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# An Investigation of Alternative Language Services (ALS) Received by English Language Learners (ELLs) Identified with a Disability

Christine Romero

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**AN INVESTIGATION OF ALTERNATIVE LANGUAGE  
SERVICES (ALS) RECEIVED BY ENGLISH LANGUAGE  
LEARNERS (ELLS) IDENTIFIED WITH A DISABILITY**

**by**

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DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the  
Requirements for the Degree of

**Doctor of Philosophy  
Special Education**

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**ABSTRACT**

The identification of and provision of ALS to ELLs identified with a disability was compared to that of their ELL peers without an identified disability. In addition, I conducted a review of the types of ALS provided. I approached this study from the perspective of the social construction of disability and utilized a quantitative, causal-comparative research design. I utilized the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) software for data analysis, along with Pearson's chi-square test of independence ( $\chi^2$ ), and Fisher's exact test with a significance level (p-value of  $\leq 0.01$ ) to test null hypothesis. In addition, the risk index and the composition index were also calculated to address factors of disproportionate representation.

De-identified data were provided by a school district located in the southwest region of the United States after the 40 day count of the 2013-2014 school year. The data included 16,732 student records of school aged children in kindergarten through 12<sup>th</sup> grades. Analyses revealed that there was a significant difference in: the proportion of

students identified with a Primary Home Language Other Than English (PHLOTE) and identified with a disability categorized as ELL from PHLOTE students without a disability identified as ELL, in the proportion of students identified with disabilities who received ALS compared to their peers without a disability who received ALS (most of the 36 students exempted from ALS were identified with a disability), in the proportion of ELLs who received ALS in grades K-5 compared to ELLs in grades 9-12, in the proportion of ELLs who received ALS who were identified with a Specific Learning Disability compared to ELLs who received ALS identified with any other primary disability, in the proportion of ELLs identified as SLD compared to their non-ELL peers also identified as SLD, and in the proportion of Asian students identified with a disability. Asian students were identified with a disability at a significantly lower rate compared to their non-Asian peers.

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## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

America is a country with a diverse population. According to the US Census Bureau (2012), the current population is over three hundred million individuals, with roughly 20% speaking a language other than English in the home. The US Census Bureau (2012) reported over 300 different languages spoken in the US by individuals age five and older, including more common languages such as French, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, Spanish and Vietnamese, and less common languages such as Arabic, Berber, Czech, Greek, Hebrew, Hindi, Hungarian, Icelandic, Polish, and Swahili. These individuals reported as native born or originating from countries such as Armenia, France, Germany, India, Iran, Japan, Spain, Mexico, and Vietnam, (US Census Bureau, 2012). Because many individuals living in the US come from such varying nations, cultures, and linguistic backgrounds, the challenges for educating the millions of children in the country are many. As I will discuss later in this chapter, for students identified as culturally and/or linguistically diverse (CLD), researchers and policy makers have recommended that explicit attention be paid to fostering students' development of English. This may take on a variety of forms, including English as a Second Language (ESL), bilingual education, or other forms of Alternative Language Services (ALS).<sup>1</sup>

Many children in the US who speak a home language other than English are also identified with a disability. According to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) Data Accountability Website (2012), "the number and percentage of children ages 3 through 5 served under IDEA, Part B, and as a percentage of the population, in the

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<sup>1</sup> These terms, as well as others, are defined later in this chapter and included in Appendix B.

U.S. and outlying areas, by LEP (Limited English Proficiency) status: Fall 2011” is 49,273, or 7.68% of the total population of children ages 3 through 5 served under IDEA (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs). “The number and percentage of children ages 6 through 21 served under IDEA, Part B, and as a percentage of the population, in the U.S. and outlying areas, by LEP status: Fall 2011” is 501,914 or 8.67 % of the total population of children ages 6 through 21 served under IDEA (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs).

Combined, that is over 550,000 children in the US and outlying areas such as American Samoa, Guam, and the Virgin Islands, ages 3 through 21, who are served under IDEA and who are also identified as limited English proficient. In New Mexico, over 9,800 children ages 6 through 21 identified as limited English proficient were served under IDEA in the 2010-2011 school year (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs).

As a result of these large numbers of students identified both as limited English proficient and with a disability, I argue that research needs to address the English language acquisition and special education services received by these students, in relation to the English language acquisition and special education services mandated by various legislative acts and litigation. As I will discuss in the following sections, by Federal mandate all public education K-12 students who are identified as requiring English language development support must receive it. Students identified with disabilities are not excluded from this mandate. However, as I will explore in this chapter, the extent to which English Language Learners (ELLs) identified with disabilities actually receive such services is not well documented.

### **Background of the Problem**

Many legal battles have been waged and much legislation has been handed down addressing appropriate education for all in America. This includes the cases of *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, the *Education for All Handicapped Children Act* and its later amendments, the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act*, *Diana v. California State Board of Education*, and the *Bilingual Education Act* (Appendix A). Subsequently, policies and overall sentiment regarding education have also evolved. Despite the best intentions of these directives, however, students who have been labeled with a disability have been shown to face many challenges in the US educational system (Harry & Klingner, 2007) and many have poor educational outcomes (Gravois & Rosenfield, 2006; Hibel, Faircloth, & Farkas, 2008; Samson & Lesaux, 2009). Given the concerns regarding poor educational outcomes, providing all children with the same or ‘equal’ treatment does not equate to providing them with equal educational opportunities (Baca, Baca, & de Valenzuela, 2004; Klingner & Artiles, 2003), especially when addressing the needs of CLD students.

Students who are labeled with a disability and who speak a language other than English have been viewed as having multiple ‘strikes’ against them (Baca et al., 2004). Simply providing these children with the same special education instruction in English or in the students’ native language is not an adequate means to meet their unique and complex needs regarding academic and language acquisition and progress (Baca et al., 2004). Nieto (2002) stated that “there is a substantial relationship between bilingual education and equity . . . bilingual education is viewed by many language-minority communities as vital to the educational achievement of their children” (p. 120). Cummins

(1989) argued that attention to the educational and language needs of CLD students should be a primary focus when planning and making decisions regarding placement and services. He recognized, however, that these factors are often not taken into consideration. In addition, there are numerous ideas about how to best instruct children who speak a native language other than English, and program models not only vary from state to state, but from school to school. I will address this issue further in Chapter Two.

Bilingual Special Education is a relatively new field of research and advocacy that has emerged over the past 30 plus years (Baca & Miramontes, 1985). Research related to this area and CLD students in general has indicated a consistent pattern of disproportionate representation in special education (e.g. de Valenzuela, Copeland, Qi, & Park, 2006; Samson & Lesaux, 2009; Skiba et al., 2006). I will discuss this and other research related to bilingual special education later in this dissertation. However, one emerging concern is that researchers have often focused more generally on CLD students rather than specifically on ELLs and how this subgroup of students is impacted by their unique circumstances (Samson & Lesaux, 2009). Arnold and Lassmann (2003) pointed out that “while this [CLD] is a useful term, it does not make allowances for the varying cultural elements within the larger ‘geographic’ context” (p. 234). It is therefore my intention to focus my research in this study specifically on students identified as ELLs and the ALS they receive once they have been identified with a disability. In order to contextualize my proposed study, in the following sections I will discuss the terms used to refer to students who speak a home language other than English, discuss the terms used to refer to ALS and the research related to CLD students, and summarize the legislation and litigation related to the education of children in the US.

## History of Terms and Usage

As discussed by the National Council of Teachers of English (2008), as policies, legislation, and overall sentiment regarding education have evolved over the years, so have the terms used to refer to students who speak a language other than English and the terms related to the language programs available to these children. When reviewing the literature related to students who speak a language other than English, many of the terms overlap or are used synonymously, and this is not always appropriate as the terms are unique and distinctive to specific populations of individuals (National Council of Teachers of English, 2008).

Though the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) has addressed many terms such as ‘alternative language program’ in documents such as the May 1970 memorandum to school districts entitled, *Identification of Discrimination and Denial of Services on the Basis of National Origin*, the December 1985 guidance document, *Title VI Language Minority Compliance Procedures*, the September 1991 memorandum, *Policy Update on Schools Obligations Toward National Origin Minority Students with Limited English Proficiency*, and the 2000 *Provision of an Equal Education Opportunity to Limited-English Proficient Students*, OCR continues to discover that terms are misrepresented or understood differently by local school districts (Garcia, 2005; OCR 2012). This variation in terminology has the potential to impact the classification of students and the services being offered to these students.

**Terms.** Upon entering a public school, a student may be identified through methods such as a home language survey as an individual who speaks a Primary Home Language Other Than English (PHLOTE) (Florez, 2012) and may then also be referred to

as an ELL (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Wolf et al., 2008) or Language Minority (LM) student, referring to the fact that they speak a primary or home language other than English that is considered a minority language in the US (Collier, 1992). These terms may be used in different ways and can hold variant meanings, which I will discuss further in subsequent text. As a result of such identification, a language proficiency assessment such as the Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State (ACCESS), developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics [CAL] in Washington, DC in collaboration with the World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment [WIDA] Consortium, or the Language Assessment Scales (LAS) (De Avila & Duncan, 1977) *may* be administered to them. However, it is important to note that not all students identified by this initial screening are given a language assessment (Fox & Fairbairn, 2011; Schrank, Fletcher & Alvarado, 1996).

Individuals who are administered a language proficiency assessment may then be identified in one of a variety of categories according to their performance on the language proficiency assessment used. For example, the ACCESS identifies students as: Level 1, Entering; Level 2, Beginning; Level 3, Developing; Level 4, Expanding; Level 5- Bridging; and Attained (WIDA). ACCESS provides a detailed explanation of expected language skills and performance for each level. The Department of Education Office for Civil Rights website (2012) refers to students as either Non-English Proficient (NEP), Limited English Proficient (LEP) or Fluent or Fully English Proficient (FEP), based on their English language proficiency assessment results. Similarly, NCLB references LEP when students have:

a native language other than English by foreign birth or ancestry, living in an environment in which a language other than English is dominant, and having a degree of difficulty with speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language that interferes with social interactions and academic tasks (Wolf et al., 2008, p. 5).

These terms, however, are controversial as they tend to focus on the deficiency of the students' performance in English (Liu, Thurlow, Erickson, Spicuzza & Heinze, 1997), and other terms such as Potentially English Proficient (PEP) have been proposed as alternatives (OMSLE, 1995).

As noted earlier, the terms PHLOTE, ELL, LEP, and LM are used interchangeably in many states in documentation and official state definitions when in reality they do not mean the same thing (Wolf et al., 2008). In Appendix B and Appendix C I provide lists of these terms and others, and the states in which they are used. In a study conducted by Wolf et al. (2008), the researchers reported that the procedures and terms used for identifying and categorizing ELLs were similar, but found three areas of discrepancy: (a) though most states utilized a single English language proficiency assessment, some states allowed local districts to choose a language proficiency assessment from a list of approved assessments, raising the issue of comparability in determining levels of proficiency from different tests; (b) though most states used one English language proficiency assessment to identify and monitor a student identified as ELL, some states used one English language proficiency assessment to identify a student as ELL and then another to monitor the progress of English language proficiency of that student; and (c) a detailed examination of the names of levels (e.g., "Progressing,

Advanced,” etc.) of English proficiency used to categorize students revealed significant variability across states in both the number of levels and the descriptions used for each level. This adds to the confusion of the true definition of each term, the classification of students, and the services provided to these students based on their given label (Wolf et al., 2008).

Similar to the inconsistency and misunderstanding of the terms related to individuals who speak a primary language other than English, the terms related to the language services provided to these individuals are also confusing and unclear at times. ALS is the broad term used to refer to the language services provided to ELLs who require a specialized program of English instruction as explained by OCR (2000). While OCR discusses ALS, it does not mandate any specific type or form of ALS. Programs utilized when educating ELLs, however, must meet three requirements established by the 1981 *Castaneda v. Pickard* case, which are meant to ensure that the programs chosen are suitable (Fitzgerald, 1993; Haas & Gort, 2009; Ovando, 2003). I will discuss this case in greater detail when addressing legislation and litigation. In general, types of instruction can vary as to whether the instruction is provided solely in English or whether the students’ home language is also used as a language of instruction, as is the case in bilingual education programs. Various terms are used to refer to the educational practices or programs utilized with ELLs. Some of the terms used for English only instruction include submersion and structured immersion, and some of the terms used for native language instruction include transitional bilingual program, maintenance bilingual program, and dual language or two-way bilingual program. I will discuss these program types in greater detail in Chapter Two.

ESL refers to teaching English to individuals via a program or a class (Honigsfeld, 2009). Typically, ESL teaching happens in an English-speaking country while English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction happens in locations where English is not the primary language. English Language Development (ELD) is a term used to refer to instruction that promotes the development of either oral or written English language skills or abilities (Gersten & Baker, 2000). Some differentiate ESL from ELD, however, this is not a universally recognized or understood distinction. There are a number of models for the delivery of ESL, including specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE) (Cline & Necochea, 2003) and structured immersion (Gersten & Woodward, 1995). I will define and describe these models in greater detail in Chapter Two. Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is a term used to describe the profession of teaching English to students of other languages, and it can be a field of study, a practice, or a certification (Collier & Thomas, 2004). I will use these terms when referring to students who speak a language other than English and the language programs available to these children throughout the rest of this paper.

### **Operational Definitions**

Throughout my dissertation I will use the term PHLOTE to refer to students identified as having a primary home language other than English by a home language survey administered by the K-12 public school district in which I conducted this study. I will use the term ELL to refer to students who have been identified by the school district as students who are still in the process of acquiring English. This does not include students who have also been identified as *proficient* on the English language assessment utilized by the school district. I will use the term culturally and linguistically diverse

(CLD) to refer to the larger population of students, all of whom are identified as PHLOTE and/or ELL. CLD also includes students from certain racial or ethnic groups (e.g. Asian, Hispanic, and Native American). I will use the term ALS to refer to the broad range of English language education provided by the school district in which I conducted this study. This term includes programs that do or do not include instruction in the child's home language. These program models are defined by the State Department of Education and I include the definitions of these models in Appendix C. When referring to a student identified with a disability, I used the disability designation provided by the school district.

### **Legislation and Litigation**

As stated previously, numerous legal battles have been waged and much legislation has been handed down addressing appropriate education for all in America. In the following section I intend to introduce significant court cases and legislation that have had an impact on educational practices for all children, including those who are culturally diverse, those who speak a language other than English, and those identified with a disability. I will go into further detail on these cases and their legal impact in Chapter Two.

A significant legal case in US education was *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka* (1954). The United States Supreme Court declared that the state laws establishing separate public schools for African American and Caucasian students were unconstitutional (Valdes & Figueroa, 1994). The decision in this case overturned the *Plessy v. Ferguson* (1896) decision which allowed state-sponsored segregation. The Supreme Court ruled that separate education was in fact unequal and not in the interest of

all students (Weinberg & Weinberg, 1990). The ruling from this case played a chief role in the passage of other major legislation such as the *Title VII Civil Rights Act* (1964) and the *Education for All Handicapped Children Act* (EAHCA) (1975) (McLean, 1995; Skiba et al., 2008). These mandates sought to make education accessible and available for *all* children and helped to establish legal backing for children and their families who felt that their right to an appropriate public education was being denied.

In 1968, Title VII of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* PL 89-10, 79 Stat. 27, 20 U.S.C. ch.70, also known as the *Bilingual Education Act*, established a federal policy that sought to aid educational agencies by authorizing funding to help educate students with limited English proficiency (Ehlers-Zavala, 2011). Ideas on how to educate these students were numerous and varied, however, and bilingual education consisted of a wide range of programs and services that had varying language proficiency goals (Christian, 1994; Crawford, 1999; Honigsfeld, 2009).

In 1970, OCR issued a memo addressing school districts' responsibilities to provide equal educational opportunities to ELLs (OCR, 1970). This memorandum stated:

Where the inability to speak and understand the English language excludes national origin minority group children from effective participation in the educational program offered by a school district, the district must take affirmative steps to rectify the language deficiency in order to open its instructional program to these students (OCR, 1970).

Though the memorandum called for school districts to take 'affirmative steps' to resolve the difficulty of successful participation by these students due to a language "deficiency," it did not specify the nature of the steps. OCR continued to issue additional

memorandums, including those in 1984, 1985, and 1991, which addressed states' compliance "to provide any alternative language programs necessary to ensure that national origin minority students with limited-English proficiency have meaningful access to schools' programs" (OCR, ¶ 1, 1991). Since its creation in 1966, OCR has taken the role of advocating for student populations who may be facing discrimination in public institutions, as evidenced in the current OCR mission statement retrieved from their website in January of 2013: "The mission of the Office for Civil Rights is to ensure equal access to education and to promote educational excellence throughout the nation through vigorous enforcement of civil rights." OCR continues to play an integral role in the education of all children today, including those who have been identified with a disability and who speak a language other than English, and OCR memorandums provide policy guidelines for the identification and service provisions for ELLs.

Even in light of these emerging requirements to provide English as a Second Language (ESL) or bilingual classes, assessments for a possible disability were commonly still administered in English. The case of *Diana v. California State Board of Education* (1970) involved nine Mexican-American children whose primary language was Spanish. After the children had been assessed in English, a determination was made to place these students in special education. The children's families disagreed with this placement and felt that the placement determination could not be made based on assessments that were conducted in a language that was not the child's primary language. The court subsequently ruled that the school districts of California were to test children in their primary language and to use non-verbal tests as well as extensive supportive data

before making a determination of special education placement for a culturally and linguistically diverse student (McLean, 1995; Valdes & Figueroa, 1994).

In a similar case involving 1,800 Chinese students in 1974, a California school district segregated these students into separate "Oriental" English only schools. The *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) decision ordered schools to provide education for all students, whether or not they spoke English (Figueroa, 1989; Weinberg & Weinberg, 1990). The courts pointed out that providing students who did not speak or understand English with the same facilities, text books, teachers, and curriculum did not equate to 'equality of treatment' for those student (Cummins, 1984; Weinberg & Weinberg, 1990). The Lau decision was expanded upon in a 1975 OCR memorandum which outlined the Lau Guidelines, or "specific procedures to be followed by school districts that enroll twenty or more limited-English speaking students with the same native language in grades K-8" (Weinberg & Weinberg, 1990, p. 24).

In 1974, Congress established the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (OBEMLA) to help school districts meet their responsibilities to provide equal educational opportunities to ELLs. In 1994, *The Bilingual Education Act* was reauthorized as part of the *Improving America's Schools Act* (IASA), PL 103-382; 108 Stat. 3518, to provide for a greater state role in the decision making process and give priority to states whose goal was to develop bilingual proficiency (Crawford, 1999). The IASA changed eligibility requirements for services under Title I as well, allowing students learning English to receive services under Title 1, just as all other students would (Crawford, 1999). The IASA sought to improve the education of LEP students by, "developing and implementing comprehensive preschool, elementary, or secondary

bilingual education or special alternative instructional programs that are coordinated with other relevant programs and services to meet the full range of educational needs of limited English proficient students” (IASA, 1994). It also gave more local control overall so that federal officials and states could waive federal requirements that ‘interfered’ with school improvements (Crawford, 1999), which began a weakening in regulations for native language instruction.

In 1981, the court case *Castaneda v. Pickard* 648 F. 2d 989 charged a school district in Texas with violating the civil rights of children who spoke a language other than English under the *Equal Education Opportunities Act* PL 93-380 of 1974 (Fitzgerald, 1993). While the *Lau* case ordered appropriate education for all students, the *Castaneda v. Pickard* case took this is step further. From this case, the following three criteria were established for use in determining appropriate education was being provided for students who were learning English: (a) the school program chosen for ELLs must be based on sound educational theory; (b) the program must be implemented with fidelity, adequate resources, and personnel; and (c) the program must be monitored to ensure adequate results in language as well as in academic areas (Haas & Gort, 2009; Ovando, 2003). The results of the *Castaneda v. Pickard* case did not require that schools provide bilingual education, but it did ensure that some requirements were met when educating ELLs and that the programs chosen were suitable. The three criteria resulting from this case are still in use today (Fitzgerald, 1993).

On August 11, 2000, Executive Order 13166, *Improving Access to Services for Persons with Limited English Proficiency*, was signed by then President Bill Clinton and required federal agencies “to examine the services they provide, identify any need for

services to those with limited English proficiency (LEP), and develop and implement a system to provide those services so LEP persons can have meaningful access to them” (Executive Order 13166, 2000). The U.S. Department of Justice then developed the document, *Enforcement of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 - National Origin Discrimination Against Persons with Limited English Proficiency (LEP Guidance)*, (2002), to guide and assist with the requirements of Executive Order 13166 and to help ensure that programs and activities typically provided in English were accessible to students considered LEP.

