Brigham Young University
BYU ScholarsArchive

Theses and Dissertations

2012-07-12

Sheltered English Immersion vs. Two-Way Bilingual Education: A Case Study Comparison of Parental Attitudes and Hispanic Students' Perceived Self-Efficacy

Edith A. McGee
Brigham Young University - Provo

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd

Part of the Educational Leadership Commons

BYU ScholarsArchive Citation

McGee, Edith A., "Sheltered English Immersion vs. Two-Way Bilingual Education: A Case Study Comparison of Parental Attitudes and Hispanic Students' Perceived Self-Efficacy" (2012). *Theses and Dissertations*. 3353.
https://scholarsarchive.byu.edu/etd/3353

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by BYU ScholarsArchive. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of BYU ScholarsArchive. For more information, please contact scholarsarchive@byu.edu, ellen_amatangelo@byu.edu.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Sheltered English Immersion vs. Two-Way Bilingual Education:

A Case Study Comparison of Parental Attitudes and

Hispanic Students' Perceived Self-Efficacy

Edith A. McGee

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Scott E. Ferrin, Chair
Stephen J. Hite
Clifford T. Mayes
A. LeGrand Richards
Ellen J. Williams

Department of Educational Leadership and Foundations

Brigham Young University

August 2012

Copyright © 2012 Edith A. McGee
All Rights Reserved

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

ABSTRACT

Sheltered English Immersion vs. Two-Way Bilingual Education:
A Case Study Comparison of Parental Attitudes and
Hispanic Students' Perceived Self-Efficacy

Edith A. McGee
Department of Educational Leadership and Foundations, BYU
Doctor of Philosophy

Two common forms of teaching English to English-language learners are bilingual education and sheltered English immersion. While both programs claim successful second language acquisition, other effects of the programs need to be considered. This research examines one of those effects: self-efficacy, or students' perception that they will be successful or unsuccessful in doing a specific task or acquiring a specific skill.

Using archival records and semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions, this qualitative study draws on the work of Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) to explore differences in self-efficacy between students who have participated for 5 years in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual immersion (TWBE) or an immersion/sheltered English program (SEI) at the same school. Interviews with the parents of the 11 Hispanic students allowed for comparisons of parent satisfaction with the two language programs.

Findings indicated that students in both programs are similar in many ways; however there were marked differences between the two groups. Although all of the student participants considered themselves bilingual, those who were in the SEI program cannot read or write the language and use it only for social situations. Furthermore, students who have been in the TWBE program reported using practice, study, and note taking as success strategies in school, while their SEI peers used doing homework and turning it in as a success strategy. Students in TWBE reported having more successes in Spanish while their SEI peers reported struggling more in school and with Spanish.

A major finding in parent interviews was that although all the parents expressed the desire that their children know Spanish, only some chose to put their children in the bilingual program. What decision processes parents use to place their children in the programs is unknown. Additionally, parents whose children were in the TWBE program reported that their children had more success experiences with home, friends, and family, the language program and with both Spanish and English. The TWBE parents also indicated that their children had more extended family members who served as models for them because their children can speak and write Spanish and thus have additional contact with extended family.

Keywords: self-efficacy, bilingual education, sheltered English immersion, English-language learners, parental attitudes, elementary school, minorities, Hispanic students

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

When I was 18 years old, I made a goal that I would like to someday earn a doctorate. The realization of this dream would not have been possible had it not been for the encouragement of so many people. I sincerely appreciate the help that I received from the Department of Educational Leadership and Foundations of the McKay School of Education at Brigham Young University. Without exception, each member of this department has been gracious, kind, and helpful as I encountered what seemed to be insurmountable obstacles. I have worked with a wonderful committee comprised of Dr. Scott Ferrin, Dr. Steven Hite, Dr. Cliff Mayes, Dr. Buddy Richards, and Dr. Ellen Williams. Special thanks must go to Dr. Ferrin, my chair, who mentored me and encouraged me during the final phase of my studies. Quite simply, without his guidance, I would never have made it. I also need to give my sincere thanks to Dr. Steven Hite. He became part of my committee late in the game and helped me move forward with a second round of interviews and the analysis. Although not members of my committee, two other EDLF professors helped me immensely. Twice, Dr. Joe Matthews was the chair of my committee. I owe him much. Finally, Dr. Sterling Hilton has encouraged me unfailingly for the past five years when the way seemed impossible to navigate. Thank you to all of these amazing people.

Because I do not speak Spanish, I had to rely on Spanish-speaking individuals to conduct the parent interviews and translate them. Thanks to Ana Farias and Alex and Laura Rocha for doing the interviews. A hearty thanks goes to the following individuals who translated the Spanish interviews: Patrick McGee, Scott Ferrin, Lane Janke, and especially Mirsa Joosten, who translated all the original and some of the second-round parent interviews. Getting the

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

dissertation together in final form using the correct format is a daunting task. Thank you to Hilary Hendricks and Sam Garcia for sorting out the formatting issues.

I have been blessed in my life to have extraordinary women as mentors. Two must be mentioned. The first is my mother, Gladys Stoker Adams. Unlike her daughter, she does not have the benefit of extensive formal education, but she supports me in all my academic endeavors. I cherish every moment I have with her. The second is my junior English teacher, Faye M. Meier. It was her example that led me into education. So much of who I am as an educator and a student, I owe to her.

Without the love and support of my family, I would never have been able to achieve what I have done. Thank you to my husband, Patrick, who never holds me back but stands beside me and lovingly pushes me through the tough times. To our precious children, Kevin and Christopher and Marianne (who feels more like a daughter than a daughter-in-law), thank you. You make my life meaningful and rich. How grateful I am that Heavenly Father chose me to be your mother.

Finally, I recognize how blessed I am in every aspect of my life. I gratefully and humbly acknowledge the hand of a loving Father in Heaven in everything I do and everything I am. Without His guiding hand, influence, and love, I am nothing.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES ... xiv

LIST OF FIGURES ... xv

Chapter 1: Study Overviews ... 1

Theoretical Framework ... 3

Research Significance ... 3

Statement of the Problem ... 6

Statement of Purpose ... 7

Research Questions ... 7

Organization of the Dissertation ... 8

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature ... 9

Theoretical Foundations for the Study ... 10

Self-efficacy theory ... 10

Self-worth theory of achievement motivation ... 12

Self-esteem theory ... 13

Importance of cultural or ethnic identity ... 15

The Controversies Over Language Instruction ... 16

English-only advocates ... 17

Multi-language advocates ... 18

Identification of English-language learners ... 18

The Rapid Increase of English-Language Learners ... 19

Historical information ... 19

Immigration and language learners ... 20

Opportunities and challenges ... 20

Policy and Law Regarding English-Language Learners ... 21

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

The fourteenth amendment 22
Legislation 22
Civil rights legislation 22
The Bilingual Education Act 23
The Equal Educational Opportunities Act 23
Case law 23
Meyers v. Nebraska 24
Diana v. Board of Education 24
Keys v. School District No. 1 24
Lau v. Nichols 25
Castañeda v. Pickard 25
The Office of Civil Rights 26
Sanctions 27
Lau Remedies 27
Educational implications 27
Advocates of English-only instruction 28
Opponents of English-only instruction 29
Political implications of the language debate 30
First Language Acquisition 31
Second Language Acquisition 33
Complexity and length of second language acquisition 33
Similarities in second language acquisition theories 34
Linguistic systems of the beginning language learner 35
Stages of language acquisition 35
Knowledge transfer between languages 36

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Comprehensible input/output between teacher and language learner 39

Other Considerations in Second Language Acquisition 41

Error analysis 41

The controversy over error correction 42

Three Theories of Language Acquisition 43

Krashen's hypotheses 44

Acquisition-learning hypothesis 44

Natural order hypothesis 44

Monitor hypothesis 45

Input hypothesis 45

Affective filter hypothesis 45

Cummins' proficiency theory 46

Proficiency dimensions 46

Common underlying proficiency 48

Cognitive and contextual demands 48

Comprehensible input 50

Collier's prism model 50

Sociocultural processes 51

Linguistic processes 51

Academic development 51

Cognitive development 52

Distinguishing features of the prism model 52

Education of English Language Learners (ELLs) 54

Submersion 55

Sheltered immersion/instruction 55

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Sheltered Instruction Observational Protocol 56

Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English... 56

Bilingual education 56

Segregated language education.. 57

Transitional bilingual education 57

Developmental bilingual education 58

Two-way bilingual education 58

School district options.. 59

Effects of Programs Designed to Teach ELLs 62

Reported academic gains of English-language learners 62

Self-efficacy in English-language learners' perceptions of themselves 64

Self-esteem in English-language learners' perceptions of themselves 67

Cultural or ethnic identity in English-language learners' perceptions of themselves 69

Attitudes of ELLs' parents about their children's school experience 76

Summary of the Literature Review 78

Theories of second language acquisition 78

Program models 78

Research on non-academic effects.. 79

Self-efficacy of minority-language students 79

Self-esteem of minority-language students.. 80

Ethnic identity of minority-language students 81

Parental attitudes about bilingual or immersion programs 82

Chapter 3: Research Methodology...84

Research Questions 84

Delimitations 84

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

School type 85

Program characteristics (TWBE) 85

Teacher endorsement (SEI) 85

Time in the program 86

Study location 86

Type of interviews 86

Research Design 86

Qualitative methodology 87

Case study method 88

Data Collection 89

Purposive sampling 89

Interview questions 90

Data Sources 92

Archival records 92

Interviews 93

Study programs and interviewees 93

Program selection 93

Participant selection 94

Participant contact 95

Refinement of the Study 95

Data Analysis 97

Analyzing the interviews 97

Coding 97

Assaying and searching interview data 98

Developing conceptual models 99

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Analyzing the archival records 99

Student records 100

Staff and school records 100

Validity 100

Trustworthiness plan 101

Credibility 102

Transferability 103

Dependability 104

Confirmability 105

Triangulation 106

Authenticity 106

Fairness 106

Ontological authenticity 107

Catalytic and tactical authenticity 107

Ethics and bias 108

Ethics 108

Bias 109

Research procedures 110

Methods Summary 110

Chapter 4: Results 112

Demographics 112

City 112

School 113

Participants 116

Archival Search 118

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

State language proficiency assessment ... 118
State-required end-of-year assessments ... 124
Attendance records ... 125
Data from Semi-structured Student Interviews ... 125
Mastery experiences ... 130
Difficulties in school ... 131
Difficulties with Spanish ... 131
Student successes ... 134
Strategies for school success ... 136
Taking notes ... 136
Practice ... 137
Studying ... 138
Homework ... 139
Social or verbal persuasions ... 139
Physiological or affective factors ... 140
Summary of student interview data ... 141
Data from Semi-structured Parent Interviews ... 144
Mastery experiences ... 146
Language program ... 147
Success experiences ... 148
Vicarious experiences ... 151
Conclusion ... 154
Chapter 5: Discussion and Recommendations ... 156
Interpretation of Findings from Archival Search ... 156
Difference in year-end assessments ... 156

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Difference in attendance 158
Summary of differences in archival records 159
Interpretation of Findings from Semi-structured Student Interviews 159
Findings related to mastery experiences 159
Differences in self-reported difficulties in school 159
Differences in difficulties with Spanish 161
Differences in self-reported school success 163
Differences in strategies for school success 164
Note taking 164
Practice 165
Studying 165
Homework 165
Interpretation of differences in use of success strategies 166
Summary of differences in mastery experiences 166
Differences in self-reported social or verbal persuasions 166
Physiological or affective factors 167
Interpretation of Findings from Semi-structured Parent Interviews 168
Mastery experiences 168
Parent understanding of second-language acquisition 168
Parent attitudes about students' language progress 169
Selection of language program 169
Parent comments on Spanish and family relationships 170
Parent involvement in academic success strategies 170
Vicarious experiences 171
Comparison of parent perspectives on mastery and vicarious experiences 171

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Issues in Language Program Selection and Spanish Success 172

Limitations 175

Recommendations for Practitioners 176

Areas for Further Inquiry 177

Conclusion 180

References 183

APPENDIX A: SUBJECTIVITIES STATEMENT 208

APPENDIX B: ORIGINAL ENGLISH RECRUITMENT, PERMISSION, ASSENT, AND CONSENT FORMS 212

APPENDIX C: SPANISH TRANSLATION OF RECRUITMENT, PERMISSION, AND CONSENT FORMS 218

APPENDIX D: CURRENT IRB 223

APPENDIX E: ENGLISH INTERVIEW QUESTIONS 224

APPENDIX F: SPANISH TRANSLATION OF INTERVIEW QUESTIONS 230

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Comparison of Programs for English-Language Learners 61

Table 2. Racial and Ethnic Information of City....114

Table 3. Racial and Ethnic Information of Taylor Elementary during the 2009-2010 School Year 114

Table 4. Additional Enrollment Information for Taylor Elementary School during 2009-2010....114

Table 5. Attributes of Student Participants....121

Table 6. Attributes of Parent Participants....122

Table 7. English Language Proficiency for Sixth-Grade SEI Participants.....123

Table 8. English Language Proficiency for Fifth-Grade SEI Participant....126

Table 9. English Language Proficiency for Fifth-Grade TWBE Participant....126

Table 10. English Language Proficiency for Sixth-Grade TWBE Participants....127

Table 11. CRT Cut Scores by Program 128

Table 12. Attendance Records for Student Participants 129

Table 13. Bandura's Self-Efficacy Development Theory and Most Common Themes in Student Interviews....132

Table 14. Students' Self-ratings for Spanish Ability and Spanish Confidence 133

Table 15. Bandura's Self-Efficacy Development Theory and Most Common Themes in Parent Interviews....146

للاستشارات المنارة

www.manaraa.com

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Representation of Bandura's theory of self-efficacy development............................ 12

Figure 2. Cummins' common underlying proficiency. 38

Figure 3. Cummins' quadrants of learning... 49

Figure 4. "Acquiring a Second Language," by V. P. Collier 53

Figure 5. Similarities in student responses... 143

Figure 6. Differences in student responses.. 143

Figure 7. Similarities in parent responses.. 145

Figure 8. Differences in parent responses. 145

www.manaraa.com

Chapter 1: Study Overviews

Currently, demographic patterns in the United States are changing. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, Hispanics or Latinos comprised 11% of the total population of the United States in 2000, representing a 57.9% increase in that category since the 1990 census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). Furthermore, the Greater Tulsa Hispanic Chamber of Commerce (2009) reported that the 2006 estimated Hispanic population would be 15% of the nation's total population. Additionally, the chamber stated that 50% of individuals added to the United States population between July 1, 2005, and July 1, 2006, were of Hispanic origin. Because many Hispanic households include school-aged children who are learning English as a second language, the education community and policy makers need information about how best to teach these children. This dissertation provides some of that information.

This research is a qualitative case study comparing and investigating a two-way bilingual education (TWBE) program and a structured English immersion (SEI) program offered in the same school. The conceptual framework for the case study relied on Albert Bandura's (1977; 1986; 1997) work. Bandura's ideas provided a way to narrow the focus of the study so that I could compare and contrast the two groups. The study also examines the views of the children's parents about their children's abilities and education. This study is timely because of the changing demographics in the United States.

Mather and Pollard (2009) indicated that Latinos and Asians were the fastest growing minorities in the United States. Furthermore, they estimated that by 2042 the minority population would reach 50% in the country. With the minority population increasing so dramatically, college enrollment of Hispanics is also increasing. Sadly, though, the college-enrollment pattern of Hispanics is very different than that for the majority population. Haro (2008) presented

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

several discouraging statistics about the college experience of the nation's Hispanic students. Although more Hispanics were enrolled in higher education in 2002 than in previous years, 24% of those students were attending school part-time, while only 15% of their White peers were in similar circumstances. Furthermore, the largest proportion of the Hispanic higher-education population was not attending traditional four-year universities. Instead, they were attending two-year colleges, and they were older than the traditional college age of 18–24. Unfortunately, most of the Hispanic college population will never graduate from a four-year institution. Haro's information echoed that given by Nevarez (2001), when he reported that in 1998 only 11 percent of Latinos held college degrees. In other words, the outlook for Hispanics obtaining a post-secondary education at a four-year university was bleak in the 1990s and continues to be bleak today.

The path to graduation from a four-year university does not begin when students enter the university as freshmen. Long before students earn a bachelor's degree from a university, they must meet the requirements for admission imposed by an institute of higher learning. For most students, one requirement for college admission is the successful completion of secondary school. An examination of the Hispanic experience in high school revealed more discouraging news. Kaplan, Turner, and Badger (2007) wrote that Hispanic teenagers face greater stresses in high school than do their majority peers and that they "are three times more likely to drop out of high school than White or African American teens" (p. 175). As a public school educator, I find these statistics troubling because I am charged with the responsibility to provide successful learning opportunities to all students, not just those in the majority group.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Theoretical Framework

As I sought a theoretical framework to compare the two groups, I became familiar with Bandura's (1977, 1986) social learning theory, Covington's (1984) self-worth theory, and Rosenberg's (Rosenberg, Schooler, & Schoenbach, 1989) self-esteem theory. With help of committee members, I narrowed the theoretical framework to Bandura's work on self-efficacy, which forms part of his social learning theory. I made this decision because I needed a focus around which to center my study and I felt that self-efficacy showed promise to provide answers regarding Hispanic students' failure to perform as well as non-minority students. Furthermore, because the students in this study are English-language learners, I needed to situate the study in second language acquisition; therefore, I studied the language acquisition theories of Collier (1995), Cummins (1996), and Krashen (1982).

Research Significance

For the 2009–2010 scholastic year, 4,649,316 students in grades K through 12 in the United States were classified as English-language Learning (ELL) (ED Data Express, 2012). Various theorists have classified the problems facing minority students, including English-language learners, in the United States into four categories: an achievement gap, low self-appraisal, devaluation of their first language, and episodes of discrimination and harassment. Many researchers and authors (e.g., Gay, 2000; Hofstetter, 2004; Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003; M. G. López & Tashakkori, 2006; Pai, Adler, & Shadiow, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 1997b; Valdés, 1997; Viadero, 2001) consistently reported an achievement gap when comparing language-minority students to their English-majority peers. Using a statistical measurement to determine effect size, Greene (1998) indicated that the achievement gap between White and non-White students was one standard deviation. Additionally, Vang (2005) reported

www.manaraa.com

that many bilingual children are identified as being at-risk in educational attainment. Furthermore, he claimed that the at-risk label could be incorrect because not all students receive education involving high expectations. In other words, teachers do not have the same expectations for all their students. They actually expect some children to achieve less and do not provide the interventions and support necessary for these children to achieve at their optimal level. This phenomenon supports the famous Pygmalion Effect studies conducted in the 60s. Rhem (1999) summarizes the conclusions of these studies: "Simply put, when teachers expect students to do well and show intellectual growth, they do; when teachers do not have such expectations, performance and growth are not so encouraged and may in fact be discouraged in a variety of ways" (p. 1). In other words, if minority children do not have teachers who have high academic expectations for them, it is highly likely that these children will not achieve at the same level as their White peers. Additionally, Vang linked the underachievement of language-minority students to their lack of adequate academic language skills. Simply stated, without effective interventions, ELL students spent as many hours in school as their non-ELL peers and did not make the same kind of progress. That outcome affected their futures: the kinds of jobs they obtained, the kind of post-secondary education they received, and the kind of professional success they experienced.

According to some researchers (e.g., Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002; Pai et al., 2006; Phinney, 1992; Uszynska-Jarmoc, 2007), other outcomes—such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, and ethnic or cultural identity—are critical if students are to become productive, responsible, citizens capable of maneuvering in their cultures. For example, when children come to the United States with little or no English and are placed in an educational setting that has as one of its goals helping them to assimilate into the English-speaking culture as quickly as possible, that

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

goal often results in the loss of the native language, an important component of cultural identity (Feinauer, 2006). The loss of that language can be accompanied by a breakdown in communication between students and their family (Garcia, 2001). Takashashi-Breines (2002) stated that "language is directly related to one's culture and identity" (p. 499). Anzaldúa (as cited in Takahashi-Breines, 2002) contended: "Ethnic identity is twin to linguistic identity—I am my language" (p. 499). Therefore, when students lose their first language, they can lose their first culture. Bandura (2002) wrote about social cognitive theory in a cultural context. He discussed the cross-cultural theoretical generalizability of the theory and compared efficacy beliefs across cultural lines; however, he did not compare and contrast children from the same culture in different educational programs. I believe the cultural context in which the participants lived had an impact on their self-efficacy.

Wright and Bougie (2007) found that when English was the only language used in schools with language-minority students, the minority language became devalued while English became the status language. Thus, minority-language students reasonably inferred that English was the only way they acquired knowledge. Consequently, English-speaking students gained a superior status in the eyes of their language-minority peers. Certainly this phenomenon would impact self-efficacy.

Although Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) did not link harassment and discrimination to self-efficacy, I believe that this is another area that has an effect on students' self-efficacy. Minority students have reported incidents of harassment and discrimination because of their cultures (Benavides, 2002; Gibson, 1988; Waldschmidt, 2002). The effects of this type of treatment were devastating. "A variety of negative outcomes, including decreased personal and collective self-esteem, increased depressive symptoms, increased psychological distress, anxiety, and

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

somatization, decreased well-being and satisfaction with life, and risks of other health problems" (Wright & Bougie, 2007, p. 174) resulted from a person's self-perception as a target of discrimination. Although Wright and Bougie looked at the consequences of harassment and discrimination from a more holistic perspective (e.g., not from any specific frame of reference), Feinberg and Morencia (1998) looked at it from an educational frame of reference and stated that children who experienced discrimination and adversity have lower success rates in school. Such discrimination and adversity could potentially profoundly influence self-efficacy.

Although there is much research about the academic outcomes of ELL students, there is little research about the effects of using different models of instruction for them. Researching the outcomes of two different instructional approaches for English-language learners (ELLs) will add to the research that is currently available. Although there is a plethora of research about ELLs, including the kind of academic achievement they make in various program models, my review of the literature will show that there is a dearth of research on the non-academic outcomes resulting from the different types of programs schools use to instruct their ELLs. Since one of the ways Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) explains self-efficacy development is through the positive and negative experiences individuals have, the kinds of experiences produced in different models of instruction should theoretically have a direct influence on self-efficacy.

Statement of the Problem

Although researchers and educators use a variety of bilingual education and English-only approaches, a current trend in the United States is to move away from bilingual education, mandate an English-only instructional model using sheltered English instruction, and prohibit the use of any native language (L1) for instructional purposes with ELLs (e.g., Proposition 227, 1998, in California; Proposition 203, 2000, in Arizona; and Question 2, 2002, in Massachusetts).

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Advocates and researchers for both positions claim that they have right on their side. Those who support sheltered English instruction include Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2000); Rossell and Baker (1996); and U.S. English Foundation (2012). Those who support bilingual education included Willig (1987), Thomas and Collier (1997a), and Greene (1997). However most of the research to date has concentrated on the academic gains of ELLs. Therefore, researchers need to study the non-academic effects of education for language-minority students; for example, self-esteem, self-efficacy, cultural or ethnic identity, and parental attitudes.

Statement of Purpose

This study is designed to fill the gap in available research about the non-academic effects of two educational programs; specifically, the self-efficacy expressed by students and the attitudes of parents about their children's experiences. The results of the study will add to the literature regarding two of the most common programs adopted to meet the needs of ELLs: two-way bilingual education and structured English immersion.

Research Questions

The overarching question of this study is, "What, if any, non-academic student and parent effects are produced after participating for a minimum of five years in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual immersion program (TWBE) or an immersion/sheltered English program (SEI)?" To focus the question I reviewed the construct of self-efficacy development as defined by Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997), which includes personally experiencing success or failure in any given domain, seeing models, receiving feedback and experiencing psychological or affective factors. Specifically, the research attempted to answer two questions:

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

1. What are the differences and similarities in self-efficacy between students who have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual immersion program and students who have participated in an immersion/sheltered English program?
2. How do the attitudes of parents whose children have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual program compare with the attitudes of parents whose children have participated in an immersion/sheltered English program, in terms of satisfaction with their children's schooling?

Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is organized into five chapters. In Chapter 1, I introduce the topic and study. In Chapter 2, I review the existing literature on the topic. I use Chapter 3 to discuss the research methodology of the study. In Chapter 4, I present representative data that I collected while searching archival records and interviewing the participants. Because interviewing results in thick description of what the participants mean, I report much of this chapter in the participants' own words, or in the words of the interpreter, if the interview was conducted in Spanish. In Chapter 5, I discuss the themes and patterns that arose from analysis of the data, with recommendations for future practice.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

In order to compare these two programs, which represent two of the most common programs for meeting the needs of English-language learners (ELLs), I employed the construct of self-efficacy through Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) theory of self-efficacy development. Additionally, the study had to include references to the literature base and theories of language acquisition because all of the student participants were ELLs. Both the research and the literature base reviewed the attitudes of the parents because parents make educational choices for their children based on their own attitudes, theories, and knowledge.

Second language acquisition (SLA) and bilingual education have been studied for years. As evidence of that statement, on May 24, 2012, I searched the Proquest Research Library database for articles containing the phrase second language acquisition and the words research or study or studies in the document title. That search returned 32,168 articles published from 1995 to 2012. When I performed a similar ProQuest search but substituted bilingual education for second language acquisition, I identified 32,163 articles. During a third search, I used the phrase bilingual education and added attitudes or outcome(s) as research terms. This search returned 19,214 articles. A catalog search resulted in a list of 721 books with second language acquisition in the subject heading. The publication dates of these books ranged from 1964 to 2012. When I performed a subject catalog search using the words bilingual education, I found 1,065 books or reports published from 1943 to 2012.

This literature review begins with a discussion of Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) theory and will cite some of the surrounding theories that Bandura may have drawn upon. Bandura's work provides the theoretical support for undertaking this study. Next, the literature review discusses the controversy surrounding the language used to instruct English-language learners

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

(ELLs), and then proceeds to explore the need for English-language learning (ELL) programs. It then shifts to a discussion of the legal requirements associated with teaching ELLs, prominent theories of second language acquisition (SLA), and instructional models for ELLs. It concludes by looking at the research that has been conducted to identify some of the consequences of programs designed to teach ELLs.

Theoretical Foundations for the Study

Studying self-efficacy is interesting for me because I have heard throughout my career the importance of education and educators in facilitating its development. However, interest is not the critical factor; the critical factor is how this construct impacts the educational success of students. Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) self-efficacy theory, a component of his social learning theory, provided the base for my study. Also, because I believe that self-worth and self-esteem impact self-efficacy, I reviewed information about those two constructs (Covington, 1984; Rosenberg et al., 1989). Additionally, because minorities experience discrimination, which must have an impact on self-efficacy, I looked at strategies to help them deal with discrimination (Mossakowski, 2003; Wakefield and Hudley, 2005).

Self-efficacy theory. An important aspect of Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) social learning theory is self-efficacy. Bandura suggested that how individuals feel about their capacity to do tasks influences whether they attempt to do them. Self-efficacy is not the skill set people have; rather, it is the judgments they make about their ability to use the skills they have to accomplish something. Although self-esteem impacts self-efficacy, self-efficacy is not the same as self-concept or self-esteem. An important distinction between the two constructs is in the area of domain specificity. Self-efficacy is domain specific. For example, individuals can feel very good about themselves and believe that they are worthwhile individuals. These perceptions are

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

tied to a global view of the self. Self-efficacy, on the other hand does not address how individuals perceive themselves, only how they perceive their ability to do a given task in a specific domain. If individuals have low self-efficacy, they tend to avoid tasks that they believe they cannot do. However, having a positive perception of self-efficacy is not sufficient. Individuals need resources or equipment and incentives so that acting on their positive self-efficacy can be successful. Positive beliefs about capability lead to growth, while negative perceptions do not foster growth or development. Bandura suggested that a level of self-efficacy slightly higher than actual ability is best because it encourages individuals to expend effort and persist longer when encountering tasks that are difficult. It results in attainment of skills and capabilities. Low self-efficacy, on the other hand, causes people to give up and limits their growth.

Although children begin to learn about their self-efficacy in their homes as they react with parents and siblings, Bandura (1986) suggested that school is the primary location where children develop their cognitive efficacy and gain problem solving ability and the other skills necessary for them to function in society. “Students who develop a strong sense of self-efficacy are well equipped to educate themselves when they have to rely on their own initiative” (Bandura, 1986, p. 417).

There are several sources for self-efficacy development (see Figure 1). The most influential source is direct experience. If individuals are successful at their attempts to perform tasks, that increases their self-efficacy. Vicarious experience also affects self-efficacy. If individuals see others succeed, it helps them believe they can succeed as well. Another source of self-efficacy is verbal persuasion. Verbal persuasion is most effective on people who have some degree of belief that they can perform tasks successfully. A fourth source of self-efficacy is how

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

people feel when they perform certain tasks. For example, if doing something creates fear or anxiety, individuals will not want to repeat the experience. An important aspect of self-efficacy is that it is domain specific. This means that an individual can have high self-efficacy in one domain while having low self-efficacy in another. For example, I have high self-efficacy in the area of language, literature, and writing, while at the same time I have low self-efficacy in the areas of geometry, trigonometry, and other higher math skills.

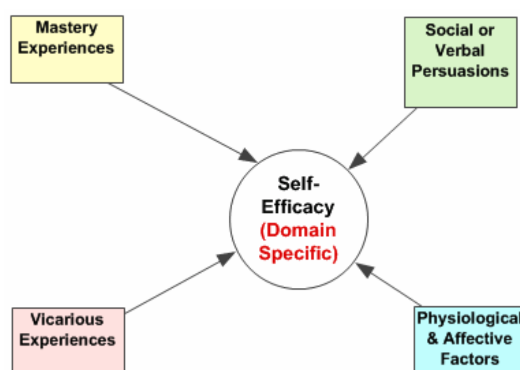

Figure 1. Representation of Bandura's theory of self-efficacy development.

All students, including ELLs, profit from an appropriate level of self-efficacy. A boost in self-efficacy for ELLs is particularly important because they are faced with the difficult challenge of learning a second language while working with grade-level content.

Self-worth theory of achievement motivation. Self-worth theory of achievement motivation is related to Bandura's (1977, 1986) self-efficacy theory because it assumes that classroom achievement has at its core the need for students to have and protect their self-worth, just as self-efficacy theory assumes that task completion has at its core the need for students to perceive that they can accomplish the task. This self-worth theory was developed in 1976 by Covington and Beery (Covington, 2004) and came from the cognitive learning position but also included a motivational component.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Covington (1984) stated that “it is widely recognized in our society that personal worth depends largely on one's accomplishment” (p. 8). Failure causes feelings of worthlessness and social disapproval. Furthermore, individuals’ perceptional beliefs about their own successes and failures are an important element of their self-definition. Therefore, how people perceive their abilities is a potent activator of achievement. People are motivated to achieve both to strengthen their reputation for having the ability to achieve and to reap the benefits of success. “In summary, self-worth theory assumes that much of student achievement behavior is best understood in terms of attempts to sustain a reputation of competency, and hence worth” (p. 11).

According to Covington (1984), how individuals perceive the interaction of effort and ability produces their self-worth. In younger children, more emphasis is placed on effort than on ability. Therefore, if children fail at a task, they attribute it to a lack of effort, not ability. By middle school, students begin to attribute their successes or failures to ability. Consequently, low-ability individuals must find ways to protect their sense of worth. Hence, according to Covington, “the most important task facing the teacher is to instruct students in ways that keep a growing preoccupation with ability from interfering with students' willingness to learn” (p. 16).

Self-worth is important for all individuals. Self-worth is what keeps people willing to work hard, take risks, and continue striving to accomplish difficult tasks. For ELLs, if one instructional method fosters the development of self-worth, that additional self-worth may help them continue working to gain both academic and linguistic success.

Self-esteem theory. Although self-esteem is not included in my study and is considered a different construct by Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997), I did an in-depth study of self-esteem because I believe how individuals feel about themselves supports the development of self-efficacy. Bandura supports this idea because he said that one avenue of self-efficacy

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

development is through physiological and affective factors that individuals experience when they do tasks. Hewitt (2003) supported this idea by identifying consequences of low self-esteem:

> Low self-esteem implies a high level of anxiety—a state of apprehension or psychic tension. Low levels of self-esteem are associated with more frequent reports of psychosomatic symptoms, such as insomnia, nervousness, fingernail biting, and sweaty hands . . . . Low self-esteem is also linked to depression (p. 125).

These are examples of the negative physiological reactions individuals might have when doing certain tasks; physiological responses that could lead to lower self-efficacy. Hewitt also included in his writings on self-esteem the importance of success. He said "self-esteem is influenced by the 'ratio' of success to pretension" (p. 117). Stated differently, the more individuals aspire to certain accomplishments or standards, the more actual successes they must experience in order for them to feel worthy. This concept is also an important construct in Bandura's self-efficacy model.

I also reviewed the writings of Rosenberg and colleagues (1989), who wrote that "self-esteem is a fundamental human motive [and] there exists a universal desire among human beings to protect and enhance their feelings of self-regard" (p. 1006). They theorized that self-esteem formation includes reflected appraisals (how individuals feel about themselves is influenced by the judgments of others), social comparison, and self-attribution. Two of those concepts—reflected appraisals and social comparisons—equate to the constructs of Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) self-efficacy model, verbal or social feedback, and physiological or affective factors. Therefore, because there is an intertwining of self-esteem and self-efficacy, it was important that I learn about both.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Importance of cultural or ethnic identity. As stated earlier, Bandura (2002) looked at social cognitive theory, including self-efficacy, in a cultural context and concluded that culture was important to his theories. In my study, culture is important to self-efficacy development, particularly in the domain of Spanish, because parents made significant choices about their children's education such as which program to enroll them in. Some of these parents used culture as the impetus for doing what they did. Parents have some interior construct by which they make educational choices for their children. Those choices impact the self-efficacy of their children. For example, Kemppainen, Ferrin, Ward, and Hite (2004) concluded that parental attitudes influence the educational choices parents make for their children. Another cultural or ethnic factor that I studied that potentially could impact students' self-efficacy included being the targets of ethnic discrimination (Feinberg & Morencia, 1998; Gibson, 1998; McBrien, 2005; Mossakowsky, 2003; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005; Wright & Bougie, 2007). Discrimination has a negative impact on those who are in minority groups and who experience discrimination. For example, Feinberg and Morencia (1998) reported that discrimination resulted in lower success rates and higher adversity, while Mossakowski (2003) wrote that perceived discrimination can have negative effects on self-concept. Furthermore, Gibson (1988) maintained that how a minority group does in school is impacted by the prejudice and discrimination the group encounters and by how it perceives the racial and ethnic conflict, as well as by the group's response to that conflict. Clearly, the perception of discrimination produces negative effects on students.

Two studies reported that a strong cultural or ethnic identity could help those who perceive themselves as targets of discrimination. Wakefield and Hudley (2005) discovered that among the Black public high school students they examined, possessing "a strong, achieved

www.manaraa.com

ethnic identity may provide guidance for youth confronting discriminatory treatment" (p. 252). They speculated that "these results may generalize to adolescents of other marginalized ethnic minority groups in urban settings (e.g., Mexican American and Central American)" (p. 252). In another study, Mossakowski (2003) found that ethnic identity acts as a buffer for the stresses of perceived discrimination. Additionally, "ethnic identity itself has a strong association with fewer depressive symptoms" (Mossakowski, p. 325). This is a direct link to the physiological and affective components of Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) self-efficacy model.

The importance of ELLs possessing a strong ethnic or cultural identity is self-evident. If a stronger cultural or ethnic identity results from a program model, it is worth considering that model because

> Racial and ethnic discrimination is a thriving part of the American macro culture, and there is no assurance that such behaviors will abate any time soon. Thus, ethnic minority children will quite likely encounter acts of discrimination during their lives, and they must develop skills to successfully cope with such behavior and maintain optimal levels of mental health and self-esteem. (Wakefield & Hudley, 2005, p. 252)

The Controversies Over Language Instruction

Schools do not work in a vacuum. There are a multitude of macro and micro political tensions that produce controversies through which school personnel must navigate. For example, at the school where I did the study, there were tensions between the personnel who taught the bilingual classes and those who taught the regular classes. On a larger scale, the school bilingual program is embedded in a larger political struggle over how ELLs should be taught. Surely these micro- and macro-political tensions impact the work of the school and have the potential to

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

affect the self-efficacy of the children because of the messages, overt or covert, that children receive about their abilities, their language, and their culture.

Currently in the United States, there are two major camps regarding how English should be taught to English-language learners. The first camp is made up of those who advocate using an English-only method for teaching English. The second camp takes a less restrictive stance and favors using students' first languages as resources for English-language learning. The approach of the second camp could be called less nativist; that is, the second camp hesitates in promoting English over the language of immigrants and minorities.

English-only advocates. Several organizations take an English-only position. The organization U.S. English claims to be "the nation's oldest, largest citizens' action group dedicated to preserving the unifying role of the English language in the United States" (U.S. English, 2008, ¶1). This group wants an official English language policy in the United States and has the passage of such legislation paramount on its agenda. An associated organization, U.S. English Foundation (2012), maintained that for ELLs to get ahead socially and academically, they must learn English quickly. Researchers and authors who support this position include Keith Baker (1998), Christine Rossell and Julia Kuder (2004), and Ron Unz (One Nation / One California, 1997). These individuals and organizations consider using a minority language and culture in education as a liability.

Legislators in the state where this study took place follow what Olssen, Codd, and O'Neill (2004) call neoliberalism: These lawmakers support individual rights, are against bilingual education, including two-way bilingual education programs, and want a tough policy on undocumented individuals living in the state. Within the school district there are individuals who support this position. Obviously this situation creates an interesting context in which the

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

bilingual program in this study functions. This school is attempting to provide services that fly in the face of what politicians and policy makers say they want.

Multi-language advocates. At the opposite end of the continuum are those individuals who look at minority languages as resources. Among researchers and educators supporting this position are Tove Skutnabb-Kangas (1976), James Crawford (1997, 1998, 1999, 2000), Jim Cummins (1996, 1999, 1999-2003), Virginia Collier and Wayne Thomas (Collier & Thomas, 2004; Thomas & Collier, 1997a, 1997b), Jay P. Greene (1997, 1998), Stephen D. Krashen (1982, 1999a, 1999b), Carlos Ovando (2003), and Sonia Nieto (2005). These researchers advocate maintaining the students' primary languages and using them as one resource in the children's education.

Identification of English-language learners. No matter their voters' stance on minority languages, states must have a plan for identifying the English-language learners in their schools. Zehr (2009) provided information on the criteria the fifty states and the District of Columbia used to identify and educate ELLs. For the 2008–2009 scholastic year, all 51 relied on an English Language Proficiency assessment to help determine ELLs. Additionally, 49 used a home-language survey. The number of questions on the language survey varies from state to state. For example, in the district where I am employed, the survey asks parents to answer several questions about the language(s) used in the home, the language spoken most by the student, and the student's first language. Not all states are as thorough in their attempts to identify ELLs. For example, Arizona asks one question: "What is the primary language of the student?" (Goldenberg & Quach, 2010, p. 5).

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

The Rapid Increase of English-Language Learners

Data collected by schools and censuses over time show that the number of English-language learners in the United States continues to grow. This growth incorporates learners of all ages and correlates with higher percentages of immigrants in the U.S. population over the last several decades.

Historical information. Many authors (e.g., Banks, 2000; Brock, 2001; Camarota, 2002; Dong, 2004; Garcia, 2001; Mikow-Porto et al., 2004; Senesac, 2002; Watts-Taffe & Truscott, 2000) documented the rapid increase in America's English-language learners. An examination of the 2000 census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000) revealed that during the decade spanning from 1990 to 2000, the U.S. Hispanic population increased by 50%. Most of the increase was concentrated in the Southwest of the country; however, New York City had the highest percentage of Hispanic individuals residing within one city. Shin (2003) wrote that 17.9% of the population of the United States five years old or older spoke a language other than English at home. This figure was 4.1% higher than it was in 1990. Furthermore, he indicated that of the nearly 18% of Americans who speak a language other than English at home, 8.1% of these individuals reported speaking English less than well. In addition, there was a shift in the area of nativity of foreign-born individuals living in the United States, from Europe to other areas of the world (Malone, Baluja, Costanzo, & Davis, 2003).

Information coming from the 2010 census indicated a continued increase in the Hispanic population (Ennis, Rios-Vargas, & Albert, 2011). During the last decade, Hispanics in the U.S. increased by more than 15 million. This represents a 43% increase and was four times larger than the growth of the total population of the country. Furthermore, Hispanics who listed their country of origin as Mexico increased by over 50%, representing more than 11 million people. As in the

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

2000 census, New York City had the highest concentration of Hispanics, although among states, California and Texas had the highest concentration of Hispanics.

Immigration and language learners. Camarota (2002) reported that immigrants represented 11.5% of the population of the United States in 2002. This was the highest percentage since 1930. Additionally, the number of immigrants was at an all-time high, 33.1 million in 2002 contrasted to 19.8 million in 1990 and 31.1 million in 2000.

Parkerson and Parkerson (2001) reported that as immigration increased, demographics changed. Mikow-Port, Humphries, Egelson, O'Connell, Teague, and Rhim (2004) indicated that one demographic change is that by the year 2030, approximately 40% of school children will be English-language learners or students whose first language is not English.

Opportunities and challenges. With this demographic shift will come opportunities and challenges. The greatest opportunity is that this shift provides citizens of the United States reasons to become literate in other languages. Among the enormous challenges are meeting the needs of ELL students and promoting a healthy appreciation of linguistic and cultural diversity.

With the non-English speaking population increasing, the impact on education was dramatic. Several authors provided evidence of this claim. For example, Watts-Taffe and Truscott (2000) wrote that 85% of ELLs are in mainstream classes with little or no support. Senesac (2002) stated that many ELLs come from disadvantaged socio-economic environments, thus placing these students more at risk than their non-ELL peers. In other words, this situation causes additional burdens on the school system as it tries to provide language acquisition support and mitigate the at-risk factors facing these students.

Thomas and Collier (1997b) spoke of the achievement gap between ELL and non-ELL students. Although these authors do not explicitly state that the achievement gap creates an

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

impact on education, in the No Child Left Behind era, this gap becomes problematic as the law requires that all students, including ELLs, make adequately yearly progress. Zelasko (1998) insisted, “More than 3.5 million students presently enrolled in schools throughout America [are] trying to learn math, science, or social studies [and] can’t understand the language the teacher is using!” (p. 11). Without question, these children need help. However, before discussing what types of programs are available to help these children, educators must understand how legislation, policy and case law affect ELLs.

Policy and Law Regarding English-Language Learners

Regardless of whether individuals do or do not support providing services to ELLs, there are legal rights and duties regarding these students. The following legal analysis is to help readers understand the programs associated with educating ELLs and to stress that there are legal precedents that give us duties to serve these students with some appropriate action. Such legal aspects contribute to the ongoing public controversy. Many parents receive information and misinformation from media sound bites about the educational programs designed to help children learn English. The parents may very well use this knowledge to make educational decisions for their children. Those decisions, in turn, may impact both the parents’ and students’ views of their own self-efficacy. Education does not happen in a vacuum. These swirling ideas are part of the educational milieu and play a role in the formation of self-efficacy beliefs.

In discussing language rights of ELLs, Baltodano (2005) claimed that several key sources for linguistic rights are available: The Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution, Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1965, case law prior to *Lau* and resulting from the *Lau* and *Castañeda* holdings, the Lau Remedies, and state educational codes. The Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 also provides protection for English-language learners, as do several other pieces of

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

legislation and the legislatively created Office of Civil Rights, with its sanctions for districts that fail to comply.

The fourteenth amendment. On July 9, 1868, the United States Congress ratified the fourteenth amendment of the United States Constitution. This amendment guaranteed that ELLs who are citizens of the United States enjoy equal protection under all the laws of the country. A cursory examination of the amendment seemed to indicate that the protection of this amendment did not include undocumented ELLs; however, in writing the opinion of the Supreme Court in Plyler v. Doe, 457 U.S. 202 (1982), Justice Brennen explicitly stated that interpreting this amendment to exclude undocumented residents was inaccurate. The question with which the Plyler Court had to grapple was whether the fourteenth amendment allowed Texas to refuse an education to undocumented children. The U.S. Supreme Court upheld the decisions of the lower courts that withholding education from undocumented individuals was a violation of the Equal Protection Clause.

Legislation. Baltodano (2005) suggested that the second source of language rights is legislation. Several pieces of legislation enacted in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s impacted the education of English-language learners.

