d.).

Cognitive academic language proficiency skills (CALPS) – Formal academic language that is essential for students to be successful in school. This includes students

being able to listen, speak, read, and write about specific subject content material. Students performing at the CALP level of language are cognitively and academically more advanced in their language acquisition skills.

English language learner (ELL) – A school-aged student whose home language is not English and who has not yet acquired proficiency in English to succeed academically in school. The term is used interchangeably with limited-English proficient (LEP) in this study.

ELL progress measure – The Texas English Language Learner (ELL) Progress Measure provides year-to-year performance expectations on the State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) content-area assessments for Texas ELL students. The year-to-year STAAR expectations take into account the level of English language proficiency ELL students possess, thus providing a more meaningful gauge of annual improvement or progress for these students than the general STAAR Progress Measure (TEA, 2013c).

Hispanic – The term Hispanic and Latino are widely used interchangeably throughout educational literature; however, the term Hispanic has a narrower focus identifying individuals who come from Spanish-speaking native ancestry, while the term Latino is used to describe a group of people from Latin American origin or ancestry. Throughout this document, the term Hispanic is used to refer to a group of individuals who have Spanish-speaking backgrounds.

Limited English proficient (LEP) – The most commonly used term for school-aged students to describe an individual who is unable to communicate effectively in

English because their primary language is not English, and they have not developed

fluency in the English language. The law describes LEP as

> ages 3 to 21, enrolled in elementary or secondary education, often born outside
>
> the United States or speaking a language other than English in their homes, and
>
> not having sufficient mastery of English to meet state standards and excel in and
>
> English-language classroom. (NCLB Act, 2002)

A person with Limited English Proficiency may have difficulty speaking or reading

English. Both the terms limited-English proficient (LEP) and English Language Learner

(ELL) are used interchangeable throughout the study; however, the term English

Language Learner (ELL) is used more frequently due to its positive connotation.

L1 – An acronym used in educational literature to represent the native language

of a student. For the purpose of this study, Spanish is identified as the first language.

L2 – An acronym used in educational literature to represent the second language

that a student is acquiring. For the purpose of this study, English is the target second

language.

Performance-based monitoring assessment System (PBMAS) - A district-

level, data-driven monitoring system developed and implemented annually since 2004 by

Performance-Based Monitoring (PBM) staff in coordination with other TEA divisions

and departments (TEA, 2013b). PBMAS is used by TEA as one part of its annual

evaluation of school districts' performance and program effectiveness.

State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) – The STAAR

test represents the fifth generation of the state of Texas' legislatively mandated

assessments instruments. In spring 2012, the STAAR replaced the TAKS. The STAAR

program includes annual assessments for grades 3–8 in reading and mathematics;

assessments in writing at grades 4 and 7; in science at grades 5 and 8; and in social

studies at grade 8; and end-of-course assessments for English I, English II, Algebra I,

biology, and U.S. History (TEA, 2014a). STAAR is a more rigorous testing program. It

emphasizes "readiness" standards, which are the knowledge and skills that are considered

most important for success in the grade or course subject that follows and for college and

career readiness (TEA, 2014a). The STAAR test continues to measure the teaching of

the state-mandated curriculum, the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS).

Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS) –The

TELPAS is designed to assess the progress that limited English proficient (LEP) students

make in learning the English language (TEA, 2014b). TELPAS assessments for English

language proficiency assessments in grades K–12 are federally required to evaluate the

progress that ELLs make in becoming proficient in the use of academic English (TEA,

2011). TELPAS is administered on an annual basis to students identified as LEP and

assesses the growth or lack thereof in the student's individual English language

proficiency in the following four language domains—listening, speaking, reading, and

writing. As stated in the TEA Educator's Guide for TELPAS (TEA, 2011), the

assessment components for grades K–1 and 2–12 differ in the following ways:

- Grades K–1: TELPAS includes holistically rated listening, speaking, reading, and writing assessments based on ongoing classroom observations and student interactions.

- Grades 2–12: TELPAS includes multiple-choice reading tests, holistically rated student writing collections, and holistically rated listening and speaking

assessments. The listening and speaking assessments are based on ongoing

classroom observations and student interactions.

The TELPAS system has been in place in the state of Texas since the 2003–2004 school

year.

Summary

The true measure of a program for ELLs is not the results of an assessment while

they are classified as ELL or LEP, because by definition they are not at a proficient level,

but rather their results after they have reached the fluent level. If a program has been

effective for them, former ELL students should demonstrate on par or better proficiency

on measures of English literacy and on content-area assessments (Blasingame, 2007).

This longitudinal study of students identified as LEP, enrolled in kindergarten during the

school year 2007–2008 and participating in either the school district's bilingual or ESL

program will provide valuable insight on what school district program is more effective.

Within this longitudinal study, evaluative studies of the different programs and the length

in which the students participated can make available information for district leaders to

develop a deeper understanding of where to focus the majority of state and federal

funding for the education of ELLs and can alter the perception of the quality of the

programs offered as well as determine the ongoing needs of hiring and training highly

qualified teachers to educate the population in most need. In addition, the research in this

study will further assist in identifying parental involvement and consulting strategies of

programing available for their identified English-learning children.

Effective schools avoid the tendency to base instructional practices on teachers'

assumptions and stereotypes about ELL students. Rather, effective schools conduct

empirical research about the community and use that information as resources in their instruction with students and in their interactions with parents (Verdugo & Flores, 2007). Although progress has been made, there is still a long road ahead in terms of getting ELLs on target with their non-ELL peers (Herbert, 2012). Conducting the study of one large suburban Texas school district can assist with the journey to making great strides of what can become possible best practices in the education of English language learning.

Chapter II

Review of Literature

Introduction

From their first day of kindergarten to their last day of school, Latinos, on average, perform far below most of their peers (Gándara, 2010). They now constitute the largest minority group in the United States and the fastest-growing segment of its school-age population (Gándara, 2010). Latino students are many more times as likely as students from other ethnic groups to come from homes where parents do not speak English well—or at all—and where parental education is low (Gándara, 2010). According to Batalova et al. (2007), students, commonly referred to as ELLs, perform at lower levels on virtually every measure from achievement scores to graduation rates than almost any other category of students. In addition, while the general student population in the United States grew just 2.6% between 1995 and 2005, the ELL student population grew 56% (Batalova et al., 2007). The National Center for Educational Evaluation (NCEE, 2014) stated the following:

A difference in language is the first thing that sets ELLs apart from their native English-speaking peers. Nearly 80 percent of ELLs come to school speaking Spanish as their first language, while the remaining 20 percent come from more than 400 different language backgrounds. In addition, ELLs are more likely than their English-proficient classmates to live in poverty, reside in large, urban settings, and have parents with low levels of formal education. ELLs also tend to be enrolled in schools struggling with low academic performance and placed in less demanding courses. (p. 1)

Increasingly, then, the academic achievement outcomes of English learners is affecting

the overall education level of the nation (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010).

　　　In 1982, the Supreme Court, in the case *Plyler v. Doe*, established that

undocumented students brought to this country by their parents are eligible for full access

to K-12 schooling in the United States (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010). Recent immigrants

may face even more challenges than other English language learners as they attempt to

adjust to a new country and culture (Rance-Roney, 2009). According to data from the

2000 U.S. Census, about one in five children ages 5–17 in the United States

(approximately 10.8 million children) are from immigrant families (Capps et al., 2005).

The population of children in immigrant families is growing faster than any other group

of children in the nation (Hernandez, Denton, & Macartney, 2008). Most of these

children, 79%, were born in the United States and are, therefore, U.S. citizens

(Hernandez et al., 2008).

　　　Considering the many challenges that ELL students face, as well as the

importance of English proficiency in terms of academic success, it is important to

understand what factors in the home and school environments might support the overall

development of ELL children as well as the acquisition of English language proficiency

among these children. Some of the factors outside of the school environment that

researchers have identified as influencing the grade at which English proficiency is

achieved include family socioeconomic status, parental education, neighborhood factors,

the experience of discrimination, reasons for immigration (voluntary versus involuntary),

social–emotional factors, length of exposure to English, and acculturation or

motivation/aspiration. The educational factors associated with the grade at which English

language is acquired include participation in early care and education programs, parental involvement in school, teacher attitudes and characteristics, the number of limited English proficient students in the school, and exposure to well-designed bilingual education programs (Halle, Hair, Wandner, McNamara & Chien, 2012).

What is the end result for ELLs? What do we want them to become and achieve? In recent years, the endgame has been defined by federal policy and local school districts as meeting achievement targets and evading the stigma of poor scores on state assessments. Districts with large numbers of linguistically diverse students are frequently blamed for the achievement of English language learners who fail to move beyond basic levels of literacy and math (Rance-Roney, 2011). Finishing high school has become an even more difficult and impossible task in recent years with the advent of high school exit exams. According to Gándara and Hopkins (2010), 23 states require students to pass exit exams in order to graduate from high school. These high-stakes exams prevent ELL students who have successfully completed all high school coursework, but cannot pass the English-only test, from getting a diploma (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010).

As the number of English language learners grow, the concerns about how to help them succeed in school increases (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). In the United States, the high school graduation rate for English language learners is far below that for native English speakers (Kohler & Lazarin, 2007). For many students, standardized achievement tests are the litmus test for whether they will be successful in life. Failing the test means failing at the future (Jewell, 2009). There is ample finger pointing in the blame game. School districts with large populations of English language learners who struggle to meet state assessment targets are generally reluctant to allocate resources for

postsecondary transition efforts. Savvy district administrators wanting to make adequate yearly progress typically focus on preparing the "bubble ELLs," those with the highest potential for meeting state standards. These administrators are unlikely to spend precious resources on preparing the same students for successful college work (Rance-Roney, 2011).

Although the federal government requires school districts to provide services to English learners, it offers the state no policies to follow in identifying, assessing, placing, or instructing them (Calderón, Slavin, & Sánchez, 2011). Together, the growing numbers of ELLs, the persistent achievement gaps and barriers to access, and increasingly high sets of stakes add up to a seminal moment for people and institutions investing in school reform and the education of English learners (Grant Makers for Education, 2013).

Many English learners struggle academically, have poor educational outcomes, and never reach the levels of English proficiency needed for participation and success. Achievement data suggest that ELLs not only lag far behind their peers, but the gaps grow as students advance through the grade levels (Grant Makers for Education, 2013). The unique needs of ELL students, combined with the failure of most education systems to address their needs, have produced persistently poor educational outcomes for ELLs in most common schools and communities. Despite the efforts of the past 40 years to build programs, there has been a substantial and continuing achievement gap for ELL versus non-ELL students. ELL students continue to have disproportionately high dropout rates and low college completion rates (Grant Makers for Education, 2013).

With new federal initiatives devoted to making K–12 students' college and career ready, the endgame is not just passing the mandated tests. To successfully compete with

newly emerging education powerhouses in Europe and Asia, the United States must make good on its promise of equal access to education and high-quality instruction for all (Rance-Roney, 2011). No silver bullet or single program can close the enormous gap between Latino students and their peers with respect to academic achievement and attainment. However, it is in all of our interests to find ways to begin the process of narrowing those gaps (Gándara, 2010).

English learners are a heterogeneous group, and needs differ from one community to another. There is no single profile of English learners, nor is there one single approach or policy that will meet educational goals and needs. They have different home language backgrounds, levels of language proficiency, socioeconomic standing, academic expectations, academic backgrounds, and immigration status. Each of these factors impacts their experiences, needs, and success in school (Grant Makers for Education, 2013). Despite the positive changes that are taking place in some schools, there is still much to be done to improve the education of English language learners (Freeman & Freeman, 2011).

The purpose of this study was to add to the body of research on the predictive nature of ELL program placement, length of program participation, socioeconomic status, and academic achievement of non-mobile, Hispanic English language learners in reading. The intent of this literature review was to explore empirical findings related to the impact of (a) program placement, whether utilizing the native language or English only; (b) parental involvement within the schools and the knowledge of program options for the student; (c) entering characteristics, including identified economic status and mobility on longitudinal academic reading performance on our target sample, and (d) the adequacy of

teacher preparation and training. In the final section of this chapter, a bilingual program model and ESL content-based instructional program of a large Texas urban school district was examined.

To help school-based personnel (district leaders, school administrators, and teachers of ELL students) provide informed services to students and parents of ELLs, this literature review additionally includes two major focuses. The first focus includes an overview of the programs potentially available for ELL students to help school-based personnel develop a working knowledge of specific issues, beliefs, and instructional strategies in the field.

The second focus is how school-based personnel can apply this knowledge to their work with linguistically and culturally diverse families of English language learners within their schools and school districts to achieve equity. An understanding of bilingual and ESL education, related research, and recommended practices as outlined in this literature review provides details to begin the process. This chapter provides an overview of the key concepts and concerns that in the opinion of the researcher should be clearly understood by educators in the field of second language learning.

Program Placement Options for English Language Learners

Educators, parents, and legislators are concerned about the time and resources needed to educate students who are limited in English (Snowman, McCown, & Biehler, 2009). Some people advocate placing these students into all-English classes immediately. Others feel that these students need to have a strong understanding of their own native language and of English before transitioning into regular classes (Snowman et al., 2009). Several programs can be identified that have been used to help English

language learners to gain proficiency with the English language. Some of these programs

have similar features and only subtle differences, making it hard to distinguish between

them in some cases (Garrett, 2010).

There are several different educational programs used to educate ELL students in

the United States. These approaches include the following: English-only programs, pull-

out ESL, content-based ESL, transitional bilingual programs, maintenance bilingual

programs, and one-way, two-way, or dual language bilingual education programs. These

approaches vary in the amount of English and native language that is used for

instructional purposes (Ochoa & Rhodes, 2005). In this review of the literature, there is a

comprehensive look into the different approaches of each. Table 2 shows the similarities

and differences among the types of instructional strategies and programs that serve

English language learners in both the research of David and Yvonne Freeman (2011) and

Jerry E. Garrett (2010).

English-Only Instructional Programs

Even though bilingual dual-language approaches teaching emergent bilinguals has

shown to be more effective than English-only approaches, even though in most of the

world bilingualism is the norm, and even though there are clear advantages of

bilingualism, in many schools in the United States emergent bilinguals are only being

instructed in English (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). According to the research of

Calderón et al. (2011) they suggest that:

Table 2

Program Placement Options for English Language Learners

Type of Program	Description	English-Only or English and Native Language	Language Result	Academic Result
English Emersion	English language learners are taught with mainstream students and given special services.	English-Only	Subtractive –Students learn to communicate in English but lose most or all of their native language proficiency.	Show less progress in math and reading than students in ESL/bilingual programs. Highest number of dropouts in this group.
Structured English Immersion	English language learners are taught only in English and teachers are trained to make the input comprehensible.	English-Only	Subtractive – Students develop literacy and learn to communicate in English. Students lose most or all of their ability to use their native language.	In California after five years of structured English, students have limited conversational English and have difficulty reading and understanding grade-level texts.
ESL Pullout Traditional Instruction	English language learners are given support. They are taught basic vocabulary and language structure (grammar) and then integrated into all English instruction.	English-Only	Subtractive – Students develop literacy and learn to communicate in English. Students lose most or all of their ability to use their native language.	These students show little academic progress and once mainstreamed rarely catch up. Many students drop out before graduation.
ESL Pullout or Push-in Content Instruction	English language learners are given 2 to 3 years ESL content support services and then integrated into all English instruction.	English-Only	Subtractive – Students develop literacy and learn to communicate in English. Students lose most or all of their ability to use their native language.	By the end of high school, many of these students drop out or are in the lowest fourth of their class.
Early Exit or Transitional Bilingual Instruction	English language learners receive a portion of their content instruction in their primary language for 2-3 years and then are integrated into all-English instruction.	English and Native Language	Subtractive – Students learn to communicate and study in English only. They usually lose their first language.	At the end of high school, these students score below the 50th percentile in test of reading in English.
Late Exit or Maintenance	English language learners receive content instruction in L1 and L2 for 4 to 6 years.	English and Native Language	Additive – ELLs become bilingual and biliterate.	ELLs outperform student in English-only programs. Students achieve above the 50th percentile on standardized tests.
Enriched Immersion	Native English speakers are taught in language through content instruction in a second language. English is introduced in second grade or later.	English and Native Language	Additive – ELLs become bilingual and biliterate.	Students acquire a second language and achieve the same levels of competence in academic subjects as peers taught all in English.
Bilingual Dual-Language (One-way and Two-way)	English language learners and native speakers of English learn language through content in both English and the first language of the English learners.	English and Native Language	Additive – Native English speakers and English learners become bilingual and biliterate.	Students from both language groups outperform students in transitional and developmental bilingual education and score above the 50th percentile on standardized tests.

Recent federal policies have had the effect of restricting the time that can be spent

teaching children in their native language. Federal accountability policies and

diminishing funds make it impractical for local education agencies and schools to

support native language instruction. Although federal policy has neither endorsed

nor opposed instruction the primary language, in recent years, policy changes

have discouraged bilingual education. Among researchers, the debate between

advocates of bilingual and English-only reading instruction has been fierce, and

ideology has often trumped evidence on both sides of the debate. (p. 107)

Being anti-immigrant and in favor of English-only policies wins votes in many

economically battered areas, and so these young people are often denied access to

postsecondary education and told to "go home" when in reality they have never known

another home. Nonetheless, an extreme concern for the survival of English as the official

language of the United States has driven many policies from educating English learners

(Gándara & Hopkins, 2010).

Beginning with the passage of No Child Left Behind, language-based educational

policy in the United States has shifted toward an emphasis on English language

acquisition and away from an emphasis on native language assistance. The English

Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement Act clearly

mandate English language acquisition as the commanding objective of instructional

programming for LEP students (Hanna, 2011). Few people would disagree that English

language proficiency is necessary for academic success in U.S. schools.

Less clear, however, is the optimal pathway for helping language-minority

students master English. Conflicting ideologies, competing academic theories, and

multiple metrics for comparing different approaches have rendered many schools, districts, and educators paralyzed by confusion (Clark, 2009). According to Clark (2009), in an Educational Leadership article, "The Case for Structured English Immersion," three states and many school districts are finding that emphasizing English language instruction offers ELLs an accelerated path to success. Several factors usually account for school and district leaders' decisions to opt for structured English immersion. In three states (California, Arizona, and Massachusetts), the reason is straightforward: Laws passed through voter initiatives now require structured English immersion and restrict bilingual education.

In reality, the United States has no official language policy. It only has laws that provide non-English speaking students a right to acquire the English language and to have access to an equitable education while they are doing so (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010). Transitional programs seem to be grounded in the belief that English learners are language deficient because they are not native English speakers. Such programs produce "bilingual illiterates" or "nolinguals"—students who are not literate in either their native or their adopted language. Many progress through the grades, drill for high-stakes state-mandated tests in English, and graduate with a high school diploma. Too many others get left behind and believe they are incapable of succeeding academically, conclude that school is not for them, and drop out.

An approach that better supports the academic potential of ELLs, particularly Latino students, is clearly needed (Estrada, Gómez, & Ruiz-Escalante, 2009). Another factor is that most state student performance assessments are conducted in English and schools or districts that miss targets face increased scrutiny and possible sanctions. This

provides added incentive for schools to get students' English proficiency up to speed as soon as possible (Clark, 2009).

English language learners are assessed more often than native English speakers since they are assessed both for their language proficiency and for their content area knowledge. While ELLs can be assessed on content knowledge in their native language, most often, they are assessed in English. In fact, pressures from standardized testing in English resulting from No Child Left Behind legislation has led to less content teaching in students' first language and a decline in bilingual education programs (Crawford, 2007).

Freeman and Freeman (2011) stated the following in reference to English immersion instruction:

English immersion is not actually a program for ELLs. English immersion transpires when ELLs are taught in conventional classes with native speakers of English and given no special services. In structured English immersion programs, students are taught only in English by teachers who have received some training in strategies for teaching second language learners. Teachers working with English language learners recognize the importance of helping ELL students develop competence in English. It seems logical that the best way to develop English proficiency is to immerse learners in an environment in which they hear, speak, read, and write English all day. Although the idea that "more English leads to more English" is logical, it is not the best approach for working with bilingual students. (pp. 149 & 162)

In an article written by Krashen in 2004, "The Power of Reading: Insights from the Research," Krashen investigated newspaper claims that tests scores in California from English immersion programs had skyrocketed; he found that test scores had gone up. As he explained:

> There were no significant differences in gains between districts that kept bilingual education and those that dropped it. Missing from nearly all discussions of the effectiveness of bilingual education is the fact that controlled studies consistently showed that bilingual education works. The Skyrocket Legend is false. (p. 39)

Krashen's statements are supported by the 2009 Collier and Thomas study, "Educating English Learners for a Transformed World." Collier and Thomas studied the test results of students in California after the passing of Proposition 227 and found that even students in early grades were not making the gains compared to native language speakers. They also concluded that "this program type had resulted in the lowest achievement for English learners of any program in the U.S." (Collier & Thomas, 2009, p. 61).

English and Native Language Instructional Programs

As U.S. school populations shift and represent an increasingly diverse world of linguistic flexibility, we argue that refusing to acknowledge the language resources of students and their families limits the possibilities for students' educational success and achievement and shuts down opportunities for the development of multilingualism (Hornberger & Link, 2012). English language learners' previous cultural, language, and literacy experiences influence their ways of learning both English and subject-matter knowledge. Their native languages and prior knowledge are rich resources to tap into.

When teachers invite English language learners to link new knowledge to what they have already learned, learning becomes more comprehensible, meaningful, and exciting (Dong, 2009).

ELLs enter U.S. schools at varying ages and without the foundational understanding of theEnglish language that the curriculum requires for accessing grade-level content. Their educational preparation, and particularly the strength of their language and literacy development in their home language, makes an enormous difference in how smoothly they are able to learn English and overcome academic gaps that emerge when they do not comprehend the language of academic instruction (Grant Makers for Education, 2013).

English learner communities have disproportionately little access to quality early learning programs, and students typically start school lacking the skills, language, or readiness that set them up for success academically. As English learners move through school, they often amass academic deficits during the years they are learning English because they cannot adequately comprehend academic instruction in a language they have not yet mastered. As they progress into higher grades, the curriculum becomes more difficult to access, more conceptual, and more dependent upon abstract language. For all children, a strong foundation of language and literacy facilitates later academic success. For English learners, this is particularly true because they require a strong foundation in their home language as a foundation for English; also, the earlier they acquire English proficiency, the more access they have to the increasingly abstract and rigorous grade-level content encountered moving up through the grades (Grant Makers for Education, 2013).

Providing English learners with access to core curriculum is an additional challenge. Not only do these students need to acquire a command of basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), often referred to as *playground language* (or *blacktop language* for older students), but they are very quickly catapulted into the world of reading and writing for school, the academic context of CALP (cognitive academic language proficiency). They have to be able to read and respond to long pieces from various genres, copy lecture notes, write summaries and research papers, outline chapters, answer questions, and take tests of all kinds (Freeman & Freeman, 2010).