In 2001, the *No Child Left Behind Act* (NCLB), PL 107-110, was passed. This was a reauthorization of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* PL 89-10, 79 Stat. 27, 20 U.S.C. ch.70, and put an emphasis on standards-based education and educational reform and required states receiving federal funding for schools to create assessments measuring ‘basic skills’ for *all* children (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Ehlers-Zavala, 2011). NCLB had a significant impact on the *Bilingual Education Act*, which was renamed the *English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement Act*, or Part A of Title III (Depowski, 2008). OBEMLA was also renamed the Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students (Depowski, 2008). The focus of instruction for ELLs was clearly redefined under NCLB as English acquisition, and native and home language maintenance was not indicated as a priority, or even a concern (Depowski, 2008; Wright, 2007). NCLB also drastically cut funding for bilingual programs, limited the length of these programs and did not endorse the three criteria set up by the *Castaneda v. Pickard* case for determining quality bilingual programs

(Depowski, 2008). Some have argued that this shift toward English acquisition and away from native language instruction, maintenance, and development has negatively impacted student performance on the mandated 'basic skills' assessments because these students were not adequately prepared to take the assessments, and subsequently their scores impacted the overall rating of the school according to NCLB guidelines (Depowski, 2008; Menken, 2006). Others have argued that ELLs are categorized into a separate grouping when a school's overall scores are analyzed, and if these students do not perform comparably to the standards of native-English speaking students, they could be the reason an entire school receives a failing rating for that school year (Depowski, 2008; Menken, 2006). While the ultimate goal of NCLB was to ensure that no student was left behind, some argue that it fails to adequately address the needs of ELLs (Depowski, 2008; Menken, 2006).

### **Bilingual Special Education**

Certain mandates and legal cases such as *Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka*, *Title VII Civil Rights Act* and the *Education for All Handicapped Children Act* authorized a free and appropriate public education for all students, including those with disabilities. Most recently, NCLB authorized that students who are identified as LEP are entitled to participate in programs designed to help them develop their English proficiency skills. Bilingual special education was meant to address both areas for CLD students identified with a disability. Despite this intent, however, obstacles such as a poor understanding of legal requirements, limited native language assessment materials, and a lack of qualified personnel inhibit the application of instructional programs, practices, and techniques related to bilingual special education. While many issues exist, the disproportionate

representation of CLD students in special education may be one of the most significant (e.g. Artiles et al., 2005; Donovan & Cross, 2002; Harry & Klingner, 2007). I will discuss this briefly below and then, along with other issues, in greater detail in Chapter Two.

### **Disproportionate Representation**

Research has consistently found that CLD students are both over and under, or *disproportionately*, represented in special education (e.g. de Valenzuela et al., 2006; Gravois & Rosenfield, 2006; Hibel et al., 2008; Losen & Orfield, 2002; Samson & Lesaux, 2009; Skiba et al., 2006). A common reason, however, has yet to be identified and widely agreed upon. Some researchers, such as Samson and Lesaux (2009), assert that invalid identification of ELLs plays a big role. In contrast Hibel et al. (2008) argued for the importance of school readiness as a predictive variable. Researchers have also discussed the issues of the quality of special education instruction and services once students have been identified and placed (e.g., de Valenzuela et al., 2006; Skiba et al., 2006), teacher bias and their perceptions of students from different cultures (e.g., Harry & Klingner, 2007; Hosp & Reschly, 2003), and biased assessment practices leading to placement in more restrictive settings (e.g., Warner, Dede, Garvan & Conway, 2002). Losen and Orfield (2002) stated that “the research does suggest that unconscious racial bias, stereotypes, and other race-linked factors have a significant impact on the patterns of identification, placement, and quality of services for minority children” (p. xxii). I will elaborate on the issues related to the over and underrepresentation of minority students in special education in Chapter Two.

### **Statement of the Problem**

A child's home language should be taken into consideration when making decisions about educational setting and language of instruction (Klingner & Artiles, 2003; Ruiz, Vargas & Beltrán, 2002). Cummins (1989) asserted that the degree to which language and culture are incorporated into a child's educational program is a significant factor in academic success. Too often, however, schools reinforce doubt and insecurity in minority students (Cummins, 1989). From the deficit model point of view (Harry & Klingner, 2007), these children are seen as having something innately wrong with them (Ruiz, Rueda, Figueroa & Boothroyd, 1995). An alternative perspective is that learning should be focused on the environment, situation, methods, and opportunities to learn that are presented to a child (Klingner & Artiles, 2003; Ruiz et al., 1995). An integration of a child's native language, second language acquisition strategies, and specialized and individualized instruction for an ELL who has also been identified as having a disability would be an ideal situation from this perspective.

Currently, students who are identified as ELLs are eligible for programs to help them develop their English proficiency skills under NCLB, OCR memorandums, and Title IV of the Civil Rights Act, 1964 (Vialpando & Yedlin, 2005). Students who have been identified as having a disability are guaranteed a 'free and appropriate public education' under the 2004 revision of PL 42-142, IDEA (Ehlers-Zavala, 2011; Sattler, 2008).

IDEA does address students who speak languages other than English. However, the mandates put forth in this legislation that refer to this population of students are limited to assessment practices and parent interaction and contact (Gartin & Murdick, 2005). There is no specific mandate in IDEA for educational practices related to ELLs,

including language services, once a child has been identified with a disability. NCLB, however, does require each school district to provide students with adequate programs to help them develop English proficiency skills (Vialpando & Yedlin, 2005). Similarly, Title IV of the Civil Rights Act (1964) supports OCR memorandums addressing programs for ELLs, affirming that school districts must support ELLs in transcending language barriers and safeguard the participation in meaningful educational programs. While neither act specifically excludes ELLs identified with a disability, when combined, these two acts address *all* children in *all* settings, including Special Education. As a result, students who are identified with a disability and are also ELLs are entitled to receive *both* services when considering both IDEA and NCLB regulations. ELLs who have been identified with a disability and who have been placed in a special education setting are afforded both special education services and ALS as clarified in the Office of Civil Rights policy memorandum, "Policy Update on Schools' Obligations Toward National Origin Minority Students With Limited-English Proficiency (LEP students)," issued on September 27, 1991 and referencing Title VI 34 C.F.R. 100.3. The memorandum states, "districts may not refuse to provide both alternative language services and special education to students who need both." However, there is little research documenting the extent to which language acquisition and development services are provided for ELLs once they begin receiving special education services.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to investigate how the identification of and provision of ALS to ELLs identified with a disability compared to that of their ELL peers

without an identified disability. In addition, I conducted a review of the types of ALS provided, as the data allowed.

### **Questions to be Addressed**

The questions that I addressed in this study are:

1. How did the rate of identification of PHLOTE students with disabilities as ELLs compare to their PHLOTE-status peers without disabilities?
2. What ALS did students who were identified both as ELLs and with a disability receive as compared to ELL peers who were not receiving special education services?
3. Were any observed differences in the rate of ELL identification and provision of ALS related to recorded student characteristics such as ethnicity/home language, language proficiency level(s), eligibility label, grade level, and setting?

### **Importance of the Study**

While much research has been conducted related to bilingual special education and English language acquisition services and program models, (e.g. Collier & Thomas, 2004; Duran, Roseth & Hoffman, 2010; Lopez & Tashakkori, 2006; Medina & Escamilla, 1992; Moore & Parr, 1978; Ruiz et al., 1995; Samson & Lesaux, 2009), there is a gap in the research regarding the manner in which appropriate and adequate ALS for ELLs who have been identified with a disability are being provided. I conducted a thorough analysis of student records from a large K-12 public school district in the Southwestern United States with a large ELL population in an attempt to document the ALS being provided to ELLs who have been identified with a disability. I hope that this information will allow parents, students, teachers, administrators, and other individuals

who are providing special education and ALS to ELLs the opportunity to better evaluate the manner in which these services are being provided for this specific population of students.

### **Researcher Stance**

I am the only child of a Hispanic mother and first generation Mexican-American father. I grew up hearing and speaking both English and Spanish on a daily basis. My parents put a strong emphasis on education, and as a child this was my primary responsibility. Expectations were always very high, and my parents were always involved in and concerned with my schooling. As a result, I developed a passion for education, and grew up with an understanding of what it was like to exist as a bilingual child. I chose to study education in college, and explore the realms of bilingual education and special education. Upon graduating with my Bachelor's degree, I became licensed in general and special education, and endorsed in bilingual education.

I began my teaching career in a first grade general education classroom in a low income, small neighborhood school with a significant bilingual population. As a bilingual teacher licensed in both general and special education, I was able to include many students in my classroom who might not have otherwise been able to learn together. Eventually, I moved into a special education classroom and provided bilingual special education services in a much larger, more diverse elementary school. At this school I worked with students from the Navajo reservation, students who had recently immigrated to the US from various regions in South America, and with students from Vietnam and South Korea.

Throughout my teaching career, I have experienced the challenges of providing CLD students with ALS once they began receiving special education services. As a native Spanish speaker, I was able to provide bilingual support to some students. Students who spoke a home language other than Spanish, however, were often left out of services offered at the school in their home languages, services that they had received prior to being labeled with a disability. As a teacher and in my current position as a bilingual educational diagnostician, I have attended many Individualized Education Plan (IEP) meetings where school staff have attempted to negotiate the importance of continued ALS for ELLs who have recently been identified with a disability. In my experience, school and district staff often debated the prominence of one service in relation to the other, and often times a choice was made as to whether the student received one *or* the other, not when and how they could receive *both*.

I believe it is clear from the preceding review of federal legislation and relevant litigation that students who are identified as ELLs are entitled to participate in programs designed to help them develop their English proficiency skills. It is my opinion that all students identified as ELLs should be receiving ALS, including instruction in their home and primary language when possible. My understanding of the research (e.g. Christian, 1994; Gersten & Woodward, 1995; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006) is that when core content area instruction occurs in both English and the native language, students comprehend better and as a result, perform better. I believe the guarantee of a 'free and appropriate public education' under IDEA. However, while I believe there is a clear legal requirement that students identified as ELLs and also identified with a disability should be provided with ALS *and* special education services with equal importance and fidelity,

it is my experience that this is not always the case. In fact, it is my experience that parents and students are more often than not persuaded as to the importance or value of one over the other, and then have to *choose* which service their child will receive. My experience suggests that ELLs identified with a disability do not always receive the language acquisition services and special education services they are legally entitled to. I would like to investigate this topic further, with a larger population of students across a school district, through this study, in order to examine whether my prior professional experiences are typical or not.

### **Conceptual Framework**

I approached this study from the perspective of the social construction of disability. Accounts of individuals labeled with a disability exist throughout historical records but these individuals were rarely viewed the same way by different societies (Manion & Bersani, 1987; Shogan, 1998). Beginning in the nineteenth century, the concept of ‘normal’ began to immerge based on the work of Adolphe Quetelet and, as a result, a comparison to ‘normal’ developed (Shogan, 1998). Quetelet proposed that the ‘law of error’ used by astronomers could also be applied to frequency distributions related to humans and raised the concept of the ‘average man’ who possessed a *true mean* of human characteristics (Shogan, 1998). With this comparison, individuals who were determined to be *abnormal* were seen to have a problem, and so began a formal system for the social construction of disability, though informally, the social construction of disability was the identification of an individual as different from the norm. The introduction of measures of assessments such as intelligence tests by individuals such as Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon continued to perpetuate measures of adequacy and

*normalcy* (Manion & Bersani, 1987). Rice (2002) argued, however, that “it is now widely recognized that the attribute measured by I.Q. tests is itself socially constructed.

Intelligence, in this sense, is defined, not merely measured” (p. 171).

As Shogan (1998) explained, the social construction of disability “refers to the social history of disability and the social contexts that both enable and disable individuals who negotiate these contexts” (p. 269). The construction of a disability is dependent upon the interaction that individuals have with other people, places, and activities in their environment (Dudley-Marling, 2004; Jones, 1996). Dudley-Marling (2004) discussed the example of learning disabilities, stating that they “do not reside in people’s heads as much as in the complex of social interactions performed in a place called school that is itself situated in a broader social, political, and cultural context” (p. 483). He asserted that individuals must perform in a certain way within an institutional framework that requires specific things from them and then assigns meaning to their performance in order for their abilities or disabilities to have significance. When viewed in a different context, the individual’s behaviors do not carry the same significance or meaning (Dudley-Marling, 2004).

As explained by other researchers (e.g. Bogdan & Knoll, 1995; Rao, 2006; Rosenblum & Travis, 2006), the social construction of disability is the assertion that a society defines ‘disability’ or deviations in their culture or in different groups based upon norms, assumptions, and stereotypes belonging to that specific group of people. Some researchers, such as Rosenblum and Travis (2006) and Bogdan and Knoll (1995), go so far as to assert that the true definition or even existence of “disability” is based upon the beliefs and customs of a society. While each individual has a unique concept and

perception of disability, these opinions are based on societal standards and acceptable assumptions (Rosenblum & Travis, 2006).

This description also encompasses the discourse that is engaged in on a given topic such as disability (Peter, 2000). For example, the language that is used to describe people or explain their actions related to disability becomes the norm in societies (Haller, Dorries & Rahn, 2006; Jones, 1996; Reid et al., 2006) and contributes to the way things are perceived and defined by groups of people. Reid, Stoughton and Smith (2006) explained that “people construct disability through the myths, anecdotes, stories, and jokes that circulate within a given culture” (p. 629). Disability conceptions and definitions are perpetuated by individuals within a society and the works they produce through various media outlets. The stories and jokes that are told via the media define disability in particular ways.

### **Disability Origin**

There are different perceptions of the origin of disability. In some societies individuals believe that a disability is the result of an innate deficit within a person that requires some sort of assistance or cure (Bogdan & Knoll, 1995; Jones, 1996; Mercer, 1992; Rao, 2006). From this medical model point of view, a person with a disability is seen as defective, in need of fixing in order to fulfill their role in society (Dewsbury, Clarke, Randall, Rouncefield & Sommerville, 2004). Rao (2006) explained that “there is a tendency toward exclusion of people with disabilities in [some] societies” (p. 163). Special education programs were created to “better serve” students labeled with a disability, but in truth resulted in segregating them, especially those students from CLD backgrounds (de Valenzuela et al., 2006). Examinations exist that investigate the actual

success and purpose of such programs of special education (e.g. Bogdan & Knoll, 1995) and its goal of “fixing” the broken. Some authors argue that such programs in fact, tend to further ostracize individuals labeled as having disabilities, and as Peter (2000) noted, “preserve the . . . defective identity over time” (p. 359). This preservation of defective identity continues to add to the societal definition of disability.

Other societal perspectives define disability as communal, as relating to the individual’s family. Rao (2006) explained that some cultures define identity collectively and therefore perceive severe disabilities as reflecting on the entire family. Members of a society will look to the family as a whole for the origin or reason for a child’s disability, and will in turn make assumptions about the family due to the child’s disability. The definition of disability in this case not only affects the individual, but the members of the family as well.

### **Impact of a disability label**

As a result of the variation of ideas regarding the origin and definition of disability and its meaning and its impact on individuals, each person who is considered to have a disability is affected differently. Some societies assign significant meaning to the names or labels that are given to certain groups of people (Rosenblum & Travis, 2006). These labels carry identity and often define the person or people that they are given to. Along with this identity come assumptions and suppositions, that can affect an individual’s ability or “dis-ability” to do certain things in the society to which they belong. Molloy and Vasil (2002) explained that “once children are labeled they tend to be identified by their diagnosis thereby losing their individuality and limiting other people’s expectations of them” (p. 661). A label of disability is often an invitation to other

members of society to assume certain things about a person and to expect certain things from them.

These names and labels can also put people into certain groups that are created by the dominant class in a society and become perceived and treated as subordinate and inferior (McLaren, 1994). This status then affects everything else that the person attempts to do, and at times, disables them even more. Jones (1996) wrote that “students with disabilities may not be understood fully without considering the consequences of minority group status” (p. 14). The consequences of the group affiliation or assignment in some cases, that individuals within a society are a part of, often determine what they can and cannot do within that society, hence contributing to their real and perceived abilities and disabilities within that specified group of people (Jones, 1996).

Societies use various factors such as socioeconomic status, ethnicity, gender, ability level, class, and age to put people within that society in certain groups (Rosenblum & Travis, 2006). When a society attempts to aggregate or lump people together into groups that then define them and their status in that society (Rosenblum & Travis, 2006), certain presumptions and hypotheses are formed that affect the people in the groups as well as the next generation of individuals who learn from these assumptions. If nothing is done about this, these presumptions and suppositions are perpetuated in this manner for multiple generations, and the limitations that come with them are continuously imposed on the people who are put into these groups (Rosenblum & Travis, 2006). This continues to contribute to the limitations a person might face due to group status, and contribute to their abilities and disabilities within their society.

### **Exacerbation of disabilities by society**

Schools have implemented special education programs as a result of IDEIA requiring a free and appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment for all children labeled with a disability. Ideally, students are to receive appropriate education alongside their peers in an environment that is non-restrictive. However, typical special education programs provide scripted programs to children in a segregated setting away from their peers with little time for natural peer interaction (Bogdan & Knoll, 1995). Researchers such as de Valenzuela et al. (2006) and Bogdan and Knoll (1995) have questioned the validity and usefulness of such programs. Often times these programs themselves may lead to further segregation and misconceptions about the students who are in them, especially minority students, and do not help to advance the students academically (de Valenzuela et al., 2006). Despite evidence related to the deficiency of the programs, many schools, and school districts continue to point to the children in the programs as the “problem” (Bogdan & Knoll, 1995). In my experience, it is the belief of many schools and school districts that special education programs do not need to be reviewed or reformed, but rather that it is the children that are placed in them that need the adjustment. Bogdan and Knoll stated that “special education, as it was conceived and is still practiced, attributes a child’s failure in school to some flaw within him or her . . . rather than inadequacy on the part of the educational institution” (p. 678). Society has worked for many years to create the educational system that we have now (Bogdan & Knoll, 1995) and most educators who are a part of that system adhere to the beliefs and assumptions laid out and followed by the system. They assume that certain children can or cannot do certain things as a result of the label that they are given, and teach them accordingly as a result of these assumptions (Molloy & Vasil, 2002; Rosenblum &

Travis, 2006). Because of this, the assumptions that special education students are broken children who need to be fixed or rehabilitated in a separate environment with special instruction continues, as does the isolation and inaccessibility that goes with it. These are prime examples of how social institutions such as schools and school systems can create or exacerbate disabilities.

### **Scope and Delimitations of the Study**

The purpose of this research was to investigate: (a) how the rate of identification of PHLOTE students with disabilities as ELLs compared to their PHLOTE-status peers without disabilities; (b) what ALS students who were identified both as ELLs and with a disability received as compared to ELL peers who were not receiving special education services; and (c) whether any observed differences in the rate of ELL identification and provision of ALS related to recorded student characteristics such as ethnicity/home language, language proficiency level(s), eligibility label, grade level, and setting. In addition, I conducted a review of the types of ALS students were reported to receive. I reviewed data from kindergarten through twelfth grade. I did not examine pre-K or early intervention measures as the availability and accuracy of the documentation is unreliable. I based ELL status on the information gathered from the district database, which used both a home language survey and a language proficiency assessment called the ACCESS (Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State) to determine if a student was an ELL. I only included those students identified by the district as ELLs, recognizing that other students may also be learning English but may not have been identified by the district as ELL based on district assessment procedures.

This study did not reveal the process that was taken to determine the types of ALS received by each ELL identified with a disability, how the services were provided, nor did I address the fidelity with which the services were provided. It was beyond the scope of this study to address the effectiveness of the services or the certification of the individuals providing the services. The results are not generalizable to all US school districts. However, the results should provide insight into the ALS provided to students who have been identified as ELLs and with a disability in a large school district with a bilingual population and may be analogous to similar school districts with similar populations.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Review of Related Literature**

In this section I review the professional literature that addresses: (a) Public Law 94-142, its subsequent amendments, and its impact on the education of children identified with a disability, in particular those children identified as ELLs; (b) NCLB; (c) ALS, including English and native language instructional practices and models of language instruction; (d) bilingual special education; (e) disproportionate representation; and (f) certain challenges faced by ELLs and their teachers. In Chapter One I briefly reviewed several of these areas, and in this chapter I expand on that review and provide more detail. These are all areas that lend background and contextual understanding to this study, including the evolution of special education, CLD and ELLs placement and participation in special education, and models of language instruction. As a result they warrant a comprehensive review. I am reviewing this literature to address my research questions: (a) how did the rate of identification of PHLOTE students with disabilities as ELLs compare to their PHLOTE-status peers without disabilities; (b) what ALS did students who were identified both as ELLs and with a disability receive as compared to ELL peers who were not receiving special education services; and (c) were any observed differences in the rate of ELL identification and provision of ALS related to recorded student characteristics such as ethnicity/home language, language proficiency level(s), eligibility label, grade level, and setting?