Civil rights legislation. Protection for ELLs was found in Civil rights legislation. Cummins (1996) maintained that *Brown v. Board of Education*, 347 U.S. 483 (1954) applied to English-language learners as it applied to Blacks because ELLs were segregated from their native-English-speaking peers. Another organizational shift occurred in 1964 with the enactment of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. Yudof, Kirp, Levin, and Moran (2002) indicated that the change "shifted the burden of litigation from minority litigants to the federal government" (p. 468), thus

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

making it easier for minorities to use the legal system to correct injustices perpetrated against them.

The Bilingual Education Act. In 1965 President Lyndon B. Johnson signed into law the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) (National Education Association, 2002–2008), containing federal education requirements. Two years later, Senator Ralph Yarborough of Texas introduced legislation that would become Title VII of the ESEA and was known as the Bilingual Education Act (BEA). Although Congress enacted the Title VII legislation without dissent in 1968, it proved to be controversial for a number of reasons. First, it was a compromise between those wanting bilingual education and those who were opposed to it. Second, the BEA lacked adequate funding; consequently, only a few programs could be supported. Third, Congress passed the legislation without articulating what the Act's goals were. In 2002, the BEA was supplanted with the Bush Administration's No Child Left Behind legislation (Crawford, 2002).

The Equal Educational Opportunities Act. The Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA) was part of the 1974 amendments to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Bruner, 2010). The provisions of the act protect all children and provide them with a non-discriminatory education. An important aspect of the EEOA is that it reaffirms that individual educational entities cannot deliberately segregate children or fail to provide language assistance to those whose education is hampered by language barriers. Additionally, it provides remedies through civil suits if individuals have experienced discrimination in the past.

Case law. Decisions handed down by the courts have impacted the education of ELLs. Although many holdings have influenced how ELLs are educated, discussing all of them is beyond the scope of this literature review. Rather, I will discuss Meyers v. Nebraska, 262 U.S.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

390, 43 S.Ct.625, 67 L.Ed. 1042 (1923); Diana v. Board of Education, C.A. No. C70-37 R.F.P (N.D. Cal. 1970); Keyes v. School District No. 1, 414U.S. 883, 94 S.Ct. 27, 38 L.Ed.2d 131 (1973); Lau v. Nichols, 414 U.S. 563 (1974); Castañeda v. Pickard, 648 F.2d 989, 5th Circuit (1981); and Plyler v. Doe , 457 U.S. 202 (1982). The holdings in these cases have played a major role in shaping education for English-language learners for nearly one hundred years.

Meyers v. Nebraska. In the early part of the twentieth century, Nebraska had a statute that prohibited school teachers from instructing in any language but English. The statute imposed criminal penalties on any public or private educator who taught languages other than English to students below the high school level. If this statute had not been overturned, bilingual education would not have been allowed. The Supreme Court in *Meyer v. Nebraska,* 262 U.S. 390, 43 S.Ct.625, 67 L.Ed. 1042 (1923), held that this practice was not constitutional.

Diana v. Board of Education. In addition to *Plyler*, other court cases provided protection and assistance to ELLs. The 1970 case of *Diana v. Board of Education*, CA 70 RFT (N.D. Cal. 1970) resulted because a child was given an aptitude test administered in a non-native language for placement in an educable mentally retarded class. The case was settled by stipulation of the parties (Yudof et al., 2002). No longer could educators place ELL children in special education classes based on the results of tests performed in English. Now they were required to test them in both their native language and English. Additionally, educators had to minimize the use of verbal and general information tests, as those measures were biased against non-English-speaking children.

Keys v. School District No. 1. *Keys v. School District No. 1,* 414U.S. 883, 94 S.Ct. 27, 38 L.Ed.2d 131 (1973) involved de facto segregation in education. Although Denver never had statutes that required segregation of its school children, segregation resulted, nonetheless, by the

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

practices of the district. For example, school attendance zones were manipulated so that the effect was racial and/or ethnic segregation. The Supreme Court held that even when statutes and laws do not require segregation but it results from policies of the school districts themselves, the boards of education must develop and implement plans to desegregate the schools.

Lau v. Nichols. In 1974, The United States Supreme Court handed down a landmark decision, *Lau v. Nichols,* 414 U.S. 563 (1974). This case has had far-reaching effects on how educators teach English-language learners. The background for this case was straightforward. A large number of Chinese-speaking children were not receiving the benefit of their public education because they could not understand the language of instruction. Their parents joined in a class-action suit against the school district, seeking a remedy for their children.

In writing the decision, Justice Douglas stated, "There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education." In writing a concurring opinion, Justice Blackmun indicated the seriousness of the situation by pointing out that 1800 students were being denied the benefit of education simply because they could not understand the language of instruction. "In retrospect, the Lau decision can be seen as the most important and enduring legal symbol through which the civil rights of language-minority students will continue to be deliberated in the years to come" (Ovando, 2003, p. 9).

Castañeda v. Pickard. Another court case provided additional help in determining if districts were meeting the requirements of *Lau. Castañeda v. Pickard* 648 F.2d 989, 5th Circuit (1981), established a three-prong test that probes theory, practice, and results to determine if a district is in compliance with the Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA) (Education Alliance, 2006). The three prongs of *Castañeda* took the form of three questions:

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

1. Is the educational practice of the district based on sound educational theory?
2. Can the program selected by the district be implemented?
3. After employing the program for a sufficient amount of time, does it produce results?

In the holding, the court left many decisions to educators. It allowed each school district to determine what theory it will use, how that theory will be implemented, and how the results will be measured. Additionally, the court did not specify what sanctions would follow if a district did not comply with one or more one of the prongs.

Later the plaintiffs in *Castañeda* appealed to the Fifth Circuit Court, claiming that the school district had not implemented a bilingual education program and that the district's student grouping arrangements and classroom assignments were discriminatory. The Fifth Circuit Court upheld the district court's holding that these practices were not discriminatory. In the holding, the court stated that states do not need to provide bilingual education programs in order to meet the requirements of EEOA. This case is known as *Castañeda II,* 781 F.2d 456, 465 n.11 (5th Cir.1986).

The Office of Civil Rights. A major reform occurred once the Civil Rights Act of 1964 shifted the burden of litigation from individuals to a government agency. No longer did individuals belonging to a minority group have the burden of suing by themselves. The legislative branch of the federal government placed itself in a position to bring educational access and equity to marginalized populations. Providing educational access and equity is done by mandate, as the federal government has the authority and power to impose sanctions against school districts that fail to comply with the law.

The Office of Civil Rights (OCR), a sub-agency of the United States Department of Education, is the enforcement arm of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act, which prohibits

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

discrimination on the basis of national origin, race, or color. The office also acts as the enforcement agency for districts that fail to meet the *Castañeda* tests, as it is empowered to investigate any entity receiving federal funds.

Sanctions. One of the most powerful sanctions that OCR is empowered to impose is the withdrawal of federal monies from educational agencies that practice discrimination. Title 42 § 2000d of the United States Code provides the legal authority to withhold federal funds. The *OCR Case Resolution and Investigation Manual* (Office of Civil Rights, 2005) provides detailed information about how complaints could be lodged, how investigations proceed, how complaints are resolved, and what constitutes an OCR compliance review. Currently, the Office for Civil Rights continues to encourage districts and schools to meet their obligation to select appropriate programs for teaching language minority students or face serious sanctions.

Lau Remedies. In 1975, the Office of Civil Rights issued a set of guidelines that became known as the Lau Remedies. These remedies helped educators identify the language proficiency level of their ELLs, professional standards for teachers, appropriate teaching strategies, and the importance of moving ELLs into mainstream classes (Ovando, 2003).

Although the Lau Remedies never became part of the federal registry, they became the standards that OCR used to determine compliance with the *Lau* holding. The importance of the remedies can be illustrated. Of the 359 compliance reviews of school district plans negotiated between 1975 and 1980, the majority of them used the remedies. They were also used by courts in determining holdings for cases falling under Title VI and the EEOA (Lyons, 1992).

Educational implications. The case law and legislation discussed above clearly indicated that it is mandatory for school districts to do something to aid English-language learners, but none of the legislation and case law was prescriptive. School districts have wide

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

latitude in designing and implementing programs for ELLs; however, the courts and legislation have limited the autonomy of school districts. For example, districts must follow the mandate of *Lau,* the three prongs of *Castañeda,* and the guidelines coming from OCR. Simply stated, a school district cannot whimsically decide to do *something* for its ELLs without following policy, case law, and current legislation. Once a school district is in compliance, it has total autonomy for designing and implementing a program to meet the needs of its ELL population.

Lau's non-prescriptive decision and OCR's interpretation that *Lau* mandated transitional bilingual education unless districts could prove that the programs they were using were just as effective created controversy in the media and in educational circles. The public outcry sparked the drawing of battle lines between those who thought children could not learn in a language they do not understand and those who believed that the only way to learn English is to have maximum exposure to it.

Advocates of English-only instruction. Those who believed that children must have maximum exposure to English in order to learn it included Dr. John Tanton and Senator S. I. Hayakawa. Together they formed and supported U.S. English, an organization devoted to pushing the English-only agenda (U.S. English, 2008; Southern Poverty Law Center, 2002). Larry Pratt, another English-only proponent, organized English First (Draper & Jiménez, 1996). Ron Unz established a third organization, English for the Children (One Nation / One California, 1997). Parrillo (2008) claimed that the goal of organizations such as these was to promote an English-only agenda in schools and government. They also wanted to outlaw bilingual education. Because of Unz, California passed Proposition 227 that outlawed bilingual education (One Nation / One California, 1997). In addition to organizations promoting an English-only agenda, neo-conservative academics warned of the dangers of cultural diversity and sounded the trump to

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

stop the infiltration of diversity and bilingual education (Cummins, 1996). This drive culminated in voters overwhelmingly supporting referenda such as Proposition 227 (1998) in California and Proposition 203 (2000) in Arizona (One Nation / One California, 1997).

Opponents of English-only instruction. Those opposed to the English only movement believed that when communities pushed for English-only programs, they were sending a serious message to minority-language students: their language was “a kind of social problem to be identified, eradicated, alleviated, or in some other way resolved” (Garcia, 2001, p. 52), or that the students themselves had deficits (Pai et al., 2006). Moreover, Lee (2006) claimed that a prevalent idea was that in order to be American, a person must speak English. He suggested that the English-only movement is attempting to equate English with Americanism. Schecter, Sharken-Taboada, and Bayle (1996) also claimed that the loss of the native language was viewed as a positive event by policy makers and educators and regarded as a step toward Americanization.

While the authors mentioned above strongly support using a child’s first language as the language of instruction and recognize the harm that children experience when they are denied access to their first language, other authors looked at denying a child the right to his or her mother tongue as a form of human rights violation. For example, Skutnabb-Kangas (2004a, 2004b, 2010), emerita professor at the University of Roskilde, Denmark, is a linguist and human rights activist who views the loss of languages not only as a tragedy but as a form of genocide. In the keynote speech she presented at the University of California, Davis, in 2010, Skutnabb-Kangas used two of the five definitions of genocide from the United Nations International Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide (E793, 1948; 78 U.N.T.S. 277) to support her claim that disallowing individuals to use their mother tongue is genocide. Those two definitions read as follows: “Article II(b) Causing serious bodily or mental

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

harm to members of the group; [and] Article II(e) Forcibly transferring children of the group to another group" (E793, 1948; 78 U.N.T.S. 277). She also claimed that when *big* languages are learned subtractively (i.e., when the dominant language is taught without the perseveration of the first language), the big languages become *killer* languages (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2006). Using that definition, English becomes a killer language when it is used at the cost of the mother tongue, and proponents become supporters of the practice.

Political implications of the language debate. The outcome of the debate about how to teach ELLs was that language became an important political issue (A. Ochoa & Cadiero-Kaplan, 2004). Evidence that this debate has no end in sight was the sentiment expressed by a prominent English-only advocate Keith Baker (2007), who wrote in an editorial published in *The Salt Lake Tribune*, "Languages are a cultural artifact, and cultural artifacts disappear because the world is a better place without them. . . . The only problem with losing a few languages is that it is not enough." Unfortunately, Baker did not acknowledge the power of language, as articulated by Akkari (1998):

> Language is a political instrument in that it provides a means and proof of power. It is the most salient and crucial key to identity. Language reveals the private identity and connects one with, or divorces one from, the larger public or communal identity. (p. 115)

Nor did Baker acknowledge that families suffer disruptions when children are forced to learn English and lose their first language (Garcia, 2001; Nieto, 2005). Baker's argument, along with arguments common to the English-only side, promulgate serious misunderstandings about how languages—both first and second—are learned and maintained.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

First Language Acquisition

How well children use language impacts self-efficacy; therefore, a discussion of first and second language acquisition is in order. Acquiring a language is an important, fascinating aspect of human development. Children all over the world possess the ability to learn language as infants and toddlers. Furthermore, there seems to be no limit to the language-learning capacity of children. Additionally, language learners pass through similar stages regardless of the language being learned. Included in the list of items children need to learn are grammatical morphemes (e.g., items such as plurals, articles, past tense, etc.), negation, and questioning (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

Although most linguists agree on what children learn, they do not agree on how language is learned. There are three major theories of how language is learned. First is the behaviorist approach. According to the online edition of the *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, an important element of behaviorism is that "behavior can be described and explained without making reference to mental events or to internal psychological processes. The sources of behavior are external (in the environment), not internal (in the mind)" (Graham, 2005, "What Is Behaviorism?" section, ¶ 4). Behaviorism is the result of "imitation, practice, reinforcement, and habit formation" (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 35).

A second theory for first language acquisition is innatism. According to this theory,

> human beings are born with the knowledge that languages are patterned and with the ability to seek out those patterns. [This knowledge may contain] some core of characteristics common to all languages, such as the concepts of 'noun' and 'verb' [and] are called linguistic universals. (Cipollone, Keiser, & Vasishth, 1998, p. 267)

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

It is these inborn characteristics, the innatists claimed, that permitted individuals to acquire language. One innatist theorist, Noam Chomsky, claimed that from birth, children's minds contain the ability to discover the underlining principles and rules of grammar. He called this ability the language acquisition device (LAD). Later, he dropped the usage of LAD and came to refer to the process whereby children innately pick up the rules of grammar as the concept of Universal Grammar (UG) (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). The underlying epistemology of UG states that properties within the human brain make it possible for languages to be mentally represented. These properties constitute universal principles (Gass & Selinker, 1994).

A third theory for first language acquisition is interactionism. Supporters of this theory believe that language develops because of the interaction between the human characteristics of the language learner and the environment in which he or she develops. Child-directed speech, (i.e., speech that is modified so that the child can understand it more easily), is critical. Interactionists tend to see the acquisition of speech as similar to the acquisition of other skills and knowledge. They also believe that speech development is influenced by the development of these other abilities. One prominent interactionist is Jean Piaget, who saw language as a symbol system that is developed in childhood. Lev Vygotsky is another interactionist who claimed that language development results from social interaction. He taught that the concept of *zone of proximal development* (i.e., the difference between what a child can learn in interaction with others compared to doing it on his own), explained optimal learning of all things, including language. Vygotsky theorized that all learning takes place in this zone (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

Whatever the mechanism of first language acquisition, it is clear that children's minds have the capacity to learn, differentiate, and use multiple languages. Second language acquisition

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

shares some of the properties of first language acquisition, but the process takes longer and seems to differ from learner to learner, based on many innate and environmental factors (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

Second Language Acquisition

All of the student participants in the study were ELLs. During the study I asked questions about their perceived abilities in both languages. Because their mastery experiences in the two languages impact their self-efficacy, an understanding of second language acquisition is in order. Additionally, although I did not expect parents to be familiar with second language acquisition theories, I did ask them about their perceptions of how the language program their children were in during elementary impacted the children's self-efficacy. Therefore, a discussion of second language acquisition is important.

The theories that have been developed to explain second language acquisition (SLA) are similar to the theories for first language acquisition. For example, some of them stress the learner's innate abilities while others put emphasis on the role of environment (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Although the knowledge surrounding second language acquisition (SLA) has increased in recent years, SLA remains a complicated, complex process about which relatively little is known (Hinkel, 2005). However the individual theories of SLA may differ, one common understanding is the complexity and length involved in SLA.

Complexity and length of second language acquisition. Scholars (e.g., Cummins, 1999-2003; Gass & Selinker, 1994; Hinkel, 2005) who work in the area of SLA acknowledged the complexity and length involved in SLA. Gass and Selinker (1994) explained that SLA is a construct in which the focus is attempting to understand the processes involved in learning a second language. They claimed that this process "impacts . . . and draws from many other areas

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

of study, among them . . . psychology, psycholinguistics, sociology, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, conversational analysis, and education" (p. 1). To illustrate how complex the task of second language acquisition is, Crawford (1999) stated,

> According to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, "only 3 percent of American high school graduates, and only 5 percent of our college graduates, reach a meaningful proficiency in a second language—and many of these students come from bilingual homes." (p. 117)

Van Lier (2005) added that second language acquisition is a "protracted affair, taking much longer than is commonly assumed" (p. 202).

Those who become literate in their mother tongue have mastered four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. In order to become literate in a second language, those four skills must be mastered in the new language (Ellis, 2005). Although Ellis discussed the skills that must be learned in general terms, others wrote about the specifics involved in SLA. Among the skills Gass and Selinker (1994) identified are learning a new phonology (sound system), a syntax (word order), a morphology (word formation), the lexicon (word combinations), semantics (meaning), and pragmatics (contextual use of language). Cummins (1996) provided the "three dimensions of language proficiency" (p. 64). The first dimension is social language; the second dimension is discrete language skills such as sound-symbol relationships; and the third dimension is academic language. These three dimensions will be discussed in more detail later in the chapter. Clearly, educators need an understanding of the complexity and skill development involved in SLA in order to be prepared to work with ELLs.

Similarities in second language acquisition theories. Many researches (e.g., Collier, 1995; Haynes, 2005; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Pica, 2005) have discovered commonalities

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

within the theories of SLA. These similarities include the beginning linguistic system, stages of language development, knowledge transfer, and comprehensible input/output between teacher and language learner.

Linguistic systems of the beginning language learner. As individuals learn a second language, they create a linguistic system that contains elements of both their first language (L1) and second language (L2). This linguistic system is error laden and contains a structure that the learner imposes. This linguistic structure is known as interlanguage (IL) (Gass & Selinker, 1994). Lightbown and Spada (1999) described the IL as the second language learner's language. It may contain items characteristic of both the first and second languages as well as items that appear in most IL systems. Pica (2005) stated that "because interlanguages are systematic, they follow rules and patterns that change over the course of L2 development, but do so in patterned ways" (p. 265). What Lightbown and Spada, Gass and Selinker, and Pica claimed is that those who are learning a second language develop an IL that follows certain patterns and changes in predictable ways as the second language continues to develop. Many speakers of two languages can look back at their second language development and recognize elements of their IL.

Stages of language acquisition. Another important similarity found in current SLA theories is that second language learners pass through stages of language development and acquisition (e.g., Collier, 1995; Education Northwest, 2003; Haynes, 2005; "Language Acquisition," n.d.; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; van Lier, 2005). Some authors (e.g., Ernst-Slavit, Moore, & Maloney, 2002; Haynes, 2005) described the developmental stages of second language learners. The first stage is the silent/receptive/pre-production stage. During this time, which may last from a few hours to several months, second language learners may have a few hundred words that they can understand but may not feel comfortable using them. Although students do

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

not use the new language during this silent stage, there are other ways that they can respond. For example, they can use gestures, perform acts such as closing the door, or nod. The second stage is the early production stage. During this developmental period, students can have up to 1000 words in their receptive language and usually communicate in one or two word phrases. They can also demonstrate comprehension by producing short answers or using *yes* or *no* to respond to simple questions. Speech emergence is the next stage of language development. At this point, the students' receptive vocabulary has tripled. Additionally, they can use simple phrases and sentences to communicate. During this stage, they also begin to use dialogue and can produce simple questions. They may produce longer sentences, but normally these sentences will not be grammatically correct. It may take students up to another year to reach the next stage, intermediate language proficiency. At this point in language development, students have about 6,000 words in their vocabulary. They can begin to use language in more complex ways. For example, they can begin to express their opinions and ask for clarification. The final stage is the advanced language proficiency stage. It can take students as long as ten years to reach this stage of language proficiency. When students reach this level, they have content-area vocabulary and can participate fully in the activities of their classrooms, although they may still need some additional scaffolding and support. Also, at this point, second language learners can speak the second language using comparable vocabulary and grammar as their native-language peers.

Knowledge transfer between languages. Another common construct that appears in theories of second language acquisition is transfer. Hawkins (2005) reported a debate about the language of reading instruction. Although she indicated that more research is needed to determine exactly how ELLs learn to read, she described one type of reading research that views

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

reading as a composite of discrete skills. Part of the research focused on the amount of transfer that takes place in reading. Hawkins stated,

> There is ample evidence that reading skills do transfer across languages. The children's reading comprehension in English is affected by their proficiency in English and by the levels of literacy in their first language, but not by the language of instruction. (p. 34)

Hawkins' work supported the idea of academic transfer. Her research showed that what was learned in one language transferred from the first language to the second language. The students in her study did not need to relearn in the second language what they had learned in the first language.

Cummins (1996) stressed the importance of transfer. In his theory of common underlying proficiency (CUP), he stated that the surface features of the L1 and the L2 are different, but that concepts learned in one language can be understood in another, given some competency with the other language's surface features. A simple illustration may help to clarify the concept of the CUP. Sentence structure in English and French differs. In French, the direct and indirect object pronouns precede the verb. The structure in French needed to say *I gave it to her* would be: *Je le lui ai donné*. Translated directly into English, that sentence would read: *I it to her gave.* However, putting the surface features aside, there is a common proficiency. If there were no common underlying proficiency, then something learned in the first language could not transfer to the second language.

Anyone who has become proficient in a second language can attest to the validity of the CUP. For example, if someone whose first language is English has become proficient in French, the knowledge that the individual gained in English can be accessed in French if the person has

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

learned the necessary vocabulary and grammatical structures. Zelasko (1998) summed up the underlying assumption of the CUP: "Concepts like 'two plus two equals four,' don't change depending on the language: you only need to learn them once" (p. 11). Therefore, development of academic skills in the second language depends on what knowledge the students have already gained as well as their exposure to the second language. According to Cummins (1996), empirical evidence shows that this transfer of knowledge and skills occurs. This concept has had an impact on learning in a second language. Figure 2 is Cummins' graphical representation of this concept.

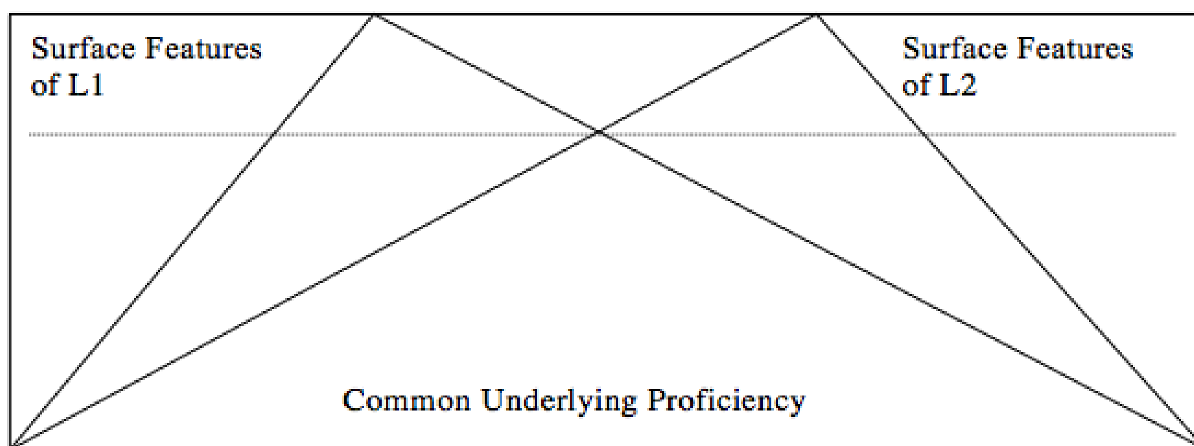

Figure 2. Cummins' common underlying proficiency, representing a second language learner's understanding of concepts, independent of proficiency in the surface features of the first language (L1) and second language (L2). Adapted with permission of the author from "Bilingual Education: What Does the Research Say?" by J. Cummins, 1996, *Negotiating Identities: Education for Empowerment in a Diverse Society* (Los Angeles, CA: California Association for Bilingual Education), p. 174. Copyright 1996 by the California Association for Bilingual Education.

Collier (1995) also wrote about the importance of transfer. She believed that because "academic knowledge and conceptual development transfer from the first language to the second language, academic learning is most efficient if it is done in the child's L1" (p. 3).

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

No discussion of transfer is complete without including the construct of interference. Although interference is a form of transfer, Gass and Selinker (1994) differentiated between positive and negative transfer. The difference between the two is whether the item is correct (positive) or incorrect (negative). These authors used the term interference for negative transfer.

Grosjean (2012) referred to static interferences and dynamic interferences. Static interference is a permanent trace of the first language found in the second language and involves all linguistic knowledge. Static interference is dependent on the competency the individual has in the second language. Grosjean stated that elements found in the individual's IL result from this kind of interference. On the other hand, dynamic interference is linked to processing and results from encoding mechanisms. An example of a dynamic interference is when a speaker will use stress patterns incorrectly in the second language because of the stress rules learned in the first language.

Comprehensible input/output between teacher and language learner. Linguistic input can be compared to technological input. If data are input into a computerized statistical program in such a way that the computer program can recognize what the data are, the computer can interpret the data and produce an understandable and recognizable output. Similarly, individuals who are acquiring a second language need input that their brains can process. Part of second language acquisition occurs during that mental processing.

Krashen's (1981) five hypotheses for SLA were originally known as the Monitor Model. In this theory, Krashen distinguished between language acquisition and language learning. He suggested that the acquisition of a second language is an unconscious process similar to the process used in first language acquisition. Language acquisition is an innate process; therefore,

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

cannot be learned. Krashen believed that if people hear enough of the language presented in a comprehensible fashion, they would acquire the language.

Krashen (1981) coined the term “comprehensible input” (p. 54). As part of his theory of second language acquisition, he theorized that learners had to have input that was just above their competency level. It is through hearing and processing language at this level that the learner advances to the next level in his language development.

Krashen’s formula for this concept is “*i* + 1” where *i* is the current competency level. Furthermore, applying Vygotsky’s (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD), the difference between what students can do on their own and what they could do with the help of a teacher or a peer (or the area where learning takes place), the + 1 represents the ZPD. Krashen’s idea of linguistic input claimed that language structures are learned as a result of understanding messages. It also stated that the modality of speaking cannot be taught directly. Rather, “speaking is a result of acquisition, not a cause, and will emerge on its own over time” (p. 54).

Cummins (1996) also stressed the importance of input. He suggested that it is the most important aspect of SLA. Although Cummins did not have a formula indicating at what level the input should be, he stated the input should be just a little above the level of the learner, again an example of ZPD.

Other SLA experts recognized the importance of the social context in providing input to the second language learners. Collier (1995) believed that classrooms that are interactive and use problem-solving and discovery-learning strategies provide the social environment where language acquisition can take place naturally. Similarly, the interactionists stressed the social interactions in which the learner engages, specifically those of the learner and the teacher. In this

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

context, the teacher modifies the input so that it becomes comprehensible to the learner (Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Nunan, 2005; Pica, 2005).

Other Considerations in Second Language Acquisition

There are areas of controversy about the role of errors in SLA. In this section, I will present information about error analysis and the controversy over correcting errors individuals make as they learn the second language.

Error analysis. Working under the behaviorism paradigm, structural linguists developed the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) that states language learners will learn easily those items that are similar to the first language and those items that are different from the first language will produce errors; however, researchers discovered that the CAH could not predict adequately the errors that language learners made (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). During the 70s, researchers studied the relationship between what CAH predicted and the actual speech of those learning the language. This activity became known as error analysis (EA). Unlike CAH, EA does not try to predict what errors a language learner will make; instead, it describes the errors he does make and then analyzes them. The goal in EA is to understand how learners process language data while learning a second language.

The errors that a language learner makes provide important information. Falhasiri, Tavakoli, Hasiri, and Mohammadzadeh (2011) wrote that errors contain important clues that teachers need in order to determine how learners are progressing in their attempt to acquire a second language. Furthermore, errors become learning devices to the learners of the new language. In other words, learners use the errors they make as a learning tool; they become aware of them and make attempts to avoid them. Additionally, Harashima (2006) claimed that researchers use error analysis (EA) to understand learner language as the second language is

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

learned. Gass and Selinker (1994) stated that there are two major types of errors: interlingual, or errors resulting from "cross-linguistic comparisons" (p. 80) with the first language, and intratlingual, or errors resulting from learning the second language and have nothing to do with the first language. These authors also list the steps involved in EA. Included among those steps are data collection, error identification, classification, and quantification, source analysis and remediation.

Error analysis is not without its critics. Gass and Selinker (1994) reported that two of EA's major criticisms are its exclusion of any information except errors and the difficulty in determining what is an error. In addition, W. C. López (n.d.) recognized three criticisms of EA. The first is methodological: Critics complained that EA entails "weaknesses in error evaluation judgments, lack of precision in defining the point of view under which an utterance is considered erroneous, difficulty to find the interlingual or intralingual source of error, classification and interpretation of errors" (p. 676). The second reason is theoretical: Critics insisted that in order for researchers to get a true idea of the language learner's performance and competence, analysis must include both errors and non-errors. The final reason is that the "analysis is done on a static text, a sort of language photo taken at a certain moment under certain circumstances" (p. 676), (what the author called *cross-sectional)* rather than longitudinal studies.

The controversy over error correction. Hattie and Timperley (2007) defined feedback as "a 'consequence' of performance" (p. 81). Using that definition, error correction is a type of feedback. Reporting on their synthesis of over 500 meta-analyses, Hattie and Timperley used a meta-analysis done by Tenenbaum and Goldring (1989, as cited in Hattie & Timperley, 2007) that studied "cues, participation, reinforcement, feedback, and correctives" (p. 83) and assigned an effect size of .74. Gass and Selinker (1994) and Lightbown and Spada (1999) also emphasized

www.manaraa.com

the importance of feedback. Feedback, therefore is not the issue. The issue is the kind of feedback.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) reported that feedback was more powerful when it provided learners information about what they were doing correctly rather than the errors they were making. However, it is important to note that Hattie and Timperley did not work exclusively with studies involving language acquisition and language learning. In reviewing research on correction in language learning, Aljaafeh and Lantolf (1994) reported that research on error correction in SLA focused on determining if error correction increased learning, what errors should be corrected, and how. Furthermore, they identified that research in this area has used ethnographic and experimental frameworks. The ethnographic studies did not provide a strong link between language development and correction. The experimental studies showed some positive correlation between correction and language learning; however, these results have not been across the board and need to be tailored to the needs of the learner. Moreover, Hashemnezhad and Mohammadnejad (2012) stated that there has been controversy regarding giving corrective feedback on the writing in L2 of language learners. They maintain that in spite of all the research that has been done in the field of error correction, researchers are still grappling with these questions: “1. Should learners’ errors be corrected? 2. When should learners’ errors be corrected? 3. Which errors should be corrected? 4. How should errors be corrected [and] 5. Who should do the correcting” (p. 232).

Three Theories of Language Acquisition

As has been suggested earlier, how well individuals learn anything, including languages, affects their self-efficacy. Therefore, an understanding of the theories of second language acquisition that are used widely throughout the country is important. The theories of Krashen

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

(1982), Cummins (1996, 1999–2003), and Collier (1995; coauthoring with Thomas, 1997, 2007) have impacted the teaching of ELLs across the nation. Consequently, I will explain these theories in more detail.

Krashen's hypotheses. Stephen D. Krashen's (1982) model for SLA consists of five hypotheses. Separately, each describes an aspect of second language acquisition; together they form Krashen's SLA theory.

Acquisition-learning hypothesis. The first hypothesis is the distinction between acquisition and learning. Krashen claimed that there are two separate and distinct systems in second language performance. The first is *acquisition.* Acquisition is a subconscious process, similar to the subconscious process that individuals use for first language acquisition. Those acquiring the language are usually unaware that they are actually doing it; rather, they are aware that they are using the second language to communicate. Furthermore, he claimed that because acquisition is a subconscious process, error correction does not affect it (Krashen, 1981).

The second system of language performance is *learning*. This system is a conscious process whereby the individual gains knowledge about the language. Included in this system are knowing, using, and discussing grammatical rules. Unlike the acquisition system, explicit instruction and error correction impact this system. Krashen maintained that the learning system is less important than the acquisition system (Krashen, 1981).

Natural order hypothesis. Krashen's second hypothesis is the natural order hypothesis. Krashen (1981) theorized that linguistic structures are acquired in a specific order, with some features learned before others. The order in which the structures are learned is not dependent on the order of structures presented in the classroom. Furthermore, he concluded that the order of

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

second language structure acquisition differs from that of first language structure acquisition, although there were some similarities, especially in bound morphology.

Monitor hypothesis**.** Krashen's (1981) third hypothesis is the monitor hypothesis. It is this hypothesis that explains the relationship between acquisition of language and the learning of language. *Acquisition,* Krashen believed, began the ELL's utterances in the second language. *Learning,* on the other hand, was used only to monitor or edit what was uttered. Monitoring, however, required that language learners meet three criteria: They had to have sufficient time; they had to focus on the form or correctness of the language; and they had to know the rule.

Input hypothesis. Krashen (1981) emphasized that the fourth hypothesis, the input hypothesis, was the most important of the hypotheses because it explained how language was acquired. As was explained earlier, Krashen believed that if individuals are to move from level i to level $i + 1$, they must be able to comprehend input that contains $i + 1$. How is it possible for language learners to understand structures that they have not yet learned? Krashen answered this question: "We use more than our linguistic competence to help us understand. We also use context, our knowledge of the world, our extra-linguistic information to help us understand language directed at us" (p. 21).

Affective filter hypothesis. The affective filter hypothesis is Krashen's (1981) final hypothesis. This hypothesis explained how affective factors such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety affected the process of SLA. The theory developed by Krashen, therefore, used all five of the hypotheses to explain language acquisition. Many educators who teach English-language learners use this theory.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Cummins' proficiency theory. Another researcher who has had a great impact on classroom practice is Jim Cummins (1996, 1999). Although there are similarities to Krashen's theory, Cummins' theory is broader and touched on aspects of learning that Krashen did not.

Proficiency dimensions. Cummins (1996, 1999) described three faces of language proficiency. The first face is conversational fluency, which he called basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). BICS involves the kind of social language that children commonly use on the playground. These skills are highly contextually embedded and cognitively undemanding. According to his research, it takes approximately one to two years for a student to develop BICS (Cummins, 1996).

The second face of proficiency is discrete language skills. ELLs will have discrete skills in both their L1 and L2. These discrete skills, which are learned through direct instruction or through immersion in a language- or literacy-rich environment, develop at approximately the same time that BICS are developing and involve the grammatical, literacy, and phonological knowledge that individuals gain as a result of instruction and practice. Examples of discrete language skills are knowledge of the alphabet, sound-symbol relationships, and the ability to decode written words into appropriate sounds. ELLs, as well as native speakers, continue to learn discrete language skills throughout their years of schooling (Cummins, 1996).

Cummins' (1996) third and final dimension of language proficiency is cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP). CALP is the highly cognitively demanding, context-reduced language skills necessary for successful participation in academic courses. According to Drucker (2003), academic proficiency is the ability to use language for reading and writing and to gain knowledge in all content areas. It is the language that students need to understand complex academic information and to take the high-stakes tests currently required of

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

students in the United States (Bielenberg & Fillmore, 2005). Additionally, academic language is the "totality of the vocabulary, grammatical constructions, and discourse conventions (e.g., paragraph formation) that students are exposed to and expected to learn between Kindergarten and grade 12" (Cummins, 1996, p. 69).

To illustrate the difference between BICS and CALP, all an individual has to do is think about the difference in language skills required for a chat with a neighbor about the church picnic that both attended versus fully comprehending a lesson on mitosis. To confuse the two skills puts language learners in grave danger. Expecting a child who has mastered only BICS to succeed in academic classes without some kind of ongoing intervention is perpetrating a serious social injustice.

Unfortunately, misunderstandings about BICS and CALP occur and are reflected in government policy and local practice. For example, the No Child Left Behind Act (2001) requires ELLs to be tested on grade-level tests in English before they have fully developed their CALP, indicating a lack of understanding that, although BICS are acquired relatively quickly, CALP requires anywhere from four to ten years to develop (Cummins, 1996). Also, teachers will hear ELLs using social language on the playground or in the halls and mistakenly think these students can perform tasks requiring the more sophisticated CALP. As a result, ELLs are placed in classes where they do not have the skills to keep up with their grade-level peers. When discussing the importance of CALP, van Lier (2005) indicated that from fourth grade upward, when CALP becomes critical in schooling, ELLs fall farther and farther behind in their academic progress unless interventions are used to help them develop their cognitive/academic language skills.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Common underlying proficiency. Another important aspect of Cummins' (1996) theory, as discussed in an earlier section, is the importance of the common underlying proficiency (CUP). The CUP explains how transfer of knowledge from one language to another takes place. The vocabulary and grammatical structures of the languages differ, but the knowledge individuals gained in one language remained in a second language.

Cognitive and contextual demands. Cognitive and contextual demands are also critical in Cummins' (1996) theory. He suggested that if something is contextually embedded, participants could negotiate the meaning. Also, contextually embedded items are supported by interpersonal and situational cues. On the other hand, context-reduced items rely heavily on the students' background knowledge, specific vocabulary, grammar, and speaking conventions. Furthermore, Cummins differentiated between cognitively undemanding and cognitively demanding tasks. Cognitively undemanding tasks involve linguistic tools that are automated (e.g., talking to friends, identifying the color of a banana), while cognitively demanding tasks require non-automated linguistic tools and cognitive involvement. Putting these two concepts together, Cummins delineated quadrants and then identified tasks that can be completed in each quadrant. Figure 3 is a graphic illustration of these concepts.

In Quadrant A, students can carry on a social conversation, follow directions, and participate in the initial levels of English as a second language (ESL) programs, in total physical response, and in content classes such as art and music. If ELLs receive most of their instruction in this quadrant, they often do not make the academic and cognitive gains necessary to be successful in school. In Quadrant B, students can participate in a telephone conversation and read simple directions or instructions that do not have diagrams or illustrations. Again, if ELLs are taught only in this quadrant, they have difficulty making academic and cognitive progress.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

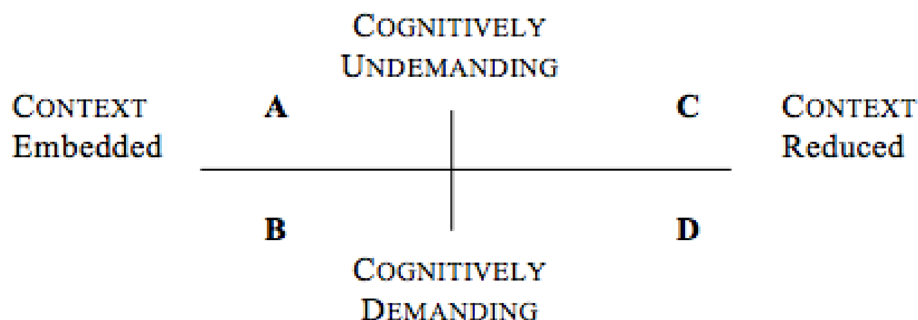

Figure 3. Cummins' quadrants of learning, representing the relationship between context embeddedness and cognitive demand. Reprinted with permission of the author from "The Three Faces of Language Proficiency" by J. Cummins, 1996, *Negotiating* Identities*: Education for Empowerment in a Diverse Society* (Los Angeles, CA: California Association for Bilingual Education), p. 67. Copyright 1996 by the California Association for Bilingual Education.

Students functioning in Quadrant C can participate in demonstrations and experiments and perform basic math computations. They can also do plane geometry, projects, and activities. This quadrant provides the contextual support that ELLs require and allows them to make academic and cognitive progress. Unfortunately, for many ELLs, teaching often takes place in Quadrant D. Quadrant D requires students to understand lectures and academic texts with few illustrations. Additionally, they need to grapple with new abstract concepts and read and write challenging material (Azusa Unified School District, n.d.).

As students progress in their academic education, they must increasingly make complex meanings clear, either in written or oral form, using the language itself instead of relying on contextual or other clues. Cummins suggested that the progression from quadrant to quadrant should proceed from A to B to D. Quadrant C reinforces the specific points and teaches discrete language skills. If teaching remains in Quadrant A or C there is no cognitive challenge, and the students are not pushed to go beyond their current level. However, if they enter quadrant D prematurely, they do not have the contextual support they need to be successful.

www.manaraa.com

Cummins concluded that English-language learners will be successful when they are cognitively challenged and then provided with the necessary scaffolding to help them complete the task. I agree. This is one of the most valid and important arguments in education. After more than 20 years in the classroom, I have personally witnessed students doing remarkable cognitive tasks when I provided the necessary scaffolding that allowed them to be successful. I have also seen the converse: students not succeeding because I did not provide adequate help.

Comprehensible input. Cummins' (1996) theory included comprehensible input. He stated that English-language learners must have sufficient comprehensible input and that it should be a *little* beyond what the learner already knows. Like Krashen (1982), Cummins believed that comprehensible input is the most important variable in SLA. For Cummins, however, the amount of input that will be comprehensible depends on the student's schemata, or prior knowledge, that teachers must activate or build.

Collier's prism model. In 1995 Virginia Collier published her conceptual model of second language acquisition. She explained that the conception of the model resulted from her conversations with Hispanic parents who were concerned about their children receiving education in the United States. Two years later, Collier and Thomas (1997) expanded the model. Subsequently, Collier and Thomas (2007) provided a detailed explanation for the model, now known as the prism model because its four components are represented by a multifaceted prism (see Figure 4). They posited that the model "defines major developmental processes that children experience during their school years that need to be supported at school for language acquisition and learning to take place" (Collier & Thomas, 2007, p. 333). The four developmental processes are sociocultural processes, language development, academic development, and cognitive development.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Sociocultural processes. Collier (1995) claimed that sociocultural processes are the heart of the model and represent the student going through the SLA process in school. Sociocultural processes include all of the social and cultural aspects of the student's past, present, and future everyday life. This component "may include individual student variables such as self-esteem or anxiety or other affective factors" (p. 2). The sociocultural processes also involved patterns of discrimination, subordination, assimilation, and acculturation. She insisted that positive sociocultural support plays a significant role in SLA.

Linguistic processes. Language development falls into the second component of Collier's (1995) model. *Linguistic processes* are the innate abilities and "metalinguistic, conscious, formal teaching of language in school" (p. 3). The processes include acquisition of oral and written language for the native language and the target language in all linguistic areas, including phonology, pragmatics, and morphology.

Academic development. The third component is academic development, including all schoolwork and the accompanying academic skills. Therefore, all teachers of an ELL contribute to the language proficiency of the student.

Thomas and Collier (2007) claim that focusing on second language acquisition is appropriate for adults who are entering a new country with a new language and who have already completed their academic and cognitive developmental processes. However, for children, who are still developing their academic and cognitive skills, focusing on language acquisition without an equal focus on the other developmental processes may have serious negative implications. If language acquisition were the only goal, the children would not develop grade-level academic and cognitive skills because those developmental processes were ignored or underdeveloped while the child learned the language. Furthermore, when English-speaking children enter

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

kindergarten, they have already experienced five or six years of cognitive development in their mother tongue. This development continues as they progress through school because all four processes are in place for the educational support of these children. The cognitive development in the mother tongue of ELLs halts when they enter an English-speaking school and remains underdeveloped while the children learn the second language.

Cognitive development. The final component of the prism model is cognitive development, a subconscious developmental process that begins at birth and continues through and beyond schooling. Because cognitive development is so critical, it must continue in children's first languages at least through elementary school. Furthermore, children who reach full cognitive development in two languages have cognitive advantages over their monolingual peers (Thomas & Collier, 1997a). Examples of these advantages include an improved semantic and episodic memory (Kormi-Nouri, Moniri, & Nilsson, 2003) and increased metalinguistic awareness (Chipongian, 2000). Unfortunately, cognitive development is an area that has been neglected in SLA. Until the late 1980s, language educators simplified and sequenced language curriculum and then, when academic content appeared in the language instruction, they watered down the content until the cognitive tasks were very simple (Collier, 1995).