Second, ELLs need support to help them access the same full curriculum that their native-English speaking peers are learning. To gain this access, their teachers need to use instructional strategies that make the academic curriculum comprehensible (e.g., scaffolding, use of visuals, modified materials, preview/review, and home language reference resources) (Grant Makers for Education, 2013).

Programs promoting bilingualism have been found to produce superior academic outcomes for both Latino students whose first language is Spanish and for non-Spanish speakers, while also developing a strong competence in learning a second language (Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006). Such programs, whose goal is to transform monolingual speakers of either English or Spanish into fully bilingual and biliterate students, have grown substantially in recent years. Because the programs give equal status to both languages and typically enroll Latino students alongside non-Latino students, they have the many advantages, such as fostering positive intergroup relations and increasing Latino students' social capital, as the Latino students are fully integrated with their middle-class peers (Morales & Aldana, 2010).

In the past 10 years, many language experts have begun to advocate dual language programs, and interest in them has resurfaced. Advocates of such models advance the principle that continued development of both languages enhances students' educational and cognitive development. They also believe that literacy-based abilities are interdependent across languages in such a way that knowledge and skills acquired in one language are potentially available in the other (Estrada et al., 2009). The ability to transfer thinking from one mode of expression to another promotes language development by giving students context cues to understand oral and written language that are not language based (Upczak-Garcia, 2012). Dual language programs, by definition, address three academic, linguistic, and multicultural goals: (a) high academic achievement in and through two languages, (b) full bilingualism and biliteracy, and (c) student understanding and appreciation of multiple cultures (Parkes & Ruth, 2011).

Two main programs are used to educate Spanish speaking ELLs in the United States, dual language programs and transitional bilingual programs. Dual language approaches that involve significant academic instruction in both languages represent "additive/enrichment" models of bilingual education. Rather than emphasizing teaching English at the expense of the native language, they promote full conversational and academic proficiency in both languages. Unfortunately, transitional bilingual programs, the most prevalent type of bilingual education in U.S. schools, follow a "subtractive/ remedial" model. Such programs reflect the misconceptions discussed above and "subtract" language learners' skills in their native language (Estrada et al., 2009). The main goal of transitional bilingual education programs is for students to develop linguistic and academic proficiency in English as quickly as possible through immersion.

Teachers teach everything in English through sheltered instruction; ELLs are expected to use their second language to both communicate and learn (Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

A goal of bilingual dual-language education is to help students build academic proficiency in both languages. When students are schooled in two languages on a daily basis, they can gain increased proficiency in both languages although their overall fluency in two languages may never be completely balanced (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). One commonly held assumption is that the goal of bilingual education is to produce balanced bilinguals. A balanced bilingual is someone who is equally competent in two languages. This would mean that if a bilingual Spanish-English program did its job well, a student should be able to speak, read, and write both English and Spanish equally well in all settings (Freeman & Freeman, 2011).

However, according to Grosjean (2010), since the 1960s with the emergence of the study of sociolinguistics, linguists have come to understand that "most bilinguals use their languages for different purposes, in different situations, with different people" (p. 39). In addition, Halle et al. (2012) stated the following in reference to dual language instruction of ELLs:

> Dual language learning in the early years has many benefits. Being a fluent multilingual speaker opens up opportunities that are not available to monolinguals, especially in the increasingly global economy. In addition, maintaining one's home language while learning a second language helps to support cultural identity and boost both self-concept and metalinguistic abilities. In fact, ELL children in bilingual preschool programs learn English faster than

their peers who stay at home while at the same time maintain their native language, which has psychosocial and academic benefits. Young ELL children tend to lag behind monolinguals in academic tasks and are at-risk for losing fluency in their home language, which is linked to poor academic outcomes. (p. 2)

According to Estrada et al. (2009), in an Educational Leadership article "Let's Make Dual Language the Norm," several prevalent misconceptions about ELLs and the language acquisition process may dissuade teachers from trying a dual language approach. We have found that teachers with little knowledge about how to teach English learners commonly hold the following misconceptions, each of which runs counter to informed observations and research.

Misconception 1. The most effective way to ensure that students learn English is to immerse them in English. Studies show, however, that the most effective way to ensure that ELLs learn academic English well enough for school success is to teach them in both languages. When language learners learn grade-level academic content and skills in their first language throughout their instructional program, they can solidly transfer that knowledge to academic work in their second language. Research shows that ELLs in dual language programs, as a group, not only closed the achievement gap in terms of standardized test scores, but also surpassed native English speakers in academic achievement (Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Gómez, 2006).

Misconception 2. Through immersion, ELLs will learn enough English within a year to survive academically. ELLs need five to seven years to master English well enough to work as proficiently in English as they could in their native language.

Educators often mistakenly assume that English learners can learn academic content on grade level because these students can converse in English. There are two types of language proficiency, however: (a) basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) that includes basic commands, social conversations, and fluency and (b) cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). Acquiring BICS takes two to three years and is insufficient for learning academic content; for such learning, students must achieve CALP that includes content-based literacy skills and more sophisticated language use. Most ELLs need five to seven years to reach CALP in their second language, and they must continue CALP development in their first language to stay on grade level (Cummins, 1991; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Misconception 3. Once ELLs have achieved oral fluency in English, they are capable of academic learning in mainstream English-only classrooms. Achieving oral fluency in English is only the first step to gaining cognitive and academic content proficiency in a second language. The ability to understand and engage in conversational English is not indicative of CALP. Grade-level CALP is achieved through a student's first language (Cummins, 1991; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Misconception 4. The less ELLs use their first language, the better. In fact the opposite is true: The more ELLs use their native language in school, building as many skills as they can in that language, the better (Cummins, 1991, 2008; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Thomas and Collier (2002) studied dual language enrichment programs in five sites across the United States. They found that ELLs schooled in well-implemented dual language programs had greater long-term academic and linguistic success in English than

did their native English-speaking peers educated in monolingual English programs.
Thomas and Collier (2002) also found positive educational outcomes for ELL students
enrolled in two-way and maintenance programs and did not find favorable results for
students in transitional bilingual programs (TBE) and ESL programs. Based on their
findings, Thomas and Collier (2002) concluded the following:

> Students with no proficiency in English must not be placed in short-term
> programs of only 1 to 3 years. In this study and all other research studies
> following ELL students long term, the minimum length of time it takes to reach
> grade level performance in L2 (English) is 4 years. (p. 5)

It is important to acknowledge that bilingual education research shows that children in
maintenance bilingual programs catch up to their peers in terms of English proficiency
and functioning, but this usually takes them longer than 4 years (Ochoa & Rhodes, 2005).
Thomas and Collier (1997) found that ELL students participating in maintenance
bilingual programs do catch up to their English speaking peers by approximately 6th
grade. Thomas and Collier's (1997) research also indicated that it takes ELL students
instructed only in English

> 7–10 years or more to reach the 50th normal curve equivalent (NCE), and the
> majority of these students do not ever make it to the 50th NCE, unless they
> receive support in L1 (native language) academic and cognitive development at
> home. (p. 36)

Young ELL children tend to lag behind monolinguals in academic tasks and are
at-risk for losing fluency in their home language that is linked to poor academic outcomes
(Halle et al., 2012). Time for the two languages may be divided up in various ways—

such as half a day of instruction in one language and half a day in the other. Some students work in one language for certain content areas and in the other language for the remaining areas. English language learners in dual language instruction should learn to read and write in their native or dominant language first, since they have fully developed BICS in that language. With these models, teachers do not feel compelled to water down the curriculum. On the contrary, they view students who come to school with a language other than English as having assets rather than deficits (Estrada et al., 2009).

Spanish holds a unique role in the United States that places it nearer to an indigenous language than to an immigrant language. While English-only advocates frequently characterize the use of Spanish as "un-American," they also cast it as a language of immigrants. In fact, Spanish was spoken in about one-third of what would become the United States long before the Pilgrims arrived on its eastern shores (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010). Even in the absence of bilingual instruction, language learners should have the right to feel at home in school. Cultural discontinuity between students' home-based and school-based experiences can have a negative effect on their academic performance, well-being, and sense of belonging at school (Agirdag, 2009).

In the Obama administration's Elementary and Secondary Education *Reauthorization: Blueprint for Reform*, the section on the education of "diverse learners," and more specifically, "English language learners," states that grant money will be available to help states and school districts implement "high-quality language instruction programs," including "dual-language programs, transitional bilingual education, sheltered English immersion, newcomer programs for late-entrant English Learners, or other language instruction programs" (U.S. Department of Education, 2010, p. 2).

While this policy seems to foreground bilingual models over other forms of programming for those labeled "English learners," it remains to be seen how schools and districts across the country will work toward developing and implementing bilingual education while high-stakes testing in English remains the sole measure of student and school success (Hornberger & Link, 2012). Unfortunately, too often educators and the general public discount the languages students bring to school and value only their acquisition in English. Rather than thinking globally, many in our education system rarely look beyond local concerns (Freeman & Freeman, 2011).

Parent Involvement and Benefits

Parents and families play important roles in promoting positive student behavior and achievement, but language barrier and lack of familiarity to the U.S. system of schooling may make it difficult for parents of ELLs to stay informed about their children's progress and become involved in school decisions and activities (NCEE, 2014).

Parents come to schools with their own education beliefs and priorities, which may not always match those of the school. In democratic schools, we need to elicit more parental perspectives to jointly shape policies and programs and address inequities. In the case of immigrant parents whose home countries stress parent deference to education authorities, we need to help them find their voice to be advocates for their children. Although deficit thinking about poor and minority families is less blatant than in the past, some educators still assume that immigrant parents do not care about education (Auerbach, 2011).

Educators find it eye-opening to learn about the traditional concept of *educación* among Latino immigrants, especially low-income immigrants from small towns and villages in Mexico and Central America. *Educación* is distinct from formal academic education, which is seen as the job of educators; instead, it refers to respectful behavior, good manners, and moral training, which parents inculcate in their children as the basis for academic learning and for the *buen camino* (right path) in life (Delgado-Gaitan, 2004; Valdés, 1996). Many immigrant parents' views of education are bound up with this concept and with collectivistic values of cooperation and interdependence rather than individualistic values of competition and independence (Rothstein-Fisch, Greenfield, & Trumbull, 1999).

The research reflects what is lost to schools when some families remain disconnected. Those families cannot share valuable insights about their children. They cannot mentor and guide their children through their educational travels. They cannot help strengthen the school for the benefit of all the students. Schools miss out on their potential assistance in reaching other families from their community or cultural group (Kugler, 2011). For many hard-working teachers and administrators, outreach to these families seems like an add-on. But family engagement is powerfully linked to student success.

Research shows that across races and income levels, students whose families are engaged tend to do better on tests, attend school more regularly, adapt to school better, and go on to postsecondary education (Kugler, 2011). In general, there is also a connection between parent satisfaction and school effectiveness. As a child's performance and learning increases, parent satisfaction increases (Parkes & Ruth, 2011).

Parents and other community members play a key role in the academic success of language minority students (Freeman & Freeman, 2011).

Many parents came to the United States specifically for its education system, and they care deeply about their children's future. But they bring with them the rules and expectations of their home countries. They tend to keep their distance from their children's school as a sign of respect. They trust their children's education to the teachers and would never question trained educators.

Further, many do not know how to traverse the complicated U.S. system—how to access enrichment or remedial services for their child or even what options are available (Kugler, 2011). Culturally aware teachers never assume that families understand the education system in a new country. Many families of ELLs do not believe they should be part of the schooling process (Ramirez, 2008). Recent Latino and Asian immigrant parents, for example, may avoid involvement in their child's education out of respect for the teacher (Ramirez & Soto-Hinman, 2009).

To effectively enhance parental participation, educators must get to know the families of their students. Unfortunately, some educators assume that every immigrant family has the same background and deals with the same issues. But the circumstances of a family that has been in the United States for two or three years are different from those of a newly arrived family. Olsen (2006) identified five different kinds of ELLs, each with specific and unique language needs. The individual families of these students might be equally diverse, and if we want them to become active members of our school community, we must get to know them personally (Ramirez & Soto-Hinman, 2009).

Researchers Arias and Morillo-Campbell (2008) in a policy brief titled *Promoting ELL Parental Involvement: Challenges in Contested Times*, for the Education Policy Research Unit at Arizona State University listed the five barriers of what makes it difficult for the parents of ELLs to engage with their children's schools: (a) school-based, (b) lack of English proficiency, (c) low parental education level, (d) disjuncture between school culture and home culture; and (e) logistical issues concerning transportation, parents' labor-intensive work schedules, and child care. To effectively address these barriers, schools need to implement both traditional and nontraditional models of parental involvement. Traditional models emphasize how parents can support student achievement. Nontraditional models typically include a focus on parental empowerment and integrating community into the school curriculum (Azzam, 2009).

Second language students can succeed when home and school work together to provide them access to the best education possible (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). Success in engaging Hispanic parents depends on creating a school culture that welcomes all (Zimmerman-Orozco, 2011). Both the quality and equity of schools depend greatly on the quality of the relationships among teachers and students' families and their communities. However, few educators or policymakers can clearly answer the question, how can schools effectively reach out to ethnically diverse parents (Agirdag & Houtte, 2011). Without such concerted, school-wide efforts, the achievement gap between students with limited vocabularies and their peers will continue to expand (David, 2010). One approach is reducing the social and cultural distance between the school and immigrants' families. Schools often reflect the culture of the socially advantaged families they serve; they rarely correspond with the cultures of immigrant or low-income

families (Agirdag & Houtte, 2011). For many parents, language is a significant barrier to participation. Establishing bilingual hotlines that families can call with questions and concerns might help (Ramirez & Soto-Hinman, 2009).

Latino immigrant parents have high aspirations for their children that they express at home according to their own cultural scripts. These are not always the same as educators' scripts that often equate parental involvement with attendance at school events and responsiveness to school requests (Auerbach, 2011). Too often, educators are unaware of the moral and emotional support for learning that Latino parents offer behind the scenes; such support might include choosing better schools, reducing chores so students can study, and modeling the value of hard work (Lopez, 2010).

The first step in culturally relevant parental engagement is to recognize these "invisible strategies" and related parent beliefs. Leaders might take a cue from a parent liaison that begins every meeting by first acknowledging the support for education that parents already provide at home (Auerbach, 2011). In reality, many families without formal education have lessons to teach and much to share (Kugler, 2011). Researchers have identified many evidence-based practices that enhance the academic engagement and learning of ELLs.

The school's success with its Hispanic community cannot be attributed merely to the implementation of a list of action items on the school improvement document, as instrumental as that may be. According to Zimmerman-Orozco (2011), it is more important to match the school's core commitment to creating a welcoming school climate and nurturing personal relationships and the traditional Hispanic styles of interaction. Traditionally, the Hispanic culture is characterized by an emphasis on warm, personal

interaction, a relaxed sense of time, and an informal atmosphere for communication. Given these preferences, a culture clash may result when Hispanic students and parents are confronted with the typical task-oriented style of most U.S. schools (Zimmerman-Orozco, 2011).

Unfortunately, in some K–12 schools, family interactions are limited to infrequent back-to-school nights and open houses (Ramirez & Soto-Hinman, 2009). Parents' contact with schools is often marked by formality and bureaucracy, as in one-sided teacher presentations at back-to-school nights or procedural runarounds in the front office. These approaches are off-putting for everyone, especially immigrant parents who are less familiar with U.S. schools (Auerbach, 2011).

Technology can be a valuable way to stay in touch with families, but not all families have access to the Internet at home (Ramirez & Soto-Hinman, 2009). Schools can promote greater participation when they are mindful of parents' comfort level. When an Oregon district took the unusual step of asking its growing population of Latino parents what would make them comfortable at meetings, they learned that parents did not want to stand out by wearing a translation headset or sitting with a translator at school events; they wanted separate meetings in Spanish. Likewise, when researchers in Texas asked Latino parents how they wanted to be involved in their children's education, they said they preferred informal learning activities at home and more personal communication with teachers (Scribner, Young, & Pedroza, 1999).

Prior studies have identified a number of challenges to engaging parents of ELLs in their children's education in the United States. For example, parents of ELLs may have lower levels of English proficiency, limited native-language literacy skills, difficult

cultural perceptions of their role in their child's education, and a lack of familiarity with the American education system (NCEE, 2014). In their analyses of data about academic performance in early elementary schools in the United States, Reardon and Galindo (2006) found that reading and mathematics achievement patterns in grades K–3 vary by home language environments among Hispanic students. Those living in homes categorized as *primarily Spanish* or *Spanish only* lagged further behind non-Hispanic White children than did Hispanics who lived in homes categorized as *primarily English* or *English only*.

Prior studies have also suggested that schools may mitigate challenges associated with engaging parents of ELL students by hiring bilingual staff to provide translation and interpretation services, offering culturally relevant parent outreach programs, and conducting home visits (NCEE, 2014). When educators offer smaller-scale parent activities and infuse personal touches and authentic interaction into outreach, immigrant parents feel less intimidated, and they respond with more open participation (Delgado-Gaitan, 2004).

As the Latino population continues to grow, more schools are taking steps to better understand Latino families as assets. Educators are meeting to examine their own assumptions and biases so they can counter deficit thinking. They are opening up dialogue with immigrant parents about shared hopes and dreams for their children. They are sponsoring home visits and parent-led community walks to learn more about students' lives and neighborhood resources, as well as families' funds of knowledge and home-based literacy that teachers can integrate with classroom learning. They are investing in

bilingual parent liaisons or parent center directors who can act not only as translators but also as cultural bridges between immigrant families and the school (Auerbach, 2011).

ELLs come from diverse cultures and linguistic backgrounds, and schools may be able to enhance ELLs' educational experiences by taking that diversity into account. For example, schools might strive to support ELLs' comprehension by choosing instructional texts with culturally-familiar contents or by preparing ELLs with appropriate background knowledge when using texts with familiar content. Furthermore, by fostering an appreciation for diversity within the school's culture, schools help to facilitate ELLs' transition from home to school and make them feel valued for their cultural heritage and experience (NCEE, 2014).

Importance of Parent Knowledge of Program Selections

According to Ochoa and Rhodes (2005), ELL students receive equal protection as afforded by the 14th Amendment of the U.S. Constitution and are protected under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Title VI prohibits discrimination in any federally funded activity on the basis of race, color, ethnicity, national origin, religion, or creed. *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) expanded the protection of ELL students and required all school districts to adequately serve limited English proficient students. Federal law also requires that all parents with children in federally funded bilingual education programs be notified as to why their children were selected for participation, be provided with alternatives to participation, and be given the option of declining to enroll their children in the program. Information must be presented to parents in a language they can understand (Ochoa & Rhodes, 2005).

Some school personnel believe that it is the best to educate ELL students in an English-only program in which all instruction occurs with English-speaking students in a general education classroom (Porter, 1998). This approach is advocated by educators and school-based practitioners who believe that for ELL students to learn English, they need to hear it and use it in an academic immersion setting. Parents who choose to place their children in this instructional setting do so for a variety of reasons. For example, some are encouraged or persuaded by school personnel to place their children in this setting because it is anticipated that they will learn English more quickly.

In these and other situations, some culturally diverse families will not question the school's recommendations because they believe it is a form of disrespect (Roseberry-McKibbin, 2002). Other parents will select this arrangement because they have experienced firsthand the difficulty, and, perhaps even discrimination, associated with not being able to speak in English. They do not want their child to encounter what they have experienced and prefer programs that will focus on teaching English to their children. Some of those parents also feel that they can continue native language support at home whereas the school can concentrate on teaching their children English (Ochoa & Rhodes, 2005).

Meta-analysis studies have found that bilingual education is an effective instructional approach to use with ELL students when compared to English immersion programs (Greene, 1998; Willig, 1985). Additionally, Willig (1985) reported a mean effect size of 63% favoring bilingual education programs, which "indicate the average student in bilingual education programs scored higher than 74% of the students in traditional programs when all test scores were aggregated" (p. 291). Willig (1985) found

that "positive effects of bilingual education . . . were found for all major academic subjects whether tests were administered in English or in other languages" (p. 291).

According to Ochoa and Rhodes (2005), it is imperative that school personnel accurately inform parents of the potential long-term consequences of not placing an ELL student in bilingual education. Recommendations for bilingual education placement and participation should be based on information that is in accordance with federal and state law and on empirically validated data. Based on their findings, Thomas and Collier (2002) also concluded the following:

> Parents who refuse bilingual/ESL services for their children should be informed that their children's long-term academic achievement will probably be much lower as a result, and they should strongly be counseled against refusing bilingual or ESL services when their child is eligible. (p. 5)

School district personnel providing services for English language learners need to have a working knowledge of the general principles of multicultural consolations as well as the ability to apply these principals in their practice with families from cultural and linguistic backgrounds that may differ from their own (Ochoa & Rhodes, 2005). Rogers (2000), in a summary of major themes related to the cultural context of consultation, identified six-cultural competencies necessary for effective consultation: (a) understanding one's own and other's culture, (b) developing cross-cultural communication and interpersonal skills, (c) examining the cultural embeddedness of consultation, (d) using qualitative methodologies, (e) acquiring cultural-specific knowledge, and (f) understanding of and skill in working with interpreters. Because of the emotionally charged nature of the topic, the cultural, linguistic, and philosophical

differences between the consultant and consulted or parent are potentially magnified and may, if left unchecked, negatively influence the outcome of the consultative relationship (Ochoa & Rhodes, 2005). Schools should coach guidance counselors, assistant principals, and other staff who do student scheduling to ignore the label of limited English proficient, and instead to examine each individual's academic history and potential (Rance-Roney, 2009).

As mentioned in the educational article, "Assisting Parents of Bilingual Students to Achieve Equity in Public Schools" written by Salvador Hector Ochoa from Texas A&M University and Robert L. Rhodes from New Mexico State University, they collectively stated:

It has been the authors' experiences that the origin of an individual's view of bilingual education is varied and complex and is affected by their position and life experiences. As previously mentioned, parents of ELL students may often be hesitant to have their children placed in an instructional setting that are anything other than English only. Many parents have endured the educational and emotional hardship that often accompanies limited English proficiency and earnestly desire their children to learn English as rapidly as possible. A viewpoint frequently expressed to the authors by the parents is that they will assume the responsibility for home-language maintenance if the school will assist in the development of English-language proficiency. However, this viewpoint cannot be generalized to all parents. On the other hand of the continuum, numerous parents of ELLs students are appreciative of the cultural and linguistic opportunities provided by bilingual education, are expectant that their children

will be in environments that foster dual language development, and are unwilling

to compromise the potential long-term academic gains that might be afforded

through bilingual education. (p. 86)

The Effects of Low Socioeconomic Status on Student Achievement

Although a great deal of socioeconomic variation exists among ELLs, in general,

they are more likely than native-English-speaking students to come from low-income

families (Garcia & Cuellar, 2006). The vast majority of ELLs are from families that are

struggling economically and have parents with disproportionately low schooling levels

(Grant Makers for Education, 2013). In 2000, 68% of ELLs in grades Pre K–5 and 60%

in grades 6–12 lived in low-income families (below 185% of the federal poverty level),

compared with 36% and 32%, respectively, of English-proficient students in these age

groups (Capps et al., 2005). ELLs are also more likely to have parents with limited

formal education: 48% in grades Pre K–5 and 35% in the higher grades had a parent with

less than a high school education, compared with 11% and 9% of English-proficient

students in the same grades (Capps et al., 2005). Each of these factors, as well as

ethnic/racial minority status, is associated with decreased achievement averages across

academic areas, contributing to the relatively low performance of English language

learners. While Latino students may come from loving homes, limited education and

resources do affect their education outcomes (Gándara, 2010).