#### **Public Law 94-142 & NCLB**

In this section I discuss PL 94-142 and its subsequent amendments as these are the principal factors impacting educational practices for children identified with a

disability, including those who are culturally diverse and those who speak a language other than English. I will begin with the origin of PL 94-142 in 1975, and continue through the most current revision in 2004. I will also discuss specific revisions and mandates stemming from each revision of the law.

In 1975, PL 94-142, or the Education of All Handicapped Children Act, was passed guaranteeing the right of equal education for all handicapped children (Skiba et al., 2008; Weinberg & Weinberg, 1990). This act laid the foundation for special education practices and continues to influence the practices of today. A portion of PL 94-142 addressed some of the issues related to cultural and linguistic diversity. In regard to eligibility criteria, it required that cultural or linguistic variables did not ‘contaminate’ the measures or standards used to make an eligibility determination (Figueroa, Fradd & Correa, 1989). It also emphasized the use of the child and parent’s primary language when dealing with informed consent, due process and assessment “if it is at all feasible to do so” (Figueroa et al., 1989, p. 175).

PL 94-142, or the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), as it was renamed in 1990, was revised in 1997. One of the items outlined by IDEA was the Individualized Education Program (IEP) document (Gartin & Murdick, 2005; Pang; 2011; Smith, 2005). This document was intended as a means of documenting and providing appropriate services for children with disabilities and defined as “a written statement for each child with a disability” (20 U.S.C. § 614(d)(1)(A)(i); Gartin & Murdick, 2005; Smith, 2005). Components to be addressed in the document include a student’s present level of performance, comprehensive goals defined and monitored by short-term objectives or benchmarks, a description of a student’s progress toward these

goals and objectives, services that are to be provided to a student so that they can meet the goals set out for them, dates and times that the listed services will be provided, involvement in a general education setting, accommodations provided for state and district assessments, and a postsecondary transition plan for student who are turning 16 years of age (Gartin & Murdick, 2005; Pang; 2011; Smith, 2005). Members of an IEP team help to develop the educational plan for the child, and IDEA mandates that the following individuals make up this team: (i) the parents of a child with a disability; (ii) not less than one regular education teacher of such child; (iii) not less than one special education teacher; (iv) a representative of the local educational agency; (v) an individual who can interpret the instructional implications of evaluation results; (vi) at the discretion of the parent or the agency, other individuals who have knowledge or special expertise regarding the child, including related services personnel as appropriate; and (vii) whenever appropriate, the child with a disability (20 U.S.C. § 614(d)(1)(B)). Special factors are to be considered when developing a child's IEP, including the language needs of a child with limited English proficiency (20 U.S.C. § 614(d)(3)(B); Gartin & Murdick, 2005; Pang; 2011). The IEP is to be reviewed by members of the student's team no less than once each year, but can be reviewed more frequently if necessary (Gartin & Murdick, 2005).

The 2004 revision of IDEA, renamed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA), continued mandates guaranteeing a 'free and appropriate public education' for all children with disabilities (Sattler, 2008). The 2004 revisions also included an alternative method for identifying children with a possible learning disability. The Response to Intervention (RTI) model uses a three tiered system to provide students

with the educational supports they need before they are considered for special education services (Barrera, 2006; Harry & Klingner, 2007; Klingner & Edwards, 2006). In Tier I, all students must receive evidenced based instruction, offered with fidelity by a teacher who is adequately trained (Barrera, 2006; Harry & Klingner, 2007; Klingner & Edwards, 2006). If a child needs further support, Tier II is designed to supplement the core curriculum with a more intensive level of instruction provided in a small group setting (Barrera, 2006; Harry & Klingner, 2007; Klingner & Edwards, 2006). This instruction is targeted to the child's specific needs and is monitored by continuous progress monitoring practices (Barrera, 2006; Harry & Klingner, 2007; Klingner & Edwards, 2006). If a child continues to struggle despite this more intensive level of support, he or she is then referred for additional evaluation procedures and considered for placement in special education (Barrera, 2006; Harry & Klingner, 2007; Klingner & Edwards, 2006). The goal of the RTI model is to allow students the time to receive support in their current general education setting before diagnostic testing, special education services, or a more restrictive placement is considered (Barrera, 2006; Harry & Klingner, 2007; Klingner & Edwards, 2006).

In 2001, the No Child Left Behind Act was passed. As discussed in Chapter One, this was a reauthorization of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act*. This act emphasized standards-based education and educational reform, requiring states that receive federal funding for schools to create assessments measuring 'basic skills' that are to be given to *all* students in specific grades (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Ehlers-Zavala, 2011). The results of these assessments are used to judge the effectiveness and quality of the education that children are receiving, and also used to qualify schools as 'adequate.'

The act does not define a ‘national achievement standard,’ but rather allows each state to set their own standards (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Ehlers-Zavala, 2011). So, while every student in specific grades, even those in special education, are required to take assessments judging their basic skills, neither the criteria for these skills nor the specific method of assessment were defined by the federal regulation but rather left up to the discretion of the states.

### **Alternative Language Services**

To review, ALS is the broad term used to refer to the language services provided to ELLs who require a specialized program of English instruction (OCR, 2000). While OCR clarified students’ rights to ALS, it did not mandate a specific form of ALS. Programs utilized when educating ELLs must adhere to NCLB provisions in addition to the three requirements established by the *Castaneda v. Pickard* case (Fitzgerald, 1993; Haas & Gort, 2009; Ovando, 2003). In the following section I will discuss the various types of educational practices and programs utilized with ELLs that may be provided solely in English or may include the students’ home language, as is the case in bilingual education programs, in this section.

**English as a second language instructional models.** Linguistically diverse children can be placed in an educational setting that advocates English only, commonly referred to as immersion (Cummins, 1979; Honigsfeld, 2009). In fact, this has recently become more common in several states. In 1998, the California State Legislature passed Proposition 227 mandating that “all children in California public schools shall be taught English as rapidly and effectively as possible.” Similarly, in 2003 the Arizona State Legislature passed Proposition 203 requiring ELLs to be taught in English immersion

classrooms “during a temporary transition period not normally intended to exceed 1 year” (Honigsfeld, 2009, p. 168). Once students have attained *good* English skills, they must transfer into English language mainstream classrooms (Honigsfeld, 2009). In this setting, all core content instruction is presented in English. The instruction does not include any modifications for or considerations of language-minority students (Duran, Roseth & Hoffman, 2010; Honigsfeld, 2009; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006). All subject areas are taught in English and modifications to the curriculum for language-based comprehension discrepancies are not overtly provided.

The English language acquisition programs provided to ELLs vary greatly. Some programs, referred to as ‘pull-out’ programs, remove students from their classroom setting and the ESL specialist takes them to another location to provide ESL services. Other programs, referred to as ‘push-in’ programs, offer language support in the classroom (Honigsfeld, 2009). Either way, the students are not receiving cohesive instruction of core content areas, but rather all English instruction with supplemental support that may or may not target what is being taught in the classroom. They may also fall behind in content areas as they struggle to learn English in a separate setting (Roberts, 1995). This approach is still considered assimilationist (Roberts, 1995). In some states and districts, students may receive as little as twenty minutes of ESL or ELD support per day. In the state where I conducted this study, the public education department requires 45 minutes of stand-alone ESL services per day (Appendix C).

There are a variety of instructional models that have the goal of fostering the development of English. In general, these instructional models incorporate *sheltered instruction*, or the approach to teaching language through content (Freeman, Freeman &

Gonzalez, 1987). When using sheltered instruction, the content can be simplified so that ELLs who are just beginning to develop their English skills can take part and comprehend, or teachers can use varied teaching techniques, manipulatives and context-embedded language to help ELLs understand what is being taught (Chamot, 1982; Freeman et al., 1987). Some of the instructional models that utilize sheltered instruction include: Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), Guided Language Acquisition Design (GLAD), Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), Specially-Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE), and Structured English Immersion. These models are all identified by the department of education in the state where I am conducting my research as approved ESL instructional models for students who are not receiving Bilingual education services, and I will provide a review of these models in the following sections.

*Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA)*. CALLA was developed in 1986 and is defined as “an instructional model designed to increase the achievement of English-language-learning (ELL) students and other students who are learning through the medium of a second language” (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996, p. 259). Chamot and O'Malley (1996) explained that CALLA is based on the cognitive learning theory that asserts that learners are perceived as active participants in the teaching and learning interface between students and teachers. They also asserted that because CALLA integrates content-area instruction with language development and explicit instruction in learning strategies, this model serves to promote the academic success of ELLs more effectively (Chamot & O'Malley, 1996).

***Guided Language Acquisition Design (GLAD)***. GLAD, as explained on the Project GLAD website, presents strategies and models to promote English language acquisition, academic achievement, and cross-cultural skills for ELLs (<http://www.projectglad.com/>). GLAD was developed by Marcia Brechtel and Linea Healy in Fountain Valley School District in California, is research based, and field-tested in the classroom (Brechtel, 2001). A balanced literacy approach with an emphasis on core content and language is utilized for improved language acquisition, and listening, speaking, reading, and writing are integrated into all content areas (Brechtel, 2001). Students are encouraged to assert their voice and personal identity, and GLAD learning strategies are geared to make instruction more relevant and more engaging for students and teachers (Brechtel, 2001). GLAD is also a U.S. Department of Education Project of Academic Excellence and a California Department of Education Exemplary Program (<http://www.projectglad.com/>).

***Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP)***. The SIOP is a tool utilized with sheltered instruction methods that aids to improve and develop teachers' instruction by providing concrete examples of the elements of sheltered instruction (Short & Echevarria, 1999). The SIOP protocol contains 30 items grouped into three sections: Preparation, Instruction, and Review/Evaluation. Each item is scored using a Likert scale ranging from four to zero, with each score linked to a descriptor such as: *4. Supplementary materials used to a high degree, making the lesson clear and meaningful* (Short & Echevarria, 1999). An observer can utilize the SIOP to help a teacher modify her teaching techniques for ELLs to make the core content more understandable while promoting academic English language growth (Short & Echevarria, 2005).

***Specially-Designed Academic Instruction in English, (SDAIE).*** SDAIE is defined by Cline and Necochea (2003) as an “instructional process that includes teaching content and English language development simultaneously” (p. 18). SDAIE is most suitable for students who have reached a higher level of English proficiency and who are able to read and write in their own language (Cline & Necochea, 2003). These services are provided by an individual with a certification such as ESL, Bilingual, or TESOL. Specific language comprehension and acquisition techniques are utilized to aid students in developing their second language.

***Structured English immersion.*** An instructional model that presents all instruction in English, but in a manner more specifically designed for improved comprehension by students with limited English-language proficiency, is called Structured English Immersion (Gersten & Woodward, 1995; Honigsfeld, 2009). In this setting, students may speak or ask questions in either Spanish or English as their English-language proficiency develops and the teacher can speak the native language, such as Spanish, but only when necessary. Instruction and materials are often modified to meet the students’ skill and ability levels. Some consider the material to be over-simplified, however, resulting in the failure of students to acquire key concepts in content areas (Gersten & Woodward, 1995). The goal of this model is for students to read, write, and develop math calculations and processing skills in English, on grade level, by the third grade (Hofstetter, 2004). Students are also expected to be orally fluent in English by third grade and should progress from Limited English Proficient (LEP) to Fully English Proficient (FEP) at the following rate: 25% of students at the end of third grade, 50% at end of fourth grade, and 100% at end of fifth grade (Hofstetter, 2004).

While this model can utilize a students' native language to ensure comprehension, the ultimate goal is not to produce bilingual students, but rather to produce fluent English speaking students. In some states legislation has been passed to ensure this. Proposition 227 in California and Proposition 203 in Arizona require public schools to transition to all English instruction as quickly as possible after students have received one year of ELL support (Honigsfeld, 2009; Medina & Escamilla, 1992). While Structured Immersion does utilize the native language at times, it is still subtractive in nature (Cummins, 1984; Cummins, 1989; Roberts, 1995).

**Research.** While students often learn how to speak English in English-only programs, research has demonstrated that oral fluency in English does not necessarily translate to academic success (Estrada, Gomez & Ruiz-Escalante, 2009). In fact, ELLs who attended English-only mainstream programs demonstrated significant decreases in reading and math achievement by fifth grade when compared to students who participated in native language support programs (Honigsfeld, 2009). In addition, while ELLs may demonstrate a degree of English proficiency in oral discourse, they often struggle when asked to use English for literacy purposes and as a result, many children from this group drop out of school (Honigsfeld, 2009).

Though some studies have supported these models as an effective approaches for English acquisition (e.g. Medina & Escamilla, 1992; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006), this research does not take into account the subtractive effect on the native language. When children spend a large portion of their day at school being instructed and conversing with adults in English, they do not maintain or advance their native language orally or academically. Roberts (1995) asserted that this is an assimilationist approach

and commented that when the first language is not supported at school, it is often lost. He therefore considered these models to be subtractive in nature. Although these models have been shown to aid in the acquisition of oral English fluency (Medina & Escamilla, 1992; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006), they do not provide additional support for language comprehension or literacy development, nor do they support the native language. Incorporation of a child's native language into the school curriculum along with language supports aids in academic success and true second language acquisition for students in general and special education (Ruiz, 1995).

**Native Language Instructional Models.** Klingner and Artiles (2003) asserted that a child's home language should be taken into consideration when making decisions about the language of instruction utilized in the educational setting. In addition, Cummins (1989) stressed that a significant factor in academic success for ELLs is the degree to which language and culture are integrated into their educational program. In the following sections I will discuss programs that incorporate mandated ESL and ELD in addition to instruction in a child's home language.

In the state where I conducted this study "developing proficiency in two or more languages . . . has been the commitment of New Mexico educators, legislators and other government leaders since the State Constitution was approved in 1911" (NMPED Bilingual and Multicultural Education Bureau, 2011, p. v). The state funds the following five program models: transitional, maintenance, dual language, enrichment, and indigenous/heritage language revitalization (Appendix C). Each program is intended to address the needs of students identified as an English native speaker, FEP or ELL and require between one and three hours of home language and/or ESL instruction per day

(Appendix C). Student eligibility for these programs is determined by language proficiency and priority is given to students in kindergarten through third grade. The state defines student eligibility based on the following categories:

(A) monolingual in a language other than English-(ELL/LEP students) Entering Level (ACCESS); (B) partial proficiency of English-(ELL/LEP students) Beginning, Developing, Expanding Level (ACCESS); (C) Fluent English Proficient students-“FEP”-are eligible to participate in 1 or 2 hour programs. FEP students can also participate in 3-hour Dual Language Programs. Bridging and Reaching Level (ACCESS); and (D) other students who may wish to participate (Meeting the following criteria: FEP status and/or Home Language Survey=English; Parent Approval, and if funds are available after first meeting the needs of ELLs). State Bilingual Multicultural Education Programs meet the New Mexico House Bill 212 requirement that students in Grades 1-8 must receive instruction in a language other than English (NMPED Bilingual and Multicultural Education Bureau, 2011, p.2).

***Transitional bilingual program.*** A transitional bilingual program is similar to an all English instructional program supplemented with alternative language services such as ESL and ELD. However, in this program model some instruction is provided in the native language, such as Spanish or French, in a bilingual classroom setting (Duran et al., 2010; Estrada, Gomez & Ruiz-Escalante, 2009; Honigsfeld, 2009).

The goal in this program is for the student to join an English-only setting as quickly as possible (Honigsfeld, 2009). As students receive instruction and support in both languages in major content areas for a portion of the program, their comprehension

and acquisition are typically better in the lower grades (Roberts, 1995). Peceny (2010) commented that co-teaching between the child's main teacher and the ESL teacher would be most beneficial to students when using this type of program. Any instruction that was originally being presented in a native language is gradually replaced by English-only instruction. The idea is to allow students to establish a solid understanding of key concepts in their home language before transitioning to English-only instruction (Gersten & Woodward, 1995). Once English becomes the sole language of instruction, however, students who may have entered the program late or who did not develop a strong foundation in English may find themselves in an all English instructional environment with little to no support and their academic performance may suffer.

Within the transitional bilingual model are two types of programs: early exit and late exit (Peceny, 2010). The goal of early-exit programs is to integrate ELLs into all English classrooms within a two year period. The late-exit program includes up to 40% of native language instruction through the sixth grade (Peceny, 2010).

***Maintenance bilingual program.*** In a maintenance bilingual program, both English and the native language are used as languages of instruction in a bilingual classroom setting with the goal of full proficiency in both languages (Christian, 1994; Honigsfeld, 2009; Medina & Escamilla, 1992). The overarching goal of a maintenance bilingual program is to promote bilingualism and biliteracy, and therefore is not assimilationist in nature (Roberts, 1995). Research indicates that when core content area instruction occurs in both English and the native language, students comprehend better and as a result, perform better (Christian, 1994; Gersten & Woodward, 1995; Perozzi & Sanchez, 1992; Ruiz, 1995; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006). Maintenance programs

can and should include a variety of students with varying language proficiency levels, including individuals who have lost their native language and speak only English (Collier & Thomas, 2004). This diversity allows for students to learn from one another and to teach one another. It also allows for a level of comfort and a sentiment of safety within the group.

One program type within a maintenance bilingual model is called a One-way Bilingual Program. This program utilizes either a 90/10 or 50/50 model (Christian, 1994; Estrada et al., 2009; Honigsfeld, 2009). In a 90/10 model, students in the primary grades initially receive 90 percent of their instruction in the native language. As they progress, for example into the fifth grade, this is reduced to approximately 50 percent of their instruction in the native language. In the 50/50 model, students are instructed in both their native language and English in equal amounts of time throughout the day. They can receive this instruction from one teacher who is bilingual or from two teachers who are co-teaching (Honigsfeld, 2009).

***Dual language immersion.*** Dual language immersion also utilizes both English and the native language as languages of instruction with the objective of proficiency in both languages (Honigsfeld, 2009). One variant of this model, called the Minority-Language Dominant Program, calls for instruction in the minority language to be provided up to 90 percent of the time (Honigsfeld, 2009; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006). In another variant called a Balanced Program, instruction is provided in both the native language and English for equal amounts of time. An attempt to separate the two languages by day, time, subject matter or teacher is considered best practice (Honigsfeld, 2009; Lopez & Tashakkori, 2006). Students must participate in a dual language

immersion bilingual model for a significant amount of time, six to eight years, in order for it to be effective (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Crawford, 1999). Instruction in both languages must have a focus on academic subjects and attempt to integrate language arts throughout the curriculum. There must be opportunities to practice both languages and teachers should be well trained in this model of instruction (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Crawford, 1999).

***Enrichment.*** Enrichment bilingual programs incorporate native English speakers in addition to ELLs with the intent that the students will serve as resources for each other (Roberts, 1995). As with all Native language instructional programs, there are ESL services and instruction presented in the students' primary language, but the overarching goal of enrichment bilingual programs is to have the students of both language backgrounds studying content classes in both languages (Roberts, 1995). These programs seek to cultivate biliterate and bilingual individuals, and as a result, are seen as additive in nature, and not just for one ethnic group but for majority and minority speakers (Roberts, 1995).

There are variants within this model. An example of one variant might be that morning classes are taught in one language and afternoon classes are taught in the other language, all the while altering this schedule periodically as students may be more alert in the morning (Roberts, 1995). A second example of this variable would be to teach one content class such as math in one language, and then teach the next math class in the other language. The difference between these two examples is that the language of instruction is either alternated by time or by subject matter (Roberts, 1995).

A second variant is referred to as *concurrent*. In this variant classes are taught simultaneously in both languages using team teaching: one teacher previews the lesson in his/her language, the other teaches the lesson in the other language, and the first reviews the lesson in the first language (Roberts, 1995). This approach does pose several challenges, however, including a great deal of repetition, possible wasted time, the domination of English instruction, and the possibility that if students know they will be instructed in both languages, they may simply not pay attention until the teacher begins using their preferred language (Roberts, 1995). Enrichment bilingual education programs are more complicated, difficult to set up and require a great deal of community support and involvement, but have been shown to be successful when implemented comprehensively (Roberts, 1995).

***Indigenous language revitalization.*** Indigenous language immersion programs provide all or most instruction in an endangered native language such as Navajo, Hawaiian, or Keres (McCarty, 2003). Native languages across the United States are in extreme decline and these programs seek to improve students' proficiency in both their native endangered language and English (McCarty, 2003). The programs emphasize the ultimate goal of promoting children's bilingual or multilingualism and enhancing Native students' academic achievement (McCarty, 2003; Reyhner, 2010). They also seek to conserve linguistic and cultural diversity among Indigenous groups in the United States (McCarty, 2003). As noted by Reyhner (2010), "a key feature of indigenous immersion programs is that they are voluntary, allowing parents who choose to enroll their children in them to exercise a basic human right upheld by the United Nations' initiatives and declarations on indigenous peoples" (p. 139).