Distinguishing features of the prism model. There are several points in Collier's (1995) model that set it apart from other SLA theories. First, she suggested that academic work (language, math, etc.) should take place in the native language, and instruction in the second language should take place at other times (art, music, etc.). Also, she used research to show that promoting L2 while interrupting academic development results in academic failure. Furthermore, she maintained that although cognitive development for ELLs has been traditionally ignored, it is imperative that both language curricula and cognitive development be addressed equally. Her

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

research showed the importance of cognitive development in L1. Finally, Collier stressed the interdependence of the four components, namely that each component needs to be developed. Furthermore, she stated that the academic, cognitive, and linguistic components must be considered developmental. Full development of one component depends on the simultaneous development of the other two. Developing one component and neglecting others may have negative consequences on students' over-all growth. Figure 4 portrays the importance of interaction between language, cognitive, and academic development, as well as the role that social and cultural processes play in SLA.

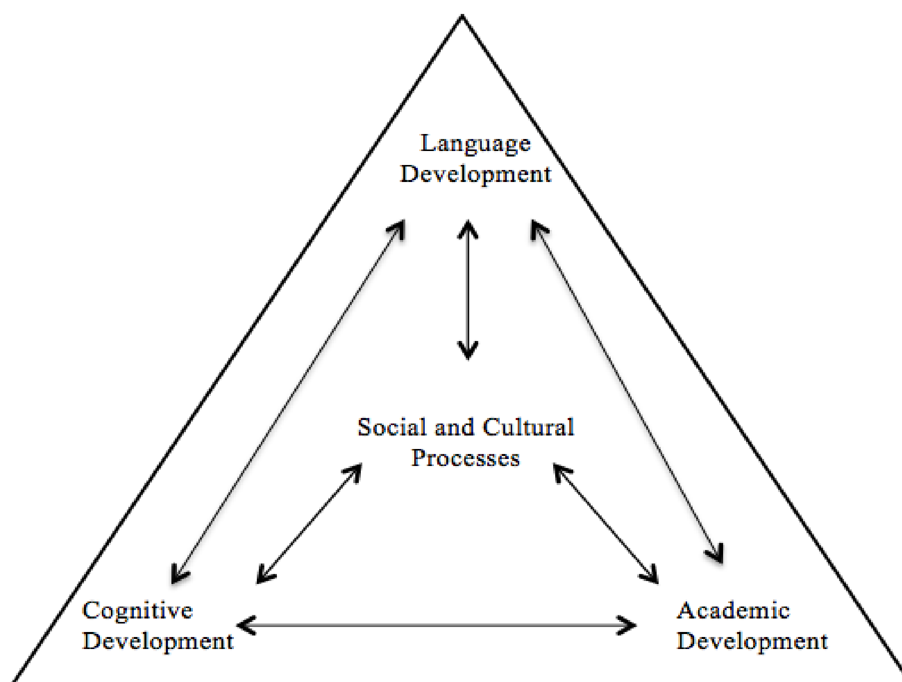

Figure 4. Reprinted with permission of the author from "Acquiring a Second Language," by V. P. Collier, 1995, *Directions in Language and Education,* 1(4), 2. Copyright 1995 by the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Education of English Language Learners (ELLs)

The next section reviews how educators teach ELLs. This construct is important because the two models that I examined are two of the most common programs used in the country to teach ELLs**.** The effectiveness of the programs potentially impacts the self-efficacy of the students.

Teaching linguistically and culturally diverse children has been controversial (Lee, 1999). Although it appears that many citizens currently think the United States had a homogeneous language and ethnicity at one time, many scholars (e.g., Crawford, 1999; Kloss, 1998; Parkerson & Parkerson, 2001; Shell, 1993; Spenser, 1994; Tyack, 1974; Valdés, 1997; Watras, 2002) have refuted that notion. In their discussion of education for diverse populations, Parkerson and Parkerson (2001) indicated that immigrant children were often ridiculed for their foreign customs and speech. (Unfortunately, this situation has not changed much. The research of Stafford, Jenckes, and Santos [1997] showed that Hispanics who spoke highly accented English were the object of ethnic slurs and ostracism.) Because of the ridicule and discrimination, schools often were used to Americanize marginalized populations, including those "who live at the intersection of two cultures" (Lortie, 2002, p. 43). Therefore, these individuals tried or were forced to assimilate into the mainstream culture as quickly as possible.

Some school systems in the U.S. continue to stress assimilation, while others celebrate the diversity of their students' languages and cultures. There is wide variability in the service designs educators develop and use to serve their ELLs; however, these designs can be placed in three broad categories: submersion (no longer legal in the U.S.), sheltered immersion or sheltered instruction, or bilingual education.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Submersion. Submersion is a method that was common from the 1880s to the 1960s. During this era, "most educators and policy makers felt that it was up to the language-minority students, not the schools, to make the linguistic, cultural, and cognitive adjustments necessary to achieve assimilation into American society" (Ovando, 2003, p. 6). The children showed up at school and either learned English on their own, or they did not; no official support was given to them. At that time, if a child could not speak English, it was considered a deficiency in the child that needed correction (Nieto, 2005). In spite of the method's persistence, not everyone felt submersion was an adequate approach. As early as 1900, some educators were calling for schools to do something to help the immigrant child. For example, "Ayres thought that cities should make some provision for children of immigrants" (Watras, 2002, p. 134).

Sheltered immersion/instruction. The second general category is sheltered immersion or sheltered instruction. This is one of the program models that I studied. In this method, English is the language of instruction. However, unlike the submersion method, teachers are trained to use special techniques to help make English comprehensible; hence, the English they use for instruction is sheltered. There are several protocols for sheltering instruction, for example, Sheltered Instruction Observational Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria et al., 2000); the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) (Chamot & O'Malley, 1987); Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE) (Gulack & Silverstin, 1997); and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (Marsh, 2006).

Endorsement programs for teaching English as a second language usually include some information about the different teaching models. However, unless a state requires that ESL-endorsed teachers use a certain method, the teachers are given wide latitude to decide on what strategies work best for their students. Teachers of ELL students in the United States widely use

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

SIOP and SDAIE. For example, California uses SDAIE as their sheltered immersion program (California Department of Education, 2012), and the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) has an entire online section to help educators of ELLs implement SIOP procedures (CAL SIOP, 2012). I will discuss those two program models in more detail.

Sheltered Instruction Observational Protocol. This program is especially important because the state where I did the study trains in the SIOP model and encourages its use. Echevarria and colleagues (2000) developed the SIOP model to provide educators with a practical, research-based model for sheltered instruction. According to the authors, SIOP is a framework within which teachers and administrators can organize strategies and methods to improve the learning opportunities for all students, especially ELLs. The protocol consists of thirty indicators divided into three dimensions. Six items measure the preparation of the lesson, twenty items measure instruction, and four items measure assessment and review. Schools across the United States widely use SIOP, as do schools in several other countries. SIOP is a valid and reliable observational protocol that helps educators plan and implement sheltered instruction (SIOP Institute, 2008).

Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English. Gulack and Silverstein (1997) stated that SDAIE stresses comprehensible input. In order to make their teaching comprehensible to ELLs, SDAIE-trained educators use a variety of strategies including realia (e.g., real-life items used for instruction), cooperative learning, graphic organizers, visuals, and manipulatives to provide meaning for their students. Teachers use these strategies to enable their students to become successful in academic content areas.

Bilingual education. The third broad category is bilingual education, where teachers provide some instruction in both students' native language and English. An understanding of this

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

design is especially important to this review because bilingual education's subset, two-way bilingual education, is the second model that I studied. There are several types of bilingual education. Akkari (1998), for example, identified "six models of managing linguistic diversity in formal education." These include "(a) segregated language remediation, (b) transitional bilingual education, (c) language developmental bilingual education, (d) integrated-enrichment bilingual education, (e) two-way bilingual education, and (f) 'neo-colonial' bilingual education" (p. 108). Each model has a different goal, and some goals are much more favorable to the retention of the native language than are others. Because of their prevalence in schools, I will discuss four of these models in more detail.

Segregated language education. Segregated language remediation models pull the ELLs from their mainstream class and place them in a specialized class designed to teach the second language. This model is not often considered bilingual education. It is, however, the most common type of model used for teaching English-language learners. The first language can be used if the teacher knows it, but the use of L1 is not a requirement. Retention of the first language is not a priority; however, transition to the second language as quickly as possible is (Akkari, 1998).

Transitional bilingual education. Similarly, transitional bilingual education or early exit bilingual education is not protective of the students' primary languages because the goal is to get the students proficient in English as quickly as possible. There is no attempt at preserving the native languages or cultures. Often this approach is called subtractive because it results in the minority cultures and languages being devalued and invalidated. Children remain in the transitional bilingual classroom for only a limited amount of time. Teachers use the native

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

language initially to help students progress in their academic endeavors, but the native language is quickly transitioned to the second language (Akkari, 1998).

Developmental bilingual education. The goals of the third, more native-language-friendly model developmental bilingual education or maintenance bilingual education, are to achieve bilingualism and academic success. Teachers instruct in the native language for a much longer time than is done in transitional bilingual classes. Educators continue to develop the children's first languages after students have become fully proficient in the second language (Akkari, 1998).

Two-way bilingual education. Two-way bilingual education (TWBE), or dual immersion education, is a model where speakers of the minority language and majority language learn each other's language and culture. In this type of bilingual program, the goal is not merely to have the minority-language children learn English but to have the majority-language speakers learn the minority language as well. Both languages and cultures are valued and validated. Although this model of bilingual education has not been used as long as the other three models have been, it has aspects that make it more appealing than other bilingual programs. Not only does it involve the entire school population and not merely the minority-language students, but also it strives to achieve majority and minority language literacy. Supporters of this type of program have differing, but complementary, agendas. Some supporters recognize the value speaking the minority language will have for students who enter politics and business. Meanwhile, other supporters embrace TWBE as the vehicle for providing the minority-language students with academic success in their native language and in an educational setting where the native language is more valued than it is in society at large (Akkari, 1998).

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Researchers claim that bilingual education has critical benefits apart from academic achievement. Ngai (2002) found that bilingual education provided benefits to both individuals and society. Individuals benefited by gaining the ability to learn another language. Furthermore, bilingual education enhanced both intellectual growth and communication in intercultural and interpersonal contexts. It also promoted language-cognitive skill development and increased a country's language competence, which in turn contributed to the country's productivity, competitiveness, diplomacy, and security. Also, it added to productive community development and helped to build a sense of community. Lindolm-Leary and Borsato (2001) reported that another important outcome of bilingual education is that the students in their study remained in school instead of dropping out.

Administrators at the school in my study chose to provide two-way bilingual education because the teachers felt that it was the most appropriate way to advance the learning of English. Although this decision was made before the students in the study began attending the school, this was a critical decision for the students, with far-reaching consequences for both their Spanish and English self-efficacy.

School district options. Because the court in Lau made submersion illegal, schools are left with two models from which to choose to teach ELLs: sheltered instruction or immersion, or bilingual education. Districts cannot rely on OCR for guidance because OCR only becomes involved if a complaint is registered against a district's program or finds the district out of compliance when it does a routine investigation. As part of a literature review, Mora, Wink, and Wink (2001) included a useful table that identifies a number of the programs used to instruct language learners. The table also included the goals of each program, the students involved, teacher preparations, the role of L1 and L2, and the program duration. Boards of education and

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

curriculum departments need this information as they make decisions regarding the instruction of their ELLs. I have adapted the table to include only those programs commonly used to teach language-minority students (see Table 1).

Given the perceived benefits attached to bilingual education, why have school districts opted for anything else? The answer lies chiefly with politics and public opinion and is very controversial. The political climate in the United States during the late 1980s and early 1990s forced many districts to use sheltered immersion. This situation occurred because a plethora of individuals and organizations clamored for policy changes that affect the place of minority languages in American society. U.S. English, for example, claimed "that the passage of English as the official language will help to expand opportunities for immigrants to learn and speak English, the single greatest empowering tool that immigrants must have to succeed" (U.S. English, 2009, ¶2).

Organizations such as U.S. English have been pushing for referenda requiring schools to disband bilingual programs and teach all ELLs in sheltered immersion programs. According to Cutri and Ferrin (1998), the referenda process could result in "tyranny visited on minorities by the majority" (p. 37). Further, Cutri and Ferrin argued that such referenda run counter to

> traditional notions of democracy and egalitarian principles[, and they seem] to run counter to important statutory pronouncements already law in this area, e.g., the many provisions of the Individuals with Education Disabilities Act (IDEA, 1998) [and] the Native American Language Act (1990). (p. 37)

When tyranny enters the arena of education, children lose. School districts are forced to adopt practices that are not in the best interest of minority children, and the voices of minority

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

parents are effectively quieted. Majority-language children also lose the opportunity to gain second language competency and develop cross cultural appreciation and understanding.

Table 1

Comparison of Programs for English-Language Learners

Program type	Goals	Students	Teacher preparations	Role of L1/L2	Program duration
Bilingual (two-way immersion or dual immersion)	Bilingualism; high academic achievement; positive cross cultural interactions	Language majority and minority students	Bilingual credential	L2 taught using second language methodology; Both L1 & L2 used as media of instruction	K-6
Maintenance or enrichment bilingual education	Bilingualism; high academic achievement; positive cross cultural interactions	Language majority and minority students	Bilingual credential or experience in L2 methods	L2 taught using second language methodology in early grades; Both L1 & L2 used as media of instruction	K-6
Transitional or early exit bilingual education	Acquisition of L2	Language minority students	Educational credential (may have support from an L1 aide)	L2 taught using second language methodology; L1 used as medium of instruction but L1 phased out as L2 proficiency increases; L2 becomes only medium of instruction	K-3 (Students have bilingual support for 3–4 years in early exit programs)
Structured or sheltered English immersion	Acquisition of L2	Language minority students	Educational credential; may have ESL credential	L2 taught using second language methodology; L2 only medium of instruction	Varies

Note. Adapted with permission from “Dueling Models of Dual Language Instruction: A Critical Review of the Literature and Program Implementation Guide,” by J. K. Mora, J. Wink and D. Wink, 2001, *Bilingual Research Journal,* 25(4), p. 440–441. Copyright 2001 by the Bilingual Research Journal.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

In recent referenda, only one state rejected the proposal to require children to be taught in English. On June 2, 1998, voters accepted California Proposition 227 banning bilingual education and requiring students to be taught in English. (California currently uses the SDAIE protocol.) Then on November 20, 2000, voters accepted Arizona Proposition 203, banning bilingual education and requiring students to be taught in English. In 2002, voters accepted Question 1 in Massachusetts, banning bilingual education. In the same year, Colorado voters rejected Amendment 23 that would have banned bilingual education. Referenda point to a direction that many parts of the country are moving: end bilingual education. For example, the stated goal of English for the Children is "Let's teach English to *all* of America's children and end bilingual education nationwide" (One Nation / One California, 1997).

The political conflicts surrounding educating ELLs certainly has the potential to impact self-efficacy. If, for whatever reason, state legislators force school districts to use programs that are not as effective as others, the mastery experiences of the students will be affected, perhaps negatively. Because mastery experience is one of the ways Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) theorizes that self-efficacy develops, these choices directly affect students' self-efficacy.

Effects of Programs Designed to Teach ELLs

One of the prongs of *Castañeda* is that whatever program a school district chooses to use, it must be effective. Although my research did not focus on academic outcomes, I felt it necessary to look at research on academic outcomes because how successful students are in their academic performance can impact their self-efficacy.

Reported academic gains of English-language learners. Both proponents of sheltered immersion or instruction and bilingual education claim their position is the most appropriate way to educate ELLs and produces the best academic gains for them. Those favoring sheltered

www.manaraa.com

instruction offer evidence to support their claim (CAL, 2005; Rossell & Baker, 1996). Bilingual education proponents also claim success (Greene, 1998; Thomas & Collier, 1997a; A. Willig, 1985). Other authors have found that some programs are more effective than others. For example, "researchers have found that students in early-exit transition programs tend to be more academically successful than those in ESL pull-out models, but less academically successful than those participating in late-exit transitional programs and in two-way bilingual programs" (Lara-Alecio, Galloway, Irby, Rodriguez, & Gomez, 2004, p. 38).

López and Tashakkori (2006) also claimed that differential outcomes between bilingual programs that they studied. Thomas and Collier (1997a) conducted a longitudinal study between 1982–1996 and examined 700,000 language-minority student records. They concluded that some forms of bilingual education are more effective than others. Additionally, their research indicated that the differences in academic achievement found in different program models increased with time, as ELL students spent more time in English-only classrooms. They emphatically stated that only those students who received academic and cognitive development in both their first language and English until at least fifth or sixth grade continued to perform well in high school. Furthermore, they sent a message to policy makers when they stated that these individuals need to know that ELLs need specific instructional approaches so these students can make academic progress "AND CONTINUE TO SUSTAIN THE GAINS [emphasis in original] throughout their schooling, especially in the secondary years as instruction becomes cognitively more difficult and as the content of instruction becomes more academic and abstract" (p. 14).

Once again, the outcomes of program models are important for self-efficacy development because they directly impact the success and failure experiences that students have. However, as

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

important as academic outcomes are to educational programs, there are other consequences that are equally critical. Among those consequences is the self-efficacy of students.

Self-efficacy in English-language learners' perceptions of themselves. I did an in-depth study of self-efficacy. Not only did I examine Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) theory, but I read studies where self-efficacy was researched. Because this was one of the two major foci of my study, I had to know what had been done in the area and what the results indicated.

As I searched the literature I found many studies involving self-efficacy; however, the vast majority of them did not center on education and students. Some studies focus on adolescents, but not on their academic endeavors. For example, Nebbitt (2009) investigated 213 Black adolescent males living in urban public housing in three cities. His research centered on examining the relationship between parents' behavior and self-efficacy as mediated by the status of the adult. Also, he studied the relationship of self-efficacy to peer, individual, community and parental factors.

I found many studies involving self-efficacy; however, the vast majority of them did not center on education and students. Some studies focus on adolescents, but not on their academic endeavors. For example, Nebbitt (2009) investigated 213 Black adolescent males living in urban public housing in three cities. His research centered on examining the relationship between parents' behavior and self-efficacy as mediated by the status of the adult. Also, he studied the relationship of self-efficacy to peer, individual, community and parental factors.

Several studies centered on self-efficacy and math; however, although the research centered on students, none of the studies involved looking at ELLs or the program models in which they learn. In a study of 232 Indian eighth graders, Jain and Dowson (2009) examined math anxiety in a non-western context, focusing on variables that might reduce that anxiety.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

They found that self-efficacy and self-regulation factors were positively related to each other but not to math anxiety. Additionally, they found that younger students thought they were better self-regulators than older students. Lloyd, Walsh, and Yailagh (2005) researched the gender differences in self-efficacy and attributions pertaining to mathematics. They examined 62 fourth graders and 99 seventh graders representing both genders. They found that both genders attributed their mathematical success to effort. They also discovered that there was no difference in self-efficacy between the genders, yet seventh graders tended to report less efficacy than fourth graders. Both males' and females' success and failure attributions were self-enhancing rather than self-defeating, but girls were not as confident as boys in their mathematical ability. Gutman (2006) looked at the relationship between student, parent, and classroom goal structures and mathematical self-efficacy and mathematics grades. Limiting her study to African Americans who were transitioning from middle school to high school, she reported that those students who have mastery goals or perceived mastery structures in their classroom had higher self-efficacy and grades in math.

Another study investigated the relationships between emotional, motivation (including self-efficacy) and cognitive variables as a predictor of mathematics performance. In the study, Stevens, Olivarez, and Hamman (2006) verified that there was a mathematics-performance gap between Hispanic and White students. Furthermore, they reported that the strongest predictor of mathematical success was mathematical self-efficacy, not ability. Unfortunately, Hispanic children had lower levels of self-efficacy, praise, and mastery although they had higher levels of self-determination. Navarro, Flores, and Worthington (2007) also looked at self-efficacy as a predictor of academic performance. They tested portions of social cognitive career theory and determined that self-efficacy in math and science is a predictor of success in those areas.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Additionally, Shores and Shannon (2007) studied 761 fifth and sixth graders to determine if there was a relationship between their math achievement and their self-regulation, anxiety, motivation, and attributions. They found that for sixth graders, self-efficacy, worry, and intrinsic value proved to be significant predictors of mathematics test scores and grades.

Long, Monoi, Harper, Knoblauch, and Karen (2007) studied 384 Black eighth and ninth grade students in an urban school characterized as in academic emergency. In their two-year cross-sectional study, they found that self-efficacy was related to domain interest and achievement in both grades.

One study involved self-efficacy and reading. McCrudden, Perkins, and Putney (2005) researched whether the explicit teaching and modeling of reading strategies to fourth graders would increase their self-efficacy and interest. Using t-tests comparing pre- and post-tests, they found that there was a significant increase in self-efficacy, reading performance, and interest.

Although the research done by Rodriguez, Ringler, O'Neal, and Bunn (2009) compared ELLs and monolingual students, they did not consider program models in their research. They studied 123 students who attended one elementary school. They compared the perceptions of the two groups of students on five variables, including self-esteem and self-efficacy. Their research revealed that the monolingual students in fifth grade had a slight difference in self-efficacy. Also, they found a difference in perceptions of self-esteem between the two groups of students in kindergarten and fifth grade. They recognized the importance of self-efficacy in all learners by indicating that with low self-efficacy, students may not engage in learning.

Wang and Pape (2007) investigated the self-efficacy beliefs of three Chinese-speaking ELLs. They determined evidence of self-efficacy by how persistent the boys were in accomplishing language tasks, engagement in language tasks, and English proficiency

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

awareness. The results of the study showed that the boys knew their language proficiency levels and persisted in activities they thought they could do well. The study also revealed a relationship between the boys' self-efficacy beliefs and their willingness to participate in language activities.

Jonson-Reid, Davis, Saunders, William, and Williams (2005) studied the relationship between self-esteem and academic self-efficacy. They reported that academic self-efficacy is more important to academic performance than is racial identity and self-esteem. Additionally, the perception that completing high school was important to the students served as a predictor of higher levels of academic self-efficacy. The authors articulated the importance of self-efficacy: "Students with higher academic self-efficacy, regardless of earlier achievement or ability, work harder and persist longer; have better learning strategies, such as personal goal setting or time monitoring; and are less likely to engage in risky behavior" (p. 6).

After examining a large number of studies involving self-efficacy and not finding one that addressed the factors I wished to study, I concluded that my area of research would be beneficial. I did I concluded that there is a gap in the available research in this area. I did this research not to validate any particular theory but to find meaning in the experiences of the participants, and to use any differences in their meanings and perceptions to compare the differences between the two programs, two-way bilingual education and sheltered English immersion, used as a case study. I decided to use Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) because I felt his theory was the most promising method to get at types of constructs that seem to fit second language acquisition issues and politics surrounding the students and their education.

Self-esteem in English-language learners' perceptions of themselves. Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) separates the constructs of self-efficacy and self-esteem as follows:

Self-esteem pertains to the evaluation of self-worth, which depends on how the

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

> culture values the attributes one possesses and how well one's behavior matches personal standards of worthiness. Perceived self-efficacy is concerned with the judgment of personal capabilities. Judgments of self-worth and of self-capability have no uniform relation. . . .However, in many of the activities people pursue, they cultivate self-efficacies in what gives them a sense of self-worth. Thus, both self-esteem and self-efficacy contribute in their own way to the quality of human life. (p. 410)

However, as Bandura indicated, doing activities that create self-worth or self-esteem develops self-efficacy in those areas. Therefore, it is important to understand what research has been done on self-esteem. As I reviewed the literature, I found that authors defined self-esteem in varying ways (e.g., Khanlou & Crawford, 2006); McLellan & Martin, 2005; Powers, 1978; Tipton & Bender, 2006; Verkuyten & Thijs, 2004). In addition to defining self-esteem, some authors linked it to as aspects of psychological well-being (e.g., McLellan and Martin, 2005; Lansford, Antonucci, Akiyama, & Takashashi, 2005).

Several studies were particularly interesting because of the links they had with my research. For example, Perez, Pinzon, and Garza (1997) found that "strong family ties with the nuclear and extended family serve as a source of self-esteem and self-identity to Latinos" (p. 182). The participants in my study were all Latinos; therefore the information in this study was relevant. Other studies looked at the relationship between self-esteem and language learning programs (e.g., Cavazos-Rehg & DuLucia, 2009; Gonzales; 1996; Rolstad et al., 2005; Wright and Bougie, 2007). These studies had a direct tie to my research because I studied a two-way bilingual program and there is a link between self-efficacy and self-esteem. Another group of studies researched self-esteem and language-minority or refugee students (e.g., Ghaith, 2003;

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Khanlou & Crawford, 2007; McBrien, 2005; Ngo and Lee, 2007). Reviewing these studies provided me with important information because I also studied language-minority students. One study had a link to the parental attitudes of my research. Saucedo (1997) used data from 200 parents to study parental attitudes toward a Spanish-English two-way program. She found that 97% of those responding to the survey agreed with the question, "Do you think being able to speak two language helps your child's self-esteem?" (p. 8).

As evidenced by the above discussion, I found many studies involving self-esteem and ELL students. All of these studies provided me with information that I was able to use as I made connections between self-esteem and self-efficacy in the contexts of bilingual education programs, with Latino students and their families, with language minority students and with parents.

Cultural or ethnic identity in English-language learners' perceptions of themselves. The parents in my study all had the opportunity to select the English-language learning program that their children would attend. As I analyzed the data from their interviews, I concluded that for many of them there was no logical reason for their choices. It is possible that their cultural or ethnic identity played a role in their actions. Additionally, Bandura (2002) reported "Although efficacy beliefs have generalised [sic] functional value, how they are developed and structured, the ways in which they are exercised and the purposes to which they are put vary cross-culturally" (p. 273). For those reasons I studied cultural or ethnic identity.

Cultural or ethnic identity is not easy to define. Obviously, it involves culture, a construct that is equally hard to define (Valentin, 2006). Pai, Adler, and Shadiow (2006) claimed that culture is "commonly viewed as that pattern of knowledge, skills, behaviors, attitudes, and beliefs, as well as material artifacts, produced by a human society and transmitted from one

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

generation to another" (p. 19). They also suggested that individualization occurs through culture. Furthermore, when children who speak a low-status language are pressured to reject their native language, that rejection "reinforces the negative image minority children have of their own culture and personal identity" (Pai et al., 2006, p. 42).

Valentín (2006) observed that a common thread found in various definitions of culture is that it refers to a part of the environment that is man-made rather than something that occurs in nature. She also reported that cultural identity has 12 sources: "race, ethnicity/nationality, social class, sex/gender, health, age, geographic region, sexuality, religion, social status, language, and ability/disability" (p. 197). She also claimed that these sources are present in every culture and impact teaching and learning. Furthermore, they are responsible for the uniqueness of each individual. Yeh et al. (2003) suggested that ethnic identity is a last part of the self that connects an individual to his or her ethnic group, including the attitudes and feelings with which membership in the group is associated. They indicated that for adolescent immigrants, ethnic identity is critical and is related to a higher sense of self-esteem.

Language is a crucial piece of ethnic identity. Worrell (2007) maintained that "ethnic identity is typically based on cultural affiliations, including language, country of origin, religion, and so on" (p. 25). Feinauer (2006) suggested that "in psychological literature, ethnic identity is considered to be the product of a development process" (p. 2). Also, she claimed that "language seems to be at the heart of many studies on ethnic identity [and] that heritage language is perhaps the most frequently cited contributor to ethnic identity" (p. 28). Hewitt (2003) concluded that "language confronts the child with culture" (p. 83). Furthermore, he suggested that "acquiring language opens up membership in the group as well as contact with the group's world—with the tangible and abstract objects that, taken together, constitute its culture" (pp. 85-86).

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Phinney (1992) defined ethnic identity as “that part of an individual's self-concept that derives from his or her knowledge of membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (p. 156). She suggested that ethnic identity development is a critical task that adolescents must accomplish in order to have a stable sense of self. Furthermore, she claimed that although individual cultural groups have their own traditions and practices, there are commonalities across cultural lines that researchers could study if there were a measurement that would allow that comparison to take place. She developed the Multi-group Ethnic Identity Measure to accomplish that task.

Previously, Phinney (1989) studied ethnic identity development in minority populations. She claimed that minority groups are faced with the difficult choice of choosing between the negative views of society about their group or rejecting them and searching for their own identity. She further stated that ethnic identity is an important aspect of minority personal identity development. Her examination of ethnic identity was “based on the presence or absence of exploration and commitment” (p. 35). Additionally, she suggested that a period of exploration about their own ethnicity is a central component of individuals’ ethnic identification; however, what starts the exploration process is not clear. It is essential for minority adolescents to understand their own ethnicity, because failure to deal with it could result in negative outcomes, for example, low self-image or feelings of alienation.

Akos and Ellis (2008) expressed similar sentiments by stating that achieving an identity is one of the important tasks of adolescence and that ethnic identity is often of central importance in children of color. Furthermore, they suggested that racial identity helps with the development of self when minority students become aware of inequality and racism in their environment.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Akos and Ellis concluded by stressing the importance of the school environment to racial identity development.

Phinney (1989) used the descriptors Erickson (1968, as cited in Phinney, p. 35) coined in his theory of ego identity development, which were operationalized by Marcia (1966). Erickson's theory consisted of four statuses of development. If individuals have done little if any exploration of their identity and made no commitments, they are in the diffused status. Individuals being committed without having done the exploration characterize the foreclosed status. On the other hand, if exploration has taken place without commitment, individuals are in the moratorium status. Identity is achieved in the fourth status, after individuals have gone through a period of exploration that is followed by firm commitment.

Phinney (1989) used the four statuses as descriptors of ethnic development. If individuals participated in little or no exploration and had no clear understanding of the issues involved in their ethnicity, they were diffused. However, if they were clear about their own ethnicity but had not experienced exploration, they were foreclosed. Furthermore, the attitudes that foreclosed individuals have about their ethnicity can be negative or positive based on their experiences with socialization. If individuals are still confused about their own ethnicity but show evidence of exploration, they are in moratorium. Finally, if they have participated in exploration and have developed an understanding and acceptance of their own ethnicity, they have achieved ethnic identification.

Phinney (1989) also identified three stages of ethnic identity development: initial (characterized by no exploration), moratorium, and achieved. In the study, she examined 91 American-born participants from four ethnic groups—Black, Latino, Asian, and White—using an interview and questionnaire technique. She found that excluding the White group, there were

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

no differences in the stages or adjustment among the minority groups. She concluded that members of ethnic minorities have to deal with their ethnicity as a minority group in a White society. Whites, on the other hand, did not show stages of development and were often unaware of their ethnicity, other than the fact that they were Americans.

Although there have been some studies about cultural or ethnic identity, Feinauer (2006) indicated a lack of research on ethnic identity of pre-adolescents. I located research involving cultural or ethnic identity, but none of them focused on the relationship of cultural identity and the type of language program the students were in. For example, Worrell (2007) researched ethnic identity, academic achievement, and self-esteem of gifted and talented adolescents. He reported that in this group of students, those coming from minority groups were underrepresented. Using Ogbu's (1998, as cited in Worrell, 2007) cultural ecological theory, he concluded that one reason for the underrepresentation is that minority students develop an identity that is opposite the identity of mainstream students and results in the minority students not fully engaging in academic endeavors and even resisting academic achievement. Moreover, he suggested that groups who are negatively stereotyped in a certain domain by the majority group "are inhibited in performance in that domain when the stereotype is made salient" (p. 24). He concluded that ethnic identity and other group orientation attitudes do not predict grade-point averages.

Feuerverger (1991) studied first-language-learning university students to reveal these students' perceptions of their cultural identity and their learning of their first language. Her study identified differences in language groups. She found that Hebrew and Yiddish students had the strongest commitment to maintain their first languages, and Portuguese and Italian students felt that learning the heritage languages would allow them to participate in their ethnic community.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

They also perceived that first-language ability would permit them to identify with their cultural homeland.

Cho (2000) also studied cultural identity. In her research, 114 individuals either participated in a survey or participated in an in-depth interview. She compared individuals with strong competence in their heritage language with those who had weak or no heritage language competency. The results of her study showed that those who had strong competency had a strong sense of who they were ethnically and had strong ties to their ethnicity. Furthermore, they "had greater understanding and knowledge of cultural values, ethics, and manners" (p. 374).

Feinauer's (2006) research focused on aspects of the children's ethnic identity. She studied fifth-grade children in both Boston and Chicago. Her findings suggested that these students easily identified with their Latino ethnic group. Furthermore, she found that students in Chicago were more positive about maintaining their cultural heritage as well as being bilingual.

As noted, Khanlou and Crawford (2006) examined the impact of migration on self-esteem and identity development of young women. They found that the young immigrants faced major challenges including language issues, value conflicts between home, peers and school, and forgetting knowledge they had already gained. Furthermore, they found that working hard, getting good grades, and experiencing academic success added to the newcomers' sense of worth. The girls indicated that they were marginalized in their new country and that they did not belong. Khanlou and Crawford also discovered that some of the girls in the study did not interact with others because they feared negative consequences.

Whitesell, Mitchell, Spicer, and the Voices of Indian Teens Project Team (2009) conducted another studying involving cultural identity, achievement, and self-esteem. They

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

reported that although self-esteem was related to academic achievement, the cultural identity of the participants was not related to their achievement.

Khanlou (1999) examined the relationship between the self-esteem and cultural identity of adolescents who were living in a multicultural environment in Canada. The study revealed that older adolescents do not have higher cultural identity than do younger children. Additionally, she tested whether females and Canadian-born children had higher cultural identity than males and individuals from migrant groups; these hypotheses were not supported. Moreover, she hypothesized that there would be no difference in cultural identity by parental cultural background. This hypothesis was supported among the cultural groups examined. She summed up the relationship between adolescent self-esteem and cultural identity as complex and impacted by a variety of factors including gender, age, cultural background, acculturating group, family circumstances, and the individual's perception of support.

Rolstad (1997) studied how minority children viewed ethnic groups other than their own when they were immersed in a third language. She also compared the ethnic identification of these third-language learners with that of linguistic and cultural peers who were in Spanish bilingual or English-only programs. She researched two cohorts of the Korean/English Bilingual Immersion Project (KEBIP) in the Los Angeles Unified School District. These students received no first-language support from their teachers. Rolstad reported that those third language learners involved in the KEBIP program had high academic achievement as measured by the Stanford 9 Achievement Test. She employed the Bipolar Ethnic Attitudes Survey to determine the students' attitudes about their own and other ethnic groups. The three ethnicities involved in the research were Latinos, Koreans, and Filipinos. Latino students were in three different programs: KEBIP, Spanish bilingual, and English-only. Those students in the Spanish bilingual program viewed

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

members of other cultural groups higher than did those who were in KEBIP or English-only. KEBIP students scored other groups higher than did the English-only students. Filipino and Korean students were in KEBIP and English-only classrooms. Filipino KEBIP students scored the other ethnic groups higher than did those in English-only. The converse was true with the Korean students. Those in English-only programs scored the other groups higher than did the KEPIB students. Rolstad indicated that these results may suggest that KEPIB students who have a third language perform better in language and reading and that those Latino students in programs that support their first language have higher self-ratings on their ethnicity.

As with the other two variables previously discussed, I found a gap in the research regarding cultural or ethnic identity and instructional program model.

Attitudes of ELLs' parents about their children's school experience. In 1995 Epstein wrote that the majority of parents care about their children, want their children to be successful in school, and want information about the school so they can partner with the school for the benefit of their children. Furthermore, the relationship that parents form with their children's school is important on many levels, not the least of which is that by working together parents and school personnel can create a caring environment for students so that children feel comfortable as they work and learn. Knowing the importance of parental involvement from a practitioner's perspective, I was not surprised when I learned that the vicarious models individuals, including parents, provide and the feedback they give are important in the development of self-efficacy. For these reasons, I studied parental attitudes both generally and specifically as they pertain to ELLs.

Parental attitudes have an impact on ELLs. Young and Tran (1999) addressed the importance of parental attitudes: "parental attitudes toward their native and American culture

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

greatly influence a child's success as a student of English as a second language" (p. 225). Their research supported parents' desires to have their children be bilingual and learn in bilingual environments. Other authors (e.g., Lao, 2004;Saucedo, 1997; Shannon and Milian, 2002; Shin, 1994) wrote about minority-language parents' attitudes toward bilingual education. I found a direct link to my research in the writings of Baltodano (2004) and Jaramillo (2004). Baltodano concluded that parents who were the best informed wanted to continue bilingual education with the waiver required in California so that a child can participate in a bilingual program. Jaramillo reported that "both English and Spanish speaking parents freely chose bilingual programs for their children. The findings dramatically countered bilingual opponents' claims that parents do not want bilingual education for their children or that bilingual programs are forced upon them" (p. 77). Furthermore, she claimed that

> Parents are supportive of bilingual education which demonstrates that there is a necessary relationship between attitudes and knowledge base since overall the parents favor bilingual education. This is quite significant since the federal government is trying to do away with bilingual education because it claims parents do not want bilingual education. (p. 76)

Finally, another researcher, Gilda Ochoa (1999), reported that Latina women favor bilingual education because of the connections they see among language, self-esteem, and culture. I found the information about parents preferring bilingual education for their children fascinating because not all parents make the choice to enroll their children in bilingual programs when they are available. Why parents make the decisions they do is directly related to my research.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Summary of the Literature Review

In the literature reviewed for this study I examined theories of second language acquisition. I also reviewed the programs used to instruct ELLs, and I summarized what is known about the non-academic effects that might occur.

Theories of second language acquisition. As I studied the language learning theories of Krashen (1982), Cummins (1996, 1999–2003) and Collier (1995), I found both similarities and differences. Krashen used elements of innatism in the development of his theory of SLA. Because languages are acquired, not learned, he claimed language acquisition is an innate process. Cummins and Collier, on the other hand, included elements of cognitivism and constructionism in their theories. All three contended that learners must be actively involved in the acquisition of a second language. Cummins and Krashen stressed the importance of input—learners must be able to understand what enters their brains so that language acquisition can take place. Collier's theory emphasized that a social component was necessary for SLA.

Theorists of SLA differed in their explanations of the processes of language acquisition, but they agreed on several components of SLA. Included among these components are knowledge transfer, stages of language acquisition, the importance of input, and the development of an interlanguage that disappears as the learners become more proficient in the second language. However, the three major theorists that I studied all emphasized that learning a second language is not something that is done quickly. It takes years for children to be able to compete with their native-English peers in cognitive and academic tasks.

Program models. My search of the literature for different program models used to teach English-language learners revealed a dichotomy. Proponents of all models claimed the greatest

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

academic success. The school where I did the research used two of the most common programs, sheltered English immersion and two-way bilingual education.

Research on non-academic effects. Although my study centered on the non-academic effects of self-efficacy, I found the constructs of self-esteem, self-worth, and cultural or ethnic identity were closely related; therefore, I also researched them.

Self-efficacy of minority-language students. Self-efficacy was one of the two foci of my research. I used Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997, 2002) model for self-efficacy development. Although Bandura did work involving culture, he did not focus on how self-efficacy develops in ELLs. Furthermore, although I found many studies centered on self-efficacy, I found few involving self-efficacy and minority-language children. Those that I did locate did not look at program models. For example, Stevens et al. (2006) investigated the relationships between emotional, motivation, and cognitive variables as predictors of mathematics performance. These researchers found that there was indeed a mathematics performance gap between Hispanic and White students. They concluded that the strongest predictor of mathematical success was mathematical self-efficacy. Rodriguez, Ringler, O'Neal, and Bunn (2009) contrasted a total of 123 elementary ELLs and monolingual students on five variables including self-efficacy and self-esteem. They discovered that fifth-grade monolingual students had a slight difference in self-efficacy, and concluded that students with low self-efficacy may not engage in learning. Wang and Pape (2007) researched the self-efficacy beliefs of three Chinese-speaking boys. The boys had exited the ESL pullout program and received instruction in regular classes. Although Wang and Pape were not studying the effect of program model on the boys' attitudes of self-efficacy, they discovered a relationship between the boys' self-efficacy beliefs and their willingness to participate in language activities.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

In their study of the relationship between self-esteem and self-efficacy, Jonson-Reid and colleagues (2005) stated that academic self-efficacy is more important to academic performance than is racial identity and self-esteem. Additionally, the perception that completing high school was important to the students served as a predictor of higher levels of academic self-efficacy. As is evident from the above discussion, I could find no study that examined the relationship between self-efficacy and program model. Thus, I concluded that there is a gap in the available research.

Self-esteem of minority-language students. The writings of Bandura (1997, 1986, 1997) confirmed my impression that although the constructs of self-esteem and self-efficacy are different, they are related; consequently, I did an extensive review of the literature about self-esteem. I found several studies on self-esteem and language acquisition. Verkuyten and Thijs's (2004) work provided me with some useful information. They found that the organizational structure of a school played an important role in the education of ELLs. From this information, I deduced that program models were significant factors that should be considered for ELLs. The research done by Cavazos-Rehg and DuLucia (2009) came closest to studying what I want to examine. They studied 150 Hispanic adolescents who were enrolled in either a bilingual or traditional education program and looked at the relationships between self-esteem, ethnic identity, and acculturation. After performing several multiple regression analyses, they were able to explain a large portion of the variance in self-esteem. They concluded, therefore, that there was a relationship between self-esteem and the three other variables, ethnic identity, GPA, and acculturation. Although these researchers looked at differences between the two program models, they did not include self-efficacy or parental attitudes in their study.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Three other groups of researchers slightly touched on what I wished to study. Perez, Pinzon, and Garza (1997) stated that Hispanic students need strong ties to immediate and extended family as a source of self-esteem and self-identity. Additionally, Gonzales (1996) studied self-esteem in ELLs. His work dealt with a small portion of what I want to research. He found that transitional bilingual programs undercut these students' self-esteem, while additive programs, including two-way bilingual models, enhanced it. Also, Lee (2006) looked at students' perceptions and attitudes. He found that the majority of students did not think that the program model affected their self-esteem or self-confidence. What the three groups of researchers did not do that I wished to do was compare and contrast self-esteem (and other effects) of two-way bilingual programs and sheltered English instruction or immersion. Other researchers (e.g., McBrien, 2005; Powers, 1978; Saucedo, 1997; Wright & Bougie, 2007) examined the effects on self-esteem or cultural identity when children's native languages were used for instruction. Again, none of these researchers included program model as one of their variables. Because I could not find any study that researched what I wanted to examine, I concluded that there is a gap in the current research.

Ethnic identity of minority-language students. As with self-esteem, cultural or ethnic identity was not a focus of my research. However, because all of the participants in my study were Hispanic and because Bandura (2002) said that "although efficacy beliefs have generalised [*sic*] functional value, how they are developed and structured, the ways in which they are exercised, and the purposes to which they are put vary cross-culturally" (p. 273), I examined research involving cultural or ethnic identity.

Phinney (1989) examined four ethnic groups—Latino, Asian, Black, and White—and found that there were no differences in stages of ethnic identity development and adjustment

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

among the minority groups. Whites, on the other hand, did not seem to be aware of their ethnicity, except that they were Americans. Other researchers looked at cultural or ethnic identity through different perspectives. For example, Worrell (2007) looked at ethnic identity, academic achievement, and self-esteem in gifted and talented students. He found that minority students were underrepresented in this group. Feuerverger (1991) looked at students' perceptions of their ethnic identity and their learning of their first language. She found that certain groups had a stronger desire to maintain their heritage language. I considered Feinauer's (2006) dissertation study important. Not only did she examine the relationship of heritage language and ethnic identity and conclude that language was central to ethnic identity, but she found a dearth of studies of ethnic identity of elementary children. None of the studies I reviewed looked at the relationship of cultural or ethnic identity and instructional program model.

Parental attitudes about bilingual or immersion programs. Parental attitudes was one of the two foci of my research; as such, it was important for me to study it prior to my doing my own work. Studies of parental attitudes centered on how parents felt about their children being in bilingual programs. Shannon and Milian (2002) found that parents wanted their children in two-way bilingual programs. Other researchers (Baltodano, 2004; Lao, 2004; Shannon & Milian, 2002; F. H. Shin, 1994) found strong parental support for bilingual programs. Ochoa's (1999) research had a slight connection to what I want to study. She found that Latina women prefer bilingual education because they see connections among language, self-esteem, and culture; however, Ochoa did not include program models in her research.

Based on the findings from this literature review, I found a gap in the research. No one had tied self-efficacy to program models with Latino participants; consequently, I proposed to study the self-efficacy of children who have been in two programs within the same school: a

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

two-way bilingual program and a sheltered English program. I also studied the attitudes of the parents whose children were in the study regarding their education. This research is pertinent to the highly politicized controversy surrounding the teaching of English-language learners. By shedding light on the results of the two programs, the data obtained from this study will benefit both educators and policy makers.

www.manaraa.com

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

In this chapter I describe the research methods that I used in this study. I begin by restating the research questions. Then I explain the delimitations of the study. I identify the methodology of the study, describe the research design, and explain how I established the validity of the study. Finally, I spell out my plan for remaining ethical through the study and clarify how I controlled for my bias.