In the past few years, new data have emerged identifying a large group of "long-

term English learners," students who have been in the United States schools for more

than six years, are stalled in progress toward English proficiency without having reached

a threshold of adequate English skills and struggling academically. It is estimated that

between one-quarter and one-half of all ELLs who enter U.S. schools in primary grades become long-term English learners, and 60% of English learners in grades 6–12 are long-term English learners. Family income status is frequently intertwined in the educational barriers facing ELLs (Grant Makers for Education, 2013).

As Gándara and Contreras (2009) stated, "Housing segregation has particular onerous effects on Latino/a student learning English. When students' lack appropriate language models and individuals in with whom to interact in English, their acquisition of English is delayed" (p. 74). The lack of language opportunity described by Gandara and Contreras is exacerbated when students residing in high-poverty and linguistically isolated neighborhoods attend schools isolated by race/ethnicity, poverty, and language (Heilig & Holme 2013).

A examination of the 4th and 8th grade achievement data from 2007, 2008, and 2011 National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) provides an insight into the severity of the achievememt gap that exsists between ELLs and non-ELLs (Barron, Oxnam, & Appalachia Regional Comprehension Center (ARCC), 2012). Figure 1 indicates for both 2007 and 2011 a significant gap between ELLs and non-ELLs in 4th-grade reading. In 2011, average 4th-grade non-ELLs students performed 28% points above ELL students. The information further indicates that during the five-year period, the gap between ELL and non-ELL students remained fairly consisted between 27% and 28%.

NAEP 4th grade reading scores of ELL and non-ELL students for 2007, 2009, and 2011.
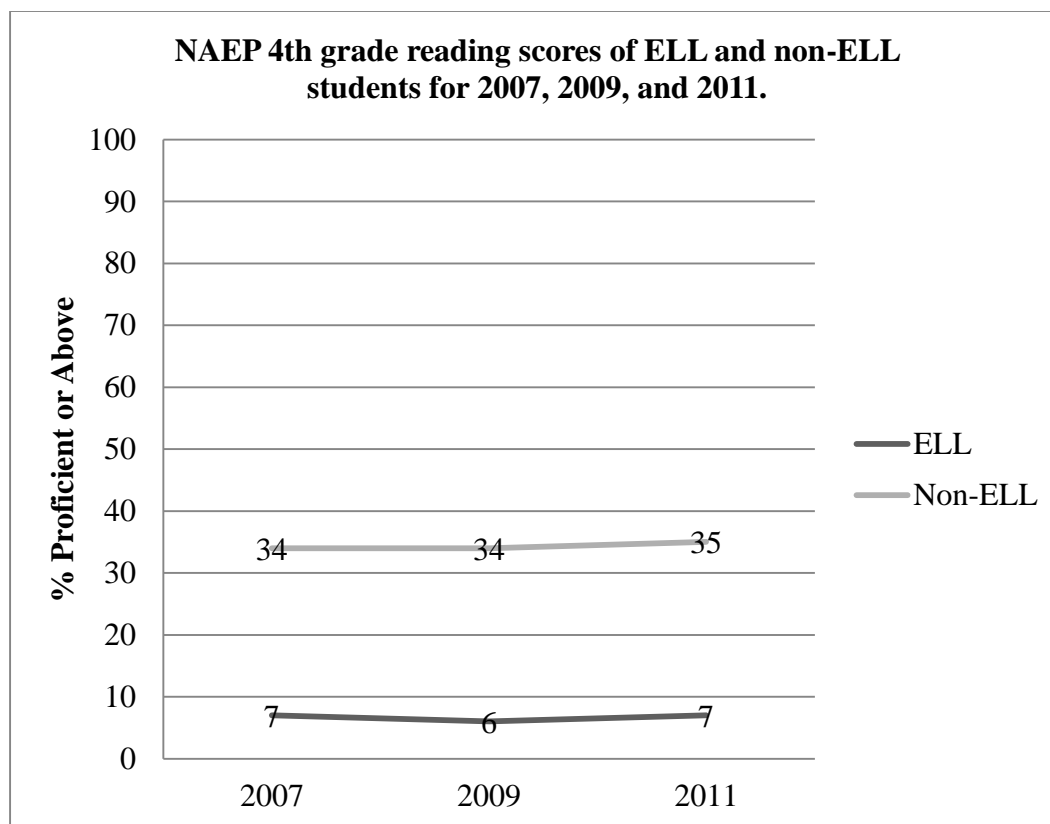
Figure 1. NAEP 4th grade reading scores of ELL and non-ELL students for 2007, 2009, and 2011. Adapted from Barron et al. (2012).

The data for 8th grade reading for both 2007 and 2011 indicate a huge gap between the performance of ELLs and non-ELLs as illustrated in Figure 2. In 2011, average 8th grade non-ELLs students performed 30% points above ELL students. The information further indicates that during the five-year period, the gap between ELL and non-ELL students remained fairly consisted between 27% and 30%. Instead of closing the achievement gap during this time span, the data show the percent of ELLs at or above grade proficient decreased by 1% from 2007 to 2011, while the percent of non-ELLs at or above grade proficient increased by 2%, therefore widening the gap.

NAEP 8th grade scores of ELL and non-ELL students for 2007, 2009 and 2011.
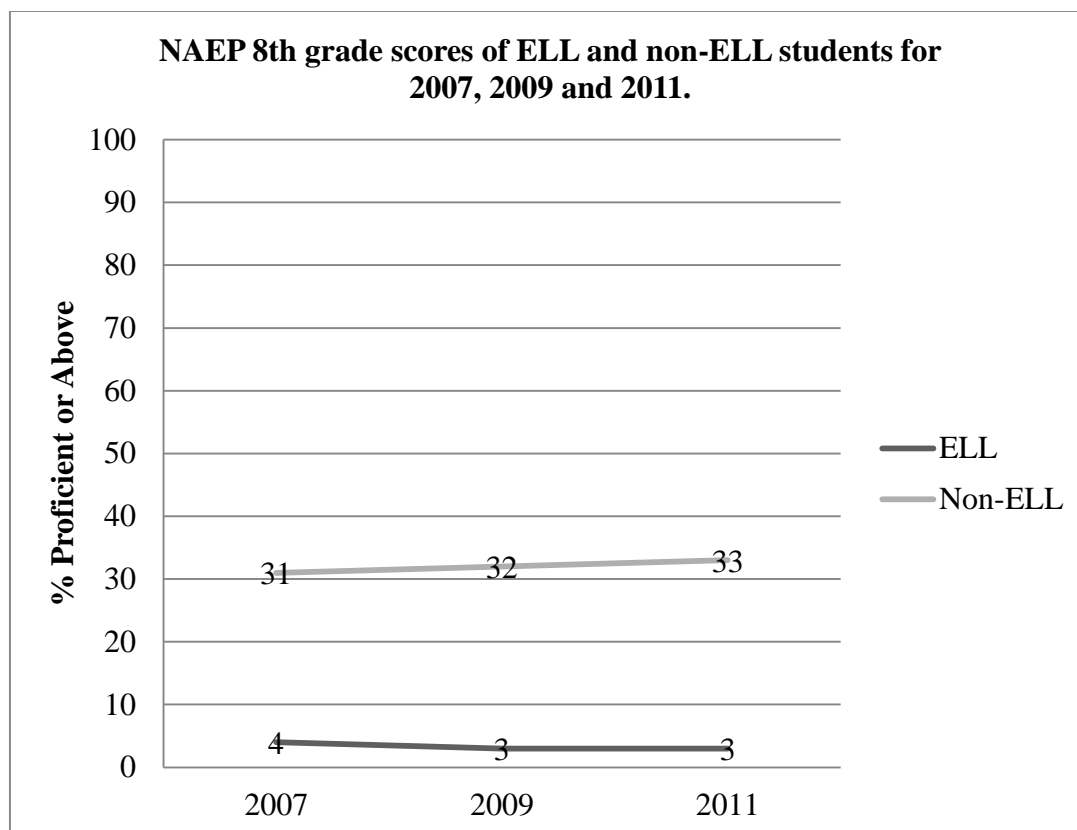
Figure 2. NAEP 8th grade reading scores of ELL and non-ELL students for 2007, 2008, and 2011. Adapted from Barron et al. (2012).

Instead of seeing the achievement gap closing as students progress through their school years, a widening of the gap is evident. With the growing number of ELLs across the country, it is imperative that educators aggressively seek answers to the reasons that these achievement gaps are not closing. An examination of these reasons reveals several inequities in the education process provided to ELLs versus that of non-ELLs. These inequities in education fall into two categories: (a) issues specific to the students and (b) issues related to schooling (Barron et al., 2012).

Issues specific to students' high rates of poverty, within the ELL population, a lack of social support and a lack of early learning opportunities. Poverty plays a role in education equity for all students, but it is compounded for young ELL students because they are attempting to learn a new language while developing their native language.

Poverty plays a role in student access to healthcare and good nutrition habits. Many parents do not speak English and have difficulty accessing support services offered for children. Young children, in many cases, do not have access to early learning opportunities. Parents who do not speak English are unable to provide as many key literacy experiences as those who are fluent in English (Barron et al., 2012).

Children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds often perform below those from higher socioeconomic backgrounds on tests of intelligence and academic achievement (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002). Commonly, low-SES children show cognitive problems, including short attention spans, high levels of distractibility, difficulty monitoring the quality of their work, and difficulty generating new solutions to problems (Alloway, Gathercole, Kirkwood, & Elliott, 2009). These issues specific to these students can make school harder for children from impoverished backgrounds.

One reason many students seem unmotivated is because of lack of hope and optimism. Low socioeconomic status and the accompanying financial hardships are correlated with depressive symptoms (Butterworth, Olesen, & Leach, 2012). Hope is a powerful thing. Research suggests that lower socioeconomic status is often associated with viewing the future as containing more negative events than positive ones (Robb, Simon, & Wardle, 2009). Low or no expectancy is also related to low socioeconomic status (Odéen et al., 2012). In short, being poor is associated with lowered expectations about future outcomes.

Issues directly related to the "schooling process" include unequal schooling, unequal access to qualified teachers, lack of access to a high-quality curriculum, and dysfunctional learning environments (Darling-Hammond, 2010). Unequal schooling

occurs in large high poverty schools with a disproportionately high number of ELL students. Since standardized testing has become widespread and the use of proficiency labels is often a common practice, students may be placed in an academic track based upon their current knowledge of English and language learning abilities. This frequently leaves ELL students in a track that does not have access to the highest level of curriculum standards.

While ELL students at all ages can learn conversational English fairly quickly, it becomes more and more difficult to learn the academic language required to be successful in middle and high school. Although these reasons such as the effects of poverty, difficulty acquiring a new language, cultural differences and expectations, and resource equity that are often provided to explain the achievement gap between ELLs and non-ELLs and continue to be examined and reviewed, the gap fails to narrow (Barron et al., 2012).

Children in impoverished neighborhoods are surrounded by more crime and violence and suffer from stress that interferes with learning. Children with less exposure to mainstream society are less familiar with standard English. When few parents have strong educations themselves, schools cannot benefit from parental pressure for a high-quality curriculum. Children have few college-educated role models to emulate and few peers whose families set high academic standards (Rothstein, 2013). Schools that serve a diverse pupil population such as low income status and English language learning, face two challenges. The first is academic diversity. Poor students tend to come to school significantly behind their affluent peers. Meeting the needs of both groups of students is hard, even before getting to the issues of individual differences. The second challenge is

cultural diversity. Parenting among poor and affluent families tend to differ greatly, leading to different expectations regarding schooling (Petrilli, 2013). Schools with well-developed and aligned curriculums, good teacher–principal collaboration, and concerted efforts to involve parents made greater progress. But such reform programs made little or no difference in neighborhoods of concentrated poverty, where nearly all students were residentially mobile, were Black, and had low-income parents with little formal education and a likelihood of unemployment (Rothstein, 2013).

Many children who struggle cognitively either act out (exhibit problem behavior) or shut down (show learned helplessness). But cognitive capacity, as well as intelligence, is a teachable skill (Buschkuehl & Jaeggi, 2010). The student's attitude about learning (his or her mind-set) is also a moderately robust predictive factor (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007). Taken together, hope—or the lack of hope—and mind-set—whether you believe that you are simply born smart or that you can grow in intelligence along the way—can be either significant assets or serious liabilities. If students think failure or low performance is likely, they will probably not bother to try.

Similarly, if they think they are not smart enough and cannot succeed, they will probably not put out any effort (Jensen, 2013). Moreover, the passive "I give up" posture may actually be learned helplessness, shown for decades in the research as a symptom of a stress disorder and depression. Research from 60 high-poverty schools tells us that the primary factor in student motivation and achievement is not the student's home environment; it is the school and the teacher (Irvin, Meece, Byun, Farmer, & Hutchins, 2011). Mindset and effort can be taught, and strong teachers do this every day.

Children who grow up in low socioeconomic conditions typically have a smaller vocabulary than middle-class children do, which raises the risk for academic failure. Children from low-income families hear, on average, 13 million words by age 4. In middle-class families, children hear about 26 million words during that same time period. In upper-income families, they hear a staggering 46 million words by age 4—three times as many as their lower-income counterparts. In fact, toddlers from middle- and upper-income families actually used more words in talking to their parents than low-SES mothers used in talking to their own children (Jensen, 2013). A child's vocabulary is part of the brain's tool kit for learning, memory, and cognition. Words help children represent, manipulate, and reframe information. Kids from low-income families are less likely to know the words a teacher uses in class or the words that appear in reading material. When children are not familiar with words, they do not want to read, often tune out, or feel like school is not for them (Jensen, 2013).

Schools without a strong climate of support for low income homes allow students to fall through the cracks of access to high-quality instruction. These schools fail to support the development and practices of teachers to effectively meet the various needs of their diverse student population. Effectively addressing these challenges allows school districts to make significant gains among the subpopulation most drastically affecting adequate yearly progress (Barron et al., 2012).

Educators should support students in learning to live comfortably in two worlds. Often the invitation to build a dream is an invitation to move into a different circle of life, one remote from the familiar. Teachers must help young people become bicultural. Rather than suggesting that kids from poverty backgrounds must leave behind language,

music, customs, and other elements that shape their lives, these mentors help students extend their experiences while still valuing the experiences they grew up with—and deal with the accompanying emotional tensions (Tomlinson, 2013).

Teacher Preparation

As the number of ELLs in U.S. classroom grows, so does the need for school staff who are knowledgeable about ELLs, and for appropriate instructional and organizational strategies to ensure their success. In the past decade, the proportion of teachers with at least one ELL student has nearly doubled; however, efforts to prepare teachers for these changes have not kept pace. Lack of expertise among mainstream teachers with ELLs in their classes have shown that teachers do not feel prepared to meet the needs of their ELLs and other culturally-diverse students. Recent research suggests that principals play a vital role in ensuring that teachers receive the training and support they need to provide high-quality content area instruction to ELLs, but principals themselves often feel underprepared to meet the needs of ELLs (NCEE, 2014).

District officials may assume many responsibilities with regard to ELLs, including setting procedures for the identification and exit of ELLs, administering English learning proficiency assessments, recruiting and retaining teachers with appropriate qualifications, setting instructional and curricular policies with regard to ELLs, and providing support for low-performing schools. A study of a nationally-representative sample of Title III districts found that staffing and ELL-related expertise at the district level varied, with approximately 40% reporting back the lack of ELL expertise within the district central office was a challenge (NCEE, 2014).

Although most teachers strive to teach all their students, most are unprepared to meet the challenge of educating ELLs, largely because they have taught for years within subtractive and remedial environments (Estrada et al., 2009). Schools need to design policies and practices that will effectively engage parents of ELL children (Hernandez, Denton, & Macartney, 2007). Some of the biggest challenges to engaging families of ELL children include the lack of bilingual staff, differences in communication styles, and differences in the school's and families' expectations about children's development and learning (Castro, Espinosa, & Paez, 2011). In an effort to overcome these hurdles, policymakers might consider the benefits of incentivizing bilingualism for teacher qualifications, allowing teachers to specialize in a second language, and rewarding such teachers for bringing language-based proficiencies into their profession (Hanna, 2011).

According to data from the 2000 U.S. Census, about one in five children ages 5–17 in the United States (approximately 10.8 million children) are from immigrant families (Capps et al., 2005). The population of children in immigrant families is growing faster than any other group of children in the nation (Hernandez et al., 2008). Most of these children, 79%, were born in the United States and are therefore U.S. citizens (Hernandez et al., 2008). With ELLs typically placed with teachers who do not know how to raise their academic achievement, it should come as no surprise that these students are at risk of dropping out (Crawford, 2004).

One of the greatest concerns facing educators today toward the rapidly growing immigrant populations in our schools, centers on the adequacy of teacher preparation and training. Researchers are finding that because there are so many different languages represented in American schools today, it has become impossible for bilingual teachers to

speak so many languages. There is a significant pressure for teachers to prepare ELLs to achieve higher levels academically and to meet standards just like any other American students (Garrett, 2010). It is critical that educators understand that many elements interact to influence the school performance of students who are acquiring English as another language (Freeman & Freeman, 2011).

Although a small but growing body of empirical research has shed some light on important consideration for teaching ELLs, many questions still remain about how educators, schools, and districts can best address ELLs' diverse learning needs. District administrators have reported a lack of information about programs and curricula that are most effective for ELLs, and a recent literature review noted a scarcity of tools available to practitioners for evaluating effectiveness of ELL programs. District administrators also have reported a lack of expertise among mainstream teaching in addressing the needs of ELLs, as well as difficulty in recruit secondary-level content area teachers with this expertise (NCEE, 2014).

Currently, at the various stages of teacher preparation, certification, and evaluation, there is insufficient information on what teachers should know about teaching the ELL population. A multi-subject elementary school teacher candidate, for example, maybe required to take courses in early childhood development, English language arts, math, science, social studies, art, behavior management, and assessment, but not in the pedagogy of teaching ELLs. Without specific required coursework relating to the unique learning needs of ELLs, teachers will not be able to teach these students adequately.

Additionally, completion of the state approved teacher-preparation program must often be accompanied by a passing score on the state teacher exam. Often, these exams

do not specifically assess for teacher knowledge or skills relevant to the various aspects of teaching ELLs (Samson & Collins, 2012). Studies suggest that teachers need better preparation with regard to ELL specific practices and that this preparation should begin in preservice programs and continue through ongoing professional development (NCEE, 2014).

As student populations' change and increasing numbers of English learners enter our schools, it is important for all the professionals working with these students to be knowledgeable about current theories of language acquisition and to be aware of the linguistic, social, and, cultural factors that significantly influence ELL students' academic performance (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). The lack of enthusiasm for serving ELLs is unfortunate, but understandable. Public schools may feel they have little to gain and much to lose by enrolling older adolescents who have little or no English. No Child Left Behind demands that after one year of enrollment, ELLs must take statewide assessments, and the results must be integrated into the school's accountability measures. Enrolling large numbers of adolescent ELLs can put the school at risk of failing to make adequate yearly progress (Rance-Roney, 2009).

Many teachers of ELLs are increasingly concerned about being held accountable for their students' progress as measured by standardized tests. Clearly, teachers of ELL students need the appropriate training to be able to meet their students' language and learning needs and to facilitate academic growth, yet most teachers lack this training. While some research indicates that there are promising teaching methods for working with ELLs, the actual knowledge and skills that teacher candidates need to support effective instruction for ELLs does not always reach them (Samson & Collins, 2012).

In response to these factors, teachers develop attitudes and their own beliefs about teaching second language students. Their beliefs often govern how they teach. However, when teachers read theory and research and reflect on their teaching in light of this knowledge, they develop principles that guide their teaching. New experiences can cause teachers to refine their principles to more effectively teach their students (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). Our beliefs affect how we teach and interact with others, so we must be aware of our own thinking and assumptions (Ramirez & Soto-Hinman, 2009).

As society changes, teachers can no longer rely on their own cultural heritage to inform their understanding of the families in their school community. This does not mean that any teachers' culture or background knowledge lacks value; it simply means that teachers must be aware of other viewpoints and allow others to maintain their own cultures. When we understand this, we will be better able to make our schools places that welcome students and families from a variety of backgrounds and cultures (Ramirez & Soto-Hinman, 2009).

When a school has a large proportion of students at risk of failure, the consequences of disadvantage are exacerbated. Remediation becomes the norm, and teachers have little time to challenge students to overcome personal, family, and community hardships that typically interfere with learning. In schools with high student mobility, teachers spend more time repeating lessons for newcomers and have fewer opportunities to adapt instruction to a student's individual strengths and weaknesses (Rothstein, 2013). As mentioned in Freeman and Freeman's (2011) work, perhaps it is more important now than ever before for educators to be aware of the many issues

affecting the academic performance of immigrant students in our school so that they can be advocates for all their students.

Effective Instructional Strategies

Teachers and administrators often express willingness to create a supportive learning environment for all students. However, they do not always command the tools necessary to realize such an environment (Agirdag, 2009). A number of factors influence how teachers teach. These include their own experience as students, their teacher education programs, their school administrators and colleagues, the students, materials, and state and federal laws (Freeman & Freeman, 2011). If teachers try to elevate curriculum expectations without changing instructional approaches, ELLs may simply experience greater frustration. If a school's culture remains dysfunctional, teachers are unlikely to engage in the difficult work necessary to improve curriculum or instruction (Aleman, Johnson, & Perez, 2009).

Previous research suggests that ELL students with limited English proficiency may be more likely than other children to have teachers with fewer years of teaching experience and to attend schools with a greater percentage of low-income children and fewer resources. All of these factors may influence the educational outcomes of ELL students, including the acquisition of English language proficiency (Halle et al., 2012). For teachers to help their students, they must know their students and understand the contexts of their lives (Freeman & Freeman, 2011).