**Research.** Despite the inclusion of some native language instruction, the ultimate goal of a transitional bilingual program model is still assimilationist in that students are ultimately taught only in English (Roberts, 1995). A substantial attempt to maintain or improve the native language is not made when utilizing this type of program (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Duran et al., 2010; Gersten & Woodward, 1995). Instruction to facilitate students' development of English such as ESL and ELD is provided, but this can be seen as *subtractive bilingualism* if provided in a segregated setting (Medina & Escamilla, 1992). Estrada et al. (2009) asserted that this program model has the potential to produce *bilingual illiterates*, or students who are not literate in either language. Medina and Escamilla (1992) found that while the majority of the participants in transitional bilingual programs did significantly increase their second language proficiency, the majority also showed evidence of a loss in their native language.

Lopez and Tashakkori (2006) also examined transitional bilingual programs and found that students in these programs actually took longer to exit ALS. While no overall significant differences between a transitional bilingual program and other types of bilingual programs were found in academic performance when assessed in English, results from this study indicated that children enrolled in this program model scored lower on Spanish assessments and had a less positive attitude regarding bilingualism (Lopez & Tashakkori, 2006). In similar studies conducted by Duran et al. (2010) and Gersten and Woodward (1995), the effects of transitional bilingual programs on native language maintenance were positive when compared to English-only instruction, but still not as effective as when other methods of bilingual instruction were utilized.

Research has indicated that Maintenance Bilingual Programs, including Dual Language Instruction, aid students in reaching the proficiency in both their native language and English in all subject areas (Christian, 1994; Gersten & Woodward, 1995; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006). These programs also help students to continue academic proficiency as they progress into middle and high school and reduce the rate of student dropouts (Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2006). Christian (1994) conducted an extensive study focusing on two-way Bilingual Maintenance Programs that included over 160 schools across the United States. Results of this study indicated that this type of program “promotes native and English language development and academic progress” (p. 71) and promises “to expand our nation’s resources by conserving the language skills minority students bring with them and by adding another language to their repertoire” (p. 71). In a similar study, Collier and Thomas (2004) discovered that when maintenance bilingual programs are continued for a sufficient amount of time: ELLs *are* instructed in a primary group setting and *not* segregated for additional support; curriculum is *not* simplified but rather presented *equally* in both languages and highly-trained; and dedicated teachers implement sound strategies and teaching techniques, students’ progress and excel academically as bilinguals. Collier and Thomas stated that:

Enrichment dual language schooling closes the academic achievement gap in L2 and in first language (L1) for students initially below grade level, for all categories of students participating in this program. This is the only program for English language learners that fully closes the gap; in contrast, remedial models only partially close the gap (p. 1).

This model of bilingual education has proven effective for many students when carried out in a comprehensive manner. Medina and Escamilla (1992) compared the Transitional Bilingual Model with the Maintenance Bilingual Model and found that the Maintenance Bilingual Model was much more successful in maintaining the students' native language. A study conducted by Lopez and Tashakkori (2006) resulted in a similar conclusion and added that children who participate in a Maintenance Bilingual Model have a more positive attitude toward the second language. Estrada et al. (2009) asserted that dual language instruction should be made *the norm* as it involves significant academic instruction in both languages and represents an additive approach to bilingual education. There is existing research and findings that support the Maintenance Bilingual Model as the most successful when attempting to teach an individual English and preserve their native language in the process. This model has also been shown successful in completing this process while maintaining academic gains.

Indigenous language immersion programs have the unique challenge of overcoming the history of previous attempts to eradicate Native languages and to assimilate Native Americans into the dominant North American culture (Reyhner, 2010). Some Indigenous people continue to harbor resentment and suspicion toward traditional public schooling systems and this presents some resistance to participation in indigenous language immersion programs (Reyhner, 2010). Platero (1975), wrote about *Kee*, a despondent Navajo child who was the product of a subtractive native language policy:

Kee was sent to boarding school as a child where, as was the practice, he was punished for speaking Navajo. Since he was only allowed to return home during Christmas and summer, he lost contact with his family. Kee withdrew from both

the White and Navajo worlds as he grew older because he could not comfortably communicate in either language. He became one of the many thousand Navajos who were non-lingual - a man without a language. (p. 58)

Despite resistance to participation in indigenous language immersion programs, some programs have been implemented and have proven successful. An Ojibwe language program was created by an Ojibwe band that saw the decline in the use of their language (Reyhner, 2010). They felt that the loss of their language also meant the loss of their traditions and an undoing of the extended family that is paramount in Ojibwe culture (Reyhner, 2010). An Ojibwe Commissioner of Education argued that:

By teaching the language we are building a foundation for a lifetime of productive citizenship . . . Ojibwe values are inextricably linked to the language. These values, such as caring for the environment, healing the body and mind together, and treating all creation with respect are taught most effectively when they are taught in Ojibwe (as quoted in Bowen, 2004, p. 4).

The Ojibwe Advisory Board asserted that writing Ojibwe was not as important as speaking it, so a comprehensive Ojibwe writing program was not implemented, but the Advisory Board did support the inclusion of two fluent Ojibwe speakers in each classroom and also incorporated Ojibwe music into classroom instruction (Reyhner, 2010).

Ka Papahana Kaiapuni, Hawai'i is a Hawaiian Language Immersion Program established by the Department of Education (Luning & Yamauchi, 2010). Schools are located on five of the eight major Hawaiian islands: Hawai'i Island, O'ahu, Kaua'i, Maui, and Moloka'i. The goals of this program include a revitalization of the Hawaiian

language by adopting it as the language of instruction and focusing on Hawaiian culture and indigenous studies (Luning & Yamauchi, 2010). Beginning in fifth grade, Kaiapuni schools offer English language instruction for one hour each day (Luning & Yamauchi, 2010). Data reported by the program indicate that students in Kaiapuni schools meet or exceed the standardized test scores of their Native Hawaiian peers in English-only schools, and Kaiapuni students have been more successful at passing the University of Hawai'i English composition test (Luning & Yamauchi, 2010).

The Navajo Nation has also introduced language immersion programs in pre-schools and elementary schools (McCarty, 2003). A public elementary school in Fort Defiance, Arizona near Window Rock was the site for one of these initial programs. The curriculum consisted of reading and writing first in Navajo, then English, and then presenting math instruction in both languages (McCarty, 2003). Other subjects were also incorporated as content for speaking or writing (McCarty, 2003). This program placed a heavy emphasis on co-operative learning, process writing and language and critical thinking. In the lower grades, all communication took place in Navajo, but by the second and third grades, instruction was provided half-day in Navajo and half-day in English (McCarty, 2003). In fourth grade, students received at least one hour a day of instruction in Navajo. Data reported by the program indicated that by fourth grade, "Navajo immersion students outperformed comparable non-immersion students on assessments of Navajo, but non-immersion students actually performed *lower* on these assessments than they had in kindergarten" (McCarty, 2003, p. 156). McCarty (2003) asserted that the "Fort Defiance data demonstrate the powerful negative effect of the *absence* of

bilingual/immersion schooling and, conversely, its positive effect on the maintenance of the heritage language as well as on students' acquisition of English" (p. 156).

### **Bilingual Special Education**

Bilingual special education, as defined by Baca et al. (2004), is "the use of the home language and the home culture along with English in an individually designed program of special instruction for the student in an inclusive environment" (p. 18). As evidenced in the reviews of legislation and litigation throughout this dissertation, all students, including those with disabilities, are entitled to a free and appropriate public education, and students who are identified as LEP are entitled to participate in programs designed to help them develop their English proficiency skills. It was recognized that traditional special education services were not necessarily serving ELLs well, and bilingual special education was developed as a result. Bilingual special education was intended to consider a child's culture and language as fundamental factors from which to design an individualized, appropriate plan for their education (Baca et al., 2004). As has been previously stated, attention to the educational and language needs of CLD students should be a primary focus when planning and making decisions regarding placement and services (Cummins, 1989). Notwithstanding these well documented educational requirements, the application of the principles of bilingual special education, which will be discussed in more detail later in this section but include native language content instruction and peer language models, often present significant challenges including lack of qualified personnel, an inadequate understanding with regard to the dual requirements of IDEA and NCLB, and limited assessment materials (Figueroa, 1999; Cummins, 1989; Ruiz et al., 2002).

Special education teachers are challenged to understand the connection between a student's exceptionalities and his or her cultural diversity in order to provide students with genuine opportunities to learn (Ehlers-Zavala, 2011). It is necessary to ensure that ELLs who have been identified with a disability are not disadvantaged because of their language or cultural backgrounds (Ehlers-Zavala, 2011). For bilingual special educators, however, many uncertainties may arise, such as: when is it appropriate to teach a child who has a disability in a primary or secondary language, and how is second language acquisition impacted when a child has a disability (Bird, Lamond & Holden, 2012; Ehlers-Zavala, 2011; Perozzi & Sanchez, 1992; Ruiz, 1995). In addition, researchers such as Figueroa (1999) have called attention to the lack of theoretical grounding that might guide bilingual special education practices and the need for acknowledgement of the literature that questions the foundations of special education as a whole. Figueroa (1999) asserted that bilingual special education, as it is currently being practiced, is not evidenced to help to advance bilingual students identified with a disability academically.

In an attempt to learn more about bilingual special education students' struggles in the area of language and literacy, Ruiz et al. (2002) investigated CLD students identified with a disability and their performance in literacy in a bilingual special education setting. When reviewing the available literacy research for Hispanic students in special education, they discovered two trends: (a) literacy instruction in a special education setting was often reductionist in nature, focusing on fragments of literacy development such as memorizing or 'learning' single letters or words, learning coping skills and practicing comprehension skills on specially constructed texts with little to no personal relation to the students themselves; and (b) when instructional techniques and

practices were *not* those of a reductionist model, Hispanic students showed noticeable improvement in their engagement during lessons and in their language and literacy performance in the classroom (Ruiz et al., 2002). These authors asserted that the following principles should serve as a guide when designing language and literacy instruction for bilingual students in special education: (a) connect students' background knowledge and personal experiences with literacy lessons, (b) foster the use of students' primary language in literacy lessons, (c) create opportunities for students to meaningfully and authentically apply their developing oral language and literacy skills, and (d) foster increased levels of interaction (oral language, reading, and writing) among students and teachers (Ruiz et al., 2002, p. 299). These researchers commented that the:

Success and failure of bilingual special education students in literacy lessons could only be explained within a framework that closely examined the social organization of teaching and learning and the interaction of linguistic, cultural, and historical factors within that organization (Ruiz et al., 2002, p. 300).

Within the field of bilingual special education, there is also significant discussion related to the disproportionate representation of CLD students in special education (e.g. Artiles et al., 2005; Donovan & Cross, 2002; Harry & Klingner, 2007) as a result of teacher bias (Hosp & Reschly, 2003; Shinn, Tindal & Spira, 1987), restrictive placement (Hendrickson, Smith & Frank, 1998) or inappropriate assessment procedures (Obringer, 1998; Warner et al., 2002). As a result of these multiple challenges, and an insufficient number of well-prepared bilingual special educators (Figueroa, 1999), bilingual special education has been developed as an attempt to address the multiple obstacles facing bilingual exceptional children.

**Disproportionate Representation**

Compounding the challenges faced by ELLs identified with a disability is misdiagnosis and disproportionate representation in special education. Disproportionate representation is defined as “the extent to which membership in a given group affects the probability of being placed in a specific special education disability category” (Oswald et al., 1999, p. 198) and has been a concern for over four decades (Donovan & Cross, 2002; Morgan, Farkas, Hillemeier & Maczuga, 2012). Disproportionate representation includes both overrepresentation in certain eligibility categories and under representation in certain programs such as those for students who are eligible as gifted and talented (Artiles et al., 2005). Donovan and Cross (2002) reported that African American children are 2.88 times more likely to be labeled Intellectually Disabled (ID) and 1.92 times more likely to be labeled Emotionally Disturbed than Caucasian children, and Native American children are twice as likely to be labeled ED or Specific Learning Disabled (SLD). Brown (2004) reported that CLD students are overrepresented in special education with an increase of 10.9% despite their population increase of 2.5%.

Students identified with language exceptionalities are often misrepresented in special education classrooms (Harry & Klingner, 2007). Many times, these classrooms operate from a deficit model or the belief that students are doing poorly because of something that is innately wrong with them, not from the assumption that the school or its practices might contribute to the problem (Harry & Klingner, 2007). Additionally, teachers’ philosophies and belief systems generally dictate the style and methods of instruction presented (Ruiz et al., 1995). Preconceptions of teachers and school instructional models are often the source of inappropriate impressions. The literature

demonstrates that there is a correlation between school and teacher attitudes and beliefs regarding special education and ELLs and that students in these classrooms are often taught from a deficit model perspective.

A common cause for the overrepresentation or underrepresentation of CLD and minority students has yet to be identified, and different researchers have various theories as to contributing factors. Donovan and Cross (2002) reported three questions that came out of an examination by the National Research Council (NRC) report related to disproportionate representation. The first asked if there are “biological and social/contextual contributors to early development that differ by race and that leave students differentially prepared to meet the cognitive and behavioral demands of schooling” (p. 357). The second asked if “the school experience itself contributes to racial disproportion in academic outcomes and behavioral problems that lead to placement in special and gifted education” (p. 358), and the third asked “whether existing referral and assessment practices are racially biased and . . . are likely to successfully identify those at either end of the achievement distribution who need specialized supports or services” (Donovan & Cross, 2002, p. 358). I will discuss these and other viewpoints in the following sections.

**Deficit Model.** Harry and Klingner (2007) investigated how academically struggling students can get the support and help they need without being labeled with a disability. Minority populations are often misrepresented in special education, especially in the eligibilities of Intellectual Disabled (ID), Learning Disabled (LD), and Emotional Behavioral Disorders (EBD) (Harry & Klingner, 2002). The authors explored how teachers can help remedy these issues by looking through both a disability and a socio-

cultural deficit lens to understand why so many students of minority populations are placed in special education (Harry & Klingner, 2002).

Harry and Klingner (2007) were also hopeful that the Response to Intervention (RTI) component of IDEIA 2004 would alleviate some of the misrepresentation. RTI made it possible to use up to 15% of a school's special education funds to support these students without adding an eligibility label (Harry & Klingner, 2007). As explained by Harry and Klingner, the current discrepancy model, which entails a gap between expected and actual performance levels, increases the identification of students who have not been adequately taught and exposed to a high-quality education. RTI mandates that schools must have a tiered approach to intervene early to help students who are not progressing in school (Harry & Klingner, 2007). The authors expected that this process would reduce many subjective referrals to special education and provide assistance without labeling, however, its true effectiveness is yet to be determined.

**Teachers' perceptions.** Looking through the lenses of disability and socio-cultural deficits, many educators fault a child's culture or disability for poor school performance (Harry & Klingner, 2007). Through this lens, though difficult, it is necessary for teachers to recognize personal biases toward students and as a result, they can then validate other forms of knowledge and cultural values (Harry & Klingner, 2007).

Bos and Reyes (1996) provided a reflection of the thoughts and beliefs of the second author, who was born to Puerto Rican parents in New York City and was a monolingual Spanish speaker until the age of five and a half. She then moved to Staten Island to live with her aunt and uncle who were bilingual Spanish and English speakers (Bos & Reyes, 1996). Reyes was placed in a monolingual English speaking school and

soon considered developmentally slow because of her language difficulties. Her aunt advocated for her, however, and helped her through the rest of her schooling. All of these early life experiences shaped who she became as a teacher.

Reyes worked on her undergraduate degree in Puerto Rico where she also gained experience teaching students with disabilities during her time as an educator there (Bos & Reyes, 1996). She later received her Master's degree in Special Education. Reyes was able to relate her own experiences to those of her students and in turn taught in a manner that best facilitated their needs as English language learners and students with disabilities. As a result of these personal experiences, Reyes discovered that many times, teachers stereotype students with these exceptionalities. "The teachers had low expectations for me and didn't take time to explain concepts and processes that were difficult for me to comprehend as a second language learner" (Bos & Reyes, 1996, p.344). When she taught students from monolingual Spanish families who were also labeled with a disability, she ensured that she used different, more appropriate techniques.

Bos and Reyes (1996) identified four strategies for using an interactive approach to teaching, with direct instruction used minimally. The strategies were to: (a) provide opportunities for students to play with and discover language shaped by a natural approach to second language acquisition; (b) incorporate students' sociocultural experiences and background information into instruction; (c) allow opportunities for students to practice English with peers of varying skill levels; and (d) use direct instruction and practice activities to teach and generalize specific skills (Bos & Reyes, 1996). Bos and Reyes also wrote of the importance of involving families in the educational process of their children in a more complete, relaxed manner. Reyes

encouraged home visits for minority children identified with disabilities because it puts families at ease, helps them to open up about their child, and facilitates a deeper understanding of the nature and procedures of special education. Bos and Reyes argued that “the home environment is not usually as laden with failure. I oftentimes observe the child being successful in the home” (p. 349). These authors felt that by using these strategies, students’ various forms of knowledge and cultural values would be recognized and in turn utilized to provide them with an improved educational experience.

**Teacher perceptions and a deficit model.** As stated earlier, CLD students are often misrepresented in special education classrooms and these classrooms tend to operate from a deficit model (Harry & Klingner, 2007). Furthermore, teachers’ personal viewpoints and principles guide their approach to instruction (Ruiz et al., 1995). Some researchers (e.g. Ruiz et al., 1995) assert that there is a correlation between students in some classrooms being taught from a deficit model perspective and teachers’ mind-set regarding special education and ELLs.

Ruiz et al. (1995) reported results from a three-year study that measured teacher paradigms and associated teaching methods. Baseline data were compared to data taken following workshops and collaboration opportunities focused on teaching bilingual Special Educators instructional strategies based on holistic/ constructivist paradigms (Ruiz et al., 1995). Ruiz and her colleagues found that teachers of bilingual special education students tended to be highly reductionist, or focused on remediating the disability and changing what is “wrong” with the student. The teachers felt that students had deficits and performed poorly due to their classified physical and mental limitations. The researchers found that teachers overwhelmingly believed that learning disabilities are

“within child deficits” (Ruiz et al., 1995) and that teachers must work around the deficit or work to fix it. Additionally, they found that teachers’ classroom practices were primarily behaviorist in nature. Results from the study also indicated a correlation between special education training (university coursework) and both classroom practices and personal paradigms; that is, the more special education training a teacher had, the more reductionist their views tended to be (Ruiz et al., 1995).

Following two-plus years of attending workshops, follow-up interviews indicated that teachers’ paradigms shifted toward more holistic/ constructivist views after successfully implementing new strategies in their classrooms (Ruiz et al., 1995). The researchers noted several themes that emerged in changing teachers’ beliefs and classroom practices. One theme was the response teachers had to presenters that taught in similar “occupational groups” (p. 632), such as teachers in bilingual special education, with similar student populations (Ruiz et al., 1995). Another theme was that paradigms changed after classroom interventions were successful. These results contrast the approach of many teacher training programs as well as professional development, and thus could be tremendously useful in the future planning of professional development.

**Challenges faced by ELLs and their teachers. *Teacher bias.*** The root cause of the origin of special education referrals continues to be questioned. Hosp and Reschly (2003) stressed teachers’ culturally defined perceptions of deviant behavior. They reviewed data from studies conducted in Ohio, Arizona, Minnesota, Wyoming, New York, Maryland, and North Carolina in a pursuit to examine reasons behind initial referrals and found that the rate of referral was greater for both African Americans and Hispanics as compared to Caucasians. Similarly, Shinn et al. (1987) argued that teacher

intolerance and unawareness of cultural differences was a factor. They examined 570 students from a large Midwestern city in grades 2 through 6 and concluded that teachers were not referring students for academic deficits alone, but rather were referring “those students who were outside the range of [their] tolerance” (Shinn et al., 1987, p. 33). They examined referrals made in relation to reading accuracy and ethnic background and found a high correlation of minority students with similar assessment data as non-minority peers but with higher referral rates for special education placement. They concluded that the referral process was actually a manifestation of the level of tolerance a teacher had for specific behaviors or characteristics of students and an attempt to limit the variability of students in their classrooms.