Research Questions

As I stated in Chapter 1, the problem I addressed in this research was to identify and analyze student self-efficacy resulting from two program models for English-language learners. Those program models are two-way bilingual education and sheltered English immersion. the attitudes of English-language learners' parents about their children's school experience. The study centered on the following four research questions:

1. What are the differences and similarities in self-efficacy between students who have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual immersion program and students who have participated in an immersion/sheltered English program?
2. How do the attitudes of parents whose children have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual program compare with the attitudes of parents whose children have participated in an immersion/sheltered English program, in terms of satisfaction with their children's schooling?

Delimitations

This study delimited school, the characteristics of the two-way bilingual education (TWBE) program used, the endorsement of the teachers in the sheltered-English instruction

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

(SEI) program, the length of time the participant has been enrolled in the school, the location of the school, and the type of interviews that I conducted.

School type. The first delimitation was school type. I wanted to do a one-case study; consequently, I had to select a school that offered both the TWBE program and the SEI program. Furthermore, because two-way bilingual programs are found more commonly in elementary schools, the school chosen was an elementary school.

Program characteristics (TWBE). Second, because there are many bilingual education programs, I used the criteria established by the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) to select the TWBE schools in the sampling frame. Those criteria included three elements.

- *Integration*. Language-minority and language-majority students are integrated for at least 50% of instructional time at all grade levels.
- *Instruction*. Content and literacy instruction in English and the partner language is provided to all students, and all students receive instruction in the partner language at least 50% of the instructional day.
- *Population*. Within the program, there is a balance of language-minority and language-majority students, with each group making up between one-third and two-thirds of the total student population (see CAL, 2008).

Furthermore, because the research on bilingual education indicated that in order for children to be successful, they need to be in a TWBE program through Grade 5 or 6, the study delimited the sampling frame for the TWBE school to those that provide two-way bilingual education from kindergarten or first grade through the end of elementary school.

Teacher endorsement (SEI). Third, the study delimited the sampling frame for SEI classes in which students are enrolled to those where the teacher has obtained a state-mandated

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

endorsement to teach English as a second language to English-language learners. The schools that provide SEI instruction must provide services to children at all grade levels until the students have met the criteria to exit the program.

Time in the program. Fourth, the study delimited the sampling frame of participants to those TWBE students who have been enrolled in the program the maximum amount of time available at the school. Similarly, the study delimited the sampling frame of participants to those SEI students who have been in the program the same number of years as the TWBE students or who have met the criteria to exit the SEI program.

Study location. I delimited the schools and classrooms to those that are located in the state of my residence. I needed to delimit the study in this manner so that I was able to have access to ELL students who live close enough to my city of residence that I could make repeat trips to do any follow-up interviews if necessary without adding financial and time burden that would prevent me from completing the study in a timely manner.

Type of interviews. Finally, I delimited the type of interview to one in which I could use semi-structured open-ended questions. I felt this was important so that the participants could recount anything they wanted to tell me. It also provided me with the opportunity to probe as necessary.

Research Design

Yin (2003) stated that research design "is the logic that links the data to be collected (and the conclusions to be drawn) to the initial questions of study" (p. 19). This study explored the non-academic consequences of two types of educational settings for English-language learners: TWBE and SEI. Both programs have as one of their goals that students acquire English. However, the goals of two-way bilingual education also include full bilingualism for majority-

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

and minority-language students and a mutual respect and appreciation for both cultures. As reported in the literature review, both TWBE and SEI claim academic success; however, the self-efficacy development associated with the two programs is not clear. Therefore, I created a one-case qualitative study comparing and contrasting self-efficacy of Hispanic students in each of the programs. Furthermore, I compared and contrasted attitudes of parents whose children were in the two programs.

Qualitative methodology. I selected qualitative methodology for the study because I am interested in discovering how the TWBE and SEI affected students and their parents in the areas of non-academic results. Several writers have explained the benefits of qualitative research for this type of study. For example, Silverman (2002) stated that the strength of qualitative research is its ability to focus on actual practice, looking at how social interactions are enacted. Paul and Marfo (2001) explained that "qualitative methods are viewed as especially appropriate for generating better informed hypotheses and for helping to explain findings" (p. 533). Also, Ezzy (2001) stressed that qualitative research focuses on interpretation because "understanding how people act and think can only be achieved through understanding interpretations" (p. 294). Interpretation is so critical in qualitative work because one of the philosophical assumptions in qualitative research is that reality is created by individuals interacting with their social worlds (Putney, Green, Dixon, & Kelly, 1999).

A qualitative study allowed me to collect the data needed to answer my research questions and accomplish what Bogdan and Biklin (1998) indicated: "qualitative researchers attempt to . . . objectively study the subjective states of their subjects" (p. 33). Additionally, qualitative researchers view human behavior as so complex that they strive to understand and interpret human behavior and experience (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). Self-efficacy, self-esteem,

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

cultural or ethnic identity, and attitudes are part of human behavior and are worthy of description. Although quantitative researchers can use their methods to describe human behavior, qualitative research is the more appropriate choice because it allows for in-depth, rich description told in the participants' own voices and words. Furthermore, qualitative researchers are interested in understanding a phenomenon within its context and then explaining, using rich, deep description, what they now understand. Using the stories of students in the two cases allowed me to understand how the two programs influence students' cultural and ethnic identity, self-esteem, and self-efficacy and parental attitudes. Furthermore, the narratives allowed me to compare and contrast those constructs within the two programs.

Case study method. I used the case study method in my research. Merriam (1998) defined *case* as "a single entity, a unit around which there are boundaries" (p. 27). She also delineated three special features of case study: Case studies are particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic. A case is particularistic because it focuses on one "particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon" (p. 29). It is descriptive because "the end product . . . is rich 'thick' description of the phenomenon under study. Thick description . . . means the complete, literal description of the incident or entity being investigated" (pp. 29–30). This type of study is heuristic because "case studies illuminate the reader's understanding of the phenomenon under study. Case study can bring about the discovery of new meaning, extend the reader's experience, or confirm what is known" (p. 30). Additionally, Merriam expressed the idea that the goal of using the case study method is to get an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning for those involved, and that the researcher is interested in the process as well as the outcome. Furthermore, she concluded that this method uses a systematic way of describing the content of communication, is sequential in nature, and is reflective and interactive.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Yin (2003) indicated that using the case study method is preferred when the researcher is trying to understand a complex social phenomenon and wishes to keep the holistic, meaningful characteristics of everyday life. Additionally, Van Lier (2005) wrote that in case study, the researcher focuses in great detail on the individual, the situation, or the group comprising the case. The research is done in context so that the researcher can search for the specifics of the situation and observe how the subject of the study changes over time. Furthermore, he portrayed deep, intense description as a defining characteristic of case study.

I used a holistic one-case design. The school was the case, and by using semi-structured open-ended interviews and archival records, I had the data I needed to compare and contrast the two programs models within the school. The thick description produced in case study permitted me to understand the similarities as well as the differences in each program and compare and contrast the specific findings.

Data Collection

I needed to consider two issues before actual data collection began. Those issues were the type of sampling I would use and the questions I would use in the interviews.

Purposive sampling. Because I wanted to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomena of bilingual education, I deliberately chose to use purposive sampling. My decision to use this type of sampling is consistent with Merriam's (1998) views. She concluded that purposive sampling allowed qualitative researchers to obtain the most information. In my sample, I selected one school that met the TWBE criteria established by CAL. Additionally, this school had to have been in operation long enough that ELLs would have had the opportunity to spend up to five years in the program.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

To reduce the influence of confounding variables as much as possible, I wanted the student population of the second program or case to be similar to the TWBE program. I found that the TWBE was a program-within-a-school, so I was able to use the same school population for my SEI participants.

Interview questions. Because I chose qualitative research, the body of the interview consisted of semi-structured open-ended questions. I began developing my interview questions in 2006 with a member of my doctoral committee. As we discussed my interests, we brainstormed possible research questions. I refined those questions as I began doing my literature review. Whenever I found a study involving ELLs and one of my study's four constructs (ethnic identity, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and parent attitudes), I took copious notes and stored those notes in EndNote. I did not limit myself to looking exclusively at qualitative research. I also looked at quantitative questionnaires. By reviewing others' interview questions and questionnaires, I identified the types of questions that I needed to ask in order to get the data that would help me understand the phenomena I was studying.

As I conducted the review of literature, I found instruments that had been developed and checked for validity and reliability (e.g, Bandura, 2006; Phinney, 1992; Rosenberg, 1989). Additionally, I found instruments that had been used for a variety of reasons, including scholarly research and dissertations (e.g., Butler & Gutierrez, 2003; García-Nevarez, Stafford, & Arias, 2005; Jaramillo, 2004; Stafford et al., 1997; Usher, 2009). Once I concluded my literature review, I used the tools of EndNote to compile a large electronic file of potential interview questions.

Next, I synthesized all the information in order to generate a list of non-duplicated items. Then I categorized the questions into subheadings that reflected the four constructs of my study.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

This netted me about ten questions in each of the student categories, with an additional 23 questions for the parents. With the help of an expert in the field of teaching English-language learners, I performed a content audit by analyzing each question carefully to determine exactly what information the question was attempting to collect. As a result of the audit, I reduced the number of student questions by about half and eliminated six of the parent questions. Once I completed those steps, I analyzed each question and rewrote as necessary to make certain it was in a qualitative format. Once again, I had an expert review my questions and make suggestions. Finally, I met with my doctoral chair to revise the questions.

I used a great many sources to gather ideas and information for my interview questions. In addition to the authors I cited above, I also consulted the following authors: Block (2007), Coady (2001), Craig (1996), Ghaith (2003), Khanlou and Crawford (2006), Khanlou (1999), Lee (1999), Lindholm-Leary and Borsato (2001), López and Tashakkori (2006), Mikulski (2006), Mossakowski (2003), Ramos (2001), Saucedo (1997), Schecter et al. (1996), Senesac (2002), Shannon and Milian (2002), Shin (1994), Smith (2003), and Young and Tran (1999).

To obtain an idea of the kind of data my questions would elicit, I performed a pre-field test on my original interview questions. I used the parent questions to interview two adults, one an expert in ELL education and the other a bilingual instructional aide. One is a White male and the other a Latina. Neither adult was included in the study. I also used the student questions to interview a minority sixth grader attending a school that was not involved in the study. I analyzed the responses from these interviews for research-question relevance and made adjustments to my questions. Finally, I asked two teachers, one of sixth and one of fifth grade, working in a school not included in the study, to examine the questions to make certain that sixth graders will understand what I am asking. When I developed questions to do a second round of

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

interviews, I worked with members of my committee, and compared the construction of the questions with what I had done originally to make certain they were similar. By the time I did the second interviews, the children were all middle school students. As I taught middle school for many years, I drew on my background to attempt to phrase the questions so the students would understand them.

Data Sources

Once the participants were selected, I examined archival records to learn more about their history, and I used semi-structured, open-ended interviews to obtain the data for the case study. This section describes the records and sources I used and how I selected the programs and the participants.

Archival records. I gleaned information from the following sources:

- Student cumulative folders and attendance records. The cumulative folder provided descriptive information about the students. The attendance records identified any issues with nonattendance that might interfere with full participation in the TWBE or SEI program.
- State Criterion-Reference Test Assessment results. Although I did not study academic progress, the students selected for the study had to be making academic progress so that lack of progress would not constitute a confounding variable.
- State Academic Language Proficiency Assessment results (pseudonym to protect identity of state). The students in the study had to demonstrate that they were acquiring English during their elementary schooling. These records revealed that information.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Interviews. The second data source was semi-structured, open-ended interviews of students and their parents from each program type. As discussed in the Data Analysis section, I examined each interview individually and then looked at patterns and themes that emerged from the interviews. The first round of parent interviews were conducted in English or Spanish, according to parents' preference while the second round of parent interviews were done in Spanish. Each interview took from 15 to 40 min to complete. Student interviews were conducted in English and ranged from 20 to 60 min.

Study programs and interviewees. The biggest concern that I had as a researcher was finding an appropriate TWBE program in in my state. This section will identify how I found the appropriate TWBE and SEI programs as well as the interviewees for my study.

Program selection. After the June 2, 2009, update, the Center for Applied Linguistics Two-Way Immersion Directory had 346 entries representing programs in 27 states and Washington, D.C. To be listed in the directory, each program had to meet the criteria regarding integration, instruction, and population listed previously under "Delimitations." In addition to being listed in the directory, the TWBE school I selected for my study had to include classrooms from either kindergarten or first grade and continue through the highest grade in the school. Because the research indicated that children need to be in bilingual programs for a long time, my third requirement for selection was that the program had to have been operational long enough for a group of children to have been in the program for all grades.

The directory listed two schools in my state. The TWBE program in the first school began in 2000. It offers two TWBE classes in each grade from kindergarten through second grade; in grades three through six, it offers one TWBE class per grade. Furthermore, CAL classified it as a program-within-a-school. The languages used in this program are English and

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Spanish. Similarly, the second school uses English and Spanish. However, it began offering TWBE in 2007 and is a whole-school program. Unlike the first school, it offers two classes of TWBE instruction from preschool through second grade. Because the second school did not meet all of my criteria, my TWBE sample came from the first school.

The selected school had a large enough English-language learner (ELL) population in SEI classrooms; consequently I used the same school for the SEI sample. This district is located in a large city in the central part of the statein a western state. Within the district, there are 13 elementary schools, including the school that houses the TWBE program.

Participant selection. My research required interviewing sixth-grade students and their parents. I based the parent sample on the student sample. The sampling frame included those students in sixth grade, the highest grade of the TWBE program, and SEI students in the same grade.

Finding participants for the study proved difficult. After identifying the school, I spoke with the principal of the school and learned that the school had a large enough ELL population. Then I prepared formal letters explaining the purpose of my research and asking for volunteers. Because I could not know the children's names until after their parents had given me their consent, I gave the letters, along with self-addressed stamped envelopes, to the school. They graciously sent them to their students in the TWBE and SEI programs in sixth grade. I only received two responses from my letters. Next, I contacted the school and asked for their help. A bilingual aide who was familiar with the families contacted the parents. Through her help, I was able to find 12 students and their parents who were willing to participate in the study. Seven of the students were in the SEI program, while the other five were in the TWBE. Six boys and six girls participated. Except for one father, all the parent interviewees were mothers. I interviewed

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

only one parent per child. No guardians who were not the parents of the children volunteered to participate.

I stratified the sampling frame by program model. Then I stratified the sampling frame by gender to identify differences that might be caused by gender. Once the sampling frame was populated, I assigned a number to each interviewee. To protect the participants' privacy, I identified each participant by a pseudonym.

Participant contact. Before initiating participant contact, I established a protocol that was submitted to the university's institutional review board (IRB) for approval. After receiving IRB approval from the university, I received approval from the district's IRB committee to conduct the study using participants in its school(s). I personally conducted the student interviews in English and transcribed them. Because "educational research from several domains indicates the importance of parents in the school achievements of their children" (Weinstein-Shr, 1994, p. 112), the bilingual aide interviewed one parent of each student if the parent could not speak English. I interviewed two of the parents, who spoke English. After the Spanish interviews were recorded, I arranged for a translator to translate and transcribe the Spanish interviews.

Refinement of the Study

I interviewed the students in the spring of 2010. When I began working with my data, I found that it was not sufficient. After discussions with my chair and another committee member, I decided to re-interview all the participants, using questions that would allow me to dig deep. Working with the chair and the methodologist on the committee, I added additional questions about self-efficacy in the areas of English, math, and Spanish to the student interview. Additionally, I added questions about the parents' satisfaction with their children's elementary

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

language learning experience, their desire for their children to be bilingual, and how the parents felt about their children's progress in the three subjects.

I chose to investigate self-efficacy because I sensed that it had the most potential to provide me with information that would be helpful in determining how these students are similar and different. During the reconstruction of interview questions, I relied heavily on the work of Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997, 2002, 2006) to gain a deeper understanding of how self-efficacy is developed. I also relied on Usher (2009), a colleague of Frank Pajares and an Associate Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Kentucky who has researched and written about self-efficacy. I developed questions based on Bandura's theory that individuals develop their self-efficacy beliefs through four sources: experiences they have themselves, experiences they view others having, what others tell them about how well they perform tasks, and the physiological and affective reactions they experience when doing tasks. I used Usher to help me construct questions that would lend themselves to qualitative analysis. I choose this approach because it seemed to me that one of the most promising ways to find out what might lead to ELLs' success would be to investigate what increased their self-efficacy. I did not intend to verify Bandura's theory; however, I used it as a beginning framework because it seemed promising.

I was able to locate 11 of the 12 original participants, who were now in either seventh or eighth grade. I re-interviewed each of the 11 students in the winter of 2011. I employed Spanish translators who interviewed and recorded all of the parent interviews in Spanish during the same time. The Spanish translators transcribed all of the Spanish interviews. Next, I had Spanish-English biliterate individuals translate the transcriptions into English. As a result of the increased maturity of the students and because the interview questions had been tailored to produce as

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

much information about self-efficacy and parental attitudes, the second round of interviews produced much richer data.

Data Analysis

Although the process of analyzing qualitative data “is highly intuitive” (Merriam, 1998, p. 156), I managed and analyzed my data according to established canons of qualitative research. Because I wanted to study and understand the effects of two program models for ELLs, I used ethnographic analytical techniques. Merriam described ethnography as “a form of qualitative research employed by anthropologists to study human society and culture” (Merriam, 1998, p. 13). I used these techniques to analyze my interviews and archival documents.

Analyzing the interviews. After the interviews were conducted, recorded, translated (if necessary), and transcribed, I imported the transcripts into the NVivo software program (QSR, 2002, 2010). NVivo allows qualitative researchers to link, code, and browse documents and nodes. I began the analytic process by listing attributes for each participant. The attributes I used included age, sex, first language of the student participant, English language ability of the parent, and program model.

***Coding*.** Strauss and Corbin (1998) characterized coding as “a dynamic and fluid process” (p. 101), yet the researcher must engage in a series of activities to accomplish the coding. The first activity I engaged in was careful analysis of each line of text. As I discovered concepts, ideas, and thoughts that were held within the text, I created nodes that became “containers for ideas and concepts” (QSR, 2002, p. 155). The first nodes that I used were “free nodes” (QSR, 2002, p. 95). As the coding continued, I began to see patterns arise in my coding. At this point, I began axial coding. Gibbs (2002) described axial coding as a process where the researcher begins to look for relationships among the free nodes. Part of axial coding is

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

organizing free nodes into tree nodes. A tree node structure has the root node more generic and the branches more specific. As my axial coding continued, I began seeing themes in the data. I organized my nodes into a node tree and used coding stripes to see what and where I had coded. I refined my coding multiple times until I felt that it represented as closely as possible what the participants meant.

NVivo also allowed me to create memos containing my thoughts, questions, and decisions. Consequently, as I worked with the transcripts of the interviews, I wrote and coded memos. These memos served several purposes. First, they allowed me to reflect on the cognitive processes used to code. For example, I used memos to record the reasons why I used specific nodes. Furthermore, my memos served as a record of my work. Additionally, I kept a research journal where I recorded what I was doing and the reasons for making the decisions I did. Both the memos and the research journal became part of my audit trail. The memos and research journal allowed me to verbalize any question or concerns that I had as I went through the analysis of my data. Because I coded all my memos, I was able to explore the nodes in them as well as my transcribed documents.

Assaying and searching interview data. A very powerful tool in the NVivo software is its ability to perform assays. Assaying is a specific way of exploring documents and nodes. The assaying quality of NVivo allowed me to find any coded document or node that has specific characteristics. When doing an assay, NVivo created a brief report of the contents of documents and nodes based on search criteria that I entered. It also has the capability of creating a presence-absence table based on the search criteria. Assays and assay tables helped me identify patterns and relationships in my data.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Although assaying produced reports and tables based on specific search criteria, I also used NVivo to search my data. When I found patterns, themes, or relationships that I thought required further exploration, I used the search feature to identify those items in context. An advantage of using the search tool was that NVivo took me directly to the material I wanted, whereas the assay tool identified that a certain document or node had the characteristic for which I was searching. I performed Boolean matrix searches and text searches. As noted earlier, I assigned attributes to each of my 22 participants. The rows of my matrices represented specific nodes I wanted to examine; the columns represented the attributes I wished to study. Finally, I selected which interviews I wanted to include in the query. I ran many matrix queries until I had exhausted the nodes and attributes pertinent to my study.

Developing conceptual models. The purpose of interview analysis is to look for patterns and relationships that can be used to answer the research questions. Once my data was analyzed, I needed to build a conceptual model to represent what I found. Ryan and Bernard (2003) claimed that building conceptual models allows researchers the opportunity to identify how concepts are linked. Furthermore, they wrote that “models [are] simplifications of reality” (p. 278). The models I created after my data analysis helped me to visualize what my data was reporting. They also allowed me the opportunity to seek for non-examples in my data to order to refute or support my conclusions.

Analyzing the archival records. I used a purposive search of specific archival records. My goal in using the archival records was to identify any non-program variables that could account for differences in students and parents. I used student and school records maintained by the school. Contrary to my expectations, I did not need to use staff records.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Student records. After I identified the student participants, I examined their cumulative files. I looked for the following information: when the children first entered school, and what the English-language ability of the children was at the time of entrance into school. I also looked at the attendance report for these children to see what their attendance patterns were. I examined the students' report cards, samples of their work, and end-of-year testing reports. The final student records I examined were the state language assessment results. I wanted to see whether the students selected for the study were making academic progress, so that lack of progress would not constitute a confounding variable.

Staff and school records. Before consulting the CAL list of bilingual schools, I thought I would have to look at school records to identify schools from which to select. That proved to be unnecessary because there was only one school in the state that met the CAL criteria. When speaking with the principal, I found that because of the high minority population, all of the school's teachers must have an ESL endorsement; therefore, it was not necessary for me to examine school records.

Validity

According to Altheide and Johnson (1989), the traditional approach for establishing validity in research was rooted in positivism. This philosophy resulted in the quantitative research reigning supreme during most of the twentieth century. However, within the last few decades, researchers have challenged the notion that knowledge can be generated only through traditional scientific paradigms. This philosophy claims that knowledge is not based on unchallengeable, rock-solid foundations. This new philosophy has generated qualitative research. Phillips and Burbules (2000) stated that although post-positivists view knowledge as conjectural, researchers working within a post-positivist paradigm must use the strongest (although possibly

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

flawed) warrants available. In other words, the qualitative researcher must adhere to the canons of trustworthiness that apply to qualitative research because they must be as concerned about the validity of their work as are their quantitative peers (Altheide & Johnson, 1989; Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993; Marshall & Rossman, 1989; Merriam, 1998). Merriam (1998) stated that in order “to have any effect on either the practice or the theory of education, [the research] must be rigorously conducted [and] present insights and conclusions that ring true to readers, educators, or other researchers” (p. 199). She also suggested that the researcher must provide enough detail to show that the conclusions make sense. Furthermore, she claimed that the research must be conducted ethically if it is to be valid and reliable.

Trustworthiness plan. The question for qualitative researchers, therefore, is to determine what validity is and how it can be determined in their research. Marshall and Rossman (1989) indicated that “all research must respond to canons that stand as criteria against which the trustworthiness of the project can be evaluated” (p. 144). Both Marshall and Rossman and Erlandson et al. (1993) used the term *trustworthiness,* coined by Lincoln and Guba (1985), to represent the validity of qualitative research. Attention to trustworthiness is, according to Erlandson and his colleagues, particularly important “because it is in this area that [the researcher] is most often attacked with charges of ‘sloppy’ research and ‘subjective’ observations” (p. 131).

Firmly establishing trustworthiness allows those who read the reports of qualitative research to feel confident that the research is based on methodological soundness. In conventional, quantitative research, trustworthiness is built by establishing internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity. Each criterion has strategies and techniques that, if followed, produce trustworthiness. Erlandson et al. (1993) wrote that qualitative researchers need

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

not only concern themselves about comparable criteria in their studies, but they need to include criteria that come from the qualitative paradigm. These authors, as well as Marshall and Rossman (1989), discussed building trustworthiness in qualitative research by using credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability as the criteria of the qualitative paradigm. I sought to establish the validity of my research by using these four criteria.

Credibility. Erlandson et al. (1993) suggested that an important concern in any study is how confident one can be in the conclusions of the research. Qualitative research is not concerned with identifying the "truth"; instead, it attempts to find the reality that exists in the minds of the responders. Credibility is the relationship between the reality that the respondents reveal and the reality that is attributed to them.

Without question, establishing credibility was essential to my study. Erlandson et al. (1993) identified several strategies for establishing credibility. One strategy is to use what they term prolonged engagement, or spending enough time with the interviewee to collect the necessary data. I made certain that as I conducted the interviews, I allowed enough time to permit the individuals to talk as much as they wished. Furthermore, I often had to redirect the conversation, repeat questions, and ask follow-up questions in order to get the rich detail that I needed. However, it simply was not enough to get data; I had to be able to identify the most relevant information. "Such relevant depth can be obtained only by consistently pursuing interpretations in different ways in conjunction with a process of constant and tentative analysis" (Erlandson et al., 1993, pp. 30–31). As I conducted my interviews I employed this strategy, sometimes called persistent observation.

Another strategy for establishing credibility is peer debriefing. As my mentors, the chair and the methodologist of my committee were familiar with every aspect of my research. Thus, it

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

was possible for me to debrief my conclusions, my questions, and my methods with them. I also debriefed with a peer who knows my work well and who is employed in the district offices of a large school district. He has worked with the ESL program in the district for over ten years. He is very qualified to be my debriefing partner.

A final strategy that I used for establishing credibility, as noted, was keeping and using a reflective journal (Erlandson et al., 1993), in which I detailed my thoughts, procedures, and decisions, thus helping me to clarify my thinking. The journal also served another important part of my research; it became part of the audit trail.

Transferability. The second criterion for trustworthiness "is transferability in which the burden of demonstrating the applicability of one set of findings to another context rests more with the investigator who would make that transfer than with the original investigator" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 145). Although Marshall and Rossman said that generalizing qualitative research to other settings or populations can be problematic, the qualitative researcher can "counter challenges [by referring] back to the original theoretical framework to show how data collection and analysis will be guided by concepts and models" (p. 146). Additionally, Erlandson and colleagues (1993) stressed that the qualitative researcher "attempts to describe in great detail the interrelationships and intricacies of the context being studied" (p. 32).

I used three techniques to establish transferability. The first was thick description. Erlandson and his colleagues (1993) indicated that "thick description provides for transferability by describing in multiple low-level abstractions the data base from which transferability judgments may be made by potential appliers" (p. 145). Furthermore, they said that in order to provide this thick description, the researcher has to use all of her senses while collecting the data. These authors also stated that communicating the contexts of research is the basis for

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

transferability. As I wrote about the findings of my research, I used thick description to allow readers of my work to understand what the participants said, felt, and did. By using thick description, I vicariously bring readers of my research into the context of my study. Also, thick description allowed me to make "thick interpretations" (Vidich & Lyman, 2003, p. 92) as I analyzed the data.

The second technique I used for establishing transferability was purposive sampling. This strategy was discussed earlier. The third strategy that I used to establish transferability, also discussed earlier, was the reflective journal. In it I included information about the interviewees, why they were selected, why the information they provided was important, and any other germane information that was available.

Dependability. "An inquiry must also provide its audience with evidence that if it were replicated with the same or similar respondents (subjects) in the same (or a similar) context, its findings would be repeated" (Erlandson et al., 1993, p. 33). In order to provide this assurance, the researcher must establish dependability, the third criterion for trustworthiness, "in which the researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for study as well as changes in the design created by increasingly refined understanding of the setting" (Marshall & Rossman, 1989, p. 147).

I used two strategies to establish dependability. The first was meticulous record keeping, and the second was the reflective journal. By keeping meticulous records, I established a dependability audit, making it possible for an outside person to check on the processes that I followed. These records included raw data, notes on analysis, data reduction, processes, and memos. As with the other criteria, I used my reflective journal to establish dependability. Not

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

only was my journal a record, but it contained a narrative of all my decisions and processes and the reasons why I came to the conclusions I did.

Confirmability. The final criterion for establishing trustworthiness is confirmability. Marshall and Rossman (1989) stated that confirmability is essentially the concept of objectivity. Stressing that another researcher could confirm the findings of my study moves the evaluation of the study from the researcher and places it on the data.

Essentially, confirmability questions whether the conclusions and other outcomes come from the research and not from researcher bias. According to Marshall and Rossman (1989), the controls that the researcher could provide include having a peer play the "devil's advocate," practicing value-free note taking, and following other qualitative researchers' techniques for quality control.

As with dependability, there are not as many strategies that I could use to establish confirmability. The three strategies that I used to establish confirmability are a confirmability audit, a devil's advocate, and a reflective journal. Although a dependability audit trail examines the processes used in the study, a confirmability audit trail looks at the "products of the study. An adequate trail should be left to enable the auditor to determine if the conclusions, interpretations, and recommendations can be traced to their sources and if they are supported by the inquiry" (Erlandson et al., 1993, p. 35). Included in my reflexive journal are entries where I wrote about the decisions I made and the conclusions I drew. This journal allowed every aspect of my research to be examined to make certain that the outcomes were trustworthy, based on the data collected and the decisions made. Furthermore, "the key to the [confirmability or dependability] audit trail was reporting no 'fact' without noting its source and making no assertions without supporting data" (Erlandson et al., 1993, p. 150). The second strategy I used

www.manaraa.com

was to ask my committee chair, who is familiar with my topic, to be the devil's advocate and help me clarify my conclusions. Also as with the other three criteria, I used the reflective journal to establish confirmability.

Triangulation. Denzin and Lincoln (2003) suggested that triangulation is an alternative to validation. Erlandson et al. (1993) also discussed the importance of triangulation. They expressed that using multiple sources of data was one way to triangulate the research and that a hired hand approach should be avoided. I triangulated my research by using documents and interviews. I also remained close to my research by doing all the interviews, transcriptions, and coding myself unless, of course, Spanish was required. I used peer debriefing as another way of triangulating my research. Erlandson and his colleagues (1993) describe peer debriefing as using a knowledgeable peer who is outside the context of the study to play the role of devil's advocate. After reading my study, this peer listened as I discussed the research. The peer asked clarifying questions, defused frustrations, and pointed out areas where the conclusions I made are not solid.

Authenticity. Establishing authenticity is as important to qualitative researchers as is establishing trustworthiness (Erlandson et al., 1993). Because an underlying assumption of qualitative research is that individuals create separate realities, that reality must be accorded "status in the lives of those individuals, in the contexts in which they operate, and in reports of inquiry" (Erlandson et al., 1993, p. 151). This is authenticity. I used four criteria for establishing authenticity: fairness, ontological authenticity, catalytic authenticity, and tactical authenticity (Erlandson et al., 1993).

Fairness. The first criterion is fairness. There are two ways to establish fairness. The first is to guarantee that all stakeholders have the same access to the process that determines group direction. To do this, I conducted semi-structured, open-ended interviews by asking the same

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

questions of all students and a second set of questions of all the parents. In addition to asking the pre-determined questions, interviewees also had the opportunity to add anything that they felt was important.

Obtaining informed consent is the second way to establish fairness. Before I began my research, I went through the university's IRB process. I explained verbally to all individuals involved in the research that they must give their consent before the interviews could take place. They also signed an official consent form that was approved by the IRB. However, it was not enough merely for me to obtain the consent at the beginning of the research. The consent was renewed throughout the research, as both the human context and the power within that context change continually.

Ontological authenticity. Ontological authenticity is the second criterion for establishing authenticity. This is achieved when the constructions that the interviewees bring to the social context expand, thus allowing the interviewees to improve the way they experience their world. I achieved ontological authenticity by allowing all interviewees to expand on the questions of the interview. Everything that the interviewees said was transcribed, coded, and analyzed.

Catalytic and tactical authenticity. The third criterion, catalytic authenticity, is the extent that the decisions and actions of the stakeholder groups are aided by the groups' increased understandings of each others' constructions. The final criterion is tactical authenticity. "This criterion refers to the degree to which stakeholders are empowered to act" (Erlandson et al., 1993, p. 154). These authenticities were not obvious during the course of the study. However, if decisions about ELL programs are made because of my research, these authenticities will be established.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Ethics and bias. Many experts (e.g., Chambers, 2003; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Erlandson et al., 1993; Merriam, 1998) stressed the importance of conducting ethical qualitative research. To produce an ethical study, I followed established procedures for doing qualitative research. Part of that procedure was being aware of my bias and controlling for it as much as possible.

Ethics. The first consideration was how I approached my study. Vidich and Lyman (2003) presupposed that qualitative researchers have the ability to conceptualize experience, the ability to be detached from the values of the group being studied, and the ability to remain personally detached so that data analysis remains objective. My ability to use thick description as I reported the study allowed me to conceptualize the experiences of my participants. I tried to remain an observer of the phenomena I studied, thus increasing the probability that I would be detached from the values of my participants. Also, I analyzed the data objectively and allowed the data, not my personal beliefs or desires, to lead me to the conclusions I made.

Merriam (1998) cautioned researchers about potential ethical problems and offered suggestions for avoiding them. She indicated that qualitative researchers who have power over those they study run considerable risks of committing ethical violations. This was not a problem in my research because I had no power over the individuals I studied. I was neither a teacher nor an administrator at their school. They gave their informed consent before the interviews began and they understood that they could stop the interview at any time, thus creating a position of power for them, not me. Although Merriam suggested that institutional review boards were originally mandated for quantitative research and that they do not offer the same degree of participant protection for qualitative research, I went through the IRB process and committed to conducting the interviews ethically.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Yet another caution Merriam (1998) expressed is the potential harm to participants. The level of potential harm incurred in my research was minimal and was disclosed to the participants as part of the consent process. Breach of confidentiality could be an ethical problem. To eliminate this concern, I kept all interviewees' names strictly confidential and used pseudonyms when I wrote about them.

Furthermore, the interviewing process itself can also be fraught with ethical issues. This was of particular concern to me because much of my data came from interviews. Merriam (1998) advised researchers to remember that their responsibility is to collect data, not be a judge of or counselor to the participants. Limiting my role to that of an observer who has limited contact with the participants eliminated this concern. Additionally, I did not collect data furtively; the participants knew what I was doing.

Additionally, Merriam (1998) warned qualitative researchers that data dissemination could also cause ethical concerns. Her advice was to be honest in reporting the data. This I did. My goal was to report what my participants experienced. Another potential source of ethical problems is when an organization or individual pays to have the research done. This was not the case in my research, as I alone bore the expenses incurred.

Bias. Merriam (1998) cautioned about bias. There are several things that I did to reduce bias in my research. First, I tried to be as accurate as possible when I transcribed, coded, and reported my data. Second, I followed the counsel of Yin (2003) and controlled bias as much as possible by documenting everything that I did. Campbell and Russo (2001) suggested that researchers' familiarity with their participants can produce bias. Because I was not familiar with my participants, this type of bias was eliminated. Merriam provided one additional caution for researchers: if they have biases, they need to disclose it. As noted in Appendix A, I do have a

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

bias in favor of bilingual education. However, I did not have any prior conclusions about what my research would reveal.

Research procedures. Angrosino and Mays de Pérez (2003) indicated that established methods reduce bias. Yin (2003) offered three principles for data collection. His first principle is to use multiple sources as evidence. I identified two data sources: semi-structured, open-ended interviews and archival documents. Additionally Yin suggested that researchers use triangulation as they analyze their data. I have already explained how I used the data sources and triangulated my research.

Yin's (2003) second principle is to create a case study database. NVivo simplified this task. Every document that I created as my study progressed was coded and included in NVivo files. Additionally, as the Spanish interpreter or I conducted the interviews, we created field notes so that we could refer to them as the translation and transcription proceeded. These notes were also useful as I began the coding and data analysis processes.

The third principle is to maintain a chain of evidence. I accomplished this by importing the transcribed documents into NVivo and then using the attribute explorer of the software to record important characteristics of each interviewee. Furthermore, I wrote memos as I worked with the data and kept a research journal so that I had a record of my thought processes as I proceeded. I have already detailed how I used confirmability and dependability audit trails to maintain a chain of evidence.

Methods Summary

The research focused on students in one school who were either enrolled in a sheltered English program or a two-way bilingual program. It also focused on the parents of these students. The overarching question of this study was, "What, if any, non-academic student and

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

parent effects are produced after participating for a minimum of six years in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual immersion program (TWBE) or an immersion/sheltered English program (SEI)?"

I used a two-case research design and used two sources of data: semi-structured, open-ended interviews and archival documents. I used the NVivo software to organize and analyze my data. In this chapter I have detailed how I collected the data for the study, how I analyzed the data, how I established trustworthiness, and how I sought to remain ethical and as unbiased as possible.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Chapter 4: Results

Earlier, I described the differences in the two program models to which the student participants in my study were assigned during their elementary schooling. Identifying the effects that these programs have on the self-efficacy of the students is important because self-efficacy provides motivation and confidence for individuals to attempt to do things that are required to be successful academically. If the achievement gap between White and Hispanic children is to close, self-efficacy will play an important role. This chapter reports the findings on the two key research questions in the refined study: (a) What are the differences and similarities in self-efficacy between students who have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual immersion or an immersion/sheltered English program; and (b) How do the attitudes of parents whose children have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual program compare with the attitudes of parents whose children have participated in an immersion/sheltered English program, in terms of satisfaction with their children's schooling?

This chapter is divided into three major sections. The first section consists of demographic information about the city, school, and participants involved in my study. The second contains information I gleaned from examining archival records, and the third reports the data from the 22 semi-structured interviews.

Demographics

The demographics of the city, school, and participants provide information that help to situate this study.

City. I had determined to use the three two-way bilingual emersion (TWBE) criteria established by the Center for Applied Linguistics to select the school for my study. Those criteria are

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

- *Integration*. Language-minority and language-majority students are integrated for at least 50% of instructional time at all grade levels.
- *Instruction*. Content and literacy instruction in English and the partner language is provided to all students, and all students receive instruction in the partner language at least 50% of the instructional day.
- *Population*. Within the program, there is a balance of language-minority and language-majority students, with each group making up between one-third and two-thirds of the total student population (see CAL, 2008).

In addition, I wanted to work with students who had been in the TWBE program for at least five years.

Taylor Elementary, the pseudonym for the school, was the only school that matched these criteria in the state. Taylor is located in a city in a western state. According to the 2010 Census, the population of the city was 117,489. This number represented an increase of 12,050 from the 2000 Census. The population of the city has more than doubled since the 1970, when the population was 53,141. The median age is 22.9. Table 2 provides the racial and ethnic information.

School. Taylor is an average-sized elementary school. Table 3 shows the demographics of the school during the 2009–2010 school year, the year I did the original interviews. Furthermore, Table 4 provides additional enrollment information.

Part of my study was to look at programs and learn about them. The two programs that are included in this study are important because they are two of the most common ways of educating English-language learners. Also, the titles of the programs do not always tell the full story about them.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Table 2

Racial and Ethnic Information of City

	White	Black	American or Alaskan Native	Asian	Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	Other	Two or more races	Hispanic origin
Number	103,853	1,055	1,727	4,073	2,196	7,551	2,319	15,207
Percentage	88.4%	0.9%	1.5%	3.5%	1.9%	6.4%	2.0%	12.9%

Table 3

Racial and Ethnic Information of Taylor Elementary during the 2009-2010 School Year

	White	Black	American or Alaskan Native	Asian	Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	Undeclared	Hispanic Origin
Number	265	5	22	4	13	1	301
Percentage	43.4	0.8	3.6	0.7	2.1	0.2	49.3

Table 4

Additional Enrollment Information for Taylor Elementary School during 2009-2010

	ELLs	*Low SES	**SWD	Female	Male	Total Enrollment
Number	271	429	100	303	308	611
Percentage	44.4	70.2	16.4	49.6	50.4	100

* Low socio-economic status
** Students with disabilities

As background for my study, I interviewed Mrs. Daniels, the principal of Taylor Elementary on June 17, 2010. She became the principal during the fifth year of the bilingual program; the 2009-2010 school year marked the tenth anniversary of the TWBE program at Taylor. During our conversation, I asked Mrs. Daniels to tell me the history of the two-way program. She indicated that prior to the time that the school started the TWBE program, the teachers were getting their English as a Second Language endorsement; the particular program

www.manaraa.com

they were in was the Bilingual/ESL Endorsement through Distance Education (BEEDE) program. As part of their studies, the teachers learned that the best way to support English-language learners as they learn English is to support their native language. The teachers then began to research different programs that supported L1 and decided to do a two-way program. That meant that there were native English speakers as well as native Spanish speakers in the same classroom.

Initially, the school experimented with different models of TWBE. For example, they used the 90/10 model and later a half-day rotation. They finally settled on a weekly rotation where they learned in Spanish one week and English the next, except for kindergarten where the students have one teacher and use both languages every day. In first through second grades the language rotated weekly. At one point, the fifth teachers asked to try a two-week rotation. It was then that the school implemented Spanish reading centers. The next year, third and fourth grades wanted to do the two-week rotations; this is the model they currently use. However, primarily to support the native English speakers' retention of Spanish during the English rotation, the teachers have to do frequent Spanish reviews.

When asked if there were any problems with the community supporting the program, Mrs. Daniels replied that there had been. In fact, when she came on board, one of the first directives she was given was to address a perceived inequality. Some of the teachers who were not involved in the TWBE program felt that the focus was only on Spanish. Also, she explained that there were extra funds given to the Spanish teachers that were not available to the English teachers. Some of the English teachers looked upon that as unfair. Mrs. Daniels tried to work that situation out to make both groups of teachers feel valued. She indicated that it was no longer a problem because there is no extra money for anyone.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

She also said that before her time, there were actual episodes of *white flight* because some parents were concerned that instruction was going to become all Spanish and that only Spanish would be honored. In spite of the healing that has taken place in the community, Mrs. Daniels reported that there are some parents, both those who speak Spanish and those who speak English, who want nothing to do with the program. She added that the big concern for those Spanish-speaking parents is that they want their children to learn English. Even when these parents are informed that the TWBE program results in children learning English faster, they still opt for their student be in a regular class. She concluded this segment of our conversation by indicating that she personally has not heard anything negative about the program recently.

We also spoke about the challenges she faced. She indicated that the most difficult thing she has to do is to see that the model she is using is successful. She feels, however, that as long as the district supports the program, it will be all right. She said that she has to be vigilant that curriculum progression is on target; that district, state, and federal goals are being met; and that the children are learning in both languages. Another challenge is financial. When doing a two-way model, there are additional expenses. For example, the students have to have reading materials in both languages. Another difficulty she faces is finding qualified native Spanish teachers.

The teachers who teach in the TWBE are licensed in elementary education and all have ESL endorsements. At the time of our interview, none of the teachers in the TWBE program had a bilingual endorsement; however, one of the teachers was working toward the bilingual endorsement.

Participants. As I redid the interviews, I realized that a true benefit from doing a second round of interviews was that I was able to observe over time how the students had changed. I

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

was able to use that information as another indicator of how students in one group were different from those in the other. I enjoyed meeting these children so much when they were fifth and sixth graders that I was excited about seeing them again. Because I have worked with young adolescents for so many years, I knew that I would see much more mature children. I wasn't disappointed. The students have grown into terrific young men and women.

With one exception, I did not see major differences between the two groups of children. The exception was one of the sheltered English immersion (SEI) children, who had been so alert, alive, and active during our first interview. By the second interview, he had changed dramatically. As I did his interview, he would "zone" out. He would stop in mid-sentence and just sit for several seconds. After this situation occurred several times, his mother, who was sitting at the table with us, told him to inform me that he has epilepsy. This medical condition made him appear and act differently than the other ten students. Changes that I observed in all of them included a decrease in circumlocutation, an increase in correct pronunciation, an increase in their ability to construct correct sentences and an increased awareness of their educational accomplishments and deficits.