Within the context of the school and the ELL program are classrooms in which teachers make daily decisions about instruction that will affect the educational outcomes for their students. Nationally, there is one certified English as a Second Language

teacher for every 44 students (Kindler, 2002). Professional development specifically in meeting the educational needs of ELLs is an ongoing need. Teachers need to understand why and how to increase ELLs' opportunities to learn academic English. They need to use a comprehensive framework for delivering academic instruction. And they need to be able to differentiate instruction to promote the success of all students, including ELLs (Center for Public Education, 2007). As stated by Calderón et al. (2011) in their article, "Effective Instruction for English Learners":

> Researchers consistently find wide and persistent achievement disparities between English learners and English-proficient students – gaps that we believe signal a need for increased teacher and staff preparation, whole-school commitment to the English learner population, and home-school linkages and collaborations, so that schools can more effectively address these students' language, literacy, and core content needs. Such institutional preparedness is critical to addressing the achievement gaps seen across various age groups and academic content areas – gaps that start early and persist even among second and third generation children of some immigrant groups . . . . Based on the findings, from recent studies, as described in this article, what matters most in educating English learners is the quality of instruction. (pp. 106-107)

Samson and Collins (2012), who applied research from for the Center of American Progress, stated in their report, "Preparing All Teachers to Meet the Needs of English Language Learners: Applying Research to Policy and Practice for Teacher Effectiveness," that all teachers working with ELLs must have a strong understanding of:

Oral language development. Teachers must have a working knowledge and understanding of language as a structured system and of the role of the various components of language. Examples would include word sounds, grammar, definition(s), and social conventions.

Teachers also must be aware of the core similarities and differences between first and second language development and at minimum have common knowledge of patterns and milestones of the second language acquisition process to be able to differentiate materials and lessons for individual students according to their level.

Academic language. Teachers must have a working knowledge of academic language (the type of language used for instruction and found in textbooks and assessments) and recognize the difference between conversational language (language used in common conversation).

Cultural diversity and inclusivity. Cultural differences often affect ELL students' classroom engagement and performance in numerous ways. Teachers must have an understanding of the culture of their students to be able to better assist them and provide an environment that is safe for learning. Various cultures for behavior, communication, and interactions with others that ELL students use in their homes often do not reflect the norms that are enforced in the school setting.

In addition, small-group reading intervention is one effective, research-based strategy that addresses the literacy needs of English language learners performing below grade level. But teachers need more than just research to support their endeavors to provide the most effective instruction for ELLs as well as other students. School leaders need to provide the resources and necessary support to enable teachers to enact these

practices (Huebner, 2009). How much better it would be if teachers viewed languages other than English as an empowering resource for bringing all students biliteracy and bilingualism, providing both ELLs and English-dominant students an advantage in a high-tech, global society (Estrada et al., 2009). When students cannot perform academically because they lack English proficiency, teachers tend to water down the curriculum or translate content information simplistically. Well-meaning teachers think, "Let me make it easier for this student." This practice works against ELLs as they do not learn to read or learn academic content at grade level (Estrada et al., 2009).

Further studies indicate, that instruction in the key components of reading identified by the National Literacy Panel—phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension—has clear benefits for ELLs as well as for other students (August & Shanahan, 2006). However, there is a growing consensus that ELLs are less likely to struggle with the basic skills—phonemic awareness and phonics—than with the last three components—fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. These are the areas that cause many students, especially ELLs, to falter in mid-elementary school when they are expected to make the transition from "learning to read" to "reading to learn" (Francis, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006).

When working with ELLs to improve their literacy, it is important that teachers choose interventions that target the specific difficulties each student is experiencing. When selecting a program, educators should ensure that it includes fast-paced, interactive instruction that encourages active student participation. The program should recognize all the areas of essential literacy skills: (a) phonological awareness, (b) phonics, (c)

vocabulary, (d) fluency, and (e) comprehension. Additionally, this strategy can help students perform at or above grade level and sustain high performance (Huebner, 2009).

Bilingual and multilingual students have a variety of tools they can use to fill this conceptual reservoir. Teachers need to create a structure in which students can use those tools to strengthen their literacy skills and blossom. One planning structure that works well for this is thematic units. Integrated thematic units focus on core content that teachers teach across disciplines throughout the day. Making connections throughout the day gives English language learners multiple opportunities to acquire meaningful language and content that is both academically and linguistically useful (Upczak-Garcia, 2012).

Others have identified many evidence-based practices that enhance the academic engagement and learning of ELLs. We know, for example, that culturally knowledgeable teachers who are proficient in English and the language learner's native language are a particular asset and that the strategic inclusion of the student's native language in classroom instruction can increase overall language and academic learning (August & Shanahan, 2006). We also know that screening for and closely monitoring learning problems, intensive small-group interventions, extensive and varied vocabulary instruction, and regular peer-assisted learning opportunities improve the effectiveness of literacy learning for ELLs (Gersten et al., 2007).

Now, as in past decades, most teachers devote little time to explicit vocabulary instruction. Teachers are already under pressure to cover more material than time permits, and they are hindered by the need to devote extra time to vocabulary. Moreover, teachers face the challenge of identifying which words are most important for their

students to learn, especially given the large gap in vocabulary size between students with poorly educated or non-English-speaking parents and their more advantaged peers (David, 2010).

Across grade levels, teachers get conflicting advice about which words to focus on. Some researchers argue that struggling students should be introduced early on to interesting, sophisticated words, partly to engage their interest and partly to help them catch up to their more advantaged peers (Beck & McKeown, 2007). Some argue for subject-specific academic words, such as *circumference* and *pollination* (Marzano & Pickering, 2005), and others for words that cut across disciplines, such as *synthesize* or *infer* (Coxhead, 2000).

According to David (2010), no one strategy can do the job alone, however, because different kinds of words require different approaches— and students' needs vary by age, background knowledge, native language, and motivation—teachers must know and be adept in selecting among multiple strategies (Blachowicz, Fisher, Ogle, & Watts-Taffe, 2006). Devoting sufficient time to these activities can happen only if all teachers come on board and integrate vocabulary development into their instruction throughout the day. For example, elementary teachers might pick informational texts and stories to read aloud to students with rich vocabulary as opportunities to learn new content and new vocabulary, along with careful attention to strategies that support learning the new words.

Secondary teachers might use science experiments and movies, as well as written text, as sources for zeroing in on vocabulary development (David, 2010). Embedding rich language experiences within content instruction helps students participate in meaningful ways and gives them access to the words they need to share their inner

thinking—in either language (Upczak-Garcia, 2012). English language learners need accelerated language development. That acceleration is fostered by experiences that allow students to share ideas, support them with evidence, and construct new knowledge with other students (Zwiers & Crawford, 2009).

As previously stated by Gersten et al. (2007), one targeted approach to helping struggling ELLs is daily small-group instruction for students with similar needs. A growing number of high-quality, randomized control trials show this intervention can produce sustained improvement in student achievement—especially if the groups focus on explicit, interactive instruction in the core areas of literacy (Huebner, 2009). The essential strategy is providing opportunities for students to practice using new words through reading, writing, speaking, and especially conversations led by teachers (Carlo et al., 2004).

English learners have a language barrier—and often cultural barriers—to overcome in order to be able to participate, access the curriculum, and succeed in school. Like all students, they need caring and qualified teachers, a rigorous curriculum that prepares them for college and career-readiness in the 21st century, support systems addressing the myriad conditions that get in the way of learning, and assessment and accountability mechanisms that ensure they are progressing toward their goals (Grant Makers for Education, 2013). As educators, our job is not just to teach students to read and write well, but rather to fill the conceptual reservoir as deeply as possible, whether students can read and write—or not. Reading and writing are simply a means to the end of conceptual development. As larger numbers of English learners reach American schools, K-12 general education teachers are discovering the need to learn how to teach

these students. Schools must improve the skills of educators through comprehensive professional development opportunities—an ambitious but necessary undertaking that requires appropriate funding (Calderón et al., 2011).

Instructional Program Models

The English Language Acquisition Model (ELA Model) and its dual language components, illustrated in Table 3, were implemented in the Conroe Independent School District during the 2007-2008 school year to improve the overall performance of ELLs being served in the district's bilingual education program. In addition, the ESL Content-Based Instructional Program was implemented in grades PK–12 during the same academic school year as the English Language Acquisition Model. For the purpose of this study, ESL/content-based instruction is an English program that provides supplementary instruction for all content area instruction; it integrates English as a Second Language instruction with subject matter instruction that focuses not only on learning a second language, but using that language as a medium to learn mathematics, science, social studies, or other academic subjects.

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of the school district's bilingual education and ESL programs. Throughout this study, results will add additional data and information to the current second language acquisition research of longitudinal benefits of using native language support alongside English instruction versus solely English instruction.

Table 3

ELA Model with Dual Language Components

	English Language Acquisition Model with Dual Language Components							
	PK	**K**	**1st**	**2nd**	**3rd**	**4th**	**5th**	**6th**
English	50%	50%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	90%
Spanish								
	50%	50%	50%	40%	30%	20%	10%	10%

Components of the ELA Model	Components of the Transitional Model
1. Separation of languages.	1. Separation of languages.
2. All content areas are taught in Spanish and English.	2. Build a literacy foundation in Spanish before teaching in English.
3. New concepts are taught in both the first language and the second language.	3. New concepts are taught in the first language and transferred to the second language.
4. Concepts taught in the first language transfer to the second language and vice versa.	4. Concepts taught in the first language transfer to the second language and vice versa.
5. ESL will be integrated into Language Arts, Math, Science, and Social Studies, so there will no longer be an ESL block of instruction.	5. Transition to all-English instruction is a major focus in this program (as opposed to bilingualism/biliteracy).
6. Consistency across grade levels and schools.	6. Build a foundation in Spanish in the content areas before teaching in English.
7. Accountability in implementation.	
8. Teachers and administrators should be knowledgeable about language acquisition research and instructional strategies.	
9. Instruction from PreK-1 will be 50/50 English/ Spanish	
10. Flexibility	

The study further examined the reading performance of students on the STAAR assessment who participated or were participating in this district's bilingual education program or ESL program, were non-mobile Hispanic students currently or previously identified as LEP, and who were currently enrolled in 7th grade during the 2013–2014 academic school year. The performances of the students studied were narrowed down to the sampling size of 86 students within the district who participated in either both the ELA Model and ESL Content-Based Instructional Program or only the ESL Content-Based Instructional Program. The data sources used for this purpose were various district reading assessments that included the state of Texas' ELL Progress Measure, the Performance-Based Monitoring Assessment System (PBMAS), the State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR), the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS), and the Annual Measure Achievement Objectives (AMAOs).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR. This study examined the academic achievement of 86 non-mobile, economically disadvantaged, Hispanic students who were currently or previously identified as LEP and were enrolled in either the content-based English as a Second Language program or the English Language Acquisition Model of bilingual education. A paired samples *t*-test was conducted for each year of data to compare the two groups' raw scores on the STAAR in the area of reading.

Additionally, Pearson chi-square procedures were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference was present in the percentage of students who met the Satisfactory, Commended or Advanced Performance standard by the type of ELL program in which they were enrolled. The findings revealed the academic outcomes of the students enrolled in the content-based English as a Second Language program and the English Language Acquisition Model of bilingual education and served as information for the district as to which program model is more beneficial for the instruction of English language learners.

A second purpose was to survey campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to examine the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program

versus the ESL program as well as to examine the teacher perceptions of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.

This chapter describes the methods that were used in the presented study. The first section restates the research questions in the study and leads to an explanation of the research design. The second section discusses the setting and the sample population selected. The third section outlines the data collections. The fourth section describes the instruments that were used in the study. The fifth section provides a description of the data analysis and the methods used to interpret the data. The last section states the limitations of the study.

Research Design

This study employed a mixed-method strategy analyzing data in that both quantitative and qualitative data were used by the researcher to examine the findings. In addition, this study was longitudinal in nature. Achievement scores in reading based on STAAR were examined for each student participant. Quantitative data were used to answer the first of the five proposed research questions in this study. The qualitative data collected in this study were necessary in order to investigate the levels of implementation and understanding of both the bilingual education and ESL program models at the campus administrator, teacher, and parent level. Qualitative data were collected to answer the remaining four research questions in the study. Both the quantitative and qualitative data collected provided the information needed to examine the second language acquisition programming and its relationship to the academic reading scores of the identified students.

The quantitative data collected were cross-sectional based on the data being collected at one point in time. The data collection was archival in nature and was collected for multiple years for each student participant in the data. The study reflected a non-experimental approach since the researcher used an existing group that had been previously selected and placed in ELL programming within the school district evaluated in the study.

Research Questions

Within this study, evaluative studies of the different programs serving second language learners and the length in which the students participated provided additional information for district leaders, campus administrators, and teachers to develop a deeper understanding of where to focus the allotment of state and federal funding for the education of ELLs. In addition, the results of this examination can directly assist district leaders with supplementary information in reference to the quality of the programs offered for limited English proficient students as well as determine the ongoing needs of hiring and training highly qualified teachers to educate this particular population of students. The research in this study will further assist in identifying parental involvement and consulting strategies of programing available for language learners.

The central research questions posed by the researcher are as follow:

1. How do the reading achievement scores of students identified as Spanish speaking, non-mobile, Hispanic, and LEP differ between those who participate in a bilingual education program and those who participate in an ESL program as measured by STAAR?

2. What are the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program of parents of students identified as LEP who were currently served or have been served in a second language acquisition program?

3. What do campus principals believe are the benefits of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program?

4. What do district teachers who currently teach within these programs believe are the benefits of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program?

5. What do district teachers believe regarding the professional development offered by the district, specific to second language learners, among the district's teachers who teach ELL students?

Setting

The district evaluated in this study is currently the 14th largest in the state of Texas and the 71st largest in the nation. Presently, the district serves approximately 55,000 students, in grades Pre-K through 12, of which 6,933 are identified as limited English proficient, which constitutes 12.6% of the current student enrollment. According to the school district's Public Education Information Management System, 75 languages were identified on the students' individual home language surveys as the language spoken in the home. In addition, the school district is required to provide a Spanish bilingual education program, grades Pre-K through 6 of which 4,211 (7.7% of the district's enrollment) participates. The remaining identified LEP students in grades Pre-K through 12, 2,411 (4.4% of the district's enrollment) are served through a content-based ESL instructional program. Currently, the school district is comprised of 61 schools: 5 comprehensive high schools; 3 ninth grade campuses, 2 high school STEM

academies, 7 junior high school grades seventh and eighth; nine intermediate campuses grades fifth and sixth; 31 elementary campus grades PK–4; three elementary flex campus grades PK–6; and 1 academic alternative high school.

Due to low-performing scores of ELLs on state assessments, the district in the study established a bilingual and ESL Council to perform a two-year study of the current programming options for their ELLs. The council consisted of the district's deputy superintendent, assistant superintendents of both elementary and secondary education, campus principals at the high school, junior high, intermediate, and elementary levels, the directors of human resources, curriculum, instruction and staff development, special education departments, and the district's ESL instructional coach. The bilingual and ESL Council members created both the district's program mission for ELL instruction as well as the performance objectives listed below:

Conroe ISD Bilingual/ESL Program Mission

To enhance and accelerate the natural transition of language acquisition from the first language to the second language (English) while ensuring long-term linguistic, affective, and cognitive development.

Bilingual and ESL Program Performance Objectives

- Increase the number of LEP students achieving Advanced High proficiency rating on TELPAS

- Increase the percent of LEP students who improve by one or more proficiency levels in English (Oral-IPT and/or TELPAS)

- Increase the percent of students who meet exit criteria within 5 years of entry (PK) or 3 years of entry (1st grade)

The English Language Acquisition Model and its dual language components, presented in Chapter II, was implemented in the school district during the 2007–2008 school year to improve the overall performance of ELLs being served in the district's bilingual education program. In addition, the bilingual and ESL Council created the Non-Negotiable Factors for the ELA Model, the English Language Acquisition Model Components of Success, and the Role of the Principal expectations for campuses who would implement the ELA Model listed below:

English Language Acquisition Model Components of Success

- Teachers can no longer code switch

- No longer and ESL Block of instruction

- Highly engaging opportunities for language use

- Concepts in L1 transfer to L2

- Emergent literacy instruction in L1

- Access to L2

- New concepts can be taught in L2

- Consistency across grade levels, schools

- Accountability in implementation

- Teacher and administrators' knowledgeable about language acquisition research and instructional strategies

English Language Acquisition Model Components of Success

- Establish consistency across schools in separation of languages

- Language Assignment – Who teaches in what language throughout the day

- Dual Language does not equal 100% English.

- Develop a long-range plan for all teachers to be trained in sheltered instruction methodologies.

The Role of the Principal

- Train and educate your staff on the current program model, PK & K phase in program and possible campus grade level pilots in grades first through sixth.

- Share staff development information with your teachers from the Bilingual/ESL department.

- Be an advocate for your district Bilingual/ESL program model.

In addition, the ESL Content-Based Instructional Program was implemented in grades Pre-K through 12 during the same academic school year as the English Language Acquisition Model. All 61 schools within the school district provide the ESL Content-Based Instructional Program for students identified as ESL. Of the 45 identified elementary campuses, 21 currently serve identified bilingual education students through the ELA Model. Of the 21 bilingual campuses, 6 are identified as intermediate and 15 are elementary.

Participants

Participants in this study included students, campus administrators, teachers, and parents. The students whose data are presented in this study were selected based on their 2007–2008 school year enrollment status. Students were identified as limited English proficient (LEP) kindergartners and placed by the LPAC committee in either a bilingual education or ESL program. In addition, the student sample was narrowed further by selecting identified students who were non-mobile, Hispanic, currently or previously identified as LEP, and were enrolled in seventh grade during the 2013–2014 academic

school year. For the purpose of this study, non-mobile is identified as a student who remains enrolled in the school district from kindergarten through the end of their seventh grade school year. Furthermore, the socioeconomic status of the students who met the conditions were identified for the purpose of the evaluation of economic background and its impact on academic reading scores. The study was not limited to students identified in a small sample of schools within the school district; it looked at the entire student population who met the criteria for a larger sample size.

Campus administrators, teachers, and parents were selected from district campuses that had either a bilingual or ESL program. There were campuses within the school district that had both types of programs (bilingual and ESL) within the same school; participants had the option to evaluate one or both programs for the purpose of the evaluation at each campus. Campus principals within the school district were chosen to participate in the study's evaluation. In addition, the principals selected needed to be in their current position for a minimum of two school years to participate.

Teachers selected to participate in this evaluation were also identified from both the district's bilingual and ESL programs. Twenty teachers were selected: 10 were identified as currently teaching in a bilingual program setting and holding a valid bilingual teaching certification and 10 were identified as currently teaching in an ESL content-based instructional setting and holding a valid ESL teaching certification. Teachers chosen in this study needed to have a minimum of three years' experience teaching in their current position.

The parents of the identified student sampling size were chosen to participate in this study. Parents were identified as having a student enrolled during the 2007–2008

school year who was identified as a kindergartner, who was limited English proficient, and placed by the LPAC committee in either a bilingual education or ESL program. In addition, their student was further identified as a student who was non-mobile, Hispanic, and currently or previously identified as LEP, and was enrolled in seventh grade during the 2013–2014 academic school year. All campus principals, teachers, and parent participants in this study participated on a voluntary basis after school hours.

Procedures

The data sources used for the quantitative portion of this study were archival in nature. The researcher received written approval from the school district examined in this study to access student confidential records and was granted permission of the study by the district's Research Review Committee. The researcher worked closely with the district's Director of Technology Network Systems, Director of Technology Information Systems, Coordinators of Bilingual and ESL Program, and PEIMS departments to collect the archival data as per the criteria outlined in this study. A meeting was held with the researcher and the district individuals to discuss the data needed for the purpose of this study. The data were then sent to the researcher in an excel format. In addition, the researcher consulted with the district individuals to ensure the accuracy of the student data collected.

As illustrated in Figure 3, the students identified for the purpose of this study, met the following criteria:

- Enrolled in kindergarten during the 2007–2008 school year
- Identified as LEP
- Identified as participating in a bilingual or ESL program

- Identified as Hispanic

- Enrolled in school district in seventh grade during the 2013–2014 school year

- Identified as non-mobile

- Identified as SES or non-SES

- Identified as Special Education or non-Special Education

- Identified as retained or not retained in one or more grade levels

This study examined 86 students: 43 students met the criteria and were identified as ESL

and 43 were identified as bilingual. Students were matched on a one-to-one

correspondence in accordance to the criteria outline.
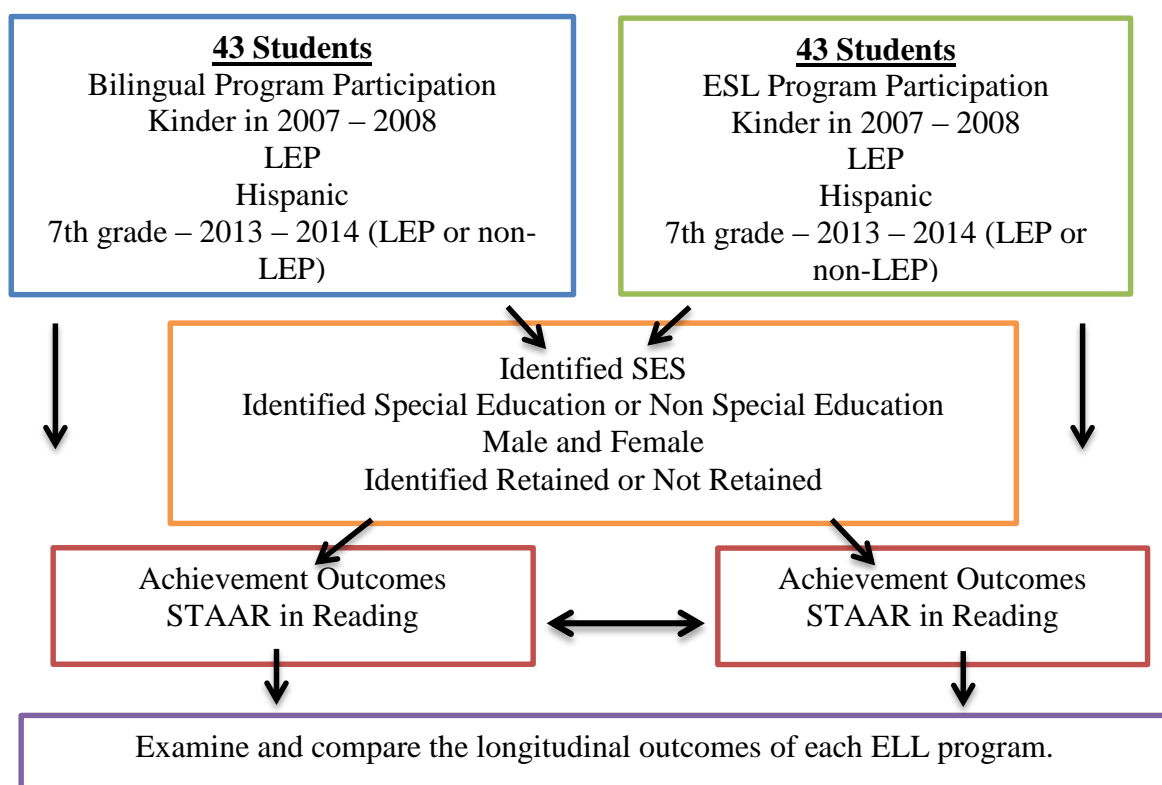
Figure 3. Criteria for participants.