In a study conducted by Gravois and Rosenfield (2006) in five districts in a mid-Atlantic state, they acknowledged the bias that existed in special education placement of minority children and sought to reduce it by initiating a program of Instructional Council Teams (ICT) in thirteen schools. These teams comprised administrators, support personnel, and general and special education teachers. Gravois and Rosenfield identified “the impact of cultural differences on teacher perceptions and practices related to minority students” (p. 44) as a major influence on student referrals. After two years of ICT in schools, they concluded that the risk of minority students being referred or placed in special education classrooms was significantly less than comparison in schools. Having a team of professionals with varying views and perceptions, rather than just one individual with limited opinions, greatly reduced bias in referrals.

Hosterman and DuPaul (2008) examined referrals for 172 students from eastern Pennsylvania in grades one through four and found that minority referrals were found to

be high, but for a different reason. Hosterman and DuPaul argued that teachers were in fact not over referring minority students, but rather under referring Caucasian students. Their results suggested that behavioral observations of minority students were more accurate and true and that “uneven distributions of referral across ethnicities may be influenced by the tendency of Caucasian teachers to less aptly identify problem behavior in students of their own culture” (Hosterman & DuPaul, 2008, p. 432). This study confirms the overrepresentation of minority students in the referral and placement process, but provides a different perspective on the problem.

***Assessment and restrictive placement.*** Assessment bias in special education placement is a major concern to many researchers, parents, teachers and children alike. A study focusing on 117 18 to 25 year olds with a diagnosed Specific Learning Disability (SLD) conducted by Warner, Dede, Garvan, and Conway (2002) found significant discrepancies favoring Caucasian students when assessed using the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised (WAIS-R) full scale. “IQ scores for the African American students were on average almost 1 *SD* [Standard Deviation] lower than those of the European American students” (Warner et al., 2002, p. 503). Similarly, Obringer (1998), who conducted his research in Mississippi with 123 students in 1<sup>st</sup> through 8<sup>th</sup> grade, felt that assessment practices were unfair and inequitable when tests for SLD. He suggested using only the full scale IQ score as a determining factor, raising the minimum IQ score to 85 and increasing the discrepancy between IQ and achievement to 1½ standard deviations. After reanalyzing the data using these modifications a significant decrease in minority students who qualified for special education services in the area of SLD transpired. According to Obringer, this was evidence of assessment bias.

When students receive labels associated with severe behavioral disorders they are almost always placed in more restrictive environments (Hendrickson, Smith & Frank, 1998), as are minority students (de Valenzuela et al., 2006; Skiba et al., 2006). This was the conclusion of an investigation done by Hendrickson et al. (1998) looking at 48 kindergarten through twelfth grade students living in Iowa. They state that two of the most restrictive environments students can be placed in are segregated schools and self-contained classrooms within regular schools. Most students with a Behavior Disorder (BD) are in one of these two settings. Minority males make up the majority of the population of students identified with a BD because of the overt behaviors they exhibit (Hendrickson et al., 1998). Females tend to exhibit more covert behaviors such as anxiety and depression, and are not as likely to be referred or placed in special education. A study of junior high students from a large Western metropolitan area was conducted by Scruggs and Mastropieri (1985) that looked into the placement of Native American students classified with ED. Native American students were interviewed to determine their self-perception and attitude toward themselves when placed in these highly restrictive environments. All of their classroom teachers were Caucasian and all of their classroom aides were Native American. Students reported getting along better with the aides because they understood them better. These studies raise the issue of cultural understanding and awareness both in the assessment process and in the placement decisions made by multidisciplinary teams. Cultural bias is evidenced to be a part of these practices and may be a leading cause of minority overrepresentation in special education.

***School preparedness.*** Researchers such as Hibel et al. (2008) and de Valenzuela et al. (2006) have asserted that some minority children face factors related school preparedness and inopportunity to access adequate supplementary services which may later contribute to their referral and placement in special education. Hibel et al. (2008), who examined a nationally representative sample of kindergarteners progressing to third grade, stated that “the strongest predictor of special education placement is a student’s academic readiness on entering kindergarten” (p. 498). They also questioned the quality of the special education services students receive, stating that once in special education students notably fall farther and farther behind their mainstreamed peers. Hibel et al. (2008) emphasized poverty as a contributing factor in deficient school readiness and spoke to an inopportunity to learn, to experience valuable and meaningful life experiences, and diminished parental support as results of growing up in poverty. These researchers stress pre-school readiness and satisfactory access to supplementary services as a major contributing factor to special education referral and placement as minority students’ progress through school.

***Language.*** Immigration and migration of students from other countries and from different regions plays a big part in their success in school (Gabel, Curcic, Powell, Khader & Albee, 2009). Gabel et al. (2009) looked at the over or under representation of particular ethnic groups related to students in kindergarten through twelfth grade in British Columbia, New Zealand, Germany, and the USA. They concluded that disproportionality in special education is linked to factors such as socio-economic status, social inclusion, and language. Gabel et al. argued that while globalization and movement is progressive and can be positive, it also has the ability to lead to displacement and

marginalization for some students. Students who are new to an area or school often bring with them different cultures, traditions, and often times language (Gabel et al., 2009). Gabel et al. suggested that policy and eligibility requirements that vary from location to location often negatively affect migrant children who are in the language minority. They also proposed that another variable to a high mobility rate is a tendency for these students to find themselves in an impoverished situation. This in turn can lead to a lack of equal opportunity in education and a higher rate of special education referral (Gabel et al., 2009).

It is important to recognize that not all language minority students are immigrants. Many Native American students belong to tribes that still maintain their native language. For example, Heimbecker et al. (2001) investigated families living on a Navajo reservation with children receiving special education services. In interviews it was discovered that respondents believed that home language did impact special education referral and placement and that “non-Navajo teachers who are not familiar with the Navajo way of life refer more dominant Navajo speaking students to the special education program because these students require more response time and tend to struggle more with the English language” (Heimbecker et al., 2001, p. 5). Samson and Lesaux (2009) examined a nationally representative sample of 10,987 children tracked from kindergarten through third grade. The wide variety of terms used for language minority learners including: ELL, ESL, LEP, and bilingual, was examined. Samson and Lesaux discovered that as varying as the terms utilized, so were the definitions of these terms, and this in turn led to confusion and possible misdiagnosis of a disability. They found that language minority learners were not necessarily overrepresented in all

disability categories, but rather more specifically in categories such as Speech and Language Impairment and Specific Learning Disabled. LM students were also not overrepresented in earlier grades such as kindergarten and first grade, but by third grade begin to be placed in more restrictive environments (Samson & Lesaux, 2009).

According to Samson and Lesaux, “this indicates a slower initial rate of identification for LM learners compared with L-1 (native English) speaking students in special education in kindergarten” (p. 156). This is another troubling issue, as it sheds light on another possible hindering factor for language minority students.

### **Future of the Current Study**

As is evident in Chapters One and Two, substantial research has been conducted related to bilingual special education and English language acquisition services and program models, (e.g. Collier & Thomas, 2004; Duran et al., 2010; Lopez & Tashakkori, 2006; Medina & Escamilla, 1992; Moore & Parr, 1978; Ruiz et al., 1995; Samson & Lesaux, 2009). In addition, the professional literature also addresses PL 94-142 and its impact on the education of children identified with a disability, disproportionate representation, and challenges faced by ELLs and their teachers (e.g. Artiles et al., 2005; Donovan & Cross, 2002; Figueroa et al., 1989; Gravois & Rosenfield, 2006; Hosp & Reschly, 2003; Skiba et al., 2008). There is still a gap, however, in the research regarding the manner in which appropriate and adequate ALS for ELLs who have been identified with a disability are being provided. Through this study I intended to add to the research by documenting what ALS was provided to ELLs who were identified with a disability in a large southwestern school district with a high minority population. It is my hope that this information will provide insight to parents, students, teachers, administrators, and

other individuals who are providing special education and ALS to ELLs and allow them the opportunity to better evaluate the manner in which these services are being provided for this specific population.

## Chapter 3

### Methods

My research questions were: (a) how did the rate of identification of PHLOTE students with disabilities as ELLs compare to their PHLOTE-status peers without disabilities; (b) what ALS did students who were identified both as ELLs and with a disability receive as compared to ELL peers who were not receiving special education services; and (c) were any observed differences in the rate of ELL identification and provision of ALS related to recorded student characteristics such as ethnicity/home language, language proficiency level(s), eligibility label, grade level, and setting? In order to explore these questions, I utilized a quantitative, causal-comparative research design (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). The groups utilized in this causal-comparative research and other similar studies (e.g. Grooms & Leahy, 2002; Loo, 2001) are pre-existing or consequential, however, and the variables that are examined cannot be experimentally manipulated. This means that I did not have control over the independent variables, and as such, sought to make causal connections rather than infer direct causality. Direct causal-comparative research seeks to identify a causative relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). As Schenker and Rumrill (2004) assert, however, “it is not possible (or even desirable) to manipulate the independent variable . . . between intact groups that are formed on the basis of such characteristics as gender, disability type, or educational attainment” (p. 117) when examining possible casual connections. Instead, they stressed the importance of examining the *extent of variance* between or among these groups, so as not to attempt to directly infer causality when working with intact groups (Schenker & Rumrill, 2004). For

this study, the variables considered dependent and independent varied based on the specific analysis frame as it was not clear if ELL or disability status was dependent or independent. This relationship is typically assumed in one particular direction, but as the results of this study revealed, it could be considered in the other as well.

### **School District Demographics**

The district from where the data was collected is located in the southwest region of the United States. It is one of the fastest growing cities in its state, increasing in population by 72.5% from 51,765 according to 2000 Census data, to 89,320 in 2011 (US Census Bureau, 2012). In 2012, 20.4% of the population reported speaking a language other than English in the home, which is comparable to the national percentage of 19.7 (US Census Bureau, 2012). The school district served 17,103 students in December 2012 and consists of a total of 19 schools: two high schools, two alternative high schools, four middle schools, 10 elementary schools, and one preschool (retrieved from district website, February, 2013).

In February 2013, the district website included the following data: race/ethnicity – 48.63% Hispanic, 39.75% Caucasian, 3.74% Indian/Native American, 3.08% African American, 2.75% Multi-racial, 1.97% Asian, and 0.09% Other. Additionally, 2,905 students, or 17% of the total student population, were identified with a disability (excluding gifted), and 7,653 students, or 46% of the total student population, qualified for free/reduced lunch.

### **Data Collection and Recording**

The student database utilized by the district is *PowerSchool*. PowerSchool is a web-based student information system owned by Pearson's Assessment and Information

group, and is described as “the fastest-growing, most widely used web-based student information system, supporting 10 million students in all 50 states and over 65 countries” on the Pearson website (<http://www.pearsonschools.com/products/powerschool/>). Pearson reports that PowerSchool has a feature called ReportWorks which can create either simplistic or more complex reports with What You See Is What You Get (WYSIWYG) tools, and complex database queries are visually represented making ad-hoc queries much more accessible. ReportWorks generates a Service Set Identifiers (SSID) report complete with information such as student demographics, ELL status and special education status. As such, the district does not have dedicated staff familiar or experienced with complex or customized data pulls.

De-identified data was provided by the district after the 40 day count of the 2013-2014 school year. The following variables were requested from the district for all students in grades K-12:

- Grade;
- Gender;
- Race/Ethnicity - African American, Asian, Caucasian, Hispanic, Indian/Native American, Pacific Islander, or Other;
- Free-reduced lunch status;
- Home language survey data, including the following questions: What language did your child first learn to speak; which language does your child use most often at home; which language(s) do others regularly use when speaking with your child; was your child born in any of the 50 States in the United States, including the District of Columbia and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico; if your answer to

question four is “yes,” in which state was your child born; when did or will your child first enter a public or private school in the United States, including the District of Columbia and the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico;

- English language assessment results-ACCESS;
- Spanish language assessment results-LAS;
- PHLOTE status;
- ELL status;
- ALS program - transitional, maintenance, dual language, enrichment, or indigenous/heritage language revitalization;
- Special education status - identified with a disability or not;
- Primary disability eligibility categories as identified by this school district– Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), Deaf-Blindness (DB), Developmental Delay (DD), Emotional Disturbance (ED), Gifted and Talented (GT), Hearing Impairment (HI), Intellectual Disability (ID), Multiple Disabilities (MD), Orthopedic Impairment (OI), Other Health Impairment (OHI), Specific Learning Disability (SLD), Speech-Language Impairment (SLI), Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) or Visual Impairment (VI);
- Additional disability eligibility categories as identified by this district (same as above).

I stored the database on my home computer hard drive. The data was encrypted using TrueCrypt 7.1a with the encryption protocol AES-256. The hard drive was systematically backed up on an *nCrypted Cloud SkyDrive* account. My home computer and SkyDrive account are password protected. All data analysis was conducted in my

home office on my personal desktop computer. Data will be kept until my dissertation has been successfully defended and any additional required data analysis has been completed and published. The data will then be wiped from the hard drive and cloud server using Eraser, protocol Gutmann, 35 passes.

### **Data Processing**

Once I received the data I completed a ‘clean and screen’ process and identified any possible errors in the data such as inaccurate data (e.g. if all second grade students were listed as male), missing data (e.g. if student records had no grade level), incomplete data (e.g. if students were identified as having a disability but no eligibility category was entered), inconsistent data (e.g. if gender was listed as “M” and “F” in some records, but as “male” and “female” in others), and outliers (e.g. if a student with three or more disability eligibility categories). If a specific student record was missing more than three variables entirely, the item was excluded in the data analyzed. I recoded the variables included in the data set to allow for software analysis. For example, when coding ethnicity, I assigned each ethnicity reported by the school district a specific numerical code: African American=1, Asian=2, Caucasian=3, Hispanic=4, Indian/Native American=5, Pacific Islander=6, and Other=7. I coded all other variables in the same manner. I kept an electronic log of all coding decisions made throughout the analysis process.

### **Data Analysis**

I used the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) software for data analysis. SAS, as explained on the company’s website, can manipulate, manage, store, analyze, visualize and report on almost any data. Utilizing SAS, I ran queries related to the rate of

identification of PHLOTE students with disabilities as ELLs compared to their PHLOTE-status peers without disabilities. I also explored what ALS students who had been identified both as ELLs and with a disability received compared to ELL peers who were not receiving special education services; and analyzed any differences in the ALS provided to ELLs identified with a disability based on recorded student characteristics such as ethnicity/home language, language proficiency level(s), eligibility label, grade level, and setting.

When analyzing this data set, I utilized Pearson's chi-square test of independence ( $\chi^2$ ) and Fisher's exact test with a significance level (p-value of  $\leq 0.01$ ) to test null hypothesis (Plackett, 1983). The chi-square test of independence is used within a large data set when you have two nominal or categorical variables, variables that have no numerical value but rather are used to classify observations, each with two or more possible values (McDonald, 2009). Chi-square is one method that allowed me to determine whether the variation in the data was due to one of the variables tested or whether it was possibly due to chance (Plackett, 1983). I utilized Fisher's exact test when looking at nominal variables from a smaller sample size (McDonald, 2009). For example, I used Fisher's when doing more in-depth analysis of specific variables such as primary eligibility labels and type of ALS. Fisher's exact test is more accurate than the chi-square test of independence when the variable numbers are smaller because the significance of the deviation from a null hypothesis can be calculated exactly, rather than relying on an approximation as a result of a larger sample size (McDonald, 2009).

As I discussed earlier, disproportionate representation is something that must be considered when examining data related to the identification of a disability. There are a

number of different methods used in the professional literature to determine when disproportionate representation occurs including, the *composition index* and the *risk index*. I calculated the composition index by "dividing the number of students of a given racial or ethnic group enrolled in a particular disability category by the total number of students [from all ethnic groups] enrolled in that same disability category" (Donovan & Cross, 2002, p. 43). This allowed me to compare the percentage of students from a certain minority group within a particular special education category to the percentage of students from the same minority group within the general student population (de Valenzuela et. al, 2006). For this study, instead of comparing just minority groups, I compared students identified as PHLOTE, ELL, and students receiving ALS. I used the risk index, or the percentage of a group in a category or placement, by dividing the number of students of a certain group, for example Hispanic students, and in a certain category or placement, such as SLD, by the total number of students in that group (Hosp & Reschly, 2003).

To reiterate from Chapter One, I compared the rates of students who were identified as having a primary home language other than English (PHLOTE) based on administration of a home language survey, with and without identified disabilities, with students who were identified as English Language learners (ELLs), based upon subsequent administration of a standardized language proficiency assessment. Not all PHLOTE students are administered such an assessment and not all student who are administered such an assessment score within the range to be identified as an ELL.

## Chapter 4

### Results

The purpose of this study was to investigate how the identification of and provision of ALS to ELLs identified with a disability compares to that of their ELL peers without an identified disability. In addition, I conducted a review of the types of ALS provided to these students. I sought to address three primary research questions: (a) how did the rate of identification of PHLOTE students with disabilities as ELLs compare to their PHLOTE-status peers without disabilities; (b) what ALS did students who were identified both as ELLs and with a disability receive as compared to ELL peers who were not receiving special education services; and (c) were any observed differences in the rate of ELL identification and provision of ALS related to recorded student characteristics such as ethnicity/home language, language proficiency level(s), eligibility label, grade level, and setting?

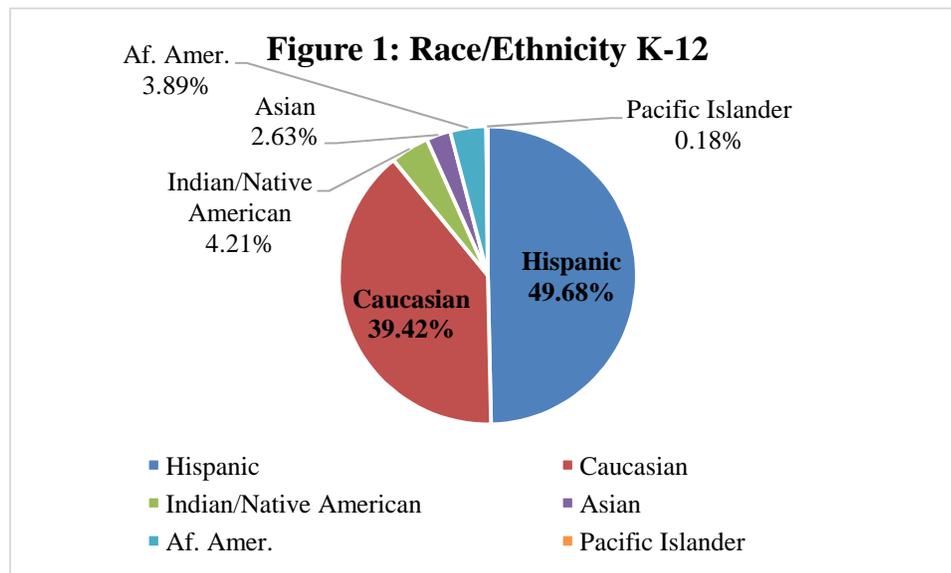
When I initially requested the data from the school district, I provided a list of all variables necessary for my analysis. I received the first data set from the district on October 9, 2013. However, after an initial review of this data, it was apparent that the data set did not include language proficiency test scores (e.g. ACCESS and LAS), bilingual model information, or special education setting information. As a result, I requested a second data pull after the 40 day count of the 2013-2014 school year, which I received on November 22, 2013. The second data set included bilingual model information, but still did not include language proficiency test scores or special education setting information. The data set also did not include the reason(s) why some PHLOTE students were not administered a language proficiency assessment. I generated all

analyses below from the second data pull. I organized the results of these analyses by: (a) demographics of the school district, including general characteristics of the student population and home language, alternative language services, and special education; (b) comparisons of specific student populations represented within different groups, such as PHLOTE, ELL, disability, and ALS provision; and (c) additional analyses related to the rate of ELL identification and provision of ALS related to recorded student characteristics such as ethnicity/home language, language proficiency level(s), eligibility label, grade level, and setting.

### **School District Demographics**

The de-identified data provided by the school district consisted of 17,283 general and special education student records. Of these, I excluded the 551 four and five year olds in Pre-Kindergarten, as this study investigated school aged children in Kindergarten through 12<sup>th</sup> grades. Of the remaining 16,732 K-12 student records, 1,273 students were in kindergarten, 1,199 in first grade, 1,288 in second grade, 1,291 in third grade, 1,290 in fourth grade, 1,318 in fifth grade, 1,300 in sixth grade, 1,322 in seventh grade, 1,340 in eighth grade, 1,333 in ninth grade, 1,301 in tenth grade, 1,319 in eleventh grade and 1,158 in twelfth grade. Of the total K-12 student population, 51.85% (N=8,676) were male and 48.15% (N=8,056) were female. Overall, 45.5% (N=7,613) of the students were reported to receive free or reduced lunch services, however this percentage dropped precipitously from primary through secondary grades. Therefore, as free and reduced lunch was not consistent across grade levels, I did not use this as a proxy for low socio-economic status.