As I described in Chapter 3, finding participants was problematic. I originally planned on including only sixth graders in the study. When I was unable to populate the sampling frame with only sixth graders, I included fifth grade as well. When I did the first interviews, I worked with ten sixth graders and two fifth graders. Within that group, seven students were in the sheltered immersion program and five were in the TWBE program. Of the original 12 students, six were female and six were male. Eleven of those students were in the general education program, and one student was in the special education program.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

When I made the decision to re-interview the students, I located all but one, a female in the SEI program. In spite of various attempts to find her, I was unsuccessful. Because I didn't have a second interview with her and her parent, I dropped her from the study. At the time of my second interview, all of the students had left Taylor Elementary and were attending the same middle school. I worked with the middle school administration to receive permission to re-examine the students' cumulative files, test data, and attendance information. I found that the eleven students received a similar distribution of educational services in middle school as they had in elementary school, except there were some of the students who were in geometry, an advanced math class. I will discuss the findings of the document review later.

As I began my analysis of the data, I assigned attributes to each student and parent participant. Table 5 lists the student participants and the attributes assigned to them. Table 6 gives the information about the parents.

Archival Search

My motivation to search archival records was to determine if I could detect differences between the two groups of students. My primary source for the archival search was the students' cumulative files. Each child's cumulative file follows the student throughout the student's school career. Records pertinent to this study that are commonly found in the file include attendance records and state assessment results.

State language proficiency assessment. One of the prongs of *Castañeda v. Pickard,* 648 F.2d 989, 5th Circuit (1981), requires that the program the district selected to teach ELLs English actually results in their acquisition of English. Originally, the state where the study took place allowed districts to select the assessment instruments each district would use to determine if their ELL students were progressing.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

During the first years that the students were at Taylor Elementary, the school used the Idea Proficiency Test (IPT), an initial screening instrument available for three age spans. The IPT screens English oral language and English reading and writing. It is also available to do screenings in Spanish. The oral levels are A-F; reading and writing levels are non, limited, and fluent/competent (Ballard & Tighe, 2011). The assessment results are reported in levels of language proficiency.

During the students' later years at Taylor, the state developed the . . . Academic Language Proficiency Assessment (SALPA – a pseudonym for the test to help keep the state and the school anonymous) and required that all districts administer the test annually because the SALPA met the requirements of the No Child Left Behind legislation. Over the first one or two years that the SALPA was in use, the method for scoring changed, resulting in some confusion as to what performance level the student actually received. On June 29, 2012, I spoke with the State Assessment Director at the time of the SALPA She said the confusion occurred because of the way the assessment was designed. Initially a small consortium of states, met and developed a bank of questions. This group created the first scoring guide. Then the state used the question bank and created an assessment. Although some states had English-language learning standards already in place, the state wrote standards and aligned them to the assessment after the assessment had been written. While this was occurring, the consortium fell apart and the state began developing the SALPA. At this time, the scoring descriptors were changed to better reflect what level of language the students had and to be more in line with what other consortia had done.

To assess how the members of each program approached these standards, I examined the results from the district's and the state's language acquisition tests. Unfortunately, as I perused

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

the folders, I found that some pieces of data were missing. Specifically, I did not find the results from the kindergarten assessments for two members of the SEI group and one member of the TWBE group. Additionally, the fourth-grade assessment was missing for a member of TWBE, and fifth-grade data was missing for one member of the SEI group and two members of the TWBE group. Also, sixth-grade data were not available for three SEI students and four TWBE children. When the students exit out of the ESL program, their exit date is included in the records. This date was missing for four members of each group. I don't know if those omissions are because the children had not yet exited when I examined the records of if the data were simply missing. Moreover, I found that there were other labels written on the assessments. For example, the individual who scored the test would sometimes write *early* instead of *beginning*. Nevertheless, I have reported what I found. After searching these documents, I didn't find any coarse differences between the two groups of students. I reviewed this data to satisfy myself that these students do not look different at this level. I feel that this is an accurate assessment because I looked at raw scores in addition to the assessment descriptors. Without exception, all of the students in the study were making progress as evidenced by an increase in their raw scores from year to year.

In order to report the data, I prepared four tables. Table 7 provides information about the language acquisition of the sixth-grade SEI students in the study.

As I looked at the information in Table 7, I made several conclusions: All students are making progress in their acquisition of academic English. Furthermore, it takes some students longer than others to reach complete proficiency. This is consistent with what Cummins (1996) observed about the length of time involved in SLA.

www.manaraa.com

Table 5

Attributes of Student Participants

Interviewee pseudonym	Age in 2012	Bilingual parent	Birth place	Education of father	Education of mother	Gender	Grade at time of first interview	Program	Self-selected ethnicity	Student lives with	Years at Taylor
David Aragón	14	Both	USA	High school	High school	M	6	SEI	Hispanic	Nuclear family	5
Victor Bona	14	Father	USA	Post secondary degree	High school	M	6	SEI	Mexican	Nuclear family + grandparent	7
Jorge Jolla	13	Neither	USA	Unassigned	High school	M	6	SEI	Mexican	Single Mother	6.5
Rosario Marcel	13	Father	USA	Middle school	High school	F	6	SEI	Latino/Latina	Nuclear family	7
Anamarie Lopez	14	Father	Mexico	High school	High school	F	6	SEI	Mexican	Nuclear family	7
Carlos Ramirez	13	Both	USA	High school	Middle school	M	5	SEI	Spanish	Nuclear family	6
Samuel Archuleta	12	Both	USA	High school	Post secondary degree	M	5	TWBE	Mexican-American	Nuclear family	6
Miguel Gomez	13	Father	USA	Middle school	Elementary school	M	6	TWBE	Mexican-American	Nuclear family	7
Maristella Maciel	15	Neither	Mexico	Elementary school	High school	F	6	TWBE	Hispanic	Nuclear family	7
Juanita Veracruz	13	Father	USA	High school	Elementary school	F	6	TWBE	Mexican	Nuclear family	7
Margarita Espisito	13	Father	USA	Middle school	Unassigned	F	6	TWBE	Mexican	Nuclear family	7

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Table 6

Attributes of Parent Participants

Interviewee pseudonym	Age in 2012	Bilingual parent	Birth place	Education of father	Education of mother	First language	Gender	Language used most by father	Language used most by mother	Program
Sra. Aragón*	43	Both	Mexico	High school	High school	Spanish	F	Spanish	English	SEI
Sra. Bona	38	Father	Mexico	Post secondary degree	High school	Spanish	F	Spanish	Spanish	SEI
Sra. Jolla	38	Neither	Mexico	Unassigned	High school	Spanish	F	Spanish	Spanish	SEI
Sra. Marcel	38	Father	Mexico	Middle school	High school	Spanish	F	Both	Spanish	SEI
Sra. Lopez	36	Father	Mexico	High school	High school	Spanish	F	Spanish	Spanish	SEI
Sra. Archuleta	40	Both	Mexico	High school	Post secondary degree	Spanish	F	Spanish	Spanish	TWBE
Sra. Gomez	37	Father	Mexico	Middle school	Elementary school	Spanish	F	Spanish	Spanish	TWBE
Sra. Maciel	36	Neither	Mexico	Elementary school	High school	Spanish	F	Spanish	Spanish	TWBE
Sra. Veracruz	39	Father	Mexico	High school	Elementary school	Spanish	F	Spanish	Both	TWBE
Sr. Espisito*	39	Father	Mexico	Middle school	Unassigned	Spanish	M	Both	Spanish	TWBE
Sra. Ramierez	?	Both	Mexico	High school	Middle school	Spanish	F	Spanish	English	SEI

* Sra. Is the Spanish equivalent of Mrs. and Sr. is the Spanish equivalent of Mr.

www.manaraa.com

Table 7

English Language Proficiency for Sixth-Grade SEI Participants.

Year	Grade	Test	Participants (pseudonym initials)				
			DA	VB	JJ	RM	AL
2004	K	IPT (English)*					
		Oral		A	A		A
2005	1	IPT (English)					
		Oral		C	D	E	C
		Writing	Limited	Beginning	Beginning	Beginning	Beginning
		Reading	Limited	Beginning	Beginning	Limited	Beginning
2006	2	IPT (English)					
		Oral	E	D	E		
		Writing	Limited	Limited	Competent	Limited	Limited
		Reading	Competent	Non	Non	Non	Non
2007	3	SALPA**	A	I	I	I	I
2008	4	SALPA	I	A	A	I	I
2009	5	SALPA	A	I		I	I
2010	6	SALPA	F				
ESL final exit date			5/20/10	-	5/20/10	-	-

*Idea Proficiency Test can be administered in English or Spanish.
**State Academic Language Proficiency Assessment [pseudonym for the state assessment test] is the federally required state academic language proficiency assessment. The test covers four modalities: speaking, listening, reading and writing. The levels were reported as either levels A-E or P (pre-emergent), E (emergent), I (intermediate), A (advanced), and F (fluent).

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

As has been explained above, I had to use fifth graders in the study to fill out the sampling frame. Table 8 provides information for the lone fifth-grade SEI participant.

As with the other students in the SEI program, this student also is making progress toward proficiency in academic English.

In addition to the single fifth grader in the SEI program, my study included one fifth grader in the TWBE program. Table 9 provides information about this participant. After analyzing these data, I find that this student is also making progress. He actually has made faster progress than some of his peers because when he was in fourth grade he received an F (fluent) on the assessment. This means he is fully capable to function in grade-level academic English just as a non-ELL student.

The final table (Table 10) provides information about the sixth graders in the TWBE program. The data in Table 10 also provided evidence that the sixth-graders in the TWBE program were gaining language proficiency.

Overall, both the SEI and the TWBE students seemed very similar in their English acquisition: Some members of each group were progressing faster than other members. Several members stayed at the Intermediate (I) level longer than others. However, as evidenced by their raw scores, they were making progress. Based on this simple observation, I concluded that in this area both groups were roughly similar and that I could not use this data to discover any differences.

State-required end-of-year assessments. The state where the study took place requires an end-of-year criterion referenced test (CRT) in the areas of English language arts, math and, beginning in fourth grade, science. Scores are initially reported as raw numbers and then are converted into cut scores using a four-point scale. Students receiving a 4 or a 3 are considered

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

proficient in the academic area; those students who receive a 2 or a 1 are not proficient. Essentially, the four numbers represent four proficiency levels: 4 = *substantial*, 3 = *sufficient*, 2 = *partial*, and 1 = *minimal* (Shumway, Park, & Jeese, 2011). Table 11 displays the scores the students received from 2007 to 2011.

The longitudinal CRT data indicates that with two exceptions (the 2008 math CRT and 2008 science CRT) the students in the TWBE group scored higher. On some tests, the difference was small, .1 or .2 points. On other tests, it neared a one-point difference.

Attendance records. I examined the attendance records for the years that the student was at Taylor. Unfortunately, some of the records were missing for individual students. For example, there is virtually no data for the children's third grade year. Table 12 reports these data.

An examination of these data reveal a higher absentee rate for the SEI children. One student in each group skewed the data. David Aragón's absenteeism rate is much higher than the other students', and Juanita Veracruz has only one year of attendance recorded; consequently, I considered those two students outliers. When I ran the average for the two groups with the outlier data removed, the SEI group still missed 2.7 additional days per year than did their TWBE peers.

Data from Semi-structured Student Interviews

My samples were small: I had six students in the SEI program and five students in the TWBE program (and an equal number of parents in each group, resulting in a total of 22 participants). This created somewhat of a dilemma for me as I thought about coding thresholds. Each student in the SEI group represented 16.7% of the total group. In the TWBE group, each student represented 20%.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Table 8

English Language Proficiency for Fifth-Grade SEI Participant

Year	Grade	Test	Pseudonym initials
			CR
2005	K	IPT (English)	
		Oral	C
2006	1	IPT (English)	
		Oral	
		Writing	Beginning
		Reading	Early
2007	2	SALPA	I
2008	3	SALPA	I
2009	4	SALPA	I
2010	5	SALPA	I
ESL final exit date			-

Table 9

English Language Proficiency for Fifth-Grade TWBE Participant

Year	Grade	Test	Pseudonym initials
			SA
2005	K	IPT (English)	
		Oral	B
		IPT (Spanish)	
		Oral	C
2006	1	IPT (English)	
		Oral	C
2007	2	SALPA	I
		IPT (Spanish)	
		Writing	Competent
		Reading	Competent
2008	3	SALPA	A
2009	4	SALPA	F
2010	5	SALPA	
ESL final exit date			-

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Table 10

English Language Proficiency for Sixth-Grade TWBE Participants

			Participants (pseudonym initials)			
Year	Grade	Test	MG	MM	JV	ME
2004	K	IPT (English)				
		Oral	A	B		A
		IPT (Spanish)				
		Oral	B	B		
2005	1	IPT (English)				
		Oral	C	E	D	D
		Writing	Beginning	Early	Beginning	Beginning
		Reading	Beginning	Beginning	Beginning	Early
		IPT (Spanish)				
		Oral	D	D	E	F
2006	2	IPT (English)				
		Oral	C		E	E
		Writing		Limited	Competent	Competent
		Reading			Limited	
		IPT (Spanish)				
		Oral			E	
		Writing	Limited	Limited	Limited	Competent
		Reading	Non	Competent	Competent	Competent
2007	3	IPT (Spanish)				
		Oral				
		Writing	Competent	Competent	Competent	
		Reading	Limited	Competent		
		SALPA	I		I	A
2008	4	IPT (Spanish)				
		Oral				
		Writing	Competent			
		Reading	Limited			
		SALPA	I	A	I	
2009	5	IPT (Spanish)				
		Oral				
		Writing				
		Reading	Limited			
		SALPA	I	A	I	
2010	6	SALPA		F		
ESL final exit date			-	-	5/20/10	-

www.manaraa.com

Table 11

CRT Cut Scores by Program

TWBE CRT data															
Student	2007 ELA	2007 math	2007 science	2008 ELA	2008 math	2008 science	2009 ELA	2009 math	2009 science	2010 ELA	2010 math	2010 science	2011 ELA	2011 math	2011 science
SA	3	4	*	3	3	*	3	3	2	3	4	3	3	4	4
MG	2	3	*	1	2	1	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	4	2
MM	2	3	*	1	4	1	3	4	2	3	4	3	3	3	3
VJ	2	2	*	1	1	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	1
ME	4	4	*	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
SEI CRT data															
Student	2007 ELA	2007 math	2007 science	2008 ELA	2008 math	2008 science	2009 ELA	2009 math	2009 science	2010 ELA	2010 math	2010 science	2011 ELA	2011 math	2011 science
DA	2	3	*	3	4	2	3	3	2	4	3	3	3	3	2
VB	3	3	*	1	3	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	3	4	2
JJ	3	4	*	3	4	3	2	4	2	4	4	4	3	4	2
RM	1	2	*	1	3	1	2	3	1	2	2	2	1	3	3
AL	1	1	*	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	2
CR	2	2	*	2	3	*	2	3	2	2	3	2	3	3	2
CRT averages															
TWBE	2.6	3.2		2.0	2.8	1.4	3.0	3.4	2.6	3.2	3.4	3.0	3.2	3.6	2.8
SEI	2.0	2.5		1.8	3.0	1.8	2.2	3.0	1.8	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.3	3.0	2.2
Difference	-0.6	-0.7		-0.2	0.2	0.4	-0.8	-0.4	-0.8	-0.5	-0.9	-0.7	-0.9	-0.6	-0.6

*Student was not yet in fourth grade, and thus was not given the science CRT.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Table 12

Attendance Records for Student Participants

Student	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	Yearly average
TWBE data								
SA	9	4		1		0		3.5
MG	4	1	3		4	9	4	4.2
MM	5	0	0		1	1	2	1.5
VJ*	6							6.0
ME	1	0			4	5	0	2.0
SEI data								
DA*	12	17	19	21	15	11		15.8
VB	8	4	2		0	6	4	4.0
JJ	18	5	11		2	9	16	10.2
RM	11	2	2		5	1	3	4.0
AL	3	4	4		5	2	6	4.0
CR	14	4	5	5	2	4		4.9

Attendance averages			
SEI	7.1	Average without DA	5.4
TWBE	3.4	Average without JV	2.8
Difference	3.7	Difference without outliers	2.6

* Outliers.

When I examined the data in my matrices, I found that the students had many similarities. For example, when I had concluded my coding, I had 67 nodes that actually contained coding (18 nodes had no coding and were used to help with the organization of my branches). Twenty-eight of those 67 nodes had something coded from every student participant regardless of program. I analyzed the coding in those 28 nodes and concluded that the material coded there did not tell the true story of how the two programs impacted the students. Then I started looking at the nodes where the coding was different and found a treasure trove of useful information. At

www.manaraa.com

that point, I concluded that instead of reporting on the similarities, I would report on the differences between the two groups.

I needed to determine what constituted a difference between the two groups; consequently, I developed two thresholds. In order for me to analyze the node, at least 40% of the membership of a group had to have coding at the node. The second threshold was that there had to be at least a 20% difference between the two groups.

I realized that sometimes a minority voice is as important as that of the majority. To make certain I did not overlook information that was important but did not meet the thresholds I had established, I looked at all the coding that would have been excluded using my thresholds. I found five references that need to be discussed. These will be addressed in detail later.

Focusing on the differences between the two groups, nine themes emerged from the student interviews. Those themes are presented in Table 13. Seven of the items came from the mastery experiences category of Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997, 2006) self-efficacy theory. One theme came from Bandura's social or verbal persuasion and the last one came from the physiological or affective category.

Mastery experiences. When I began my research, I thought I would find differences between the two groups in all areas of Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) self-efficacy theory. That was not what I found. As I explained above, in most of these areas students were not that different; however, I found seven differences in mastery experiences. As I coded in NVivo 9, I identified four broad categories that I organized under mastery experiences. Those broad categories were: difficulties (7 nodes), language program (4 nodes), success experiences(9 nodes), and success strategies (16 nodes). I found differences in three of the broad categories: difficulties (2 nodes), success experiences (1 node), and success strategies (4 nodes).

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Difficulties in school. As explained above, I used matrix queries in NVivo 9 to explore my data. After running the matrices, I determined the difference in percentage between the SEI and TWBE participants who had coding at the particular node. I labeled this a discrepancy. I found an 80% discrepancy between the SEI and the TWBE students who reported having difficulty in school. In other words, all six of the SEI students reported having difficulties in school, while only one TWBE student (20%) had the same complaint. Four of the SEI participants or 67% of their number commented that they have difficulties doing their school work. The reasons for these difficulties varied and included such things as becoming bored and having problems learning. Three members of the SEI group (50%) also identified school subjects that created problems for them: David Aragón struggles with language arts, Jorge Jolla has issues with science, and Rosario Marcel battles math. Rosario said, "it takes time to learn things for me because I'm kind of those students that needs help with things." The most amusing comment was made by a female student who indicated she always did things in a hurry. When I asked her if her assignments were correct, she said, "Sometimes" (S05).

Samuel Archuleta, the only student in the TWBE who discussed having difficulties in school, still made a comment that sounded like a positive: "When I'm doing this question that I work really hard to get the answer but the teacher sees a problem and says it's wrong. . . . Then I look at it and see where the mistake is. Then I'll like, oh, I should have thought of that before." Although I coded Samuel's response under difficulties in school, it seems qualitatively different from the comments made by the SEI students.

Difficulties with Spanish. Students' difficulty with Spanish was an area where I expected to see differences in the two groups. I was not disappointed. When I ran the matrix query for the broad category *Difficulties* in NVivo 9, I spotted a difference in the percentage of students in the

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

two groups whose responses had been coded to the node representing having difficulties in Spanish. Three (60%) of the TWBE participants discussed problems in Spanish while 100% of the SEI students did. This represented a 40% difference between the two groups.

Table 13

Bandura's Self-Efficacy Development Theory and Most Common Themes in Student Interviews

Bandura' theory	SEI total (%)	TWBE total (%)	SEI % - TWBE %
Mastery experiences			
Experienced difficulties in school	6 (100%)	1 (20%)	80%
Experienced difficulties in Spanish	6 (100%)	3 (60%)	40%
Experienced success in school	6 (100%)	3 (60%)	40%
Used practicing as strategy	3 (50%)	4 (80%)	-30%
Used note taking as strategy	2 (33%)	4 (80%)	-47%
Used studying as strategy	2 (33%)	3 (60%)	-27%
Used doing homework and turning it in as strategy	4 (67%)	2 (40%)	-27%
Social or verbal persuasion			
From parents about English	4 (67%)	5 (100%)	-33
Physiological or affective			
Negative non-specific academic	2 (33%)	5 (100%)	-67

Note. Themes adapted from "Guide for Constructing Self-efficacy Scales," by A. Bandura, in *Self-efficacy Beliefs of Adolescents,* ed. F. Pajares and T. C. Urdan (City: Information Age Publishing, 2006), pp. 307–337.

After identifying this discrepancy, I analyzed each of the comments the students made, making sure that I understood what they were saying in context. I believe that the problems the TWBE students identified were minor: One described not being able to spell a Spanish word (S10) and another described difficulties "because in some quizzes there are Spanish words that are long or I don't understand what they mean" (S07). In the SEI group, on the other hand, the students related a variety of challenges with Spanish. For example, I coded a statement that

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Maristella Maciel made about not taking Spanish in middle school as a difficulty with Spanish because the middle school does not have a follow up program to support the Spanish language development of the students who were in the TWBE program. Although this situation is not of the child's making, not providing them with ongoing support in Spanish indirectly creates problems for the students. For example, during our second interview, Margarita Esposito, a TWBE student, expressed a great deal of dismay about having been placed in a beginning Spanish class: "I'm not in beginner's Spanish. . . put me in a more advanced class so it could be more of a challenge for me other than just an easy A right away."

The qualitative nature of the comments made by the TWBE students seemed substantively different from those of the SEI students. Further support came when I asked all the students to rate themselves in Spanish on a 5-point Likert-like scale. Then I asked them to use the same scale and rate their confidence (self-efficacy) in Spanish. Table 14 displays the ability and confidence ratings that the students gave themselves.

Table 14

Students' Self-ratings for Spanish Ability and Spanish Confidence

SEI			TWBE		
Student (initials)	Ability self-rating	Confidence self-rating	Student (initials)	Ability self-rating	Confidence self-rating
DA	3	3	SA	4	5
VB	4	5	MG	3	3
VR	3	3	MM	4	2.5
MB	3	2	JV	4.5	3
JJ	3	4	ME	3	3
CR	4	5			

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

The SEI students had a group average of 3.9. In examining the interviews, I found that if the SEI students rated themselves a 4 or a 5, they attributed that success to being a native Spanish speaker. Interestingly, they acknowledged that they cannot read or write the language, but because they speak it, they would make comments similar to this: "I would rate myself a 4 cause I'm a native speaker and I can speak it very well, but I just can't read and write it" (S04). It appears that biliteracy is not part of the formula the students use to determine their successes in Spanish. It also appears that the SEI students are very comfortable with the less demanding social language skills, basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). The fact that they admit they cannot read or write Spanish is evident that they do not have the academic, cognitive language necessary for school.

Other reasons that students gave for their scores did not include being a native Spanish speaker. For example, David Aragón gave himself a 2 and then revealed why he gave himself that rating and why he prefers speaking English, "sometimes I'll mess up words that I say so that's why I speak English most of the time." Carlos Ramirez said that he struggled with pronouncing Spanish words while two other members of the group admitted they could not read Spanish. Rosario Marcel described her challenges with Spanish in this manner: "[People would] say I can work my way around stuff in Spanish and then there's time when I just can't at all…they always have to start the conversation because I don't know how to start the conversation in Spanish." Again, these comments indicate that the SEI students do not have the ability to use Spanish as a language for learning in school.

Student successes. One-hundred percent of the SEI students compared to 60% of the TWBE said they had experienced success in school. The most common theme in the SEI data concerning successes at school centered around doing homework. Half of the SEI students

www.manaraa.com

commented about homework. Victor Bona and I had the following exchange during our first interview:

EAM: Do you do your homework?

VB: Easy because they already taught me what I'm supposed to do.

EAM: When you get home and you're trying to do your homework, and you get stuck what do you do?

VB: I ask one of my parents.

EAM: Are they able to help you?

VB: Sometimes.

Rosario Marcel expressed her thoughts about homework: "Sometimes when I understand it and when I don't I have to ask the teacher for help." The third SEI student, Anamarie Lopez, said that her homework was easy for her.

The SEI students also commented about their grades. When I asked a question about what kind of a student they perceived themselves to be, some of them responded by talking about their grades. For example this is what David Aragón said about his grades:

EAM: What kind of grades do you get?

DA: Some of my grades, most of my grades in this school are getting better.

EAM: What does that mean?

DA: I'm trying, I'm improving on my work.

Jorge Jolla responded to the same question with "I get good grades."

The students in this group also spoke about the things that they felt they did successfully. Some of the students said that they performed well in certain subjects. Carlos Ramirez simply

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

said, “Cause I’m learning at school.”

Students in the TWBE group made fewer comments about their successes. The comments they did make included statements about grades. For example, when asked how he did in school, Samuel Archuleta said, “Well sometimes I get high, well mostly I get high, but sometimes I go low.” However, the most common theme about their school successes was general statements about how they functioned in school. All three of the students who made comments about school success had responses in this category. Margarita Esposito’s “Well, I’m good at school” is representative of what they said.

Strategies for school success. One of the questions I asked the students and their parents was what study skills did the students use to overcome stumbling blocks in their education. I found that I had to explain what study skills are to the students before they were able to answer. The students identified 16 different strategies they used; however, many of these strategies were only mentioned by one or two individuals. There were four study skills that members of the two groups used, but in different proportions.

Taking notes. The success strategy that had the highest discrepancy (difference in use percentage between the two groups) was with taking notes. Four of the five TWBE students took notes while only two of the SEI children reported doing so. The two SEI students who reported taking notes, Victor Bona and Jorge Jolla, were not very enthusiastic about the process. Victor admitted taking notes but said, “We write notes, but it’s so boring.” Jorge indicated that “the teacher just writes how to do it on the board every day.” When I probed by asking him if he wrote it down in his notes, he said he did. These two participants were the only SEI students who mentioned this success strategy. Neither seemed too enthusiastic about the process. Furthermore, neither seemed to have a purpose for taking notes.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

All but one member of the TWBE group, on the other hand, took notes. Their comments were usually limited to a simple statement such as "I take notes" (S09), but I did not have to probe to get a response. Two members of the group expanded their answers slightly and provided an excellent rationale for why they take notes, something I did not observe with the SEI group. Juanita Veracruz announced, "Sometimes I write down what the teacher is talking about. That way I cannot ask for help or anything, and then I can just do my work on time." Margarita Esposito added, "I like to take notes a lot, so I write down everything that the teacher says."

Practice. Analyzing the matrices and coding, I discovered that fifty percent of the SEI students and 80% of the TWBE students recognized the importance of practice. One representative member of the SEI group, Victor Bona, told how he used practice (and perseverance) in his studies when he commented, "If it's hard, I always try to get doing it, keep doing it." It appears that Victor knows the importance of practice. Carlos Ramirez was more specific as he discussed practicing. He said he would "pronounce the words and practiced. . . .I practice how to do [the problems]. . . Read more and. . . talk more Spanish." David Aragón announced that he used practice to prepare himself for what is coming, "[I] study things that I haven't learned yet, before the teacher gives that unit; [I] ask someone in a higher grade if they know." It appears that three SEI students know the value of practice and use the strategy appropriately.

There was a 30% difference between the two groups' usage of practice. Four, or 80%, of the TWBE group discussed practice as a success strategy. Three of the students mentioned speaking Spanish at home as a way of practicing the language. One of the three, Margarita Esposito, also indicated she practices reading and writing Spanish and that "It's really easy going for me." Samuel Archuleta admitted "In math, I could practice some problems at home with my

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

family." Maristella Maciel did some of her practicing in a more public fashion, "I volunteer to do some work on the board." Additionally, Maristella admitted to being somewhat compulsive about her practicing math.

> Sometimes I know the answers, but at the same time I'm like is this right or did I do something wrong? So I have to go back and check it. If I go back and check it, I get a different answer. Then if I get a different answer, that puts me down so what I'm doing is wrong, so then I have to do it again until I get the same answer.

Margarita Esposito also has an effective strategy for using practice in her English studies.

> I sometimes like to take the book home that they let us use just so I can reread the pages just in case I missed something [and] when we have vocabulary words, I like to study them here at my house like every other day so by Friday I have them down.

Studying. Studying was the third success strategy where there was a large enough discrepancy between the two groups to count as a difference. As with the two strategies previously mentioned, the SEI students had a lower percentage than did the TWBE group. Only two (33%) members of the SEI group and three (60%) TWBE members made comments that were coded in the node representing studying.

In the SEI group, David Aragón and Carlos Ramirez were the only students who made comments about studying. As the quote in the practice section indicated, David tries to study ahead so that he will be prepared for new material. Additionally, he explained the studying he does for spelling and vocabulary: "I'll study the words and then whatever words I messed up on spelling or the definitions. I'll study them twice as much as I studied the regular ones." Carlos provided me with a very succinct answer about his math ability. When I asked him to rate his math ability on a 5-point scale, his response was "about a 4 'cause I always study in school." These two students use studying appropriately.

Their TWBE counterparts also use the strategy appropriately. Maristella Maciel indicated "I've been studying for [a test]." Juanita Veracruz does the same thing: "I study a lot for tests

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

and things." Margarita Esposito did make a comment about studying for tests, but she did explain that "usually I go to the library, use the computers, or here at my house."

Homework. The fourth success strategy, doing homework and turning it in, was discussed by more members of the SEI group than by members of the TWBE group. The three other success strategies were just the opposite: more TWBE members made comments about them than did their SEI peers. There was a 27% discrepancy between the two groups regarding homework, with only five students of the 11 (45%) mentioning homework at all.

The common thread running through the SEI students' comments was that they turn their work in. All four of the students specifically made that comment. Carlos Ramirez's comment was representative of this group of students. He reported, "[I] always turn in homework."

Margarita Esposito and Maristella Maciel, the two members of the TWBE who commented on homework, echoed the sentiments of the four SEI members. They both reported that they did their homework. Maristella added that she has a plan for turning in work when it's late: "so I can still turn [assignments] in, but I just get half credit so I have to do other stuff to get that grade up." Margarita included her plan of attack for getting her homework done: "I just sit down, do it."

Social or verbal persuasions. I coded at nodes representing parent, peer, and teacher verbal comments. After running my matrix queries and analyzing the coding represented in the query, I found only one node with a difference between the two groups. This node was comments that parents made to their children about English.

Three (50%) of the SEI students indicated their parents made comments about the students' English, while 100% of the TWBE students reported the same thing. In the SEI group, Victor Bona commented that his parents want him to "to learn English, to know how to go to go

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

college." Anamarie Lopez reported that her parents "say I should speak it more than Spanish [so] that I would understand people and help translate it. [They] tell me I need [English] so I can get a job and for school too. . . .They'd tell me to only talk to my classmates in English." Jorge Jolla indicated that his parents "ask me how to tell them how to speak it."

Four (80%) of the TWBE parents counseled their children to learn English because it will help them obtain a job. Maristella Marciel's comment is representative of what the TWBE students said: "English is [a] very important language because we live in America and most people speak only English so that I have to stick with English. Also 'cause I have to communicate with people, and then I'm going to need that someday when I'm going to get a job." In making comments about English, Juanita Veracruz's mother does not want her to lose her Spanish: "If I do learn English well, since I already know Spanish, it will get me further because I know more than one language." Samuel Archuleta expressed a similar sentiment: "They say it's important because if you speak two languages, you can get a job with it."

Physiological or affective factors. When I coded the interview transcripts, I had a branch of my node tree dedicated to the physiological or affective factors. I had three sub-branches in this section of my coding. Those three sub-branches were negative academics (5 nodes); positive academics (5 nodes); and positive attitude toward language (2 nodes). There was only one node in this section of coding that had a 20% or higher discrepancy between the two groups of students. That was negative non-specific academic. When I did my first round of interviews my questions were not subject specifics as they were in my second round when I asked questions about English, math, and Spanish. If the students made references to subjects other than those three, I coded the response in the non-specific academic nodes. I had a node for

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

both positive and negative comments. Two SEI students and five TWBE made comments that I coded in the Negative Non-Academic node.

In my first round of interviews, I asked all the students what kinds of experiences made them feel “not so good about yourself.” The two SEI comments were made in response to that question. Anamarie Lopez said failing tests made her feel bad. Initially, I could not get a response from Carlos Ramirez when I asked the question. I had to ask, “If you do poorly in one of your classes, does that make you feel a little bad about yourself?” His reply, “Kind of.”

The comments from the TWBE group were similar. The students expressed what made them feel bad. For example, Samuel Archuleta revealed that he is disappointed in himself when he makes a mistake and the teachers shows him how it should have been done. He said “Oh, I should have thought of that before.” Miguel Gomez confessed he was not a big fan of science “because almost all the experiments are boring.” Maristella Maciel said sometimes she feels bad if she did not do very well on something or if her peers did way better than she. Not putting in sufficient effort causes Juanita Veracruz to be concerned that she will not achieve her goals. This is consistent with what Covington (198) said about younger children. If young children don’t do well, they attribute their failure to a lack of effort. The best answer, I believe, came from Margarita Esposito when she said, “School is stressing. Oh, it gets me really mad especially when my math teacher has to give homework.” No question there about how she feels.

Although there was a difference in the percentage of SEI and TWBE students who had comments coded at this node, an analysis of their comments revealed that they are very similar. None of them like to do poorly and they experience a negative affect when they do.

Summary of student interview data. Basically, there were four major categories of questions that I asked the students. Those areas were the kinds of experiences the students

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

experienced personally, the models students had, the verbal comments others made about their abilities, and the physiological reactions they had when they were engaged in tasks.

The students in the two groups were similar in the majority of the areas I queried. Figure 5 shows the areas in Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) model where the students in the study gave responses that were similar. The items under the bold face type in each of the colored boxes represent areas that the interviews covered. There were at least 40% of the students in both groups who responded to questions in these areas and there was less than a 20% difference between the two groups. Furthermore, the discussions that I had with the students regarding these areas were very similar. In other words, there was not a noticeable difference between the two groups.

There were, however, differences in some of the areas. Figure 6 represents the differences I found between the two groups. I found a notable difference in three of the areas that Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) claimed are important for self-efficacy development. In the area of mastery experiences, I found differences in the difficulties the students reported, the successes they had, and the success strategies they used. I also found that the kind of verbal or social persuasions from parents in the area of English was different for the two groups. Finally, I discovered non-specific academic differences in the area of physiological and affective factors.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

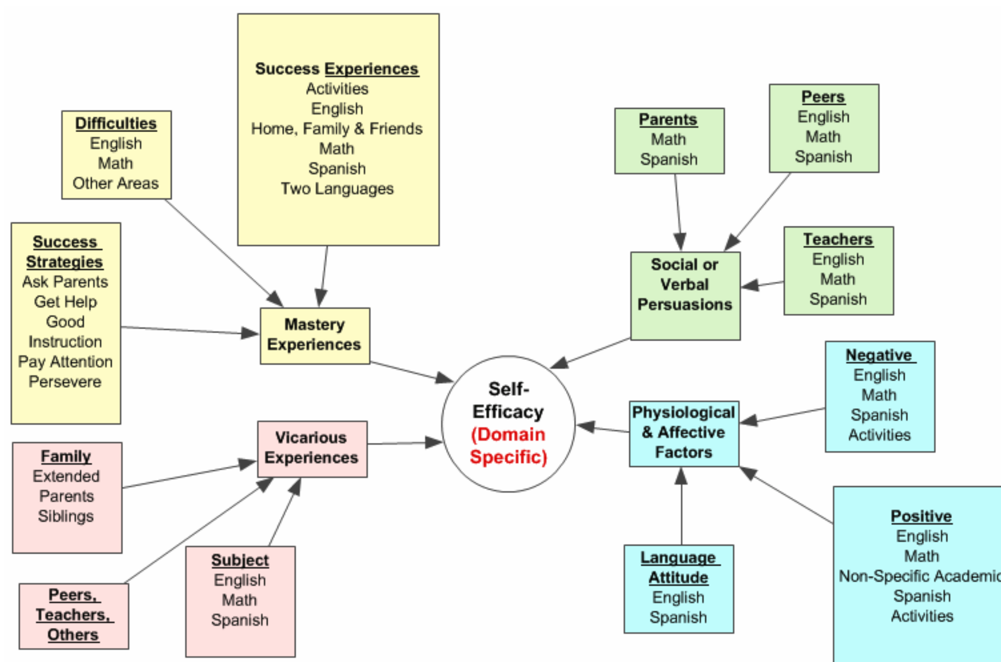

Figure 5. Similarities in student responses.

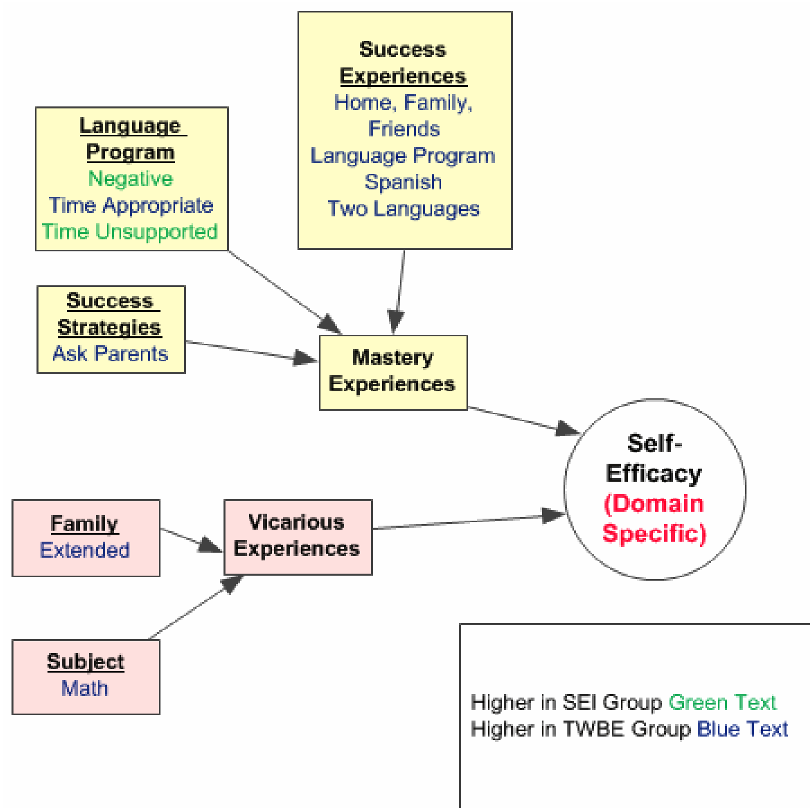

Figure 6. Differences in student responses.

www.manaraa.com

Data from Semi-structured Parent Interviews

I used the same process with parent interviews as I did with the student interviews. In other words, I established nodes and then a node tree. I used the same nodes to code the parent transcripts as I did to code the student transcripts. However, because one aspect of my study was to investigate how the attitudes of parents differed between the two programs, I added an additional branch on my node tree to include information pertaining to that question. Once all the coding was done, I began exploring the data by using text queries and matrix queries. In this regard, I handled the parent interviews exactly as I handled the student interviews. I ran matrix queries and analyzed the references that the matrices identified.

When I had concluded my coding of the parent interviews, I had 84 nodes that contained coding (22 nodes had no coding and were used to help with the organization of my branches). The additional 17 nodes were to accommodate the parent attitude coding. However, of those 84 nodes, 33 had no coding at all. Eleven of the remaining nodes had coding from all parents, regardless of the group they were in. As I did with the student interviews, I analyzed the coding in the remaining nodes and determined that I would find the richness I desired where there were differences. Figure 7 displays the similarities in parent responses, and Figure 8 displays the differences.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

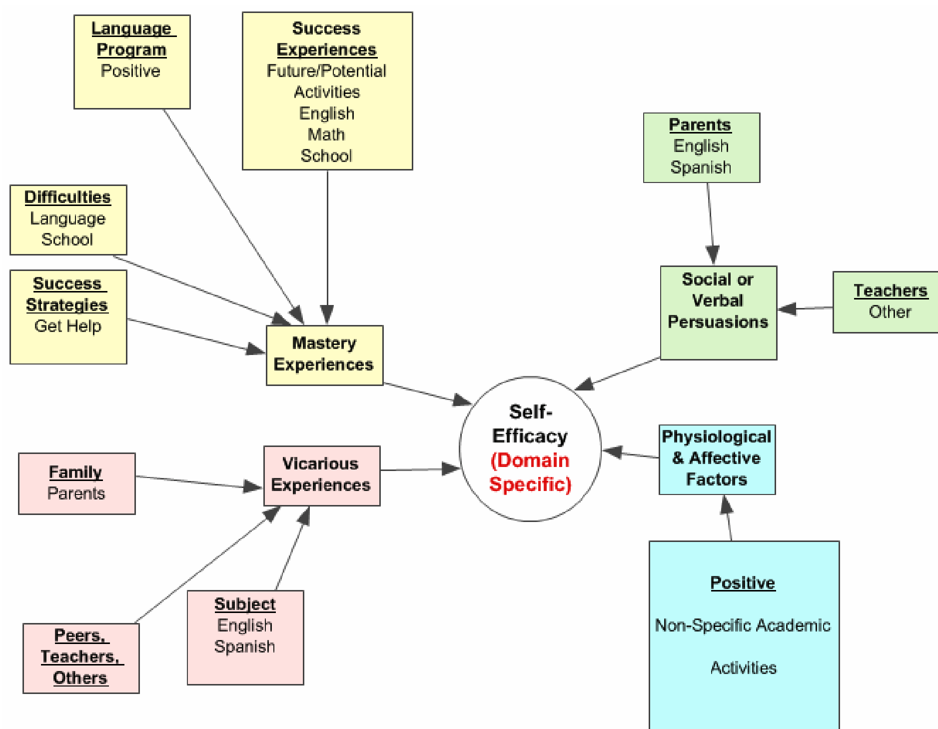

Figure 7. Similarities in parent responses.

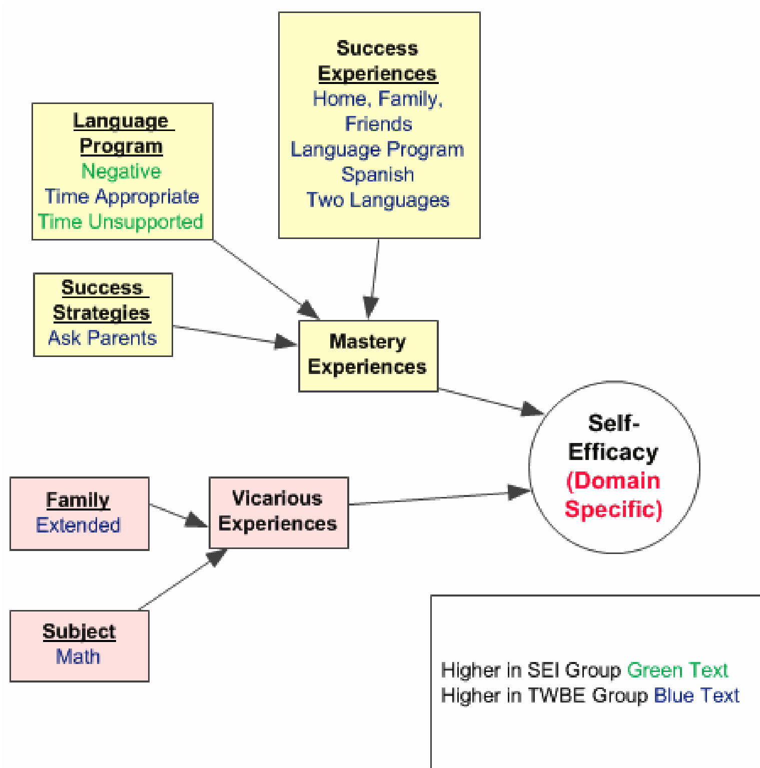

Figure 8. Differences in parent responses.

www.manaraa.com

Focusing on the differences between the two groups, eight themes emerged from the parent interviews. Those themes are presented in Table 15. Six of those items came from the mastery experience category of Bandura's (1977, 1986, 2006) self-efficacy theory, and two came from his vicarious experience category. I had originally thought that I would have unique coding in the parent attitude sub-branch, but my analysis revealed that I had already covered the items that popped up as emerging themes. Therefore, I will only focus on mastery and vicarious experiences in the discussion that follows.