A paired samples two-tailed *t*-test was then used to compare the two groups' raw scores on the STAAR in the area of reading. Additionally, Pearson chi-square procedures were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference was present in the percentage of students who met the Satisfactory, Commended or Advanced Performance standard by the type of ELL program in which they were enrolled. The results of the paired samples two-tailed *t*-test and the Pearson chi-square measures were used to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR. In addition, the findings revealed the academic outcomes of the students enrolled in the content-based English as a Second Language program and the English Language Acquisition Model of bilingual education and served as information for the district as to which program model was more beneficial for the instruction of its English language learners.

Qualitative data collected for this study examined the beliefs of the benefits of the quality of both programs serving students who were currently participating or had participated in the district's second language acquisition programs. Surveys of the district campus administrators, district bilingual and ESL teachers, and parents of the selected student participants who were currently participating or had participated in bilingual or ESL programming were conducted to assess the beliefs of each of the instructional programs and which they saw as more beneficial for the district's Hispanic ELL population. An additional survey examined the teachers' beliefs of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.

The surveys and survey questions were created and designed by the researcher. The online surveys for the parents of ELL students were translated into Spanish and available in two languages so that the parents could choose the language of their choice when answering the question. The researcher emailed surveys to all the parents of the identified 86 students in this study. Surveys allowed the parent participants a two-week window to provide the researcher with their answers. The online survey system provided two reminders within the two-week window to encourage participation. Additional procedures were added to the parent survey component of the qualitative research. Minimal response was received by the researcher through the online data gathering service of surveymonkey.com. The researcher contracted a bilingual individual for a total of 10 working hours to call parents and conduct the survey via a phone conversation. Parent participants in this study were on a volunteer basis.

Campus administrators and teachers identified as participants in the surveys received surveys through their district email. The researcher met with the Director of Human Resources to identify the years of service for both the campus administrators and teachers. Campus administrators with two years in their current positions and teachers certified as bilingual and ESL educators with three years in their current position were selected for the purpose of this study. The online survey system provided two reminders within the two-week window to encourage participation. If needed, the researcher called campus administrators and teacher participants to encourage their participation in the survey. Campus administration and teacher participants in this study were on a volunteer basis and conducted outside the school workday.

Instruments

The researcher used the district's electronic student data systems to collect the quantitative data necessary to conduct the study. The electronic systems used in the district to store student information were the Aware component of Eduphoria!, School Objects, and a system called View-It created internally by the Department of Technology. Both Aware and View-It data portals were accessed to pull individual student information. Information retrieved through these systems included individual raw scores on STAAR for each student during their third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh school years. In addition, students' socioeconomic status, retention status, special education indicators, LEP indicators, and gender status were accessed.

The researcher used a two-tailed *t*-test and Pearson chi-square measures to compare academic outcomes of two different ELL groups. The two ELL groups were independent of each other with each having selected criteria equally distributed. The reading test scores collected from the STAAR assessment were then compared to evaluate the academic achievement of students who participated in a bilingual and ESL program to determine whether a statistical significant difference existed.

Qualitative data collected for this study examined the beliefs of the quality of both programs serving students. Separate surveys were conducted with campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to determine the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program as well as to determine the teacher beliefs of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field. The surveys used had Likert-type scale answer choices such as strongly agree, agree,

undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree as well as open-ended responses. The

following are sample survey questions that were included in the study:

1. There are/were systems in place at my child's school to provide extra help

   with their second language needs.

2. How would you rate the quality of the Bilingual or ESL Program in which

   your child participates/participated?

3. I believe that the Bilingual or ESL Program is meeting or met its goal with my

   child.

4. What do you believe the benefits of the Bilingual Program are?

5. What do you believe the benefits of the ESL Program are?

6. There was strong connection between the *Sheltered Instruction Observation*

   Protocol (SIOP) professional development training offered by the school

   district and the daily instruction I offered the English language learners in my

   classroom.

Analysis

The first research question was answered by analyzing individual students' scores

on the STAAR assessments. Data results of students participating in the bilingual

program were then compared to students who participated in the ESL program to

determine which program model produced better reading academic outcomes by using a

paired two-tailed *t*-test and Pearson chi-square measures.

Regarding the remaining research questions, the campus administrator, teacher,

and parent surveys were analyzed by the researcher to determine the beliefs of the quality

of both instructional programs and their relationship to the outcomes of student academic

performance. The researcher read all the responses from the surveys and coded them

according to the frequency of the answers. In addition, the researcher analyzed the

results of the teachers' surveys component that focused on the quality of professional

development provided to teachers who taught second language learners as a means to

determine the effectiveness of the district's staff development offerings and its impact on

overall ELL academic performance.

Limitations

Due to the use of the data gathered from a portion of the identified LEP student

population within the school district and not the entire school district LEP population,

this research may not be generalizable and therefore may not be considered by the school

district leadership stakeholders as a significant cause to implement the changes

recommended by the findings. Additionally, the lack of the evaluation of the fidelity of

the implementation of both the district's bilingual and ESL programs recommended best

practices and the lack of honesty of the subjects participating in the surveys were

considered as assumptions and limitations to this study.

According to Center for Health and Safety Culture (2011), questioning the

validity of survey data is often one of the first reactions when survey results are shared.

It is important first to recognize this response for what it may be: an immediate reaction

to information challenging someone's existing beliefs. In addition, the Center for Health

and Safety Culture (2011) stated, one way to avoid accepting the new information is to

simply choose to consider it as invalid. Nonetheless, it is important to be able to

understand and convey that the science behind collecting data through self-reporting

methods is valid and reliable.

Chapter IV

Results

Introduction

The study that was conducted was a mixed methods study, in which the primary focus, conducted through quantitative methods, was to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR. A secondary purpose, conducted through qualitative methods, was to survey campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to examine the beliefs of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program as well as to examine the teacher beliefs of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field. The study looked to answer the five questions.

1. How do the reading achievement scores of students identified as Spanish speaking, non-mobile, Hispanic, and LEP differ between those who participate in a bilingual education program and those who participate in an ESL program as measured by STAAR?

2. What are the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program of parents of students identified as LEP who were currently served or have been served in a second language acquisition program?

3. What do campus principals believe are the benefits of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program?

4. What do district teachers who currently teach within these programs believe are the benefits of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program?

5. What do district teachers believe regarding the professional development offered by the district, specific to second language learners, among the district's teachers who teach ELL students?

Quantitative Results

To answer the primary quantitative research question regarding whether a statistically significant difference was present longitudinally between the reading test scores of students who participated in a bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by the STAAR, a paired samples *t*-test was conducted for each year of data. As noted previously, students in the ESL program and in the bilingual program were matched on: gender, economic status, retention status, and enrollment in special education.

For the 2012 school year, a statistically significant difference was present in the STAAR Reading scores between students enrolled in the bilingual program and students enrolled in an ESL program, $t(42) = 2.20$, $p = .03$. Students who were enrolled in the ESL program outperformed students in the bilingual program by 8.39%. This difference in reading scores represented a moderate effect size (Cohen's *d*) of 0.53 (Cohen, 1988). Readers are referred to Table 4 for the descriptive statistics for the 2012 school year.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the 2012 School Year STAAR Results by ELL Education Program Type

ELL Program Type	*n*	*M*	*SD*
ESL	43	72.30	15.50
Bilingual Program	43	63.91	16.21

With respect to the 2013 school year, a statistically significant difference was present between students enrolled in the bilingual program and students enrolled in an ESL program, $t(42) = 2.73$, $p = .009$. Students who were enrolled the ESL program outperformed students in the bilingual program by 9.28%. This difference represented a moderate effect size (Cohen's d) of 0.62 (Cohen, 1988). Results for this school year were similar to with the results for the 2012 school year. Readers are referred to Table 5 for the descriptive statistics for the 2013 school year.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the 2013 School Year STAAR Results by ELL Education Program Type

ELL Program Type	n	M	SD
ESL	43	74.72	14.85
Bilingual Program	43	65.44	15.15

Concerning the 2014 school year, a statistically significant difference was present between students enrolled in the bilingual program and students enrolled in an ESL program, $t(42) = 3.24$, $p = .002$. Students who were enrolled in the ESL program outperformed students in the bilingual program by 10.84%. This difference represented a moderate effect size (Cohen's d) of 0.72 (Cohen, 1988). Results for this school year were similar to with the results for the 2012 and the 2013 school years. Readers are referred to Table 6 for the descriptive statistics for the 2014 school year.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for the 2014 School Year STAAR Results by ELL Education Program Type

ELL Program Type	n	M	SD
ESL	43	77.74	13.68
Bilingual Program	43	66.91	16.46

Student performance is also evaluated, not only by raw test scores, but also by whether they met the Satisfactory standard. As such, Pearson chi-square procedures were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference was present in the percentage of students who met the Satisfactory standard by the type of bilingual program in which they were enrolled. For the 2012 school year, the result was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(1) = 0.29$, $p = .59$. Though not statistically significantly different, 11.6% more students in the ESL program met the Satisfactory standard than did students in the Bilingual Education Program. Readers are referred to Table 7 for the frequencies and percentages of student performance by ELL program type.

Table 7

Frequencies and Percentages on the 2012 STAAR Reading Met Satisfactory by ELL Education Program Type

	Met Standard	Did Not Meet Standard
ELL Program Type	n and % of Total	n and % of Total
ESL	($n = 37$) 86.0%	($n = 6$) 14.0%
Bilingual Program	($n = 32$) 74.4%	($n = 11$) 25.6%

With respect to the 2013 school year, the result was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(1) = 1.01$, $p = .32$. Though not statistically significantly different, 9.3% more students in the ESL program met the Satisfactory standard than did students in the Bilingual Education Program. As such, the results for this school year were similar to the results for the 2012 school year. Readers are referred to Table 8 for the frequencies and percentages of student performance by ELL program type.

Table 8

Frequencies and Percentages on the 2013 STAAR Reading Met Satisfactory by ELL Education Program Type

ELL Program Type	Met Standard n and % of Total	Did Not Meet Standard n and % of Total
ESL	($n = 39$) 90.7%	($n = 4$) 9.3%
Bilingual Program	($n = 35$) 81.4%	($n = 8$) 18.6%

Concerning the 2014 school year, the result was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(1) = 0.14$, $p = .71$. Though not statistically significantly different, 9.3% more students in the ESL program met the Satisfactory standard than did students in the Bilingual Education Program. Results for this school year were similar with the results for the 2012 and 2013 school years. Readers are referred to Table 9 for the frequencies and percentages of student performance by ELL program type.

Table 9

Frequencies and Percentages on the 2014 STAAR Reading Met Satisfactory by ELL Education Program Type

	Met Standard	Did Not Meet Standard
ELL Program Type	*n* and % of Total	*n* and % of Total
ESL	(*n* = 42) 97.7%	(*n* = 1) 2.3%
Bilingual Program	(*n* = 38) 88.4%	(*n* = 5) 11.6%

Along with student performance being evaluated by raw test scores and by whether they met the Satisfactory standard, student performance is also assessed regarding whether they met the Commended or Advanced Performance standard. To make this determination, Pearson chi-square procedures were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference was present in the percentage of students who met the Commended or Advanced Performance standard by the type of bilingual program in which they were enrolled. For the 2012 school year, the result was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(1) = 0.007$, $p = .93$. Though not statistically significantly different, 7.0% more students in the ESL program met the Commended or Advanced standard than did students in the Bilingual Education Program. Readers are referred to Table 10 for the frequencies and percentages of student performance by ELL program type.

Table 10

Frequencies and Percentages on the 2012 STAAR Reading Commended or Advanced
Performance by ELL Education Program Type

	Commended	Not Commended
ELL Program Type	*n* and % of Total	*n* and % of Total
ESL	(*n* = 8) 18.6%	(*n* = 35) 81.4%
Bilingual Program	(*n* = 5) 11.6%	(*n* = 38) 88.4%

Concerning the 2013 school year, the result was not statistically significant, $\chi^2(1)$ = 0.019, p = .892. Even though this analysis did not yield a statistically significant result, readers should notice that it is three times the percentage of students in the ESL program who met the Commended or Advanced standard than did students in the Bilingual Education Program. Readers are referred to Table 11 for the frequencies and percentages of student performance by ELL program type.

Table 11

Frequencies and Percentages on the 2013 STAAR Reading Commended or Advanced
Performance by ELL Education Program Type

	Commended	Not Commended
ELL Program Type	*n* and % of Total	*n* and % of Total
ESL	(*n* = 12) 27.9%	(*n* = 31) 72.1%
Bilingual Program	(*n* = 4) 9.3%	(*n* = 39) 90.7%

With respect to the 2014 school year, a statistically significant difference was not present, $\chi^2(1)$ = 0.147, p = .70. Though not statistically significant, 18.6% more students

in the ESL program met the Commended or Advanced standard than did students in the

Bilingual Education Program. As such, results for this school year were commensurate

with the results for the previous two school years. Readers are referred to Table 12 for

the frequencies and percentages of student performance by ELL program type.

Table 12

Frequencies and Percentages on the 2014 STAAR Reading Commended or Advanced Performance by ELL Education Program Type

	Commended	Not Commended
ELL Program Type	*n* and % of Total	*n* and % of Total
ESL	(*n* = 15) 34.9%	(*n* = 28) 65.1%
Bilingual Program	(*n* = 7) 16.3%	(*n* = 36) 83.7%

Qualitative Results

To answer the secondary purpose of the research regarding the beliefs of the

bilingual education program versus the ESL program among campus principals, district

teachers, and parents of LEP students as well as to examine the teacher beliefs of the

quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field, a survey was

administered through an online data gathering service titled surveymonkey.com. There

were a total of 144 participants involved in this portion of the study. The participants

represented 38 campus administrators, 20 teachers, and 86 parents of students of which

43 were identified as bilingual students and 43 were identified as ESL students, all

residing or working in the same school district researched in the study.

Campus Administrator Survey Responses

Campus administrator responses included 26 responses out of the 38 individuals

asked to participate. Two campus administrators skipped the entire survey with the

exception of question 1. The first question that the campus administrators' survey

investigated was: Which program(s) does your campus offer?

As referred to in Table 13, out of the 26 campus administrators' responses to the

survey 38.46%, included 10 campus administrators with both bilingual and ESL

programs in the buildings which they currently served at the time the survey was

administered. The remaining 61.54% of the survey responses, included 16 campus

administrators with only an ESL program.

Table 13

Which program(s) does your campus offer?

Answer Choices	Percent of Campus Administrators Who Responded	Responses
Bilingual	0%	0
ESL	61.54%	16
Both	38.46%	10

The second question that the campus administrators' survey investigated was:

What do you believe the benefits of the bilingual programs are?

As referred to in Table 14, the study found seven responses out of the possible 24

campus administrators who responded to this question who stated that the benefit to the

bilingual program was the transitioning from the native language to the secondary

language of English. An additional six responses stated the benefit to the bilingual

program was allowing the acceleration of English acquisition. Five campus administrator

responses include the statement language support, and three individual responses to the

benefit of the bilingual program were proficiency in two languages, beneficial in the first

year, and the quality of the teacher made the biggest impact on the program. See

Appendix A for the open-ended responses campus administrators gave as to what they

believed were the benefits to the bilingual program.

Table 14

What do you believe the benefits of the bilingual programs are?

Answer Choices	Responses
Transitioning from the Native Language to the Secondary Language	7
Acceleration of English Acquisition	6
Language Support	5
Proficiency in Two Languages	1
Beneficial in the First Year	1
Quality of the Teacher	1
Total	24

The third question that the campus administrators' survey investigated was: What

do you believe the benefits of the ESL programs are?

As referred to in Table 15, the study found seven responses out of the possible 24

campus administrators who responded to this question who stated that the benefit to the

ESL program was the immersion into the English language. An additional five responses

stated the benefit to the ESL program was students received the needed support for

English acquisition. Furthermore, the study found four responses that stated the ESL

program offered assistance with accommodations, and another three responses stated that

teachers were trained to give these accommodations. Two campus administrator

responses included the benefits as being the program providing transition and integration

into the English language. Other single responses to the benefits of the ESL program

included leveling the playing field, vocabulary assistance, and one response stating

seeing the benefits to the bilingual program and ESL program as the same. See Appendix

B for the open-ended responses campus administrators gave as to what they believed

were the benefits to the ESL program.

Table 15

What do you believe the benefits of the ESL programs are?

Answer Choices	Responses
Immersion into the English Language	7
Needed Support for English Acquisition	5
Assistance with Accommodations	4
Teachers Trained on Accommodations	3
Providing Transition and Integration in English Language	2
Leveling the Playing Field	1
Vocabulary Assistance	1
Benefits of the bilingual program and ESL program as the same	1
Total	24

Teacher Survey Responses

Teacher survey responses included 17 responses out of the 20 individuals asked to

participate. Two teachers skipped the entire survey with the exemption of question 1.

The first question that the teachers' survey investigated was: Which of the following is

your current teaching assignment?

As referred to in Table 16, out of the 17 teacher responses to the survey, 58.82%

included 10 teachers currently teaching in a bilingual education classroom setting at the

time the survey was administered. The remaining seven teachers (41.18%), were

currently teaching in an English as a Second Language (ESL) setting.

Table 16

Which of the following is your current teaching assignment?

Answer Choices	Percent of Teachers Who Responded	Responses
Bilingual	58.82%	10
ESL	41.18%	7

The second question that the teacher survey investigated was: What do you believe the benefits of the bilingual programs are?

As referred to in Table 17, the study found 10 responses out of the possible 15 teachers who responded to this question who stated that the benefit to the bilingual program was the transitioning from the native language knowledge to the secondary language of English. An additional two responses stated the benefit to the bilingual program was allowing students to learn about both cultures. Three individual responses to the benefit of the bilingual program were being fluent in two languages, support provided into both languages, and developing self-esteem. See Appendix C for the open-ended responses teachers gave as to what they believed were the benefits to the bilingual program.

Table 17

What do you believe the benefits of the Bilingual programs are?

Answer Choices	Responses
Transitioning from the Native Language to the Secondary Language	10
Allowing Students to Learn about Both Cultures	2
Fluent in Two Languages	1
Support Provided into Both Languages	1
Developing Self-Esteem	1
Total	15

The third question that the teacher survey investigated was: What do you believe the benefits of the ESL programs are?

As referred to in Table 18, the study found five responses out of the possible 14 teachers who responded to this question who stated that the benefit to the ESL program was the support students received in the process of learning the English language. An additional two responses each stated that the benefits to the ESL program were English immersion as well as providing a safe environment. Other single responses to the benefits of the ESL program included acclimating students to the English language and culture, more opportunities, a variety of strategies teachers could use with them in the program, English only was a better approach for older students, and students learn how to speak faster than in the bilingual program. See Appendix D for the open-ended responses teachers gave as to what they believed were the benefits to the ESL program.

Table 18

What do you believe the benefits of the ESL programs are?

Answer Choices	Responses
Support Students in the Process of Learning the English language	5
English Immersion	2
Safe Environment	2
Acclimating Students to the English language and culture	1
More Opportunities	1
A Variety of Strategies for Teachers	1
English Only Better Approach for Older Students	1
Students Learn How to Speak Faster than in the Bilingual Program	1
Total	14

The fourth question that the teacher survey investigated was: There was strong connection between the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) professional

development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.

As referred to in Table 19, the study found 11 responses, 73.33%, of the 15 possible responses were favorable that there was a strong connection between the SIOP professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction they offered the English Language Learners in their classroom. One individual response stated that SIOP inherently has best teaching practices that are good not only for the ELL students but for all students. Two responses, 13.33%, were undecided and one response, 6.67%, was unfavorable of the district's SIOP training offered and reported that it was not beneficial to the daily instruction they offered their students.

Table 19

There was strong connection between the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.

Answer Choices	Percent of Parents Who Responded	Responses
Strongly Agree	40.00%	6
Agree	33.33%	5
Undecided	13.33%	2
Disagree	6.67%	1
Strongly Disagree	0.00%	0
Comments		1
Total		15

The fifth question that the teacher survey investigated was: There was strong connection between the Help with ELPS professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.

As referred to in Table 20, the study found 12 responses, 85.72%, of the 14 possible responses favorable that there was a strong connection between the Help with ELPS professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction they offered the English Language Learners in their classroom, and two responses, 14.29%, were undecided.

Table 20

There was strong connection between the Help with ELPS professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.

Answer Choices	Percent of Parents Who Responded	Responses
Strongly Agree	42.85%	6
Agree	42.85%	6
Undecided	14.29%	2
Disagree	0.00%	0
Strongly Disagree	0.00%	0
Total		14
Comments		0

The sixth question that the teacher survey investigated was: There was strong connection between the Seven Steps to a Language Rich Interactive Classroom professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.

As referred to in Table 21, the study found nine responses, 60.00%, of the 15 possible responses favorable that there was a strong connection between the Seven Steps to a Language Rich Interactive Classroom professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction they offered the English Language Learners in their classroom. Five responses, 33.33%, were undecided and one response, 6.67%, was

unfavorable that Seven Steps to a Language Rich Interactive Classroom training offered by the district was beneficial to the daily instruction they offered their students.

Table 21

There was strong connection between the Seven Steps to a Language Rich Interactive Classroom professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.

Answer Choices	Percent of Parents Who Responded	Responses
Strongly Agree	33.33%	5
Agree	26.67%	4
Undecided	33.33%	5
Disagree	6.67%	1
Strongly Disagree	0.00%	0
Total		15
Comments		0

Parent Survey Responses

Additional procedures were added to the parent survey component of the qualitative research. Minimal response was received by the researcher through the online data gathering service of surveymonkey.com. The researcher contracted a bilingual individual for a total of 10 working hours to call parents and conduct the survey via a phone conversation. Parent survey responses included 27 responses, 31.40%, out of the 86 individuals chosen to participate. Parent participants included 14 parents, 51.85%, of participating students served in the ESL program and 13 parents, 48.15%, of the participating students served in the bilingual program. Of the 27 responses, 26 were received via phone conversation and one was received online.

The first question that the parent survey investigated was: There was strong communication between you and the school/teacher during the time your student received Bilingual or ESL Program services.

As referred to in Table 22, the study found all 27 responses, 100.00%, favorable

that there was a strong communication between you and the school/teacher during the

time your student received Bilingual or ESL Program services.

Table 22

There was strong communication between you and the school/teacher during the time
your student received Bilingual or ESL Program services.

Answer Choices	Percent of Parents Who Responded	Responses
Strongly Agree	37.4%	10
Agree	62.96%	17
Undecided	0.00%	0
Disagree	0.00%	0
Strongly Disagree	0.00%	0
Total		27
Comments		0

The second question that the parent survey investigated was: There are/were

systems in place at my child's school to provide extra help with their second language

needs.