When reporting race and ethnicity data, the school district considered ‘Hispanic’ as an ethnicity separate from race (African American, Asian, Caucasian, Indian/Native American, and Pacific Islander) reported for each student. As a result, some of the students identified as African American, Asian, Caucasian, Indian/Native American, or Pacific Islander, may *also* have been identified as Hispanic. In addition, some students who were identified as Hispanic did not report a race category. The matter of race and ethnicity, especially among Hispanic and Latino groups, has been a major topic of debate for some time (Rodriguez, 2000). The current study is not focused on this, however, and as a result I will not go into further detail regarding the assertions related to race and ethnicity reporting by those of Hispanic and/or Latino origin. For the purpose of my study, I analyzed the race and ethnicity data as reported in Figure 1. Figure 1 illustrates the percentage of K-12 students in the various race and ethnicity categories reported in the district:



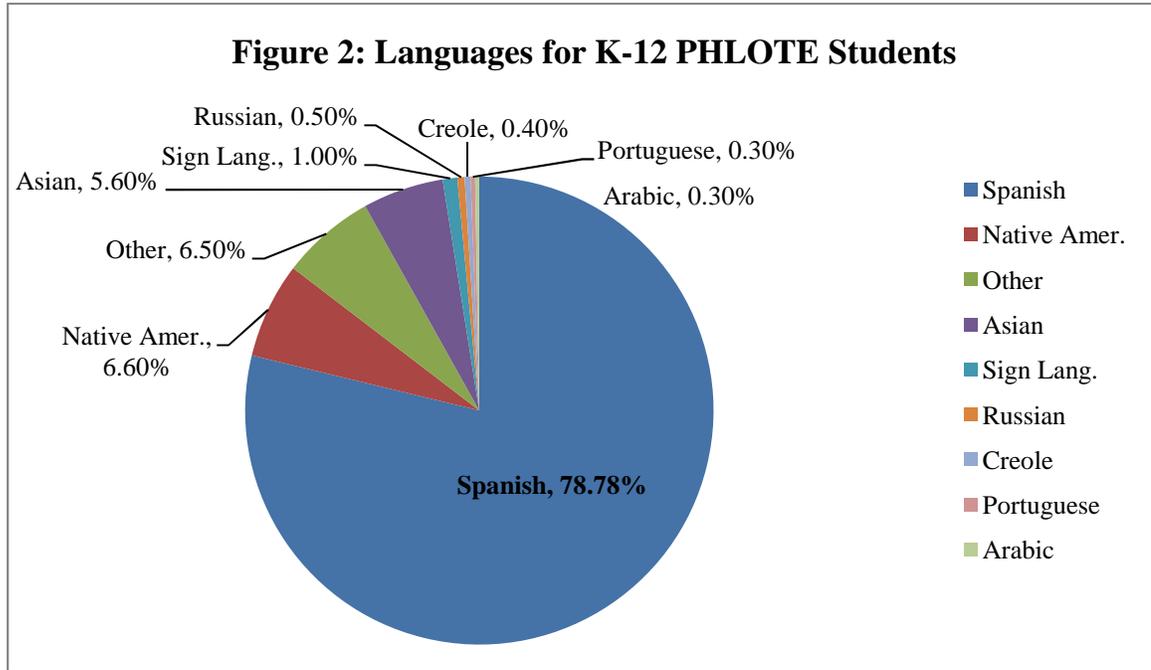
As is evident in the figure, nearly half of the population was Hispanic 49.68% (N=8,312), followed by a large Caucasian population of 39.42% (N=6,596). All other categories fell under 5%.

**Language.** Data received from the district identified 20 different home languages. This includes a category of “other” that was not further explained by the district. English was the overwhelmingly most common home language, at 85.77% (N=14,351), with Spanish the next most common at 11.22% (N=1,878). Table 1 includes the number and percentage of all home languages reported:

<b>Table 1 Home Languages Reported K-12</b>		
Home Languages	N	%
English	14,351	85.77%
Spanish	1,878	11.22%
Other	156	0.93%
Navajo	85	0.51%
Vietnamese	76	0.45%
Keres (Acoma, Cochiti, Laguna, San Felipe, Santa Ana, Santo Domingo, Zia Pueblos)	40	0.24%
Towa (Jemez Pueblo)	28	0.17%
Tagalog (Philippines)	27	0.16%
American Sign Language	21	0.13%
Russian	12	0.07%
Creole (Canadian or Louisiana French)	10	0.06%
Cantonese	8	0.05%
Laotian	8	0.05%
Korean	7	0.04%
Portuguese	7	0.04%
Japanese	7	0.04%
Arabic	6	0.04%
Zuni	3	0.02%
English Based Sign System	1	0.01%
Tewa (Nambe, Pojoaque, San Ildefonso, San Juan, Santa Clara, Tesuque Pueblos)	1	0.01%

Of the 16,732 K-12 student records, 14.25% (N=2,384) were reported as having a PHLOTE, with Spanish as the overwhelmingly most common home language for these students; 78.78% (N=1,878) of students with a PHLOTE were reported to speak Spanish. Nearly 6% of PHLOTE students were reported to have an Asian, Native American or

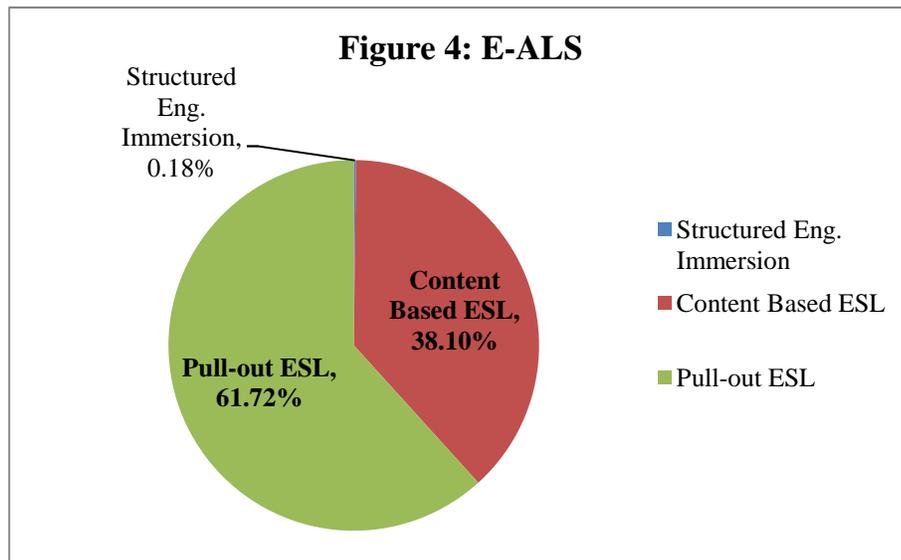
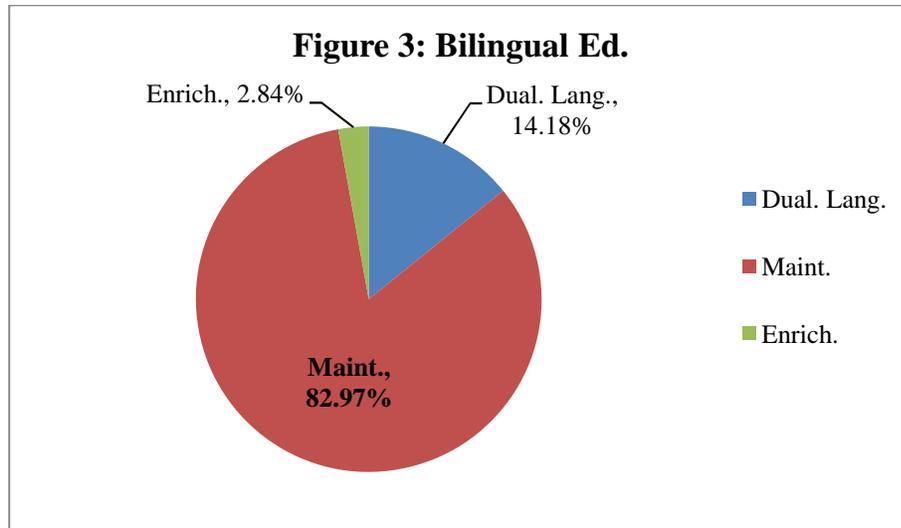
‘other’ language spoken in the home, and the percentage of all additional languages spoken in the home fell at or below 1%. Figure 2 illustrates the percentage of languages spoken in the home for PHLOTE students:



Though the data set did not include specific language assessment scores for each student record, the resulting classification of whether or not each student was classified as ELL was reported (ELL=Y, ELL=N), with 3.48% (N=582) of all students identified as ELLs. This corresponds to 24.41% of PHLOTE students identified as ELLs. Upon closer examination of the data however, 57 of the 582 ELLs were not reported to have a PHLOTE. It is not clear how these students were identified as ELLs or if they were administered language proficiency assessments to determine their ELL status, but they were clearly indicated to be ELLs with a primary home language of English in the data set.

**ALS in the general student population.** The data set included the information for both English models and bilingual models (e.g. Dual Language, Maintenance, Enrichment) of Alternative Language Services (ALS). While the district database listed five possible English ALS (E-ALS) models: Structured English Immersion, Content Based ESL, Pull-out ESL, Specially Designed Academic Instruction Delivered in English (SDAIE), and Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol, no ELLs were identified as participating in the SDAIE or Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol programs. Of the 582 identified ELLs, all but 36 (N=546, or 93.81%) were participants in an ALS program. The data provided by the district did not include information as to the reason for the non-participation of those students. Table 2 provides the number of students participating in each of the ALS models and Figures 3 and 4 provide the percentages of students in these models:

E-ALS	Bilingual			Not in a bilingual model	Total
	Dual Language	Maintenance	Enrichment		
Structured Eng. Immersion	1	0	0	0	1
Content Based ESL	18	76	1	113	208
Pull-out ESL	1	41	3	292	337
Not participating in E-ALS	0	0	0	36	36
<b>Total</b>	20	117	4	441	582



As the data in the table and figures illustrate, of the total population of ELLs who received ALS (N=546), all participated in an E-ALS model and 25.82% (N=141) additionally participated in a bilingual model. No students were reported to receive bilingual education without accompanying E-ALS.

In an endeavor to probe further into the provision of ALS, I conducted additional analysis related to grade level and identified home language. There was a significantly higher proportion of ELLs who received ALS in grades K-5 compared to ELLs in grades

9-12 ( $p = <.0001$ ). When considering all students who received ALS ( $N=546$ ), 67.95% ( $N=371$ ) of students in grades K-5 received ALS compared to 14.10% ( $N=77$ ) of students in grades 9-12. Table 3 illustrates the number and percentage of students who received ALS by grade level:

Grade	E-ASL Model					Bilingual Model				
	Content Based ESL	Pull-out ESL	Struct. English Immers.	None	Total	Dual Lang	Enrich.	Maint.	None	Total
<b>K-5</b>	161	209	1	6	377	20	4	90	263	377
<b>6-8</b>	42	56	0	14	112	0	0	11	101	112
<b>9-12</b>	5	72	0	16	93	0	0	16	77	93
<b>All</b>	208	337	1	36	582	20	4	117	441	582

As the data in this table illustrates, the only students that were receiving Dual Language or Enrichment bilingual education were in grades K-5. Beginning in grade 6, the only bilingual instruction afforded to students was in a Maintenance model.

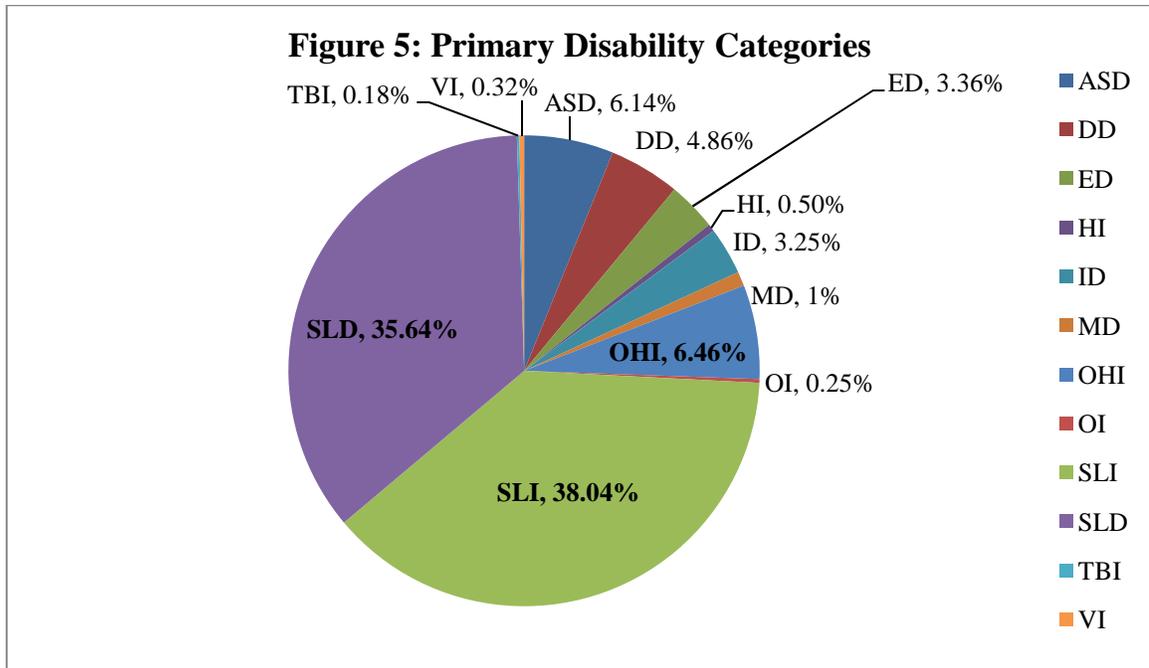
Additionally, a significantly higher proportion of Spanish speaking ELLs ( $N=432$ ) received ALS compared to their non-Spanish speaking peers ( $N=150$ ) ( $p = .01$ ). Approximately 95% ( $N=411$ ) of Spanish speaking ELLs received ALS compared to 90% ( $N=135$ ) of their non-Spanish speaking peers. Table 4 shows the proportions of ELLs who received ALS by home language:

	<b>E-ALS Model</b>					<b>Bilingual Model</b>				
<b>Home Language</b>	Cont. Based ESL	Pull -out ESL	Struc Eng. Imm.	None	<b>Total</b>	Maint	Enrich.	Dual Lang	None	<b>Total</b>
<b>Spanish</b>	168	242	1	21	432	107	3	19	303	432
<b>English</b>	16	33	0	8	57	7	0	1	49	57
<b>Other</b>	2	14	0	2	18	1	0	0	17	18
<b>Navajo</b>	6	8	0	4	18	0	0	0	18	18
<b>Keres</b>	4	13	0	0	17	1	0	0	16	17
<b>Towa</b>	1	5	0	0	6	0	0	0	6	6
<b>Vietnamese</b>	2	11	0	0	13	1	0	0	12	13
<b>Tagalog</b>	4	3	0	1	8	0	1	0	7	8
<b>Russian</b>	2	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	3
<b>Cantonese</b>	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	2
<b>Portuguese</b>	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	2
<b>Laotian</b>	1	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	2
<b>Zuni</b>	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
<b>Korean</b>	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
<b>Arabic</b>	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
<b>Creole</b>	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	1
<b>All</b>	208	337	1	36	582	117	4	20	441	582

As this table demonstrates and as noted previously, over 10% (N=57) of students who received ALS were reported to primarily speak English at home. This group of students

constitutes the second largest language group receiving ALS. Additionally, the vast majority of students receiving bilingual education were reported with a home language of Spanish (92%).

**Special Education.** A total of 3,679 K-12 students were identified by the school district as receiving special education services. Of these, 879 (5% of the total K-12 student population) were identified as gifted and 2,800 (17% of the total K-12 student population) were identified with each of the following primary disabilities: Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD), 172; Deaf-Blindness (DB), 0; Developmental Delay (DD), 136; Emotional Disturbance (ED), 94; Hearing Impairment (HI), 14; Intellectual Disability (ID), 91; Multiple Disabilities (MD), 28; Orthopedic Impairment (OI), 7; Other Health Impairment (OHI), 181; Specific Learning Disability (SLD), 998; Speech-Language Impairment (SLI), 1,065; Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI), 5; Visual Impairment (VI), 9; Gifted *and* a disability category, 38. Figure 5 provides the percentage of students in each primary disability category out of the total number of students identified with a disability.



As can be seen in Figure 5, the most common disability was SLI (38.04%, N=1.065), followed by 35.64% (N=998) of students identified with SLD. Less than 7% of the total student population were identified with all other disabilities.

### Comparisons of Student Subgroups

In this section I summarize analyses related to the comparisons of the representation of specific student populations within different groups such as PHLOTE, ELL, and ALS provisions. I considered common matrices of disproportionate representation by calculating the composition index (CI) and the risk index (RI). I calculated the CI by "dividing the number of students of a given racial or ethnic group enrolled in a particular disability category by the total number of students [from all ethnic groups] enrolled in that same disability category" (Donovan & Cross, 2002, p. 43). This allowed for the comparison of the percentage of students from a certain minority group within a particular special education category to the percentage of students from the same minority group within the general student population (de Valenzuela et. al, 2006). In this

case, instead of comparing just minority groups, I compared students identified as PHLOTE, ELL, and students receiving ALS. I calculated the RI, or the percentage of a group in a category or placement, by dividing the number of students of a certain group, for example Hispanic students, and in a certain category or placement, such as SLD, by the total number of students in that group (Hosp & Reschly, 2003). I applied this analysis tool outside of the comparison of race/ethnicity to students identified as PHLOTE, ELL, and receiving ALS.

**PHLOTE.** There was not a significant difference between the proportion of students with a disability identified as PHLOTE from students without a disability identified as PHLOTE ( $p = 0.2876$ ). Comparing rates of identification of students with and without disabilities as PHLOTE revealed the following: 13.61% (N=381) of students identified with a disability were also identified as PHLOTE, compared to 14.38% (N=2,003) of their non-disabled peers who were identified as PHLOTE. This is the CI. Another way of looking at this is using the RI. When considering the entire PHLOTE population (N=2,384), 15.98% (N=381) were identified with a disability, compared to 84.02% (N=2,003) who were not identified with a disability. These proportions are similar to those of students who do not have a PHLOTE.

**ELL.** There was a significant difference between the proportion of students identified with a disability who were identified as ELLs from their peers without disabilities ( $p = <.0001$ ). When considering CI, a significantly higher proportion of students with disabilities were identified as ELLs, 6.07% (N=170), compared to 2.96% (N=412) of students without disabilities. The risk of disability identification of ELLs was 29.21% (N=170), as compared to 16.28% (N=2,630) for non-ELLs.

**PHLOTE to ELL.** Given that there was not a significant difference between the proportion of students identified with a disability identified as PHLOTE from peers not identified with a disability, and there was a significant difference in the proportion of students with disabilities identified as ELLs from peers without disabilities, it was important to compare the proportions of PHLOTE students with and without disabilities who were identified as ELLs. The data revealed a significant difference in the proportion of PHLOTE students with a disability identified as ELLs from PHLOTE students without a disability ( $p = <.0001$ ). The CI revealed that a significantly higher proportion of PHLOTE students identified with a disability were also classified as ELLs, 38.85% (N=148), compared to 18.82% (N=377) of their non-disabled PHLOTE peers. The risk of disability identification for PHLOTE ELLs was 28.19% (N=148), as compared to 12.53% (N=233) for non-ELL PHLOTE students.

**ALS provision.** There was a significantly lower proportion of ELLs identified with a disability who received ALS as compared to their peers without disabilities ( $p = <.0001$ ). When considering CI, 85.88% (N=146) of students with disabilities received ALS compared to 97.09% (N=400) of their non-disabled peers. When considering RI, 26.74% (N=146) of students who received ALS were identified with a disability, and 73.26% (N=400) were not.

There was a significant difference in the proportion of ELLs identified with a disability who received Content Based ESL or Pull-out ESL services from their ELL peers not identified with a disability ( $p <.0001$ ). A much lower percentage of ELLs identified with a disability, 85.88% (N=146) received E-ALS, compared to 97.09% (N=400) of ELL peers without disabilities (N=412). More specifically, 34.71% (N=59) of

ELLs identified with a disability received Content Based ESL, and 51.18% (N=87) received Pull-out English as a Second Language. In comparison, 0.24% (N=1) of ELLs not identified with a disability received Structured English Immersion, 36.17% (N=149) received Content Based ESL, and 60.68% (N=250) received Pull-out ESL.