Table 15

Bandura's Self-Efficacy Development Theory and Most Common Themes in Parent Interviews

Bandura' theory	SEI total (%)	TWBE total (%)	Difference (%)
Mastery experiences			
Incorrect knowledge about length of time involved in SLA	4 (67%)	2 (40%)	27%
Reported success with two languages	6 (100%)	4 (80%)	20%
Reported success with Spanish	4 (67%)	5 (100%)	33%
Reported success with language program	2 (33%)	4 (80%)	47%
Reported success with home, family, and friends	1 (17%)	4 (80%)	63%
Used asking parents as strategy	2 (33%)	3 (60%)	27%
Vicarious experiences			
Extended family	1 (17%)	4 (80%)	63%
Math	5 (83%)	3 (60%)	23%

Mastery experiences. Nine of the differences I discovered between the SEI and TWBE programs were in mastery experiences. Interestingly, the information the parents reported about children's mastery was very different from what their children reported—particularly regarding the children's use of Spanish. Because most of the parent comments involved the use of Spanish and the choice of language program (i.e., SEI or TWBE), I report those findings in detail, below.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Language program. One of the questions I asked the parents was how long they thought it would take for a person to become fully proficient in academic English. Four of the SEI parents gave responses that are not supported by second language acquisition research. Cummins (1996) wrote about the amount of time that it takes individuals to learn academic English so that they can be proficient in their schooling. He suggested that it takes anywhere from four to ten years to develop what is known as cognitive/academic language proficiency. Four (67%) of the six parents whose children were in SEI did not have a clear understanding of this concept. In some cases the responses were almost comical to me because of my personal experience with SLA and because I have studied this area for so many years. For example, one parent said it occurs within six months to a year. Another one remarked that it happens in kindergarten. The other two parents also believed SLA occurs quickly. The parents of the TWBE children were much closer to the mark. Both of them said it takes about three years. One even specified that it is completed during K-3, fairly close to what the research says, particularly with children who are just beginning their formal educations.

Questions that I asked parents during both rounds of interviews led to my receiving information about why their children were placed in the SEI or TWBE programs. There were some differences by programs. In some instances, it appears that the parent had little say into what program their children entered. For example, parents came to school to register their children. Unless there was a friend or someone else who had knowledge of the TWBE program or unless the parent knew of the program personally, the child was enrolled in the SEI program. Other parents were very purposive about their choices. Some knew about the TWBE program and put them in it. Other parents knew of the TWBE and opted not to do it. parents made choices about the program for their children. Because TWBE is the default program for children to enter,

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

all children who were enrolled in the TWBE were placed in the program at the request of their parents. However, some of the SEI parents made a conscious choice to have their children in the SEI program; others did not. I have already discussed the case of Victor Bona whose teachers pulled him out of the TWBE program and place him in the SEI program. After reviewing the interview transcripts from Sra. Bona, it appears that she did not have much say in the process. Sra. Ramirez reported that "Simply they put him in this program (SEI). I don't remember putting him in this program. Simply they put him in."

Other parents made choices based on a variety of reasons. For example, Sra. Aragón was one of the SEI parents who purposely enrolled David in the SEI program. She did it so that he would learn more English; she thought she could teach him Spanish at home. The reality is that he doesn't know Spanish. During the first interview I asked her how she felt about her choice. Her response: "I don't feel too good about that because when it gets to family get together, grandparents don't know any English, so it is a little hard for him to speak Spanish." The fact that Miguel Gomez ended up in the TWBE program is almost a fluke. Sra. Gomez recounted: "When I went to the school they told me they had this program and said it would help him to learn both languages and will give him many opportunities in the future to know both languages."

Success experiences. Parents made comments about their children's success experiences. I found notable differences between the responses of the two groups in four areas: success with the two languages; Spanish; language program; and home, family, and friends.

As I worked with the parent interviews, it became apparent that the parents in this study did not want their children to lose Spanish. Two responses from the SEI parents expressed the sentiments of the other parents. Because Sra. Aragón (Sra. is the Spanish equivalent of Mrs.)

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

speaks beautiful English, I did the first interview with her. On that occasion, she and I had the following exchange:

Sra. A: Well, I decided to do just the English because I was more aware that he would learn Spanish at home. So he doesn't know Spanish.

EAM: He doesn't know Spanish? Does he speak it at all?

Sra. A: He speaks Spanish just a little bit; he hardly understands it. He does not know how to read or write it.

EAM: How do you feel about that?

Sra. A: I don't feel too good about that because when it gets to family get-togethers, grandparents don't know any English, so it is a little hard for him to speak Spanish.

During her second interview, Sra. Ramirez recognized that it was not the fault of the school that her son Carlos does not know Spanish: "Because I did not put him in dual immersion, the school has nothing to do that my son does not speak Spanish."

Just as I asked the students to rate their Spanish ability, I also asked the parents to rate the Spanish ability of their children. While four (67%) of the SEI students gave themselves either 4 or 5 on the self-ratings, their parents displayed a more realistic understanding of their children's Spanish ability. With only one exception, the parents rated their children lower than the children did themselves.

Parents in both programs want their children to know both English and Spanish. Much of the coding in the node Success with Two Languages was about wanting their children to know both languages. One-hundred percent of the SEI parents made comments about learning both

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

languages; however, five (87%) of them gave reasons for wanting their children to learn both languages. These reasons ranged from, "I believe it's very important because they become bilingual. They learn the second language that is Spanish. I think it helps her, because she can use her mind in both languages" (P04) to "This country is bilingual, it is important that he know both English and Spanish. He should know the language of his parents because they only speak Spanish. For me, it is important that he know both languages" (P02). Other reasons involved using both languages to communicate: "It was easier for them to learn both languages and that way they could, if they find a person that doesn't know Spanish or English, they could either talk to them, either language" (P01); "She is able to communicate with us and with the other people who speak the other language" (P05); and "He can communicate in both languages, and [it] is good to learn more" (P12).

Although only 80% of the TWBE parents made references to their children learning the two languages, they also gave reasons why it is important. Some of these parents linked the retention and use of Spanish to their heritage. Consider the response of Sr. Esposito, "She understands where I come from and where her parents come from, and she follows the same traditions we have." Sra. Maciel wants her daughter to know her heritage, but she also has a utilitarian reason for her daughter to know both languages:

> It's very important that my daughter, as she is a Latina know well her original language. And another reason is she can translate for us in either of the two languages when we need it. It's important because if she has the two languages, she has more opportunity for study or work.

Additionally, Sra. Archuleta made a compelling argument for learning two languages:

> If you only know one language you are limited, but if you have two or more, your mind is more open to absorb or learn. . . .I believe it is very important he can communicate, can understand both languages, because many parents today believe that learning only English is enough, but it is important that he can understand and read it, can translate can express, everything he can do with the Spanish language.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Four (80%) of the TWBE parents commented on how the elementary language program had impacted the relationships that their children have with their families and friends. Not surprisingly, all of these parents were pleased that their children had the ability to interact with their Spanish-speaking family. For example, Maristella's mother said: "I think [it] is important because she has never had to stop to speak her Spanish, and she is able to relate with her family who lives in Mexico." If Juanita "wants to write a letter to her grandmother or any relatives she can do it in Spanish." According to Sr. Esposito, "[Spanish is] the language she speaks most of the time at home; [it] is the language she watch on the TV; [it] is most of the time [for] the magazines or newspaper she finds at home. That way she practices every day, every day and writes every day, too."

One of the questions that I asked parents in the second round of interviews was specifically about their children's elementary language program. Although some of the TWBE parents reported that their children struggled with various aspects of their elementary school, all four (80%) of the parents who had material coded in the node representing the language program were pleased. Sra. Maciel summed up the experience well:

> Up till now she has not had any problems. The programs they had in elementary really helped her, served her well. She really struggled, worked a lot these last years and then she gained her goal, and now it's not a problem for her, English, everything is fine. She had problems in third and fourth grade in elementary and was low in reading, but from there on, forward and gained all her goals, and then in sixth grade she was above level in reading.

Both the parents in the SEI program who made comments about their children's elementary program were also pleased. Sra. Aragón observed, "All has gone very well, the program has pleased me and they have helped him to speak [English] well and for progressing in his writing and his reading."

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Vicarious experiences. SEI and TWBE parents differ in two areas of vicarious experience: extended family and math. One SEI parent commented on the vicarious experiences her son has in Spanish: "The only children that would speak Spanish to him is the grandkids, my grandkids. They don't know how to speak English" (P01). On the other hand, all the TWBE parents who made comments about their children's vicarious experience spoke about how their children could interact with their extended family. This difference certainly was not unexpected. Spanish is the language for the majority of the students' extended family. The SEI students have limited ability with their Spanish, so they cannot communicate with their extended family. The TWBE have learned Spanish, so they have the capability to speak with and write to extended family members.

The other area in vicarious experiences where there was a large difference between the two groups was in math. I asked the parents if they tried to promote math success at home. Two of the SEI parents who responded to this question said, "No." The other three gave examples of activities they did to help their children. Included in these activities was using recipes and playing card games. The three TWBE parents spoke of playing board games and using recipes.

The first reference was in the second interview I did with Rosario Marcel; it contains evidence of misinformation that the parent had. While I was interviewing Rosario, her mother was present. Although Sra. Marcel spoke very little English and I speak no Spanish, we were trying to communicate. At one point, Sra. Marcel said something to Rosario. Rosario then translated it for me. Sra. Marcel explained why she didn't put Rosario in the TWBE program: she saw her daughter struggling with English and thought she would struggle more in Spanish. The misinformation that Sra. Marcel had when she made the decision to put her daughter in the SEI program was that children in TWBE learn English in addition to Spanish, and they usually

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

learn English faster than their SEI peers. This account is evidence that although all the Spanish-speaking parents indicated a desire that their children learn Spanish, they also want them to learn English as quickly as possible.

In the second interview Victor Bona and I were talking about math. I asked him what would make him feel more confident in his mathematical ability. He said: "The teacher has to teach us something." He identified an item of critical importance. Teachers must instruct and do it in a way that allows students to learn.

The third reference supports TWBE theory: that children will learn English when they are in a bilingual program and learning some content in their native language. During the second interview, Sra. Maciel explained to the interviewer that in 4th grade Maristella was struggling with reading. After speaking to the teacher about the situation, Sra. Maciel reported that the teacher began "to peak with her and that was when she began to improve in reading."

Even at his young age, Victor Bona knows the importance of building relationships. When we were talking about the work habits he has in English, he said that he is friendly with the teacher. Blum (2005) remarked that

> School connection is the belief by students that adults in the school care about their learning and about them as individuals. Students are more likely to succeed when they feel connected to school. [Furthermore,] increasing the number of students connected to school is likely to improve critical accountability measures. Strong scientific evidence demonstrates that increased student connection to school decreases absenteeism, fighting, bullying and vandalism while promoting educational motivation, classroom engagement, academic performance, school attendance and completion rates. (p. 1).

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Another way to express connectedness is to talk about relationship building. Victor is building relationships. He is doing his part by being friendly and responsive to the teacher. This puts him in a wonderful position to build relationships with his teachers and other school personnel.

The final reference occurred during the first interview with Sra. Aragón. She uses English very competently so I was able to interview her. We had talked about her decision to put not to put David in the TWBE program. She wanted him to learn English very well and thought she would be able to teach him Spanish at home. However, her plan was thwarted by her older daughters. "I have two older daughters, older than him, so they spoke to him in English. I always talked to him in Spanish, and he answers me back in English . . . . He learned how to speak English watching *Lion King* over and over. Her comments illustrated so powerfully that even with the best intentions of the parents to continue their children's Spanish development, the pull of English is so strong and the presence of English is so great that without additional support, children do not keep their first language. Sra. Aragón made one of the saddest comments I heard during all of the interviews when she said that David does not know Spanish. What a tragic outcome for him and his family.

Conclusion

The findings in this chapter addressed the two questions that guided this research after I refined the study. The first part of the findings explored potential differences in the two groups of children as might be present in archival records. I analyzed several years' worth of language acquisition assessment data to determine a) if all students were making progress toward the acquisition of English and (b) to see if there were differences in the two groups. I also analyzed five years of CRT data and attendance records during the years the children were at Taylor. My

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

purpose in analyzing these records was to determine if there was an observable difference between the two groups.

The second part of this chapter reported on the findings of the student interviews. I explained how I came to the decision I made for considering an item important enough to be included. Also, I supported my findings with quotations for both groups of students.

The third section presented findings from the parent interviews. As with the student interviews, I detailed my decision-making processes and supported my conclusions with evidence from the interviews.

Finally, I described several comments of parents and students that seemed particularly relevant to this study, even though they did not meet the cutoff threshold for coding. With the exception of those comments, I will discuss my data and what they may mean to me in Chapter 5.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Chapter 5: Discussion and Recommendations

This chapter involves my reflections on Chapter 4. In this chapter I try to make meaning of the data explained in Chapter 4. Then I make recommendations. Two research questions guided my study:

1. What are the differences and similarities in self-efficacy between students who have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual immersion or an immersion/sheltered English program?
2. What are differences and similarities of parental attitudes concerning their children's schooling between those whose children have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual immersion and those whose children have participated in an immersion/sheltered English program?

An archival search of student records and two rounds of interviews with 11 students and their parents produced the data the informs my discussion and recommendations.

Interpretation of Findings from Archival Search

Students in the sheltered English immersion (SEI) program and the two-way bilingual education program were similar in many ways but there were differences that were revealed in my archival search. I found that the students were similar in their acquisition of English. All students, regardless of the program in which they were enrolled made gains in their acquisition of English as they went through their elementary schooling. However I did find differences between the two groups in two of the records I analyzed: content mastery, as evidenced in year-end criterion referenced tests (CRTs); and attendance.

Difference in year-end assessments. The first difference was in the criterion-referenced assessments that the state requires each year. For me, this difference was more problematic, as I

www.manaraa.com

will explain. Students in the TWBE program outscored their SEI peers in all (2008 math and 2008 science) assessments over a five-year span. Students are scored on a 4-point scale. The difference between the two groups ranged from a low of .1 to a high of .9. To me this is a surprising finding. What is causing this difference? Is it a difference in the children's intellectual ability or does the TWBE increase the children's academic performance because they are learning state-required material, on which they are tested at the end of the year, in their native language?

Although I do not have a clear understanding of why I observed this phenomenon in the CRT data, it could be the result of fundamental differences in the two groups of students. When I did my first round of interviews, there was only one child who was in a different educational setting than the other students. This individual was in special education. Since the first interviews in 2010, the children have moved to a middle school setting. At the middle school, course offerings allow for a more differentiated approach to teaching and learning. For example, English and math almost always have a regular level and an advanced or honors level in addition to special education. Two of the members of the TWBE group were enrolled in a geometry class during the 2011–2012 scholastic year when they were eighth graders. This placement would be considered an advanced math placement. One of those students said that she was also in an honors English class during seventh grade but opted to take regular English as an eighth grader because she didn't feel the two classes were that different. Analyzing what the students told me during the interviews, I believe there was only one student in the SEI group who was not enrolled in the regular education program. That student receives special education services. In other words, the information I received from the students during the second interview and the

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

information from their CRT assessments support the idea that the students in the groups are academically different.

Furthermore, the difference in the CRT data between the two groups could also be the result of the TWBE group receiving instruction in their native language. This is consistent with the findings of Thomas and Collier (1997a). They found in their longitudinal study that the differences in academic achievement found in different program models increased with time because as ELL students aged, they spent more time in English-only classrooms. These authors concluded that only those students who received academic and cognitive development in both their first language and English until at least fifth or sixth grade continued to perform well in high school. Their finding also supports (1977, 1986, 1997) theory of self-efficacy development. They have had successes in their academic and cognitive performances that should create positive self-efficacy in those areas. The students in the TWBE class received academic and cognitive development in Spanish throughout their elementary schooling. By the time I did my second round of interviews, all of the TWBE children had received instruction in Spanish through the sixth grade.

Difference in attendance. The second difference I found in the archival search was in the students' attendance. The TWBE group exceeded their SEI counterparts in attendance. With two exceptions, however, all participants' average absentee rate was six days or less per year, certainly not excessive. Although there is a difference of just under four absences between the two groups (including the data from the outliers in the groups), these two groups are more alike than different in their attendance. There was no indication in the records as to why the children missed. I wonder, however, if there is a comfort level in the TWBE group that makes coming to school easier for them.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Summary of differences in archival records. In summary, the archival analysis revealed that in the area of second language acquisition and attendance the children in the two groups were very similar. However, the study did indicate that in the area of content mastery there is a difference between the two groups. Additional research needs to be done to see if this is a common phenomenon or something that just happened with this small sample of students.

Interpretation of Findings from Semi-structured Student Interviews

As I analyzed my student interview data, I was constantly searching to see how the two groups of students were similar and different. I used Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) self-efficacy theory as the framework for my semi-structured interviews.

Findings related to mastery experiences. Mastery experiences are an important component in Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) self-efficacy theory. For the purposes of this study, I compared students' self-reported feelings about their academic and linguistic competency. I noted differences in several thematic groupings, including the difficulties they encounter in school and in using Spanish, the level of success they experience at school, and the various study skills they employ.

Differences in self-reported difficulties in school. Students in the sheltered English immersion program and in the two-way bilingual education program reported differences in the kinds of difficulties they have. One hundred percent of the students in the SEI group discussed difficulties with school. Those difficulties included doing homework, learning material, and understanding certain subjects. In the TWBE group, on the other hand, only one student mentioned having a difficulty. After a close analysis of his statement, it turned out the statement did not reflect a true difficulty at all. Instead, it was recognition that teacher feedback helped him learn. This difference supports what advocates of strong language maintenance or two-way

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

bilingual programs theorize: Supporting the native language increases academic performance (Cummins, 1999; Thomas & Collier, 1997a, 1997b) because English-language learners are not being slowed down in the learning of content material because they cannot understand the language of instruction. This relates to self-efficacy because when children are successful in their attempts at learning, they experience what Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) calls mastery experience, the most powerful of self-efficacy.

It was surprising to find that all of the SEI students expressed concerns about one or another aspect of school while only one TWBE student did. I asked the same questions of each student, regardless of group membership. Obviously, if this were a large sample size, this would be significant finding. However, because of my small sample size, I do not know exactly what the finding means, but it could indicate a comfort level that the TWBE students have in their academic performance because their academic learning is supported in their first language, Spanish.

There are other variables that have nothing to do with the language program that might also explain the difference. For example, although all of the teachers in both programs were licensed and ESL endorsed, I never saw them teach. Some of them may have better teaching strategies than others; some of them may form relationships with the students more easily than others. Some teachers may have more experience than others. They may differ in many other ways as well.

Another variable that needs to be considered is that the students in the two groups are fundamentally different. After conducting the second interview, I learned that two of the TWBE members are taking advanced math. I have learned over the years, both as a classroom teacher and administrator, that students in advanced classes act, study, inquire, and perform differently

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

than do those in regular education classes. Furthermore, I know that one of the members of the SEI group receives special education services for a specific learning disability. As I have worked with hundreds of special education students and sat in on their annual education planning meetings, I've observed that the majority of these students struggle with school. The parent of this special education student made the comment that "she will always have to work hard" (P05). Also, one other SEI student said that she struggles with learning (S04). These differences may very well constitute the reasons why the two groups of students are so different in this area.

Even though my data is coarse with a small *N* and is not transferable, it fits the theory of TWBE education: Those who are educated in their first language and whose first language is nurtured and supported learn both the content taught at school and the second language. Although my data is not fully robust, it fits the theory of TWBE; namely, when ELLs are taught in their first language,

I am compelled to include in this discussion one variable that is at the heart of this study: TWBE education students receive instruction in their native language, thus allowing them to be on the same content-learning level as their English-speaking peers. When they are learning content area material in Spanish, they are learning content, period. During this time, they are not also trying to learn a second language.

Differences in difficulties with Spanish. My findings about students' self-efficacy related to Spanish literacy initially seemed to run counter to TWBE theory. As I studied the ratings the SEI students gave themselves, I was surprised at how highly they rated their Spanish ability, and I was even more surprised by some of the confidence ratings they assigned to themselves. With only one exception, they all said that had moderate to high levels of confidence in Spanish. I couldn't understand why they would rate themselves so highly, when the

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

explanation they gave for the rating often contained information about what they couldn't do (such as reading and writing in Spanish). Perhaps because these students have never had to use Spanish as an academic language, they are naively unaware that they can only use Spanish in their social lives, not in academics.

I was also surprised by the lower confidence ratings that the TWBE students gave themselves, because they told me repeatedly that they use Spanish all the time. Unlike their SEI counterparts, they knew what it means to use Spanish as the language for learning. Because of this knowledge, they may have rated themselves lower because they recognize that they still have much Spanish to learn. They may have also discovered that there is more to bilingualism that speaking and hearing; reading and writing play important roles.

Looking beyond the students' self-ratings, the other information they and their parents provided in interviews fits nicely within TWBE theory and is important to this study. Although all of the students consider themselves bilingual, the SEI students base that judgment on their ability to converse, however adequately or inadequately, in Spanish. None of the SEI students are biliterate. The difficulties that the SEI students identified were major problems that have the possibility to interfere with communication. For example, they have to use circumlocution because they do not have an adequate vocabulary, or they have to rely on others to start a conversation because they do not know how. They cannot read or write Spanish, either for academic or social settings. This is a major finding of the study. The SEI students do not have a clear understanding of what bilingualism is. I believe that because they are native Spanish speakers, they delude themselves into thinking that they can really handle everything in Spanish. As will be discussed later, their parents recognize that they can't.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

The TWBE students, on the other hand, have a much more realistic idea of their Spanish capabilities. Their confidence was not inflated as was that of their SEI peers. Perhaps this is because they have used Spanish in academic settings and know that simple conversational Spanish will not support them in academics. The difficulties that the TWBE students reported were minor in comparison: not being able to spell a Spanish word or having a long Spanish word in a quiz. All of the TWBE students are biliterate; they can read and write Spanish as well as speak and understand it.

The difference between the two groups in this area seems to be a direct result of the elementary program in which the children were enrolled. For those students in the SEI program, retention of their Spanish was not a priority, learning English as quickly as possible was. All of the children have learned English and communicate well in that language, but for the SEI group, it came at the expense of not nurturing their first language.

Differences in self-reported school success. Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) theorized that experience is the greatest source for gaining self-efficacy. As I analyzed my matrices and coding, I only found one area where the two groups met the criteria I had established in the successes they experienced. The only difference between the two groups in the area of successes was that 100% of the SEI students said they had success in school while only 60% of the TWBE reported the same thing. I found this difference to be puzzling, because the TWBE group had mentioned fewer difficulties with school. As I read and analyzed the interviews it was obvious that all the students have had successes in school. The two groups talked about different things. The SEI group talked about doing homework and getting good grades. Although the TWBE group made fewer comments about their successes in school, they had them. Both groups talked about successes in the areas that I interviewed them about.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

I do not have a definitive answer for why the lower rate of TWBE success reporting occurred, but I do have some possible reasons. As I looked at the transcripts for both groups, I found that I did more probing with the SEI students than with the TWBE students. It might be that my probing was the catalyst for the SEI group's increased comments. Additionally, the TWBE students who made comments that ended up being coded at this node all expressed the notion that they did their best in school. What more could they have said about their successes? They simply did the best they could. In conclusion, I do not think that this difference reflects an underlying phenomenon, but instead may represent an inconsistency in my method.

Differences in strategies for school success. More important than my finding about self-reported school success were the findings related to the strategies students use to achieve school success; in other words, the students' study skills. The SEI group discussed doing their homework and turning it in more frequently than did their TWBE counter parts. However, the TWBE group, compared to the SEI group, mentioned that they used three specific strategies: note taking, practice, and studying.

Note taking. Unlike the SEI students, who complained about having to take notes, the TWBE students mentioned their reasons for taking notes. They didn't express frustration or boredom in doing it. They recognized that note taking is a viable, reliable method to support learning when they are away from the teacher. These two groups of students had different teachers during their elementary years. It is possible that the teachers who taught SEI had a different methodology than did the TWBE teachers. Some teachers spend time teaching their students how to use specific study skills. Perhaps the TWBE teachers taught their students both the value of note taking and a method for doing it.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Practice. The idiom "practice makes perfect" has been bandied about for decades. Forty years ago, Dr. Ethna Reid of the Exemplary Center for Reading Instruction changed my mindset when she inserted the word *perfect* before *practice:* "Perfect practice makes perfect." Practice is an important part of skill building. In every subject that I have taught or observed, one of the aspects of the learning process involved practice.

The student participants who indicated they use practice as a success strategy seem to use it wisely and effectively; however, it is troubling to me that I didn't have a higher percentage of students in the SEI group who said they practiced to master skills in school.

Perhaps practice is such a common event in schools that the students did not even consider it. Yet, all but one of the TWBE included practice as a point of discussion during the interview when we were talking about their mastery experiences (compared to only half of the SEI students). Is this difference a result of their schooling, or an indication that they are, in fact, different kinds of students? I do not know.

Studying. In every school setting that I have ever been in as a student, teacher, or administrator—kindergarten to graduate school—studying was an expectation. In order to be successful, students must study. Therefore, I was surprised to see the low numbers of interviewees (33% of SEI and 60% of TWBE) who mentioned that they study. Perhaps because studying is expected, is not something that the children think about as being a success strategy. I do find it odd, however, that only 45% of the eleven student participants said anything about studying.

Homework. Because the TWBE students appeared to be at the top of their game when it came to taking notes, practicing, and studying, I was perplexed that only three of them mentioned doing their homework and turning it in. Like practice and studying, homework is a

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

fact of school life. By late elementary school, homework is assigned in the majority of classes, and students are expected to do it. However, not all students have the vision of the importance of homework. Only five or (45%) of the student participants in this study mentioned homework; I do not know if it is such a universal expectation that they didn't mention it or if they do not do it and, therefore, did not bring it up.

Interpretation of differences in use of success strategies. Consistent use of these four success strategies is expected by most schools, regardless of the level of the student's education. It would be interesting to know whether the expectations for the students in the SEI and TWBE programs were the same. Also, I wonder if the teachers of the two groups taught them the same study skills. It is very possible that there were differences in the kinds of instruction the children received. However, it was outside the scope of this study to investigate that aspect of the school.

Summary of differences in mastery experiences. In summary, the children in the two different programs experienced differences in their mastery experiences. Students in the SEI program reported having more difficulties at school and with Spanish, but they seemed naively confident about their Spanish ability (even while they admitted—and their parents confirmed—they cannot read or write Spanish or even use it comfortably in conversation). While the study did not reveal why the SEI students had more difficulties at school, the difficulty that they had with Spanish is most likely a direct result of their elementary program. Students in the TWBE program more often than their SEI peers mentioned that they use the success strategies of note taking, practice, studying, and completing homework. This study did not identify the reason for that difference.

Differences in self-reported social or verbal persuasions. In addition to having personal experiences, both successful and unsuccessful, Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) theorized

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

that individuals develop self-efficacy by listening to verbal or social persuasions. These are comments that people make about how others do things. The closer the individual is to the person receiving the verbal feedback, the more powerful the comment is. The only difference I found between the groups was the students' report of the kinds of comments parents made to them about learning English: all of the TWBE students, compared to only half of the SEI students, reported parental encouragement to master English. Parents in both groups apparently believe that mastery of English is vital to their children's success in the United States.

The difference between the parental comments in the two groups was that the TWBE parents also mentioned the importance of the students' retaining their first language. While the SEI parents wanted their children to learn the language so that they could get good jobs, go to college, or translate for others, they didn't connect that learning to being bilingual. The TWBE parents, on the other hand, told their children that being bilingual would help them obtain better employment. This is an important distinction. The TWBE parents recognized the importance of their children's retention of their first language. The SEI group did not overtly make that connection. Additionally, in parent interviews, there was a sense of pride and accomplishment with the TWBE parents when they talked about their children knowing the parents' first language. They expressed contentment that their children could communicate with their extended family. The difference in the counsel the two groups of parents gave their children may be a direct result of the language program the children were in. Years ago, the TWBE parents made a choice that would allow their children's Spanish to be nurtured and maintained.

Physiological or affective factors. As was covered in the literature review section, Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) posited that individuals develop their sense of self-efficacy by the experiences they have, by observing the experiences of others, by listening to what individuals

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

say about what they do, and by how their body reacts when they perform tasks. Within the physiological or affective factors cluster, there was only one area where the two groups were different, and that was in the negative references students made about non-specific academics. Although there was a between-groups difference of 67% in the number of students who made such references, an analysis of their remarks revealed that the students in both groups were making similar comments. I do not know why they TWBE group expressed more frustration than did their SEI peers.

Interpretation of Findings from Semi-structured Parent Interviews

The second research question was to determine how the attitudes of the parents of children in both groups were different in regards to their children's education. Although I asked different questions during the parent interviews than student interviews, I used the same framework for coding them: Bandura's (1977, 1986, 2006) four categories. Most categories were mentioned equivalently by both groups of parents. Below I discuss the differences, which fell under mastery experiences (almost all relating to Spanish use and the language program at school) and vicarious experiences.

Mastery experiences. The perceptions of parents about their students' progress with English and Spanish were poignant. The greatest differences that this study revealed were in the areas second language acquisition and the language program in which the children were enrolled.

Parent understanding of second-language acquisition. Parents did not know how long second language acquisition takes. Researchers (Cummins, 1996; Collier, 1995) in this area claimed that individuals need four to ten years to become proficient in cognitive, academic language. While TWBE parents made comments that were more research-supported, I'm not sure if this was just a good guess. As I reviewed the parents' comments in this area, I could not

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

help but question whether the parents of ELLs have sufficient information regarding the whole process of language acquisition. For example, do they know the two different kinds of language skills that individuals develop as they go through the process of SLA, namely social language and academic language? I certainly had no idea about the time involved in SLA until I earned my ESL endorsement. I didn't know it when I learned French so many years ago. Then, too, I question whether it would make a difference in the support parents give if they did know.

However, if parents knew that SLA is a complex, lengthy process, they might be able to alleviate the frustration and angst their children may go through as they are learning English. I believe part of the reason I saw this phenomenon was because I did not ask direct questions of the parents regarding the four areas of self-efficacy development. Yet, I found that many of the responses the parents made seemed very congruent with Bandura's (1977, 1986, 2006) categories.

Parent attitudes about students' language progress. It seems to me that the most perplexing, significant finding coming from the parent interviews was that all of the parents, without exception, want their children to retain their Spanish, yet the SEI parents made choices when the children entered elementary school that reduced the likelihood that their children would retain Spanish.

Selection of language program. I do not know if the choices these parents made were a result of not being fully informed about what the TWBE program is and how it would impact their children or if they simply showed up for registration and were placed in the regular SEI program. I found it somewhat troubling that as I read the parent transcripts, I heard repeatedly how they want their children to retain Spanish; then they would say that they were satisfied with the elementary language program their children were in, but they wished they had learned

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Spanish. I did not ask any specific questions about how the parents selected the programs their children were in during elementary school, so I don't know what their thought processes were unless they said something related to that subject during part of the interview. It seems important to know what information the parents had and why they made the choices they did.

In summary, the area where I found the biggest difference between the two parent groups was in the area of Spanish that parents want their children to retain Spanish, but some of them did not choose an elementary program where that could take place. Because there seems to be a lack of consistency regarding SEI and TWBE placement, it would be interesting to find out if/how Taylor Elementary advertises the TWBE program and how they elicit input from parents before education decisions are made concerning their children. I have said it before, but it warrants repeating. The parents claimed that having their children learn keep Spanish was important for them, yet they chose not to put their children in a TWBE program. I find this to be an inconsistency between the what the parents say they want and what they actually do. I do not understand this at all.

Parent comments on Spanish and family relationships. I found it compelling that the TWBE parents saw the impact on immediate and extended family relationships of their children using Spanish and the SEI parents were virtually silent on the matter. Although the SEI parents had nothing coded at this particular node, I remember what Sra. Bona said about her son's not being able to communicate with her in Spanish: "When he wants to talk to me about something from school, it frustrates him, because he does not know many Spanish words." Obviously not knowing Spanish profoundly impacts family relationships.

Parent involvement in academic success strategies. When I was coding and analyzing the parent transcripts, I realized that parents had very little to say about the success strategies

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

their children used in school. Perhaps the reason for this is that I didn't ask a direct question to the parents as I did to the students. It also could be that the parents do not know what study skills their children use. My analysis of the success strategies with the parent interviews produced only one strategy where there was a difference between the two groups. That was in getting help from parents. Only two (33%) of the SEI parents and three (60%) of the TWBE parents had coding in the node. All of the parents explained that they help their children, particularly in Spanish.

Vicarious experiences. There were two areas where the references made by parents differed by language program group. Parents whose children were in the TWBE program commented that their children could communicate in Spanish with extended family members, particularly their grandparents. This provided for these children a vicarious experience of Spanish use. It is a direct result of the language program that the children were in during their elementary years. The TWBE children have the writing and reading skills that permitted them to write letters to grandparents and other relatives because they had been formally taught in Spanish. The other children did not.

The second area where the parent groups differed in vicarious experiences was in the kinds of things they did with their children to support math. The TWBE parents said that they engaged in activities that promoted math with their children. A major reason for this finding may be that TWBE children can converse in Spanish about math. Their math assignments are often written in Spanish, and they have developed the specialized math vocabulary in both English and Spanish—which allows them to share this content learning with their parents and solicit parent help.

Comparison of parent perspectives on mastery and vicarious experiences. In many respects the SEI and TWBE parents are similar. However, the way they have orchestrated their

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

children's education varies dramatically. Sadly, for the majority of the SEI parents they either did not know about the TWBE or chose not to take advantage of it. Their comments reflected their eagerness that their children learn Spanish and their frustration that their children cannot. I am left with a nagging question: Why did they not select the TWBE?

Although having vicarious experiences is not as powerful for developing self-efficacy as having mastery experiences, it is still an important factor (Bandura 1977, 1986, 2006). Parents and extended family are in terrific places to provide models for these students. The children who speak Spanish more fluently have the added benefit of being able to communicate readily with their non-English speaking relatives.

Issues in Language Program Selection and Spanish Success

As mentioned previously, the parents of the SEI students recognized the deficiencies in their children's Spanish. They told me of the frustration their children have when they are around Spanish-speaking grandparents and other extended family members and when they cannot communicate adequately in Spanish.

Skutnabb-Kangas (2004a, 2004b, 2006) emphatically claimed that language-minority parents do not want their children to lose their native language. However, if it is so important to the SEI parents, and they recognize as SEI parent Sra. Ramirez did that the TWBE program would help their students achieve this goal, why did they not take advantage of the TWBE program at Taylor? One possible reason is that when the Spanish parents come to register their children for elementary school, they do not have enough information about language acquisition generally or about the TWBE at Taylor to make an informed decision; consequently, they simply put their children in the regular program because they think their children will learn English more quickly.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

One SEI student, Victor Bona, deserves additional discussion. Victor was in the TWBE class when he was in first grade. Sra. Bona indicated that he was struggling with keeping both languages so the teachers made the decision to pull him from the TWBE class and place him in the SEI program. Victor's mom asserted, "The teachers decided to pull him out of the double immersion program because he was not advancing in his classes….He was getting behind. That's why they decided to put him in the program of English only."

For me, this raises additional questions, such as, Were the parents involved in the decision to pull him from the TWBE program? Or would Victor have learned both languages if he had been given the chance to be in the TWBE longer than one year? Is there something else going on that prevented Victor from learning, a special education issue, perhaps? The decision to pull him from the TWBE may have a life-long impact on Victor—he doesn't yet know Spanish. Sra. Bona again:

> He struggles when we say the prayers. He does not know the meaning of many Spanish words. In the house he tries to speak English most although I do not speak English, only Spanish. I have always spoken to him in Spanish. When he wants to talk to me about something from school, it frustrates him because he does not know many Spanish words.

Because the TWBE students had their native language supported during their elementary experience, I was not surprised that this group has achieved higher levels of Spanish success. Additionally, the parents' ratings of the students' Spanish fluency was higher and much closer to the students' self-ratings. The students reported that they used Spanish all the time. I attribute this to the children's being in the TWBE program during their elementary school experience.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

The issue that the SEI students have with Spanish is one of the central findings of my research. It appears that this issue stems directly from their elementary language program. Contrary to the fact that they think they are bilingual, they lack two of the skills that language provides individuals: the ability to read and write in the language. Unfortunately, their native language, while not devalued at Taylor, was not supported and maintained. The flip side of the coin is that without exception, their parents want them to retain their Spanish, yet for whatever reasons, they did not have them in the bilingual program during elementary school.

In a way, the setting in which the first language is not nurtured and maintained is contributing to language shift. Patrick (2012) defined language shift as "when a community who share a native language abandon it, and collectively shift to speaking another one instead." Patrick also explained that language shift is not a new phenomenon; it has been going on throughout the course of human history. When children begin to lose their ability to communicate in their first language, language shift beings.

I saw the beginnings of this when I spoke with some of the SEI children. They prefer using English to Spanish. David Aragón and Victor Bona are two examples. I have asked myself why this situation is occurring with the SEI children I studied. I can think of several reasons. The first reason may be that Spanish parents want their children to fit into the main stream of society. Learning English is one of the key factors for that to occur. The second possible reason may be that many of the parents thought they could maintain Spanish on their own. They use Spanish in their day-to-day activities and assumed that their children would continue growing in the language; however, they did not know what a strong pull toward English their children would experience once they began a formal study of English and used English all day at school. Obviously there was not the same emphasis on Spanish. Another key reason may be what

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

happens when the parents register their children at the elementary school: They may not be given adequate information about what TWBE will do for their children. Included in this information needs to be the difficulties the children may encounter as they begin the process, the supports that are available to help them overcome the challenges, and the long-term benefits of keeping their first language. Additionally, the parents may not understand or believe the theories about TWBE and its impact on language acquisition and Spanish maintenance. Although I saw this phenomenon, more investigation is necessary to truly understand what is happening.

Limitations

Beyond the small sample size, my inability to speak and write in Spanish is a major limitation of this study. When I did the first round of interviews, I interviewed Sra. Aragón and Sr. Esposito in English. All other interviews were done by a Spanish speaker. When I thought about doing the second round of parent interviews, I decided that I needed to have all of them done in Spanish. I made this decision because I did not feel like I was able to probe deeply enough with Sr. Esposito because his English would not allow him to do go as deeply as I wanted. I was able to obtain the services of a native Spanish-speaking bilingual couple who contacted all the parents, made arrangements to do the interviews over the phone, and then transcribed the interviews into Spanish. Once I had the Spanish transcripts, I had other bilingual individuals translate them into English. I feel that had I been able to speak Spanish I would have obtained richer detail from the parents. The parent interviews were substantially shorter than were the student interviews. One of the advantages of doing the interviews myself was I knew when I needed to push for more information. Although the individuals who did the interviews for me were trained, it simply was not the same as if I had done them myself.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

I did all the coding myself in English. Here again, my inability to use Spanish was a limitation, because my coding was based on English translations of parent statements, rather than on the actual parent statements. Arguably, my position as an outsider, rather than a member of the Latino culture, could have introduced some bias into the study; as my position as a longtime educator, administrator, and adult second language learner certainly did.

Recommendations for Practitioners

The following are specific recommendations for practitioners that came to light as a result of the analysis that I did for my study. They involve the dynamics of program selection and the parent-school partnership, as well as the district's K-12 plan for continuing to develop bilingualism beyond elementary-level TWBE.

First, parents need to be fully informed about the TWBE program offered at Taylor Elementary. Included in the information parents receive should be the benefits that will come from the program, specifically that the child will retain Spanish and that he or she will learn English fluently. This parent education needs to take place well in advance of kindergarten registration so that parents can make an informed decision.

Clearly, there was a discrepancy between what SEI parents hoped for their children in terms of Spanish language retention and development and what they observed in their children at the close of the elementary experience. I believe this disappointment—along with the tragedy of language shift—could have been easily averted if parents came into the registration process with more understanding of SLA and TWBE.

Second, all parents and schools form a partnership. Children who are learning a second language, whether they are in the SEI or TWBE program, would benefit from a team where parents and the school work together. As I read the parents transcripts, I learned that the parents

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

want to be supportive of their children. Providing scaffolding to parents so that they can be more supportive of their children's educational endeavors can only result in positives for all involved.

Third, when the TWBE children exit Taylor Elementary, they go to a middle school where there is not a continuation of the intensive Spanish program. The principal of Taylor indicated that this is one of the problems associated with the TWBE program: There is a gap between elementary and high school when the children cannot continue their study of Spanish. While this is certainly outside the purview of the principal and the school, having a continuation of the program started at Taylor needs serious consideration.

Areas for Further Inquiry

There are a plethora of unresolved questions that I have as a result of doing this study. The answers to them will require additional research.

Some questions involve administrative and teaching issues. For example, Mrs. Daniels mentioned in our interview that all of the teachers who work with ELLs have an ESL endorsement. It would be interesting to see if there are differences in the way the teachers in the two programs instruct. As with any group of professionals, the teaching ability of individual faculty members varies from person to person. Nothing in my study examined whether the teachers at Taylor use ESL strategies effectively and consistently. Future studies could investigate whether some of the differences in students' skills and perceptions relate to their instructors' teaching style or ability. I would also like to know if there is collaboration between the SEI and TWBE teachers.

When I spoke to the principal of the school, she indicated that there had been prejudices and discrimination with which she had to deal. Included in those prejudices are anti-Hispanic and anti-Spanish as well and anti-low socioeconomic sentiments. It would be helpful to know

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

whether the faculty and staff of the school have the same prejudices and discrimination as the greater community, and if so, whether the teachers teach differently because of it.

Other questions for research involve the academic outcomes of the language programs. Because my sample was so small, investigation needs to be done to determine if there is a difference in the children who are in the TWBE program and the SEI program, as evidenced by the differences I found in the CRT data.

As I interviewed the students, I received certain impressions about them. For example, the TWBE students seemed to have a confidence about them that I didn't see in the SEI students; however, when I began coding and analyzing the data, the impressions that I had were not substantiated. Further inquiry into this occurrence would provide information about why this happened. Was it researcher bias? Were the speech and vocabulary patterns of the two groups different? Perhaps the TWBE group of students had a more accurate perception of their abilities and held themselves to a higher standard when they talked about their successes.

The study data indicated some differences in the two groups of students. Further exploration into the background differences in the students and their parents, as well as the parenting styles of the parents, would be interesting. In my study, only two of the parents held post-secondary degrees, one in each group; however, both students of these more educated parents started in the TWBE program and the teachers pulled one out. An inquiry into the personal educational values of parents might provide information about why parents made the choices they did.

It is likely that the parents who selected TWBE bring to their children not just a desire for their children's bilingualism but also greater social and cultural capital and a greater involvement in education that helped them to choose TWBE in the first place and, at the same time, primes

www.manaraa.com

their children to succeed. Research at a school where ELLs are automatically placed in TWBE might help to control for this confounding variable.

It seems to me that students whose parents selected TWBE must have been better informed about SLA and TWBE than students whose parents selected SEI. It would be helpful to know whether the parents were better informed because they had been in the community longer and were thus better connected, because they were more proactive in investigating options, or because they happened to receive better guidance from school personnel or other parents on the day they registered their students. The program selection could also have been influenced by parents' education level and cultural experiences, their assumptions about what would help their child succeed in the United States, and many other factors. I leave to future researchers the task of investigating program selection in greater depth.

As mentioned, I do not speak Spanish and had to rely on the judgments of the individuals who interviewed the parents in Spanish to probe, to rephrase, and so on. It would be interesting to repeat the study with a researcher who speaks Spanish and who could do the translation and transcription as well as the analysis to see if the language of the researcher influences the responses of the parent participants.

Each of the participants in the study has a unique life narrative. An important task for researchers is to interpret how those life narratives. If administrators understand how these life narratives affect the educational decisions that minority-language parents make, schools may be better equipped to help parents make decisions that will result in the outcome parents say they want: children who develop fluency in L1 and L2 while excelling in academics and growing in self-efficacy.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

One of the most important discoveries of this research was that the parents in this study want their children to know Spanish. If this is so important to them, an investigation into how they make educational choices is necessary. Future research could investigate what level of Spanish literacy parents consider appropriate: speaking Spanish only or having the ability to speak, read, and write in the first language.

Conclusion

This study compared the self-efficacy of students who were in two common forms of programs used to teach English to English-language learners: bilingual education and sheltered English immersion. Self-efficacy is a domain-specific perception that an individual will or will not be successful in completing a specific task or using a specific skill. As the theoretical starting point for the research, I used Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) theory of self-efficacy development. Bandura theorized that individuals develop their self-efficacy through four avenues: (a) the experiences they have personally, (b) the models they have around them, (c) listening to the verbal comments made about them, and (d) through affective or physiological factors (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997).

This study also examined the attitudes of the participants. Specifically, I attempted to understand how the parents felt about the experiences their children had during their elementary years. For example, I wanted to know their views about their children's English-language program. I also attempted to discover why parents made the educational choices for their children that they do.

Data for the study came from archival records and semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions and addressed two research questions: (a) What are the differences in self-efficacy between students who have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

immersion or an immersion/sheltered English program? and (b) How do the attitudes of parents whose children have participated in a two-way Spanish-English bilingual program compare with the attitudes of parents whose children have participated in an immersion/sheltered English program, in terms of satisfaction with their children's schooling?