As referred to in Table 23, the study found 26 responses, 96.30%, favorable that

there are/were systems in place at my child's school to provide extra help with their

second language needs. One parent response, 3.70%, remained undecided.

Table 23

There are/were systems in place at my child's school to provide extra help with their
second language needs.

Answer Choices	Percent of Parents Who Responded	Responses
Strongly Agree	37.04%	10
Agree	59.26%	16
Undecided	3.70%	1
Disagree	0.00%	0
Strongly Disagree	0.00%	0
Total		27
Comments		0

The third question that the parent survey investigated was: How would you rate the quality of the Bilingual or ESL Program in which your child participates/participated?

As referred to in Table 24, the study found 24 responses, 88.89%, of the 27 possible responses rated the quality of the Bilingual or ESL Program in which their child participates/participated favorable. Three responses, 11.11%, rated the quality as average.

Table 24

How would you rate the quality of the Bilingual or ESL Program in which your child participates/participated?

Answer Choices	Percent of Parents Who Responded	Responses
Extremely High	40.74%	11
High	48.15%	13
Average	11.11%	3
Low	0.00%	0
Extremely Low	0.00%	0
Total		27
Comments		0

The fourth question that the parent survey investigated was: I believe that the Bilingual or ESL Program is meeting or met its goal with my child.

As referred to in Table 25, the study found 26 responses, 96.30%, of the 27 possible favorable that the Bilingual or ESL Program is meeting or met its goal with their child. One parent response, 3.70%, disagreed.

Table 25

I believe that the Bilingual or ESL Program is meeting or met its goal with my child.

Answer Choices	Percent of Parents Who Responded	Responses
Strongly Agree	55.56%	15
Agree	40.74%	11
Undecided	0.00%	0
Disagree	3.70%	1
Strongly Disagree	0.00%	0
Total		27
Comments		9

The study found seven additional individual participant responses listed below through open-ended parent responses as to what they felt were the benefits to the bilingual and ESL Program.

- Was beneficial.

- Spanish spoken in the home was supported.

- Native language is not lost.

- Wish for program to continue.

- Communication with school was efficient.

- Assisted my child.

- Was a great help.

See Appendix E for the open-ended responses parents gave as to what they believed that the Bilingual or ESL Program is meeting or met its goal of their child.

Conclusion

The research conducted in this study gives the researcher the opportunity to examine the results of students' academic performance in both bilingual and ESL Programs, as well as to compare the results to the beliefs of campus administrators,

teachers, and parents. The data collected through the quantitative portion of the study clearly indicated a statistically significant difference was present in the STAAR Reading scores between students enrolled in the bilingual program and students enrolled in an ESL program for the three years in which the measure was applied. The students enrolled in the ESL program outperformed students in the Bilingual program on raw test scores as measured by the STAAR assessment. In addition, student performance was also evaluated, not only by raw test scores, but also by whether they met the Satisfactory standard. Though not statistically significantly different, more students in the ESL program met the Satisfactory standard than did students in the Bilingual Education Program for the three years evaluated.

Furthermore, along with student performance being evaluated by raw test scores and by whether they met the Satisfactory standard, student performance was also assessed regarding whether they met the Commended or Advanced Performance standard. Though the results were not statistically significant, more students in the ESL program met the Commended or Advanced standard than did students in the Bilingual Education Program for the three years evaluated.

The data collected through the qualitative portion of this study did indicate for the 26 campus administrators' responses, a value of native language instruction support; however, a more favorable support for English language immersion and the need for language support for the acquisition of the English language was present in the responses. Out of the 17 teacher survey responses indicated a favorable response for the bilingual program's use to assist in the transitioning of the native language knowledge to the secondary language of English. In addition, teachers' responses indicated a support for

the ESL program's ability to provide students receiving support in the process of learning the English language. Furthermore, the study found that the majority of teachers did find the staff developing as favorable and believed there was benefit to the staff development offerings; however, not all teachers felt that it assisted them in the classroom with their ELL students.

The survey data collected in this study for parents of the student participants, which included 26 responses, indicated favorable when asked if there was a strong communication between them and the school/teacher during the time their student received services and if there are/were systems in place at their child's school to provide extra help with their second language needs. Additionally, responses rated both the quality of the Bilingual and ESL Program in which their child participates/participated and if the programs is meeting or met its goal with their child as favorable. Parent individual responses also indicated that the program was beneficial, Spanish spoken in the home was supported, and native language was not lost.

<div align="center">

Chapter V

Conclusion

</div>

Introduction

English language learners (ELLs) are a diverse and growing population of students whose varied linguistic, cultural, and socioeconomic backgrounds can present various challenges for the schools that serve them. ELLs come from more than 400 language backgrounds and must master grade-level academic content while simultaneously developing their English proficiency (NCEE, 2014). Teaching and learning in schools is being affected by the significant growth in English language learners, particularly in countries where English is the primary use first language, such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, and the United States (McGee, Haworth, & MacIntyre, 2015). Given ELLs' unique learning needs and their overrepresentation in low-performing schools, it is important for policymakers and educators to understand how such schools are addressing the needs of ELLs as they try to turn around a history of low performance (NCEE, 2014).

In schools in the United States, similar changes in national assessment requirements for English language learners have taken place. The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 aimed to provide opportunities, improve achievement, and eliminate inequalities for all students. This has resulted in assessment issues for English language learners in mainstream classroom settings as these children are tested, in English, within a relatively short time of their beginning exposure to English (McGee et al., 2015). In the U.S. context, educators look to professional development for solutions to persistent inequities such as the differences in achievement among groups of students. Students

who have recently become the focus of many reform initiatives are English language learners (ELLs), due in part to their rapid growth in the country (Molle, 2013).

The purpose of this study was to examine the effectiveness of one suburban school district's bilingual education and ESL programs. Throughout this study, results attempted to add additional data and information to the current second language acquisition research of longitudinal benefits of using native language support alongside English instruction versus solely English instruction. Within this longitudinal study, evaluative studies of the different programs in which the students participated in the school district can make available information for district leaders to develop a deeper understanding of where to focus the majority of state and federal funding for the education of ELLs and can alter the perception of the quality of the programs offered as well as determine the ongoing needs of hiring and training highly qualified teachers to educate the population in most need. In addition, the research in this study may further assist in identifying parental involvement and consulting strategies of programing available for their identified English-learning students.

The district evaluated in this study is currently the 14th largest in the state of Texas and the 71st largest in the nation. The study was conducted utilizing campus administrators at 38 campuses, 10 teachers in which were identified bilingual certified and 10 teachers who were identified ESL certified teachers. In addition, the entire student information systems (PEIMS) was used to select the 86 student and parent participants who met the study's qualifying criteria.

The data sources used for the quantitative portion of this study were archival in nature. The researcher received written approval from the school district examined in this

study to access student confidential records and was granted permission of the study by

the district's Research Review Committee. The data were then sent to the researcher in an

Excel format. In addition, the researcher consulted with the district individuals to ensure

the accuracy of the student data collected. This study examined 86 students: 43 students

met the criteria and were identified as past or current participants in the ESL program and

43 were identified as past or current participants in the bilingual program. Students were

matched on a one-to-one correspondence in accordance to the criteria listed below.

- Enrolled in kindergarten during the 2007–2008 school year

- Identified as LEP

- Identified as participating in a bilingual or ESL program

- Identified as Hispanic

- Enrolled in the school district in seventh grade during 2013–2014 school year

- Identified as non-mobile

- Identified as SES or non-SES

- Identified as Special Education or non-Special Education

- Identified as retained or not retained in one or more grade levels

A paired samples two-tailed *t*-test was then be used to compare the two groups'

raw scores on the STAAR in the area of reading. Additionally, Pearson chi-square

procedures were conducted to determine whether a statistically significant difference was

present in the percentage of students who met the Satisfactory, Commended or Advanced

Performance standard by the type of ELL program in which they were enrolled. The

results of the paired samples two-tailed *t*-test and the Pearson chi-square measures were

used to determine whether a statistically significant difference existed longitudinally

between the reading achievements of students who participated in a bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR. In addition, the findings revealed the academic outcomes of the students enrolled in the content-based English as a Second Language program and the English Language Acquisition Model of bilingual education and served as information for the district as to which program model was more beneficial for the instruction of its English language learners.

Qualitative data collected for the researcher for this study examined the beliefs of the quality of both programs serving students who were currently participating or had participated in the district's second language acquisition programs. Surveys of the district campus administrators, district bilingual and ESL teachers, and parents of the selected student participants who were currently participating or had participated in bilingual or ESL programming, were conducted to assess the individual beliefs of each of the instructional programs and which they saw as more beneficial for the district's Hispanic ELL population. An additional survey examined the teacher beliefs of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.

The surveys and survey questions were created and designed by the researcher. The online surveys for the parents of ELL students were translated into Spanish and available in two languages so that the parents could choose the language of their choice when answering the question. The researcher emailed surveys to all the parents of the identified 86 students in this study. Surveys allowed the parent participants a two-week window to provide the researcher with their answers. The online survey system provided two reminders within the two-week window to encourage participation. Additional procedures were added to the parent survey component of the qualitative research.

Minimal response was received by the researcher through the online data gathering service of surveymonkey.com. The researcher contracted a bilingual individual for a total of 10 working hours to call parents and conduct the survey via a phone conversation. Parent participants in this study were on a volunteer basis.

Discussion of Results

To answer the primary research question of the study, "How do the reading achievement scores of students identified as Spanish speaking, non-mobile, Hispanic, and LEP differ between those who participate in a bilingual education program and those who participated in an ESL program as measured by STAAR?, a statistically significant difference was present in the STAAR Reading scores between students enrolled in the bilingual program and students enrolled in an ESL program in the three years evaluated in the study. For the 2012 school year, students who were enrolled in the ESL program outperformed students in the bilingual program by 8.39% on raw tests scores. Likewise, in the two subsequent years, students who were enrolled in the ESL program outperformed students in the bilingual program with surpassing rates of 9.28% in 2013 and 10.84% in 2014.

Additional student performance was also evaluated to answer the primary research question. Though not statistically significantly different, more students in the ESL program met the Satisfactory standard on the STAAR Reading exam than did students in the Bilingual Education Program for the three years evaluated with surpassing rates of 11.6% in 2012, 9.3% in 2013, and 9.3% in 2014. Furthermore, though not statistically significantly different, more students in the ESL program met the Commended or Advanced Performance on the STAAR Reading exam than did students

in the Bilingual Education Program for the three years evaluated with surpassing rates of student performance of 7.0% in 2012, 27.9% in 2013, and 18.6% in 2014.

Contrary to the research promoting the support of native language instruction in a bilingual education program versus English only immersion referred to in Review of Relevant Literature, the data collected through the quantitative portion of the study clearly indicated in favor of students who participated in the ESL program than students who participated in the bilingual program. Overall ELLs served in the district's ESL program outperformed ELLs served in the district's bilingual program based on the academic achievement of reading as measured by STAAR.

To evaluate the secondary purpose of the research regarding the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program among campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students as well as to examine the teacher beliefs of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field, the following results are shared by the researcher in evaluating each individual research question.

To answer the second research question as to what are the beliefs of the quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program of parents of students identified as LEP who were currently served or have been served in a second language acquisition program, the survey data collected in this study for parents of the student participants, which included 26 responses, indicated favorable when asked if there was a strong communication between them and the school/teacher during the time their student received services and if there are/were systems in place at their child's school to provide extra help with their second language needs.

Additionally, responses rated both the quality of the Bilingual and ESL Program in which their child participates/participated and if the programs is meeting or met its goal with their child as favorable. The qualitative data collected from the parent survey, clearly indicated a favorable response for students who participate in the bilingual program. Parent participants in the study further specified the value of the Spanish language spoken in the home as well as their child maintaining their native language. A serendipitous finding in the study, as related to parent involvement, out of the 86 possible parent participants selected for this study, 16 nonparticipants, 18.60%, had phone numbers that were out of service, 39 nonparticipants, 45.35%, did not answer the phone when called, and 4 nonparticipants, 4.65%, chose not to participate in the study.

To answer the third research question as to what do campus principals believe are the benefits of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program, the data collected through the qualitative portion of this study, indicated for the 26 campus administrators responses, a value for native language instruction support; however, a more favorable support for English language immersion and the need for language support for the acquisition of the English language was present in the responses. Therefore, the overall campus administrators' beliefs clearly indicated a favorable response to that of the implementation of the ESL program that focuses on English language immersion. The results of the campus administrators' beliefs and the academic results on the reading portion of STAAR for students served in ESL indicated a similar association.

To answer the fourth research question as to what do district teachers who currently teach within these programs believe are the benefits of the bilingual education

program versus the ESL program, the data collected through 17 teacher survey responses indicated a favorable response for the bilingual program's use to assist in the transitioning of the native language knowledge to the secondary language of English. In addition, teachers' responses indicated a support for the ESL program's ability to provide students receiving support in the process of learning the English language. The responses collected did not indicate in favor of one program over the other. To answer the fifth research question as to what do district teachers believe regarding the professional development offered by the district, specific to second language learners, among the district's teachers who teach ELL students, the study found that the majority of teachers did find the staff developing favorably and believed there was benefit to the staff development offerings; however, not all teachers felt that it assisted them in the classroom with their ELL students.

In reviewing the student and principals' data, it could be determined that the better program for ELLs is the ESL program, a true English immersion. In review of the data of the students, campus administrators, teachers, and parents, it could be determined that parents and teachers greatly value the bilingual education program and the native language support. It is, moreover, stated in the results and in addition in the research in the Review of Relevant Literature that students who are enrolled in the bilingual education program, build their self-esteem and are in a safe learning environment as they transition into the English language.

Implications on School Leadership

With a substantial increase in the numbers of English language learners in schools, particularly in countries where English is the primary use first language, it is

vital that educators are able to meet the needs of ethnically and linguistically changing and challenging classrooms. However, despite the recognition of the importance of effective leadership for successful teaching and learning, there is a lack of research into leadership of English for speakers of other languages (ESOL) (McGee et al., 2015). While there are undoubtedly and understandably practical concerns operating behind the exemption for districts with small ELL populations, in practice it means that many ELL programs are being administered by administrators with minimal training in working with ELL students and that the administration of a given program may not be at the school level.

Currently, in many smaller districts, the building principal is likely the person who is overseeing a state-approved ELL program in addition to his/her other responsibilities. In a rural area, this person may also be the principal of a second school or might serve an additional role such as that of superintendent. These facts suggest very strongly that many districts may not currently have the capacity necessary to administer a high-quality ELL program (Reeves & Van Tuyle, 2014). Lack of status and support for ESOL is another issue that is seen as a challenge to leadership. Often those working in the ESOL field express difficulties in gaining institutional support for teaching and learning (McGee et al., 2015).

As stated in Grady and O'Dwyer (2014), principals in consistently high-performing schools could clearly articulate their school's policies for English language learner students to school staff, model the behaviors and attitudes they expected teachers to adopt, and communicate a clear vision of high expectations for learning outcomes. Other studies highlight the important role that principals play in developing the capacity

of their teachers and staff to communicate with the parents of English language learner students through improving their own cultural competence and the competence of their teachers and staff. Leadership has consistently been identified as a factor in school improvement including turning around consistently low-performing schools. The research on school leadership shows that leadership is a crucial factor in successful school reconstitution and school leadership can account for about 25% of the differences in students' learning (Garcia & Reyes, 2014). Given the complexity of the principal's job in the current educational context, it is possible that it is not feasible for a candidate to attain the mastery needed to be a truly effective leader with all subgroups in one, two-year master's degree, regardless of the quality of that program (Reeves & Van Tuyle, 2014).

School-level policies and practices typically emanate from school leaders, and education researchers are pointing increasingly to the important role that principals' play in educating English language learner students (Grady & O'Dwyer, 2014). According to McGee et al.'s (2015) discussions and findings, the following four practices are offered as successful steps school leaders can do to support the teaching and learning of ELLs:

- Establishing ELL goals and direction
- Enabling leaders to be role models with credibility through knowledge of ELLs
- Providing ELL professional learning for teachers and those in the leadership
- Empowering the teaching and learning of ELLs

Human capital is another area in which school leadership should take a closer look. Among the states with the highest enrollment of ELLs, only Florida requires

general education or content area teachers to have an endorsement to the basic teaching certificate indicating preparation in working with ELLs or to complete it in a specified timeframe (Manning & Szecsi, 2005). Indicating the need for change, accreditation and professional organizations continue to call for teacher preparation that includes adequate attention to ELL needs. In fact, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) Standards include the requirement that "the unit (i.e., the college) designs, implements, and evaluates curriculum and experiences for candidates to acquire and apply the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to help all students learn" (Manning & Szecsi, 2005, p. 107).

For schools that serve a high proportion of ELLs, securing and retaining staff who are prepared to address ELL needs can be particularly important to the schools' improvement efforts (NCEE, 2014). Few schools reported leveraging staffing strategies to improve teacher capacity for serving ELLs. Administrators in three of the 11 schools reported considering ELL expertise and experience when hiring classroom teachers, while respondents in two of the 11 schools reported that teachers' ELL expertise and experience purposefully factored into assignment of teachers to specific classrooms (NCEE, 2014).

Professional development for teachers of English Language Learners remains at the forefront for our district leaders. As indicated in this study, the majority of the teachers found the professional development offering by the school district favorable; however, some indicated that it did not impact their instruction in the classroom. As the number of ELLs in U.S. classrooms grows, so does the need for school staff who are knowledgeable about ELLs, and for appropriate instructional and organizational

strategies to ensure their success. In the past decade, the proportion of teachers with at least one ELL student has nearly doubled; however, efforts to prepare teachers for these changes have not kept pace. Lack of expertise among mainstream teachers in addressing the unique needs of ELLs has been noted as a particular challenge. Previous studies of teachers with ELLs in their classes have shown that teachers do not feel prepared to meet the needs of their ELLs and other culturally-diverse students. Recent research suggests that principals play a vital role in ensuring that teachers receive the training and support they need to provide high-quality content area instruction to ELLs, but principals themselves often feel underprepared to meet the needs of ELLs (NCEE, 2014).

A variety of trends in second language teaching have left many English Language Learners (ELLs) in the United States with well-intentioned teachers who, unfortunately, have limited understanding of the second language acquisition or cultural diversity issues that affect the ELLs in their classrooms (Manning & Szecsi, 2005). In the past decade, U.S. schools have become increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse, and there is no indication that this trend will change in the near future. Such demographic shifts have created a sense of urgency around helping educators support the academic success of language minority students. Professional development is one of the institutionalized practices that provides opportunities for educators to acquire tools and habits of work and mind that can help them better meet the evolving and varied needs of their students (Molle, 2013).

General education teachers, especially those in states with recent increases in ELLs, are often underprepared to educate ELLs without additional support or professional development (Manning & Szecsi, 2005). Teacher professional learning

opportunities aim to build teacher capacity in ways that enhance their ability to promote

student success. However, there is little evidence rigorously and consistently

demonstrating that professional development is effective in improving teacher practice

and student outcomes, and a national survey of teachers found mixed perceptions of

various professional developments usefulness (NCEE, 2014).

As the ELL population in U.S. schools continues to grow and as various states

begin implementing new academic standards and assessments (and aligned ELP

standards and assessments), the need to build teaching capacity to foster ELLs' academic

and language-learning success will remain a critical issue. For consistently low-

performing schools, this need can be particularly serious and difficult to address.

Through the findings of the study, the researcher suggests to the key

administration and stakeholders of the district to take a deeper look into building the

capacity of the campus administrators in the area of instructional leadership in particular

for second language programs and policy. Many but not all of the campus administrator

responses did not indicate a strong awareness of the benefits of either programs offered

by the school district for its ELLs. The researcher further suggests to evaluate the fidelity

and implementation of the English Language Acquisition Model. Through attrition and

time, the suggested non-negotiables once implemented at the infancy of the model could

have faded and left for chance with the constant change of administration and teachers

directly related to enforcing and implementing the needed instructional strategies for

second language learners participating in a bilingual program. The final recommendation

by the researcher would be to evaluate the quality of the professional development

offered by the school district in the area of second language acquisition and the follow

through processes currently implemented from the campus administrators for teachers attending and implementing the research-based best practices presented at the various staff development offerings.

Implications for Further Research

The study that was completed focused on a very specific target of students who were enrolled in a 2007–2008 school district and were non-mobile. While results of the study indicated better results for students who participated in an ESL program versus a bilingual program, additional data could be gathered for all students who participated in each program in the district to compare the results of student performance. In addition, it is recommended by the researcher that additional consideration be placed on the schools in which the selected students evaluated in this study are enrolled. There is significant research that indicates when a school has a large proportion of students at risk of failure, the consequences of disadvantage are exacerbated. Remediation becomes the norm, and teachers have little time to challenge students to overcome personal, family, and community hardships that typically interfere with learning. In schools with high student mobility, teachers spend more time repeating lessons for newcomers and have fewer opportunities to adapt instruction to students' individual strengths and weaknesses (Rothstein, 2013).

Additional research is needed to understand how districts and schools can design staff recruitment and assignment policies to ensure that low-performing schools are able to attract teachers skilled in meeting the needs of ELLs and appropriately leverage their expertise. An important component of such research would involve exploring the types of resources (e.g., financial, informational, technological) and other supports that states,

districts, teacher preparation programs, external support providers, and schools can provide to promote these capacity-building efforts (NCEE, 2014).

Although prior research has examined the use of staffing and professional development strategies to improve capacity, relatively little is known about how such strategies can help build capacity for serving ELLs in low-performing schools that are trying to improve (NCEE, 2014). Providing professional learning opportunities or professional development could potentially build teachers' capacity in ways that benefit ELLs even if the professional development does not focus on ELL-specific learning needs. For example, professional developments that enhance a teacher's understanding of math content might improve that teacher's effectiveness in teaching math to all students, including ELLs. However, teachers of ELLs may also benefit from professional developments that emphasize specialized knowledge, skills, and beliefs that are important for addressing ELLs' unique needs (NCEE, 2014).

Further research shows that across races and income levels, students whose families are engaged tend to do better on tests, attend school more regularly, adapt to school better, and go on to postsecondary education (Kugler, 2011). Many families of ELLs do not believe they should be part of the schooling process (Ramirez, 2008). Recent Latino and Asian immigrant parents, for example, may avoid involvement in their child's education out of respect for the teacher (Ramirez & Soto-Hinman, 2009). As indicated in the results portion of this study, only one parent responded to the online survey administered by the researcher. Additional measures took place to call parents on a one-to-one basis on several occasions to ask them about the English acquisition program in which their student participated. It is recommended by the researcher that

further studies could be completed in which the focused is strictly targeted for the parents of ELLs.