There was a significantly smaller proportion of ELLs identified with a disability who received bilingual education than their non-disabled peers ( $p = <.0001$ ). Of the total number of ELLs with disabilities (N=141), only 8.82% (N=15) received bilingual education, as compared to 30.58% (N=126) of their non-disabled peers. When considering the bilingual models: 0.34% (N=2) of ELLs identified with a disability received instruction in a Dual Language model; 2.23% (N=13) received instruction in a Maintenance model; and none of these students received instruction in an Enrichment model. In comparison, 3.09% (N=18) of ELLs not identified with a disability received instruction in a Dual Language model, 17.87% (N=104) received instruction in a Maintenance model, and 0.69% (N=4) received instruction in an Enrichment model.

### **Additional Analyses**

The above data analyses fueled further inquiries as to whether (a) race/ethnicity were related to disability identification, (b) there was a difference in the rate of identification of primary disability categories for ELLs compared to non-ELLs, and (c) students with different disabilities had different access to ALS (English or bilingual). This required an analysis of: (a) a comparison of all students with and without a disability by race/ethnicity to all other students who are *not* of the same race/ethnicity (e.g. Asian students compared to all other non-Asian students), (b) ELL status of students identified with a primary disability, and (c) ALS provided to students with and without disabilities.

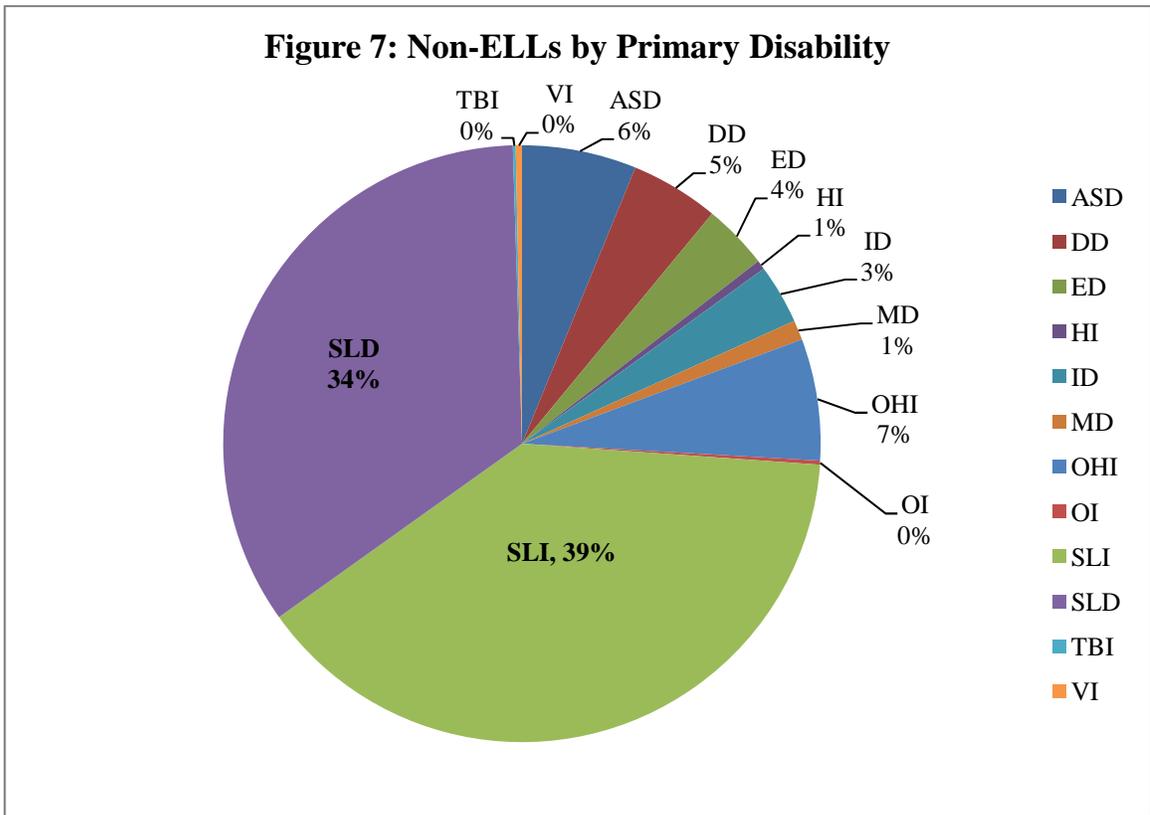
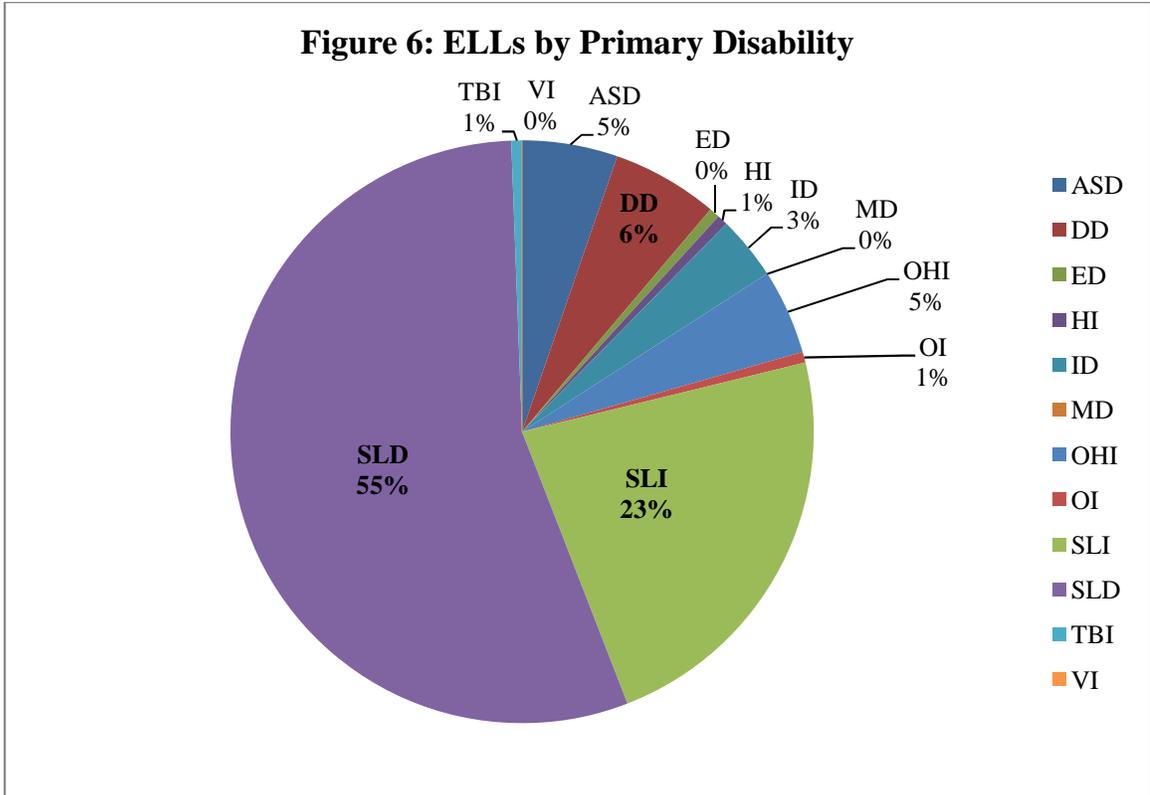
**Race/ethnicity.** When examining students with and without a disability by race/ethnicity and comparing to all other students who were not of the same race/ethnicity, there was not a significant difference in the proportion of students identified with a disability when considering: (a) African American ( $p = .0127$ ), (b) Caucasian ( $p = .0565$ ), (c) Hispanic ( $p = .1873$ ), or (d) Native American ( $p = .0571$ ). A statistical comparison could not be run on Pacific Islander, as there were no students identified with disabilities in this category. There was, however, a significant difference between the proportion of Asian students identified with a disability from their non-Asian peers ( $p = .0008$ ). The risk of disability identification of Asians was 6.47% ( $N=28$ ), as compared to nearly 12% ( $N=1,878$ ) of non-Asian students. Table 5 displays the number and percentage of students by race/ethnicity and disability status.

Race/Ethnicity	Disability		
	No	Yes	Total
African American	548 85.36%	94 14.64%	642 100%
Asian	405 93.53%	28 6.47%	433 100%
Caucasian	5,787 89.03%	713 10.97%	6,500 100%
Hispanic	7,219 88.11%	974 11.89%	8,193 100%
Indian/Native American	597 86.02%	97 13.98%	694 100%
Pacific Islander	29 100%	0 0.00%	29 100%

As this table illustrates, African American students had the highest proportion of students within that race/ethnicity identified with a disability (14.64%, N=94), followed by Native American students (13.98%, N=97), and Hispanic students (11.89%, N=974).

**Primary disability categories for ELLs/non-ELLs.** When examining PHLOTE students identified as ELL by the primary disabilities most commonly analyzed for disproportionate representation in this field of study (DD, ED, ID, SLI and SLD), there was not a significant difference in the proportion of students identified as ELL when considering: (a) DD ( $p = .0212$ ), (b) ED ( $p = .2874$ ), (c) ID ( $p = .2450$ ), or (d) SLI ( $p = .1843$ ).

There was a significant difference in the proportion of ELLs identified with SLD compared to their non-ELL peers ( $p = <.0001$ ). Over 55% (N=94) of ELLs were identified with SLD. This is significantly higher than the proportion of non-ELLs identified with SLD, 34% (N=904). Figures 6 and 7 illustrate the percentage of ELLs and non-ELLs by primary disability.



As these figures illustrate, both ELL and non-ELLs are identified with SLD and SLI more than any other disability.

**ALS for students with and without a disability.** Students identified with SLD received ALS at a significantly higher rate than students identified with a different primary eligibility ( $p = .0011$ ). Over 55% ( $N=94$ ) of students who received ALS were identified as SLD. Table 6 displays the number and percentage of students in each of the ALS models by primary disability.

Primary Disability	E-ALS Model				Bilingual Model				%
	Con. Based ESL	Pull-out ESL	No E-ALS	Total	Dual Lang.	Maint.	None	Total	
ASD	3	6	0	9	0	0	9	9	5.29%
DD	3	6	1	10	0	0	10	10	5.88%
ED	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0.59%
HI	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0.59%
ID	1	1	4	6	0	0	6	6	3.53%
OHI	5	3	0	8	0	1	7	8	4.71%
OI	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0.59%
SLI	12	26	1	39	2	5	32	39	22.94%
SLD	34	42	18	94	0	7	87	94	55.29%
TBI	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0.59%
<b>Total</b>	59	87	24	170	2	13	155	170	100%

Disability codes: Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD); Deaf-Blindness (DB); Developmental Delay (DD); Emotional Disturbance (ED); Hearing Impairment (HI); Intellectual Disability (ID); Multiple Disabilities (MD); Orthopedic Impairment (OI); Other Health Impairment (OHI); Specific Learning Disability (SLD); Speech-Language Impairment (SLI); Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI); Visual Impairment (VI)

As this table illustrates, the only students who were receiving instruction in a bilingual model were those students identified with OHI, SLI or SLD. Students identified in all other disability categories only received E-ALS. In addition, the proportion of students in

different disability categories who did not receive ALS was strikingly different. The majority of students identified with ID, 66.66% (N=4), did not receive any ALS. In comparison, 19.15% of students with SLD and 2.6% of students with SLI did not receive services.

As reported prior, out of 582 identified ELLs, 36 were not participants in an ALS program. Table 7 includes the total number of students not receiving ALS and their primary disability.

Primary Disability	N	%
SLD	18	50%
SLI	1	2.78%
ID	4	11.11%
DD	1	2.78%
No Primary Disability	12	33.33%
<b>All</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>100.00%</b>

Specific Learning Disability (SLD); Speech-Language Impairment (SLI); Intellectual Disability (ID); Developmental Delay (DD)

As this table illustrates, of the 36 ELLs not receiving ALS, 50% (N=18) were identified with SLD and 11.11% (N=4) were identified with ID. Far more than half (67% N=24) were identified with a disability.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to investigate how the identification of and provision of ALS to ELLs identified with a disability compares to that of their ELL peers without an identified disability. In addition, I conducted a review of the types of ALS provided to these students. I sought to address three primary research questions: (a) how did the rate of identification of PHLOTE students with disabilities as ELLs compare to their PHLOTE-status peers without disabilities; (b) what ALS did students who were identified both as ELLs and with a disability receive as compared to ELL peers who were not receiving special education services; and (c) were any observed differences in the rate of ELL identification and provision of ALS related to recorded student characteristics such as ethnicity/home language, language proficiency level(s), eligibility label, grade level, and setting?

### **Summary of Results**

**PHLOTE.** Analyses revealed that there was not a significant difference between the proportions of students with a disability identified as PHLOTE from students without a disability, with approximately 14% of students identified as PHLOTE from each population. This suggests that this school district is requesting and recording home language survey data with consistency for students identified with a disability and for those who are not identified with a disability as it would be expected that similar proportions of both groups would come from a large minority background if there is not systematic bias against these students. This also indicates that both of these subgroups are then eligible for subsequent language proficiency assessment to determine ELL status.

However, due to data not provided by the school district, it is not known whether both groups indeed were administered a language proficiency assessment in similar proportions or whether some students with disabilities were exempted from such testing. Once assessed for language proficiency however, a discrepancy in ELL identification was identified.

**ELL.** A significantly higher proportion of students with disabilities were identified as ELLs compared to students without disabilities. These results suggest that students identified with a disability are more likely to be identified as ELLs. They also suggest that it is possible that students identified with a disability are having difficulty taking the language proficiency assessments, and as a result, are being classified as ELLs. In my experience as a bilingual teacher and educational diagnostician, I have become very familiar with language proficiency assessments and ELL identification. In my experience there are very few, if any, modifications or accommodations provided to students when they are administered assessments such as the ACCESS or LAS.

However, an alternative possibility is that ELLs are over-identified as having a disability. The results also documented a significantly higher proportion of ELLs were identified with a disability than non-ELLs. Therefore, in all likelihood, both of these types of inaccurate assessments occurred. In order to reveal more definitive information related to this, students' ACCESS and LAS scores and information related to the special education evaluation process (e.g. was the student evaluated by a bilingual evaluator) would need to be analyzed with consideration of students' primary disability labels.

**PHLOTE to ELL.** A significantly higher proportion of PHLOTE students identified with a disability were also classified as ELLs. This finding is consistent with

the previous finding, indicating that disability status plays a significant role in ELL identification for PHLOTE students.

**ALS provision.** ELLs identified with a disability received E-ALS and bilingual education at a much lower rate than ELLs without disabilities. These results suggest that although federal mandates are in place regarding ALS for all students identified as ELL, students identified with disabilities fail to benefit from these services as often as their non-disabled peers. This is an important finding, especially given the previous observation that a higher than expected proportion of students with disabilities were identified as ELLs. In my professional practice, I have noted that the difference between special education and ALS is not always known or recognized. It is possible that a lack of knowledge or confusion about the need for *ALS in addition to* special education services contributed to the disparity in ALS provision between students with and without disabilities.

Another area of ALS disproportionality was identification of students in elementary and secondary grade levels. There was a significant difference in the proportion of ELLs who received ALS in grades K-5 compared to ELLs in grades 9-12. When considering all 546 students who received ALS, the majority, or 68% of these students, were in grades K-5, compared to merely 14% in grades 9-12. These results are consistent with the results of previous studies and is an area of concern discussed by earlier researchers (e.g. Artiles et al., 2005). Artiles et al. (2005) reported that the largest proportion of ELLs is often found in the elementary grades, with only roughly one third of students in secondary grades identified as ELL. The results of this study continue to

support the decrease in identification of ELLs in secondary grade levels. However, given that not all ELLs are recent immigrants, this decrease may not be completely unexpected.

There was also a significant difference in the proportion of Spanish speaking ELLs who received ALS compared to their non-Spanish speaking peers, with 95% of Spanish speaking ELLs receiving ALS compared to 90% of their non-Spanish speaking ELL peers. This indicates that ALS programs may be geared more toward students who speak Spanish as the availability of instructors and materials in this language is greater than it might be in other languages such as Navajo, Keres, Vietnamese, Arabic or Tagalog. Students who speak a language other than English or Spanish may then be at an even greater disadvantage for receiving ALS.

**Race/ethnicity.** The results suggested there was neither over nor under representation of African American, Caucasian, Hispanic, or Native American students, although the proportion of African American students approached significant ( $p = .0127$ ). The risk of disability identification of Asian students, however, was significantly lower than that of non-Asian students. These findings suggest that students are identified at similar rates across racial and ethnic groups. This is a very positive discovery, especially within a school district that serves such a diverse population of students. These results, however, may prove misleading if considered independently of English language proficiency. It is for this reason that the in-depth analysis presented above is so crucial to understanding the multiple layers that exist within an educational system. While only one group of students from a specific race/ethnicity was identified as under-identified for disabilities, it is evident from other results that this does not provide a complete representation of disability identification throughout the district.

**Primary disability categories for ELLs/non-ELLs.** There was not a significant difference in the proportion of students identified as ELLs when considering DD, ED, ID, or SLI. There was, however, a significantly higher proportion of ELLs identified with SLD compared to their non-ELL peers. While the findings for DD, ED, ID, and SLI are promising, the results related to SLD demonstrate that the disproportionality of ELLs in certain disability categories is still taking place.

**ALS for students with and without a disability.** Students with SLI were exempted from ALS at a significantly higher rate than students with any other disability. In addition, the majority of students identified with ID, 66.66% (N=4), did not receive any ALS. Both of these groups (SLI and ID) are characterized by language difficulties and it is curious that these are the two groups which are least likely to receive native language instruction and ESL. Students identified with SLD received ALS at a significantly higher rate than students identified with a different primary eligibility, however, the rate of ALS provided to ELLs identified with SLD was lower than ELLs without disabilities. Furthermore, the only students who were receiving instruction in a bilingual model were those students identified with OHI, SLI or SLD. Students identified in all other disability categories only received E-ALS. These results indicate that students with more significant disabilities are less likely to receive ALS, especially when this support is being provided in their home language, and that students identified with a language impairment are very likely to receive all of their instruction in their non-dominant language and not receive ESL instructional approaches.

### **Discussion of the Results**

As Cummins (1989) asserted, the degree to which language and culture are incorporated into a child's educational program is a significant factor in academic success. The Office for Civil Rights reported that in 2006, only approximately 88% of students across the nation identified with a disability who were entitled to ALS actually received them (Office for Civil Rights, 2013). In the district studied, a similar percentage (86%) of ELLs with disabilities received services. If PHLOTE students identified with a disability receive limited second language acquisition support and services, it is possible that this may have a negative impact on their ability to develop English and access academic content. It might further reduce their performance on subsequent language proficiency assessments.

While the process for identifying ELLs may appear simple and direct, the accuracy and reliability of the information gathered has been called into question (Bailey & Kelly, 2010). It is possible that parents may provide different answers to the home language survey if language patterns in the home change or they move their child to another school district (Bailey & Kelly, 2010). The authors also reported that home language surveys varied from state to state and school district to school district, different questions were asked, and the information was coded in different ways. Furthermore, different states often utilize different language proficiency assessments and set different score ranges for students to be identified as ELL. This is important when considering that students can move into a school district and already be classified as ELL from their previous district. As discussed previously in Chapter One, these variables add to the confusion of identification of ELLs and the true definition of the term, the classification

of students, and the services provided to these students based on their given label (Wolf et al., 2008).

Also, as discussed previously, students who are identified as ELLs are eligible for programs to help them develop their English proficiency skills under NCLB, OCR memorandums, and Title IV of the Civil Rights Act, 1964 (Vialpando & Yedlin, 2005). Students who are identified with a disability are protected under IDEA. Though IDEA does address students who speak languages other than English, the mandates put forth in IDEA that refer to ELLs are limited to assessment practices and parent interaction and contact (Gartin & Murdick, 2005). There is no specific mandate in IDEA for educational practices related to ELLs, including language services, once a child has been identified with a disability. NCLB, however, does require each school district to provide students with adequate programs to help them develop English proficiency skills (Vialpando & Yedlin, 2005). Similarly, Title IV of the Civil Rights Act (1964) supports OCR memorandums addressing programs for ELLs, affirming that school districts must support ELLs in transcending language barriers and safeguard the participation in meaningful educational programs.

ELLs who have been identified with a disability and have been placed in a special education setting are afforded both special education services and ALS as clarified in the Office of Civil Rights policy memorandum, "Policy Update on Schools' Obligations Toward National Origin Minority Students With Limited-English Proficiency (LEP students)," issued on September 27, 1991 and referencing Title VI 34 C.F.R. 100.3. The memorandum clarified that districts could not refuse to provide both ALS and special education to students who needed both. Knowing this, it is concerning to see that there

were ELLs identified with a disability who were not receiving ALS and that this pattern was significantly higher for students with disabilities than for those without disabilities.