Although the findings indicated that students in both programs are similar in many ways, there were marked differences between the two groups. One of the most surprising findings is that all of the student participants considered themselves bilingual, yet those who were in the SEI program cannot read or write the language and use it only for social situations. The data that I have do not provide an explanation for this phenomenon. Additional research could be done to gain a clearer understanding of what the children mean by bilingual.

Another difference was that students in the two programs used different strategies for success. Those students who have been in the TWBE program reported using practice, study, and note taking as success strategies in school, while their SEI peers used doing homework and turning it in as a success strategy. Indeed, archival data indicated that the students in the TWBE program scored higher on the end-of-year tests. Not surprisingly, students in the TWBE program reported having more successes in Spanish than their SEI peers reported with Spanish.

One of the major findings in the parent interviews was that although all the parents expressed the desire that their children know Spanish, some parents chose not to use the TWBE program. Further inquiry needs to be done to find out why parents are so adamant about having their children learn Spanish but then don't take advantage of a program that is designed to teach them their native language. Additionally, parents whose children were in the TWBE program reported that their children had more success experiences with home, friends, and family, the

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

language program, and with both Spanish and English. The TWBE parents also indicated that their children had more extended family members who served as models for them.

As reported in the subjectivities appendix, my bias is in the direction of TWBE. During the time that I worked on the dissertation—as well as during the coursework phase of the degree—my feelings about TWBE only intensified. I firmly believe that by allowing children to learn content in their native language while they are learning English—and to do it in an environment where language-majority students are also learning a second language—is the best approach for teaching ELLs.

A critical finding from the study is that parents make decisions based on some interior theory, whether explicit or implicit, including random things such as meeting a friend who says they should enroll their children in the TWBE program, to make program selection for their children. Additionally, the SEI program seems to be the default for student placement unless a parent specifically requests the TWBE program. The results from the study seem to indicate that schools would do better to explain more clearly the features and purposes of their English-language learning programs to parents who have children needing to learn English.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

References

Akkari, A. (1998). Bilingual education: Beyond linguistic instrumentalization. *Bilingual Research Journal, 22*(2-4), 103-125.

Akos, P., & Ellis, C. M. (2008). Racial identity development in middle school: A case for school counselor individual and systemic intervention. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 86*(1), 26-33.

Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(4), 465-483.

Altheide, D. L., & Johnson, J. M. (1989). Criteria for assessing interpretive validity in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (pp. 283-312). Thousand Oaks: CA: Sage Publications.

Angrosino, M. V., & Mays de Pérez, K. A. (2003). Rethinking observation: From method to context. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed., pp. 107-154). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Azusa Unified School District. (n.d.). Illustration of Dr. Jim Cummins' grid (4 quadrants). Retrieved July 1, 2012, from http://www.azusausd.k12.ca.us/bilingual/pdf/Cummins2.pdf

Baker, K. (1998). Structured English immersion [Electronic version]. *Phi Delta Kappan, 80*(3), 199-204.

Baker, K. (2007, October 8, 2007). Lingua franca, Public Forum Letter, *The Salt Lake Tribune,* p. A14. Retrieved from http://www.sltrib.com/opinion

Ballard & Tighe, Publishers. (2011). IPT current designations charts. Retrieved June 12, 2012, from http://www.ballard-tighe.com/products/la/designationChart.asp

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Baltodano, M. P. (2004). Latino immigrant parents and the hegemony of Proposition 227. *Latino Studies, 2*, 246-253.

Baltodano, M. P. (2005). What happened to the linguistic rights of second language learners in California? In J. Cohen, K. T. McAlister, K. Rolstad & J. MacSwan (Eds.), *ISB4: Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism* (pp. 175-185). Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman and Company.

Bandura, A. (2002). Social cognitive theory in cultural context. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 51*(2), 269-299.

Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. C. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 307-337): Information Age Publishing.

Banks, J. A. (2000). Series foreword. In G. Gay (Ed.), *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, & practice* (pp. vii-x). NY: Teachers College Press.

Benavides, A. H. (2002). Bilingual education: A dream unfulfilled. *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(3), v-xi.

Bielenberg, B., & Fillmore, L. W. (2005). The English they need for the test. *Educational Leadership, 62*(4), 45-49.

Block, N. C. (2007). *Dual immersion programs in predominantly Latino schools* (Doctoral dissertation). Claremont Graduate University, Claremont, CA.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Blum, R. (2005). *School connectedness: Improving the lives of students*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health.

Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1998). *Qualitative research for education: An Introduction to theory and methods* (3rd ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Bruner, D. Y. (2010). Equal Educational Opportunitites Act (EEOA). Retrieved May 25, 2012, from http://lawhighereducation.com/52-equal-educational-opportunities-act-eeoa.html

Butler, Y. G., & Gutierrez, M. B. (2003). Learning climates for English-language learners: A case of fourth-grade students in California. *Bilingual Research Journal, 27*(2), 207-224.

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL). (2005). The effects of sheltered instruction on the achievement of limited English proficient students. Retrieved March 23, 2005, from http://www.cal.org/crede/si.htm

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL). (2008). CAL Directory of two-way bilingual immersion programs in the U.S. Retrieved November 15, 2008, from http://www.cal.org/twi/directory/

Center for Applied Linguistics Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (CAL SIOP). (2012). Helping educators work effectively with English-language learners. Retrieved May 27, 2012, from http://www.cal.org/siop

California Department of Education. (2012). Bilingual teacher training. Retrieved May 27, 2012, from http://www.cde.ca.gov/sp/el/bt/

Camarota, S. A. (2002, November). Immigrants in the United States - 2002: A snapshot of America's foreign-born population. Retrieved from http://www.cis.org/articles/2002/back1302.html

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Campbell, D. T., & Russo, M. J. (2001). Fifteen validity issues affecting all measures. In J. A. Caporaso & L. L. Roos Jr. (Eds.), *Social measurement* (pp. 131-171). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Cavazos-Rehg, P., & DuLucia-Waack, J. L. (2009). Education, ethnic identity, and acculturation as predictors of self-esteem in Latino adolescents. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 87*(1), 47-54.

Chambers, E. (2003). Applied ethnography. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed., pp. 389-418). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Chamot, A., & O'Malley, J. M. (1987). The cognitive academic language learning approach: A bridge to the mainstream. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 227-249.

Chipongian, L. (2000, June). The cognitive advantages of balanced bilingualism [Electronic version]. *Brain Connection*. Retrieved from http://brainconnection.positscience.com/topics/?main=fa/cognitive-bilingualism

Cho, G. (2000). The role of heritage language in social interactions and relationships: Reflections from a language minority groups. *Bilingual Research Journal, 24*(4), 369-384.

Cipollone, N., Keiser, S. H., & Vasishth, S. (Eds.). (1998). *Language files: Materials for an introduction to language and linguistics* (7th ed.). Columbus, OH: Ohio State University Press.

Coady, M. (2001). Attitudes toward bilingualism in Ireland. *Bilingual Research Journal, 25*(1/2), 39-58.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Collier, V. P. (1995). Acquiring a second language. *Directions in Language & Education, 1*(4). Retrieved from http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/directions/04.htm

Collier, V. P., & Thomas, W. P. (2004). The astounding effectiveness of dual language education for all. *NABE Journal of Research and Practice, 2*(1), 1-20.

Collier, V. P., & Thomas, W. P. (2007). Predicting second language academic success in English using the Prism Model. In J. Cummins & C. Davidson (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching, Part 1* (pp. 333-348). New York: Springer.

Covington, M. V. (1984). The self-worth theory of achievement motivation: Findings and implications. *The Elementary School Journal, 85*(1), 4-20.

Craig, B. A. (1996). Parental attitudes toward bilingualism in a local two-way immersion program. *Bilingual Research Journal, 20*(3/4), 383-410.

Crawford, J. (1997). Issues in U.S. language policy: The English Only movement Retrieved March 3, 2006, from http://ourworld.compuserve.com/homepages/JWCRAWFORD/engonly.htm

Crawford, J. (1998). Language politics in the U.S.A.: The paradox of bilingual education. *Social Justice, 25*(3), 50-69.

Crawford, J. (1999). *Bilingual education: History, politics, theory, and practice* (4th ed.). Trenton, NJ: Crane Publishing Co.

Crawford, J. (2000). Language policy. Retrieved March 3, 2006, from http://ourworld.compuserve.com/homepages/JWCRAWFORD/langpol.htm

Crawford, J. (2002). Obituary: The Bilingual Ed Act, 1968-2002. *Rethinking Schools Online*. Retrieved from http://www.rethinkingschools.org/special_reports/bilingual/Bil164.shtml

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Cummins, J. (1996). *Negotiating identities: Education for empowerment in a diverse society* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: California Association for Bilingual Education.

Cummins, J. (1999). Biliteracy, empowerment, and transformative pedagogy. Retrieved from http://www.iteachilearn.com/cummins/biliteratempowerment.html

Cummins, J. (1999-2003). BICS and CALPS. Retrieved December 11, 2005, from http://www.iteachilearn.com/cummins/bicscalp.html

Cutri, R. M., & Ferrin, S. E. (1998). Moral dimensions of bilingual education. *Bilingual Research Journal, 22*(1), 31-44.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2003). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed., pp. 1-46). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Dong, Y. R. (2004). Preparing secondary subject area teachers to teach linguistically and culturally diverse students. *The Clearing House, 77*(5), 202-205.

Draper, J. B., & Jiménez, M. (1996). A chronology of the official English movement. Retrieved October 5, 2008, from http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/tesol/official/chronology.htm

Drucker, M. J. (2003). What reading teachers should know about ESL learners. *The Reading Teacher, 57*(1), 22-29.

Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., & Short, D. J. (2000). *Making content comprehensible for English-language learners: The SIOP model*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

ED Data Express. (2012). Data about elementary & secondary schools in the U.S. Retrieved May 24, 2012, from http://www.eddataexpress.ed.gov/

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Education Alliance, Brown University. (2006). Policy: Linking language policy to practice for English Language Learners. Retrieved from the Teaching Diverse Learners website: http://www.alliance.brown.edu/tdl/policy/index.shtml

Education Northwest. (2003). Overview of second language acquisition theory. Retrieved April 11, 2006, from http://www.nwrel.org/request/2003may/overview.html

Ellis, R. (2005). Instructed language learning and task-based teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 713 - 728). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrench Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Ennis, S. R., Rios-Vargas, M., & Albert, N. G. (2011). *The Hispanic population: 2010: 2010 Census briefs*. (C2010BR-04). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Commerce.

Epstein, J. L. (1995). School/family/community partnerships. *Phi Delta Kappan, 76*(9), 701-712.

Erlandson, D. A., Harris, E. L., Skipper, B. L., & Allen, S. D. (1993). *Doing naturalistic inquiry: A guide to methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Ernst-Slavit, G., Moore, M., & Maloney, C. (2002). Changing lives: Teaching English and literature to ESL students. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 46*(2), 116-128.

Ezzy, D. (2001). Are qualitative methods misunderstood? *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Public Health, 25*(4), 294-297.

Falhasiri, M., Tavakoli, M., Hasiri, F., & Mohammadzadeh, A. R. (2011). The effectiveness of explicit and implicit corrective feedback on interlingual and intralingual errors: A case of error analysis of students' compositions. *English Language Teaching, 4*(3), 251-264.

Feinauer, E. (2006). *Ethnic identity and academic achievement: A study of 5th grade Spanish-English bilingual Latinos* (Doctoral dissertation). Harvard, Cambridge, MA. (UMI Number 3221493).

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Feinberg, R. C., & Morencia, C. C. (1998). Bilingual education: An overview. *Social Education, 62*(7), 427-431.

Feuerverger, G. (1991). University students' perceptions of heritage language learning and ethnic identity maintenance. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 47*(4), 660-677.

Garcia, E. E. (2001). *Hispanic education in the United States: Raíces y alas*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

García-Nevarez, A. G., Stafford, M. E., & Arias, B. (2005). Arizona elementary teachers' attitudes toward English-language learners and the use of Spanish in classroom instruction. *Bilingual Research Journal, 29*(2), 295-317.

Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (1994). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research & practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Ghaith, G. (2003). Effects of the Learning Together Model of cooperative learning on English as a foreign language reading achievement, academic self-esteem, and feelings of school alienation. *Bilingual Research Journal, 27*(3), 451-474.

Gibbs, G. R. (2002). *Qualitative data analysis: Explorations with NVivo*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Gibson, M. A. (1988). *Accommodation without assimilation: Sikh immigrants in an American high school*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Goldenberg, C., & Quach, S. R. (2010). The Arizona home language survey: The identification of students for ELL services. Los Angeles, CA: The Civil Rights Project / Proyecto Derechos Civiles.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Gonzales, F. (1996). Two-way bilingual education: A positive way to "cry woof." *IDRA Newsletter, 3*(8), 5 & 8.

Graham, G. (2005). Behaviorism. In *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Fall 2005 ed.). Retrieved June 26, 2006, from http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/fall2005/entries/behaviorism/%3E

Greater Tulsa Hispanic Chamber of Commerce. (2009). Hispanic trends: Hispanic Americans by the numbers. Retrieved November 1, 2009, from http://www.tulsahispanicchamber.com/index.cfm?id=26

Greene, J. P. (1997). A meta-analysis of the Rossell and Baker review of bilingual education research. *Bilingual Research Journal, 21*(2/3), 103-122.

Greene, J. P. (1998). *A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of bilingual education*. Austin, TX: The Tomas Rivera Policy Institute.

Grosjean, F. (2012). An attempt to isolate, and then differentiate, transfer and interference. *The International Journal of Bilingualism, 16*(a), 11-19.

Gulack, J., & Silverstin, S. (1997). SDAIE handbook: Techniques, strategies, and suggestions for teachers of LEP and former LEP students Retrieved March 26, 2006, from http://www.csupomona.edu/~tassi/sdaie.htm

Gutman, L. M. (2006). How student and parent goal orientations and classroom goal structures influence the math achievement of African Americans during the high school transition. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 31*(1), 44-63.

Harashima, H. D. (2006). An error analysis of the speech of an experienced Japanese learner of English. Retrieved from http:// www.kyoai.ac.jp/college/ronshuu/no-06/harashima.pdf

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Haro, R. (2008, April 30). Beyond: Disparity between enrollment and graduation rates begs questions about the future of Hispanics in higher ed. *The Journal: University of Illinois at Springfield Weekly Campus Newspaper.* Retrieved from http://www.uis.edu/journal/opinion/2008/2008BeyondTheFutureofHispanicsinHigherEducation.html

Hashemnezhad, H., & Mohammadnejad, S. (2012). A case for direct and indirect feedback: The other side of the coin. *English Language Teaching, 5*(3), 230-239.

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(1), 81-112.

Hawkins, M. R. (2005). ESL in elementary education. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 25-43). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrench Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Haynes, J. (2005). Stages of second language acquisition. Retrieved April 11, 2006, from http://www.everythingesl.net/inservices/language_stages.php

Hewitt, J. P. (2003). *Self and society: A symbolic interactionist social psychology* (9th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Hinkel, E. (Ed.). (2005). *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrench Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Hofstetter, C. (2004). Effects of a transitional bilingual education program: Findings, issues, and next steps. *Bilingual Research Journal, 28*(3), 355-377.

Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Christian, D. (2003). Trends in two-way immersion education: A review of the research (pp. 1-69). Washington, DC: Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed At Risk.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Jain, S., & Dowson, M. (2009). Mathematics anxiety as a function of multidimensional self-regulation and self-efficacy. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 34*(3), 240-249.

Jaramillo, M. B. (2004). *Parental attitudes toward bilingual education: A survey of parents of three south Texas elementary schools* (Doctoral dissertation). Texas A & M - Kingsville, Kingsville, TX.

Jonson-Reid, M., Davis, L., Saunders, J., William, T., & Williams, J. H. (2005). Academic self-efficacy among African American youths: Implications for school social work practice. *Children & Schools, 17*(1), 5-14.

Kaplan, C. P., Turner, S., & Badger, L. (2007). Hispanic adolescent girls' attitudes toward school. *Child and Adolescent Social Work Journal, 24*(2), 173-193.

Kemppainen, R., Ferrin, S. E., Ward, C. J., & Hite, J. M. (2004). "One should not forget one's mother tongue": Russian-speaking parent's choice of language of instruction in Estonia. *Bilingual Research Journal, 28*(2), 207-229.

Khanlou, N. (1999). *Adolescent cultural identity and self-esteem in a multicultural society* (Doctoral thesis). McMaster Hamilton, Ontario, Canada.

Khanlou, N., & Crawford, C. (2006). Post-migratory experiences of newcomer female youth: Self-esteem and identity development. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health, 8*(1), 45-56.

Kloss, H. (1998). *The American bilingual tradition*. McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems.

Kormi-Nouri R, Moniri S, & Nilsson L.G. (2003). "Episodic and semantic memory in bilingual and monolingual children." *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology,* ***4***, 47-54.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Krashen, S. D. (1981). The "fundamental pedagogical principle" in second language teaching. *Studia Linguistica, 35*(1-2), 50-70. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9582.1981.tb00701.x

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. New York: Pergamon Press.

Krashen, S. D. (1999a). *Condemned without a trial: Bogus arguments against bilingual education*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Krashen, S. D. (1999b). What the research really says about structured English immersion: A response to Keith Baker. *Phi Delta Kappan, 80*(9).

Language acquisition: Glossary of second and primary language acquisition terms. (n.d.). Retrieved April 11, 2006, from http://earthrenewal.org/secondlang.htm#Stages%20of%20Language%20Development%20(PEPSI)

Lansford, J., Antonucci, T. C., Akiyama, H., & Takashashi, K. (2005). A quantitative and qualitative approach to social relationships and well-being in the United States and Japan. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 36*(1), 1-23.

Lao, C. (2004). Parents' attitudes toward Chinese-English bilingual education and Chinese language use. *Bilingual Research Journal, 28*(1), 99-121.

Lara-Alecio, R., Galloway, M., Irby, B. J., Rodriguez, L., & Gomez, L. (2004). Two-way immersion bilingual programs in Texas. *Bilingual Research Journal, 28*(1), 35-54.

Lee, S. K. (1999). The linguistic minority parents' perceptions of bilingual education. *Bilingual Research Journal, 23*(2/3), 199-210.

Lee, S. K. (2006). The Latino students' attitudes, perceptions, and views on bilingual education. *Bilingual Research Journal, 30*(1), 107-120.

للاستشارات المنارة

www.manaraa.com

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1999). *Theoretical approaches to explaining second language learning* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lindholm-Leary, K., & Borsato, G. (2001). *Impact of two-way bilingual elementary programs on students' attitudes toward school and college*. Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE). Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/crede/pdfs/rr10.pdf

Linnenbrink, E., & Pintrich, P. R. (2002). Motivation as an enabler for academic success. *School Psychology Review, 31*(3), 313-327.

Lionnet, F. (2002). National language departments in the era of transnational studies. *PMLA, 117*(5), 1252-1254.

Lloyd, J. E. V., Walsh, J., & Yailagh, M. S. (2005). Sex differences in performance attributions, self-efficacy, and achievement in mathematics: If I'm so smart, why don't I know it? *Canadian Journal of Education, 28*(3), 384-408.

Long, J. F., Monoi, C., Harper, B., Knoblauch, D., & Karen, M. P. (2007). Academic motivation and achievement among urban adolescents. *Urban Education, 42*(3), 196-222.

López, M. G., & Tashakkori, A. (2006). Differential outcomes of two bilingual education programs on English-language learners. *Bilingual Research Journal, 30*(1), 123-145.

López, W. C. (n.d). Error analysis in a learner corpus. What are the learners' strategies? (pp. 675-690). Retrieved from www.um.es/lacell/aelinco/contenido/pdf/45.pdf

Lortie, D. C. (2002). *School-teacher: A sociological study* (2nd ed.). Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Lyons, J. J. (1992). *Legal responsibilities of education agencies serving national origin language minority students.* Chevy Chase, MD: The Mid-Atlantic Equity Center.

Malone, N., Baluja, K. F., Costanzo, J. M., & Davis, C. J. (2003). The foreign-born population: 2000. Retrieved November 2, 2009, from http://www.census.gov/prod/cen2000/index.html

Marcia, J. E. (1966). Development and validation of ego-identity status. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 3*(5), 551-558.

Marsh, D. (2006). CLIL: Content and language integrated learning. Retrieved March 26, 2006, from http://www.cec.jyu.fi/tilauskoulutus/henk_keh/clil.htm#alku

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. (1989). Defending the value and logic of qualitative research. In C. Marshall (Ed.), *Designing qualitative research* (pp. 145-153). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Mather, M., & Pollard, K. (2009). U.S. Hispanic and Asian population growth levels off. Retrieved July 16, 2009, from the website of the Population Reference Bureau: http://www.prb.org/Articles/2009/hispanicasian.aspx

McBrien, J. L. (2005). Educational needs and barriers for refugee students in the United States: A review of the literature. *Review of Educational Research, 75*(3), 329-364.

McCrudden, M. T., Perkins, P. G., & Putney, L. (2005). Self-efficacy and interest in the use of reading strategies. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 20*(2), 119-131.

McLellan, A.-M., & Martin, J. (2005). Psychology and the education of persons in British Columbia: A critical interpretive investigation. *Canadian Journal of Education, 28*(1/2), 73-91.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Merriam, S. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey- Bass.

Mikow-Porto, V., Humphries, S., Egelson, P., O'Connell, D., Teague, J., & Rhim, L. (2004). *English-language learners in the Southeast: Research, Policy & Practice*. Greensboro, NC: SERVE.

Mikulski, A. M. (2006). Accent-uating rules and relationships: Moivations, attitudes, and goals in a Spanish for native speakers class. *Foreign Language Annals, 39*(4), 660-682.

Mora, J. K., Wink, J., & Wink, D. (2001). Dueling models of dual language instruction: A critical review of the literature and program implementation guide. *Bilingual Research Journal, 25*(4), 435-460.

Mossakowski, K. (2003). Coping with perceived discrimination: Does ethnic identity protect mental health? *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 44*(3), 318-331.

National Education Association. (2002–2008). ESEA: The basics. Retrieved August 13, 2008, from http://www.nea.org/esea/eseabasics.html

Navarro, R. L., Flores, L. Y., & Worthington, R. L. (2007). Mexican American middle school students' goal intentions in mathematics and science: A test of social cognitive career theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 54*(3), 320-335.

Nebbitt, V. (2009). Self-efficacy in African American adolescent males living in urban public housing. *Journal of Black Psychology, 35*(3), 295-317.

Nevarez, C. (2001). Mexican Americans and other Latinos in postsecondary education: Institutional influences. *ERIC Digest*, 1-9.

Ngai, P. B.-Y. (2002). Bilingual education for all: A benefits model for small towns. *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(2), 269-294.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Ngo, B., & Lee, S. J. (2007). Complicating the image of model minority success: A review of Southeast Asian American Education. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(4), 415-453.

Nieto, S. (2005). Public education in the twentieth century and beyond: High hopes, broken promises, and an uncertain future. *Harvard Educational Review, 75*(1), 43-64.

Nunan, D. (2005). Classroom research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 225-240). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

QSR. (2002). NVivo 2 [Qualitative analysis software and manual]. Melbourne, Australia: QSR International.

QSR. (2010). NVivo 9 [Qualitative analysis software]. Melbourne, Australia: QSR International.

Ochoa, A., & Cadiero-Kaplan, K. (2004). Towards promoting biliteracy and academic achievement: Educational programs for high school Latino English-language learners. *The High School Journal, 87*(3), 27-43.

Ochoa, G. L. (1999). Everyday ways of resistance and cooperation: Mexican American women building puentes with immigrants. *Frontiers, 20*(1), 1-20.

Office of Civil Rights. (2005). *OCR case resolution and investigation manual.* Retrieved September 24, 2006, from http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/ocrcrm.html

One Nation / One California. (1997). English for the children. Retrieved December 10, 2005, from http://www.onenation.org/index.html

Ovando, C. J. (2003). Bilingual education in the United States: Historical development and current issues. *Bilingual Research Journal, 27*(1), 1-24.

Pai, Y., Adler, S., & Shadiow, L. K. (2006). *Cultural foundations of education* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Parkerson, D. H., & Parkerson, J. A. (2001). *Transitions in American education: A social history of teaching*. New York: Routledge Falmer.

Parrillo, V. N. (Ed.). (2008). *Encyclopedia of social problems*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Patrick, P. L. (2012). Language shift, language death and language rights [Course materials for LG102, Intro to Sociolinguistics, University of Essex, UK]. Retrieved June 7, 2012, from http://courses.essex.ac.uk/lg/lg102/LanguageShift.htm

Paul, J. L., & Marfo, K. (2001). Preparation of educational researchers in philosophical foundations of inquiry. *Review of Educational Research, 71*(4), 525-547.

Perez, M. A., Pinzon, H. L., & Garza, R. D. (1997). Latino families: Partners for success in school settings. *The Journal of School Health, 67*(5), 182-184.

Phillips, D. C., & Burbules, N. (2000). *Postpositivism and educational research*. Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers.

Phinney, J. S. (1989). Stages of ethnic identity development in minority group adolescents. *The Journal of Early Adolescence, 9*(1-2), 34-49.

Phinney, J. S. (1992). The multigroup ethnic identity measure: A new scale for use with diverse groups. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 7*(2), 156-176.

Pica, T. (2005). Second language acquisition research and applied linguistics. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 263-280). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Powers, S. (1978). *The influence of bilingual instruction on academic achievement and self-esteem of selected Mexican-American junior high school students* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Putney, L. G., Green, J. L., Dixon, C. N., & Kelly, G. J. (1999). Evolution of qualitative research methodology: Looking beyond defense to possibilities. *Reading Research Quarterly, 34*(3), 368-377.

Ramos, F. (2001). Teachers' opinions about the theoretical and practical aspects of the use of native language instruction for language minority students: A cross-sectonal study. *Bilingual Research Journal, 25*(3), 357-374.

Rhem, J. (1999). Pygmalion in the classroom. *The National Teaching & Learning Forum, 8*(2), 1-4.

Rodriguez, D., Ringler, M., O'Neal, D., & Bunn, K. (2009). English-language learners' perceptions of school environment. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 23*(4), 513.

Rolstad, K. (1997). Effects of two way immersion on the ethnic identification of third language students: An exploratory study. *Bilingual Research Journal, 21*(1), 43-63.

Rolstad, K., Mahoney, K., & Glass, G. V. (2005). Weighing the evidence: A meta-analysis of bilingual education in Arizona. *Bilingual Research Journal, 29*(1), 43-69.

Rosenberg, M. (1979). *Conceiving the self*. New York: Basic Books.

Rosenberg, M. (1989). *Society and the adolescent self-image* (Revised ed.). Middletown, CT: Wesleyan Press.

Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C., & Schoenbach, C. (1989). Self-esteem and adolescent problems: Modeling reciprocal effects. *American Sociological Review, 54*(6), 1004-1018.

Rossell, C. H., & Baker, K. (1996). The effectiveness of bilingual education. *Research in the Teaching of English, 30*, 7-74.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Rossell, C. H., & Kuder, J. (2004). Meta-merky: A rebuttal to recent meta-analyses of bilingual education. Retrieved from http://www.bu.edu/polisci/CROSSELL/Rossell%20&%20Kuder%20Meta%20Murky-Revised%20April%2027,%202005.pdf

Ryan, G. W., & Bernard, H. R. (2003). Data management and analysis methods. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials* (2nd ed., pp. 259-309). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Saucedo, L. (1997). Parents' attitudes toward dual-language immersion programs. Illinois: ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 405730.

Schecter, S. R., Sharken-Taboada, D., & Bayle, R. (1996). Bilingual by choice: Latino parents' rationales and strategies for raising children with two languages. *Bilingual Research Journal, 20*(2), 261-281.

Senesac, B. V. K. (2002). Two-way bilingual immersion: A portrait of quality schooling. *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(1), 85-101.

Shannon, S. M., & Milian, M. (2002). Parents choose dual language programs in Colorado: A survey. *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(3), 681-696.

Shell, M. (1993). Babel in America; or, the politics of language diversity in the United States. *Critical Inquiry, 20*(1), 103-127.

Shin, F. H. (1994). Attitudes of Korean parents towards bilingual education: Research findings indicate Korean parents support their children's learning Korean at school. *BEOutreach, 5*(2), 47-48.

Shin, H. B., & Bruno, R. (2003). Language use and English-speaking ability: 2000. In *Census 2000 Brief, C2KBR-29,* 1-11. Retrieved from http://www.census.gov

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Shores, M., & Shannon, D. (2007). The effects of self-regulation, motivation, anxiety, and attributions on mathematics achievement for fifth and sixth grade students. *School Science and Mathematics, 107*(6), 225-236.

Shumway, L., Park, J. A., & Jeese, J. (2011). Utah statewide scores on the Criterion-Referenced Tests (CRT) 2010-2011. Salt Lake City, UT: Utah State Office of Education.

Silverman, D. (2002). Analyzing talk and text. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 821-834). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

SIOP Institute. (2008). EL research and resources. Retrieved October 19, 2008, from http://www.siopinstitute.net/research.html

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2004a). "Do not cut my tongue, let me live and die with my language." A comment on English and other languages in relation to linguistic human rights. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 3*(2), 127-160.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2004b, February 27-28). The right to mother tongue medium education - the hot potato in human rights instruments. Paper presented at Europa 2004: A new framework for ALL languages? Tarragona, Spain.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2006, November 16-17). [Linguistic and cultural] genocide in education signals lack of linguisitic human rights - but why no discussion? Paper presented at the The Fourth Annual Lectures on Languages and Human Rights, University of Essex, Essex, England.

Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2010, May 7-8, 2010). The human right to a mother tongue in revitalizing indigenous languages. Paper presented at the "The Real California Gold": Indigenous & Immigrant Heritage Languages of California symposium, UC Davis, Davis, California.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Smith, K. M. (2003). Emotions of English language attitudes in building a knowledge society. *Multicultural Education, 11*(1), 46-50.

Southern Poverty Law Center. (2002, Summer). John Tanton's network. *Intelligence Report,* issue 106. Retrieved from http://www.splcenter.org/intel/intelreport/article.jsp?sid=72

Spenser, D. (1994). Introduction. In D. Spenser (Ed.), *Adult biliteracy in the United States* (pp. 1-14). McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems Co.

Stafford, M. E., Jenckes, L. B., & Santos, S. L. (1997). Hispanic children's recognition of languages and perceptions about speakers of Spanish, English, and Chinese. *Bilingual Research Journal, 21*(2/3), 225-271.

Stevens, T., Olivarez, A., Jr., & Hamman, D. (2006). The role of cognition, motivation, and emotion in explaining the mathematics achievement gap between Hispanic and White students. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 28*(2), 161-186.

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Takahashi-Breines, H. (2002). The role of teacher-talk in a dual language immersion third grade classroom. *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(2), 461-483.

Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. P. (1997a). School effectiveness for language minority students. *NCBE Resource Collection Series* (pp. 11-95). Washington, DC: National Clearninghouse for Bilingual Education.

Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. P. (1997b). Two languages are better than one. *Educational Leadership, 55*(4), 23-26.

Tipton, R. L., & Bender, P. (2006). From failure to success: working with under-prepared transfer students. *Reference Services Review, 34*(3), 389-404.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Toukomaa, P., & Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1976). Teaching migrant children's mother tongue and learning the language of the host country in the context of the sociocultural situation of the migrant family. Helsinki, Finland: The Finnish National commission for UNESCO.

Tyack, D. B. (1974). *The one best system: A history of American urban education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2000). American fact finder. Retrieved January 13, 2008, from http://factfinder.census.gov/servlet/DatasetMainPageServlet?_program=DEC&_submenuId=&_lang=en&_ts=

U.S. Census Bureau. (2009). Population by race and Hispanic or Latino origin for the United States: 1990 and 2000 (PHC-T-1). Retrieved November 1, 2009, from http://www.census.gov/population/www/cen2000/briefs/phc-t1/index.html

U.S. English. (2008). About U.S. English. Retrieved November 2, 2009, from http://www.us-english.org/view/2

U.S. English. (2009). Official English. Retrieved November 4, 2009, from http://www.us-english.org/view/8

U.S. English Foundation, Inc. (2012). Welcome to U.S. English Foundation. Retrieved May 29, 2012, from the website of the U.S. English Foundation: http://usefoundation.org/

Usher, E. L. (2009). Sources of middle school students' self-efficacy in mathematics: A qualitative investigation. *American Educational Research Journal, 46*(1), 275-314.

Uszynska-Jarmoc, J. (2007). Self-esteem and different forms of thinking in seven and nine year olds. *Early Child Development and Care, 177*(4), 337-348.

Valdés, G. (1997). Dual-language immersion programs: A cautionary note concerning the education of language-minority students. *Harvard Educational Review, 67*(3), 391-429.

للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Valentin, S. (2006). Addressing diversity in teacher education programs. *Education, 127*(2), 196-202.

van Lier, L. (2005). Case study. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 195-208). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrench Earlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Vang, C. T. (2005). Minority students are far from academic success and still at-risk in public schools. *Multicultural Education, 12*(4), 9-15.

Verkuyten, M., & Thijs, J. (2004). Global and ethnic self-esteem in school context: Minority and majority groups in the Netherlands. *Social Indicators Research, 67*(3), 253-281.

Viadero, D. (2001). Learning gap linked to LEP instruction. *Education Week, 20*(32), 8.

Vidich, A. J., & Lyman, S. M. (2003). Qualitative methods: Their history in sociology and anthropology. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues* (2nd ed., pp. 55-129). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind and society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wakefield, W. D., & Hudley, C. (2005). African American male adolescents' preferences in responding to racial discrimination: Effects of ethnic identity and situational influences. *Adolescence, 40*(158), 237-256.

Waldschmidt, E. D. (2002). Bilingual interns' barriers to becoming teachers: At what cost do we diversify? *Bilingual Research Journal, 26*(36), 537-561.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Wang, C., & Pape, S. J. (2007). A probe into three Chinese boys' self-efficacy beliefs learning English as a second language. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 21*(4), 364-377.

Watras, J. (2002). *The foundations of educational curriculum and diversity: 1565 to the present*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Watts-Taffe, S., & Truscott, D. M. (2000). Using what we know about language and literacy development for ESL students in the mainstream classroom. *Language Arts, 77*(3), 258-265.

Weinstein-Shr, G. (1994). Literacy and second language learners: A family agenda. In *Adult biliteracy in the United States* (pp. 111-122). McHenry, IL: Center for Applied Linguistics and Delta Systems Co..

Whitesell, N. R., Mitchell, C. M., Spicer, P., & the Voices of Indian Teens Project Team. (2009). A longitudinal study of self-esteem, cultural identity, and academic success among American Indian adolescents. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 15*(1), 38-50.

Willig, A. (1985). A meta-analysis of selected studies on the effectiveness of bilingual education. *Review of Educational Research, 55*(3), 269-317.

Willig, A. C. (1987). Examining bilingual education research through meta-analysis and narrative review: A response to Baker. *Review of Educational Research, 57*(3), 363-376.

Worrell, F. (2007). Ethnic identity, academic achievement and global self-concept in four groups of academically talented adolescents. *The Gifted Child Quarterly, 51*(1), 23-38.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

Wright, S. C., & Bougie, É. (2007). Intergroup contact and minority-language education: Reducing language-based discrimination and its negative impact. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 26*(2), 157-181.

Yeh, C. J., Arora, A. K., Inose, M., Okubo, Y., Li, R. H., & Greene, P. (2003). The cultural adjustment and mental health of Japanese immigrant youth. *Adolescence, 38*(15), 481-500.

Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case study research: Design and methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Young, R. L., & Tran, M. T. (1999). Vietnamese parent attitudes toward bilingual education. *Bilingual Research Journal, 23*(2/3), 225-233.

Yudof, M. G., Kirp, D. L., Levin, B., & Moran, R. F. (2002). *Educational policy and the law* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Group/Thomson Learning.

Zehr, M. A. (2009). The right place: Screening students proves to be crucial. *Education Week, 28*(17), 33-31, 34.

Zelasko, N. (1998). The benefits of bilingualism. *Bilingual Education, 2*(3), 11-14.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

APPENDIX A:
SUBJECTIVITIES STATEMENT

I did my best to be ethical and as objective as possible as I conducted my research. However, as qualitative research is particularly vulnerable to researcher bias, I disclose here the background and biases I brought to this work.

Background of Researcher

As an educator, I have long embraced the opportunity to assist English-language learners. This opportunity grew in importance to me on July 1, 2009, when I became an employee of the newest school district in the state. One of the most important goals of this new organization is to have students ready for post-secondary education by the end of their secondary experience. This district touts itself as being a K-16 system; thus, in order to meet this mandate, all student members of this district, including a large English-language learning (ELL) population, must be prepared to meet the challenges of post-secondary education by the time they leave high school.

My involvement with language, communication, and language learning spans nearly four decades. The most recent experience occurred when I worked as the principal of an elementary school that housed facilities for several children receiving special education services. The unit itself was called the Orthopedic-Impaired Unit and was the only such unit in the state. All of these children had difficulty using their legs and arms; however, the inability to use their limbs was only the beginning of their challenges. Most of them were nonverbal and needed to rely on signs or devices to accomplish the simplest forms of communication. As I watched and interacted with this group of students who have such difficulty communicating, I came to more fully appreciate the value of language.

Prior to my principalship, I spent over 20 years in the classroom as an English teacher in middle and high schools. I worked with the full range of student abilities, from those who were

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

in basic reading classes to those who were in advanced English courses. My goal during those years was to help my students learn to use English in more effective ways so that their oral and written communication would be enhanced. I had students who quickly grasped the concepts I taught; I had students who struggled with the most basic concepts.

Additionally, nearly 42 years ago, I landed at the Brussels, Belgium, airport, armed with determination, faith, and my extremely limited French, ready to spend the next two years immersed in French as I lived with the French and Belgian people. The first few months of my stay in France were frustrating and difficult as I struggled to understand and be understood. Without a doubt, becoming fluent in another language is a daunting challenge, but it is also a life-altering experience. Learning French changed my perspective about life. It broadened my understanding of people. It gave me the opportunity to learn another culture from the inside. It is something that enriched and continues to enrich my life in countless ways. It made it possible for me to take advantage of opportunities I would otherwise never have had.

Although learning a second language challenged me, the circumstances surrounding my mastery of French were very different from those of the the 4,649,316 students in grades K through 12 in the United States who were classified as ELL during the 2009–2010 scholastic year (ED Data Express, 2012). For example, I went to France by choice; many of the ELL students arrived in the United States because of actions and decisions made by others. When I landed in Europe, I possessed an undergraduate college degree. I was not attempting to learn French at the same time I was expected to learn math, science, history, or other academic subjects. Obviously, children in the K-12 educational system are in different circumstances. They are in school to gain an academic education. During the two years I spent in Europe, I always had individuals around me who could help me with the language challenges I met.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Unfortunately, the majority of English-language learners in the U.S. educational system do not have that kind of support system. Although there are often others who speak the same language, they usually do not have the opportunity to help one another with the demands of their academic loads and language acquisition tasks.

Personal Bias

My bias lies firmly and unashamedly in the language-as-resource camp; I believe that a person's first language is an asset and should be nurtured and used. I come by this bias for several reasons. First, I often reflect on the wonderful perspective that speaking French gives me. Second, I have personally seen, both as a neighbor and as an educator, what happens to children when their languages and cultures are neither valued nor validated. Finally, I have listened to many accounts from my husband, who works in the compliance department of a large public school district, about the negative experiences of children who cannot speak English proficiently. He reports that many of these children are belittled, humiliated, and harassed by their peers. Even worse are the tales he tells of the adults in schools, who are supposed to protect English-language learners, but who refuse to give them the support and services that they need and to which they are legally entitled.

Many researchers and educators (e.g., Baker, 2007; Rossell & Baker, 1996) do not think of minority languages as a resource; they believe that non-English languages should not be preserved or maintained. I do not agree with this position. I am an advocate of bilingual education for many reasons. However, I acknowledge that some forms of bilingual education do not meet adequate standards or qualifications—a topic that I discuss in my study. My interest in language, language acquisition, and education prompted me to study and write about bilingual education.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Although I feel it is critical for me to be open about my bias, it is equally important to me that my research be done in an ethical and honest manner. Throughout the dissertation process, I strove to be objective about the outcomes of my research.

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

APPENDIX B: ORIGINAL ENGLISH RECRUITMENT, PERMISSION, ASSENT, AND CONSENT FORMS

Recruitment letter

February 10, 2010

Dear Parent,

Mrs. Edy A. McGee is a student at Brigham Young University. She is studying how programs used to teach English to Spanish-speaking children affect the children's self-esteem, self-efficacy, and cultural identity. She is also studying the attitudes that parents have about their children's experiences in school. She has permission from Brigham Young University and Provo School District to do this study. This study is one of the requirements she must complete in order to earn her degree.

To do this study, Mrs. McGee will interview 5th and 6th grade students and their parents. The interviews will take place at one of the following locations: Timpanogos Elementary School (before or after school), your home, or at a public library, whichever is most convenient for you. The student interviews will take about 30 minutes to do and the parent interviews will take about 45 minutes to do. Mrs. McGee will do all the student interviews herself. If you speak English, she will also do the parent interview. If you do not speak English fluently, a Spanish-speaking interpreter will do the interview. All the interviews will be recorded, transcribed, and analyzed.

All information that your child or you give to Mrs. McGee or the interpreter will be kept confidential. When Mrs. McGee writes the report, she will not use your child's name or the name of the school that your child attends.

Mrs. McGee is asking permission for your child to be included in this study. If you give permission for your child to participate, please fill out the bottom of this letter and return it in the self-addressed stamped envelope.

Sincerely,

****

☐ I give permission for my child to participate in the study done by Edy A. McGee. I understand that if my child is selected, I will be contacted to arrange a time and place for Mrs. McGee to interview my child. I also know that I may be interviewed as well.

____
Child's Name

____
Parent Signature

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Although I have all the forms with a current date stamp, I am including the ones I actually used when I did the first interviews. As I only did follow-up interviews after 2010 and did not add additional participants, these forms are the only ones I used.

Parental Permission for Child to be a Participant

Exploring the Non-Academic Effects of Two Educational Programs for English Language Learners: Comparing Two-Way Bilingual Education and Sheltered English Instruction

Permission to be a Research Subject

PT Permission Form

Introduction
Edy A. McGee, a doctoral student at Brigham Young University, is conducting this research study. The purpose of the study is to identify and then compare and contrast the non-academic effects of a two-way bilingual educational program or English-only program for English-language learning students. Your child was selected to participate because he or she is in one of those programs.

Procedures
Your child will be asked to participate in an interview conducted by Edy McGee. The interview will last approximately 45 minutes. It will be conducted in person at Timpanogos Elementary School (before or after school), your home, or a public library whichever is most convenient to you. The interview will consist of 11 demographic questions and 18 open-ended questions about your child's experiences in school. The interview will be digitally recorded and then transcribed.

Risks and Discomforts
There are minimal risks for participating in this study. No physical risks are involved. However, your child may experience emotional discomfort as he or she discusses his ethnicity. He or she may also feel embarrassment when revealing to the interviewer personal experiences. Should the interviewer sense that your child is experiencing discomfort when answering a question, she will attempt to alleviate his/her discomfort by not forcing him/her to continue with the answer. He/she does not have to disclose to the interviewer anything that he/she does not wish to disclose.

Benefits of the Research
There are no direct benefits to your child. However it is hoped that through your child's participation, the researcher will be able to learn more about the non-academic effects of programs commonly used to teach English language learning children. This is important because there is an increase of non-English speaking students entering schools and educators are searching for appropriate ways to instruct them. This research will add to the existing knowledge in this field.

Confidentiality
Your child's name will not be used in either the research or the written report. Furthermore, the specific location where your child attends school will not be identified. The researcher will use an identification code for your child's name and location. Only she will know which access code belongs to your child.

Compensation
There is no compensation for participation in this research.

Participation
Your participation in the study is completely voluntary. You may decline to have your child participate before the interview begins or at any time during the interview. There will be no penalties to you or your child for non-participation or withdrawal. Choosing not to participate will not affect your child's standing at school or in their language-learning program.

Questions about the Research

If you have questions about this research project, please contact Edy McGee at 801-944-1675. If you prefer, you may e-mail your inquires to Edy McGee at edymcgee@yahoo.com.