In conclusion, with the significant growth in English language learners internationally and in countries where English is the primary use first language, effective leadership is important for successful teaching and learning. Even taking into account differences between individual school contexts, such as socioeconomic factors, resources, and numbers of English language learners, there is still a need for a strong focus on developing leadership capacity and knowledge to support these learners (McGee et al., 2015). Language is not the whole picture. In order to understand the achievement gap between ELLs and English-proficient students, we must consider other social and economic characteristics (Jensen, 2013).

References

Agirdag, O. (2009, April). All languages welcomed here. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 20-25.

Agirdag, O., & Houtte, M. (2011, May). A tale of two cities: Bridging families and schools. *Educational Leadership, 68*(8), 42-46.

Aleman, D., Johnson, J., & Perez, L. (2009, April). Winning the schools for ELLs. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 66-69.

Alloway, T. P., Gathercole, S. E., Kirkwood, H., & Elliot, J. (2009). The cognitive and behavioral characteristics of child with low-working memory. *Child Development, 80*(2), 606-621.

Arias, M., & Morillo-Campbell, M. (2008). *Promoting ELL parental involvement: Challenges in contested times.* East Lansing, MI: The Greater Lakes for Center for Research and Practice. Retrieved from http://www.greatlakescenter.org/ docs/Policy_Briefs/Arias_ELL.pdf

Auerbach, S. (2011, May). Learning from Latino families. *Educational Leadership, 68*(7), 16-24.

August, D., & Shanahan, T. (2006). *Developing literacy in second-language learners: A Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Azzam, A. (2009, April). Special report/Getting parents – and a system – On board. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 92-93.

Barron, A., Oxman, G., & Appalachia Regional Comprehension Center (ARCC). (2012). *A difficult journey: Challenges for English language learners how two states are helping English language learners succeed.* Charleston, WV: U.S. Department of Education.

Batalova, J., Fix, M., & Murray, J. (2007). *Measures of change: The demographic and literacy of adolescent English learners* (A report to Carnegie Corporation of New York). Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute.

Batalova, J., Flores, S., & Fix, M. (2012). *The educational trajectories of English language learners in Texas*. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute.

Batalova, J., & McHugh, M. (2010). *Top languages spoken by English language learners nationally and by state*. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute.

Beck, I. L., & McKeown, M. G. (2007). Increasing young low-income children's oral vocabulary repertoires through rich and focused instruction. *The Elementary School Journal, 107*(3), 251-271.

Blackowicz, C. L. Z., Fisher, P. J. L., Ogle, D., & Watts-Taffe, S. (2006). Vocabulary: Questions from the classroom. *Research Reading Quarterly, 41*(4), 524-539.

Blackwell, L. S., Trzesniewski, K. H., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Implicit theories of intelligence predict achievement across an adolescent transition. *Child Development, 78*(1), 246-263.

Blasingame, N. (2007). *Predicting strong long-term achievement for Hispanic English language learners: Background, program, or length of participation*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Houston, Houston, TX.

Bradley, R. H., & Corwyn, R. F. (2002). Socioeconomic status and child development. *Annual Review of Psychology, 67*(4), 309-318.

Buschkuehl, M., & Jaeggi, S. M. (2010). Improving intelligence. *Swiss Medical Weekly, 140*, 266-272.

Butterworth, P., Olesen, S. C., & Leach, L. S. (2012). The role of hardship in the association between socio-economic position and depression. *Australia and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 46*, 364-373.

Calderón, M., Slavin, R., & Sanchez, M. (2011, Spring). Effective instruction for English learners. *Future of Children, 21*(1), 103-127.

Capps, R., Fix, M., Murray, J., Ost, L., Passel, J., & Herwantoro, S. (2005). *The new demography of America's schools: Immigration and the No Child Left Behind Act*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute.

Carlo, M., August, D., McLaughlin, B., Snow, C., Dressler, C., Lipman, D., . . . & White, C. (2004). Closing the gap: Addressing the vocabulary needs of English language learners in bilingual and mainstream classrooms. *Reading Research Quarterly, 39*(2), 188-206.

Casserly, M., Lewis, S., Palacios, M., Simon, C., Uro, G., & Uzzel, R. (2011). *Today's promise, tomorrow's future: The social and educational factors contributing to the outcomes of Hispanics in urban schools*. Washington, DC: The Council of Greater City Schools.

Castro, D., Espinosa, L. M., & Paez, M. (2011). Defining and measuring quality early childhood practices that promote dual language learners' development and learning. In M. Zaslow, I. Martinez-Beck, K. Tout, & T. Halle (Eds.), *Next steps in the measurement of quality in early childhood settings* (pp. 257-280). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

Center for Health and Safety Culture. (2011). *Validity of self-report survey data*. Retrieved from http://www.minnetonka.k12.mn.us/TonkaCares/ RwR/Documents/Validity%20of%20Self%20Report.pdf

Center for Public Education. (2007). *Research review: What research says about preparing English language learners for academic success*. Retrieved from http://www.shastacoe.org/uploaded/Dept/ is/general/Teacher_Section/EnglishLanguageLearners.pdf

Clark, K. (2009, April). The case for structured English immersion. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 42-46.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Collier, V., & Thomas, W. (2009). *Educating English learners for a transformed world*. Albuquerque, NM: Dual Language Education of New Mexico, Fuente Press.

Cortez, A., & Villarreal, A. (2009). *Education of English language learners in U.S. and Texas schools: Where we are, what we have learned and where we need to go from here: A 2009 update*. San Antonio, TX: Intercultural Development Research Association.

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly, 34*(2), 213-238.

Crawford, J. (2004). *Educating English learners: Language diversity in the classroom.* Los Angeles, CA: Bilingual Education Services.

Crawford, J. (2007). The decline of bilingual education: How to reverse a traditional trend?" *International Multilingual Research Journal, 1*(1), 33-37.

Cummins, J. (1991). Interdependence of first-and second-language proficiency to academic achievement among bilingual students. In C. Rivera (Ed.), *Language proficiency and academic achievement* (p. 2119). Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.

Cummins, J. (2008). Dual language education: Pioneering a global breakthrough in second language education. *NABE News, 40*(4), 18-19.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). *The flat world and education: How America's commitment to equity will determine our future.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

David, J. (2010, March). What research says about…/Closing the vocabulary gap. *Educational Leadership, 67*(6), 85-86.

Delgado-Gaitan, C. (2004). *Involving Latino families in schools: Raising student achievement through home-school partnership.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.

Dong, R. (2009, April). Linking to prior learning. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 26-31.

Espinosa, L. (2008). *Challenging common myths about young English language learners.* New York, NY: Foundation for Child Development.

Estrada, V., Gómez, L., & Ruiz-Escalante, J. (2009, April). Let's make dual language the norm. *Educational Leadership, 68*(7), 54-58.

Freeman, D. E., & Freeman, Y. S. (2005). Dual language education: A promising 50-50 model. *Bilingual Research Journal, 29*(1), 145-164.

Freeman, D. E., & Freeman, Y. S. (2010). *English learners and the secret of school unlocking the mysteries of content-area-texts* (1st ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Freeman, D. E., & Freeman, Y. S. (2011). *Between worlds* (3rd ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Francis, D. J., Rivera, M., Lesaux, N., Kieffer, M., & Rivera, H. (2006). *Research-based recommendations for instruction and academic interventions. Practical guidelines for the education of English language learners* (Book 1 of 3). Portsmouth, NH: Center on Instruction.

Gándara, P. (2010). *Educational leadership: Meeting students where they are: The Latino education crisis*. Retrieved from http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership/feb10/vol67/num05/The-Latino-Education-Crisis.aspx

Gándara, P., & Contreras, F. (2009). *The Latino education crisis: The consequences of failed social policies*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Gándara, P., & Hopkins, M. (2010). *Forbidden language: A brief history of U.S. language policy*. New York, NY: Teachers College.

Garcia, A., & Reyes, A. (2014). *Turnaround policy and practice: A case study of turning around a failing school with English language learners*. New York, NY: Springer Science Business Media.

Garcia, E., & Cuellar, D. (2006). Who are these linguistically and culturally diverse students? *Teachers College Record, 108*(11), 2220-2246.

Garrett, J. (2010). *Challenges and solutions in meeting the learning instructional needs for English language learners*. Retrieved from http://www.nssa.us/journals/2010-35-1/pdf/35-1%2007%20Garrett.pdf

Genesee, F., Lindholm-Leary, K., Saunders, W., & Christian, D. (2006). *Educating English language learners: A synthesis of research evidence.* New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Gersten, R., Baker, S. K., Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P., & Scarcella, R. (2007). *Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades: A practice guide*. Retrieved from http://www.ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/pdf/practice_guides/20074011.pdf

Golsan, J. (2013). *English language learning population growing in Texas schools.* Retrieved from http://www.texaspolicy.com/blog/detail/english-language-learning-population-growing

Gómez, R. (2006). Promising practices: Dual language enrichment for ELL students K-12. *Journal of the Texas Association for Bilingual Education, 9*(4), 46-65.

Government Accountability Office. (2009). *Teacher quality sustained coordination among key federal education programs could enhance state efforts to improve teacher quality*. Retrieved from http://www.gao.gov/new.items/d09593.pdf

Grady, M., & O'Dwyer, L. (2014). *The English language learner program survey for principals*. Washington, DC: Institute of Education Science.

Grant Makers for Education. (2013). *Educating English language learners' grant making strategies for closing the America's other achievement gap*. Retrieved from http://www.edfunders.org/sites/default/files/Educating%20English%20Language %20Learners_April%202013.pdf

Greene, J. P. (1998). *A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of bilingual education.* Austin, TX: The University of Texas at Austin, The Public Policy Clinic of the Department of Government. Retrieved from http://www.languagepolicy.net/archives/greene.htm

Grosjean, F. (2010). *Bilingual: Life and reality*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Halle, T., Hair, E., Wandner, L., McNamara, M., & Chien, N. (2012). Predictors and outcomes of early versus later English language proficiency among English language learners. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *27*(1), 1-20. doi:10.1016/j.ecresq.2011.07.004

Hanna, P. L. (2011). Gaining global perspective: Educational language policy and planning. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *14*(6), 733-749. doi:10.1080/13670050.2011.579949

Heilig, J., & Holme, J. (2013). *Nearly 50 years post Jim Crow: Persisting and expansive school segregation for African American, Latina/o, and ELL students in Texas*. Sage Publications. doi:10.1177/0013124513486289

Herbert, M. (2012). A running start for ELLs. *District Administration*, *48*(6), 52-57.

Hernandez, D. J., Denton, N. A., & Macartney, S. E. (2007). *Children in immigrant families – the U.S. and 50 states: National origins, language, and early education* (Research brief). Washington, DC: Child Trends. Retrieved from http://www.fcdus.org/sites/default/files/Children%20in%20Immigrant%20Families%20Brief.pdf

Hernandez, D. J., Denton, N. A., & Macartney, S. E. (2008). Children in immigrant families: Looking to American's future. *Social Policy Report, 22*(3), 3-22.

Hornberger, N. H., & Link, H. (2012). Translanguaging and transnational literacies in multilingual classrooms: A biliteracy lens. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *15*(3), 261-278. doi:10.1080/13670050.2012.658016

Huebner, T. (2009, April). What research says about…/Small group intervention for ELLs. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 90-91.

Irvin, M. J., Meece, J. L., Byun, S., Farmer, T. W., & Hutchins, B. C. (2011). Relationship of school context to rural youth's educational achievement and aspirations. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 40*(9), 1225-1242.

Jensen, E. (2013, May). How poverty affects classroom engagement. *Educational Leadership, 70*(8), 24-30.

Jewell, M. (2009, April). Undocumented – with college dreams. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 48-52.

Kindler, A. L. (2002). *Survey of the states' limited English proficient students and available educational programs and services: 2000-2001 Summary Report*. Washington, D. C. Retrieved from http://www.centerforpubliceducation.org/Libraries/Document-Library/Survey-of-the-States-Report.pdf

Kohler, A., & Lazarin, M. (2007). *Hispanic education in the United States*. Retrieved
    from http://.www.nclr.org/content/publications/details/43582

Krashen, S. (2004). *The power of reading: Insights from the research* (2nd ed.).
    Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Kugler, E. (2011, May). Is anyone listening to families' dreams? *Educational Leadership,*
    68(8), 32-36.

Lau v. Nichols, 414 U.S. 563 (1974).

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2001). *Dual language education*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual
    Matters.

Lindholm-Leary, K., & Hernández, A. (2011). Achievement and language proficiency of
    Latino students in dual language programmes: Native English speakers, fluent
    English/previous ELLs, and current ELLs. *Journal of Multilingual and*
    Multicultural Development, *32*(6), 531-545. doi:10.1080/01434632.2011.611596

Lopez, F. (2010). Identity and motivation among Hispanic English language learners in
    disparate educational contexts. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, *18*(16),
    Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ895620

Manning, M., & Szecsi, T. (2005). Opening up to the issues: Preparing pre-service
    teachers to work effectively with English language learners. *Childhood*
    Education, 82(2), 107-110. doi:10.1080/00094056.2006.10521358

Marzano, R., & Pickering D. (2005). *Building academic vocabulary* (Teacher's Manual,
    1st ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum
    Development.

McGee, A., Haworth, P., & MacIntyre, L. (2015). Leadership practices to support teaching and learning for English language learners. *TESOL Quarterly, 49*(1), 92-114.

Molle, D. (2013). Facilitating professional development for teachers of English language learners. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 29*, 197-207.

Morales, P. Z., & Aldana, U. (2010). Learning in two languages: Programs with political promise. In P. Gandara & M. Hopkins (Eds.), *Forbidden languages: English learners and restrictive language policies.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

National Center for Educational Evaluation and Regional Assistance (NCEE). (2014). *A focused look at schools receiving school improvement grants that have percentages of English language learner students* (NCEE Evaluation Brief). Retrieved from http://www.ies.ed.gov/ncee/projects/evaluation/ other_schoolturnaround.asp

No Child Left Behind (NCLB). (2002). *Fact sheet: NCLB provisions ensure flexibility and accountability for limited English proficient students.* Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/nclb/accountability/schools/factsheet-english.html

Ochoa, S. H., & Rhodes, R. L. (2005). Assisting parents of bilingual students to achieve equity in public schools. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*, *16*(1-2), 75-94.

Odeen, M., Westerlund, H., Theorell, T., Leinewber, C., Eriksen, H. R., & Ursin, H. (2012, February). Expectancies, socioeconomic, and self-rated health. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 20*(2), 242-251.

Olsen, L. (2006). Ensuring academic success for English learners. *UC Linguistic Minority Research Institute Newsletter*, *15*(4), pp. 1-7.

Parkes, J., & Ruth, T. (2011). How satisfied are parents of students in dual language education programs?: "Me parece maravillosa la gran oportunidad que le están dando a estos niños." *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *14*(6), 701-718. doi:10.1080/13670050.2011.577762

Petrilli, M. (2013, May). The diversity dilemma. *Educational Leadership, 70*(8), 44-48.

Plyler v. Doe 457 U.S. 202 (1982).

Porter, R. P. (May 1998). The case against bilingual education. *The Atlantic Monthly Digital Edition.* Retrieved from http://www.theatlantic.com/past/issues/98may/biling.htm

Psychology. (n.d.). *Wikipedia*. Retrieved from https://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Basic_interpersonal_communicative_skills

Ramirez, A. (2008). *Immigrant families and schools. The need for a better relationship*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Ramirez, A., & Soto-Hinman, I. (2009, April). A place for all families. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 79-82.

Rance-Roney, J. (2009, April). Best practices for adolescent ELLs. *Educational Leadership, 66*(7), 32-37.

Rance-Roney, J. (2011, April). High school and beyond/ELLs: What's the endgame? *Educational Leadership, 68*(7), 74-78.

Reardon, S., & Galindo, C. (2006, April). *K-3 academic achievement patterns and trajectories of Hispanics and other racial/ethnic groups*. San Francisco, CA: American Educational Research Association.

Reeves, A., & Van Tuyle, L. (2014). Preparing principals for success with English language learners: Challenged and opportunities in Illinois. *NCPEA International Journal of Educational Leadership Preparation, 9*(1). Retrieved from http://www.files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1024119.pdf

Rogers, M. R. (2000). Examining the cultural context of consultation. *School Psychology Review, 29*, 414-418.

Roseberry-McKibbin, C. (2002). *Multicultural students with special language needs: Practical strategies for assessment and intervention* (2nd ed.). Oceanside, CA: Academic Communications.

Rothstein, R. (2013, May). Why our schools are segregated. *Educational Leadership, 70*(8), 50-55.

Rothstein-Fisch, C., Greenfield, P. M., & Trumbull, E. (1999). Bridging cultures with classroom strategies. *Educational Leadership, 56*(7), 64-67.

Russakoff, D. (2011). *PreK-3rd: Raising the educational performance of English language learners (ELLs)* (PreK-3rd Policy to Action Brief. No. Six). New York, NY: Foundation for Child Development.

Samson, J. F., & Collins, B. A. (2012). *Preparing all teachers to meet the needs of English language learners: Applying research to policy and practice for teacher effectiveness*. Washington, DC: Center for American Progress.

Scribner, J. D., Young, M. D., & Pedroza, A. (1999). Building collaborative relationships

    with parents. In P. Reyes, J. D. Scribner, & A. Paredes Scribner (Eds.), *Lessons*

    from high-performing Hispanic schools: Creating learning communities (pp. 36-

    60). New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Snowman, J., McCown, R., & Biehler, R. (2009). *Psychology applied to teaching* (12th

    ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Texas Education Agency (TEA). (2011). *Educator's guide to TELPAS K-12*. Retrieved

    from http://www.tea.texas.gov/WorkArea/linkit.aspx?

    LinkIdentifier=id&ItemID=25769811824&libID=25769811841

Texas Education Agency (TEA). (2013a). *2013 guide and resources for the annual*

    measurable achievement objectives (AMAOs), Title III, Part A Accountability

    system. Retrieved from http://www.elltx.org/assessment.html

Texas Education Agency (TEA). (2013b). *Performance-based monitoring and analysis*

    system (PBMAS) overview. Retrieved from http://www/tea.texas.gov/

    Student_Testing_and_Accountability/PBMAS/

Texas Education Agency (TEA). (2013c). *Texas English language learner (ELL)*

    progress measure questions and answers. Retrieved from

    http://www.tea.texas.gov/student.assessment/ellprogressmeasureQandA.pdf

Texas Education Agency (TEA). (2014a). *STAAR resources*. Retrieved from

    http://www.tea.texas.gov/student.assessment/staar/

Texas Education Agency (TEA). (2014b). *TELPAS resources*. Retrieved from

    http://www.tea.texas.gov/student.assessment/ell/telpas/

Thomas, W., & Collier, V. (1997). *School effectiveness for language minority students.* Washington, DC: The George Washington University, Center for the Study of Language and Education. Retrieved from http://www.thomasandcollier.com/assets/1997_thomas-collier97-1.pdf

Thomas, W., & Collier, V. (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement* (Final report: Project 1.1). Santa Cruz, CA: University of California, Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence.

Tomlinson, C. (2013, May). One to grow on/teachers who stare down poverty. *Educational Leadership, 70*(8), 88-89.

Upczak-Garcia, A. (2012, June). Cross-discipline teaching for English learners. *Educational Leadership, 69.* (Online).

U.S. Department of Education. (2010). *A blueprint for reform: The reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Act.* Retrieved from http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/blueprint/.

Valdés, G. (1996). *Con respeto: Bridging the distances between culturally diverse families and schools.* New York, NY: Teachers College Press.

Verdugo, R. R., & Flores, B. (2007). English-language learners key issues. *Education and Urban Society*, *39*(2), 167-193. doi:10.1177/0013124506294852

Willig, A. C. (1985). A meta-analysis of selected studies on the effectiveness of bilingual education. *Review of Educational Research, 55,* 269-317.

Zimmerman-Orozco, S. (2011, May). A circle of caring. *Educational Leadership, 68*(8), 64-68.

Zwiers, J., & Crawford, M. (2009, April). How to start academic conversations.

Educational Leadership, 66(7), 70-73.

Appendix A

Open-Ended Responses from Campus Administrators' Survey Question:

"What do you believe the benefits of the Bilingual Program are?"

Open-Ended Responses from Campus Administrators' Survey Question: "What do you believe the benefits of the Bilingual Program are?"

Campus Administrators Responses

To **transition** students from their native language to the English language while keeping

their academic and cognitive language intact so that they can be successful lifelong

literate adults.

The instruction needed for ELL's to gain knowledge of the English language quickly and with the proper **support**.

N/A

The bilingual program allows students to have greater access to the curriculum because they are **receiving instruction in their native language**.

Clarity of instruction by **providing both languages**; easier connection with family members.

Exposure, understanding and proficiency of the English language.

Language support when needed.

English acquisition for Spanish speaking students

NA

Language support for non-Native English speakers, of course. Moreover, I would hope the program gives students some emotional and academic support.

Support for students who are learning a second language.

Bilingual is the best way to have students learning English to have the opportunity to **first learn skills in their native language to help build confidence in learning the English language**.

Providing instruction in both Spanish and English and helping **accelerate their acquisition of the English** language.

Students are able to build their English academic language using their **primary language as a foundation**.

Help students to make a **smooth transition** into the English language.

Helping ELL students to **learn concepts in their native language and transitioning to English**.

Not applicable

Students are able to become **proficient in two languages**.

When a **quality teacher** is giving the instruction it is the best education possible. However, mediocre teachers make it especially hard for bilingual students to succeed.

Bridging the gap between second language learners and **academic acquisition skills**.

Acclimate ELL students to the **English language**

Gives the student the ability to **advance academically while learning English**.

Beneficial for students in their first year.

Smoother transition into fluency of second language, native **language speaker in the classroom, better communication with parents**.

Appendix B

Open-Ended Responses from Campus Administrators' Survey Question:

"What do you believe the benefits of the ESL Program are?"

Open-Ended Responses from Campus Administrators' Survey Question: "What do you believe the benefits of the ESL Program are?"

Campus Administrators Responses

The **same as the bilingual benefits** as they both involve students who speak other languages.

It **provides a transition** for learning fluent English and the application.

The **training the teachers receive** is very beneficial for teaching second language learners. ESL students tend to transition quickly to **English with the total emersion** method. I believe the paper work required by the state is excessive.

The benefits of the ESL program are that students are **immersed in English** with **teachers trained** to recognize and deal with language differences.

Language support.

Exposure, understanding and proficiency of the English language.

Our ESL students are in general ed classrooms with **ESL certified teachers**. They **benefit from monitoring and providing ESL accommodations**.

Leveling the playing field for students who speak a second language

Helps students adjust to the day to day rigors of school and acclimate them to their new environment while providing in class **support**.

Language development and **emotional and social support.**

Vocabulary assistance.

Immersion in the gen ed classroom with ESL mods is a great way to allow a young student to learn casual to formal language.

Providing an accelerated acquisition of the English language through the **support of a variety of instructional techniques**.