In addition, while OCR (2000) required ALS, it did not mandate any specific type or form of ALS. Programs utilized when educating ELLs, however, must meet three requirements established by the 1981 *Castaneda v. Pickard* case, which are meant to ensure that the programs chosen are suitable (Fitzgerald, 1993; Haas & Gort, 2009; Ovando, 2003). The following three criteria were established for use in determining appropriate education was being provided for students who were learning English: (a) the school program chosen for ELLs must be based on sound educational theory; (b) the program must be implemented with fidelity, adequate resources, and personnel; and (c) the program must be monitored to ensure adequate results in language as well as in academic areas (Haas & Gort, 2009; Ovando, 2003). The results of the *Castaneda v. Pickard* case did not require that schools provide bilingual education, but it did ensure that some requirements were met when educating ELLs and that the programs chosen were suitable. As a result, all ELLs, regardless of disability status, should be receiving adequate language acquisition support. Unfortunately, the results of this study indicate that this is still not happening as consistently as one might hope. Out of the 582 identified ELLs, 36 were not participating in an ALS program, 24 of whom were identified with a disability. While additional information was not provided as to why these students were not receiving ALS, these results do suggest that more students with disabilities are not receiving ALS. They also suggested that students with disabilities, especially those with more severe disabilities, have unequitable access to bilingual instruction. Given that this is considered by many researchers to be of benefit for assisting ELLs to develop content

knowledge while they are still in the process of developing English language proficiency, it seems logical that native language instruction would be similarly beneficial for students with the most significant learning challenges. In fact, Perozzi and Sanchez's (1992) research suggested that children with disabilities learn faster in their more proficient language.

Research has consistently found that CLD students are disproportionately represented, both over and under, in special education (e.g. de Valenzuela et al., 2006; Gravois & Rosenfield, 2006; Hibel et al., 2008; Losen & Orfield, 2002; Samson & Lesaux, 2009; Skiba et al., 2006). Furthermore, the disproportionate representation of ELLs in special education has also been identified (e.g. Artiles et al., 2005; Donovan & Cross, 2002; Harry & Klingner, 2007). The results of this study, which focused on ELLs specifically, are consistent with previous findings and support the assertion that disproportionate representation continues to exist when identifying students with a disability.

### **Policy Implications**

I approached this study from the perspective of the social construction of disability. As discussed in Chapter One, Quetelet initiated the concept of *normal* in the nineteenth century by proposing that the 'law of error' used by astronomers could also be applied to frequency distributions related to humans (Shogan, 1998). With this comparison, individuals who were determined to be *abnormal* were seen to have a problem, and so began a formal system for the social construction of disability.

Results of this study revealed that various factors contributed to the social construction of disability for some students. Despite federal mandates, some ELLs did

not receive ALS. Specifically, students identified with a disability failed to benefit from ALS as often as their peers without disabilities. The type of ALS provided to students varied when considering certain characteristics such as race/ethnicity, disability label and grade level. In addition, a significant difference in the identification of ELLs, as well as in the identification of students with disabilities, was revealed when compared to their non-ELL, non-disabled peers, though the directionality of this correlation is not fully apparent. As a result of these and other differences, it becomes apparent that change is needed in federal policy, school district policy and established systems, and in teacher preparation.

**Federal Policy.** Although NCLB and IDEA mandate that specific services be provided to certain students, they remain separate entities resulting in decoupled systems. OCR has attempted to connect the two with memorandums and policy updates, but ELLs identified with a disability still hover between them and often get lost in the gaps. Additionally, these students are forced to negotiate the implications of being labeled as ELLs and as disabled, resulting in yet another separate group that they have been assigned to. The consequences of certain group affiliation or assignment that individuals within a society are a part of, often determine what they can and cannot do within that society, furthermore contributing to their real and perceived abilities and disabilities (Jones, 1996).

As discussed in Chapter One, societies use various factors to cluster people together into groups that then define them and their status within that society (Rosenblum & Travis, 2006). Certain presumptions are then formed that affect the people in the groups as well as the next generation of individuals who learn from these assumptions. If

nothing is done about this, these presumptions and suppositions are perpetuated in this manner for multiple generations, and the limitations that come with them are continuously imposed on the people who are put into these groups (Rosenblum & Travis, 2006). This continues to contribute to the limitations a person might face due to group status, and contribute to their perceived abilities and disabilities within their society. Evidence of these limitations was revealed in the analysis of the data in this study, and hence, a continuation of the social construction of disability persists for these students. In order to avoid further perpetuation of this issue, federal mandates need to become more cohesive and complimentary, and consider students as a 'whole' instead of just the 'sum of their parts.' While students have various needs, addressing these needs in compartmentalized ways does not address the whole child, but rather continues to isolate each part of a child and his or her needs.

**District Systems and Policies.** Each school district is subject to systems and policies unique to their public education department. Individual schools are even more distinctive as a result of the community that they serve and the staff and personal employed at the school. In general, schools have implemented special education programs as a result of IDEA requiring a free and appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment for all children labeled with a disability. Ideally, students are to receive appropriate education alongside their peers in an environment that is non-restrictive. However, typical special education programs provide scripted programs to children in a segregated setting away from their peers with little time for natural peer interaction (Bogdan & Knoll, 1995). Researchers such de Valenzuela et al. (2006) and Bogdan and Knoll (1995) have questioned the validity and usefulness of such programs.

Often times these programs themselves may lead to further segregation and misconceptions about the students who are in them, especially minority students, and do not help to advance the students academically (de Valenzuela et al., 2006).

Districts and schools must also provide ALS for ELLs as mandated by NCLB and OCR. Klingner and Artiles (2003) asserted that a child's home language should be taken into consideration when making decisions about the language of instruction utilized in the educational setting. In addition, Cummins (1989) stressed that a significant factor in academic success for ELLs is the degree to which language and culture are integrated into their educational program. Incorporation of a child's native language into the school curriculum along with language supports aids in academic success and true second language acquisition for students in general and special education (Ruiz, 1995). It is my experience that schools struggle with the unification of the mandates from IDEA and NCLB and often prioritize one over the other. More often than not, special education is seen as *more important* than ALS, or in some situations, *an equivalent provision* for ALS. As a result of this type of thinking, students are often provided with one service or the other, and the two continue to remain divided. This, perhaps, could be seen as the outgrowth of particular constructions of disability which forefront one's status as able or disabled over any other characteristics that might exist.

Students often receive special education and/or ALS through a district approved program, and many times, students are separated from the larger population to receive these services. This again, results in further segregation for a minority group of students. Despite evidence related to the deficiency of some programs, many schools and school districts continue to point to the children in the programs as the *problem* (Bogdan &

Knoll, 1995). Bogdan and Knoll stated that “special education, as it was conceived and is still practiced, attributes a child’s failure in school to some flaw within him or her . . . rather than inadequacy on the part of the educational institution” (p. 678). Dudley-Marling (2004) asserted that individuals must perform in a certain way within an institutional framework that requires specific things from them and then assigns meaning to their performance in order for their abilities or disabilities to have significance. When viewed in a different context, the individual’s behaviors do not carry the same significance or meaning (Dudley-Marling, 2004). The context created by districts and schools, as evidenced in the results of this study, continues to construct disability in a similar way and supports the notion that indeed, disabilities are a social construction. In order for this to change, district systems and policies must evolve. Segregation must become a thing of the past, opening up to inclusive methods and techniques. The needs of students should be met within their classrooms, and services unique to their needs should be addressed in a more cohesive manner without disability services overshadowing all other aspects of their cultures and backgrounds.

**Teacher Preparation.** It has taken many years to create the educational system that we have now (Bogdan & Knoll, 1995) and most educators who are a part of that system adhere to the beliefs and assumptions laid out and followed by it. It is a common assumption that certain children can or cannot do certain things as a result of the label that they are given, and educators practice is informed by these assumptions (Molloy & Vasil, 2002; Rosenblum & Travis, 2006). In addition, teachers are not always aware of or prepared to meet the variety of student needs they encounter within a classroom of students. Though a teacher may have a specialized endorsement or certification in a

specific area, such as special education, they may lack knowledge in another area, such as language acquisition. The burden should not only lie with the teacher to educate or inform herself in these areas, but also with the initial preparation she received to become a teacher.

Currently, most teacher preparation programs are individualized to prepare educators to instruct specific populations of students such as elementary or high school students, or students with a disability. Although the programs may provide classes in multicultural education, ESL strategies, inclusion techniques or the provision of modifications and accommodations to students who may need them, these methods are typically presented in a manner that suggests segregation or isolation of a specific group of students and their unique needs. Teachers are often left to unify the various methods and techniques for themselves once they are in a classroom, and this can lead to confusion and misunderstanding of services. The construction of a disability is dependent upon the interaction that individuals have with other people, places, and activities in their environment (Dudley-Marling, 2004; Jones, 1996). If students are interacting within an environment that constructs disability and with teachers that did not receive comprehensive preparation, they are more likely to be perceived as abnormal, and hence, disabled.

### **Limitations of the Study**

When considering race and ethnicity, the school district reported the following categories: African American, Asian, Caucasian, Hispanic, Indian/Native American, and Pacific Islander. Hispanic, though considered an ethnicity by the US Census Bureau, was reported separately from race for each student. As a result, some of the students identified

as Asian, Caucasian, African American, Indian/Native American, or Pacific Islander, may *also* have been identified as Hispanic. In addition, some students who were identified as Hispanic did not report a separate race category. As previously indicated, the matter of race and ethnicity, especially among Hispanic and Latino groups, has been a major topic of debate for some time (Rodriguez, 2000). As I did not intend to broach this issue through the current study, I analyzed the race and ethnicity data as reported by the district. This resulted in limitations when comparing results of similar studies that accounted for race categories separate from ethnicity categories.

I intended to do further analysis on specific language scoring categories based on ACCESS and LAS language assessment results and special education setting, but the district did not provide this data in either data pull. I was interested in analyzing any effect language proficiency scores (e.g. Entering Level 1-1.9, Emerging Level 2-2.9, Developing Level 3-3.9, Expanding Level 4-4.9, Bridging Level 5-6.0) had on the type of ALS received. Similarly, I intended to analyze the special education settings (e.g. Self-Contained classrooms, Inclusion classrooms) each child was reported to participate in and the affect, if any, this had on ALS provision. As a result of the absence of this data, results from this study are limited to the larger, more general populations of ELLs and students identified with a disability.

Related to the above, this study did not reveal the process that was taken to determine the type of ALS received by ELLs, either identified with a disability or not, how the services were provided, reasons for exemption from ALS, nor did I address the fidelity with which the services were provided. It was beyond the scope of this study to

address the effectiveness of the services or the certification of the individuals providing the services.

Lastly, the results of the current study are not generalizable to all US school districts. However, the results do provide insight into the ALS provided to students who have been identified as an ELL and with a disability in a large school district with a bilingual population, and can be analogous to similar school districts with similar populations. The results additionally may provide avenues for future research.

### **Implications for Further Research**

Through this study I intended to add to the research by documenting the ALS provided to ELLs who were identified with a disability in a large southwestern school district with a high minority and ELL population. It is my hope that this information will provide insight to parents, students, teachers, administrators, and other individuals who provide special education and ALS to ELLs and allow them the opportunity to consider how these services are provided to this specific population. The results of the current study support previous findings in similar studies; students from diverse cultural backgrounds who speak a primary language other than English are often misrepresented in educational settings. While information is available as to the origin of this disproportionate representation, there is still much to be explored.

Additional research related to specific English and second language proficiency assessments and levels, and the resulting ALS provisions, would allow for a deeper analysis of language proficiency assessments in general, and their function in determining ALS for ELLs. This would also require schools to collect and record more specific data. Often times, data collection is driven by federal and state requirements for reporting,

when in fact, data collection should be driven by the information that is necessary to aid in examining and planning students' educational programs.

An in-depth examination of the ALS provided to students with and without a disability, the fidelity with which the ALS is provided and the association to the type of special education services and settings indicated for students identified with a disability would provide insight as to whether or not these factors impact students' access to and participation in the educational setting. In addition, analyses of similar data considering the race categories identified by the US Census Bureau, separate from ethnicity categories, would allow for more generalizability of race/ethnicity related results.

In conclusion, previous research (e.g. Artiles & Trent, 1994; de Valenzuela et al., 2006) primarily investigated whether ELLs were over or underrepresented in special education, assuming that special education identification was problematic. The results from this study do not rule that out, but indicate that the situation may be far more complicated. A variety of factors, including PHLOTE and ELL identification, may impact a student's identification for special education support. In turn, a student's identified disability and/or access to ALS as a result may impact his or her ELL identification. The responsibility of educating a child is monumental, and each child is a unique individual. Parents, students, teachers, administrators, and all involved in the educational process should be well informed and prepared to work together to provide the best education possible for every child.

**List of Appendices**

Appendix A. Legislation and Litigation

Appendix B. Terms Used Throughout Dissertation

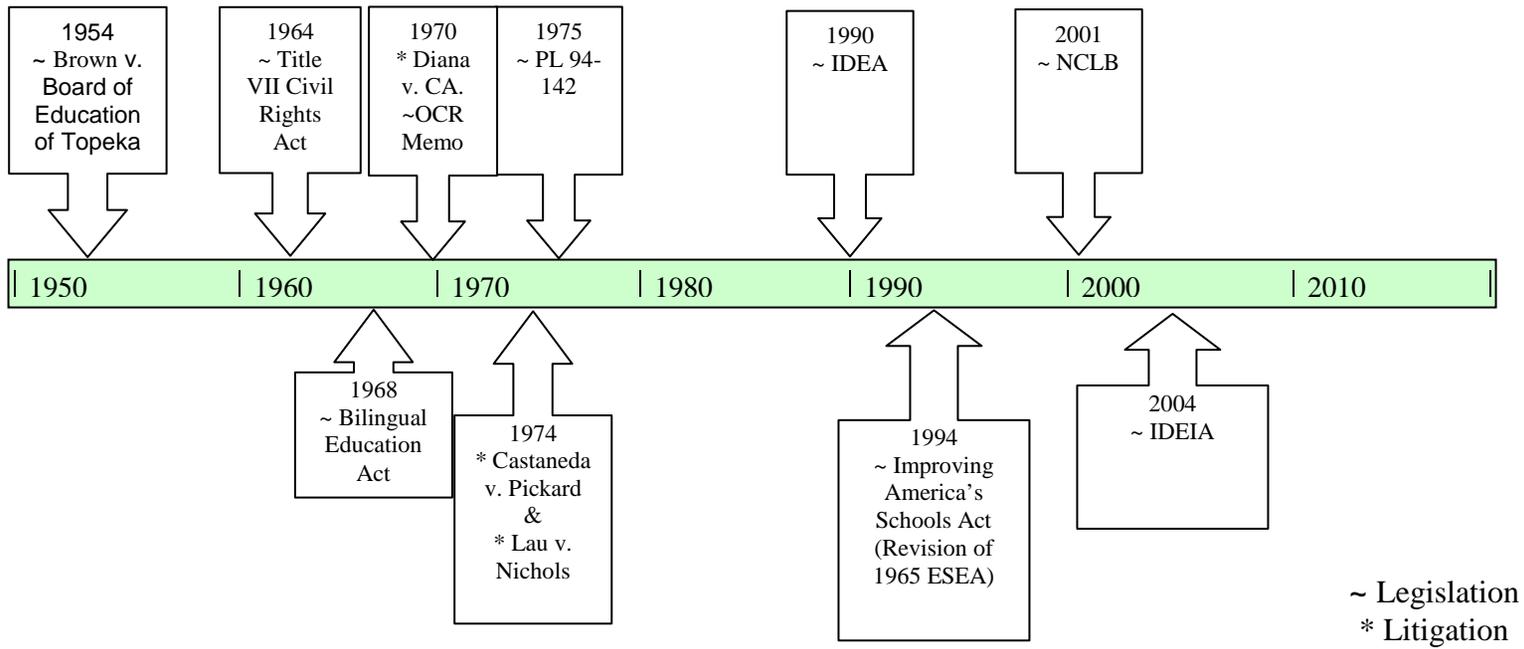
Appendix C. Terms Used by States to Refer to Students Who Speak a Language Other  
than English

Appendix D. Summary of Bilingual Education Program Models

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### Appendix A

### Legislation and Litigation



## **Appendix B**

### **Terms Used Throughout Dissertation**

ACCESS - Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State

ALS - Alternative Language Services

CLD - culturally and/or linguistically diverse

Composition index – calculated by dividing the number of students of a given racial or ethnic group enrolled in a particular disability category by the total number of students from all ethnic groups enrolled in that same disability category

EFL - English as a Foreign Language

ELD - English Language Development

ELL – English Language Learner

ESL - English as a second language

FEP - Fully English Proficient

IDEA - Individuals with Disabilities Education Act

LAS - Language Assessment Scales

LD – Linguistically Diverse

LEP – Limited English Proficient

LM – Language Minority

NEP – Non-English Proficient

OCR - Office of Civil Rights

Odds/rate ratio - relative risk; calculated by dividing the risk index of one ethnic group by the risk index of a specific comparison group

PHLOTE – Primary Home Language Other Than English

Risk index - the percentage of a group in a category or placement: calculated by dividing the number of students of a certain group and in a certain category or placement, by the total number of students in that group

SDAIE - Specially designed academic instruction in English

TESOL - Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

## **Appendix C**

### **Terms Used by States to Refer to Students Who Speak a Language Other than English**

ELL – English Language Learner

EL – English Learner

LEP – Limited English Proficient

NEP – Non-English Proficient

PHLOTE – Primary Home Language Other Than English

LM – Language Minority

LCD – Linguistically and Culturally Diverse

NELB – Non-English Language Background

NOM – National Origin Minority

LD – Linguistically Diverse

PEP – Potentially English Proficient



**Appendix D**

**Summary of Bilingual Education Program Models**

<b>APPENDIX A. Summary of Bilingual Education Program Models BILINGUAL EDUCATION/TITLE III PROGRAM MODELS &amp; INSTRUCTIONAL TIME</b>				
A program model is the method (and services) the district will use to ensure that all students placed in Bilingual Education/Title III programs receive proper instruction. The model serves as the foundation for determination of the number of hours a student must be placed in. There are 5 program models funded by the state. The five models are: Dual Language, Maintenance, Enrichment, Indigenous/Heritage Language Revitalization, and Transitional. A school may use more than one model to serve the individual needs of its students.				
<b>Dual Language</b>	<b>Maintenance</b>	<b>Enrichment</b>	<b>Indigenous/ Heritage Language Revitalization</b>	<b>Transitional</b>
<b>ELL/FEP/ English native speakers students</b>	<b>ELLs</b>	<b>FEP/ English native speakers students</b>	<b>ELL/FEP/ English native speakers students</b>	<b>ELLs</b>
<b>Instructional Time:</b>	<b>Instructional Time:</b>	<b>Instructional Time:</b>	<b>Instructional Time:</b>	<b>Instructional Time:</b>
3 hours per day in the home language	2 to 3 hours per day.	1 to 2 hours per day.	1 to 3 hours per day.	2 to 3 hours per day.
<b>Required Courses:</b>	<b>Required Courses:</b>	<b>Required Course:</b>	<b>Required Courses:</b> 1 hr. of Heritage language and	<b>Required Courses:</b>
Minimum of 3 hrs. in the Home language (Language Arts and Content area) and 3 hrs. in English, including ESL for ELLs.	1 hr. of Home language <b>and</b> 1 hr. of ESL.	1 hr. of Home language.	1 hr. of ESL for ELLs	1 hr. of Home language and 1 hr. of ESL/ELD
	<b>Optional/Additional Courses:</b> May have 1 additional hr. of Bilingual in a Content Area (Math, Social Studies, Science or Fine Arts).	<b>Optional/Additional Courses:</b> May have 1 additional hr. of Bilingual in a Content Area (Math, Social Studies, Science or Fine Arts).	<b>Optional/Additional Courses:</b> May have 1 additional hr. of Bilingual in a Content Area (Math, Social Studies, Science or Fine Arts).	<b>Optional/Additional Courses:</b> May have 1 additional hr. of Bilingual in a Content Area (Math, Social Studies, Science or Fine Arts).
<b>Purpose:</b> All students will be bilingual and biliterate in English and the home/2nd language. (Best Model according to research)	<b>Purpose:</b> ELLs will become bilingual and biliterate in English and the home language.	<b>Purpose:</b> All FEP and English native speakers will become fluent in the home/2nd language.	<b>Purpose:</b> All students will become bilingual and biliterate in English and the Heritage lang.	<b>Purpose:</b> All ELLs will become proficient in English.

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