APPROVED EXPIRES
FEB 1 3 2010 - JAN 06 2011

Page 1 of 2 _______ initials

www.manaraa.com

Exploring the Non-Academic Effects of Two Educational Programs for English Language Learners: Comparing Two-Way Bilingual Education and Sheltered English Instruction

Permission to be a Research Subject

Questions about your Child's Rights as a Research Participant
If you have questions regarding your child's rights as a research participant, you may contact the BYU IRB Administrator:
Phone: 801-422-3841
Address: A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602
Email: irb@byu.edu.

Interview Questions
The interview will consist of four sections:

1. Demographic information
2. Self-Esteem
3. Self-efficacy
4. Cultural identity

A copy of the interview questions is attached.

Family Educational Right to Privacy
I give consent for my child to participate in the interview conducted by Edy A. McGee. If the need arises, my child may discuss issues addressed by Utah Code Ann. §53A-13-301 and §53A13-302.

Possible Items of Discussion
Under Utah Code Ann. §53A-13-301 and §53A13-302 of the Utah Family Education and Privacy Act, school district personnel are required to have your consent as parent or legal guardian if information is sought from your child concerning the following issues:

a. Political affiliations or political philosophies (except as provided under Utah Code §553-13-101-1 or rules of the State Board of Education);
b. Mental or psychological problems;
c. Sexual behavior, orientation, or attitudes;
d. Illegal, anti-social, self-incriminating, or demeaning behavior;
e. Critical appraisals of individuals with whom the student or family member has close family relationships
f. Religious affiliations or beliefs;
g. Legally recognized privileges and analogous relationships, such as those with lawyers, medical personnel, or ministers;
h. Income, except as required by law.

The researcher will not ask direct questions about the above items; however, in the course of the child's answering the interview questions, his/her answers may include information about the above items.

I have read, understood, and received a copy of the above-consent form. I hereby voluntarily give my permission for my child to participate in this study.

____________________________ ____________________________
Participant Date

APPROVED EXPIRES
FEB 1 3 2010 - JAN 0 6 2011

Page 2 of 2 _______ initials

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Child Assent Form

Child's Assent

ST Assent Form

Introduction

Mrs. Edy A. McGee, a student at Brigham Young University, is studying what happens to the self-esteem, self-efficacy, and cultural identity of Spanish-speaking children when they are in different programs to learn English. You were selected to participate in the study because you are in one of those programs.

You will be asked to answer 29 questions about your experience in school. The interview will take about 30 minutes.

I understand that I do not have to do any part of this study. Once I decide to be part of the study, I know that if I change my mind, I can quit the study at any time. Only Mrs. McGee will see my answers except if my parents want a copy.

....

Now I think I know about the study and what it means – Here is what I decided:

☐ NO, I do not want to be in the study. ☐ OK, I will be in the study.

____________________________ ____________________________

Your name (printing is OK) Date

I certify that this study and the procedures involved have been explained to

____________________________ in terms he/she could understand and that he/she freely assented to participate in this study.

____________________________ ____________________________

Signature of Person Obtaining Consent Date

APPROVED EXPIRES
FEB 1 3 2010 - JAN 0 6 201

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Consent Form

Exploring the Non-Academic Effects of Two Educational Programs for English Language Learners: Comparing Two-Way Bilingual Education and Sheltered English Instruction

Consent to be a Research Subject

PT Interview Consent Form

Introduction
Edy A. McGee, a doctoral student at Brigham Young University, is conducting this research study. The purpose of the study is to identify and then compare and contrast the non-academic effects of a two-way bilingual educational program or English-only program for English-language learning students. You were selected to participate because you have a child in one of those programs.

Procedures
You will be asked to participate in an interview conducted by either Edy McGee or a Spanish-speaking interpreter. The interview will last approximately 45 minutes. It will be conducted in person at Timpanogos Elementary School, your home, or a public library, whichever is most convenient to you. If a translator is involved, it may be a telephone interview. The interview will consist of 9 demographic questions and 14 open-ended questions about your child's experiences in school. The interview will be digitally recorded and then transcribed. If an interpreter is involved, the interview will be translated into English and then transcribed.

Risks and Discomforts
There are minimal risks for participating in this study. No physical risks are involved. However, you may experience emotional discomfort as you discuss your ethnicity. You may also feel embarrassment when revealing to the interviewer personal experiences. Should the interviewer sense that you are experiencing discomfort when answering a question, she will attempt to alleviate your discomfort by not forcing you to continue with the answer. You do not have to disclose to the interviewer anything that you do not wish to disclose.

Benefits of the Research
There are no direct benefits to you. However it is hoped that through your participation, the researcher will be able to learn more about the non-academic effects of programs commonly used to teach English language learning children. This is important because there is an increase of non-English speaking students entering schools and educators are searching for appropriate ways to instruct them. This research will add to the existing knowledge in this field.

Confidentiality
Neither your name nor your child's name will be used in either the research or the written report. Furthermore, the specific location where your child attends school will not be identified. The researcher or the interpreter will use an identification code for your name and location. Only they will know which access code belongs to you.

Compensation
There is no compensation for participation in this research.

Participation
Your participation in the study is completely voluntary. You may decline to participate before the interview begins or at any time during the interview. There will be no penalties to you or your child for non-participation or withdrawal. Choosing not to participate will not affect your child's standing at school or in their language-learning program.

APPROVED EXPIRES
FEB 1 ? 2010 - JAN 06 2011

Page 1 of 2 ________ initials

www.manaraa.com

Exploring the Non-Academic Effects of Two Educational Programs for English Language Learners: Comparing Two-Way Bilingual Education and Sheltered English Instruction

Consent to be a Research Subject

Questions about the Research
If you have questions about this research project, please contact Edy McGee at 801-944-1675. If you prefer, you may e-mail your inquires to Edy McGee at edymcgee@yahoo.com.

Questions about your Rights as a Research Participant
If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you may contact the BYU IRB Administrator:
Phone: 801-422-3841
Address: A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602
Email: irb@byu.edu.

I have read, understood, and received a copy of the above consent form. I hereby voluntarily give my consent to participate in this study.

____________________________ ____________________________
Participant Date

APPROVED EXPIRES Page 2 of 2 _______ initials
FEB 1 9 2010 - JAN 06 2011

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

APPENDIX C: SPANISH TRANSLATION OF RECRUITMENT, PERMISSION, AND CONSENT FORMS

Although the parent participants signed the official documents that were stamped by the IRB Office, the translator provided Spanish copies of the documents.

Recruitment Letter

26 de febrero del 2010

Estimados Padres,

La Sra. Edy A. McGee es un estudiante de la Universidad de Brigham Young. Ella esta estudiando programas utilizados para enseñar ingles a niños de habla español que afectan el amor propio de los niños, el auto-estima, e identidad cultural. Ella también estudia las actitudes que los padres tienen acerca de las experiencias de sus niños en la escuela. Ella tiene permiso de la Universidad Brigham Young y del Distrito de Provo para hacer este estudio. Este estudio es uno de los requisitos que ella debe completar para obtener su grado.

Para hacer este estudio, la Sra. McGee entrevistara a estudiantes y sus padres de 5 y 6 grado. Las entrevistas sucederán en una de las siguientes ubicaciones: La Escuela Primaria de Timpanogos (antes o después de clases), su casa, o en una biblioteca pública, el que es más conveniente para ustedes. Las entrevista de los estudiantes tomarán aproximadamente 30 minutos y las entrevistas de los padres tomarán aproximadamente 45 minutos. La Sra. McGee personalmente hará todas la entrevistas. Si usted habla inglés, ella también hará la entrevista a los padre. Si usted no habla inglés con fluidez, un intérprete de habla español hará la entrevista. Todas las entrevistas serán registradas, serán transcritas, y serán analizadas.

Toda información de su niño o de ustedes que den a la Sra. McGee o al intérprete será mantenido confidencial. Cuándo la Sra. McGee escriba el reporte, ella no utilizará el nombre de su niño ni el nombre de la escuela que su niño asiste.

La Sra. McGee pide su permiso para que su niño sea incluido en este estudio. Si usted da permiso para que su niño participe, llene por favor la parte debajo de la carta y devuélvalo en el sobre con la dirección propia.

Sinceramente,

Doy permiso para que mi niño tome parte en el estudio hecho por la Sra. Edy A. McGee. Comprendo que si mi niño es seleccionado, seré contactado para arreglar el tiempo y el lugar para que la Sra. McGee entreviste a mi niño. También sé que puedo ser entrevistado.

____
Nombre del Niño

____
Firma de los Padres

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Parental Permission for Child to be a Participant

La Exploración de los Efectos No Académicos de Dos Programas Educativos Para Aprender el Lenguaje Ingles : Comparando Dos Maneras Educación Bilingüe e Instrucción de Ingles

Introducción

Edy A. McGee, estudiante doctoral de la Universidad de Brigham Young, esta conduciendo este estudio de investigación. El objetivo del estudio es identificarse y luego comparar y mostrar diferencia de los efectos no académicos de un programa educativo bilingüe o de doble sentido programa de inglés-solamente Idioma que aprende un estudiantes. Su niño fue seleccionado para participar porque él o ella están en uno de esos programas.

Procedimientos

Su niño será pedido a participar en una entrevista realizada por Edy McGee. La entrevista durará aproximadamente 45 minutos. Será realizado en persona en la Escuela Primaria de Timpanogos (antes de o después de clases), su casa, o una biblioteca pública el que es más conveniente a usted. La entrevista consistirá de 11 preguntas demográficas y 18 preguntas generales acerca de las experiencias de su niño en la escuela. La entrevista será digitalmente registrado y luego será transcrita.

Los riesgos y Molestias

Hay riesgos mínimos para tomar parte en este estudio. No hay ningún riesgo físico. Sin embargo, su niño puede experimentar molestia emocional cuando él o ella discuten su etnicidad. El o ella también pueden sentirse avergonzados cuando revelan al entrevistador experiencias personales. Si el entrevistador percibe que su niño esta experimentando incomodidad respondiendo a la pregunta, ella intentara aliviar su incomodidad no obligándole a continuar con la respuesta. El/ella no tiene que revelar al entrevistador nada que él/ella no desea revelar.

Beneficios del de Investigación

No hay beneficios directo a su niño. Sin embargo esperamos que a trabes de la participación de su niño el investigador pueda aprender más acerca de los efectos no académicos de programas comúnmente usado para enseñar el idioma inglés a niños que están aprendiendo el idioma. Esto es importante porque hay un aumento de estudiantes que no hablan-inglés entrando a las escuelas y educadores que están buscando maneras apropiadas para instruirlos. Esta investigación añadirá al conocimiento existente en este campo.

La confidencialidad

El nombre de su niño no será utilizado en ni en la investigación ni el reporte escrito. Además, la ubicación específica donde su niño asiste la escuela no será identificada. El investigador utilizará un código de identificación para el nombre de su niño y la ubicación. Sólo ella sabrá cuál código de acceso pertenece a su niño.

La compensación

No hay compensación por la participación en esta investigación.

Participación

Su participación en el estudio es completamente voluntario. Usted puede declinar tener a su niño participar antes que la entrevista empiece o en cualquier tiempo durante la entrevista. No habrá penalidades para usted o su niño por no participar o retirarse. Si escoge no participar no afectará la posición de su niño en la escuela o en su programa de aprendizaje del idioma.

Las preguntas acerca de la Investigación

Si usted tiene preguntas acerca de este proyecto de investigación, por favor contáctese con Edy McGee al 801-944-1675. Si usted prefiere, envíe por correo electrónico sus preguntas a Edy McGee en edymcgee@yahoo.com.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Preguntas acerca de los Derechos de su Niño como Participante a una Investigación
Permiso de hacer un Tema de Investigación

Preguntas acerca de los Derechos de sus hijos por participar en una investigación
Si usted tiene preguntas con respecto a los derechos de sus hijos ser participante de una investigación, usted puede contactarse con el Administrador de BYU IRB.
El teléfono: 801- 422-3841:
Dirección: A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, UT 84602
Correo electrónico: irb@byu.edu.

Preguntas de la Entrevista
La entrevista consistirá en cuatro secciones:
1. La información demográfica
2. Auto- Estima
3. Auto-Eficacia
4. La identidad cultural
Una copia de la entrevista esta adjunta.

Derechos Educacionales de la familia y su Privacidad
Doy mi consentimiento para que mi niño participe en la entrevista conducida por Edy A. McGee.
Si la necesidad representara, mi niño puede discutir de asuntos dirigidos por el Código de Utah Ann. §53A-13-301 y §53A13-302.

Posibles Temas de Discusión
Bajo el Código de Utah Ann. §53A-13-301 y §53A13-302 de los Derechos Educacionales de la Familia y el Acta de Privacidad, el personal de distrito escolar requiere tener su consentimiento como padre o guardián legal si la información buscada de su niño concierne los siguientes temas:
A. Las afiliaciones políticas o las filosofías políticas (excepto proporcionado bajo el Código de Utah §553-13-101-1 o las reglas del Consejo de Educación del Estado);
B. Problemas mentales o psicológicos;
C. Conducta sexual, orientación, o las actitudes;
D. Ilegal, antisocial, autoincriminarse, o conducta humillante:
E. Críticas de individuos con quien el estudiante o miembro de la familia tienen las relaciones

familiares cercanas:
F. Afiliaciones o creencias religiosas;
G. Privilegios legalmente reconocidos y las relaciones análogas, tales como los abogados, personal médico, o con los clérigos;
H. Ingresos, excepto según la ley requiere.

El investigador no hará preguntas directas acerca de artículos de arriba; sin embargo, en el transcurso el niño contestara las preguntas del entrevistador, sus respuestas pueden incluir información sobre los artículos de arriba .

He leído, comprendo y e recibido una copia del encima del formulario de consentimiento. Por lo presente doy voluntariamente mi permiso para que mi niño a participe en este estudio.

Nombre de Participante ___________________________________
Fecha____

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Consent Form

Estudiando el efecto no académico en los niños que están aprendiendo Ingles: Comparando el Programa de Doble Inmersión con las Clases Regulares

Permiso para ser parte del estudio

Introducción
Edy A. McGee, está haciendo su doctorado en la Universidad Brigham Young. Ella está conduciendo un estudio, el propósito del mismo es de identificar y de comparar los efectos que no son académicos en los niños del programa bilingüe y las clases regulares donde se enseña Ingles. Usted ha sido seleccionado para ser entrevistado por que tiene un niño(a) en uno de los programas.

Procedimientos
Se le pedirá a su hijo(a) a participar en una entrevista por Edy McGee. La entrevista durará como unos 45 minutos. La entrevista será en persona en la escuela Timpanogos(antes o después de clase), en su casa, en la biblioteca publica o donde le sea más conveniente. Si hay que usar alguien para traducir, la entrevista podrá ser por teléfono. La entrevista tendrá 11 preguntas demográficas y 18 sobre la experiencia educacional de su hijo(a) en la escuela. La entrevista será grabada para ser transcrita después.

Riesgo o incomodidad
Hay mínimos riesgos durante la entrevista. No riesgo físico. Es posible que su hijo(a) se sienta un poco incomodo ya que habrán preguntas sobre su origen étnico. Quizás le de vergüenza compartir sus experiencias personales. Si la persona que le está entrevistando se da cuenta que no se siente cómodo con cierta pregunta, no se le pedirá que continúe respondiendo. No tiene que dar ninguna información que no quiera.

Beneficios del Estudio
No hay beneficios directos para usted. Esperamos que gracias a su participación, la persona que está haciendo el estudio aprenderá más sobre los efectos no académicos de los programas que enseñan Ingles. El estudio ayudará, ya que hay muchos niños entrando a nuestras escuelas que no hablan Ingles y a los maestros a usar las mejores maneras para enseñar. Este estudio aportará más conocimiento en este campo.

Privacidad.
El nombre de su hijo(a) no será usado en el estudio ni el reporte. El nombre de la escuela tampoco será usado. La persona que está haciendo la entrevista usará un código para el nombre de su hijo(a) y el de la escuela. Solo esa persona sabrá que ese código está relacionado con ustedes.

Compensación
No habrá ninguna compensación por participar.

Participación
Su participación es completamente opcional. Puede decir que no antes de empezar con la entrevista o durante la misma. No habrá ningún problema si usted o su hijo(a) no quiere participar. Si no quieren participar no afectará la posición de su hijo(a) en la escuela o en el programa.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Estudiando el efecto no académico en los niños que están aprendiendo Ingles: Comparando el Programa de Doble Inmersión con las Clases Regulares

Permiso para ser parte del estudio

Preguntas sobre el Estudio
Si tiene cualquier pregunta sobre el estudio, puede llamar a Edy McGee al 801-944-1675. Si prefiere puede mandar un correo electrónico edymcgee@yahoo.com.

Preguntas sobre sus Derechos como participante
Si tiene cualquier pregunta sobre sus derechos como participante puede contactarse con
BYU IRB Administrador:
Teléfono: 801-422-3841
Dirección: A-285 ASB, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602
Correo Electrónico: irb@byu.edu.

Preguntas
La entrevista tendrá 4 secciones:
1. Información demográfica
2. Autoestima
3. Auto eficiencia
4. Identidad cultural

Una copia de las preguntas viene con este permiso

Derechos de Privacidad de la Familia en la Escuela
Le doy permiso a mi hijo(a) a participar en la entrevista conducida por Edy A. McGee. Si hay la necesidad mi hijo(a) puede hablar de temas bajo el código . . . Code Ann. §53A-13-301 y §53A13-302.

Temas que posiblemente se tocarán
Bajo el código . . . Code Ann. §53A-13-301 y §53A13-302 de la Acto de Privacidad de la Familia en la Escuela, el distrito debe pedir permiso de los padres o guardián legal si la siguiente información va ser preguntada:
a. Afiliaciones políticas o filosóficas (excepto lo que cubre . . . Code §553-13-101-1 o las reglas del Consejo Educativo)
b. Problemas mentales o sicológicos
c. Comportamiento y orientación sexual
d. Comportamiento ilegal o ofensivo
e. Critica de individuos relacionados cercanamente al niño
f. Creencias religiosas
g. Privilegios legales basados en la relación con otros, como con abogados, personal medico o lideres religiosos
h. Entrada económica, a menos que sea requerida por la ley

La persona que esta entrevistando no hará preguntas directas sobre lo anterior, pero es posible ciertas respuestas pueda incluir esa información.

He leído, comprendido y he recibido una copia de este permiso. Le doy permiso a mi hijo(a) a participar voluntariamente.

____

Participante Fecha

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

APPENDIX D:
CURRENT IRB

Institutional Review Board
for Human Subjects

Brigham Young University
A-285 ASB Provo, Utah 84602
(801) 422-3841 / Fax: (801) 422-0620

December 21, 2011

Edith McGee
6905 S 1300 E #101
Midvale, UT 84047

Re: F 100049
Exploring the Non-Academic Effects of Two Educational Programs for English Language Learners: Comparing Two-Way Bilingual Education and Sheltered English

Dear Edith McGee

This is to inform you Brigham Young University's IRB has renewed its approval of the above noted research study.

The approval period is from 12-21-2011 to 1-6-2013. Your study number is F100049. Please be sure to reference either this number and/or the study title in any correspondence with the IRB.

All conditions for continued approval during the prior approval period remain in effect. These include, but are not necessarily limited to the following requirements:

A copy of the Informed Consent Document, approved as of 12-21-2011 is enclosed. No other consent form should be used. It must be signed by each subject prior to initiation of any protocol procedures. In addition, each subject must be given a copy of the signed consent form.

All protocol amendments and changes to approved research must be submitted to the IRB and not be implemented until approved by the IRB.

Sincerely,

Lane Fischer, PhD, Chair
Sandee M.P. Munoz, Administrator
Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

APPENDIX E:
ENGLISH INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Original Student Questions

Student Demographics:

1. Gender
2. Date of birth
3. Place of birth
4. First language
5. Is either of your parents bilingual? If yes, which parent? What language?
6. What is the educational level of your mother? Elementary school/high school/attended university/has a degree from a university
7. What is the educational level of your father? Elementary school/high school/attended university/has a degree from a university?
8. Does your mother work? What does she do? your father?
9. Who do you live with?
10. Have you always gone to school at this school? If not, where else have you gone to school?
11. Ethnicity is the racial or cultural group that you belong to. What ethnic group do you think you belong to?

Self-esteem

1. What kind things make you feel **good** about yourself?
2. What kind of things, if any, make you feel **not good** about yourself?
3. Do you think you are basically a valuable person? Why do you feel that way about yourself?
4. How do you feel about being bilingual? Why do you feel that way?
5. How are you treated by the English-speaking adults in your school? the English-speaking kids? How do their responses to you make you feel?
6. How are you treated by the Spanish-speaking adults in your school? the Spanish-speaking kids? How do their responses to you make you feel?

Self-efficacy

7. Compared with your classmates, do you think you are a good/poor student? Why do you think that?
8. How easy is it for you to learn in school? Do your homework? Please give me some examples.
9. Compared with your classmates, do you do things as well as most other kids? Why do you feel that way?
10. Does being bilingual help you accomplish things in school? Why do you feel that way?
11. What is your favorite subject? Why do you like it? What is your least favorite subject? Why do you dislike it?
12. How do you feel about coming to school? Why do you feel that way?

Cultural identity

13. How do you feel about your Latino/Latina heritage?
14. What language do you use at home? school? with your friends? with your family?
15. What culture do you feel most comfortable with American/Latino? Why?
16. How do you think people feel about your being able to speak two languages? Do they wish they could do it to? Why do you think they feel that way?
17. Are most of your friends English-speaking only, Spanish-speaking only, or bilingual?
18. In what way does being Latino/Latina affect your daily life?

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Student Questions for Follow-up Interview

I am going to ask you some questions about three subjects you study in school.

1. After you have had a chance to think carefully about the math, English, and Spanish classes you have had and other experiences you've had with those three subjects, I am going to ask you some questions about you as a student of those three subjects.
    a. Work habits are the things you do to make yourself successful in school. They might include listening well in class, having a positive attitude about school and learning, using time well in class, asking for help when you need it, staying with the task until it is completed, turning in your homework, etc.
    Now, please tell me what kind of work habits you use in math, English, and Spanish.
    b. Think about your **ability** in math and rate yourself on a scale of 1 (not at all good) to 5 (wonderful), where would you be? Why?
    English?
    Spanish?
    c. How well do you think you will do on the end-of-year math test? Why do you feel that way?
    English?
    d. Think about what you do outside of school that is related to math. Please tell me about it.
    English
    Spanish
    e. Please think about a time you experienced a setback (temporary defeat or slowing of progress) in math. What did you do?
    English?
    Spanish?
2. Does your school group students in math according to their math ability? If so, which group are you in?
3. Earlier you rated your ability on a scale of 1-10 to do these subjects. (Note: Not in final order—just grouped together by source of self-efficacy.)
    a. Now, please rate your confidence in doing things that require math skills. Why? English? Spanish?
    b. What do you think would make you feel more confident about yourself in math? English? Spanish?
4. Think about yourself and all your classmates in these three subjects.
    a. Math
        i. How would you compare your ability with theirs?
        ii. Is your ability higher, lower or about the same? Why do you feel that way?
        iii. Now compare yourself with all the other students in your grade. Is your ability higher, lower or about the same? Why do you feel that way?
    b. English
        i. How would you compare your ability with theirs?
        ii. Is your ability higher, lower or about the same? Why do you feel that way?
        iii. Now compare yourself with all the other students in your grade. Is your ability higher, lower or about the same? Why do you feel that way?
    c. Spanish
        i. How would you compare your ability with theirs?
        ii. Is your ability higher, lower or about the same? Why do you feel that way?
        iii. Now compare yourself with all the other students in your grade. Is your ability higher, lower or about the same? Why do you feel that way?
5. Let's talk about your family and these subjects.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

   a. What things do your parents do that involve using math? English? Spanish
   b. What things do your brothers and sisters do that involve using math? English? Spanish?
   c. What do your parents tell you about math? English? Spanish
   d. What kind of students are your brothers and sisters in math? English? Spanish?
   e. What do you think your parents would tell your teachers about you as math student? Why? English? Spanish?
6. Now we're going to talk about your friends and these subjects.
   a. How do your friends (not just the kids in your class) do in math? English? Spanish?
   b. What do they say about math? What do they say about kids who do well in that subject? English?
      Spanish
   c. How do you think your friends would describe you in math?
7. Think about people you really like or admire. Do you think they would be good at math? Why? English? Spanish?
8. Now, let's talk about your teachers in these subjects.
   a. Math
      i. What have your teachers told you about how well you do in math?
      ii. What do you think your teachers tell your parents about your ability in math?
      iii. How does the teacher you have now make you feel about your ability in math
      iv. Please think about the best math teacher you've ever had. What made him/her so good?
      v. What could your teachers do to help you feel more confident in your math abilities?
   b. English
      i. What have your teachers told you about how well you do in English?
      ii. What do you think your teachers tell your parents about your ability in English?
      iii. How does the teacher you have now make you feel about your ability in English
      iv. Please think about the best English teacher you've ever had. What made him/her so good?
      v. What could your teachers do to help you feel more confident in your English abilities?
   c. Spanish
      i. What have your teachers told you about how well you do in Spanish?
      ii. What do you think your teachers tell your parents about your ability in Spanish?
      iii. How does the teacher you have now make you feel about your ability in Spanish
      iv. Please think about the best Spanish teacher you've ever had. What made him/her so good?
      v. What could your teachers do to help you feel more confident in your Spanish abilities?
9. Have you ever been recognized for doing good work in math? Explain, please. English? Spanish?
10. Think about doing school work.
    a. What conditions do you need in order to do your best in math? Why? English? Spanish?
    b. Under shat conditions do you perform less well in math? Why? English? Spanish?
11. Let's talk about how working with these subjects makes you feel.
    a. When you have to take a math test, how does that make you feel? English? Spanish?
    b. How do you feel when you are given math assignments? English? Spanish?
12. Please rate how you feel on a scale of 1 (terrible) to 5 (excited, happy) when you have to do math. Why did you give yourself that number? English? Spanish?

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

Original Parent Questions

Parents Demographics:

1. Date of birth
2. Gender
3. Place of birth
4. First language
5. Language you speak most often. Language your spouse speaks most often.
6. What is the your educational level? Elementary school/high school/attended university/have a degree from a university
7. What is the educational level of your spouse? Elementary school/high school/attended university/have a degree from a university?
8. What kind of work do you do? Your spouse?
9. How did you learn English? How do you feel about your ability to speak English?

Parental Attitudes

1. Are you aware of your child's being in a language program to help him/her with his/her English-language needs?

   If the answer to Question #1 is <u>yes</u> or <u>bilingual</u>, proceed with the following questions:
2. What language program is your child in?
3. Did you select the program your child is in? If yes, why did you select this program? If yes, why do you feel this program is the best choice for your child?
4. What is your opinion about your child's language program? Why do you feel that way?
5. Do you think your child's language program has impacted the relationships he/she has with his/her family (including grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins)? give examples of how the program has impacted these relationships?
6. Do you think your child's language program has impacted the relationships he/she has with his/her peers? If yes, please give examples of how the program has impacted these relationships?
7. In your opinion, what role should a student's native language play in education? Does using the first language promote or hinder a student's gaining an education? Why do you think that? Has the fact that your child has been in a language program affected your opinion?
8. In your opinion, do you think that children should be able to read and write in their first language? Why/Why not? Has the fact that your child has been in a language program affected your opinion?
9. In your opinion, how long does it take for a student to become fluent in a second language so that he/she can participate fully in academic classes? Has the fact that your child has been in a language program affected your opinion?
10. In your opinion, do you believe that bilingual children are accepted in American society? American schools? Why/why not?
11. In your opinion, do you think being able to speak two languages helps your child's self-esteem? cultural identity? self-efficacy? Has the fact that your child has been in a language program affected your opinion?
12. How is your child treated by the English-speaking adults in school? children?
13. How is your child treated by the Spanish-speaking adults in school? children?
14. Do teachers at your child's school have the same expectations for all students in the school? If yes, what are those expectations? If no, how are the expectations different?

    If the answer to Question #1 is <u>no</u>, proceed with the following questions:

2. In your opinion, what role should a student's native language play in education? Does using the first language promote or hinder a student's gaining an education? Why do you think that?
3. In your opinion, do you think that children should be able to read and write in their first language? Why/Why not?

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com

4. In your opinion, how long does it take for a student to become fluent in a second language so that he/she can participate fully in academic classes?
5. In your opinion, do you believe that bilingual children are accepted in American society? American schools? Why/why not?
6. In your opinion, do you think being able to speak two languages helps your child's self-esteem? cultural identity? self-efficacy?
7. How is your child treated by the English-speaking adults in school? children?
8. How is your child treated by the Spanish-speaking adults in school? children?
9. Do teachers at your child's school have the same expectations for all students in the school? If yes, what are those expectations? If no, how are the expectations different?

Parent Questions for Follow-up Interview

1. Elementary English Language-Learning Program. Now that your child has been in middle school for at least part of a year, please reflect on the English language-learning program he/she was in during elementary school (regular or bilingual).
    a. Do you feel that your child's English language-learning program prepared your child to meet the language demands of middle school? Why do you feel that way?
    b. In what ways has your child been successful meeting the language demands of middle school?
    c. In what ways has your child struggled meeting the language demands of middle school?
    d. Knowing what you know now about your child and how he/she achieved during his/her elementary years and how he/she is achieving in middle school, would you change anything about the language-learning program your child was in during elementary school? Why do you feel that way?
2. Spanish.
    a. On a scale from 1-5 with 5 being very important and 1 not important at all, please indicate how important it is to you that your child be fully bilingual (meaning that he/she can function at grade level in any academic subject in both languages) in English and Spanish. Why do you feel that way?
    b. On a scale from 1-5 with 5 being completely fluent and 1 not fluent at all, please indicate how fluent you think your child is in Spanish? Why do you feel that way?
    c. Do you feel that your child's elementary experience has anything to do with his/her fluency in Spanish? Why do you feel that way?
3. Parental Influence.
    a. How important is it that your child does well in school? Why?
    b. Do you feel that you promote academic achievement in your child? Why do you feel that way?
    c. Do your feelings about your child's academic achievement impact how he/she actually performs in school? Why do you feel that way?
    d. As a parent, do you feel that you are important in your child's academic achievement and accomplishments? Why?
    e. What are some of the things that you do to encourage math, English, and Spanish?
        i. Do you have activities that involve English skills in your home, e.g., reading, language puzzles, etc. Please describe them.
        ii. Do you have activities that involve Spanish skills in your home, e.g., reading, language puzzles, etc. Please describe them.
        iii. Do you have activities that involve math skills in your home, e.g., math puzzles, games, etc. Please describe them.

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

4. Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy is a person's belief in his/her ability to be successful in certain situations. For instance, if a person thinks he/she can be successful in school, e.g., get good grades, earn credit toward high school graduation, write or read well, we say that he/she has high academic or school self-efficacy. If, on the other hand, a person doesn't think he/she will be very successful in school, we say he/she has low academic or school self-efficacy. Do you think it is important for a student to have high self-efficacy to succeed in English, Spanish, and math? Why do you feel that way?

5. Child's Self-Efficacy. Try to answer the next few questions from your child's point of view.
    a. On a scale of 1 to 5 with 5 being very high self-efficacy and 1 being very low self-efficacy, where do you think your child would place him/herself in the area of Spanish language self-efficacy? Why do you feel that way?
    b. On a scale of 1 to 5 with 5 being very high self-efficacy and 1 being very low self-efficacy, where do you think your child would place him/herself in the area of English language self-efficacy? Why do you feel that way?
    c. On a scale of 1 to 5 with 5 being very high self-efficacy and 1 being very low self-efficacy, where do you think your child would place him/herself in the area of math self-efficacy? Why do you feel that way?
6. Is there anything else you'd like to tell me about your child's academic performance, his/her school experience, etc?

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

APPENDIX F: SPANISH TRANSLATION OF INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Original Student Interview

Demográfico del estudiante:
1. Género
2. Fecha del nacimiento
3. Lugar de nacimiento
4. Lengua materna
5. ¿Es uno de los padres bilingüe? ¿Si, cual Padre? ¿Qué idioma?
6. ¿Cual es el nivel de educación de la madre? El escuela de enseñanza primaria/instituto asistió universidad/ah un grado de una universidad
7. ¿Cual es el nivel educativo del padre? ¿El escuela primaria/preparatoria/ asistio a la universidad/ tiene un grado de la universidad?
8. ¿Trabaja la madre? ¿Qué hace ella? ¿Su padre?
9. ¿Con quién vive usted?
10. ¿Siempre ha ido usted a la escuela y en esta escuela? ¿Si no, donde ha ido a la escuela?
11. La ètnicidad es el grupo racial o cultural que usted pertenece. ¿A qué ètnicidad piensa usted que pertenece?

Autoestima
1. ¿Qué es lo que le hace sentir bien acerca de usted mismo?
2. ¿Qué clase de cosas, si cualquiera, le hace sentir buien acerca de usted mismo?
3. ¿Piensa usted que usted es básicamente una persona valiosa? ¿Por qué se siente usted así acerca de si misma?
4. ¿Cómo se siente usted de ser bilingüe? ¿Por qué se siente así?
5. ¿Cómo es tratado por los adultos de habla Inglès en su escuela? ¿Los niños de habla Inglès? ¿Cómo sus respuestas le hacen sentir a usted ?
6. ¿Cómo es tratado por los adultos de habla hispana en su escuela? ¿Los niños de habla hispana? ¿Cómo sus respuestas le hacen sentir a usted?

Auto-eficiencia
7. ¿Comparado con sus compañeros de clase, piensa usted que usted es un estudiante bueno/insatisfactorio? ¿Por qué piensa usted eso?
8. ¿Que fácil es para usted aprender en la escuela? ¿Hace sus deberes? Deme por favor algunos ejemplos.
9. ¿Comparado con sus compañeros de clase, hace usted cosas así como la mayoría de los otras niños? ¿Por qué se siente usted así?
10. ¿Hace es ayuda bilingüe que usted logra cosas en la escuela? ¿Por qué se siente usted así?
11. ¿Qué es su sujeto predilecto? ¿Por qué lo quiere usted? ¿Qué es su sujeto menos predilecto? ¿Por qué tiene usted aversión a ello?
12. ¿Cómo se siente usted acerca de la venida para educar? ¿Por qué se siente usted así?

La identidad cultural
13. ¿Cómo se siente usted acerca de su herencia de latino/latina?
14. ¿Qué idioma utiliza usted en casa? la escuela? con sus amigos? con su familia?
15. ¿Qué cultura se siente usted más cómodo con norteamericano/latino? ¿Por qué?
16. ¿Cómo piensa usted que personas se sienten acerca de su puede hablar dos idiomas? ¿Desean ellos que ellos lo podrían hacer? ¿Por qué piensa usted que ellos se sienten así?
17. ¿Es la mayor parte de su amigos Anglófono único, Hispanohablante sólo, o bilingüe?

www.manaraa.com

18. ¿En qué manera hace es latina/latino afecta su vida cotidiana?

Original Parent Interview

Datos Demográficos del Padre o Madre:
1. Género
2. Fecha del nacimiento
3. Lugar de nacimiento
4. Lengua natal
5. Lengua más hablada. Lengua que su esposo(a) habla más a menudo
6. ¿Cuál es su nivel de académico? Escuela primaria / preparatoria, asistió a la universidad / título universitario
7. ¿Cuál es el nivel académico de tu padre? Escuela primaria / preparatoria, asistió a la universidad / título universitario
8. ¿En qué trabaja? ¿En qué trabaja su esposo(a)?
9. ¿Cómo aprendió en Ingles? ¿Cómo se siente con su habilidad para hablar el Ingles?

Actitudes como Padres
1. ¿Sabe que su hijo(a) está en un programa especial para ayudarle con sus necesidades en el aprendizaje del Ingles?
   Si la respuesta a la pregunta #1 es <u>sí</u> o <u>programa bilingüe,</u> continúe con las siguientes preguntas:
2. ¿En cuál programa está su hijo(a)?
3. ¿Seleccionó el programa donde está su hijo(a)? Si la respuesta es sí, ¿Por qué seleccionó ese programa? Si la respuesta es sí, ¿Por qué piensa que el programa es lo mejor para su hijo(a)?
4. ¿Cuál es su opinión del programa? ¿Por qué piensa así?
5. ¿Piensa que el programa ha influenciado la relación del niño(a) con sus familiares (incluyendo abuelos, tíos, primos)? ¿Puede dar unos ejemplos de cómo ha influenciado?
6. ¿Piensa que el programa ha influenciado la relación del niño(a) con sus amigos? Si la respuesta es sí, ¿Puede dar unos ejemplos de cómo ha influenciado?
7. En su opinión, ¿Qué papel juega el idioma natal de un estudiante en su educación? El uso del idioma natal ayuda o hace difícil el aprendizaje. ¿Por qué piensa eso? ¿El hecho de que su hijo(a) está en un programa bilingüe ha influenciado su opinión?
8. En su opinión, ¿Piensa que un niño(a) debe saber leer y escribir en su idioma natal? ¿Por qué si o por qué no?¿El hecho de que su hijo(a) está en un programa bilingüe influenciado su opinión?
9. En su opinión, ¿Cuánto tiempo cree usted que se tarda un niño en llegar a tener suficiente fluidez en el segundo idioma para poder participar en la escuela académicamente? ¿El hecho de que su hijo(a) está en un programa bilingüe ha influenciado su opinión?
10. En su opinión, ¿Piensa que los estudiantes bilingües son aceptados en la sociedad norteamericana? ¿en las escuelas norteamericanas? ¿Por qué si / no?
11. En su opinión, ¿Piensa que el hecho que su hijo(a) es bilingüe ayuda en su auto estima, en su identidad cultural y en su auto eficiencia? ¿El hecho de que su hijo(a) está en un programa bilingüe ha influenciado su opinión?
12. ¿Cómo tratan los adultos que hablan Inglés en la escuela a su hijo(a)? ¿Y los niños?
13. ¿Cómo tratan los adultos que hablan Español en la escuela a su hijo(a)? ¿Y los niños?
14. ¿Los maestros en la escuela de su hijo(a) esperan lo mismo de todos los estudiantes en clase? Si la respuesta es sí, ¿Qué cosas esperan de todos los estudiantes? Si la respuesta es no, ¿Cuáles cosas esperan que son diferentes?

Si la respuesta a la pregunta #1 es <u>no,</u> continúe con las siguientes preguntas:
2. En su opinión, ¿Qué papel juega el idioma natal de un estudiante en su educación? El uso del idioma natal ayuda o hace difícil el aprendizaje. ¿Por qué piensa eso?
3. En su opinión, ¿Piensa que un niño(a) debe saber leer y escribir en su idioma natal? ¿Por qué si o por

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

qué no?
4. En su opinión, ¿Cuánto tiempo cree usted que se tarda un niño en llegar a tener suficiente fluidez en el segundo idioma para poder participar en la escuela académicamente?
5. En su opinión, ¿Piensa que los estudiantes bilingües son aceptados en la sociedad norteamericana? ¿en las escuelas norteamericanas? ¿Por qué si / no?
6. En su opinión, ¿Piensa que el hecho que su hijo(a) es bilingüe ayuda en su auto estima, en su identidad cultural y en su auto eficiencia?
7. ¿Cómo tratan los adultos que hablan Inglés en su escuela a su hijo(a)? ¿Y los niños?
8. ¿Cómo tratan los adultos que hablan Español en su escuela a su hijo(a)? ¿Y los niños?
9. ¿Los maestros en la escuela de su hijo(a) esperan lo mismo de todos los estudiantes en clase? Si la respuesta es sí, ¿Qué cosas esperan de todos los estudiantes? Si la respuesta es no, ¿Cuáles cosas esperan que son diferentes?

Parent Questions for Follow-up Interview

Actitudes de los Padres

1.- El Programa aprendizaje del idioma Ingles en la escuela primaria.

Ahora que su hijo/a esta asistiendo a la escuela secundaria durante este año, por favor reflexione acerca del aprendizaje que su hijo(a) adquirió en el idioma Inglés cuando cursaba la primaria ya sea en el programa regular o bilingüe.

a). Usted siente que el programa de aprendizaje del idioma Ingles preparo a sus hijos a alcanzar el nivel de lenguaje necesario para la escuela secundaria? Porque usted piensa o siente de esta forma?

b). Que logros ha obtenido su hijo(a) por tener el nivel de ingles que se utiliza en la escuela secundaria?

c). Cuáles han sido los mayores problemas que su hijo(a) ha tenido por alcanzar el nivel de ingles necesario en la escuela secundaria?

d). Conociendo ahora lo que usted sabe de sus hijos, así como de sus logros en la escuela primaria y de sus logros en la secundaria hasta este momento, le hubiera gustado cambiar algo en el programa de aprendizaje del idioma Ingles mientras su hijo(a) asistía a la escuela primaria? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

2.- Español.

a). En la escala del 1 al 5, siendo el 5 el más importante y el 1 menos importante. Por favor indique, en la escala del 1-5, que tan importante es para usted que su hijo(a) sea completamente bilingüe. Esto quiere decir que su hijo(a) pueda entender y expresarse sin problemas en cualquier tema académico en ambos idiomas Ingles y Español en cualquier nivel. Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

b). En la escala del 1 al 5, siendo el 5 completamente fluido y el 1 no tan fluido. Por favor indique, en la escala 1-5, para usted como padre o madre, que tan fluido habla su hijo en Español? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

c). Cree usted que la experiencia en la escuela primaria de su hijo(a) afecto de alguna manera su fluidez al hablar Español ? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

3.- Influencia de los Padres.

a). Que tan importante es para usted que su hijo tenga buenas calificaciones en la escuela? Y porque?

b). Usted se siente promotor de los logros académicos de su hijo(a)? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

c). Cuáles son sus sentimientos acerca del impacto en su hijo(a) al obtener logros académicos que actualmente realiza en la escuela? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

d). Como padre o madre, se considera parte importante de los logros académicos y del rendimiento escolar de su hijo(a)? Y porque?

المنارة للاستشارات
www.manaraa.com

e). Cuál de las siguientes actividades usted aplica con su hijo(a) para animarlo o alentarlo en el estudio de las matemáticas, el idioma Ingles y el idioma Español:

l.- Tiene actividades en su casa que ayuden a desarrollar habilidades del idioma Ingles? Por ejemplo, la lectura en Ingles, rompecabezas de idiomas, juego de memoria en Ingles, etc. Por favor descríbalos.

ll.- Tiene actividades en su casa que ayuden a desarrollar habilidades del idioma Español? Por ejemplo, la lectura en Español, rompecabezas de idiomas, juego de memoria en Español, etc. Por favor descríbalos.

lll.- Tiene actividades en su casa que ayuden a desarrollar habilidades en matemáticas? Por ejemplo, rompecabezas, juegos, etc. Por favor descríbalos.

4.- Auto eficacia.

Una persona auto eficaz es aquella que confía en sus habilidades para tener éxito en ciertas situaciones, y piensa que por sus propias habilidades puede tener éxito en la escuela; obteniendo por si misma buenas calificaciones, o ganando créditos para graduarse de la secundaria, o leyendo o escribiendo muy bien; de esta manera se describe a una persona que tiene un alto nivel académico o con un alto nivel de auto eficacia escolar. Si, por el contrario, una persona cree que no puede ser muy exitosa por sí misma en la escuela, podemos decir que esta persona tiene un bajo nivel académico o un bajo nivel de auto eficacia escolar.

a). Cree usted que para un estudiante es muy importante tener un nivel alto de auto eficacia para ser exitoso en Ingles, Español; y matemáticas? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

5.- Auto eficacia del niño(a).

Trate de responder a las siguientes preguntas desde el punto de vista de sus hijo(a).

a). En la escala del 1 al 5, siendo el 5 un alto nivel de auto eficacia y el 1 un bajo nivel de auto eficacia. Donde cree usted que su hijo(a) podría colocarse por sí mismo, en auto eficacia del idioma Español? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

b). En la escala del 1 al 5, siendo el 5 un alto nivel de auto eficacia y el 1 un bajo nivel de auto eficacia. Donde cree usted que su hijo(a) podría colocarse por sí mismo, en auto eficacia del idioma Ingles? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

c). En la escala del 1 al 5, siendo el 5 un alto nivel de auto eficacia y el 1 un bajo nivel de auto eficacia. Donde cree usted que su hijo(a) podría colocarse por sí mismo, en auto eficacia en matemáticas? Porque piensa o siente de esta manera?

6.- Hay algo más que usted quiera decir o compartir acerca del rendimiento escolar de su hijo(a) o de la experiencia escolar que usted o sus hijos tengan o hayan tenido.etc?

المنارة للاستشارات

www.manaraa.com