Students are **immersed in English allowing them to build their academic language with linguistic supports.**

Help students to make a **smooth transition** into the English language.

Helping ELL students to **acquire language in English with assistance and accommodations needed.**

Sensible integration of students into a regular instructional environment

Students are given **extra assistance in learning the English language** and in their academic studies. The focus is to primarily get students to be academically independent in their classes conducted in English.

It helps the student learn a new language whether from Turkey or Russia. The students learn at square 1 and move on to mastery **without any help in their native language at school**.

Assuring that students whose second language is English are given the **needed support** in comprehending academic language and advancing in that realm.

To become **more proficient in the English language.**

Gives a student **support in learning English** while in a least restrictive environment.

English instruction using ELL strategies.

More **instructional flexibility**, benefits a wider range of students.

Appendix C

Open-Ended Responses Teacher Survey Question:

"What do you believe the benefits of the Bilingual Program are?"

Open-Ended Responses from Teacher Survey Question: "What do you believe the benefits of the Bilingual Program are?"

Teacher Responses

Gives the students confidence to **transfer knowledge from one language to the other** helping kids to catch up.

The Bilingual Program offers ELLs the chance to use their **first language to learn content while learning English** with the expectation that they will retain this knowledge once they transition fully into English.

The Bilingual Program benefits ELLs by providing valuable academic language support to them. Through the use of Bilingual materials and strategies in the lower grades, students who struggle with core subject matter, are provided with a safety net of sorts. They **learn content in their first language while leaning and transitioning to English**.

To be **fluent in both languages** in order to obtain a professional career in the future.

Immersing kids in **native language vocabulary learning through many differentiated** ways is so important at their early ages. This helps them become solid English learners.

Giving students the **support they need in both languages**.

My experience as a bilingual teacher has been with students whose **native language is Spanish**.

The benefits of Bilingual Education are many; I will mention some of these benefits: Bilingual Education is an effective way to teach students whose **native language** is other than English.

Students learn basic fundamental academic skills in their **native language** while they develop proficiency and communication skills in the second language. This is a great advantage for the students since their early years are crucial to develop academic and social skills, especially in Reading, Writing and Math. The program allows the students to gain these skills in a more timely manner with less frustration and tears. As students make academic progress, they **transfer their knowledge and skills to the second language**. This knowledge is a foundation for new learning in the second language. For new comers to this country, the Bilingual program offers them the great opportunity to continue learning and developing their academic skills while they are in the process of learning English. In the Bilingual program, students learn that both, the Hispanic and American, cultures are important and offer value. These cultures are an intrinsic part of their lives. **They learn about both cultures and learn to respect them**. They learn about the importance of obeying the rules and laws of the United States. I strongly believe, these students develop a positive self-esteem that allows them feel welcome at

school. Therefore, the Bilingual program benefits the students in the overall spectrum of their education. The program helps the students to achieve their maximum intellectual and social development, in both languages, as well as **developing self-esteem** and love and respect for both cultures. Young students benefit from the Bilingual program even more because it gives them a better opportunity to succeed at school from the beginning of their education.

Bilingual education allows students to learn the basics concepts and big ideas in their **native language.**

The students' academic learning is supported by their **native language**.

Students learn fundamental academic and social skills in the **language they understand better**.

Giving students a sense of **cultural pluralism.**

Support in their **native language** when needed bilingualism itself.

Open-Ended Responses Teacher Survey Question:

"What do you believe the benefits of the ESL Program are?"

Open-Ended Responses from Teacher Survey Question: "What do you believe the benefits of the ESL Program are?"

Teacher Responses

Support students in the process to learn **English** helping kids to catch up.

The benefits of the ESL program vary but mainly it **provides students a safety net** of sorts through the use of materials and strategies that help students continue to master English in a **safe environment**--lower affective filter.

The benefits of the ESL program are varied but mainly they focus on facilitating an ELLs comprehension of the second language and **provide a safe environment** (lower affective filter) in which to learn.

In my case, teaching ESL students in my pre-AP classes, I enjoy the ESL students working in groups with the high-achieving native English speakers. Their growth is and comfort in using **English really increases**.

To **quickly acclimate students to the English language and culture**.

To build good English learners through a **variety of vocabulary based differentiated activities**. ESL programs make it possible for all children to be successful in a regular classroom.

Giving students **support using** visuals whenever possible. I find that both languages it helps all students.

Because the ESL program focuses mainly in developing competence in the English Language is **a better approach for older students needing to learn English**. These students have already mastered basic academic skills in Reading, Writing and Math. They will benefit from an **intensive English program acquiring proficiency** in Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. The ESL program is an option for those young students where a Bilingual program is not available to them.

ES L students get the benefit of the **immersion of the English language** and can pick up social cues cultural cues and language cues from English speaking students

The students are **immersed in an English only** setting in which a variety of strategies are implemented so that they can feel successful.

Students learn **how to speak English at a faster rate than students in the bilingual program**.

To **achieve English proficiency** in reading and writing.

Help in developing English grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing with **support.**

More opportunities.

Appendix E

Open-Ended Comments from Parent Survey

Open-Ended Responses from Parent Survey

 Parent Responses

It would be helpful if the school would also provide information in Spanish so that we may **understand better as parents**.

The Bilingual Program **was beneficial**.

Yes, we believe in the Bilingual Program because **Spanish is spoken in the home**. The program was good. Our children still speak both languages in the home.

We believe strongly in the bilingual program because it ensures that the **native language is not lost**.

Our **wish is that this program continues**. It **assisted my child greatly**.

The **communication with the school was very efficient**. This **assisted** with additional issues my child had.

This program **assisted my child's progression** in their studies.

The program **was a great help** for my child's education.

Appendix F

District Approval Letter

CONROE
INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT
Committed to Excellence

Christopher J. Hines, Ed.D.
Deputy Superintendent

May 18, 2015

Dear Ms. Upshaw,

The Conroe Independent School District grants permission for you to conduct research entitled, "A Longitudinal Study of a Bilingual Education Program versus English as a Second Language (ESL) Program: A Comparison of Two Programs". The research proposal has been approved contingent upon the following limitations:

- The study will make no identifiable references to the specific school district, campus, school personnel or parents involved in this research.
- Contact with CISD personnel and parents will be made outside of school hours.
- CISD personnel and parents will be notified that their participation is strictly voluntary and that the research is not being conducted nor endorsed by CISD.
- CISD personnel will be expected to complete all activities related to this study outside of school hours.
- The results of the research will be shared with Dr. Hines upon completion.

I wish you the very best in your educational pursuits. Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me.

Respectfully,

Christopher J. Hines, Ed.D.

Conroe Independent School District

The Conroe Independent School District does not discriminate on the basis of race, color, national origin, sex, disability, or age in its programs and activities and provides equal access to the Boy Scouts and other designated youth groups. The following persons have been designated to handle inquiries regarding these non-discrimination policies: Title IX Coordinator, 3205 W. Davis, Conroe, Texas 77304; (936)-709-7700 and the Section 504/ADA Coordinator, 3205 W. Davis, Conroe, Texas 77304; (936) 709-7676

3205 West Davis • Conroe, Texas 77304-2098 • 936.709.7727 • chines@conroeisd.net

Appendix G

IRB Approval Letter

UNIVERSITY of **HOUSTON**
DIVISION OF RESEARCH

July 29, 2015

Hedith Upshaw
c/o Dr. Robert C. Borneman
Dean, Education

Dear Hedith Upshaw,

Based upon your request for exempt status, an administrative review of your research proposal entitled "A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF A BILINGUAL EDUCATION PROGRAM VERSUS ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ESL) PROGRAM: A STUDY OF TWO PROGRAMS" was conducted on June 3, 2015.

At that time, your request for exemption under <u>Category 1B</u> was approved pending modification of your proposed procedures/documents.

The changes you have made adequately respond to the identified contingencies. As long as you continue using procedures described in this project, you do not have to reapply for review. * Any modification of this approved protocol will require review and further approval. Please contact me to ascertain the appropriate mechanism.

If you have any questions, please contact Alicia Vargas at (713) 743-9215.

Sincerely yours,

Kirstin Rochford, MPH, CIP, CPIA
Director, Research Compliance

*Approvals for exempt protocols will be valid for 5 years beyond the approval date. Approval for this project will expire **July 28, 2020**. If the project is completed prior to this date, a final report should be filed to close the protocol. If the project will continue after this date, you will need to reapply for approval if you wish to avoid an interruption of your data collection.

Protocol Number: 15550-EX

Appendix H

Scripted Emails

Script for E-Mail for Research Sponsor

<u>Script Email for Campus Administrators</u>

Campus Administrator,

You are being invited to take part in a research project conducted by me from the College of Education at the University of Houston. Research that is gathered is a part of my dissertation under the supervision of Dr. Robert Borneman.

Taking part in the research project is voluntary and you may refuse to take part or withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may also refuse to answer any research-related questions that make you uncomfortable.

<u>PURPOSE OF THE STUDY</u>
The purpose of this study is to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a Bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR.

A second purpose will be to survey campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to examine the perceived quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program as well as to examine the teacher perceptions of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.

The study has been a two year process and this particular survey you will participate in will last 20 minutes to 30 minutes.

There are no right or wrong answers to the survey, your responses are anonymous and will not be shared individually. The overall results of this survey will be shared by the researcher with the district, for their use if they see fit, to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs.

The deadline to complete the survey will be Saturday, July 11, 2015.

Thank you in advance for participating in this survey.

Please access the following ELL Campus Administrators' Survey at the following link:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/X7Z9TLR

This project has been reviewed by the University of Houston Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (713) 743-9204

Script Email for Bilingual Teachers

Conroe ISD Bilingual Certified Teacher,

You are being invited to take part in a research project conducted by me from the College of Education at the University of Houston. Research that is gathered is a part of my dissertation under the supervision of Dr. Robert Borneman.

Taking part in the research project is voluntary and you may refuse to take part or withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may also refuse to answer any research-related questions that make you uncomfortable.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of this study is to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a Bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR.

A second purpose will be to survey campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to examine the perceived quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program as well as to examine the teacher perceptions of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.

The study has been a two year process and this particular survey you will participate in will last 20 minutes to 30 minutes.

There are no right or wrong answers to the survey, your responses are anonymous and will not be shared individually. The overall results of this survey will be shared by the researcher with the district, for their use if they see fit, to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs.

The deadline to complete the survey will be Saturday, July 11, 2015.

Thank you in advance for participating in this survey.

Please access the following ELL Teachers' Survey at the following link:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/X9PPWDV

This project has been reviewed by the University of Houston Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (713) 743-9204.

Script Email for ESL Teachers

Conroe ISD ESL Certified Teacher,

You are being invited to take part in a research project conducted by me from the College of Education at the University of Houston. Research that is gathered is a part of my dissertation under the supervision of Dr. Robert Borneman.

Taking part in the research project is voluntary and you may refuse to take part or withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may also refuse to answer any research-related questions that make you uncomfortable.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The purpose of this study is to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a Bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR.

A second purpose will be to survey campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to examine the perceived quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program as well as to examine the teacher perceptions of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.

The study has been a two year process and this particular survey you will participate in will last 20 minutes to 30 minutes.

There are no right or wrong answers to the survey, your responses are anonymous and will not be shared individually. The overall results of this survey will be shared by the researcher with the district, for their use if they see fit, to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs.

The deadline to complete the survey will be Saturday, July 11, 2015.

Thank you in advance for participating in this survey.

Please access the following ELL Teachers' Survey at the following link:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/X9PPWDV

This project has been reviewed by the University of Houston Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (713) 743-9204.

<u>Script Email for Parents</u>

Parents/Padres,

You are being invited to take part in a research project conducted by me from the College of Education at the University of Houston. Research that is gathered is a part of my dissertation under the supervision of Dr. Robert Borneman.
Se le invita a participar en un proyecto de investigación, el cual será conducido por Hedith Sauceda-Upshaw del Departamento de Educación de la Universidad de Houston. Esta investigación es parte de su tesis, la cual se lleva a cabo bajo la supervisión del Dr. Robert Borneman.

Taking part in the research project is voluntary and you may refuse to take part or withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may also refuse to answer any research-related questions that make you uncomfortable.
La participación en este proyecto de investigación es voluntaria y usted se puede rehusar a participar o retirarse en cualquier momento sin ser sancionado o perder los beneficios a los cuales usted tiene de lo contrario derecho. También se puede rehusar a contestar cualquiera de las preguntas relacionadas con la investigación que pudieran llegar a hacerlo sentir incómodo.

The purpose of this study is to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a Bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR.
El propósito de este estudio es determinar si una diferencia estadísticamente significativa existe longitudinalmente entre el aprovechamiento en lectura de los estudiantes que participaron en un programa bilingüe en comparación al programa de inglés como segunda lengua según lo mide el STAAR.

A second purpose will be to survey campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to examine the perceived quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program as well as to examine the teacher perceptions of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.
Un segundo propósito será encuestar a directores de escuelas, maestros del distrito y padres de familia de estudiantes con un dominio limitado del idioma inglés para examinar la calidad percibida del programa de educación bilingüe en comparación con el programa de inglés como segunda lengua, así como para examinar las percepciones del maestro de la calidad del desarrollo de personal ofrecido a los educadores en esa rama.

The study has been a two year process and this particular survey you will participate in will last 20 minutes to 30 minutes.
Este estudio es un proceso con una duración de dos años y esta encuesta en particular en la cual usted participará tomará entre 20 y 30 minutos.

We appreciate your responses to the following statements or questions to help us learn more about you and your child's experience in school to better meet the needs of English Language Learners.
When you read the statements below, please choose the level of agreement as it applies to most of your child's classes, teachers, and campus. There are no right or wrong answers, your responses are anonymous and will not be shared individually. The overall results of this survey will be shared by the researcher with the district, for their use if they see fit, to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs.
Agradeceremos ampliamente que nos apoye con sus respuestas a las preguntas o enunciados siguientes, pues nos ayudarán a conocerlo mejor a usted y a saber más sobre la experiencia educativa de su hijo en con el fin de atender mejor las necesidades de los estudiantes que están aprendiendo inglés. Los resultados generales de esta encuesta los compartirá el investigador con el distrito con el fin de establecer las necesidades de los estudiantes que están aprendiendo inglés (ELL), así como para enriquecer los programas bilingüe y ESL (inglés segunda lengua) del distrito y de las escuelas.

The deadline to complete the survey will be Saturday, July 14, 2015.
La fecha límite para completar la encuesta será el lunes, 14 de julio 2015.

Thank you in advance for participating in this survey.
Gracias de antemano por su participación en esta encuesta.

Please access the following ELL Parent Survey at the following link:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/TP2Y8X9

Por favor, acceda a la siguiente Encuesta de Padres de ELL en el siguiente enlace:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/X7PG2K5

This project has been reviewed by the University of Houston Committee for Protection of Human Subjects (713) 743-9204.
Este proyecto ha sido sometido a revisión por el Comité para la Protección de los Seres

Humanos (713) 743-9204.

Appendix I

Consent Form

UNIVERSITY of
HOUSTON
A CARNEGIE-DESIGNATED TIER ONE
PUBLIC RESEARCH UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

PROJECT TITLE:

You are being invited to take part in a research project conducted by Hedith Sauceda-Upshaw from the College of Education at the University of Houston. Research that is gathered is a part of her dissertation under the supervision of Dr. Robert Borneman.

NON-PARTICIPATION STATEMENT

Taking part in the research project is voluntary and you may refuse to take part or withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may also refuse to answer any research-related questions that make you uncomfortable.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists longitudinally between the reading achievements of students who participated in a Bilingual program versus an ESL program as measured by STAAR.

A second purpose will be to survey campus principals, district teachers, and parents of LEP students to examine the perceived quality of the bilingual education program versus the ESL program as well as to examine the teacher perceptions of the quality of staff development being offered to educators in the field.

The study has been a two year process and this particular survey you will participate in will last 20 minutes to 30 minutes.

PROCEDURES

You will be one of approximately 144 subjects invited to take part in this project.

The expected maximum number of participants are as follows:
- 86 parents of students of which 43 are identified as bilingual and 43 are identified as ESL
- 20 district teachers of which 10 are Bilingual Certified teachers and 10 are ESL Certified teachers and both have a minimum of three years' experience teaching in their current position
- 38 campus administrators

Total in all 144 participants

CONFIDENTIALITY

There are no right or wrong answers to the survey, your responses are anonymous and will not be shared individually. The overall results of this survey will be shared by the researcher with the district, for their use if they see fit, to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs.

RISKS/DISCOMFORTS

There are no foreseeable risks.

BENEFITS

While you will not directly benefit from participation, your participation may help investigators better understand the processes that can be used to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs.

ALTERNATIVES

Participation in this project is voluntary and the only alternative to this project is non-participation.

COSTS

There are no cost to the parents, campus administrators and teachers participating in this survey.

PUBLICATION STATEMENT

The results of this study may be published in scientific journals, professional publications, or educational presentations; however, no individual subject will be identified.

SUBJECT RIGHTS

1. I understand that informed consent is required of all persons participating in this survey.

2. I have been told that I may refuse to participate or to stop my participation in this survey at any time. I may also refuse to answer any question.

3. Any risks and/or discomforts have been explained to me, as have any potential benefits.

4. I understand the protections in place to safeguard any personally identifiable information related to my participation.

5. I understand that, if I have any questions, I may contact Hedith Sauceda-Upshaw at 963-443-2831. I may also contact Dr. Robert Borneman faculty sponsor, at 832-725-2977.

6. **Any questions regarding my rights as a research subject may be addressed to the University of Houston Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (713-743-9204). All research projects that are carried out by Investigators at the University of Houston are governed be requirements of the University and the federal government.**

This project has been reviewed by the University of Houston
Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects (713) 743-9204

Appendix J

Campus Administrators' Survey

Campus Administrators Survey

We appreciate your responses to the following statements or questions to help us learn more about you and your campus administrator experience to better meet the needs of English Language Learners. When you read the statements below, please choose the level of agreement as it applies to most of your experience with students, teachers, and campus. There are no right or wrong answers, your responses are anonymous and will not be shared individually. The overall results of this survey will be shared by the researcher with the district, for their use if they see fit, to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs. Please answer all of the questions and make comments as needed. Thank you for taking time to share your thoughts.

Which program(s) does your campus offer?
- o Bilingual
- o ESL
- o Both

What do you believe the benefits of the Bilingual Program are?
Comments:

What do you believe the benefits of the ESL Program are?
Comments:

Appendix K

Teachers' Survey

Teacher Survey

We appreciate your responses to the following statements or questions to help us learn more about you and your experience as a Bilingual/ESL teacher to better meet the needs of English Language Learners. When you read the statements below, please choose the level of agreement as it applies to your teaching experience and staff development training opportunities. There are no right or wrong answers, your responses are anonymous and will not be shared individually. The overall results of this survey will be shared by the researcher with the district, for their use if they see fit, to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs.
Please answer all of the questions and make comments as needed. Thank you for taking time to share your thoughts.

Which of the following is your current teaching assignment?
- o Bilingual Education
- o English as a Second Language

What do you believe were the benefits of the Bilingual Program?
Comments:

What do you believe were the benefits of the ESL Program?
Comments:

There was strong connection between the *Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP)* professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.
- o Strongly Agree
- o Agree
- o Undecided
- o Disagree
- o Strongly Disagree

Comments:

There was strong connection between the *Help with ELPS* professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.
- o Strongly Agree
- o Agree
- o Undecided
- o Disagree
- o Strongly Disagree

Comments:

There was strong connection between the *Seven Steps to a Language Rich Interactive Classroom* professional development training offered by the school district and the daily instruction I offered the English Language Learners in my classroom.
- o Strongly Agree
- o Agree
- o Undecided
- o Disagree
- o Strongly Disagree

Comments:

Appendix L

Parents' Survey English

Parent Survey

We appreciate your responses to the following statements or questions to help us learn more about you and your child's experience in school to better meet the needs of English Language Learners.

When you read the statements below, please choose the level of agreement as it applies to most of your child's classes, teachers, and campus. There are no right or wrong answers, your responses are anonymous and will not be shared individually. The overall results of this survey will be shared by the researcher with the district, for their use if they see fit, to determine the needs of their ELL students and to improve the district and campus Bilingual and ESL programs.

Please answer all of the questions and make comments as needed. Thank you for taking time to share your thoughts.

There was strong communication between you and the school/teacher during the time your student received Bilingual or ESL Program services.
- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Comments:

There are/were systems in place at my child's school to provide extra help with their second language needs.
- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Undecided
- Disagree
- Strongly Disagree

Comments:

How would you rate the quality of the Bilingual or ESL Program in which your child participates/participated?
- Extremely high
- High
- Average
- Low
- Extremely low

Comments:

I believe that the Bilingual or ESL Program is meeting or meet its goal with my child.
- Strongly Agree
- Agree

- o Undecided
- o Disagree
- o Strongly Disagree

Comments:

Appendix M

Parents' Survey Spanish

Encuesta de padres

Agradeceremos ampliamente que nos apoye con sus respuestas a las preguntas o enunciados siguientes, pues nos ayudarán a conocerlo mejor a usted y a saber más sobre la experiencia educativa de su hijo en con el fin de atender mejor las necesidades de los estudiantes que están aprendiendo inglés.

Cuando lea los enunciados de abajo, favor de escoger la opción que mejor represente a la mayoría de las clases, de los maestros y escuela de su hijo. No hay respuestas correctas ni incorrectas, sus respuestas son anónimas y no serán compartidas. Los resultados generales de esta encuesta los compartirá el investigador con el distrito con el fin de establecer las necesidades de los estudiantes que están aprendiendo inglés (ELL), así como para enriquecer los programas bilingüe y ESL (inglés segunda lengua) del distrito y de las escuelas.

Favor de contestar todas las preguntas y hacer los comentarios pertinentes. Gracias por tomarse unos minutos para compartirnos su opinión.

Hubo una estrecha comunicación entre usted y la escuela/maestro durante el tiempo en que su estudiante recibió servicios del programa bilingüe o ESL.
- o Completamente de acuerdo
- o De acuerdo
- o Indeciso
- o Desacuerdo
- o Completamente en desacuerdo

Comentarios:

La escuela de mi hijo tiene/tenía sistemas para brindarle ayuda adicional en su aprendizaje de la segunda lengua.
- o Completamente de acuerdo
- o De acuerdo
- o Indeciso
- o Desacuerdo
- o Completamente en desacuerdo

Comentarios:

¿Cómo calificaría el programa bilingüe o ESL en el que su hijo participa/participó?
- o Excelente
- o Destacado
- o Regular
- o Deficiente
- o Muy deficiente

Comentarios:

Creo que el programa bilingüe o ESL cumple/cumplió su objetivo con mi hijo.

- o Completamente de acuerdo
- o De acuerdo
- o Indeciso
- o Desacuerdo
- o Completamente en desacuerdo

Comentarios: